Cache Memory

CSE 410, Spring 2006

Computer Systems

http://www.cs.washington.edu/education/courses/410/06sp/

Reading and References

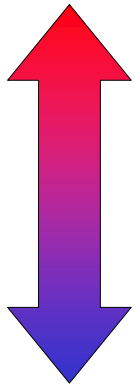
- Reading
  - » *Computer Organization and Design, Patterson and Hennessy*
    - Section 7.1 Introduction
    - Section 7.2 The Basics of Caches
    - Section 7.3 Measuring and Improving Cache Performance
- Reference
  - » Chapter 4, *See MIPS Run*, D. Sweetman

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 copies of the active data in the small, fast, expensive storage
- Keep all data in the big, slow, cheap storage



fast, small, expensive storage

slow, large, cheap storage

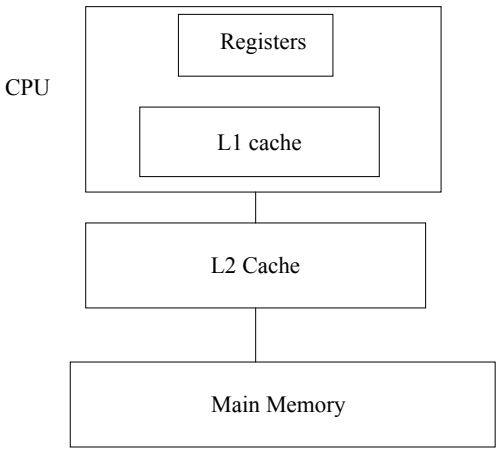
Memory Hierarchy

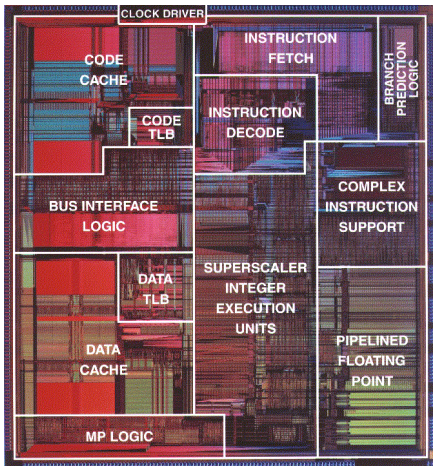
Memory Level	Fabrication Tech	Access Time (ns)	Typ. Size (bytes)	$/MB
Registers	Registers	<0.5	256	1000
L1 Cache	SRAM	1	64K	100
L2 Cache	SRAM	10	1M	100
Memory	DRAM	100	512M	100
Disk	Magnetic Disk	10M	100G	0.0035

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 fancy and usually located on the CPU chip
  - » subset because the cache is smaller than main memory

Memory Hierarchy

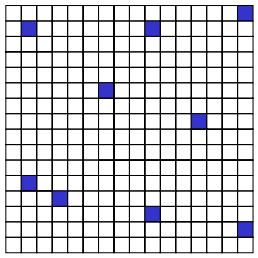


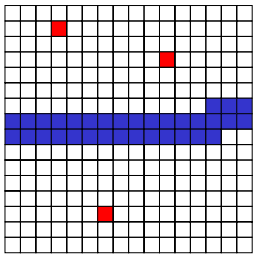


Locality of reference

- 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** usually look like this
  - » random accesses
- Memory accesses **do** usually 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

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

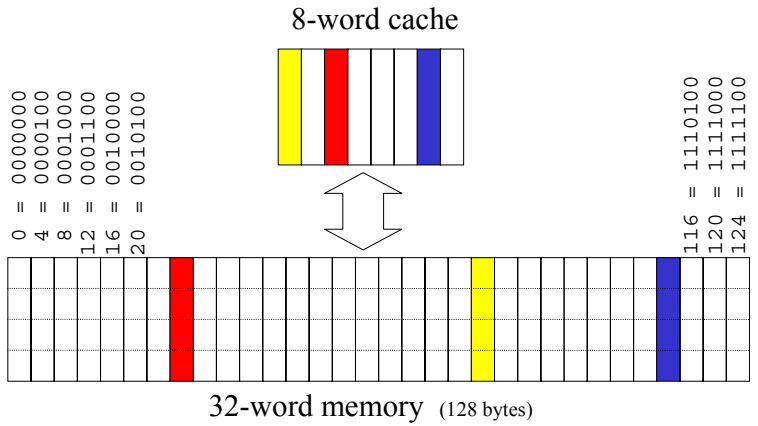
- h: cache hit rate
- $1-h$: cache miss rate
- $t_{effective}$: effective access time
- t_{cache}: cache access time
- t_{memory}: memory access time

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 overwrite something in 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 might 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 often too slow
- With direct mapped caches the address of the item determines where in the cache to store it
  - » In our example, the lowest order two bits are the byte offset within the word stored in the cache
  - » The next three bits of the address dictate the location of the entry within the cache
  - » The remaining higher order bits record the rest of the original address as a tag for this entry

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

Direct Mapped Cache

Memory Address	Cache Contents: Tag	Valid	Value	Cache Index
1100000	11	Y	0x00000001	000_2 = 0
1000100	10	N	0x09D91D11	001_2 = 1
0101000	01	Y	0x00000410	010_2 = 2
0001100	00	Y	0x00012D10	011_2 = 3
1010000	10	N	0x00000005	100_2 = 4
1110100	11	Y	0x0349A291	101_2 = 5
0011000	00	Y	0x000123A8	110_2 = 6
1011100	10	N	0x00000200	111_2 = 7

N-way Set Associative Caches

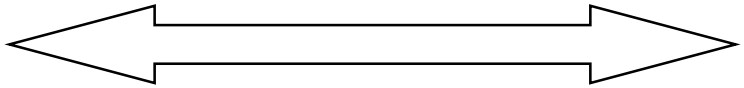
- Direct mapped caches cannot store more than one address with the same index
- If two addresses collide, then you overwrite the older entry
- 2-way associative caches can store two different addresses with the same index
  - » 3-way, 4-way and 8-way set associative designs too
- Reduces misses due to 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

The highlighted cache entry contains values for addresses $10101xx_2$ and $11101xx_2$.

Associativity Spectrum



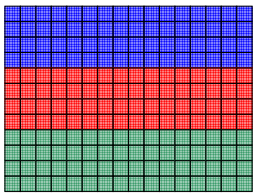
Direct Mapped	**N-way Associative**	**Fully Associative**
Fast to access	Slower to access	Slow to access
Conflict Misses	Fewer Conflict Misses	No Conflict Misses

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
- Assume we have 10-bit addresses, 8 cache lines, and 4 words (16 bytes) per cache line 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 as much 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 of the hierarchy, 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)

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)