

Overview



Why caches are needed

How caches work

Cache design and performance.

The memory speed gap



- Moore's Law: processors speed doubles every 18 months.
 - True for last 35 years....
- Memory speeds (DRAM) are not keeping up (double every 5 years).
- In 1980, both CPU and memory cycles times were around 1 microsecond.
 - Floating point add and memory load took about the same time.
- In 2000 CPU cycles times were around 1 nanosecond, memory cycle times around 100 nanoseconds.
 - Memory load is 2 orders of magnitude more expensive than floating point add.

Principal of locality



- Almost every program exhibits some degree of locality.
 - Tend to reuse recently accessed data and instructions.

- Two types of data locality:
- 1. Temporal locality

A recently accessed item is likely to be reused in the near future.

e.g. if x is read now, it is likely to be read again, or written, soon.

2. Spatial locality

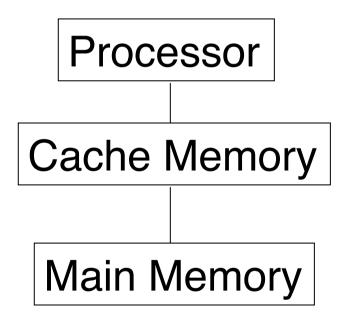
Items with nearby addresses tend to be accessed close together in time.

e.g. if y[i] is read now, y[i+1] is likely to be read soon.

What is cache memory?



- Small, fast, memory.
- Placed between processor and main memory.



How does this help?



- Cache can hold copies of data from main memory locations.
- Can also hold copies of instructions.
- Cache can hold recently accessed data items for fast reaccess.
- Fetching an item from cache is much quicker than fetching from main memory.
 - 1 nanosecond instead of 100.
- For cost and speed reasons, cache is much smaller than main memory.



 A cache block is the minimum unit of data which can be determined to be present in or absent from the cache.

Normally a few words long: typically 32 to 128 bytes.

See later for discussion of optimal block size.

N.B. a block is sometimes also called a line.

Design decisions



- When should a copy of an item be made in the cache?
- Where is a block placed in the cache?
- How is a block found in the cache?
- Which block is replaced after a miss?
- What happens on writes?

Methods must be simple (hence cheap and fast to implement in hardware).

When to cache?



- Always cache on reads
 - except in special circumstances

 If a memory location is read and there isn't a copy in the cache (read miss), then cache the data.

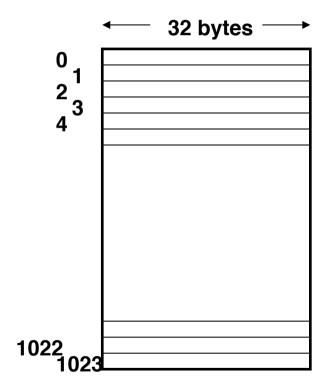
 What happens on writes depends on the write strategy: see later.

N.B. for instruction caches, there are no writes

Where to cache?



- Cache is organised in blocks.
- Each block has a number:



Bit selection



- Simplest scheme is a direct mapped cache
- If we want to cache the contents of an address, we ignore the last *n* bits where 2ⁿ is the block size.
- Block number (index) is:

(remaining bits) MOD (no. of blocks in cache)

- next m bits where 2^m is number of blocks.

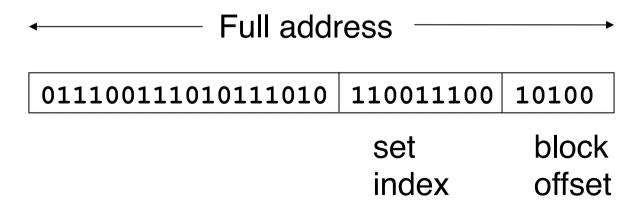
← Full address − →

01110011101011101	0110011100	10100
	block	block
	index	offset

Set associativity



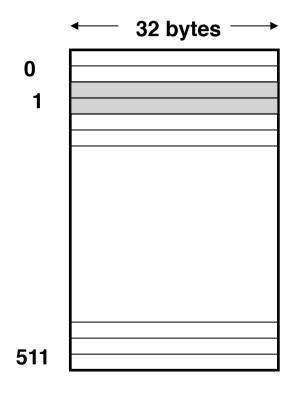
- Cache is divided into sets
- A set is a group of blocks (typically 2 or 4)
- Compute set index as:
 (remaining bits) MOD (no. of sets in cache)
- Data can go into any block in the set.



Set associativity



• If there are *k* blocks in a set, the cache is said to be k-way set associative.

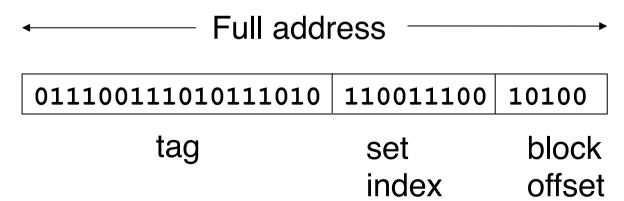


• If there is just one set, the cache is fully associative.

How to find a cache block



- Whenever we load an address, we have to check whether it is cached.
- For a given address, find set where it might be cached.
- Each block has an address tag.
 - address with the block index and block offset stripped off.
- Each block has a valid bit.
 - if the bit is set, the block contains a valid address
- Need to check tags of all valid blocks in set for target address.



Which block to replace?



- In a direct mapped cache there is no choice: replace the selected block.
- In set associative caches, two common strategies:

Random

Replace a block in the selected set at random.

Least recently used (LRU)

- Replace the block in set which was unused for longest time.
- LRU is better, but harder to implement.

What happens on write?



- Writes are less common than reads.
- Two basic strategies:

Write through

- Write data to cache block and to main memory.
- Normally do not cache on miss.

Write back

- Write data to cache block only. Copy data back to main memory only when block is replaced.
- Dirty/clean bit used to indicate when this is necessary.
- Normally cache on miss.

Write through vs. write back

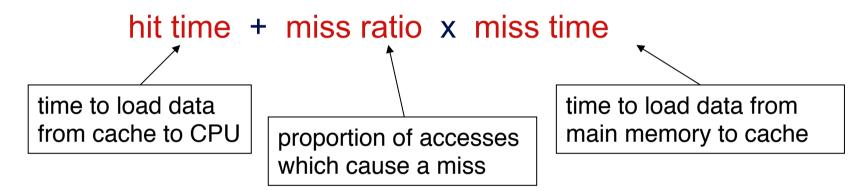


- With write back, not all writes go to main memory.
 - reduces memory bandwidth.
 - harder to implement than write through.
- With write through, main memory always has valid copy.
 - useful for I/O and for some implementations of multiprocessor cache coherency.
 - can avoid CPU waiting for writes to complete by use of write buffer.

Cache performance



Average memory access cost =



Can try to to minimise all three components

Prefetching



 One way to reduce miss rate is to load data into cache before the load is issued. This is called prefetching

- Requires modifications to the processor
 - must be able to support multiple outstanding cache misses.
 - additional hardware is required to keep track of the outstanding prefetches
 - number of outstanding misses is limited (e.g. 4 or 8): extra benefit from allowing more does not justify the hardware cost.

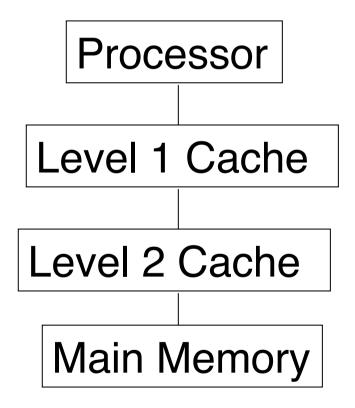


- Hardware prefetching is typically very simple: e.g. whenever a block is loaded, fetch consecutive block.
 - very effective for instruction cache
 - less so for data caches, but can have multiple streams.
 - requires regular data access patterns.
- Compiler can place prefetch instructions ahead of loads.
 - requires extensions to the instruction set
 - cost in additional instructions.
 - no use if placed too far ahead: prefetched block may be replaced before it is used.

Multiple levels of cache



 One way to reduce the miss time is to have more than one level of cache.



Multiple levels of cache



- Second level cache should be much larger than first level.
 - otherwise a level 1 miss will almost always be level 2 miss as well.
- Second level cache will therefore be slower.
 - still much faster than main memory.
- Block size can be bigger, too
 - lower risk of conflict misses.
- Typically, everything in level 1 must be in level 2 as well (inclusion)
 - useful for cache coherency in multiprocessor systems.

Multiple levels of cache



- Three levels of cache are now commonplace.
 - Common to have separate level 1 caches for instructions and data,
 and combined level 2 and 3 caches for both

- Complicates design issues
 - need to design each level with knowledge of the others
 - inclusion with differing block sizes
 - coherency....