19 October – Homework #3 Due

19 October – Project Proposals Due

   One page proposal
   1. What question are you asking?
   2. How are you going to answer that question?
   3. Talk to me if you are looking for project ideas.

23 October – Class Discussion

   Roughly one reading per class. Do not wait until the day before!
   3. Fromm et al. “The energy efficiency of IRAM architectures”
   4. Lee et al. “Phase change memory architecture and the quest for scalability”
Last Time

History of Memory

- Williams tubes were unreliable. Core memory reliable but slow
- Semiconductor memory competitive in 1970s.

DRAM Operation

- DRAM accesses require (1) activates, (2) reads/writes, (3) precharges
- Performance gap between processor and memory is growing.

Managing the Memory Hierarchy

1. Predictable patterns provide (1) temporal and (2) spatial locality
2. Exploit predictable patterns with small, fast caches.
3. Cache data placement policies include (1) fully-associative, (2) set-associative, and (3) direct-mapped. Choice of policy determines cache effectiveness.
Datapath – Cache Interaction

Cache Refill Data from Lower Levels of Memory Hierarchy

Stall entire CPU on data cache miss

Cache Refill Data from Lower Levels of Memory Hierarchy

To Memory Control

Primary Instruction Cache

PC

addr

inst

hit?

0x4

Add

nop

IR

Decode, Register Fetch

E

M

MD1

MD2

ALU

Primary Data Cache

wdata

hit?

wdata

Primary Instruction Fetch

we

addr

Primary Data Cache
Average Memory Access Time

AMAT = [Hit Time] + [Miss Prob.] \times [Miss Penalty]
- Miss Penalty equals AMAT of next cache/memory/storage level.
- AMAT is recursively defined

To improve performance
- Reduce the hit time (e.g., smaller cache)
- Reduce the miss probability (e.g., larger cache)
- Reduce the miss penalty (e.g., optimize the next level)

Simple design strategy
- Observe that hit time increases with cache size
- Design the largest possible cache with a hit time of 1-2 cycles.
- For example, design 8-32KB of cache in modern technology
- Design trade-offs are more complex with superscalar architectures and multi-ported memories
Example: Serial vs Parallel Access

Serial Access
- Check cache for addressed data. If miss (probability 1-p), go to memory
- \[ \text{AMAT} = T_{cache} + (1-p) \times T_{mem} \]

Parallel Access
- Check cache and memory for addressed data.
- \[ \text{AMAT} = p \times T_{cache} + (1-p) \times T_{mem} \]
- AMAT reductions from parallel access often small. \( T_{mem} \gg T_{cache} \) and \( p \) is high. Parallel access increases cache complexity and \( T_{cache} \).
Cache Misses and Causes (3C’s)

Compulsory
- First reference to a block. May be caused by “cold” caches as application begins execution.
- Compulsory misses would occur even with infinitely sized cache

Capacity
- Cache is too small and cannot hold all data needed by the program.
- Capacity misses would occur even under perfect replacement policy.

Conflict
- Cache line replacement policy causes collisions
- Conflict misses would not occur with full associativity
Reducing Misses

Larger Cache Size
- Benefit: reduces capacity and conflict misses
- Cost: increases hit time

Higher Associativity
- Benefit: reduces conflict misses
- Cost: increases hit time

Larger Line Size
- Benefit: reduces compulsory and capacity misses
- Cost: increases conflict misses and increases miss penalty
Cache Write Policies

What happens when a cache line is written?

If write hits in cache (i.e., line already cached)

- **Write-Through**: Write data to both cache and memory. Increases memory traffic but allows simpler datapath and cache controllers.
- **Write-Back**: Write data to cache only. Write data to memory only when cache line is replaced (e.g., conflict).
- **Write-Back Optimization**: Insert “dirty bit” per cache line, which indicates whether line is modified. Write-back only if replaced cache line is dirty.

If write misses in cache

- **No Write Allocate**: Write data to memory only.
- **Write Allocate**: Fetch data into cache. Write data into cache. Also known as fetch-on-write.

Common combinations

- Write-through and no-write allocate
- Write-back and write allocate.
Write Performance

Write Performance

WRITE Performance

1. Check for HIT
2. Perform write only after HIT signal resolves

HIT

Data Word or Byte

2^k lines

Diagram showing the process of writing in a cache memory, with steps for checking for a HIT and performing the write operation only after the HIT signal resolves. The steps are serial, which harms performance.
Reducing Write Time

Problem: Writes take two cycles in memory
- Access cache and compare tags to generate HIT signal (1 cycle)
- Perform cache write if HIT enables a write (1 cycle)

Solutions
- Design data SRAM that can perform read/write in one cycle, restoring old value if HIT is false.
- Design content-addressable data SRAM (CAM), which enables word line only if HIT is true.
- Pipeline writes with a write buffer. Write the cache for store instruction $j$ during the tag check store instruction $j+1$
Introduce buffers for delayed write address, data. Write cache for j-th store during tag check for (j+1)-th store. Note that loads must check buffers for latest data.
Buffering Writes

With buffers, writes do not stall datapath
- Introduce a write buffer between adjacent levels in cache hierarchy.
- After writes enter buffer, computation proceeds.
- For example: Reads bypass writes.

Problem
- Write buffer may hold latest value for a read instruction’s address

Solutions
- Option 1: If a read misses in cache, wait for the write buffer to empty
- Option 2: Compare read address with write buffer addresses. If no match, allow read to bypass writes. Else, return value in write buffer.
Cache Hierarchy

Problem
- Memory technology imposes trade-off between speed and size.
- A memory cannot be both large and fast.

Solution
- Introduce a multi-level cache hierarchy.
- As distance from datapath increases, increase cache size.
L1-L2 Cache Interactions

Use smaller L1 cache if L2 cache is present
- Reduce L1 hit time, but increase L1 miss rate.
- L2 mitigates higher L1 miss rate by reducing L1 miss penalty
- May reduce average time (AMAT) and energy (AMAE)

Use write-through L1 if write-back L2 cache is present
- Write-through L1 simplifies pipeline, cache controller.
- Write-through for dirty lines reduces complexity (no dirty flags in cache)
- Write-back L2 absorbs write traffic. Writes do not go off-chip to DRAM.

Inclusion Policies
- **Inclusive Multi-level Cache**: Smaller cache (e.g., L1) holds copies of data in larger cache (e.g., L2). Simpler policies.
- **Exclusive Multi-level Cache**: Smaller cache (e.g., L1) holds data not in larger cache (e.g., L2). Example: AMD Athlon with 64KB primary and 256KB secondary. Reduces duplication.
Power7 On-Chip Caches (2009)

32KB L1 I$/core
32KB L1 D$/core
3-cycle latency

256KB Unified L2$/core
8-cycle latency

32MB Unified Shared L3$
Embedded DRAM
25-cycle latency to local slice
Prefetching

Speculate about future memory accesses
- Predict likely instruction and data accesses.
- Pre-emptively fetch instructions and data into caches.
- Instructions accesses likely easier to predict than data accesses.
- Mechanisms might be implemented in HW, SW or both.
- What type of misses does prefetching affect?

Challenges in Prefetching
- Prefetching should be **useful**. Prefetches should reduce misses.
- Prefetching should be **timely**. Prefetches pollute cache if too early and are useless if too late.
- Prefetching consume memory bandwidth.
Example: Alpha AXP 21064

- Prefetch instructions
- Fetch two lines on a cache miss. Fetch the requested line (i) and the next consecutive line (i+1).
- Place requested line in instruction L1 cache. Place next line in an instruction stream buffer.
- If an instruction fetch misses in L1 cache but hits in stream buffer, move stream buffer line into L1 cache. And prefetch next line (i+2)
Prefetch after a cache miss
- Prefetch line (i+1) if an access for line (i) misses in the cache

One Block Look-ahead (OBL)
- Blocks also known as lines.
- Initiate prefetch for block (i+1) when block (i) is accessed.
- Generalizes to N-block look-ahead
- How is this different from increasing the block or line size by N times?

Strided Prefetch
- Observe sequence of accesses to cache lines.
- Suppose a sequence (i), (i+N), (i+2N) is observed. Prefetch (i+3N).
- N is the stride.
- Example: IBM Power 5 (2003) supports eight independent streams of strided prefetches per processor, prefetching 12 lines ahead of the current access.
for(i=0; i < N; i++) {
    prefetch( &a[i + P] );
    prefetch( &b[i + P] );
    SUM = SUM + a[i] * b[i];
}

Challenges in Software Prefetching
- Timing is the biggest difficulty, not predictability.
- Prefetch too late if prefetch instruction too close to data use.
- Prefetch too early and cause cache/bandwidth pollution.
- Requires estimating prefetch latency: time from issuing prefetch to filling L1 cache line.
- Why is this hard to do? What is the correct value of P above?
Caches and Code

Restructuring code affects data access sequences
- Group data accesses together to improve spatial locality
- Re-order data accesses to improve temporal locality

Prevent data from entering the cache
- Useful for variables that are only accessed once
- Requires SW to communicate hints to HW.
- Example: “no-allocate” instruction hints

Kill data that will never be used again
- Streaming data provides spatial locality but not temporal locality
- If particular lines contain dead data, use them in replacement policy.
- Toward software-managed caches
Loop Interchange

```c
for(j=0; j < N; j++) {
   for(i=0; i < M; i++) {
      x[i][j] = 2 * x[i][j];
   }
}
```

```c
for(i=0; i < M; i++) {
   for(j=0; j < N; j++) {
      x[i][j] = 2 * x[i][j];
   }
}
```

What type of locality does this improve?
What does it assume about x?
Loop Fusion

for(i=0; i < N; i++)
a[i] = b[i] * c[i];

for(i=0; i < N; i++)
d[i] = a[i] * c[i];

for(i=0; i < N; i++)
{
    a[i] = b[i] * c[i];
    d[i] = a[i] * c[i];
}

What type of locality does this improve?
Matrix Multiply (X=YZ) – Naïve

for (i=0; i < N; i++) {
    for (j=0; j < N; j++) {
        for (k=0; k < N; k++) {
            x[i][j] += y[i][k] * z[k][j];
        }
    }
}

Notes
1. Iterate through matrix (y) by row.
2. Iterate through matrix (z) by col.
3. Update matrix (x) by col.
Matrix Multiply (X=YZ) – Blocked

for (i0=0 ; i0<N ; i0+=B) {
    for(j0=0 ; j0<N ; j0+=B) {
        for(k0=0 ; k0<N ; k0+=B) {

            for(i=i0 ; i<min(i0+B,N) ; i+=1) {
                for(j=j0 ; j<min(j0+B,N) ; j+=1) {
                    for(k=k0 ; k<min(k0+B,N) ; k+=1) {

                        X[i][j] += Y[i][k] * Z[k][j];

                    }
                }
            }
        }
    }
}

Notes
Organize matrices in BxB blocks
Iterate through blocks
For each block, perform standard matrix multiply

What type of locality does this improve?
Hint: Track the re-use of matrix elements during computation.
Matrix Multiply (X=YZ) – Blocked

for (i0=0 ; i0<N ; i0+=B) {
    for(j0=0 ; j0<N ; j0+=B) {
        for(k0=0 ; k0<N ; k0+=B) {

            for(i=i0 ; i<min(i0+B,N) ; i+=1) {
                for(j=j0 ; j<min(j0+B,N) ; j+=1) {
                    for(k=k0 ; k<min(k0+B,N) ; k+=1) {
                        X[i][j] += Y[i][k] * Z[k][j];
                    }
                }
            }
        }
    }
}

Notes
Organize matrices in BxB blocks
Iterate through blocks
For each block, perform standard matrix multiply

What type of locality does this improve?
2(B^3) operations refer to 3(B^2) data.
Select B such that 3(B^2) resides in cache
Summary

Caches
- Quantify cache/memory hierarchy performance with AMAT
- Three types of cache misses: (1) compulsory, (2) capacity, (3) conflict
- Cache structure and data placement policies determine miss rates
- Write buffers improve performance.

Prefetching
- Identify and exploit spatial locality
- Prefetchers can be implemented in hardware, software, or both

Caches and Code
- Restructuring SW code can improve HW cache performance
- Data re-use can improve with code structure (e.g., matrix-multiply)
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