Cache Design 2

CS/COE 1541 (Fall 2020) Wonsun Ahn



Cache Design Parameter 5: Write-Through vs. Write-Back



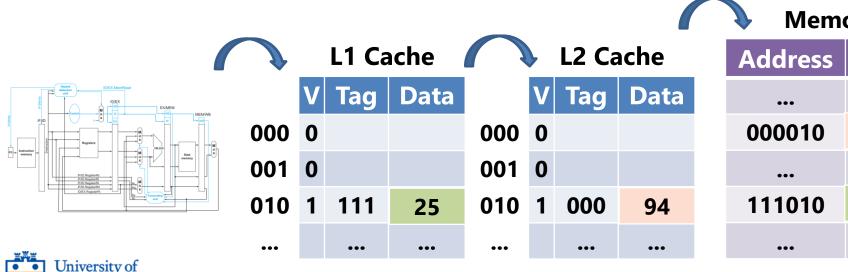
Writes and Cache Consistency

- Assume &x is 111010_2 , and x = 24 initially Tag Data t0, &x 000 0 addi t0, t0, 1 001 0 # X++ 111 25 010 t0, &x SW 011 0 • How will the w change the cache? How will the sw change the cache? 100 0 Uh oh, now the cache is inconsistent. 101 0 (Memory still has the old value 24.) 110 0 111 0
- How can we solve this? Two policies:
 - Write-through: Propagate write all the way through memory
 - o Write-back: Write back cache block when it is evicted from cache



Policy 1: Write-through

- Write-through:
 - If write hit, update cache block in current cache
 - Propagate write to lower memory to update it as well
- What happens if we write 25 to address 111010₂?
- What happens if we write **94** to address **000010**₂?
- Caches are kept consistent at all points of time!

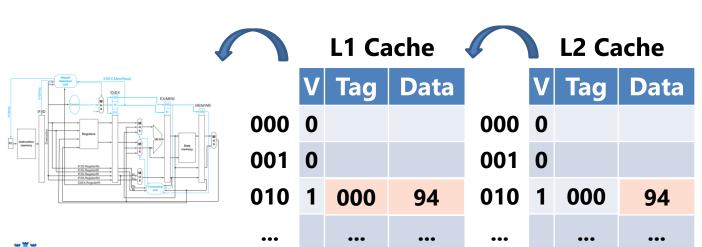


Memory

Address	Data
•••	•••
000010	94
•••	•••
111010	25
•••	•••

Write-through: Reads

- What happens if we read from address 000010₂?
 - We can just discard the conflicting cache block 111010₂
 - It's just an extra copy of the same data
- Note how we allocate lines only on reads
 - We do not allocate lines on writes
 - This policy is called no write allocate



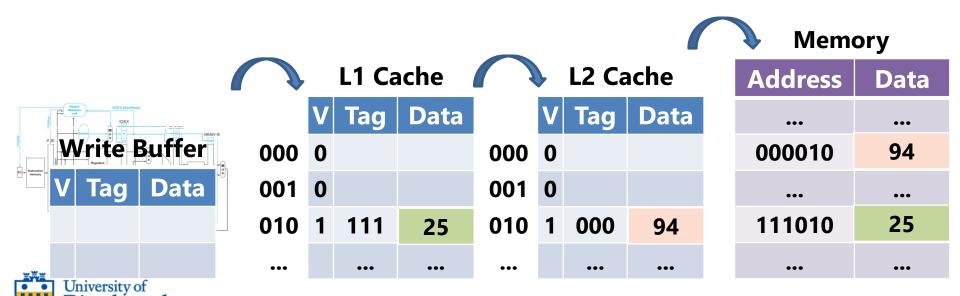
Memory

Address	Data
•••	•••
000010	94
•••	•••
111010	25
•••	•••



Write-through: Drawbacks

- Drawback: Long write delays regardless of hit or miss
 - Must propagate write all the way to DRAM memory regardless
- Solution: Write buffer maintaining pending writes
 - o CPU gets on with work after moving pending write to write buffer
 - o But does the write buffer solve all problems?



Write-through: Drawbacks

- The write buffer does not solve all problems.
- 1. Write buffer must be **very big** to store all pending writes
 - May take more than 100 cycles for write to propagate to memory
 - \circ Write buffer is always be checked before L1\$ \rightarrow adds to **hit time**
- 2. Write buffer does not solve **bandwidth** problems
 - If memory bandwidth < rate of writes in program, write buffer will fill up quickly, no matter how big it is
- Impractical to write-through all the way to memory
 - Typically only L1 caches are write-through, if any
- We need another strategy that is not so bandwidth-intensive

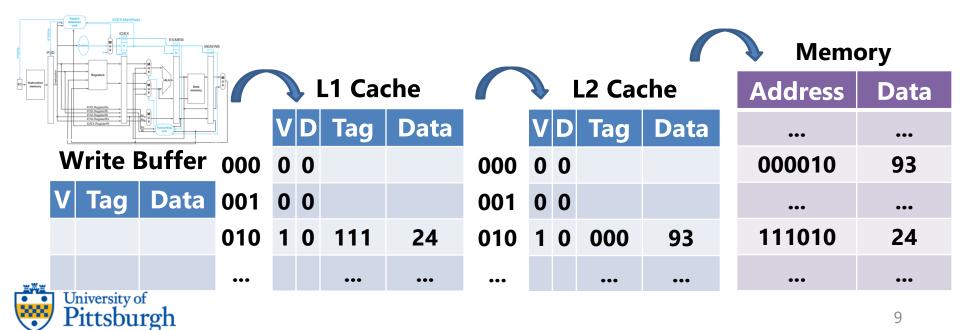


- Write-back:
 - Dirty block: a block that is temporarily inconsistent with memory
 - Update cache block in current cache only, marking it dirty
 - Write back dirty block to memory when it is evicted from cache
- A dirty bit is added to the cache block metadata (marked "D")
 - Block 000001₂ is clean because it is consistent with memory
 - Block 111010₂ is dirty because it is inconsistent with memory

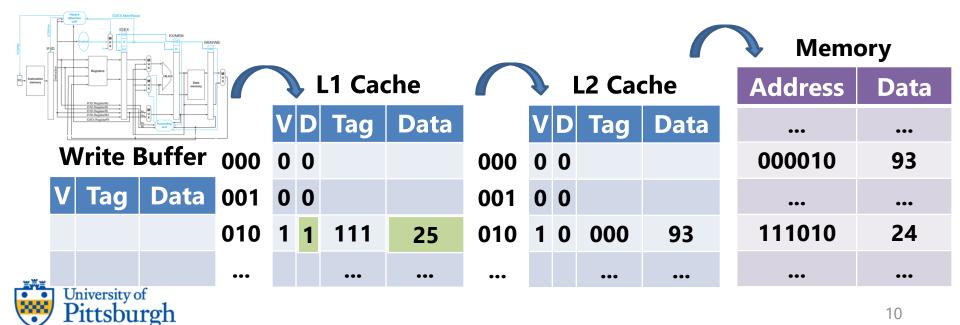
Mamary

						IVICIII	oi y
			Cach	e		Address	Data
	V	D	Tag	Data		•••	•••
000	0	0			consistent	000001	93
001	0	0	000	93			•••
010	1	1	111	25	inconsistent	111010	24
•••			•••	•••		111010	4 7
						•••	•••

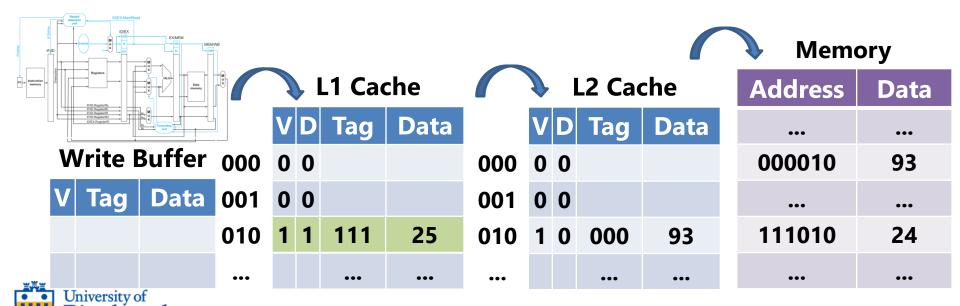
• What happens if we write **25** to address **111010**₂?



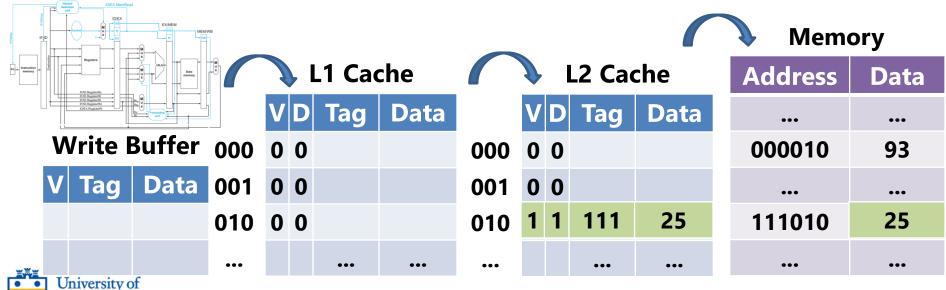
- What happens if we write **25** to address **111010**₂?
 - Hit! Update cache block and mark it dirty.



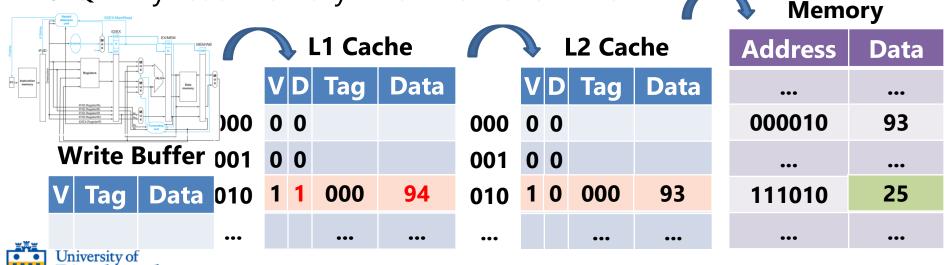
- What happens if we write 25 to address 111010₂?
 - Hit! Update cache block and mark it dirty.
- What happens if we write **94** to address **000010**₂?
 - L1 Miss! Before bringing in 94, must evict and write-back 25
 (Note: can just overwrite L2 cache block since it's not dirty)



- What happens if we write **25** to address **111010**₂?
 - Hit! Update cache block and mark it dirty.
- What happens if we write 94 to address 000010₂?
 - L1 Miss! Before bringing in 94, must evict and write-back 25
 (Note: can just overwrite L2 cache block since it's not dirty)
 - L2 Miss! Must evict and write-back 25 again to make space for 94



- What happens if we write **94** to address **000010**₂? (cont'd)
 - Now we have allocated the spaces for 94, bring the block in!
 - And then, update the block and mark it dirty.
- Note how we also allocate blocks for writes on a write miss
 - This policy is called write allocate
 - Implication: still reads memory on write misses (but not hits)
 - O Q: Why read memory when we'll overwrite it?



Write-back: Write allocate

- On a write miss, a cache block is always allocated in current cache
- That cache block must always be read in from lower memory
 - Before subsequently updating it with the write
 - O Why the wasted effort?
- Because a block is multiple bytes, and you are updating just a few
 - Suppose a cache block is 8 bytes and you are writing to only 4

V	D	Tag	Data	
1	1		Upper 4 bytes (Not updated)	Lower 4 bytes (Updated)

- o After allocate, the entire cache block is marked valid
 - Upper 4 bytes must be filled with valid data (from memory).
 - Unavoidable, unless you have a valid bit for each byte
 (That means spending 1 bit for every 8 bits of data. Not done.)



Write-though vs. Write-back

- Advantages of write-through caches
 - Simpler to implement
 - Don't have to deal with block allocation on write misses
 - Don't have to deal with write-backs on block eviction
- Advantages of write-back caches
 - Lower bandwidth requirements
 - Lower memory accessed only on cache misses
 (Unlike write-though which propagates all writes to memory)
 - Cache misses are typically a small percentage of all accesses
- L1 caches are sometimes write-through for simplicity
 - Plenty of bandwidth within chip to support this
- Last-level caches are almost always write-back
 - Long latency and low bandwidth to DRAM prohibits write-through



Cache Design Parameter 6: Unified vs. Split



Problem with Split Caches

- If cache is split into two (i-cache and d-cache)
 - Space cannot be flexibly allocated between data and code

If our working If our working set looks like set looks like Code this – say, in a this – say, in a **I-Cache** large function small loop Code that's accessing that's only a large array – using stack variables – then then we run out of data we run out of **Data** code space. space. **D-Cache Data**



Impact of Unifying Cache

- The answer to the problem is to simply unify the cache into one
- AMAT = hit time + (miss rate × miss penalty)
- Impact of unifying cache on miss rate:
 - Smaller miss rate due to more flexible use of space
- Impact of unifying cache on hit time:
 - Potentially longer hit time due to structural hazard
 - With split caches, i-cache and d-cache can be accessed simultaneously
 - With unified cache, access request must wait until port is available
- L1 cache is almost always split
 - o Frequent accesses directly from pipeline trigger structural hazard often
- Lower level caches are almost always unified
 - Accesses are infrequent (filtered by L1), so structural hazards are rare

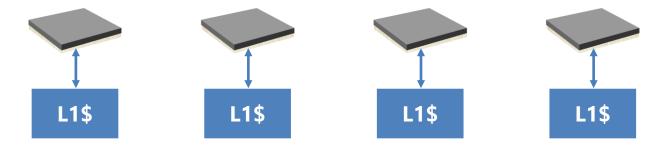


Cache Design Parameter 7: Private vs. Shared



Private vs. Shared Cache

- On a multi-core system, there are two ways to organize the cache
- **Private** caches: each core (processor) uses its own cache



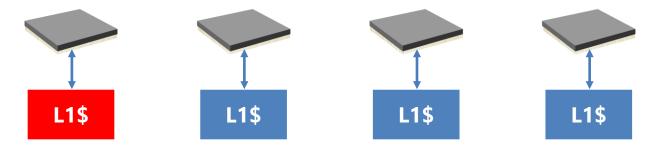
• Shared cache: all the cores share one big cache





Shared Cache can Use Space More Flexibly

- Suppose only 1st core is active and other cores are idle
 How much cache space is available to 1st core? (Shown in red)
- **Private** caches: 1st core can only use its own private cache



• **Shared** cache: 1st core can use entire shared cache!



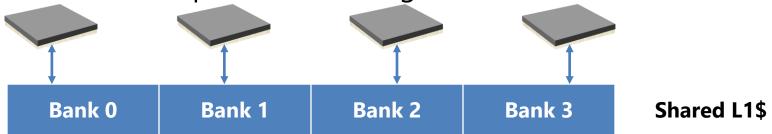


Banking: Solution to Structural Hazards

- Now what if all the cores are active at the same time?
 - Won't that cause structural hazards due to simultaneous access?



Could add more ports, but adding banks is more cost effective

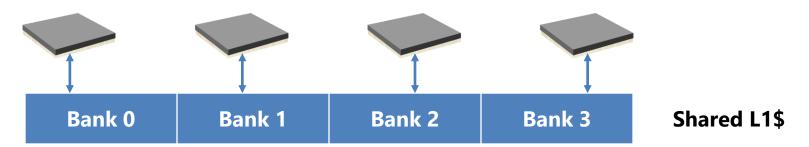


- Each bank has its own read / write port
- As long as two cores do not access same bank, no hazard!



Banking: Solution to Structural Hazards

• Cache blocks are **interleaved** between banks

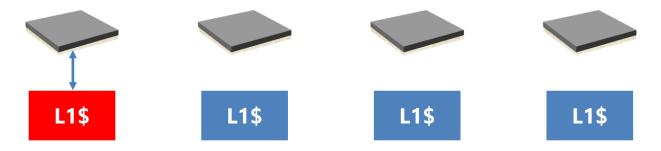


- \circ Blocks 0, 4, 8 ... \rightarrow Bank 0
- \circ Blocks 1, 5, 9 ... \rightarrow Bank 1
- Blocks 2, 6, 10 ... → Bank 2
- Blocks 3, 7, 11 ... → Bank 3
- That way, blocks are evenly distributed across banks
 - Causes cache accesses to also be distributed → less hazards

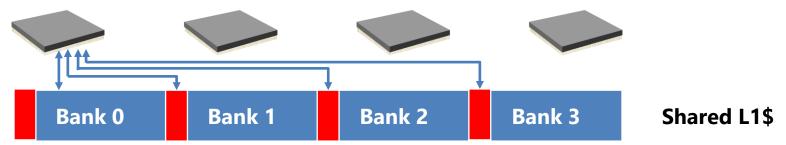


Shared Cache have Longer Access Times

- Again, suppose only 1st core is active and other cores are idle
 The working set data is shown in red
- **Private** caches: entire working set data in nearby private cache



• Shared cache: data sometimes distributed to remote banks





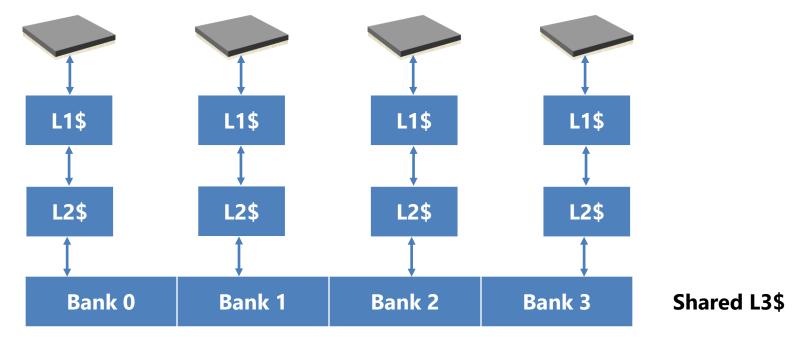
Impact of Shared Cache

- AMAT = hit time + (miss rate × miss penalty)
- Impact of shared cache on miss rate:
 - Smaller miss rate due to more flexible use of space
- Impact of shared cache on hit time:
 - Longer hit time due to sometimes having to access remote banks
- L1 cache is almost always private
 - Hit time is important for L1. Cannot afford access to remote banks
- L3 (last level) caches are almost always shared
 - Reducing miss rate is top priority to avoid DRAM access



Cache Organization of Broadwell CPU

• This is the cache organization of Broadwell used in our Linux server





Cache Design Parameter 8: Prefetching



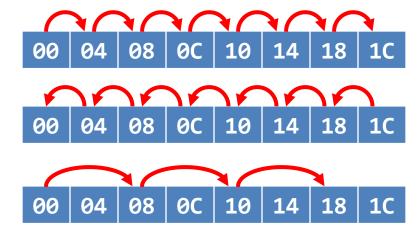
Prefetching

- Prefetching: fetching data that is expected to be needed soon
 - Allows you to hide the latency of fetching that data
 - o E.g. Web browsers prefetch resources from not-yet-clicked links
 - → when user later clicks on link, response is almost instantaneous
 - o Caches also prefetch data that is expected to be used soon
 - Can be used to avoid even cold misses
- Two ways prefetching can happen:
 - o Compiler-driven: compiler emits prefetch instructions
 - Can manually insert one in C program: __builtin_prefetch(addr)
 - Or rely on compiler to insert them using heuristics
 - Hardware-driven: CPU emits prefetches dynamically
 - Relies on CPU to detect a pattern in memory accesses



Hardware Prefetching

- What do you notice about both these snippets of code?
- They both access memory **sequentially.** for(i = 0 .. 100000)
 - The first one data, the next instructions.
 A[i]++;
- These kinds of access patterns are very common.



Sequential

Reverse sequential

Strided sequential (think "accessing one field from each item in an array of structs")



04 **lw**

08 lw 0C addi

10 sub

14 mul 18 sw

10 SW

20 614

20 SW

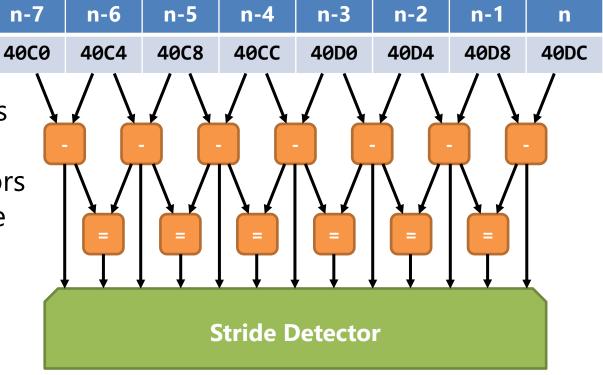


Hardware Prefetching Stride Detection

- What kinds of things would you need?
- A table of the last *n* memory accesses would be a good start.

•	Then some subtractors
	to calculate the stride

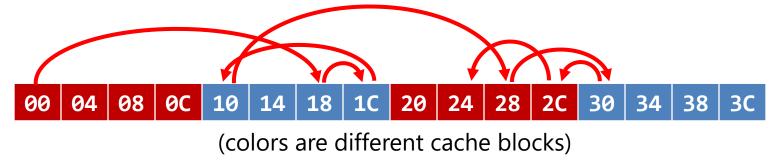
- Then some comparators to see if strides are the same
- Then some logic to figure it all out





Where Hardware Prefetching Doesn't Work

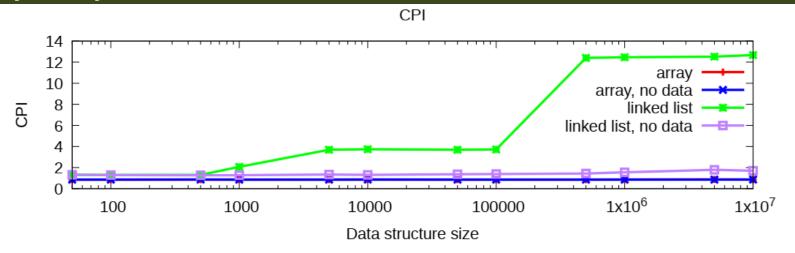
- Strided sequential accesses are where prefetcher works best
 - o E.g. Iterating over elements of an array
- Some accesses don't have a pattern or is too complex to detect
 - At below is how a typical linked-list traversal looks like



- Other pointer-chasing data structures (graphs, trees) look similar
- Can only rely on spatial locality to avoid cold misses



Mystery Solved



- How come Array performed well for even an array 1.28 GB large?
 - No spatial locality since each node takes up two 64-byte cache blocks
 - No temporal locality since working set of 1.28 GB exceeds any cache
- The answer is: Array had the benefit of a strided **prefetcher**!
 - Access pattern of Linked List was too complex for prefetcher to detect



Impact of Prefetching

- Prefetcher runs in parallel with the rest of the cache hardware
 - Does not slow down any on-demand reads or writes
- What if prefetcher is wrong? It can be wrong in two ways:
 - o It fetched a block that was never going to be used
 - o It fetched a useful block but fetched it too soon or too late
 - Too soon: the block gets evicted before it can be used
 - Too late: the prefetch doesn't happen in time for the access
- A wrong prefetch results in cache pollution
 - Unused data is fetched, potentially pushing out other useful data

