Cache Design

CS/COE 1541 (Fall 2020)

Wonsun Ahn

University of Pittsburgh

Impact of Memory on Performance

- **CPU Cycles = CPU Execution Cycles + Memory Stall Cycles**
  - CPU Execution Cycles = cycles where CPU is doing useful work
  - Memory Stall Cycles = cycles where CPU is waiting on cache miss
    - Same memory stall cycles we measured using the PMU

- Processor design features that impact CPU execution cycles:
  - Pipelining, branch prediction, wide execution, out-of-order, …

- Processor design features that impact Memory stall cycles:
  - Caches
  - Write buffer
  - Prefetcher (we haven't learned this yet)

Impact of Memory on Performance

- CPU Cycles = CPU Execution Cycles + Memory Stall Cycles

- This gives rise to two categories of programs
  - **CPU Bound**: Programs where CPU execution is majority of cycles
  - **Memory Bound**: Programs where Mem stalls is majority of cycles

- To improve performance of **CPU Bound** programs
  - Improve HW by getting **wider superscalar CPUs**
  - Improve SW by **optimizing the computation** in the program

- To improve performance of **Memory Bound** programs
  - Improve HW installing more CPU **caches** or faster DRAM
  - Improve SW by **optimizing memory access pattern** of program
  - We already saw how array.c is much faster than linked-list.c

How about overclocking using DVFS?

- CPU Time = CPU Cycles * Cycle Time
  = (CPU Execution Cycles + Memory Stall Cycles) * Cycle Time

- What if we halved the Cycle Time using DVFS?
  - Memory Stall Cycles could increase by close to 2X!
  - Why? You may speed up CPU, but DRAM speed remains the same
    - The bus (wire) that connects CPU to DRAM is not getting any faster
    - The DRAM chip itself is not getting clocked any faster
  - So if DRAM access speed was 100 ns,
    - If CPU is clocked at 1 GHz, it takes 100 cycles to access memory
    - If CPU is clocked at 2 GHz, it takes 200 cycles to access memory

- So if a program is **Memory Bound, overclocking is mostly useless**
  - Reduction in Cycle Time canceled out by increase in Memory Stall Cycles

Oracle Cache

- CPU Cycles = CPU Execution Cycles + Memory Stall Cycles

- For memory bound programs, you need to reduce Memory Stall Cycles
  - For that, your most effective weapon is caching!

- **Oracle cache**: a cache that never misses
  - In effect, **Memory Stall Cycles == 0**
  - Impossible, since even with infinite capacity, there are still cold misses
  - But useful to set **bounds** on performance

- Real caches may approach performance of oracle caches but can't exceed

- What metric can we use to compare and evaluate real cache designs?
  - AMAT (Average Memory Access Time)

Evaluating Cache Design

AMAT (Average Memory Access Time)

- **AMAT** (Average Memory Access Time) is defined as follows:
  - **AMAT = hit time + (miss rate × miss penalty)**
  - **Hit time:** time to get the data from cache when we hit
  - **Miss rate:** what percentage of cache accesses we miss
  - **Miss penalty:** time to get the data from lower memory when we miss
  - Shouldn't it be **hit rate × hit time**?
    - Hit time (access time) is incurred regardless of hit or miss
    - Cache must be accessed first to see whether it is a hit or miss
    - Miss penalty is additional penalty incurred to access lower memory

- Hit time, miss rate, miss penalty are the 3 components of a cache design
  - When evaluating a cache design, we need to consider all 3
  - Cache designs trade-off one for the other
    - E.g. a large cache trade-offs longer hit time for smaller miss rate
    - Whether trade-off is beneficial depends on the resulting AMAT

AMAT for Multi-level Caches

- For a single-level cache (L1 cache):
  - $\text{AMAT(L1)} = \text{L1 hit time} + (\text{L1 miss rate} \times \text{DRAM access time})$

- For a multi-level cache (L1, L2 caches):
  - $\text{AMAT(L2)} = \text{L1 hit time} + (\text{L1 miss rate} \times \text{L1 miss penalty})$
  - $\text{L1 miss penalty} = \text{L2 hit time} + (\text{L2 miss rate} \times \text{DRAM access time})$
  - $\text{AMAT(L2)} = \text{L1 hit time} + \text{L1 miss rate} \times \text{L2 hit time} + \text{L1 miss rate} \times \text{L2 miss rate} \times \text{DRAM access time}$

- In order to decide whether to add the L2 cache, we need to consider…
  - Which is better? AMAT(L1) or AMAT(L2)?
  - $\text{AMAT(L2)} - \text{AMAT(L1)} = \text{L1 miss rate} \times \text{L2 hit time} + (\text{L1 miss rate} \times \text{L2 miss rate} - \text{L1 miss rate}) \times \text{DRAM access time}$
    $= \text{L1 miss rate} \times (\text{L2 hit time} + (\text{L2 miss rate} - 1) \times \text{DRAM access time})$

AMAT for Multi-level Caches

- For AMAT(L1) > AMAT(L2) (that is, for it to be worth it to put in an L2):
  - $\text{AMAT(L2)} - \text{AMAT(L1)}$
    $= \text{L1 miss rate} \times (\text{L2 hit time} + (\text{L2 miss rate} - 1) \times \text{DRAM access time}) < 0$
  - $\text{L2 hit time} + (\text{L2 miss rate} - 1) \times \text{DRAM access time} < 0$
  - $\textbf{L2 hit time} < (1 - \textbf{L2 miss rate}) \times \textbf{DRAM access time}$
  - If L2 hit time = 10 cycles and DRAM access time = 100 cycles,
    $10 < (1 - \text{L2 miss rate}) \times 100$
    $\text{L2 miss rate} < 0.9$
  - **Unless L2 cache miss rate is greater than 90%** (which is horrible), **worth it to install an L2 cache** (if we can keep hit time at 10 cycles)!

- But that conclusion is application dependent
  - If your program has poor locality and **L2 miss rate is above 90%**, the **additional L2 cache will hurt performance**!

Cache Design Parameter 1: Cache Size

University of Pittsburgh

Impact of Cache Size (a.k.a. Capacity) on AMAT

- AMAT = hit time + (miss rate × miss penalty)

- Larger caches are **good** for **miss rates**
  - More capacity means you can keep around cache blocks for longer
  - Means you can leverage more of the pre-existing **temporal locality**
  - If entire working set can fit into the cache, no capacity misses!

- But larger caches are **bad** for **hit times**
  - Longer wires and larger decoders and muxes mean longer access time

- Exactly why there are multiple levels of caches
  - **Frequently** accessed data where hit time is important stays in **L1** cache
  - **Rarely** accessed data where it's more important not to miss stays in **L3**

What cache size(s) should I choose?

- How many levels of caches? How should they be sized?

- That depends on the application
  - Working set sizes of the application at various levels. E.g.:
    - Small set of data accessed very frequently (typically stack variables)
    - Medium set of data accessed often (currently accessed data structure)
    - Large set of data accessed rarely (rest of program data)
  - **Ideally**, cache levels and sizes would **reflect working set sizes**.

- Simulate multiple cache levels and sizes and choose one with lowest AMAT
  - Simulate on the applications that you care about
  - In the end, it must be a **compromise** (giving best average AMAT)

Cache Design Parameter 2: Cache Block Size

Impact of Cache Block Size on AMAT

- AMAT = hit time + (miss rate × miss penalty)

- **Cache block** (a.k.a. **cache line**)
  - Unit of transfer for cache data (typically 32 or 64 bytes)
  - If program accesses any byte in cache block, entire block is brought in
  - Each level of a multi-level cache can have a different cache block size

- Impact of larger cache block size on **miss rate**
  - Maybe **smaller miss rate** due to **better** leveraging of **spatial locality**
  - Maybe **bigger miss rate** due to **worse** leveraging of **temporal locality** (Bringing in more data at a time may push out other useful data)

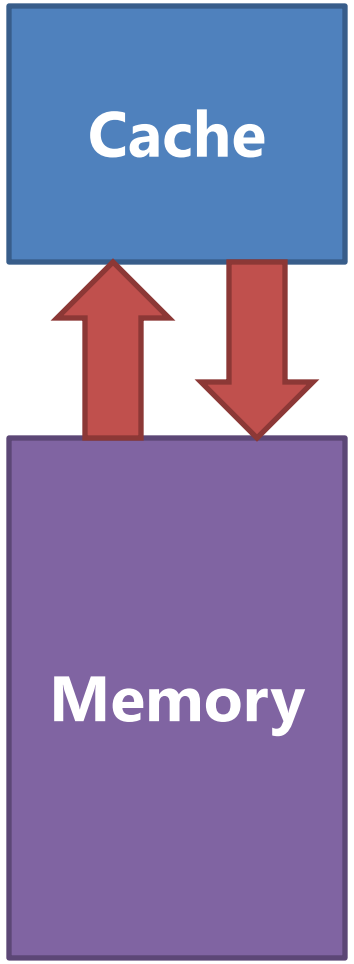
- Impact of larger cache block size on **miss penalty**
  - With a limited bus width, may take multiple transfers for a large block
  - E.g. DDR 4 DRAM bus width is 8 bytes, so 8 transfers for 64-byte block
  - Could lead to **increase in miss penalty**

Cache Block Size and Miss Penalty

- On a miss, the data must come from lower memory
- Besides memory access time, there's transfer time
- **What things impact how long that takes?**
  - The size of the cache block **(words/block)**
  - The width of the memory bus **(words/cycle)**
  - The speed of the memory bus **(cycles/second)**
- So the transfer time will be:

$$\frac{\text{seconds}}{\text{block}} = \frac{1}{\frac{\text{cycles}}{\text{second}} \times \frac{\text{words}}{\text{cycle}}} \times \frac{\text{words}}{\text{block}}$$

bus speed bus width block size



What cache block size should I choose?

- Again, that depends on the application
  - How much spatial and temporal locality the application has

- Simulate multiple cache block sizes and choose one with lowest AMAT
  - Simulate on benchmarks that you care about and choose best average
  - You may have to simulate different combinations for multi-level caches

Cache Design Parameter 3: Cache Associativity

Mapping blocks from memory to caches

- Cache size is much smaller compared to the entire memory space
  - Must map all the blocks in memory to limited CPU cache
- Does this sound familiar? Remember branch prediction?
  - Had similar problem of mapping PCs to a limited BHT
  - What did we do then?
    - We hashed PC to an entry in the BHT
    - On a hash conflict, we replaced old entry with more recent one

- We will use a similar idea with caches
  - **Hash memory addresses** to entries in cache
  - On a conflict:
    - **Replace** old cache block with more recent one
    - Or, **chain** multiple cache blocks on to same hash entry

Impact of Cache Associativity on AMAT

- Depending on hash function and chaining, a cache is either:
  - **Direct-mapped** (**no chaining** allowed)
  - **Set-associative** (**some chaining** allowed)
  - **Fully-associative** (**limitless chaining** allowed)

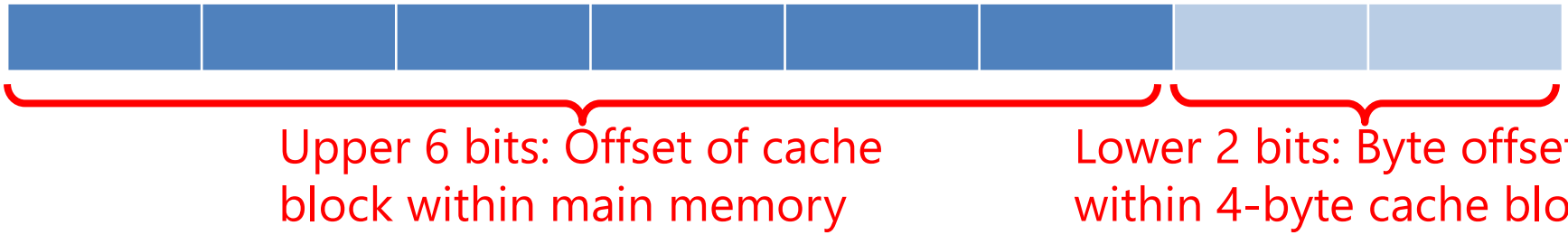
- Impact of more associativity on **miss rate**
  - **Smaller miss rate** due to less misses due to hash conflicts
  - Misses due to hash conflicts are called **conflict misses**
    - A third category of misses besides cold and capacity misses

- Impact of more associativity on **hit time**
  - **Longer hit time** due to need to search through long chain

Direct-mapped Caches

Assumptions

- Let's assume for the sake of concise explanations
  - 8-bit memory addresses
  - 4-byte (one word) cache block sizes
- Of course these are not typical values. Typical values are:
  - 32-bit or 64-bit memory addresses (32-bit or 64-bit CPU)
  - 32-byte or 64-byte cache blocks sizes (for spatial locality)
  - But too many bits in addresses are going to give you a headache
- According to our assumption, here's a breakdown of address bits



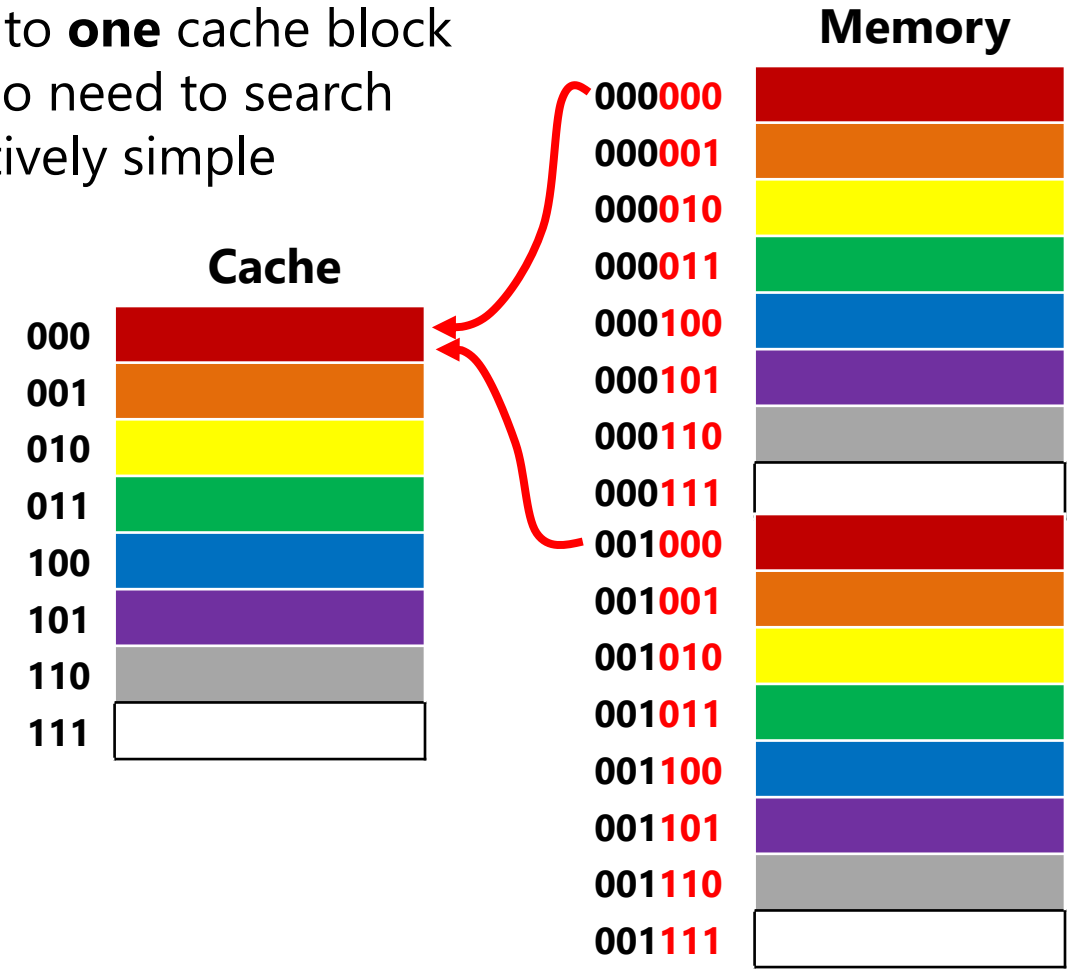
  - When I refer to addresses, I will sometimes omit the lower 2 bits (When we talk about cache block transfer, that part is irrelevant)

Direct-mapped Cache Hash Function

- Each memory address maps to **one** cache block
  - No chaining allowed so no need to search
  - Implementing this is relatively simple

For this 8-entry cache, to find **cache block index**, take the lowest 3 cache block offset bits in address.

But if our program accesses **001000**, then **000000**, how do we tell them apart? Tags!



Tags

- Each cache block has a **tag** that indicates the original memory location

This seems redundant...

	Tag	Data
000	001000	DEADBEEF
001		
010		
011	110011	CAFEFACE
100	101100	B0DECA7
101		
110		
111		

For address **110011, 011** is the **block index**, and **110** is the **tag**.

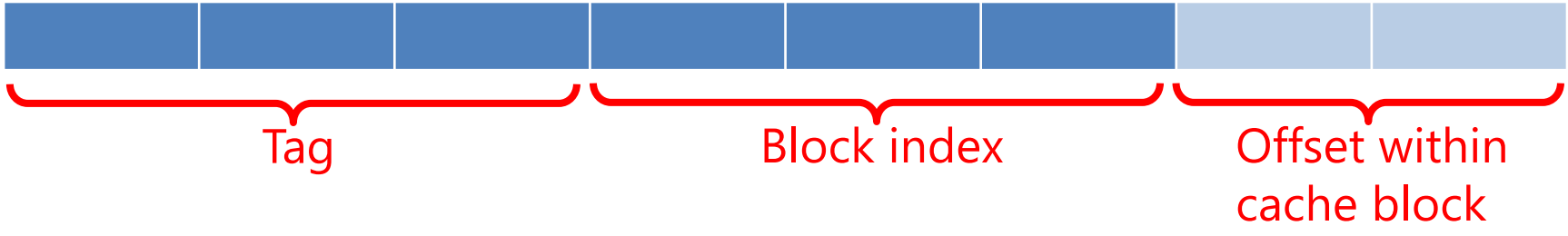
	Tag	Data
000	001	DEADBEEF
001		
010		
011	110	CAFEFACE
100	101	B0DECA7
101		
110		
111		

How do we tell what entries are empty/full?

Just add another bit (a **valid** bit)!

Address Bits Breakdown

- Now with the following parameters:
  - 8-bit memory addresses
  - 4-byte cache block sizes
  - 8-block cache
- How would we breakdown the memory address bits?



  - First, the correct cache block is accessed using the **block index**
  - Then, the **tag** is compared to the cache block tag
  - If matched, **offset** is used to access specific byte within block

Example: A Direct-mapped Cache

- When the program first starts, we **set all the valid bits to 0**.
  - Signals all cache lines are empty
- Now let's try a sequence of reads... do these **hit** or **miss?** How do the cache contents change?

000000	**miss**	Cold misses
100101	**miss**	
100100	**miss**	
100101	**hit**	
010000	**miss**	← Cold miss
000000	**miss**	← Capacity miss?

	V	Tag	Data
000	**1**	**010**	**something**
001	**0**		
010	**0**		
011	**0**		
100	**1**	**100**	**something**
101	**1**	**100**	**something**
110	**0**		
111	**0**		

Conflict Misses

- What should we call 2nd miss on **000000**?
  - Awkward to call it a capacity miss (It's not like capacity was lacking)
  - Let's call it a **conflict miss**

	V	Tag	Data
000	1	010	something
001	0		
010	0		
011	0		
100	1	100	something
101	1	100	something
110	0		
111	0		

000000 **miss**
100101 **miss**
100100 **miss**
} Cold misses

100101 **hit**

010000 **miss** ← Cold miss

000000 **miss** ← Conflict miss (not capacity miss!)

Types of Cache Misses (Revised)

- Besides cold misses and capacity misses, there are conflict misses

- **Cold miss** (a.k.a. **compulsory miss**)
  - Miss suffered when data is accessed for the **first time** by program

- **Capacity miss**
  - Miss on a **repeat access** suffered due to a lack of **capacity**
  - When the program's **working set is larger than can fit in the cache**

- **Conflict miss**
  - Miss on a **repeat access** suffered due to a lack of **associativity**
  - **Associativity**: degree of freedom in associating cache block with an index
  - Direct mapped caches have no associativity
    - Since cache blocks are directly mapped to a particular block index

Associative caches

Flexible block placement

- Direct-mapped caches can have lots of **conflicts**
  - Multiple memory locations "fight" for the same cache line
- Suppose we had a 4-block direct-mapped cache
  - As before, 4-byte per cache block
  - Memory addresses are 8 bits.
- The following locations are accessed in a loop:
  - 0, 16, 32, 48, 0, 16, 32, 48…
  - or 000000, 000100, 001000, 001100, …
- **What would happen?**
  - They will all land on the same block index, and all conflict miss!
  - Those other 3 blocks are not even getting used!
  - What if we used the space to chain conflicting blocks?

	V	Tag	Data
00	1	0011	
01	0		
10	0		
11	0		

Full associativity

- Let's make our 4-block cache **4-way set-associative**.

V	Tag	D
1	000000	*0

V	Tag	D
1	001100	*48

V	Tag	D
1	000100	*16

V	Tag	D
1	001000	*32

- What's the difference?
  - Now a hashed location can be associated with **any** of the 4 blocks
  - Analogous to having a hash conflict chain 4-entries long
  - The 4 cache blocks are said to be part of a cache **set**
  - When set size == cache size, it is said to be **fully associative**
- Let's do that sequence of reads again: 0, 16, 32, 48, 0, 16, 32, 48...
- Notice tag is now bigger, since there are no block index bits
  - Or **set index** bits in this context (just one set, so none needed)
- Now cache holds the entire **working set**: no more misses!

Example: A 2-way Set-Associate Cache

- 16-block 2-way set-associative cache
- Let's try the same stream of accesses as direct-mapped cache
- Yay! 2nd access to **000000** is no longer a conflict miss!

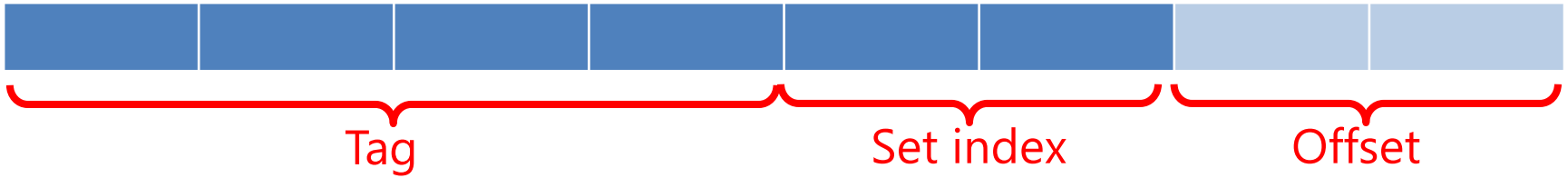
000000 miss
100101 miss
100100 miss
100101 hit
010000 miss
000000 hit

Set	V	Tag	Data	V	Tag	Data
000	1	000	something	1	010	something
001	0					
010	0					
011	0					
100	1	100	something			
101	1	100	something			
110	0					
111	0					

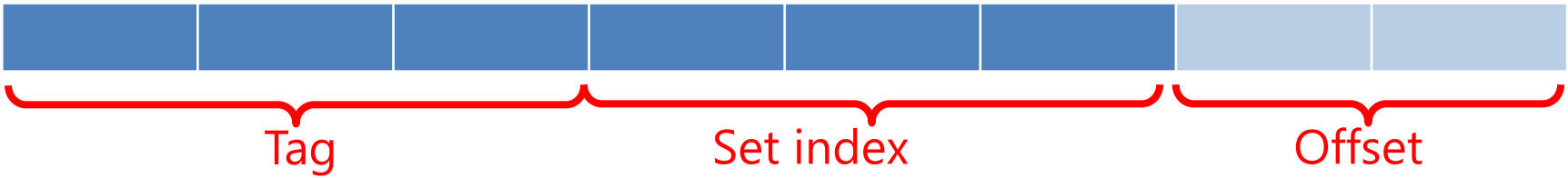
Address Bits Breakdown

- A fully associative cache (doesn't matter how many blocks):

- With 16-block 4-way set-associative cache:



  - 16 / 4 = 4 sets in cache. So, 2 bits required for set index.
- With 64-block 8-way set-associative cache:



  - 64 / 8 = 8 sets in cache. So, 3 bits required for set index.

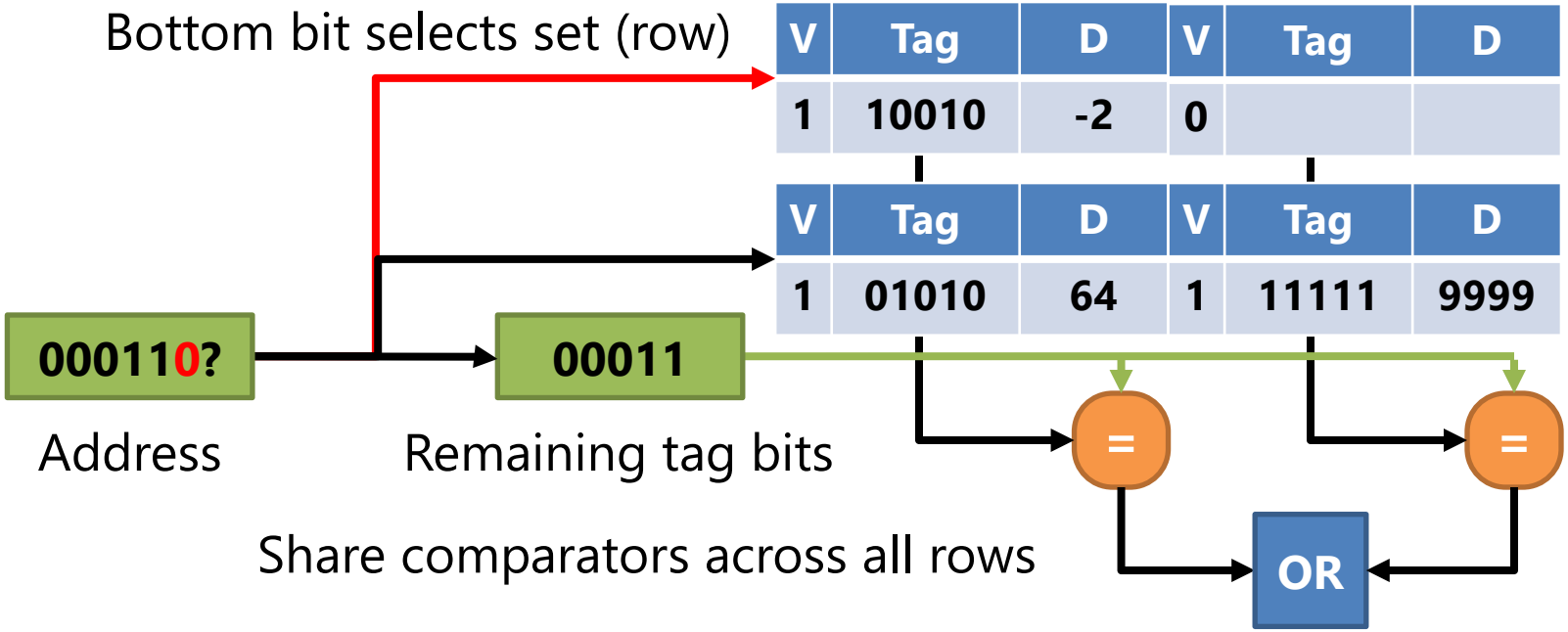
Want More Examples?

- Try out the Cache Visualizer on the course github:
  - https://github.com/wonsunahn/CS1541_Fall2020/tree/master/resources/cache_demo
  - Courtesy of Jarrett Billingsley

- Visualizes cache organization for various parameters
  - Cache block size
  - Number of blocks in cache (capacity)
  - Cache associativity

Associativity is Costly

- Associativity requires complex circuitry and may **increase hit time**
- Full associativity is only used for very small caches
  - And where a cache miss is extremely costly
- Usually caches are 2-, 4-, or maybe 8- way set-associative



Cache Design Parameter 4: Cache Replacement Policy

Cache Replacement

- If we have a cache miss and no empty blocks, what then?

V	Tag	D
1	000000	*0

V	Tag	D
1	001100	*48

V	Tag	D
1	000001	*4

V	Tag	D
1	001000	*32

- Let's read memory address 4 (**000001**00).
  - Uh oh. That's a miss. Where do we put it?
- With associative caches, you must have a **replacement scheme.**
  - Which block to evict (kick out) when you're out of empty slots?
- The simplest replacement scheme is **random**.
  - Just pick one. Doesn't matter which.
- What would make more sense?
  - How about taking **temporal locality** into account?

LRU (Least-Recently-Used) Replacement

- When you need to evict a block, kick out the oldest one.

V	Tag	D
1	000001	*4

4 reads old

V	Tag	D
1	001100	*48

1 read old

V	Tag	D
1	000100	*16

3 reads old

V	Tag	D
1	001000	*32

2 reads old

- Our read history looked like 0, 16, 32, 48. How old are the blocks?
- Now we want to read address 4. Which block should we replace?
- But now we must maintain the age of the blocks...
  - Easy to say. How do we keep track of this in hardware?
- Have a saturating counter for each cache block indicating age
  - When accessing a set, increment counter for each block in set
  - On a cache hit, reset counter to 0 (recently used)

Impact of LRU on AMAT

- AMAT = hit time + (miss rate × miss penalty)

- Impact of LRU on **miss rate**
  - **Smaller miss rate** due to **better** leveraging of **temporal locality** (Recently used cache lines more likely to be used again)

- Saturating counter for LRU uses bits and **adds to amount of metadata**
  - Cache **tag**, the **valid bit**, the saturating **counter** are all metadata
  - Every bit you spend on metadata is a bit you don't spend on real data
  - Spending many bits on counter may reduce capacity for real data