

Exploiting Memory Hierarchy: Cache Control, Memory Consistency,

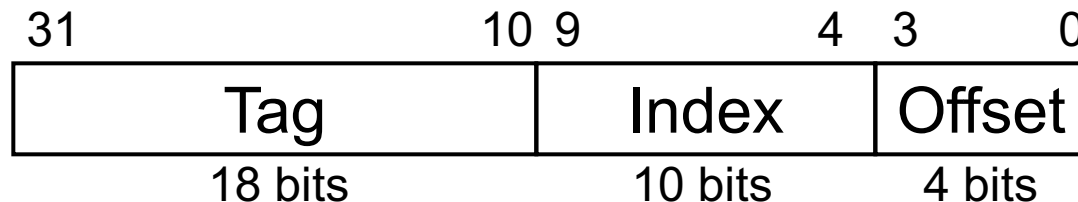
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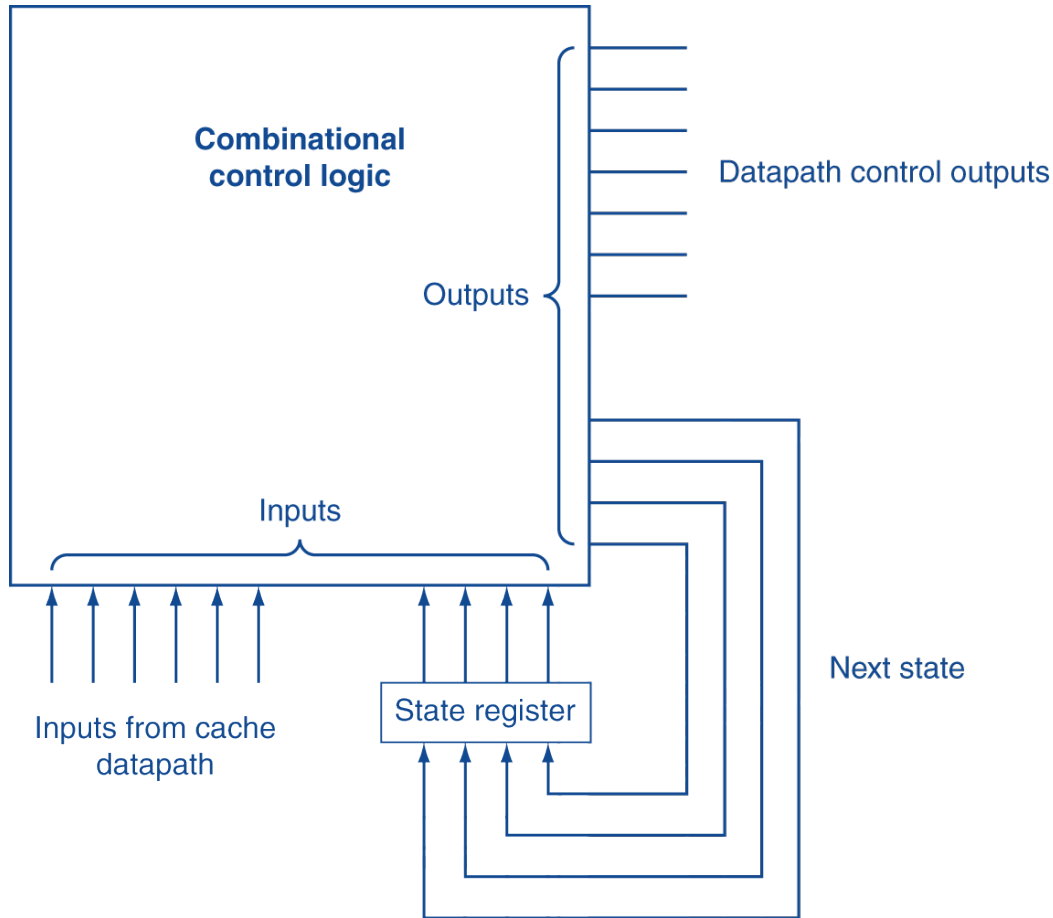
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Using Finite State Machine to Control Cache

- FSM allows us to control an operation that can take multiple clock cycles
- Cache control must specify
 - Signal to be set in any step
 - Next step in the sequence
- Example of simple cache characteristics
 - Direct-mapped, write-back, write allocate
 - Block size: 4 words (16 bytes)
 - Cache size: 16 KB (1024 blocks)
 - 32-bit byte addresses
 - Valid bit and dirty bit per block
 - Blocking cache
 - CPU waits until access is complete

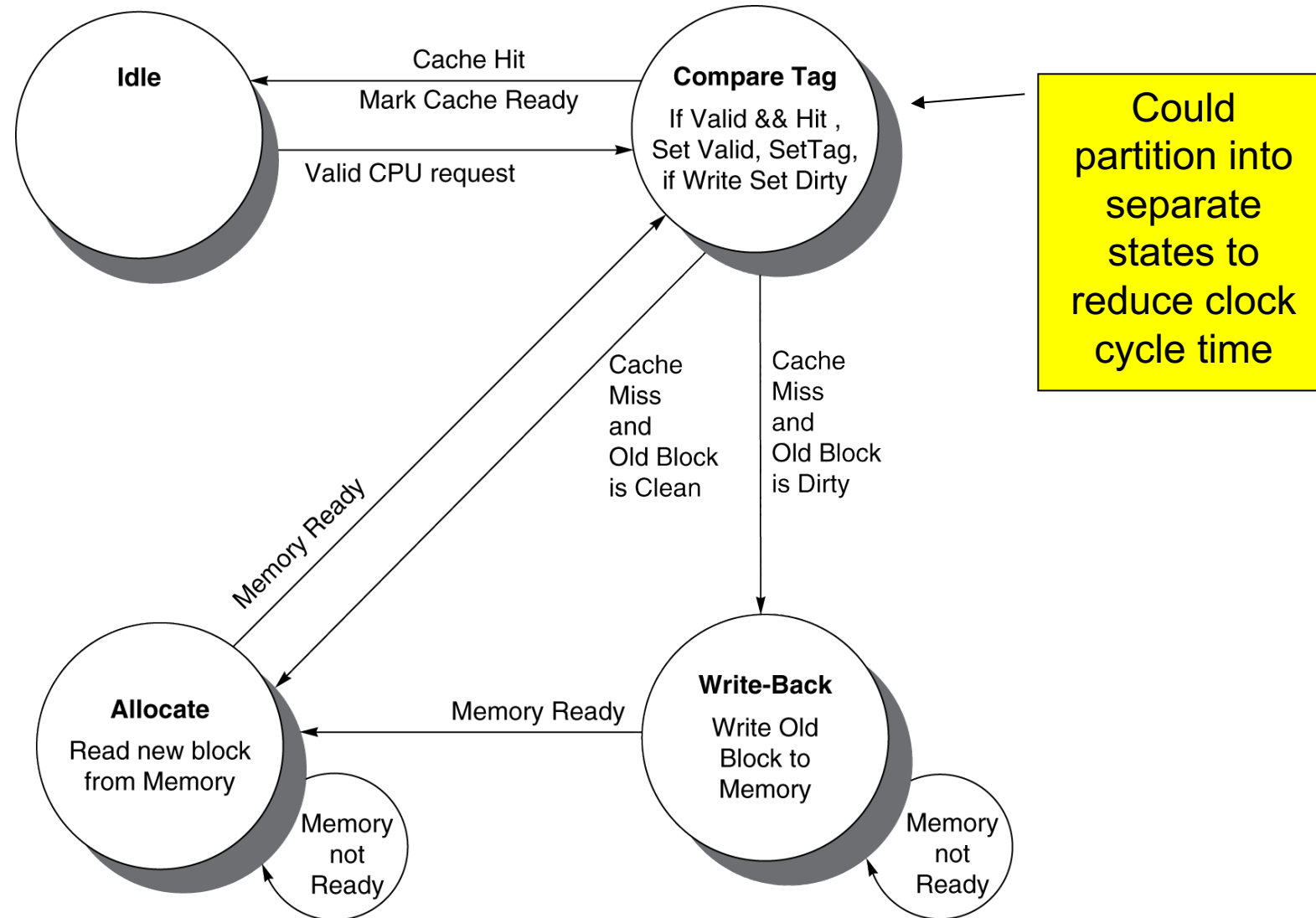


Finite State Machines



- Consist of a set of states and directions on how to change state
- Direction defined by next state function
 - Maps current state and inputs to new state
 - State values are binary encoded
 - Current state stored in a register
- Each state produces control output signals

Cache Controller FSM



Cache Coherence Problem

- Suppose two CPU cores share a physical address space
 - Write-through caches
- The memory view of the processors is based on their individual caches.

Time step	Event	CPU A's cache	CPU B's cache	Memory
0				0
1	CPU A reads X	0		0
2	CPU B reads X	0	0	0
3	CPU A writes 1 to X	1	0	1

Coherence Defined

- Informally: Reads return most recently written value
- Formally:
 - P writes X; P reads X (no intervening writes)
⇒ read returns written value
 - P_1 writes X; P_2 reads X (sufficiently later)
⇒ read returns written value
 - c.f. CPU B reading X after step 3 in example
 - P_1 writes X, P_2 writes X
⇒ all processors see writes in the same order
 - End up with the same final value for X

Cache Coherence Protocols

- Cache in multiprocessors supports
 - Migration of data to local caches
 - Reduces bandwidth for shared memory
 - Replication of read-shared data
 - Reduces contention for access
- Operations performed by caches in multiprocessors to ensure coherence
 - Known as cache coherence protocol
 - Key factor: state tracking of sharing data blocks
- Snooping protocols
 - Each cache monitors bus reads/writes
 - Sharing status of blocks copied to different caches

Invalidating Snooping Protocols

- Processor gets exclusive access to a block when it is to be written
 - Broadcasts an invalidate message on the bus
 - Subsequent read in another cache misses
 - Owning cache supplies updated value

CPU activity	Bus activity	CPU A's cache	CPU B's cache	Memory
				0
CPU A reads X	Cache miss for X	0		0
CPU B reads X	Cache miss for X	0	0	0
CPU A writes 1 to X	Invalidate for X	1		0
CPU B read X	Cache miss for X	1	1	1

Memory Consistency

- When are writes seen by other processors
 - “Seen” means a read returns the written value
 - Can’t be instantaneously
- Assumptions
 - A write completes only when all processors have seen it
 - A processor does not reorder writes with other accesses
- Consequence
 - P writes X then writes Y
 - ⇒ all processors that see new Y also see new X
 - Processors can reorder reads, but not writes

Real Hardware Address Translation and TLB Organization

Characteristic	ARM Cortex-A8	Intel Core i7
Virtual address	32 bits	48 bits
Physical address	32 bits	44 bits
Page size	Variable: 4, 16, 64 KiB, 1, 16 MiB	Variable: 4 KiB, 2/4 MiB
TLB organization	<p>1 TLB for instructions and 1 TLB for data</p> <p>Both TLBs are fully associative, with 32 entries, round robin replacement</p> <p>TLB misses handled in hardware</p>	<p>1 TLB for instructions and 1 TLB for data per core</p> <p>Both L1 TLBs are four-way set associative, LRU replacement</p> <p>L1 I-TLB has 128 entries for small pages, 7 per thread for large pages</p> <p>L1 D-TLB has 64 entries for small pages, 32 for large pages</p> <p>The L2 TLB is four-way set associative, LRU replacement</p> <p>The L2 TLB has 512 entries</p> <p>TLB misses handled in hardware</p>

Multilevel On-Chip Caches

Characteristic	ARM Cortex-A8	Intel Nehalem
L1 cache organization	Split instruction and data caches	Split instruction and data caches
L1 cache size	32 KiB each for instructions/data	32 KiB each for instructions/data per core
L1 cache associativity	4-way (I), 4-way (D) set associative	4-way (I), 8-way (D) set associative
L1 replacement	Random	Approximated LRU
L1 block size	64 bytes	64 bytes
L1 write policy	Write-back, Write-allocate(?)	Write-back, No-write-allocate
L1 hit time (load-use)	1 clock cycle	4 clock cycles, pipelined
L2 cache organization	Unified (instruction and data)	Unified (instruction and data) per core
L2 cache size	128 KiB to 1 MiB	256 KiB (0.25 MiB)
L2 cache associativity	8-way set associative	8-way set associative
L2 replacement	Random(?)	Approximated LRU
L2 block size	64 bytes	64 bytes
L2 write policy	Write-back, Write-allocate (?)	Write-back, Write-allocate
L2 hit time	11 clock cycles	10 clock cycles
L3 cache organization	-	Unified (instruction and data)
L3 cache size	-	8 MiB, shared
L3 cache associativity	-	16-way set associative
L3 replacement	-	Approximated LRU
L3 block size	-	64 bytes
L3 write policy	-	Write-back, Write-allocate
L3 hit time	-	35 clock cycles

Supporting Multiple Issue

- Both have multi-banked caches that allow multiple accesses per cycle assuming no bank conflicts
 - Cache banks are similar to DRAM banks
- Core i7 cache optimizations
 - Return requested word first
 - Non-blocking cache for out-of-order processors
 - Hit under miss: hides miss latency
 - Miss under miss: overlaps miss latency
 - Data prefetching
 - Looks at pattern of data misses
 - Predicts next address to start fetching data before miss occur

Pitfalls

- Byte vs. word addressing
 - Example: 32-byte direct-mapped cache, 4-byte blocks
 - Byte 36 maps to block 1 (since $36 \bmod 8 = 4$)
 - Word 36 maps to block 4 (since $36 \bmod 8 = 4$)
- Ignoring memory system effects when writing or generating code
 - Example: iterating over rows vs. columns of arrays
 - Large strides result in poor locality
 - Can drastically reduce performance

Pitfalls

- In multiprocessor with shared L2 or L3 cache
 - Less associativity than cores results in conflict misses
 - More cores \Rightarrow need to increase associativity
- Using AMAT to evaluate performance of out-of-order processors
 - Ignores effect of non-blocked accesses
 - Instead, evaluate performance by simulation
- Implementing a VMM on an ISA not designed for virtualization
 - E.g., non-privileged instructions accessing hardware resources
 - Either extend ISA, or require guest OS not to use problematic instructions

Concluding Remarks

- Fast memories are small, large memories are slow
 - We really want fast, large memories ☹️
 - Caching gives this illusion 😊
- Principle of locality
 - Programs use a small part of their memory space frequently
- Memory hierarchy
 - L1 cache ↔ L2 cache ↔ ... ↔ DRAM memory
↔ disk
- Memory system design is critical for multiprocessors

Parallel Processors from Client to Cloud

Introduction

- Goal: connecting multiple computers to get higher performance
 - Multiprocessors
 - Scalability, availability, power efficiency
- Task-level (process-level) parallelism
 - High throughput for independent jobs
- Parallel processing program
 - Single program run on multiple processors
- Multicore microprocessors
 - Chips with multiple processors (cores)

Hardware and Software Classification

- Hardware
 - Serial: e.g., Pentium 4
 - Parallel: e.g., Intel Core i7
- Software
 - Sequential: e.g., matrix multiplication
 - Concurrent: e.g., operating system
- Sequential/concurrent software can run on serial/parallel hardware
 - Challenge: making effective use of parallel hardware