Caches

Introduction

1. Basic review of caches from undergraduate computer architecture course

Locality Principle

- 1. Locality Principle: Things that will happen soon are likely to be close to things that just happened
 - Also used in branch prediction

Locality Quiz

- 1. Which of these are not good examples of locality?
 - Rained 3 times today -> likely to rain again today
 - Ate dinner at 6 every day last week -> probabaly we will eat dinner around 6 this week
 - It was New Year's Eve yesterday -> Probably it will be New Year's Eve today (not a good example)

Memory References

- 1. If a processor accessed address X recently...
 - Likely to access X again soon (temporal)
 - Likely to access addresses close to X too (spatial)

Temporal Locality Quiz

1. Consider the following program:

```
int sum = 0;
for(int j = 0; j < 1000; j++)
{
    sum = sum + arr[j];
}</pre>
```

- 2. Which of these memory locations has temporal locality in this code?
 - j (yes)
 - sum (yes)
 - Elements of arr (no)

Spatial Locality Quiz

1. Consider the following program:

```
int sum = 0;
for(int j = 0; j < 1000; j++)
{
    sum = sum + arr[j];
}</pre>
```

- 2. Which of these memory locations has spatial locality in this code?
 - j (no)
 - sum (no)
 - Elements of arr (yes)

Locality and Data Accesses

1. Example: Library - Large amount of data but slow to access

- Accesses have both temporal and spatial locality
 - Temporal: Look up definition of locality frequently
 - Spatial: Look up some computer architecture definition -> will look up other computer architecture information too
- A student will...
 - Go to library, find info, go back home (doesn't benefit from locality)
 - Borrow the book (ideal)
 - Take all books and build a library at home (expensive, but does not benefit from locality)

Cache Quiz

- 1. Main memory is large and slow to access
- 2. Lots of spatial and temporal locality in programs
- 3. When accessing a memory location...
 - Go to main memory for every access (no)
 - Have small memory inside processor core, bring accessed data there (yes)
 - Have huge memory next to our processor chip, bring everything there

Cache Lookups

- 1. Attributes of cache
 - Fast -> small
 - Not everything will fit
 - Access:
 - Cache hit: Found it in the cache (fast)
 - Cache miss: Not in cache -> access slow memory (copy this location to the cache to exploit locality)

Cache Performance

- 1. Properties of a good cache
 - Average memory access time (AMAT)
 - AMAT = Hit Time + Miss Rate * Miss Penalty
 - Hit time -> Small and fast cache
 - Miss rate -> Large and/or smart cache
 - Miss penalty -> Main memory access time
 - Miss Time = Hit Time + Miss Penality
 - AMAT = (1 Miss Rate) * Hit Time + Miss Rate * Miss Time

Hit Time Quiz

- 1. In a well-designed cache..
 - Hit time < Miss time (true)
 - Hit time > Miss penalty (false)
 - Hit time == Miss penalty (false)
 - Miss time > Miss penalty (true)
- 2. Hit time << Miss time
 - Miss time is roughly equal to the miss penalty

Miss Rate Quiz

- 1. Which is true for a well-designed cache?
 - Hit rate > Miss rate (true)
 - Hit rate < Miss rate (false)
 - Hit rate == Miss rate (false)

- Hit rate is almost 1 (true)
- Miss rate is almost 1 (false)
- 2. Hit rate = 1 Miss rate

Cache Size in Real Processors

- 1. Modern processors typically have several caches
- 2. L1 Cache: Directly service read/write requests from the processor
 - 16 kB 64 kB
 - Large enough to get ~90% hit rate
 - Small enough to hit in 1-3 cycles

Cache Organization

- 1. How to determine a hit or miss?
 - Need a table of some sort that we can quickly index with some bits of the address
 - Cache line contains some bits to tell what data is present in that line
 - Block size: How many bytes are in each entry (line size)
 - A block size of 1 means only 1 byte can be retrieved at a time
 - This complicates LW/SW instructions as they would access 4 cache lines
 - Want block size to be at least as big as the largest single access we can do in the cache (hopefully slightly larger)
 - If there is spatial locality, we want to bring in a chunk of data around the desired memory location
 - Typical block size: 32-128 bytes
 - A block size of 1 kB would mean bringing in a lot of data; if there is no spatial locality, much
 of this data is never accessed (wasteful)
- 2. How to determine what to evict?

Block Size Quiz

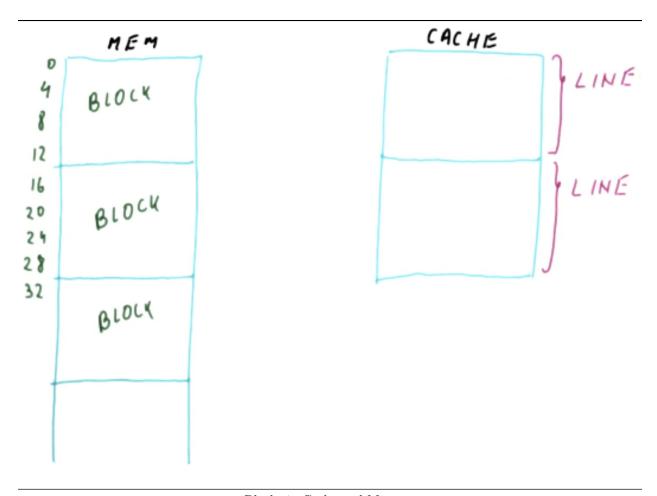
- 1. 32 kB cache with 64 byte block size
- 2. Program accesses variables x1, x2, ..., xN
 - Lots of temporal locality
 - No spatial locality
- 3. What is the largest N that still results in a high hit rate?
 - $N = 2 \hat{1} / 2 \hat{6} = 2 \hat{9} = 512$

Cache Block Start Address

- 1. How do we determine where a cache block can start?
 - Anywhwere: 64B block -> 0..63, 1..64, 2..65
 - This complicates access because a single address could map to several different locations in the cache
 - Another complication is that blocks can overlap; when writing, need to determine all of the locations that the memory location references and update them
 - Aligned: Align addresses to block size (0..63, 64..127, ...)
 - Can use some bits of the address to index into the cache

Blocks in Cache and Memory

- 1. Space in memory is referred to as a block
- 2. Space in cache is referred to as a line
- 3. Blocks get mapped to lines



Blocks in Cache and Memory

Cache Line Sizes Quiz

- 1. Which of these are not good line sizes in a 2kB cache?
 - 1 B (not good)
 - 32 B (good)
 - 48 B (not good)
 - 64 B (good)
 - 1 kB (not good)
- 2. Explanations:
 - 1B does not exploit spatial locality and word accesses will go to multiple cache locations
 - 32B exploits spatial locality and is a power of 2
 - 48B is not a power of 2 (more complicated to divide by 48)
 - $\bullet~$ 64B is good for the same reason as 32B
 - 1 kB is not good because only 2 will fit in the cache

Block Offset and Block Number

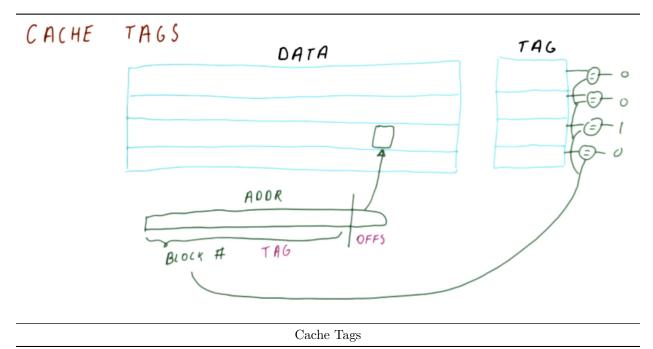
- 1. Address is 32 bits, block size is 16 bits
 - 4 bits needed to determine the block offset
 - Remaining bits determine the block index (block number)

Block Number Quiz

- 1. Consider a processor with 16-bit addresses and a cache with 32B block size
- 2. Address is 1111 0000 1010 0101
 - Block number is 1111 0000 101
 - Block offset is 00101

Cache Tags

- 1. In addition to the data, the cache keeps a separate tag to keep track of what memory location is stored in each cache line
- 2. Compare the block number from the address to the tag; if identical, that memory location is already present in the cache
- 3. Block # is not necessarily equal to the tag



Cache Tag Quiz

- 1. The tag always...
 - Contains the entire address of the 1st byte (false)
 - Contains at least one bit from the block offset (false)
 - Contains at least one bit from the block number (true)
 - Contains some bits from block offset and some from block number (false)

Valid Bit

- 1. Need a way of designating whether an entry is legitimate
 - Any possible tag value might match an address
- 2. Add another bit of state to the cache
 - Valid bit: 1 if the entry is populated
 - Initialize to zero when the processor is started
- 3. HIT = (TAG == BLOCK #) & V

Types of Caches

- 1. Fully associative: Any block can be in any line
- 2. Set-associative: N lines where a block can be
 - N is typically > 1 but smaller than total number of lines in the cache
 - N is typically small relative to the number of lines in the cache
 - Often 2, 4, or 8
- 3. Direct-mapped: A block can go into 1 line

Direct Mapped Cache

- 1. For any given block address, there is only one place in the cache where that address can be
- 2. Least significant bits of block address are still block offset
- 3. Next bits are index into the cache
- 4. Remaining bits are the tag
 - Tag does not include index bits
 - Tag needs to identify what data is in the cache; we've already determined which line this address corresponds to with the index bits
 - Storing index bits in the tag is redundant (all entries must have the same index bits)

Upside and Downside of Direct Mapped Cache

- 1. Upsides:
 - Only need to look in one place (faster, cheaper, more energy efficient)
 - Fewer comparisons result in less hardware
- 2. Downsides:
 - Block MUST go in one place
 - If A and B map to the same location, we may continually invalidate that line as we swap between them (conflicts)

Direct Mapped Cache Quiz 1

- 1. 16 kB direct-mapped cache, 256-byte blocks
- 2. Which of these conflict with 0x12345678?
 - 0x12345677 (no)
 - 0x11335577 (no)
 - 0x11115678 (yes)
 - 0x12341666 (yes)
- 3. Explanation:
 - 256-byte blocks -> lowest 8 bits are block offset
 - $16 \text{ kB} / 256 \rightarrow 6 \text{ bits for index}$
 - Index of 0x12345678 is 010110
 - First is not a conflict because they map to different blocks (same tag)

Direct Mapped Cache Quiz 2

- 1. Processor produces the following sequences of accesses:
 - 0x3F1F
 - 0x3F2F
 - 0x3F2E
 - 0x3E1F
- 2. What does the cache contain after these accesses? Assume a cache line is 32B and there are 8 such lines.
 - Lowest 5 bits are block offset
 - Next 3 bits are index

Line	Contents
0	0x3E1F
1	0x3F2F,0x3F2E
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	

Set Associative Caches

- 1. N-way set-associative: A block can be in one of N lines
- 2. Cache is divided into sets
 - Use some bits of the cache's address to determine which set it belongs to
- 3. 2-way set associative means there are two blocks in each set, not that there are two sets
- 4. A 2-way set-associative cache with 8 cache lines would have 8/2 = 4 sets

Offset - Index - Tag for Set Associative

- 1. Least significant bits are still block offset
- 2. Next bits are index -> tell us which set to go to
- 3. Rest of the bits are still the tag
- 4. When we get a tag, we need to check every way in the set

2 Way Set Associative Quiz

- 1. Processor produces the following sequences of accesses:
 - 0xF303
 - 0xF503
 - 0xF563
 - 0xEF63
- 2. What does the cache contain after these accesses? Assume a cache line is 32B and there are 8 such lines in a 2-way set-associative cache (4 sets).

Line	Contents
0	0xF303
1	0xF503
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	0xF563
7	0xEF63

Fully Associative Cache

- 1. Any block can map to any line
- 2. Least significant bits are still block offset
- 3. A fully associative cache has no index bits; all remaining bits are the tag

Direct Mapped and Fully Associative

- 1. Direct-mapped = 1-way set associative
- 2. Fully associative = N-way set associative (N = number of lines)
- 3. Breaking down the address:
 - Offset = log2(block size)
 - Index = log2(number of sets)
 - Tag = Remaining bits
 - Determine this in order: offset -> index -> tag

Cache Replacement

- 1. Cases where replacement is needed:
 - Set is full
 - Miss -> Need to put new block in set
- 2. Which block do we kick out?
 - Random
 - FIFO
 - Least recently used
 - Preferred policy, but difficult/expensive to determine absolutely
- 3. LRU is typically approximated
 - Not most recently used (NMRU) Pick randomly from any block that wasn't accessed most recently

Implementing LRU

- 1. Keep an LRU counter for each block in a cache
 - Additional state (data, tag, valid, LRU counter)
 - For 4-way set associative cache, 0 is LRU, 3 is MRU
 - When a block is accessed, set its counter to 3 and decrement all others
 - If a block is accessed and it isn't the LRU or MRU, set its counter to 3
 - However, we can't simply decrement all other counters
 - Instead, only decrement the blocks whose counters were greater than the accessed block's counter
- 2. For an N-way set associative cache, we need N log2(N)-bit counters
 - Cost is relatively high
- 3. Need to change N counters on each access (even hits)
 - Additional energy required

LRU Quiz

- 1. 8-way set associative cache with accesses A, B, A, D, K
 - 0 is initial state
 - 1 = A, 2 = B, 3 = A, 4 = D, 5 = K

0	Count	1	Count	2	Count	3	Count	4	Count	5	Count
A	7	A	7	A	6	A	7	A	6	A	5
В	3	В	3	В	7	В	6	В	5	В	4
\mathbf{C}	2	\mathbf{C}	1								
D	6	D	6	D	5	D	5	D	7	D	6
\mathbf{E}	5	\mathbf{E}	5	\mathbf{E}	4	\mathbf{E}	4	\mathbf{E}	4	\mathbf{E}	3
\mathbf{F}	1	F	0								
G	4	G	4	G	3	G	3	G	3	G	2
Η	0	Η	0	Η	0	Η	0	Η	0	K	7

Write Policy

- 1. Allocate policy: Do we insert blocks we write?
 - Write-allocate: Bring the block we write into the cache
 - No-write-allocate: Don't bring the block we write into the cache
- 2. Most modern caches are write-allocate because there is some locality between reads and writes
- 3. Do we write just to cache or also to memory?
 - Write-through: Update memory immediately
 - Write-back: Write to cache, write to memory when replaced
- 4. Most modern caches are write-back because it delays accessing memory unnecessarily
- 5. If you have a write-back cache, you want to have a write-allocate cache because writes need to go to the cache since they aren't going to memory

Write Back Caches

- 1. If a block has been written since bringing in from memory, we must replace it when we write to memory
- 2. If a block hasn't been written since bringing in from memory, there is no need to write that block back to memory
- 3. Dirty bit: Every block has a bit to designate if it has been updated
 - 0: Block is clean (not written since last brought from memory)
 - 1: Block is dirty (need to write back on replacement)

Write Back Cache Example

- 1. A processor performs the following sequence of accesses. Assume A, B, C map to different sets in the cache, but E maps to A and F maps to B
 - Write A
 - Read A
 - Read B
 - Read C
 - Write C
 - Read E
 - Read F
- 2. The final state of the cache is:
 - Dirty bit is set whenever the instruction is a write
 - When E overwrites A, we must write the data in A back to memory

V	Tag	D	Data
1	Е	0	Е
1	\mathbf{F}	0	\mathbf{F}
1	\mathbf{C}	1	\mathbf{C}

Write Back Cache Quiz

- 1. A processor performs the following sequence of accesses. Assume A, B, C, D all map to the same set in the cache
 - 1: Read A
 - 2: Read B
 - 3: Write B
 - 4: Read C
 - 5: Read D
 - 6: Write D
- 2. The final state of the cache is:
 - We had 4 misses

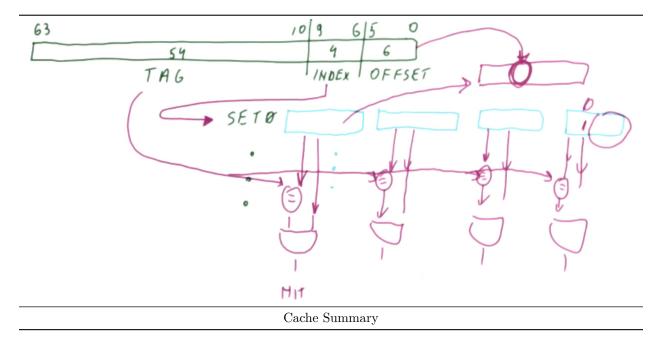
• We had 1 write back

Access	V	D	Tag	Miss?	Write back?
0	0	1	A		
1	1	0	A	X	
2	1	0	В	X	
3	1	1	В		
4	1	0	\mathbf{C}	X	X
5	1	0	D	X	
6	1	1	D		

Cache Summary Part 1

- 1. 4kB, 4-way set associative with 64-byte line, write-back, write-allocate
- 2. 64-bit address
 - 6 bits for offset
 - Number of blocks = $2 \hat{1} / 2 \hat{6} = 2 \hat{6}$
 - Number of sets = Number of blocks / Number of blocks in set = $2 \hat{\ } 6$ / 4 = 16
 - 4 bits for index
 - 54 remaining bits are the tag
- 3. Our cache has the following:
 - Valid bit
 - Dirty bit (since it's write back)
 - Tag (54 bits)
 - 2-bit LRU Counter since the cache is set associative
 - Each cache line has 58 bits in addition to the data

Cache Summary Part 2



Cache Summary Quiz 1

1. 256B, 2-way set associative cache with 32B line, write-back, write-allocate

- 2. 32-bit address
 - 5 bits for offset $(\log 2(32))$
 - Number of blocks = $2^8 / 2^5 = 2^3$
 - Number of sets = $2 \hat{3} / 2 / 4$
 - 2 bits for index
- 3. Answer the following questions:
 - Tag bits are 7 31
 - Index bits are 5 6
 - Offset bits are 0 4

Cache Summary Quiz 2

- 1. Consider the following sequence of accesses:
 - 1. LW 0xBCDE0000
 - 2. LW 0xCDEF0000
 - 3. SW 0xBCDE0000
 - 4. SW 0xCDEF0004
 - 5. SW 0xBCDE0000
- 2. How many cache misses are there?
 - 1. Miss
 - 2. Miss
 - 3. Hit
 - 4. Hit
 - 5. Hit
- 3. How many blocks are written back to memory?
 - 1. Not dirty
 - 2. Not dirty
 - 3. Dirty, no write back
 - 4. Dirty, no write back
 - 5. Dirty, no write back

Conclusion

1. Covered the concerns and choices when designing caches as well as how caches function