

## CSE 30321 – Lecture 17 – In Class Handout

### **Part A: Example**

- In the slides, I noted what would happen if Fetch/Memory took 100 ns
- Let's look at a slightly more optimistic case...
- The CPU has a 1 GHz clock rate
- The L1 cache access time is 1 ns
  - o (The L1 cache is a faster level of memory hierarchy)
- 90% of the time we find data in the L1 cache
- The Main Memory access time is 75 ns
  - o Thus, if we miss in the L1 cache, we pay a 75 ns penalty
- 1/3 of all instructions are loads and stores
- The base CPI of this machine is 1 (without considering caching)

### **What is the impact on CPI?**

- First, how many instructions reference memory:
  - o 1 reference for fetch
  - o 0.33 for load/store
  - o Thus, there are 1.33 memory references/instruction
- 90% of the time we get an L1 hit – i.e. we find data in L1
- 10% of the time, we have to spend 75 ns
  - o  $0.1 \times 75 \times 1.33$

### **Thus, the new CPI is:**

$$\begin{aligned} &= 1 + (0.1 \times 75 \times 1.33) \\ &= 10.975! \end{aligned}$$

### **The take away:**

- Even with a 90%, 1 CC hit rate, the performance impact can be fairly severe
- We need to be better

### **Part B: Average Memory Access Time**

**Therefore, the Average Memory Access Time is given by:**

$$\text{AMAT} = \text{Hit Time} + (1 - \text{Hit Time}) \times \text{Miss Penalty}$$

In the previous example:  $1 + (1-0.9) \times 75 \text{ ns} \rightarrow 1 \text{ ns} + 7.5 \text{ ns} \rightarrow 8.5 \text{ CCs}$

**Part C: Caches and their structures**

Cache Blocks:

- As mentioned, a “block” is the smallest amount of “stuff” (data) that can be brought into a cache
  - o Generally blocks are between 16-128 bytes of data
- Question:
  - o In MIPS, datawords are just 4 bytes of data.
  - o Why bring in 16-128 bytes of data?
- Answer:
  - o Locality
  - o (In other words, the idea is that because we referenced a particular data word or instruction encoding, we’ll probably reference other stuff by that same data/instruction soon ... so just bring it closer to the datapath right away.)
- Therefore, a cache organization might look something like this:

.....

Block 0	Word 0	...	Word N
Block 1	Word 0	...	Word N
Block 2	Word 0	...	Word N
Block 3	Word 0	...	Word N
Block 4	Word 0	...	Word N

.....

**Part D: Where does a block go in the cache?**

- If a cache is an array of blocks, how do we choose where a block goes?
  - o There are 3 ways to decide

**1. Direct Mapping**

- As an example, let’s say that we have 8 blocks in our cache and the address that we want to load data from is 12.
- We can use the mod function to select where this block goes.
  - o E.g.  $12 \% 8 = \text{Block } 4$
- Similarly
  - o  $120 \% 8 = \text{Block } 0$
- What if we get the sequence of memory addresses: 12, 20, 12, 20, 12, 20, 12, 20 ...
  - o Both map to Block 4!
  - o We have to replace a block with each reference
    - (And with this sequence, we would never find the data in the cache)

**2. Fully Associative Mapping**

- If we have a cache with 8 blocks, the block can go *anywhere*
  - o E.g. it could be placed at Block 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, or 7
- The net effect:
  - o We could potentially eliminate conflicts like you just saw above

- However, the search time will realistically increase significantly

### 3. Set Associative Mapping

- This involves different *sets* of *blocks*
- See the picture below:

Location	Data	Set
0		<b>0</b>
1		
2		<b>1</b>
3		
4		<b>2</b>
5		
6		<b>3</b>
7		

- The basic idea is that a block maps to a set – and then can be placed anywhere within that set.
  - Thus, you get some of the speed of a direct mapped cache (e.g. its easier to find where a block maps too), but could eliminate some of the conflicts associated with a direct mapped cache.
- Thus, if we have a request for the data at address 12, we would do a mod function with the **number of sets**
  - E.g.  $12 \% 4 = \text{Set } 0$
  - The block could then be placed anywhere within Set 0
    - E.g. at Location 0 or Location 1

### Part E: How do you find a block?

- The previous discussion focused on how where you place a block in a cache.
- Another question to consider is how you find data associated with a given block.

As an example, let's assume that we have the instruction: lw \$5, 0(\$2)

- How do we find the data associated with "0(\$2)" in a cache?
- Well, in MIPS, we use 0(\$2) to calculate a 32-bit physical address
- We'll start with that – and divide the physical address up into 3 different fields
  - Note that the procedure to be discussed applies even if the address is not 32 bits; we could just as easily discuss an N-bit physical address.

Bit 31		Bit 0
Tag	Index	Offset

A very important thing to understand: How to use/interpret each field!

Let's start with the Index:

- The index bits are used to pick which block (for a direct mapped cache) or which set (for a set-associative cache) an address will map to

00	Block / Set 0
01	Block / Set 1
10	Block / Set 2
11	Block / Set 3

- For example, if there are 2 index bits, then there are 4 blocks or 4 sets in the cache that a physical address may map to
  
- Another example:
  - o If a cache has 1024 blocks in it, how many bits of index are needed to address each block?
    - $2^{10} = 1024$ ; therefore 10 bits
  - o If a cache has 1024 blocks in it and is *8-way set associative*, how many bits of index are needed?
    - Note that 8-way set associative means that there are 8 blocks associated with a given set
    - However, note that the question explicitly states that there are only 1024 TOTAL blocks in the cache
    - $2^{10}$  blocks /  $2^3$  blocks / set =  $2^7$  sets. Therefore 7 bits of index are needed.

Let's look at the offset next:

- The offset bits are used to find the right word in a block
  - o Remember, even though an instruction encoding or data word may be 4 bytes long, blocks usually contain anywhere from 16-128 bytes!
- The number of bits that comprise the offset depends on:
  - o If there is more than 1 word / block
  - o To what level a word can be addressed
    - Remember, MIPS is byte addressable
- Example:
  - o If data is addressed to the word:
    - If there is just 1 word / block, 0 bits of offset are needed
    - If there are 2 words / block, 1 bit of offset is needed
    - If there are 4 words / block, 2 bits of offset are needed
    - If there are 8 words / block, 3 bits of offset are needed
    - Etc., etc.
- But what if there are 2 words per block and data is byte addressable?

Word 1				Word 2			
Byte	Byte	Byte	Byte	Byte	Byte	Byte	Byte

- If each byte can be addressed, how many bits of offset are needed?
  - o Answer: 3
    - There are 8 byte and  $8 = 2^3$  ... so 3 bits are needed.

The remaining bits form the tag:

- The tag helps us to ensure that we're looking at the right entry.

**Note that:**

- **The least significant bits of the physical address form the offset**
- **The next N bits of the physical address form the index**
- **The last / most significant bits of the physical address form the tag**

### Part F: Example

- Assume we have lw \$8, 0(\$2)
  - o 0(\$2) turns out to be physical address: AA BB CC DD (in hex)
- The first place we would look to find the data associated with address AA BB CC DD is in the cache
- Let's assume our cache is:
  - o Direct mapped
  - o There are 16 words / block
  - o Data is addressed to the word
  - o There are 4096 blocks

How many bits of offset are needed?

- 4.  $2^4 = 16$ .
  - o We need to pick one of the 16 words in a block

How many bits of index are needed?

- We need to be able to select 1 of 4096 blocks
- $2^{12} = 4096$
- Therefore 12 bits of index are needed.

The rest of the bits form the tag.

- Therefore there are  $32 - 4 - 12 = 16$  bits of tag

For this physical address we would have:

Tag	Index	Offset
AA BB	CC D	D

$$\text{CCD} = 1100 * 1100 * 1101 = 3277_{10} \text{ th entry (or block)}$$

$$\text{D} = 1101 = 13^{\text{th}} \text{ word in that block}$$