Caches

CSE 410 - Computer Systems

October 24, 2001

Readings and References

- Reading
  - Sections 7.1, 7.2, 7.3, *Computer Organization & Design*, Patterson and Hennessy
- Other References
  - Chapter 4, Caches for MIPS, *See MIPS Run*, D. Sweetman

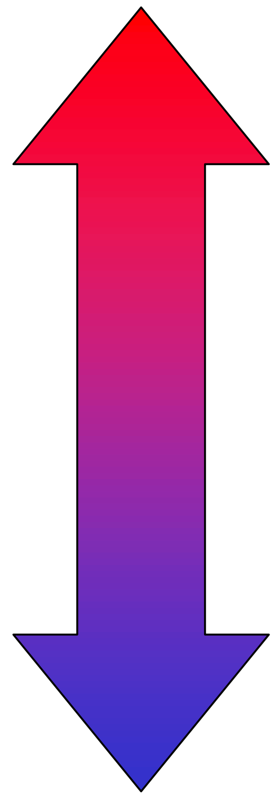
The Quest for Speed - Memory

- If all memory accesses (IF/lw/sw) accessed main memory, programs would run 20 times slower
- And it's getting worse
  - processors speed up by 50% annually
  - memory accesses speed up by 9% annually
  - it's becoming harder and harder to keep these processors fed

A Solution: Memory Hierarchy

- Keep <u>copies</u> of the active data in the small, fast, expensive storage

- Keep <u>all</u> data in the big, slow, cheap storage



fast, small, expensive storage

slow, large, cheap storage

Memory Hierarchy

Memory Level	Fabrication Tech	Access Time (ns)	Typ. Size (bytes)	$/MB
Registers	Registers	<0.5	256	1000
L1 Cache	SRAM	2	8K	100
L2 Cache	SRAM	10	1M	100
Memory	DRAM	50	128M	0.75
Disk	Magnetic Disk	10M	32G	0.0035

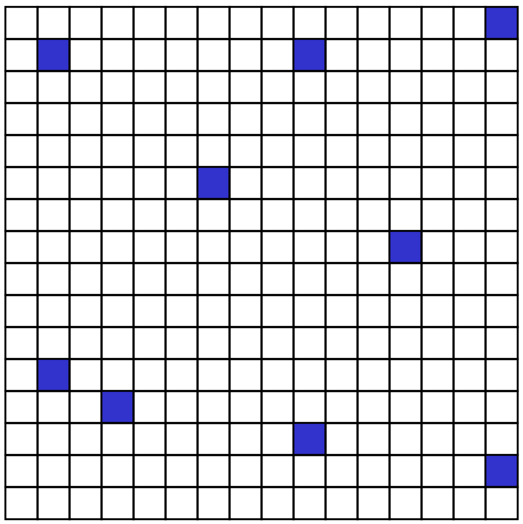
What is a Cache?

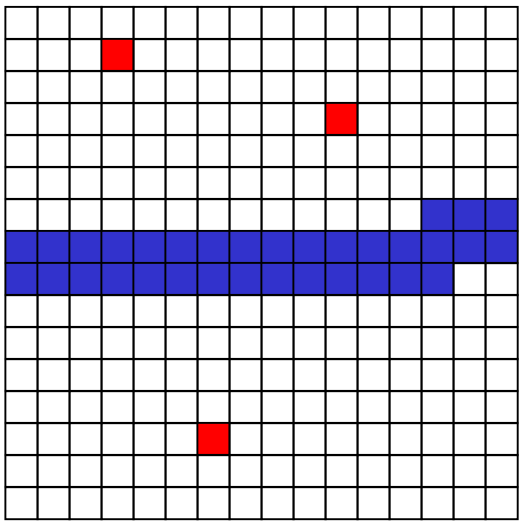
- A cache allows for fast accesses to a subset of a larger data store
- Your web browser’s cache gives you fast access to pages you visited recently
  - faster because it’s stored locally
  - subset because the web won’t fit on your disk
- The memory cache gives the processor fast access to memory that it used recently
  - faster because it’s located on the CPU chip

Locality of reference

- Temporal locality - nearness in time
  – Data being accessed now will probably be accessed again soon
  – Useful data tends to continue to be useful
- Spatial locality - nearness in address
  – Data near the data being accessed now will probably be needed soon
  – Useful data is often accessed sequentially

Memory Access Patterns





- Memory accesses **don't** look like this
  - random accesses
- Memory accesses **do** look like this
  - hot variables
  - step through arrays

Cache Terminology

- **Hit** and **Miss**
  - the data item is in the cache or the data item is not in the cache
- **Hit rate** and **Miss rate**
  - the percentage of references that the data item is in the cache or not in the cache
- **Hit time** and **Miss time**
  - the time required to access data in the cache (cache access time) and the time required to access data not in the cache (memory access time)

Effective Access Time

$$t_{effective} = (h)t_{cache} + (1-h)t_{memory}$$

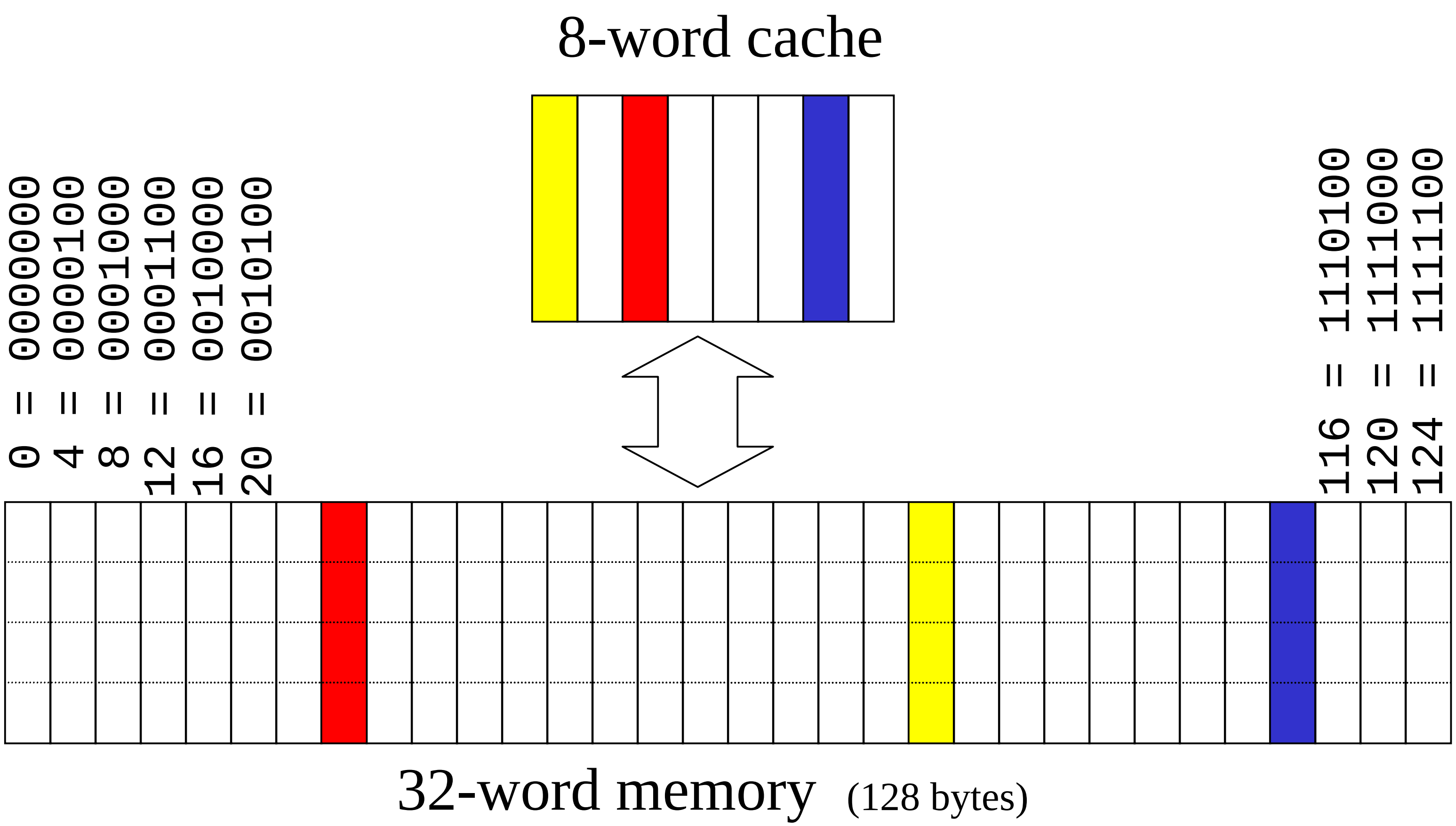
- cache hit rate: h
- cache miss rate: $1-h$
- effective access time: $t_{effective}$
- cache access time: t_{cache}
- memory access time: t_{memory}

aka, Average Memory Access Time (AMAT)

Cache Contents

- When do we put something in the cache?
  - when it is used for the first time
- When do we take something out of the cache?
  - when we need the space in the cache for some other entry
  - all of memory won’t fit on the CPU chip so not every location in memory can be cached

A small two-level hierarchy



Fully Associative Cache

- In a fully associative cache,
  - any memory word can be placed in any **cache line**
  - each cache line stores an address and a data value
  - accesses are slow (but not as slow as you would think)

Address	Valid	Value
0010100	Y	0x00000001
0000100	N	0x09D91D11
0100100	Y	0x00000410
0101100	Y	0x00012D10
0001100	N	0x00000005
1101100	Y	0x0349A291
0100000	Y	0x000123A8
1111100	N	0x00000200

Direct Mapped Caches

- Fully associative caches are too slow
- With direct mapped caches the address of the item determines where in the cache to store it
  - In our example, the lower five bits of the address dictate the location of the cache entry
  - The lowest two bits are the byte offset within the word

Direct Mapped Cache

Index	Address	Valid	Value
000_2 = 0	1100000	Y	0x00000001
001_2 = 1	1000100	N	0x09D91D11
010_2 = 2	0101000	Y	0x00000410
011_2 = 3	0001100	Y	0x00012D10
100_2 = 4	1010000	N	0x00000005
101_2 = 5	1110100	Y	0x0349A291
110_2 = 6	0011000	Y	0x000123A8
111_2 = 7	1011100	N	0x00000200

Address Tags

- A *tag* is a label for a cache entry indicating where it came from
  - The upper bits of the data item's address

7 bit Address
1011101

Tag (2)	Index (3)	Byte Offset (2)
10	**111**	**01**

Cache with Address Tag

Index	Tag	Valid	Value
000_2 = 0	11	Y	0x00000001
001_2 = 1	10	N	0x09D91D11
010_2 = 2	01	Y	0x00000410
011_2 = 3	00	Y	0x00012D10
100_2 = 4	10	N	0x00000005
101_2 = 5	11	Y	0x0349A291
110_2 = 6	00	Y	0x000123A8
111_2 = 7	10	N	0x00000200

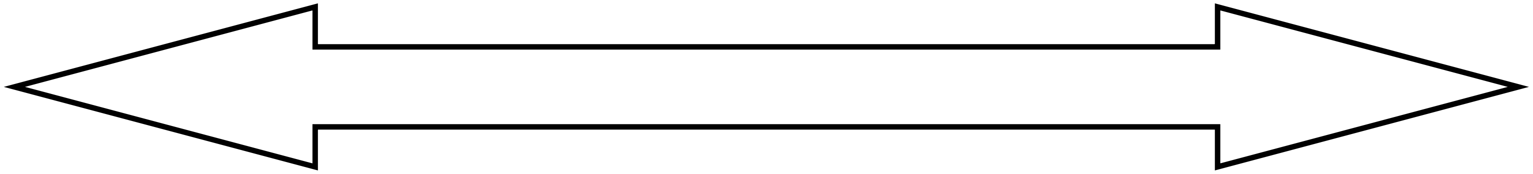
N-way Set Associative Caches

- Direct mapped caches cannot store more than one address with the same index
- If two addresses collide, then you have to kick one of them out
- 2-way associative caches can store two different addresses with the same index
  - 3-way, 4-way and 8-way set associative designs too
- Reduces misses due to conflicts
- Larger sets imply slower accesses

2-way Set Associative Cache

Index	Tag	Valid	Value	Tag	Valid	Value
000	11	Y	0x00000001	00	Y	0x00000002
001	10	N	0x09D91D11	10	N	0x0000003B
010	01	Y	0x00000410	11	Y	0x000000CF
011	00	Y	0x00012D10	10	N	0x000000A2
100	10	N	0x00000005	11	N	0x00000333
101	11	Y	0x0349A291	10	Y	0x00003333
110	00	Y	0x000123A8	01	Y	0x0000C002
111	10	N	0x00000200	10	N	0x00000005

Associativity Spectrum



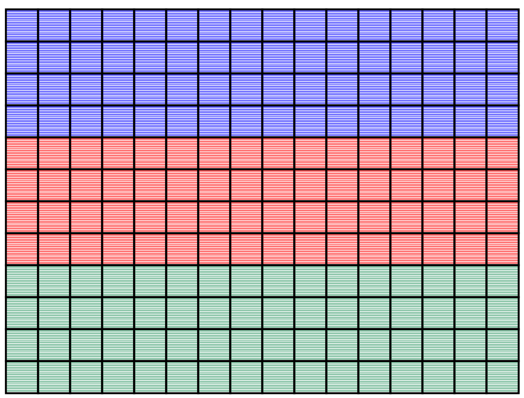
Direct Mapped	**N-way Associative**	**Fully Associative**
Fast to access	Slower to access	Slow to access
Conflict Misses	Fewer Conflict Misses	No Conflict Misses

Spatial Locality

- Using the cache improves performance by taking advantage of temporal locality
  - When a word in memory is accessed it is loaded into cache memory
  - It is then available quickly if it is needed again soon
- This does nothing for spatial locality

Memory Blocks

- Divide memory into **blocks**
- If any word in a block is accessed, then load an entire block into the cache



Block 0 `0x00000000–0x0000003F`

Block 1 `0x00000040–0x0000007F`

Block 2 `0x00000080–0x000000BF`

Cache line for 16 word block size

tag	valid	w_0	w_1	w_2	w_3	w_4	w_5	w_6	w_7	w_8	w_9	w_{10}	w_{11}	w_{12}	w_{13}	w_{14}	w_{15}

Address Tags Revisited

- A cache block size > 1 word requires the address to be divided differently
- Instead of a byte offset into a word, we need a byte offset into the block
- Assuming we had 10-bit addresses, and 4 words in a block…

10 bit Address		
0101100111		
Tag (3)	Index (3)	Block Offset (4)
010	**110**	**0111**

The Effects of Block Size

- Big blocks are good
  - Fewer first time misses
  - Exploits spatial locality
- Small blocks are good
  - Don’t evict so much other data when bringing in a new entry
  - More likely that all items in the block will turn out to be useful

Reads vs. Writes

- Caching is essentially making a copy of the data
- When you read, the copies still match when you’re done
- When you write, the results must eventually propagate to both copies
  - Especially at the lowest level, which is in some sense the permanent copy

Write-Through Caches

- Write all updates to both cache and memory
- Advantages
  - The cache and the memory are always consistent
  - Evicting a cache line is cheap because no data needs to be written out to memory at eviction
  - Easy to implement
- Disadvantages
  - Runs at memory speeds when writing (can use write buffer to reduce this problem)

Write-Back Caches

- Write the update to the cache only. Write to memory only when cache block is evicted
- Advantage
  - Runs at cache speed rather than memory speed
  - Some writes never go all the way to memory
  - When a whole block is written back, can use high bandwidth transfer
- Disadvantage
  - complexity required to maintain consistency

Dirty bit

- When evicting a block from a write-back cache, we could
  - always write the block back to memory
  - write it back only if we changed it
- Caches use a “dirty bit” to mark if a line was changed
  - the dirty bit is 0 when the block is loaded
  - it is set to 1 if the block is modified
  - when the line is evicted, it is written back only if the dirty bit is 1

i-Cache and d-Cache

- There usually are two separate caches for instructions and data.
  - Avoids structural hazards in pipelining
  - The combined cache is twice as big but still has an access time of a small cache
  - Allows both caches to operate in parallel, for twice the bandwidth

Cache Line Replacement

- How do you decide which cache block to replace?
- If the cache is direct-mapped, it’s easy
  – only one slot per index
- Otherwise, common strategies:
  – Random
  – Least Recently Used (LRU)

LRU Implementations

- LRU is very difficult to implement for high degrees of associativity
- 4-way approximation:
  - 1 bit to indicate least recently used pair
  - 1 bit per pair to indicate least recently used item in this pair
- We will see this again at the operating system level

Multi-Level Caches

- Use each level of the memory hierarchy as a cache over the next lowest level
- Inserting level 2 between levels 1 and 3 allows:
  - level 1 to have a higher miss rate (so can be smaller and cheaper)
  - level 3 to have a larger access time (so can be slower and cheaper)

Cache Comparisons

L1 i-Cache

Alpha 21164	MIPS R10000	Pentium Pro	UltraSparc 1
8KB direct-mapped 32B block	32KB 2-way (LRU) 64B block	8KB 4-way 32B block	16KB pseudo 2-way 32B block

L1 d-Cache

Alpha 21164	MIPS R10000	Pentium Pro	UltraSparc 1
8KB direct-mapped 32B block	32KB 2-way (LRU) 32B block	8KB 2-way 32B block	16KB direct-mapped 32B block

L2 unified Cache

Alpha 21164		Pentium Pro	
96KB 3-way 64B block on chip		256KB 4-way 32B block same package	

Summary: Classifying Caches

- Where can a block be placed?
  - Direct mapped, N-way Set or Fully associative
- How is a block found?
  - Direct mapped: by index
  - Set associative: by index and search
  - Fully associative: by search
- What happens on a write access?
  - Write-back or Write-through
- Which block should be replaced?
  - Random
  - LRU (Least Recently Used)