



- Cache basics
- Principle of locality
- Cache memory organization and operation

Recap: Cache Memories

- Cache memories are small, fast SRAM-based memories managed automatically in hardware
 - Hold frequently accessed blocks of main memory
- CPU looks first for data in cache
- Typical system structure:



Recap: Why Caches Work

• **Principle of Locality:** Programs tend to use data and instructions with addresses near or equal to those they have used recently

• Temporal locality:

Recently referenced items are <u>likely</u>
 to be referenced again in the near future

Spatial locality:

 Items with nearby addresses <u>tend to</u> be referenced close together in time



Recap: Good Locality Example

• Does this function have good locality with respect to array a?

```
M = 3,
                                                                   a[0][0] a[0][1] a[0][2] a[0][3]
int sum_array_rows(int a[M][N])
                                                         N = 4
                                                                   a[1][0] a[1][1] a[1][2] a[1][3]
{
     int i, j, sum = 0;
                                                                   a[2][0] a[2][1] a[2][2] a[2][3]
     for (i = 0; j < M; j++)
                                                                            1) a[0][0]
                                                         Access Pattern:
          for (j = 0; i < N; i++)
                                                                            2)
                                                                                a[0][1]
                                                         stride = 1
               sum += a[i][j];
                                                                             3)
                                                                                a[0][2]
                                                                            4) a[0][3]
     return sum;
                                                                               a[1][0]
                                                                            5)
                                                                                a[1][1]
                                                                            6)
                                                                                a[1][2]
                       Layout in Memory
                                                                            8)
                                                                               a[1][3]
                                           а
                                              а
                                                  а
                                                     а
                                                         а
                                                             а
                                                                а
                                   а
                                       а
                                                                                a[2][0]
                                                                            9)
                              [0] [0] [1] [1] [1] [1] [2] [2] [2] [2]
                       [0]
                           [0]
                                                                           10)
                                                                                a[2][1]
                              [2] [3] [0] [1] [2] [3] [0] [1] [2] [3]
                       [0]
                           [1]
     Note: 76 is just one
                                                                                a[2][2]
                                                                           11)
     possible starting
                                                                                a[2][3]
     address of array a
                      76
                                    92
                                                   108
```

Recap: Bad Locality Example

Layout in Memory

а

92

• Does this function have good locality with respect to array a?

а

 [0]
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а

```
int sum_array_cols(int a[M][N])
{
    int i, j, sum = 0;
```

```
for (j = 0; j < N; j++)
    for (i = 0; i < M; i++)
        sum += a[i][j];
return sum;</pre>
```

76

Note: 76 is just one

address of array a

possible starting

M N	=	3, 4	a[0][0]	a[0][1]	a[0][2]	a[0][3]
	=		a[1][0]	a[1][1]	a[1][2]	<mark>a[1][3]</mark>
			a[2][0]	a[2][1]	a[2][2]	a[2][3]

Access Pattern: stride = 4

1)	a[0][0]
2)	a[1][0]
3)	a[2][0]
4)	a[0][1]
5)	a[1][1]
6)	a[2][1]
7)	a[0][2]
8)	a[1][2]
9)	a[2][2]
10)	a[0][3]
11)	a[1][3]
12)	a[2][3]

6

Recap: Cache Organization

• Block Size (B): unit of transfer between cache and main memory

- Given in bytes and always a power of 2 (e.g. 64 bytes)
- Blocks consist of adjacent bytes (differ in address by 1)
 - Spatial locality!
- Offset field
 - Low-order $log_2(B) = b$ bits of address tell you which byte within a block
 - (address) mod $2^n = n$ lowest bits of address
 - (address) modulo (# of bytes in a block)

	m - b bits	<mark>b</mark> bits
m -bit address:	Block Number	Block Offset
(refers to byte in memory)		

Recap: Cache Organization



Smaller, faster, more expensive memory caches a subset of the blocks

Data is copied in block-sized transfer units

Larger, slower, cheaper memory viewed as partitioned into "blocks"

Recap: Checking for a Requested Address

- CPU sends address request for chunk of data
 - Address and requested data are not the same thing!
 - Analogy: your friend ≠ their phone number
- TIO address breakdown:



- Index field tells you where to look in cache
- Tag field lets you check that data is the block you want
- Offset field selects specified start byte within block
- Note: t and s sizes will change based on hash function

Recap: Checking for a Requested Address

- Using 8-bit addresses.
- Cache Params: block size (B) = 4 bytes, cache size (C) = 32 bytes (which means number of sets is C/B = 8 sets).
 - Offset bits (b) = $\log_2(B) = 2$ bits
 - Index bits (s) = $log_2(number of sets) = 3$ bits
 - Tag bits (t) = Rest of the bits in the address = 8 2 3 = 3 bits



0x6

0x2

- What are the fields for address 0xBA?
 - Tag bits (unique id for block): 0x5 <u>101 110</u>
 - Index bits (cache set block maps to):
 - Offset bits (byte offset within block):

Plan for Today

- Cache memory organization and operation
- Memory Mountain

Disclaimer: Slides for this lecture were borrowed from

- -Randal E. Bryant and David R. O'Hallaroni's CMU 15-213 class
- —Porter Jones' UW CSE 351 class

Lecture Plan

- Cache memory organization and operation
- Memory Mountain

Direct-Mapped Cache Problem

Memory



Cache

Here B = 4 bytes and C/B = 4

Associativity

- What if we could store data in any place in the cache?
 - More complicated hardware = more power consumed, slower
- So we *combine* the two ideas:
 - Each address maps to exactly one set
 - Each set can store block in more than one way



Cache Puzzle



- Based on the following behavior, which of the following block sizes is <u>NOT</u> possible for our cache?
 - Cache starts *empty*, also known as a **cold cache**
 - Access (addr: hit/miss) stream:
 - (14: miss), (15: hit), (16: miss)
 - A. 4 bytes
 - B. 8 bytes
 - C. 16 bytes
 - D. 32 bytes
 - E. We're lost...

Cache Puzzle



- Based on the following behavior, which of the following block size is <u>NOT</u> possible for our cache?
 - Cache starts *empty*, also known as a **cold cache**
 - Access (addr: hit/miss) stream:
 - (14: miss), (15: hit), (16: miss)





Cache Organization

• Associativity (E): # of ways for each set

- Such a cache is called an "E-way set associative cache"
- We now index into cache sets, of which there are S = C/B/E
- Use lowest $log_2(C/B/E) = s$ bits of block address
 - <u>Direct-mapped</u>: E = 1, so $s = log_2(C/B)$ as we saw previously
 - <u>Fully associative</u>: E = C/B, so s = 0 bits



Example Placement

block size:	16 bytes
capacity:	8 blocks
address:	16 bits

- Where would data from address **0x1833** be placed?
 - Binary: 0b 0001 1000 0011 0011



Example Placement

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- Where would data from address **0x1833** be placed?
 - Binary: 0b 0001 1000 0011 0011

t = m - s - bs = log2(C/B/E) $b = log_2(B)$ m-bit address:Tag(t)Index (s)Offset (b)

 $s = log_2(8)=3$ bits Direct-mapped









Block Placement

- Any empty block in the correct set may be used to store block
- If there are no empty blocks, which one should we replace?
 - No choice for direct-mapped caches
 - Caches typically use something close to least recently used (LRU) (hardware usually implements "not most recently used")







• We have a cache of size 2 KB with block size of 128 bytes. If our cache has 2 sets, what is its associativity?

A. 2

B. 4

C. 8

D. 16

E. We're lost...

• If addresses are 16 bits wide, how wide is the Tag field?





$(C = 2^{*}2^{10} \text{ bytes})$ $(B = 2^{7} \text{ bytes})$

• We have a cache of size 2 KB with block size of 128 bytes. If our cache has 2 sets, what is its associativity?

(S = 2)

- A. 2 B. 4 $num_{blocks} = C / K = 2^{11}/2^7 = 2^4 = 16 blocks$
- **C.** 8 $\frac{\text{blocks}}{\text{per set}} = E = 16 / 2 = 8$
- D. 16
- E. We're lost...
- If addresses are 16 bits wide, how wide is the Tag field? = 16 7 1 = 8

General Cache Organization (S, E, B)



Cache Read



Locate set

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Example: Direct Mapped Cache (E = 1)

Direct mapped: One line per set Assume: cache block size 8 bytes



Example: Direct Mapped Cache (E = 1)

Direct mapped: One line per set Assume: cache block size 8 bytes



Example: Direct Mapped Cache (E = 1)

Direct mapped: One line per set Assume: cache block size 8 bytes



If tag doesn't match: old line is evicted and replaced

Direct-Mapped Cache Simulation



M=16 bytes (4-bit addresses), B=2 bytes/block, S=4 sets, E=1 Blocks/set

Address trace (reads, one byte per read):



	•	
0	[0 <u>00</u> 0 ₂],	miss
1	[0 <u>00</u> 1 ₂],	hit
7	[0 <u>11</u> 1 ₂],	miss
8	[1 <u>00</u> 0 ₂],	miss
0	[0 <u>00</u> 0 ₂]	miss

E-way Set Associative Cache (Here: E = 2)

E = 2: Two lines per set Assume: cache block size 8 bytes





E-way Set Associative Cache (Here: E = 2)

E = 2: Two lines per set Assume: cache block size 8 bytes



E-way Set Associative Cache (Here: E = 2)

E = 2: Two lines per set Assume: cache block size 8 bytes



No match:

- One line in set is selected for eviction and replacement
- Replacement policies: random, least recently used (LRU), ...

2-Way Set Associative Cache Simulation



M=16 byte addresses, B=2 bytes/block, S=2 sets, E=2 blocks/set

Address trace (reads, one byte per read):



C33		byte per re
0	[00 <u>0</u> 0 ₂],	miss
1	[00 <u>0</u> 1 ₂],	hit
7	[01 <u>1</u> 1 ₂],	miss
8	[10 <u>0</u> 0 ₂],	miss
0	[00 <u>0</u> 0 ₂]	hit

What about writes?

- Multiple copies of data exist:
 - L1, L2, L3, Main Memory, Disk
- What to do on a write-hit?
 - Write-through (write immediately to memory)
 - Write-back (defer write to memory until replacement of line)
 - Need a dirty bit (line different from memory or not)
- What to do on a write-miss?
 - Write-allocate (load into cache, update line in cache)
 - Good if more writes to the location follow
 - No-write-allocate (writes straight to memory, does not load into cache)
- Typical
 - Write-through + No-write-allocate
 - Write-back + Write-allocate

<u>Note</u>: While unrealistic, this example assumes that all requests have offset 0 and are for a block's worth of data.



Not valid x86, just using block num instead of full byte address to keep the example simple

1) mov \$0xFACE, (F)

Write Miss!



Step 1: Bring F into cache



(1) mov \$0xFACE, (F) Write Miss



Step 1: Bring F into cache

Memory:



<u>Step 2</u>: Write ØxFACE to cache only and set the dirty bit

(1) mov \$0xFACE, (F) Write Miss



Step 1: Bring F into cache

Memory:



<u>Step 2</u>: Write ØxFACE to cache only and set the dirty bit

(1) mov \$0xFACE, (F) Write Miss

(2) mov \$0xFEED, (F) Write Hit!

Cache:



<u>Step</u>: Write ØxFEED to cache only (and set the dirty bit)



Write Miss

(1) mov \$0xFACE, (F) (2) mov \$0xFEED, (F) Write Hit!





(1) mov \$0xFACE, (F) Write Miss

(2) mov \$0xFEED, (F) (3) mov (G), %ax Write Hit! Read Miss!



<u>Step 1</u>: Write F back to memory since it is dirty



(1) mov \$0xFACE, (F) Write Miss

(2) mov \$0xFEED, (F) (3) mov (G), %ax Write Hit! Read Miss!

Cache:



<u>Step 1</u>: Write F back to memory since it is dirty

Memory:



<u>Step 2</u>: Bring **G** into the cache so that we can copy it into **%ax**

Cache Simulator

https://courses.cs.washington.edu/courses/cse351/cachesim



Polling Question

- Which of the following cache statements is FALSE?
 - A. We can reduce compulsory misses by decreasing our block size
 - B. We can reduce conflict misses by increasing associativity
 - C. A write-back cache will save time for code with good temporal locality on writes
 - D. A write-through cache will always match data with the memory hierarchy level below it
 - E. We're lost...

Polling Question

- Which of the following cache statements is FALSE?
 - A. We can reduce compulsory misses by decreasing our smaller block size pulls fewer bytes into cache on a miss
 - B. We can reduce conflict misses by increasing associativity more options to place blocks before

C. A write-back cache will save time for code with good temporal locality on writes data consistency

- D. A write-through cache will always match data with the frequently-used blocks rarely get memory hierarchy level below it evicted, so fewer
- E. We're lost...

write-backs

Intel Core i7 Cache Hierarchy



Main memory

Block size: 64 bytes for all caches.

Lecture Plan

- Cache memory organization and operation
- The memory mountain

Writing Cache Friendly Code

- Make the common case go fast
 - Focus on the inner loops of the core functions
- Minimize the misses in the inner loops
 - Repeated references to variables are good (temporal locality)
 - Stride-1 reference patterns are good (spatial locality)

Key idea: Our qualitative notion of locality is quantified through our understanding of cache memories

The Memory Mountain

- Read throughput (read bandwidth)
 - Number of bytes read from memory per second (MB/s)
- Memory mountain: Measured read throughput as a function of spatial and temporal locality.

- Compact way to characterize memory system performance.

Memory Mountain Test Function

long data[MAXELEMS]; /* Global array to traverse */

```
/* test - Iterate over first "elems" elements of
          array "data" with stride of "stride", using
*
          using 4x4 loop unrolling.
*
*/
int test(int elems, int stride) {
    long i, sx2=stride*2, sx3=stride*3, sx4=stride*4;
    long acc0 = 0, acc1 = 0, acc2 = 0, acc3 = 0;
    long length = elems, limit = length - sx4;
    /* Combine 4 elements at a time */
    for (i = 0; i < limit; i += sx4) {</pre>
        acc0 = acc0 + data[i]:
        acc1 = acc1 + data[i+stride];
        acc2 = acc2 + data[i+sx2]:
        acc3 = acc3 + data[i+sx3];
    }
    /* Finish any remaining elements */
    for (; i < length; i++) {</pre>
        acc0 = acc0 + data[i]:
    return ((acc0 + acc1) + (acc2 + acc3));
```

}

Call test() with many combinations of elems and stride.

For each elems and stride:

1. Call test() once to
warm up the caches.

2. Call test() again and measure the read throughput(MB/s)

mountain/mountain.c

The Memory Mountain



Core i7 Haswell 2.1 GHz 32 KB L1 d-cache 256 KB L2 cache 8 MB L3 cache 64 B block size

Lecture Plan

- Cache memory organization and operation
- Memory Mountain



- Cache memories can have significant performance impact
- You can write your programs to exploit this!
 - Focus on the inner loops, where bulk of computations and memory accesses occur.
 - Try to maximize spatial locality by reading data objects with sequentially with stride 1.
 - Try to maximize temporal locality by using a data object as often as possible once it's read from memory.