Cache Memory

Imbalance Between CPU and Memory

- Historically , CPU is faster than memories
- The capacity of memories are increased, not speed
- The slower the memory, the more cycles the CPU will have to wait

Two solutions:

- 1. Hardware, continue executing and stall CPU if an instruction tries to use the memory word before it has arrived;
- 2. Software, the compiler is forced to insert NOP (no operation)

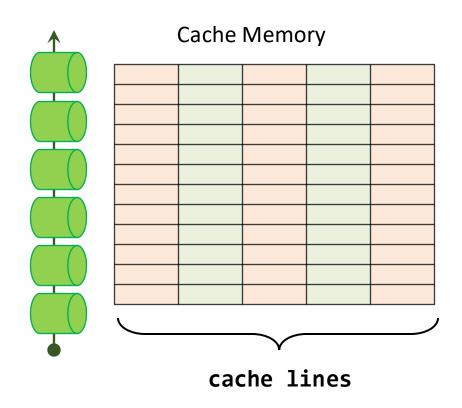
Technology problem?

- 1. No, economics problem. Engineers can build memories as fast as CPUs
- 2. Has to be located on the CPU chip and then make CPU chip more expensive and bigger

Cache Memory

Practical Solution

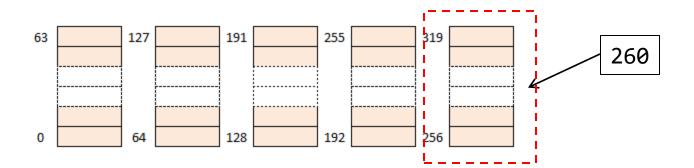
- 1. Combining a small amount of fast memory (cash) with a large amount of slow memory to get the speed of the fast memory (almost) and the capacity of the large memory at a moderate price.
- 2. Most Heavily used memory words are kept in the cache.
- 3. The general idea is that when a word is referenced, it and some of its neighbors are brought from the large slow memory into the cache, so that the next time it is used, it can be accessed quickly
- **4. Locality Principle:** when a word is referenced, it and some of its neighbors are brought from large slow memory to the cache
- 5. Temporal Principle: <u>if a memory location is accessed once, it is</u> <u>likely to be accessed again soon (keep recently accessed data in cache memory)</u>
- 6. When the CPU needs a word, it first looks in the cache



- 1. Main memories and caches are divided up into fixed-size blocks (cache lines).
- 2. Line is loaded from the main memory into the cache, not just the word needed.

Cache Memory

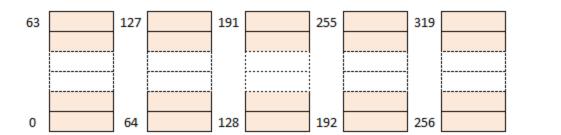
Example: a 64-byte line size, a reference to memory address 260, what line is pulled into one cash line?



Answer: line consisting of bytes 256 to 319 is pulled into one cache line.

Cache Memory

Example: a 64-byte line size, a reference to memory address 100, what line is pulled into one cash line?



100

Cache mapping

Main memory is divided up into fixed size blocks called cache lines (4 to 64 consecutive bytes)

Lines are numbered consecutively starting at 0, so with a 32-byte line size, line 0 is bytes 0 to 31, line 1 is bytes 32 to 63, and so on

When memory is referenced, the cache controller circuit checks to see if the word referenced is currently in the cache (<u>cache hit</u>). If so, the value there can be used, saving a trip to main memory. If the word is not there (<u>cache miss</u>), some line entry is removed from the cache and the line needed is fetched from memory.

Cache memory cache hit and miss

$$\mbox{Hit rate} = \frac{\mbox{Number of hits}}{\mbox{Number of total memory accesses}} = 1 - \mbox{Miss rate}$$

Number of total memory accesses = number of hits + number of misses

Example:

Suppose that a CPU has a level 1 cache and a level 2 cache, with access times of 1 nsec and 3 nsec, respectively. The main memory access time is 15 nsec. If 30% of the accesses are level 1 cache hits and 50% are level 2 cache hits, what is the average access time?

Example:

Suppose that a CPU has a level 1 cache and a level 2 cache, with access times of 1 nsec and 3 nsec, respectively. The main memory access time is 15 nsec. If 30% of the accesses are level 1 cache hits and 50% are level 2 cache hits, what is the average access time?

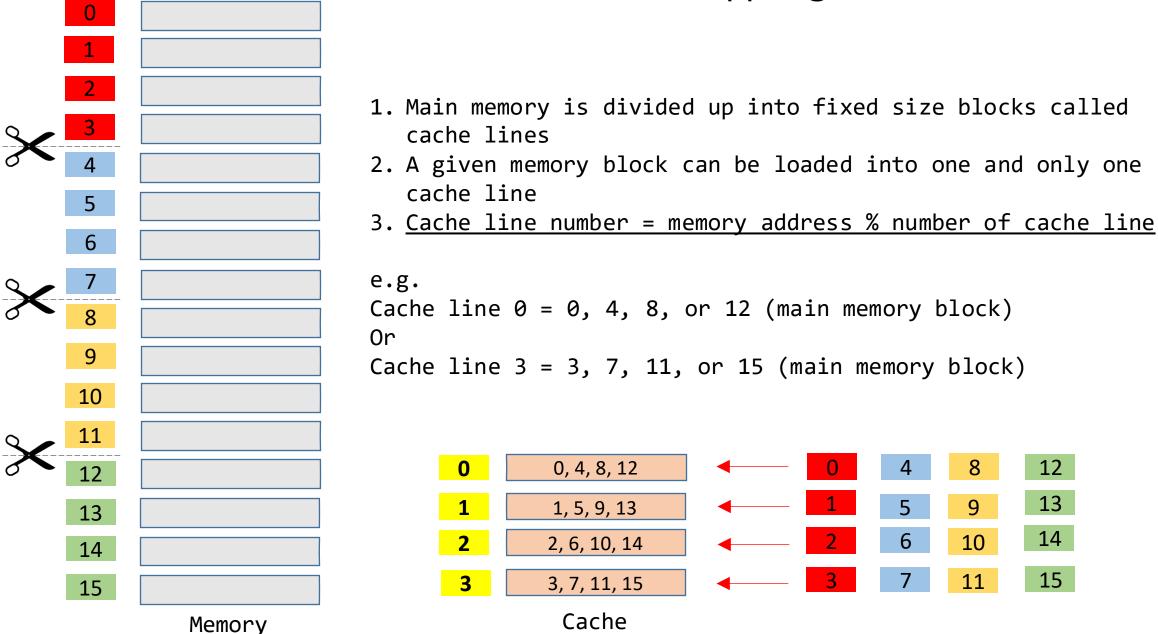
```
Main memory = 100\% - (30\% + 50\%) = 20\%
The average access time = 0.30 \times 1 + 0.50 \times 3 + 0.20 \times 15 = 4.8 nsec
```

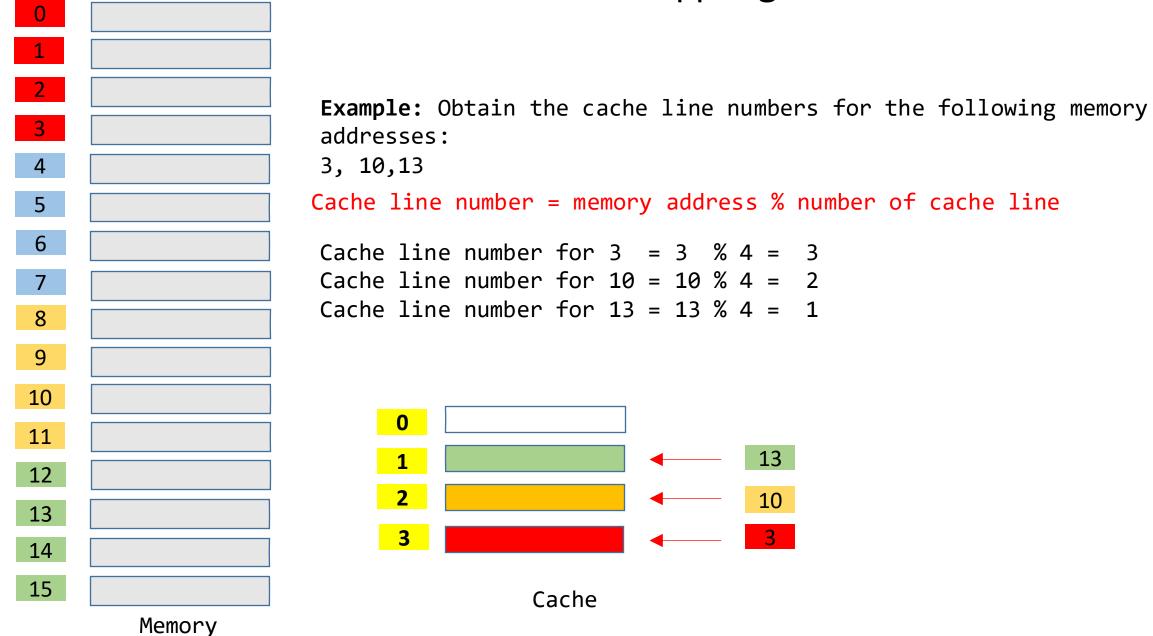
Data request Data read by CPU Cache memory L1, L2, L3 Yes No Cache Hit Cache Miss Main memory Done Yes No Done

Virtual memory

Cache Memory Mapping Techniques

Direct mapping
Associative mapping
Set - Associative mapping





Example:

```
Obtain the cache line numbers for the following memory addresses 386, 255, 4000, 4095 assuming that
The number of cache lines (blocks) = 128 (from 0 to 127)
The number of memory locations = 4096 (from 0 to 4095)
```

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```
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The number of memory locations = 4096 (from 0 to 4095)
```

```
Cache line number for 386 = 386 % 128 = 2

Cache line number for 255 = 255 % 128 = 127

Cache line number for 4000 = 4000 % 128 = 32

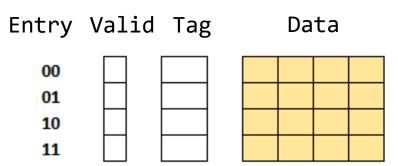
Cache line number for 4095 = 4095 % 128 = 127
```

Main Memory Direct mapping 0000 00 01 10 00 01 10 0001 00 01 10 0010 Cache memory 00 01 10 11 0011 00 01 10 0100 00 01 10 0101 11 00 01 10 11 00 01 10 0110 10 00 01 00 01 10 0111 11 00 00 01 10 11 1000 4 x 4 00 01 10 1000 00 01 10 11 1010 offset 00 01 10 11 11 1011 2 bits(CI) 2 bits(offset) 00 01 10 11 12 1100 Cache index 00 01 10 11 13 1101 (CI) 1110 00 01 10 15 1111 00 01 10 Cache address = 2(CI) + 2(offset) = 4 bits16 x 4 4 cache line and each cache line contains 4 cells (e.g. 4 bytes) offset Memory index 4 bits (MI) 2 bits(offset) (MI)

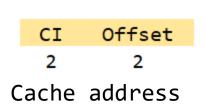
Memory address = 4(MI) + 2(offset) = 6 bits

Each cache entry consists of three parts:

- 1. The Valid bit indicates whether there is any valid data in this entry or not. When the system is booted (started), all entries are marked as invalid.
- 2. The Tag field consists of a unique, 2-bit value identifying the corresponding line of memory from which the data came.
- 3. The Data field contains a copy of the data in memory. This field holds one cache line of 4 bytes.

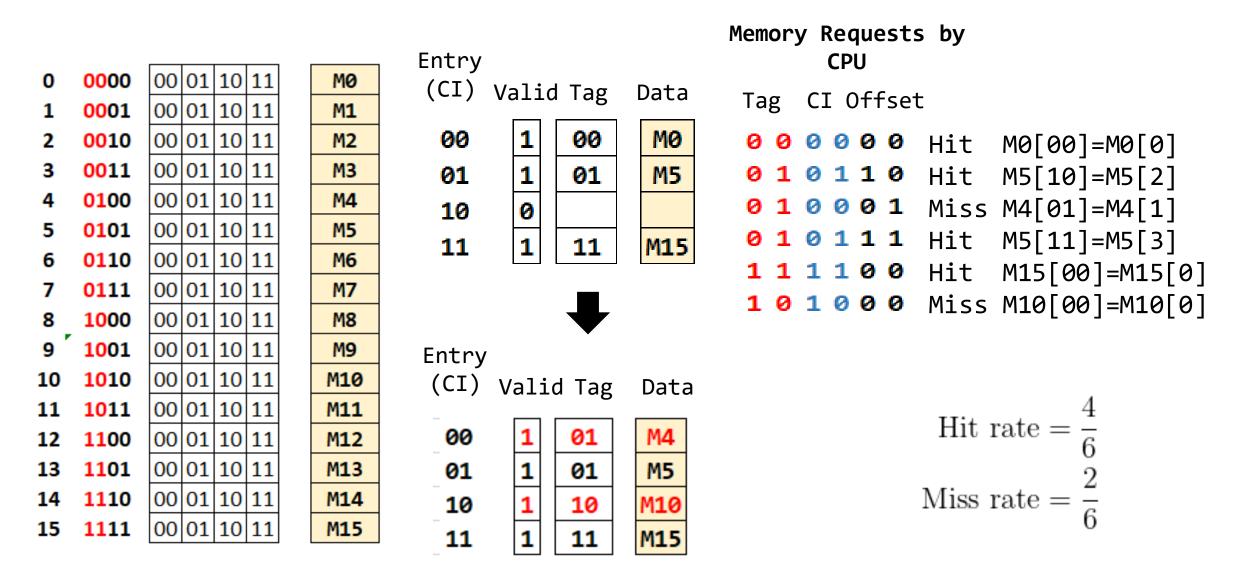


For storing and retrieving data from the cache, the memory address is broken into three components as follows:

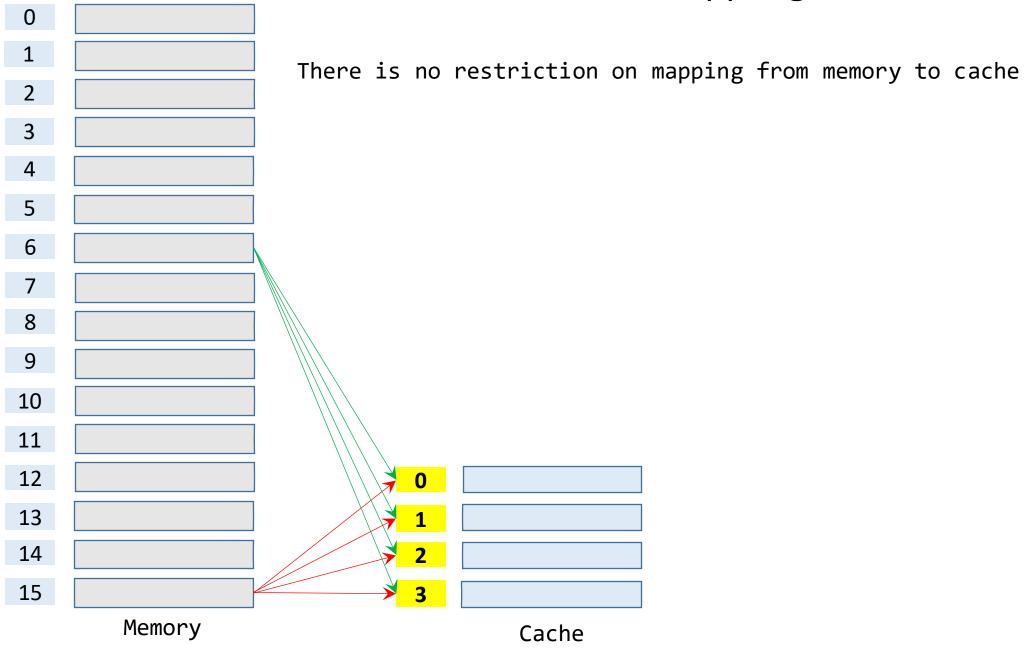


$$Tag = MI - CI$$

Example: A list of memory requests by CPU is given below. Use this list to find hit and miss rate.



Associative mapping



Associative mapping

For storing and retrieving data from the cache, the memory address is broken into two components as follows:

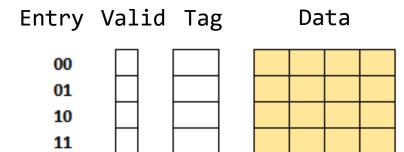
СТ	Offset
CI	UTTSEL
2	2

Cache address

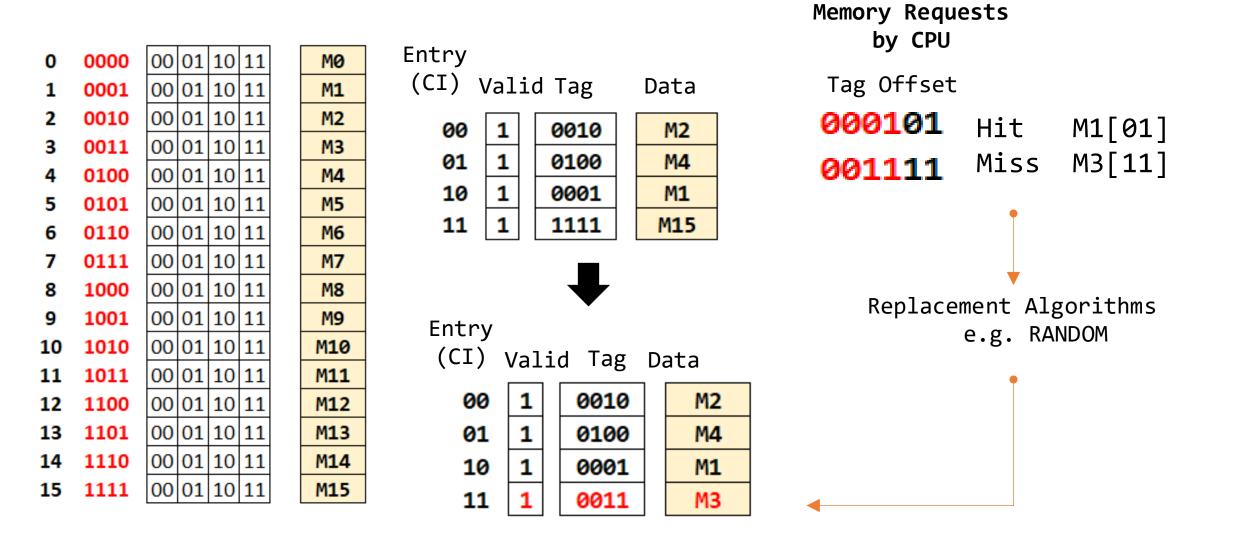
MI	Offset
4	2
Tag	Offset
4	2

memory address

$$Tag = MI$$



Example: A list of memory requests by CPU is given below. Determine cache memory hit or miss for each case.

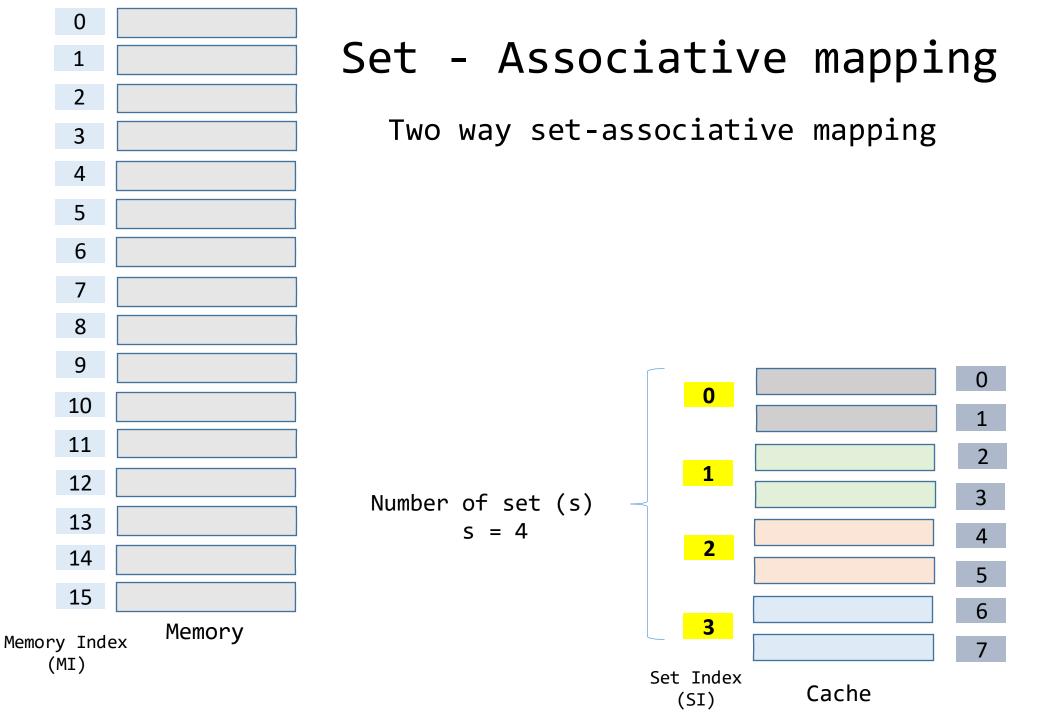


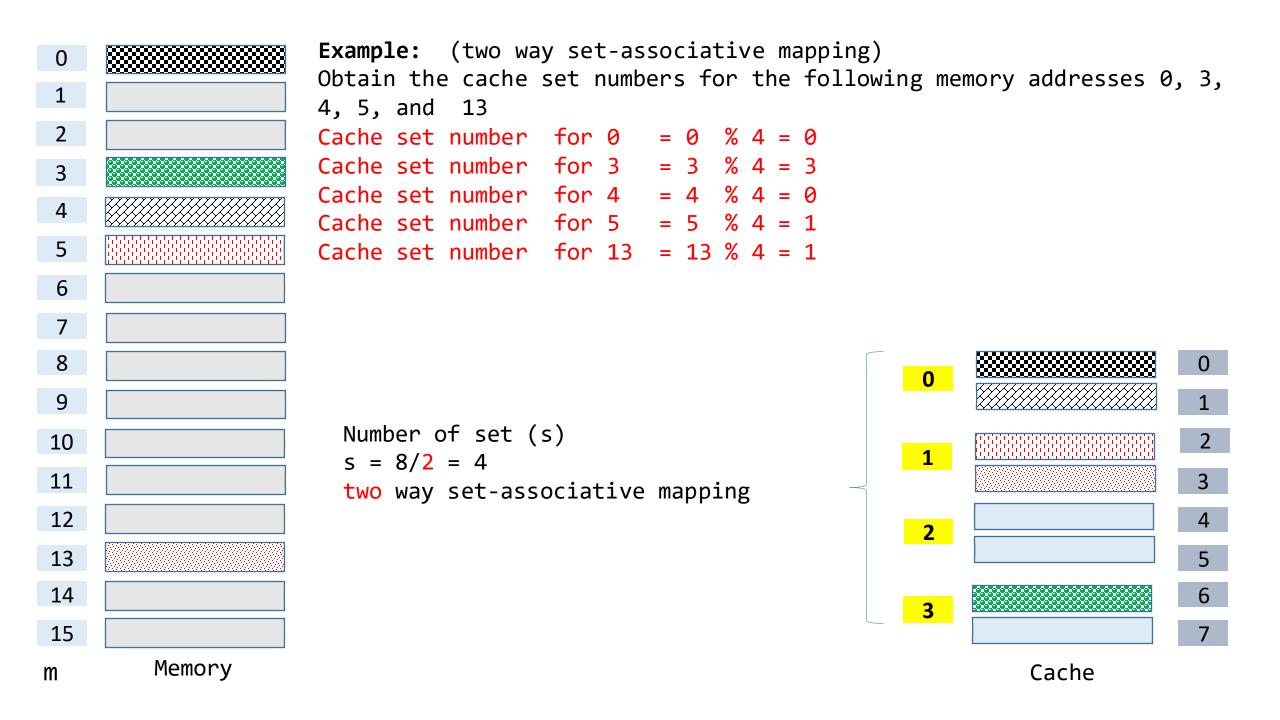
Set - Associative mapping

```
e.g. two way set-associative mapping four way set-associative mapping eight way set-associative mapping
```

- Cache is divided into a number of sets
- Each set contains a number of cache lines (or blocks)

```
cache set number (k) = main memory block number (m) %
number of sets (s)
```

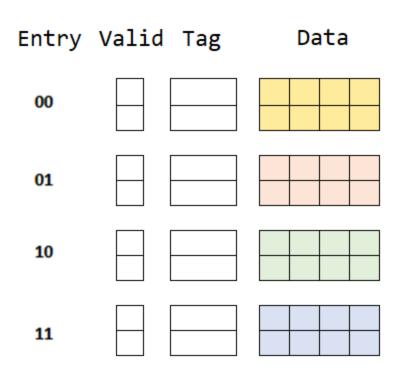




Associative mapping

For storing and retrieving data from the cache, the memory address is broken into two components as follows:

2 2 2	ag SI Offset 2 2 2		MI 4	Offset 2	_
2 2 2	ag SI Offset 2 2 2 memory address				Tag = MI - SI
		Tag	SI	Offset	
memory address	memory address	2	2	2	
		mem	ory a	address	



Example: A list of memory requests by CPU is given below. Determine cache memory hit or miss for each case.

0	0000	00	01	10	11	MØ				
1	0001	00	01	10	11	M1	(ST)			
2	0010	00	01	10	11	M2	(SI)	V-1:4	T	Data
3	0011	00	01	10	11	МЗ	Entry	Valid	ıag	Data
4	0100	00	01	10	11	M4	00	1	11	M12
5	0101	00	01	10	11	M5		1	01	M4
6	0110	00	01	10	11	M6			10	
7	0111	00	01	10	11	M7	01	1	10	M9 M13
8	1000	00	01	10	11	M8		1	11	MIS
9	1001	00	01	10	11	M9	10	0		
10	1010	00	01	10	11	M10	10	0		
11	1011	00	01	10	11	M11				
12	1100	00	01	10	11	M12	11	1	00	М3
13	1101	00	01	10	11	M13		1	11	M15
14	1110	00	01	10	11	M14				
15	1111	00	01	10	11	M15				

Memory Requests by CPU

```
Tag SI Offset
           Hit
                M12[00]
110000
           Hit
                M4[10]
010010
           Miss
                M14[01]
111001
                M5[11]
           Miss
           Hit
                M15[00]
101000
           Miss
                M10[00]
```

Example: A list of memory requests by CPU is given below. Determine cache memory hit or miss for each case. Obtain the updated version of the cache memory. Calculate hit and miss rate.

				_	Mamai
0	0000	00 01 10 11	MØ		Memoi
1	0001	00 01 10 11	M1	(CT)	
2	0010	00 01 10 11	M2	(SI)	Tag
3	0011	00 01 10 11	МЗ	Entry Valid Tag Data	11
4	0100	00 01 10 11	M4	00 1 11 M12	01
5	0101	00 01 10 11	M5	1 01 M4	
6	0110	00 01 10 11	M6		11
7	0111	00 01 10 11	M7	01 1 01 M5	0 1
8	1000	00 01 10 11	M8	1 11 M13	1 1
9	1001	00 01 10 11	M9	10 1 11 M14	1 0
10	1010	00 01 10 11	M10	1 10 M10	
11	1011	00 01 10 11	M11		
12	1100	00 01 10 11	M12	11 1 00 M3	Hi
13	1101	00 01 10 11	M13	1 11 M15	
14	1110	00 01 10 11	M14		
15	1111	00 01 10 11	M15	+	М
13	1111	00 01 10 11	LITA		

Memory Requests by CPU

$$Hit rate = \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$Miss rate = 1 - Hit rate = \frac{1}{2}$$

Cache Replacement Algorithms

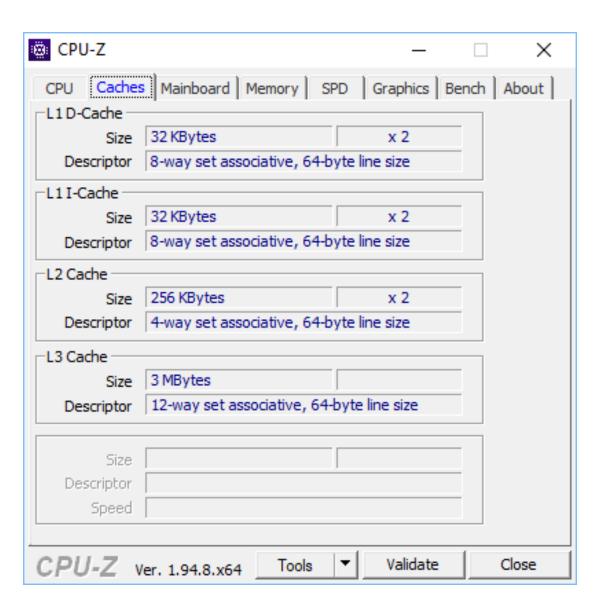
There are some algorithms (given below) which are used to replace the existing block in the cache memory with the new fetched data.

- Least Recently Used (LRU)
- First In First Out (FIFO)
- Least Frequently Used (LFU)
- Random
- Clock algorithm

Cache Memory

Important for high-performance CPUs (Several issues)

- 1) Cache size the bigger the cache, the better it performs, but also more costs.
- 2) Size of the cache line A 16-KB cache can be divided up into 1024 lines of 16 bytes, or 2048 lines of 8 bytes, and other combinations.
- 3) Cache organization how does the cache keep track of which memory words are currently being held?
- 4) Whether instructions and data are kept in the same cache or different ones? **Unified cache** (instructions and data use the same cache) is a simpler design and automatically balances instruction fetches against data fetches.
- **Split cache** (with instructions in one cache and data in the other) allows parallel accesses; a unified one does not. Also, as instructions are not modified during execution, the contents of the instruction cache never has to be written back into memory.
- 5) Number of caches Chips with a primary cache on chip (L1), a secondary cache off chip but in the same package as the CPU chip (L2), and a third cache still further away (L3).



Depending on whether it has a row of connectors on one side or both sides of the board:

Single Inline Memory Module (SIMM)

One edge connector with 72 contacts and transfer 32 bits per clock cycle

Dual Inline Memory Module(DIMM)

120 contacts on each side of the board, for a total of 240 contacts, and transfer 64 bits per clock cycle

DDR3 DIMMS

Third version of the double data-rate memories

Small Outline DIMM (SO-DIMM)

Used in notebook computers. DIMMS can have a parity bit or error correction added, but since the average error rate of a module is one error every 10 years for most garden-variety computers, error detection and correction are omitted.





Memory Hierarchies

Capacity and Access time gets bigger

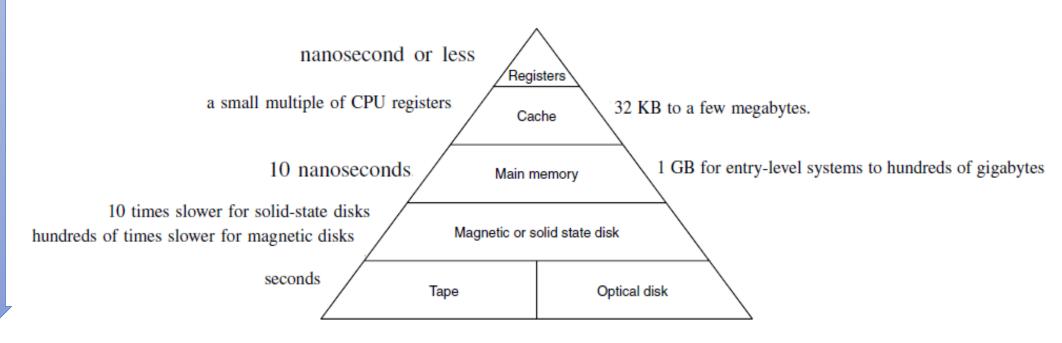


Figure 2-18. A five-level memory hierarchy.

Magnetic Disks

- Consists of one or more platters with a magnetizable coating
- A disk head containing an induction coil floats just over the surface, resting on a cushion of air
- When a positive or negative current passes through the head, it magnetizes the surface just beneath the head, aligning the magnetic particles face right or left, depending on the polarity of the drive current
- When the head passes over a magnetized area, a positive or negative current is induced in the head, making it possible to read back the previously stored bits



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9eMWG3fwiEU

Magnetic Disks

- Track
- The circular sequence of bits written as the disk makes a complete rotation called a track
- Sector
- Each track is divided into some sector with fixed length, typically, 512 bytes
- Preamble: allow the head to be synchronized before reading or writing
- Data bits
- Error Correcting Code: either a Hamming code, or Reed-Solomon code

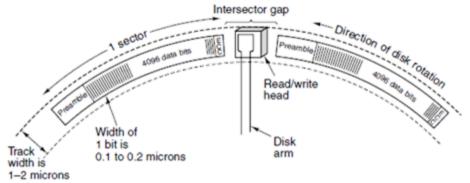


Figure 2-19. A portion of a disk track. Two sectors are illustrated.

Magnetic Disks

Most Disks

- Consist of multiple platters stacked vertically
- Each surface has its own arm and head. All arms are ganged together so they move to different radial positions all at once

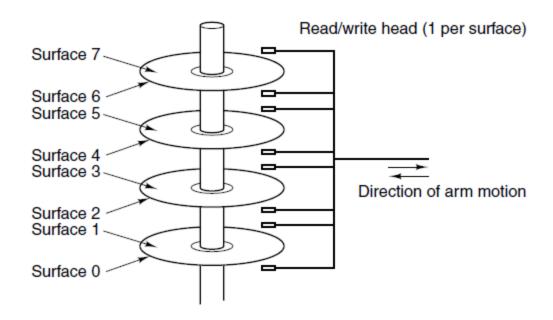


Figure 2-20. A disk with four platters.

Magnetic Disks

Disk Performance

Seek

- 1. To read/write a sector, the arm must be moved to the right radial direction first
- 2. Average seek times (between random tracks) : 5 10 msec

Rotational Latency

- 1. The delay until the desired sector rotates under the head once after the head is positioned radially
- 2. For disk rotation speed 5400RPM 7200RPM 10,800RPM, average delay is 3-6 ms

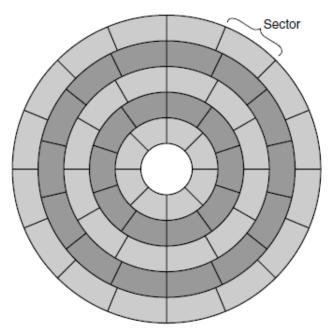
• Transfer Time

1. Typical internal transfer rate of 150 MB/sec, a 512-byte sector takes about 3.5 μ sec

• Disk Controller

- 1. Associated with each drive is a disk controller, a chip that controls the drive
- 2. Accepting commands from software, such as read, write, format
- 3. Controlling the arm motion; detecting and correcting errors
- 4. Converting 8-bit bytes read from memory into a serial bit stream and vice versa

Magnetic Disks



A disk with five zones. Each zone has many tracks.

- Cylinders are divided into zones (typically 10 to 30 per drive)
- The number of sectors per track is increased in each zone moving outward from the innermost track.
- All sectors are the same size

IDE/SCSI Disks

Integrated Drive Electronic (IDE)

- The controller is closely integrated with the drives
- 4 bits for head, 6 bits for sector, 10 bits for cylinder, the max drive could have 63 sector, 16 heads and 1024 cylinders
- Total 1,032,192 sectors, capacity 504 MB=1032192*512

Small Computer System Interface (SCSI)

- 1. Same organization of cylinders, tracks and sector;
- 2. Different interface and much higher transfer rates
- 3. More than just a hard disk interface and it is a bus to which a SCSI controller and up to 7 devices can be attached, such as SCSI disk, scanner, tape units, and others
- 4. SCSI allows all the devices to run at once, improving performance
- 5. IDE allows only one active device at a time

IDE/SCSI Disks

Name	Data bits	Bus MHz	MB/sec
SCSI-1	8	5	5
Fast SCSI	8	10	10
Wide Fast SCSI	16	10	20
Ultra SCSI	8	20	20
Wide Ultra SCSI	16	20	40
Ultra2 SCSI	8	40	40
Wide Ultra2 SCSI	16	40	80
Wide Ultra3 SCSI	16	80	160
Wide Ultra4 SCSI	16	160	320
Wide Ultra5 SCSI	16	320	640

Some of the possible SCSI parameters.





https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=A3q1x3 7tTg