



William Stallings Computer Organization and Architecture 9th Edition

Chapter 4 Cache Memory



Location	Performance
Internal (e.g. processor registers, cache,	Access time
main memory)	Cycle time
External (e.g. optical disks, magnetic disks,	Transfer rate
tapes)	Physical Type
Capacity	Semiconductor
Number of words	Magnetic
Number of bytes	Optical
Unit of Transfer	Magneto-optical
Word	Physical Characteristics
Block	Volatile/nonvolatile
Access Method	Erasable/nonerasable
Sequential	Organization
Direct	Memory modules
Random	
Associative	

Characteristics of Memory Systems

Location

- Refers to whether memory is internal and external to the computer
- Internal memory is often equated with main memory
- Processor requires its own local memory, in the form of registers
- Cache is another form of internal memory
- External memory consists of peripheral storage devices that are accessible to the processor via I/O controllers

Capacity

Memory is typically expressed in terms of bytes

Unit of transfer

For internal memory the unit of transfer is equal to the number of electrical lines into and out of the memory module

Method of Accessing Units of Data

Sequential Direct Random access access access Each addressable Memory is organized into Involves a shared readlocation in memory has a units of data called write mechanism unique, physically wiredrecords in addressing mechanism The time to access a Individual blocks or Access must be made in given location is records have a unique independent of the a specific linear address based on sequence sequence of prior physical location accesses and is constant Any location can be selected at random and Access time is variable Access time is variable directly addressed and accessed Main memory and some

A word is retrieved based on a portion of its contents rather than its address

Associative

Each location has its own addressing mechanism and retrieval time is constant independent of location or prior access patterns

Cache memories may employ associative access

cache systems are random access

Capacity and Performance:

The two most important characteristics of memory

Three performance parameters are used:

Access time (latency)

- •For random-access memory it is the time it takes to perform a read or write operation
- •For non-random-access memory it is the time it takes to position the read-write mechanism at the desired location

Memory cycle time

- •Access time plus any additional time required before second access can commence
- Additional time may be required for transients to die out on signal lines or to regenerate data if they are read destructively
- •Concerned with the system bus, not the processor

Transfer rate

- •The rate at which data can be transferred into or out of a memory unit
- •For random-access memory it is equal to 1/(cycle time)

Memory

- The most common forms are:
 - Semiconductor memory
 - Magnetic surface memory
 - Optical
 - Magneto-optical
- Several physical characteristics of data storage are important:
 - Volatile memory
 - Information decays naturally or is lost when electrical power is switched off
 - Nonvolatile memory
 - Once recorded, information remains without deterioration until deliberately changed
 - No electrical power is needed to retain information
 - Magnetic-surface memories
 - Are nonvolatile
 - Semiconductor memory
 - May be either volatile or nonvolatile
 - Nonerasable memory
 - Cannot be altered, except by destroying the storage unit
 - Semiconductor memory of this type is known as read-only memory (ROM)
- For random-access memory the organization is a key design issue
 - Organization refers to the physical arrangement of bits to form words



Memory Hierarchy

Design constraints on a computer's memory can be summed up by three questions:

How much, how fast, how expensive

There is a trade-off among capacity, access time, and cost

- Faster access time, greater cost per bit
- Greater capacity, smaller cost per bit
- Greater capacity, slower access time

The way out of the memory dilemma is not to rely on a single memory component or technology, but to employ a memory hierarchy

⁺ Memory Hierarchy - Diagram



Cache and Main Memory



(a) Single cache



(b) Three-level cache organization

Figure 4.3 Cache and Main Memory

Cache/Main Memory Structure



Figure 4.4 Cache/Main-Memory Structure



Figure 4.5 Cache Read Operation

Typical Cache Organization

+



Figure 4.6 Typical Cache Organization

Elements of Cache Design

Cache Addresses

Logical Physical Cache Size Mapping Function Direct

Associative

Set Associative

Replacement Algorithm

Least recently used (LRU) First in first out (FIFO) Least frequently used (LFU) Random Write Policy Write through Write back Line Size Number of caches Single or two level Unified or split

Cache Addresses

Virtual Memory

Virtual memory

- Facility that allows programs to address memory from a logical point of view, without regard to the amount of main memory physically available
- When used, the address fields of machine instructions contain virtual addresses
- For reads to and writes from main memory, a hardware memory management unit (MMU) translates each virtual address into a physical address in main memory



Logical and Physical Caches



Figure 4.7 Logical and Physical Caches

Processor	Туре	Year of Introduction	L1 Cache _a	L2 cache	L3 Cache
IBM 360/85	Mainframe	1968	16 to 32 kB	_	_
PDP-11/70	Minicomputer	1975	1 kB	_	_
VAX 11/780	Minicomputer	1978	16 kB	_	—
IBM 3033	Mainframe	1978	64 kB	_	—
IBM 3090	Mainframe	1985	128 to 256 kB	_	—
Intel 80486	PC	1989	8 kB	_	—
Pentium	PC	1993	8 kB/8 kB	256 to 512 KB	—
PowerPC 601	PC	1993	32 kB	—	—
PowerPC 620	PC	1996	32 kB/32 kB	_	—
PowerPC G4	PC/server	1999	32 kB/32 kB	256 KB to 1 MB	2 MB
IBM S/390 G6	Mainframe	1999	256 kB	8 MB	—
Pentium 4	PC/server	2000	8 kB/8 kB	256 KB	—
IBM SP	High-end server/ supercomputer	2000	64 kB/32 kB	8 MB	_
CRAY MTA _b	Supercomputer	2000	8 kB	2 MB	—
Itanium	PC/server	2001	16 kB/16 kB	96 KB	4 MB
Itanium 2	PC/server	2002	32 kB	256 KB	6 MB
IBM POWER5	High-end server	2003	64 kB	1.9 MB	36 MB
CRAY XD-1	Supercomputer	2004	64 kB/64 kB	1MB	—
IBM POWER6	PC/server	2007	64 kB/64 kB	4 MB	32 MB
IBM z10	Mainframe	2008	64 kB/128 kB	3 MB	24-48 MB
Intel Core i7 EE 990	Workstaton/ server	2011	$6 \times 32 \text{ kB}/32 \text{ kB}$	1.5 MB	12 MB
IBM zEnterprise 196	Mainframe/ Server	2011	24 × 64 kB/ 128 kB	24 × 1.5 MB	24 MB L3 192 MB L4

Table 4.3

Cache Sizes of Some Processors

> a Two values separated by a slash refer to instruction and data caches.

b Both caches are instruction only; no data caches.

Mapping Function

Because there are fewer cache lines than main memory blocks, an algorithm is needed for mapping main memory blocks into cache lines

Three techniques can be used:

Direct

- The simplest technique
- Maps each block of main memory into only one possible cache line

Associative

- Permits each main memory block to be loaded into any line of the cache
- The cache control logic interprets a memory address simply as a Tag and a Word field
- To determine whether a block is in the cache, the cache control logic must simultaneously examine every line's Tag for a match

Set Associative

 A compromise that exhibits the strengths of both the direct and associative approaches while reducing their disadvantages

Direct

Mapping



Figure 4.8 Mapping From Main Memory to Cache: Direct and Associative

Direct Mapping Cache Organization



Figure 4.9 Direct-Mapping Cache Organization

Direct

Mapping

Example



Figure 4.10 Direct Mapping Example

Direct Mapping Summary

- Address length = (s + w) bits
- Number of addressable units = 2^{s+w words or bytes}
- Block size = line size = 2w words or bytes

■ Number of blocks in main memory = 2s+ w/2w = 2s

Number of lines in cache = m = 2r

Size of tag = (s - r) bits



Victim Cache

- Originally proposed as an approach to reduce the conflict misses of direct mapped caches without affecting its fast access time
- Fully associative cache
- Typical size is 4 to 16 cache lines
- Residing between direct mapped L1 cache and the next level of memory

Fully Associative Cache Organization



Figure 4.11 Fully Associative Cache Organization

Associative

Mapping

Example



Figure 4.12 Associative Mapping Example

Associative Mapping Summary

Address length = (s + w) bits

Number of addressable units = 2^{s+w words or bytes}

Block size = line size = 2w words or bytes

Number of blocks in main memory = 2s+ w/2w = 2s

Number of lines in cache = undetermined

Size of tag = s bits



Set Associative Mapping

Compromise that exhibits the strengths of both the direct and associative approaches while reducing their disadvantages

Cache consists of a number of sets

Each set contains a number of lines

- A given block maps to any line in a given set
- e.g. 2 lines per set
 - 2 way associative mapping
 - A given block can be in one of 2 lines in only one set

Mapping From Main Memory to Cache:

k-Way Set Associative

B

B



Figure 4.13 Mapping From Main Memory to Cache: k-way Set Associative



Figure 4.14 k-Way Set Associative Cache Organization

Set Associative Mapping Summary

- Address length = (s + w) bits
- Number of addressable units = 2s+w words or bytes
- Block size = line size = 2w words or bytes
- Number of blocks in main memory = 2s+w/2w=2s
- Number of lines in set = k
- Number of sets = v = 2d
- Number of lines in cache = m=kv = k * 2d
- Size of cache = k * 2d+w words or bytes
- Size of tag = (s d) bits





Figure 4.15 Two-Way Set Associative Mapping Example

Varying Associativity Over Cache Size

+



Figure 4.16 Varying Associativity over Cache Size

Replacement Algorithms



- Once the cache has been filled, when a new block is brought into the cache, one of the existing blocks must be replaced
- For direct mapping there is only one possible line for any particular block and no choice is possible
- For the associative and set-associative techniques a replacement algorithm is needed
- To achieve high speed, an algorithm must be implemented in hardware

The four most common replacement algorithms are:

Least recently used (LRU)

- Most effective
- Replace that block in the set that has been in the cache longest with no reference to it
- Because of its simplicity of implementation, LRU is the most popular replacement algorithm

First-in-first-out (FIFO)

- Replace that block in the set that has been in the cache longest
- Easily implemented as a round-robin or circular buffer technique

Least frequently used (LFU)

- Replace that block in the set that has experienced the fewest references
- Could be implemented by associating a counter with each line

Write Policy

When a block that is resident in the cache is to be replaced there are two cases to consider:

If the old block in the cache has not been altered then it may be overwritten with a new block without first writing out the old block

If at least one write operation has been performed on a word in that line of the cache then main memory must be updated by writing the line of cache out to the block of memory before bringing in the new block There are two problems to contend with:

More than one device may have access to main memory

A more complex problem occurs when multiple processors are attached to the same bus and each processor has its own local cache - if a word is altered in one cache it could conceivably invalidate a word in other caches

Write Through and Write Back

- Write through
 - Simplest technique
 - All write operations are made to main memory as well as to the cache
 - The main disadvantage of this technique is that it generates substantial memory traffic and may create a bottleneck

Write back

- Minimizes memory writes
- Updates are made only in the cache
- Portions of main memory are invalid and hence accesses by I/O modules can be allowed only through the cache
- This makes for complex circuitry and a potential bottleneck

Line Size

Multilevel Caches

- As logic density has increased it has become possible to have a cache on the same chip as the processor
- The on-chip cache reduces the processor's external bus activity and speeds up execution time and increases overall system performance
 - When the requested instruction or data is found in the on-chip cache, the bus access is eliminated
 - On-chip cache accesses will complete appreciably faster than would even zerowait state bus cycles
 - During this period the bus is free to support other transfers

Two-level cache:

- Internal cache designated as level 1 (L1)
- External cache designated as level 2 (L2)
- Potential savings due to the use of an L2 cache depends on the hit rates in both the L1 and L2 caches
- The use of multilevel caches complicates all of the design issues related to caches, including size, replacement algorithm, and write policy

Hit Ratio (L1 & L2) For 8 Kbyte and 16 Kbyte L1



Figure 4.17 Total Hit Ratio (L1 and L2) for 8 Kbyte and 16 Kbyte L1

Unified Versus Split Caches

- Has become common to split cache:
 - One dedicated to instructions
 - One dedicated to data
 - Both exist at the same level, typically as two L1 caches
- Advantages of unified cache:
 - Higher hit rate
 - Balances load of instruction and data fetches automatically
 - Only one cache needs to be designed and implemented
- Trend is toward split caches at the L1 and unified caches for higher levels
- Advantages of split cache:
 - Eliminates cache contention between instruction fetch/decode unit and execution unit
 - Important in pipelining

		Processor on which
Problem	Solution	Appears
External memory slower than the system bus.	Add external cache using faster memory technology.	386
Increased processor speed results in external bus becoming a bottleneck for cache access.	Move external cache on- chip, operating at the same speed as the processor.	486
Internal cache is rather small, due to limited space on chip	Add external L2 cache using faster technology than main memory	486
Contention occurs when both the Instruction Prefetcher and the Execution Unit simultaneously require access to the cache. In that case, the Prefetcher is stalled while the Execution Unit's data access takes place.	Create separate data and instruction caches.	Pentium
Increased processor speed results in external bus becoming a bottleneck for L2 cache access.	Create separate back-side bus that runs at higher speed than the main (front-side) external bus. The BSB is dedicated to the L2 cache. Move L2 cache on to the	Pentium Pro Pentium II
Some applications deal with massive databases and must have rapid access to	processor chip. Add external L3 cache.	Pentium III
large amounts of data. The on-chip caches are too small.	Move L3 cache on-chip.	Pentium 4

Pentium 4 Cache

Table 4.4 Intel Cache Evolution

Pentium 4 Block Diagram



Figure 4.18 Pentium 4 Block Diagram

Pentium 4 Cache Operating Modes

Control Bits		Operating Mode		
NW	Cac	he Fills	Write Throughs	Invalidates
0	En	abled	Enabled	Enabled
0	Dis	sabled	Enabled	Enabled
1	Dis	sabled	Disabled	Disabled

Note: CD = 0; NW = 1 is an invalid combination.

 Table 4.5
 Pentium 4
 Cache Operating Modes

ARM Cache Features

Core	Cache Type	Cache Size (kB)	Cache Line Size (words)	Associativity	Location	Write Buffer Size (words)
ARM720T	Unified	8	4	4-way	Logical	8
ARM920T	Split	16/16 D/I	8	64-way	Logical	16
ARM926EJ-S	Split	4-128/4- 128 D/I	8	4-way	Logical	16
ARM1022E	Split	16/16 D/I	8	64-way	Logical	16
ARM1026EJ-S	Split	4-128/4- 128 D/I	8	4-way	Logical	8
Intel StrongARM	Split	16/16 D/I	4	32-way	Logical	32
Intel Xscale	Split	32/32 D/I	8	32-way	Logical	32
ARM1136-JF-S	Split	4-64/4-64 D/I	8	4-way	Physical	32

Table 4.6 ARM Cache Features

ARM Cache and Write Buffer Organization



Figure 4.19 ARM Cache and Write Buffer Organization

+ Summary

Chapter 4

Cache Memory

- Characteristics of Memory Systems
 - Location
 - Capacity
 - Unit of transfer
- Memory Hierarchy
 - How much?
 - How fast?
 - How expensive?
- Cache memory principles

- Elements of cache design
 - Cache addresses
 - Cache size
 - Mapping function
 - Replacement algorithms
 - Write policy
 - Line size
 - Number of caches
- Pentium 4 cache organization
- ARM cache organization