Caches

Samira Khan March 21, 2017

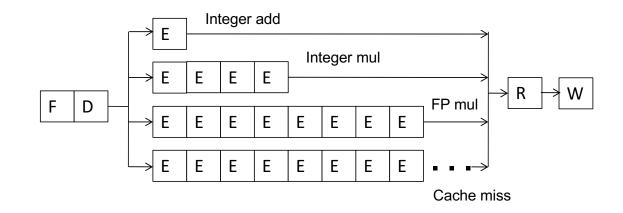
Agenda

- Logistics
- Review from last lecture
 - Out-of-order execution
- Data flow model
- Superscalar processor
- Caches

Final Exam

- Combined final exam 7-10PM on Tuesday, 9 May 2017
- Any conflict?
 - Please fill out the form
 - https://goo.gl/forms/TVOlvx76N4RiEltC2
 - Also linked from the schedule page

AN IN-ORDER PIPELINE



- Problem: A true data dependency stalls dispatch of younger instructions into functional (execution) units
- Dispatch: Act of sending an instruction to a functional unit

CAN WE DO BETTER?

• What do the following two pieces of code have in common (with respect to execution in the previous design)?

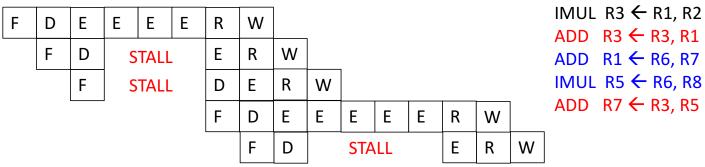
IMUL	R3 ← R1, R2
ADD	R3 ← R3, R1
ADD	R1 ← R6, R7
IMUL	R5 ← R6, R8
ADD	R7 ← R9, R9

LD R3 \leftarrow R1 (0) ADD R3 \leftarrow R3, R1 ADD R1 \leftarrow R6, R7 IMUL R5 \leftarrow R6, R8 ADD R7 \leftarrow R9, R9

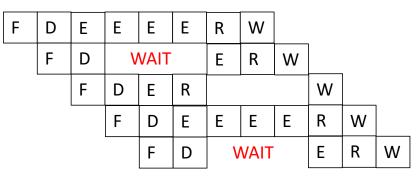
- Answer: First ADD stalls the whole pipeline!
 - ADD cannot dispatch because its source registers unavailable
 - Later independent instructions cannot get executed
- How are the above code portions different?
 - Answer: Load latency is variable (unknown until runtime)
 - What does this affect? Think compiler vs. microarchitecture

IN-ORDER VS. OUT-OF-ORDER DISPATCH

• In order dispatch + precise exceptions:



• Out-of-order dispatch + precise exceptions:



• 16 vs. 12 cycles

TOMASULO'S ALGORITHM

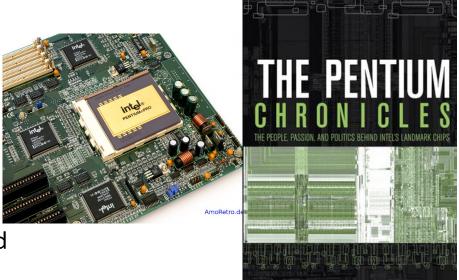
- OoO with register renaming invented by Robert Tomasulo
 - Used in IBM 360/91 Floating Point Units
 - Tomasulo, "An Efficient Algorithm for Exploiting Multiple Arithmetic Units,"
 - IBM Journal of R&D, Jan. 1967
- What is the major difference today?
 - Precise exceptions: IBM 360/91 did NOT have this
 - Patt, Hwu, Shebanow, "HPS, a new microarchitecture: rationale and introduction," MICRO 1985.
 - Patt et al., "Critical issues regarding HPS, a high performance microarchitecture," MICRO 1985.



Out-of-Order Execution \w Precise Exception

- Variants are used in most high-performance processors
 - Initially in Intel Pentium Pro, AMD K5
 - Alpha 21264, MIPS R10000, IBM POWER5, IBM z196, Oracle UltraSPARC T4, ARM Cortex A15

 The Pentium Chronicles: The People, Passion, and Politics Behind Intel's Landmark Chips by <u>Robert</u> <u>P. Colwell</u>



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The Von Neumann Model/Architecture

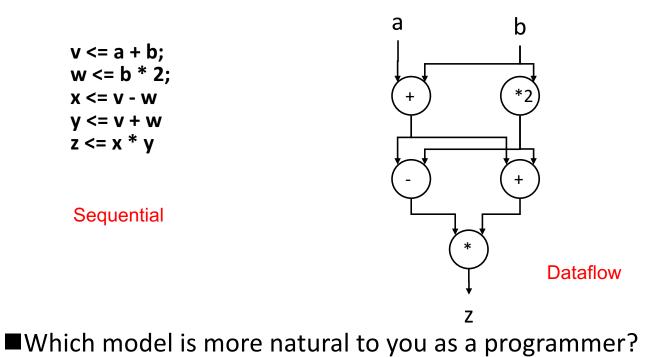
- Also called *stored program computer* (instructions in memory). Two key properties:
- Stored program
 - Instructions stored in a linear memory array
 - Memory is unified between instructions and data
 - The interpretation of a stored value depends on the control signals When is a value interpreted as an instruction?
- Sequential instruction processing
 - One instruction processed (fetched, executed, and completed) at a time
 - Program counter (instruction pointer) identifies the current instr.
 - Program counter is advanced sequentially except for control transfer instructions

The Dataflow Model (of a Computer)

- Von Neumann model: An instruction is fetched and executed in control flow order
 - As specified by the instruction pointer
 - Sequential unless explicit control flow instruction
- Dataflow model: An instruction is fetched and executed in data flow order
 - i.e., when its operands are ready
 - i.e., there is no instruction pointer
 - Instruction ordering specified by data flow dependence
 - Each instruction specifies "who" should receive the result
 - An instruction can "fire" whenever all operands are received
 - Potentially many instructions can execute at the same time
 - Inherently more parallel

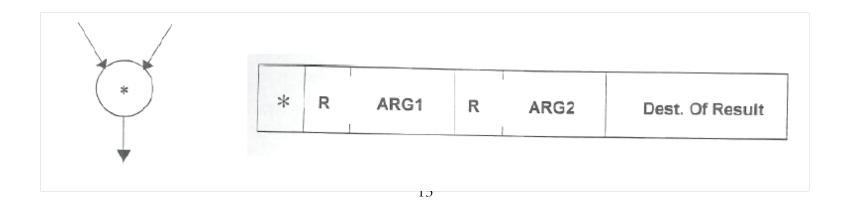
Von Neumann vs Dataflow

- Consider a Von Neumann program
 - What is the significance of the program order?
 - What is the significance of the storage locations?

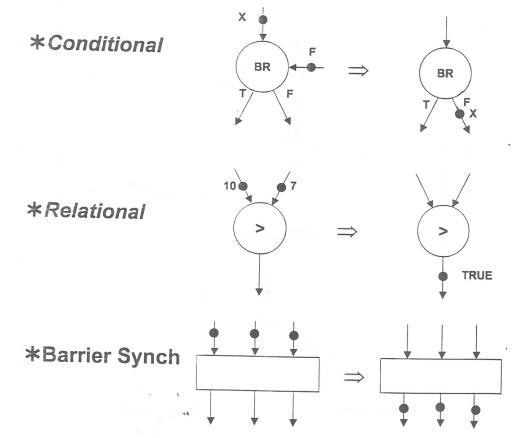


More on Data Flow

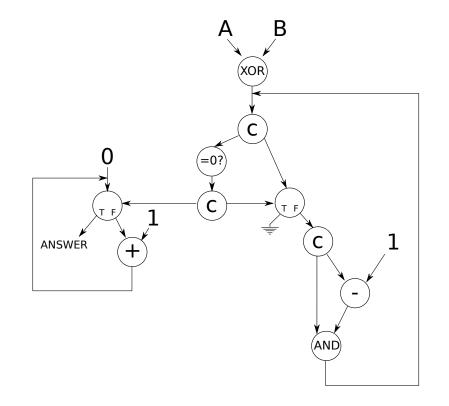
- In a data flow machine, a program consists of data flow nodes
 - A data flow node fires (fetched and executed) when all it inputs are ready
 - i.e. when all inputs have tokens
- Data flow node and its ISA representation

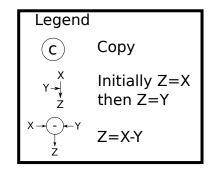


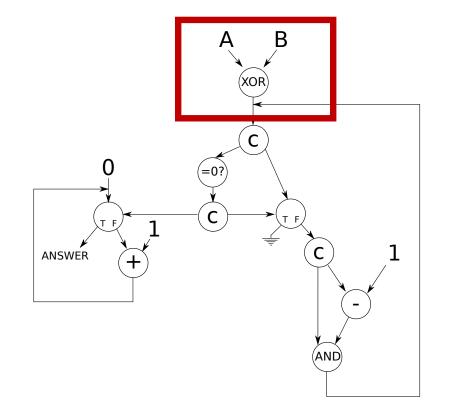




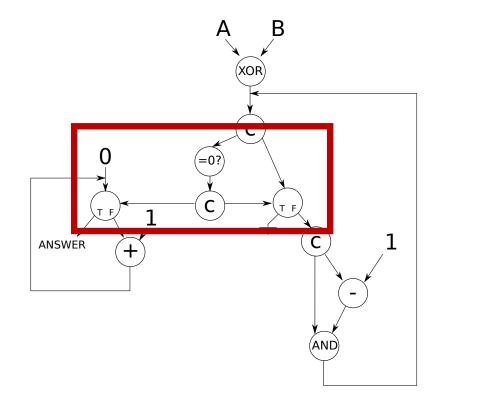
An Example





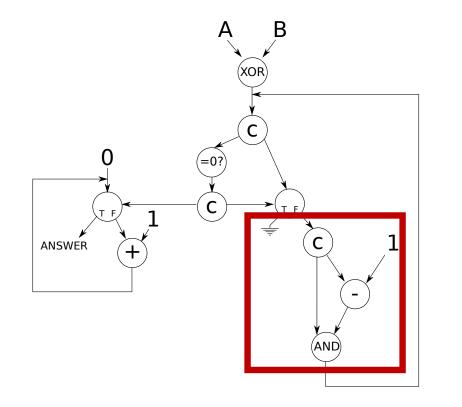


val = a ^ b



val = a ^ b

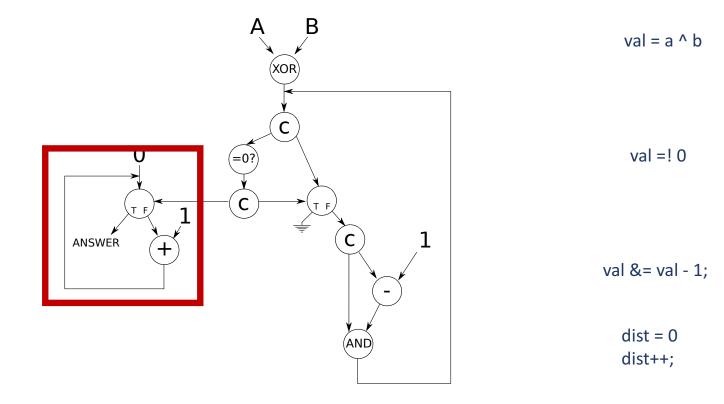
val =! 0



val = a ^ b

val =! 0

val &= val - 1;



Hamming Distance

int hamming_distance(unsigned a, unsigned b) {

```
int dist = 0;
unsigned val = a ^ b; // Count the number of bits set
while (val != 0) { // A bit is set, so increment the count and clear the bit
dist++; val &= val - 1;
}
// Return the number of differing bits
return dist;
```

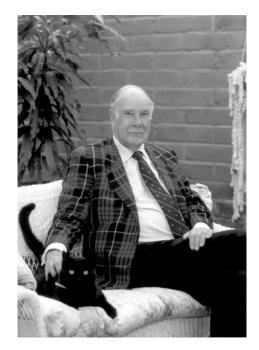
}

Hamming Distance

- Number of positions at which the corresponding symbols are different.
- The Hamming distance between:
 - "karolin" and "kathrin" is 3
 - 1011101 and 1001001 is 2
 - 2173896 and 2233796 is 3

RICHARD HAMMING

- Best known for Hamming Code
- Won Turing Award in 1968
- Was part of the Manhattan Project
- Worked in **Bell Labs** for 30 years
- You and Your Research is mainly his advice to other researchers
 - Had given the talk many times during his life time
 - http://www.cs.virginia.edu/~robins/Y ouAndYourResearch.html



Data Flow Advantages/Disadvantages

- Advantages
 - Very good at exploiting irregular parallelism
 - Only real dependencies constrain processing
- Disadvantages
 - Debugging difficult (no precise state)
 - Interrupt/exception handling is difficult (what is precise state semantics?)
 - Too much parallelism? (Parallelism control needed)
 - High bookkeeping overhead (tag matching, data storage)
 - Memory locality is not exploited

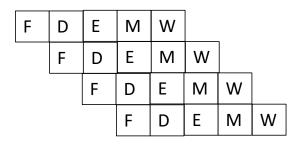
OOO EXECUTION: RESTRICTED DATAFLOW

- An out-of-order engine dynamically builds the dataflow graph of a piece of the program
 - which piece?
- The dataflow graph is limited to the instruction window
 - Instruction window: all decoded but not yet retired instructions
- Can we do it for the whole program?
- Why would we like to?
- In other words, how can we have a large instruction window?

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Superscalar Processor



Each instruction still takes 5 cycles, but instructions now complete every cycle:

 $\text{CPI} \rightarrow 1$

w
W

Each instruction still takes 5 cycles, but instructions now complete every cycle:

 $CPI \rightarrow 0.5$

Superscalar Processor

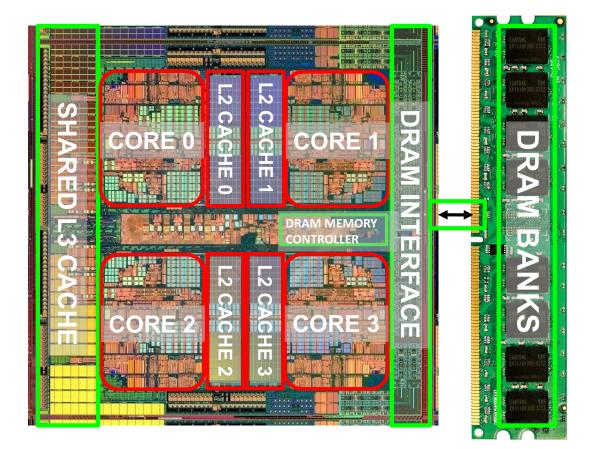
- Ideally: in an n-issue superscalar, n instructions are fetched, decoded, executed, and committed per cycle
- In practice:
 - Data, control, and structural hazards spoil issue flow
 - Multi-cycle instructions spoil commit flow
- Buffers at issue (issue queue) and commit (reorder buffer)
- Decouple these stages from the rest of the pipeline and regularize somewhat breaks in the flow

Problems?

- Fetch
 - May be located at different cachelines
 - More than one cache lookup is required in the same cycle
 - What if there are branches?
 - Branch prediction is required within the instruction fetch stage
- Decode/Execute
 - Replicate (ok)
- Issue
 - Number of dependence tests increases quadratically (bad)
- Register read/write
 - Number of register ports increases linearly (bad)
- Bypass/forwarding
 - Increases quadratically (bad)

The Memory Hierarchy

Memory in a Modern System



Ideal Memory

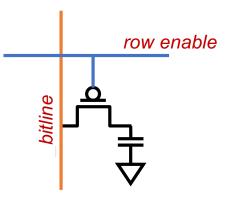
- Zero access time (latency)
- Infinite capacity
- Zero cost
- Infinite bandwidth (to support multiple accesses in parallel)

The Problem

- Ideal memory's requirements oppose each other
- Bigger is slower
 - Bigger \rightarrow Takes longer to determine the location
- Faster is more expensive
 - Memory technology: SRAM vs. DRAM vs. Disk vs. Tape
- Higher bandwidth is more expensive
 - Need more banks, more ports, higher frequency, or faster technology

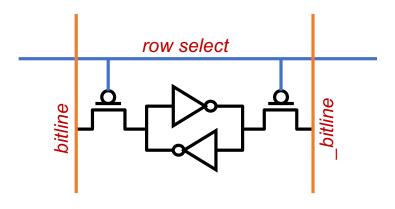
Memory Technology: DRAM

- Dynamic random access memory
- Capacitor charge state indicates stored value
 - Whether the capacitor is charged or discharged indicates storage of 1 or 0
 - 1 capacitor
 - 1 access transistor
- Capacitor leaks through the RC path
 - DRAM cell loses charge over time
 - DRAM cell needs to be refreshed



Memory Technology: SRAM

- Static random access memory
- Two cross coupled inverters store a single bit
 - Feedback path enables the stored value to be stable in the "cell"
 - 4 transistors for storage
 - 2 transistors for access



DRAM vs. SRAM

- DRAM
 - Slower access (capacitor)
 - Higher density (1T 1C cell)
 - Lower cost
 - Requires refresh (power, performance, circuitry)
 - Manufacturing requires putting capacitor and logic together
- SRAM
 - Faster access (no capacitor)
 - Lower density (6T cell)
 - Higher cost
 - No need for refresh
 - Manufacturing compatible with logic process (no capacitor)

The Problem

- Bigger is slower
 - SRAM, 512 Bytes, sub-nanosec
 - SRAM, KByte~MByte, ~nanosec
 - DRAM, Gigabyte, ~50 nanosec
 - Hard Disk, Terabyte, ~10 millisec

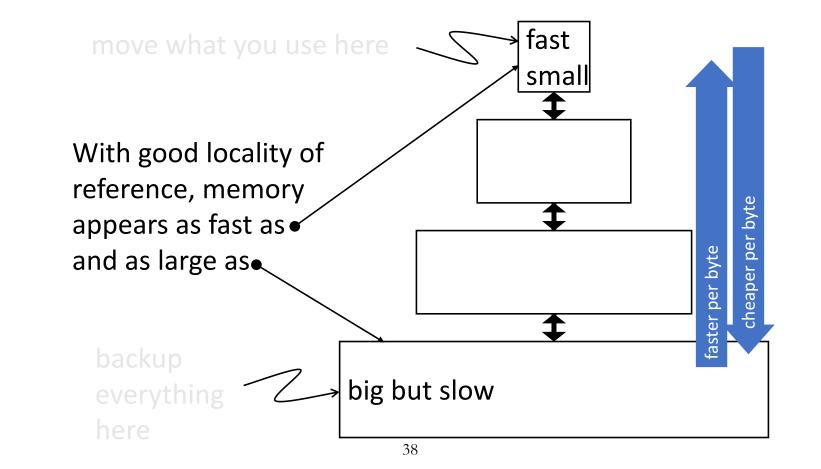
• Faster is more expensive (dollars and chip area)

- SRAM, < 10\$ per Megabyte
- DRAM, < 1\$ per Megabyte
- Hard Disk < 1\$ per Gigabyte
- These sample values scale with time
- Other technologies have their place as well
 - Flash memory, PC-RAM, MRAM, RRAM (not mature yet)

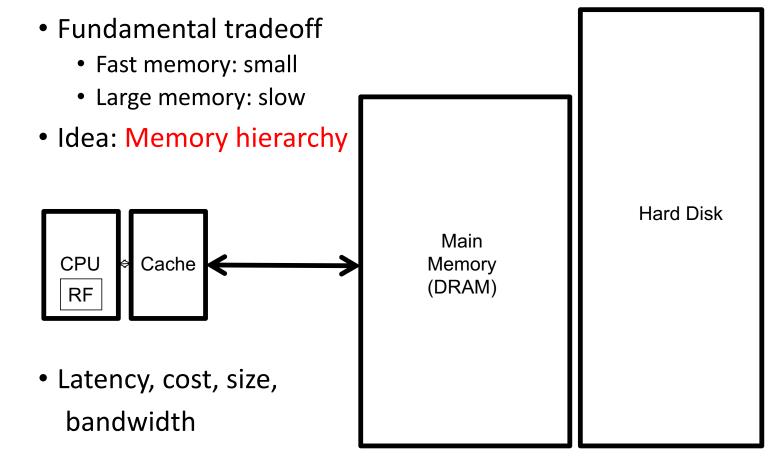
Why Memory Hierarchy?

- We want both fast and large
- But we cannot achieve both with a single level of memory
- Idea: Have multiple levels of storage (progressively bigger and slower as the levels are farther from the processor) and ensure most of the data the processor needs is kept in the fast(er) level(s)

The Memory Hierarchy



Memory Hierarchy



Locality

- One's recent past is a very good predictor of his/her near future.
- Temporal Locality: If you just did something, it is very likely that you will do the same thing again soon
 - since you are here today, there is a good chance you will be here again and again regularly
- Spatial Locality: If you did something, it is very likely you will do something similar/related (in space)
 - every time I find you in this room, you are probably sitting close to the same people

Memory Locality

- A "typical" program has a lot of locality in memory references
 - typical programs are composed of "loops"
- Temporal: A program tends to reference the same memory location many times and all within a small window of time
- Spatial: A program tends to reference a cluster of memory locations at a time
 - most notable examples:
 - instruction memory references
 - array/data structure references

Caching Basics: Exploit Temporal Locality

- Idea: Store recently accessed data in automatically managed fast memory (called cache)
- Anticipation: the data will be accessed again soon
- Temporal locality principle
 - Recently accessed data will be again accessed in the near future
 - This is what Maurice Wilkes had in mind:
 - Wilkes, "Slave Memories and Dynamic Storage Allocation," IEEE Trans. On Electronic Computers, 1965.
 - "The use is discussed of a fast core memory of, say 32000 words as a slave to a slower core memory of, say, one million words in such a way that in practical cases the effective access time is nearer that of the fast memory than that of the slow memory."

Caching Basics: Exploit Spatial Locality

- Idea: Store addresses adjacent to the recently accessed one in automatically managed fast memory
 - Logically divide memory into equal size blocks
 - Fetch to cache the accessed block in its entirety
- Anticipation: nearby data will be accessed soon

- Spatial locality principle
 - Nearby data in memory will be accessed in the near future
 - E.g., sequential instruction access, array traversal
 - This is what IBM 360/85 implemented
 - 16 Kbyte cache with 64 byte blocks
 - Liptay, "Structural aspects of the System/360 Model 85 II: the cache," IBM Systems Journal, 1968.

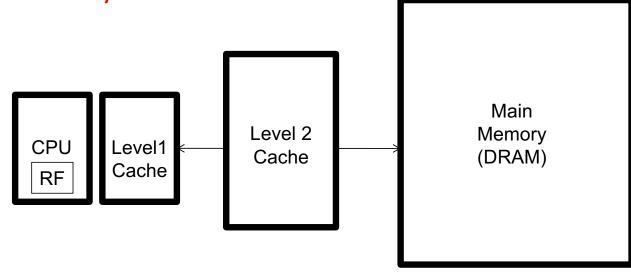


The Bookshelf Analogy

- Book in your hand
- Desk
- Bookshelf
- Boxes at home
- Boxes in storage
- Recently-used books tend to stay on desk
 - Comp Arch books, books for classes you are currently taking
 - Until the desk gets full
- Adjacent books in the shelf needed around the same time
 - If I have organized/categorized my books well in the shelf

Caching in a Pipelined Design

- The cache needs to be tightly integrated into the pipeline
 - Ideally, access in 1-cycle so that dependent operations do not stall
- High frequency pipeline \rightarrow Cannot make the cache large
 - But, we want a large cache AND a pipelined design
- Idea: Cache hierarchy



A Note on Manual vs. Automatic Management

- Manual: Programmer manages data movement across levels
 - -- too painful for programmers on substantial programs
 - still done in some embedded processors (on-chip scratch pad SRAM in lieu of a cache)
- Automatic: Hardware manages data movement across levels, transparently to the programmer
 - ++ programmer's life is easier
 - the average programmer doesn't need to know about it
 - You don't need to know how big the cache is and how it works to write a "correct" program! (What if you want a "fast" program?)

Automatic Management in Memory Hierarchy

• Wilkes, "Slave Memories and Dynamic Storage Allocation," IEEE Trans. On Electronic Computers, 1965.

Slave Memories and Dynamic Storage Allocation

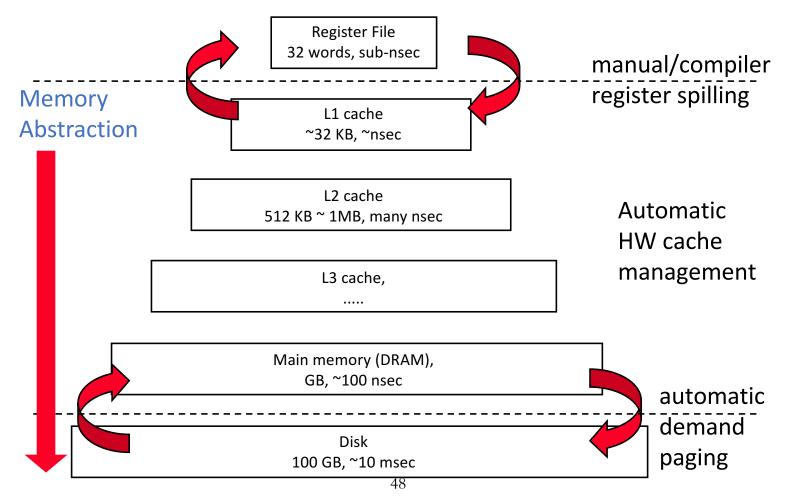
M. V. WILKES

Summary

The use is discussed of a fast core memory of, say, 32 000 words as a slave to a slower core memory of, say, one million words in such a way that in practical cases the effective access time is nearer that of the fast memory than that of the slow memory.

 "By a slave memory I mean one which automatically accumulates to itself words that come from a slower main memory, and keeps them available for subsequent use without it being necessary for the penalty of main memory access to be incurred again."





Hierarchical Latency Analysis

- For a given memory hierarchy level i it has a technology-intrinsic access time of t_{i_i} The perceived access time T_i is longer than t_i
- Except for the outer-most hierarchy, when looking for a given address there is
 - a chance (hit-rate h_i) you "hit" and access time is t_i
 - a chance (miss-rate m_i) you "miss" and access time $t_i + T_{i+1}$
 - $h_i + m_i = 1$
- Thus

 $T_i = h_i \cdot t_i + m_i \cdot (t_i + T_{i+1})$ $T_i = t_i + m_i \cdot T_{i+1}$

• Miss-rate of just the references that missed at L_{i-1}

Hierarchy Design Considerations

• Recursive latency equation

 $\mathbf{T}_{i} = \mathbf{t}_{i} + \mathbf{m}_{i} \cdot \mathbf{T}_{i+1}$

- The goal: achieve desired T₁ within allowed cost
- $T_i \approx t_i$ is desirable
- Keep m_i low
 - increasing capacity C_i lowers m_i, but beware of increasing t_i
 - lower m_i by smarter management (replacement::anticipate what you don't need, prefetching::anticipate what you will need)
- Keep T_{i+1} low
 - faster lower hierarchies, but beware of increasing cost
 - introduce intermediate hierarchies as a compromise

Intel Pentium 4 Example

- 90nm P4, 3.6 GHz
- L1 D-cache
 - $C_1 = 16K$
 - t₁ = 4 cyc int / 9 cycle fp
- L2 D-cache
 - C₂ =1024 KB
 - t₂ = 18 cyc int / 18 cyc fp
- Main memory
 - t₃ = ~ 50ns or 180 cyc
- Notice
 - best case latency is not 1
 - worst case access latencies are into 500+ cycles

```
if m_1=0.1, m_2=0.1

T_1=7.6, T_2=36

if m_1=0.01, m_2=0.01

T_1=4.2, T_2=19.8

if m_1=0.05, m_2=0.01

T_1=5.00, T_2=19.8

if m_1=0.01, m_2=0.50

T_1=5.08, T_2=108
```