CS3350B Computer Organization Chapter 1: CPU and Memory Part 3: Cache Implementations

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Outline

- 1 The Basics
- 2 Cache Organization Schemes
- 3 Handling Cache Hits & Misses
- 4 Cache Design & Improvements

How is the Hierarchy Managed?

Recall: CPU
$$\leftarrow$$
 Registers \leftarrow L1 \leftarrow ... \leftarrow Main Memory \leftarrow Disk

- Registers ↔ Cache Memory:
 - ☐ The compiler (sometimes with the programmer's help) decides which values are stored in which registers.
- Caches ↔ Main Memory:
- Main Memory ↔ Disk:

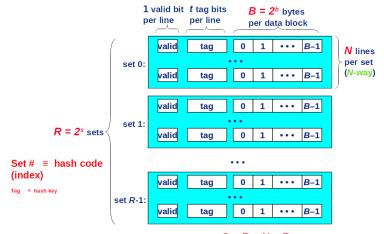
 - the TLB (thus the hardware) which assists the virtual-to-physical address mapping.

Cache Design Questions

- Q1 How best to organize the memory blocks (a.k.a lines) inside the cache?
- Q2 To which block (line) of the cache does a given (main) memory address map?
 - Note: since the cache is a subset of the main memory, multiple memory addresses can map to the same cache location.
- Q3 How do we know if a block of the main memory currently has a copy in cache?
- Q4 How do we quickly find a particular copy of main memory (memory address contents) in the cache?

General Organization of a Cache Memory (1/2)

- \blacksquare Cache is an array of $R=2^s$ sets
- Each set contains $N \ge 1$ lines
- Each cache line (block) holds $B = 2^b$ bytes of data



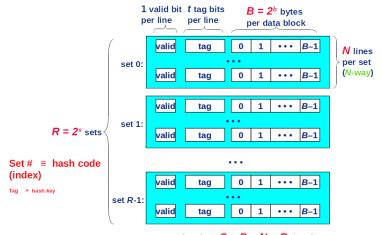
Cache size: $C = B \times N \times R$ data bytes

General Organization of a Cache Memory (2/2)

■ Cache capacity = bytes per line × lines per set × number of sets

$$C = B \times N \times R$$

All values are a power of 2.



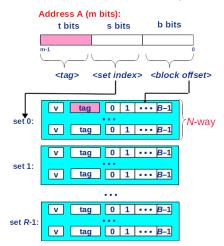
Memory-Cache Mapping (Addressing Cache Memories)

- The data word at the m-bit address
 A is in the cache if the tag bits in one of the <valid> lines in set <set index> match <tag>
- The word contents begin at offset <block offset> bytes from the beginning of the block

Address Mapping:

 $\begin{aligned} & \mathsf{block} \ \mathsf{address} = <\!\mathsf{tag}\!> || <\!\mathsf{set} \ \mathsf{index}\!> \\ & \mathsf{set\#} = (\mathsf{block} \ \mathsf{address}) \mod R \\ & \mathrel{\;\;\sqcup} \ \mathsf{just} \ \mathsf{take} \ \mathsf{the} \ \mathsf{"s} \ \mathsf{bits"} \ \mathsf{as} \ \mathsf{set} \ \mathsf{index}. \end{aligned}$

Note: Main memory address space and cache size/implementation highly coupled.



$$b = \log_2(B)$$
, $R = C/(B * N)$
 $s = \log_2(R)$, $t = m - s - b$

Word Addresses and Byte Addresses

Often, a memory word for a computer will be more than 1 byte. In these cases a *byte memory address* and a *word memory address* are not the same.

- \blacksquare Consider an N-byte word with word address X.
- This word address is actually addressing the *byte* $N \times X$, and the word X has *byte address* $N \times X$.

Example

- Consider the word address 4 on a 16-bit computer.
- 4 in binary is 100, but we must account for the fact that words are 2 bytes long.
- lacktriangle The word address 4 is actually the byte address 8 (=1000 in binary).

Note: if not explicitly said, an address should be considered a byte address.

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Types of Cache Organization

Direct-Mapped

- N = 1
 - One line per set.
 - $\,\,\,\,\downarrow\,\,$ Each memory address is mapped to exactly one line in the cache.
- $b = \log_2(B)$, R = C/B, $s = \log_2(R)$, t (tag size) = m s b.

Fully Associative

- \blacksquare R = 1 (allow a memory address to be mapped to any cache block).
- Tag is whole address except block offset.
- \bullet $b = \log_2(B)$, N = C/B, s = 0, t = m b.

N-way set associative

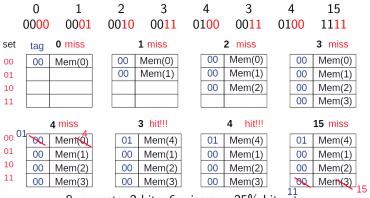
- *N* is typically 2, 4, 8, or 16.
- lacktriangle A memory block maps to a specific set but can and can be placed in any way of that set (so there are N choices of mapping).
- $b = \log_2(B)$, $R = C/(B \times N)$, $s = \log_2(R)$, t = m s b.



Direct-Mapped Cache Example

- Direct-Mapped $\implies N = 1$. Let B = 1, R = 4.
- Therefore we have a 2-bit set index. Assume a 2-bit tag $\implies m = 4$.
- Start with an empty cache blanks are considered invalid.

Consider the sequence of memory address accesses:



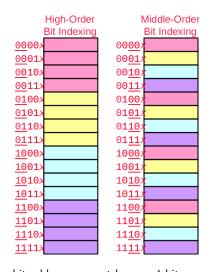
8 requests, 2 hits, 6 misses = 25% hit rate

Why Middle Bits For Set Index?

Consider a 4-line direct-mapped cache; sets are indexed as 00, 01, 10, 11:



- High-Order Bit Indexing
 - Adjacent memory lines would map to same cache entry
 - → Poor use of locality
- Middle-Order Bit Indexing
 - Consecutive memory lines map to different cache lines
 - \hookrightarrow Can hold C-bytes of contiguous memory in cache at one time

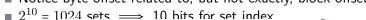


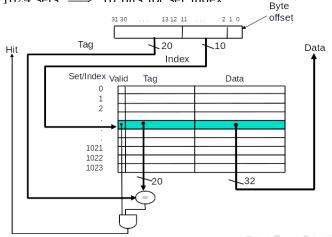
In this example (0000x, 0001x, ...) with an m-bit address, x must be m – 4 bits.

Direct-Mapped Cache Circuit Logic Example 1

In this example:

- One word (4 byte) cache lines (B = 4).
- Notice byte offset related to, but not exactly, block offset.

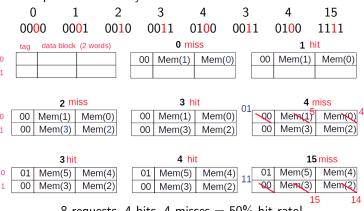




Direct-Mapped Cache Example 2: (B > 1)

- Let the cache line hold two words = bytes (B = 2).
- Direct-Mapped $\implies N = 1$. R = 2.
- Therefore 1-bit set index. Assume a 2-bit tag again.
- Start with an empty cache blanks are considered invalid.

Consider the sequence of memory address accesses:

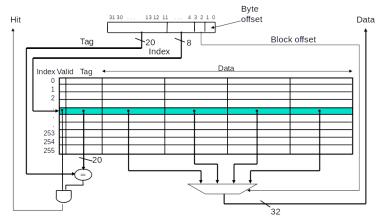


8 requests, 4 hits, 4 misses = 50% hit rate!

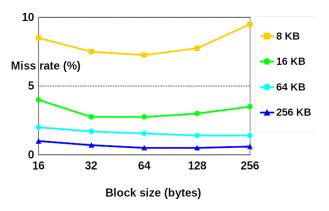
Direct-Mapped Cache Circuit Logic Example 2

In this example:

- Four data words/block (B = 16).
- $2^8 = 256$ sets \implies 8 bits for set index.



Block Size & Cache Performance



Miss rate goes up if the block size becomes a significant fraction of the cache size.

- \downarrow For a fixed cache size, \uparrow block size \Longrightarrow \downarrow number of blocks.

Direct-Mapped Cache Worst-Case

Direct-Mapped $\implies N = 1$. Let B = 1, R = 4.

Consider the sequence of memory addresses accesses:

Thrasing!

8 requests, 8 misses = 100% miss rate!

□ conflict misses – two addresses map into the same cache block

Thrashing Fix with Set Associativity

2-way associative cache $\implies N = 2$. Let B = 1, R = 2 now.

Consider the sequence of memory addresses accesses:

$$0 = (0000), 4 = (0100), 0, 4, 0, 4, 0, 4, \dots$$

$$0 \text{ miss} \qquad 4 \text{ miss} \qquad 0 \text{ hit} \qquad 4 \text{ hit}$$

$$0 \text{ 000 Mem(0)} \qquad 000 \text{ Mem(0)} \qquad 000 \text{ Mem(0)} \qquad 000 \text{ Mem(0)}$$

$$010 \text{ Mem(4)} \qquad 010 \text{ Mem(4)}$$

$$1 \text{ 0000 Mem(4)} \qquad 010 \text{ Mem(4)}$$

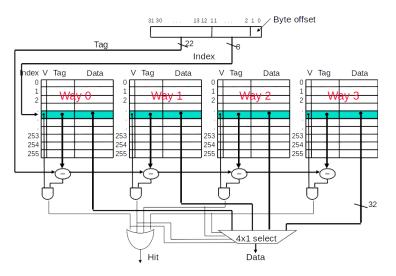
8 requests, 2 misses = 75% hit rate

Solves thrashing of direct-mapped cache caused by conflict misses

Now two memory locations that map to the same block can co-exist.

Four-way Set Associative Cache Circuit Logic Example

 $= 2^8 = 256$ sets each with four ways (each with one block of one word)



Set Associativity Costs Extra

When a miss occurs, which way do we pick for replacement?

- Least Recently Used (LRU): the block replaced is the one that has been unused for the longest time.
 - → Hardware must keep track of when each way was last used relative to the other blocks in the set.
 - For 2-way set associative, takes one bit per set.
 - Set the bit when a block is referenced (and reset the other way's bit).
- First In First Out (FIFO)

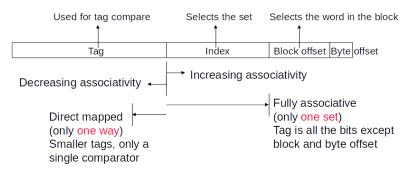
N-way set associative cache costs:

- lacksquare N comparators for LRU policy (delay and physical area on chip).
- MUX delay (selecting the proper way) before data is available.
- In a direct mapped cache, the cache block is available *before* the hit/miss decision.
 - ☐ Impossible to assume a hit and recover later in set associative caches.

Range of Set Associative Caches

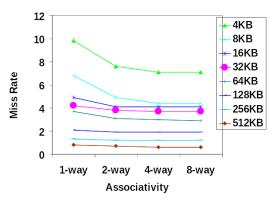
For a **fixed size cache** (and fixed size of cache lines) each doubling in associativity (ways):

- Doubles number of blocks per set,
- Halves number of sets.
- Decreases size of set-index by 1 bit,
- Increases size of tag by 1 bit.



Benefits of Set Associative Caches

The choice between $direct \ mapped \ (1-way)$ and $set \ associative$ depends on the cost of a miss versus the cost of implementation.



Largest gains are in going from direct mapped to 2-way (>20% reduction in miss rate).

Cache Structure in Different Processors

What do we know so far?

	Intel Nehalem	AMD Barcelona	
L1 cache size &	32KB for each per core;	64KB for each per core;	
organization	64B blocks; Split I\$ and D\$	64B blocks; Split I\$ and D\$	
L1 associativity	4-way (I), 8-way (D) set	2-way set assoc.; LRU	
	assoc.; ~LRU replacement	replacement	
L1 write policy	write-back, write-allocate	write-back, write-allocate	
L2 cache size &	256KB per core;	512KB per core;	
organization	64B blocks; Unified	64B blocks; Unified	
L2 associativity	8-way set assoc.; ~LRU	16-way set assoc.; ~LRU	
L2 write policy	write-back, write-allocate	write-back, write-allocate	
L3 cache size &	8192KB (8MB) shared by	2048KB (2MB) shared by	
organization	cores; 64B blocks; Unified	by cores; 64B blocks; Unified	
L3 associativity	16-way set assoc.	32-way set assoc.; evict block	
		shared by fewest cores	
L3 write policy	write-back, write-allocate	write-back, write-allocate	

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Handling Cache Hits

Read Hits (Instructions and Data)

 \blacksquare This is what we want! \implies Do nothing special.

Write Hits (Data only) has two policies:

- Write-through: Require the cache and backing memory to always be consistent.
 - When writing to a cache, also pass the value to the next lower level cache (or main memory) to update its copy.
 - ☐ In naïve implementation this is very slow. Speed of cache writes limited by the speed of the next lower level.
 - Use a write buffer between levels and stall only if buffer is full.
- Write-back: Allow cache and memory to be inconsistent
 - Write data into the cache block, this becomes a dirty block.
 - → Only update the next lower level when a dirty block is evicted.
 - Requires >two cycles one to check for evict/dirty and another to actually do write or again use a write buffer and use only one cycle.

Handling Cache Misses

Read Misses (Instruction and Data)

■ **Stall** the execution, fetch block from the next lower level of memory, write ("install") it into cache, pass it to next higher level of memory (or the processor), and let processor resume.

Write Misses (Data only) stall execution and perform one of two policies:

- **■** Write allocate:
 - Fetch the block from the next level in the memory hierarchy,

 - Installing block and writing the updated word can be done simultaneously.
- No-Write Allocate: Skip fetching/installing block into cache, write directly into lower level of memory (or a write buffer).

then let the processor resume.

Dealing With Cache Misses with Hardware Design

Compulsory Misses:

- Caused by **cold** starts, process migrations or very first references.
- Reduce impact by

Capacity Misses:

- Caused by the cache becoming full; it cannot hold all blocks referenced by the program.
- Reduce impact by

Conflict Misses:

- Caused by multiple addresses mapping to the same cache block.
- Reduce impact by

Dealing With Cache Misses with Hardware Design

Compulsory Misses:

- Caused by **cold** starts, process migrations or very first references.
- Reduce impact by increasing block size. But this causes increased miss penalty and could increase miss rate.

Capacity Misses:

- Caused by the cache becoming full; it cannot hold all blocks referenced by the program.
- Reduce impact by increasing cache size (but may increase access time.

Conflict Misses:

- Caused by multiple addresses mapping to the same cache block.
- Reduce impact by increasing associativity or increasing cache/block size (but may increase access time)

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Reducing effects of Cache Miss

Reducing Cache Miss Rate ⇒ increase cache size

■ With increasing technology (especially transistor size and density) there is more room for larger caches.

Reducing Cache Miss Penalty \implies use more levels of cache

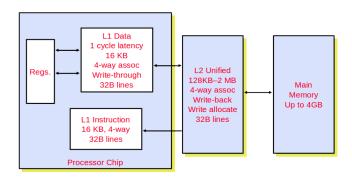
- L1 cache around for a *long* time.
- L2 cache first appeared with Intel's Celeron processors with only 128KB (1999).
- L3 was first seen in 2003 but prohibitively expensive. Became standard with Intel's Nehalem in 2008.

Recall: New AMAT Example

1 cycle L1 hit time, 2% L1 miss rate, 5 cycle L2 hit time, 5% L2 miss rate, 100 cycle main memory access time

- Without L2 cache: AMAT = 1 + .02*100 = 3
- With L2 cache: AMAT = 1 + .02*(5 + .05*100) = 1.2

Intel Pentium Memory Hierarchy



Multilevel Cache Design

Design considerations for L1 and L2 caches are very different:

- Primary cache should focus on minimizing hit time in support of faster processor clock.
 - → Smaller capacity with smaller block sizes.
- Secondary cache(s) should focus on reducing miss penalty for L1 cache by reducing miss rate to main memory.
- The miss penalty of the L1 cache is significantly reduced by the presence of an L2 cache.
 - ↓ L1 cache can be smaller and faster (but results in higher miss rate).
- Hit time is less important for L2 cache than miss rate.
 - → But, L2 hit time determines L1's miss penalty.
 - Presence of L3 cache greatly improves the situation, allowing L2 miss rate to be *slightly* less important.

It's all a balancing act.

Improving Cache Performance (1/2)

AMAT = Time for a Hit + Miss Rate * Miss Penalty

- (1) Reduce the **time to hit** in the cache.
 - → Smaller cache size, smaller block size.
 - □ Direct-Mapped
 - → For writes, two possible strategies:
 - No-Write Allocate: no "hit" on cache, just write to write buffer.
 Makes subsequent reads tricky.
 - Write Allocate: avoid 2 cycles using write buffer to write to lower cache.
- (2) Reduce the **miss rate**.
 - \downarrow Larger cache, Larger block size (16 64 bytes typical).

 - Use a victim-cache − a small buffer holding most recently discarded blocks.

Improving Cache Performance (2/2)

AMAT = Time for a Hit + Miss Rate * Miss Penalty

- (3) Reduce the miss penalty
 - → Smaller blocks.

 - □ Check the write-buffer (or the victim-cache) on a read miss: luck!
 - → Pre-fetch critical word first, then rest of cache block.

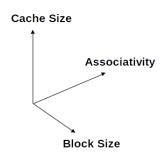
 - \vdash Faster backing store (= main memory).
 - Improved **memory bandwidth** amount and speed of memory transfer between levels (e.g. wider buses).

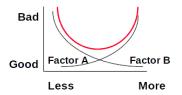
The Cache Design Space

It's all a balancing act.

- Several interacting dimensions

 - block size
 - → associativity
 - ⊢ replacement policy
 - $\,\,\,\downarrow\,\,\,$ write-through vs write-back
- The optimal choice is a **compromise**
 - depends on access characteristics (what the program is doing).
 - \rightarrow depends on technology / cost.
- Simplicity often wins.





Memory Hierarchy: Critical Aspects

The Principle of Locality:

- Program likely to access a relatively small portion of the address space at any instant of time.
 - → **Temporal locality:** Locality in Time.
 - **Spatial locality:** Locality in Space.

Three major types of cache misses:

- Compulsory/Cold Misses: Sad facts of life. The *first* reference to an address/block.
- Conflict misses: Increase cache size and/or associativity. Thrashing!
- Capacity misses: It turns out size does matter :(

Cache Design Space

- Total size, Block size, Associativity (& Replacement policy).
- Write-hit policy: write-through, write-back
- Write-miss policy: (no)-write-allocate. Use write buffers.

Questions to Consider

- Q1 Where can an entry be placed or found in cache?
- Q2 Which entry should be replaced on a miss?
 - → Replacement Policies: LRU, FIFO.
- Q3 What happens on a write?

Typical Example: Given list of memory references describe the cache's state after each reference.

Q1: Where can an entry be placed?

	# of sets	Entries per set
Direct mapped	# of cache lines	1
Set associative	(# of cache lines) /	Associativity
	associativity	(typically 2 to 16)
Fully associative	1	# of entries

	Location method	# of comparisons
Direct mapped	Index	1
Set associative	Index the set;	Degree of
	compare set's tags	associativity
Fully associative	Compare all entries' tags	# of entries

Q2: Which entry should be replaced on a miss?

- Easy for direct mapped only one choice.
- Set associative or fully associative:

 - → FIFO (First In First Out)
- For 2-way set associative LRU is easy and ideal.
- Comparisons required for LRU can be too costly for high levels of associativity (> 4-way).