

---

# Cache Miss Rate Predictability via Neural Networks

---

**Rishikesh Jha** \*

College of Information and Computer Sciences  
University of Massachusetts Amherst  
Amherst, MA 01003  
rishikeshjha@cs.umass.edu

**Arjun Karuvally** \*

College of Information and Computer Sciences  
University of Massachusetts Amherst  
Amherst, MA 01003  
akaruvally@cs.umass.edu

**Saket Tiwari** \*

College of Information and Computer Sciences  
University of Massachusetts Amherst  
Amherst, MA 01003  
sakettiwari@cs.umass.edu

**J. Eliot B. Moss**

College of Information and Computer Sciences  
University of Massachusetts Amherst  
Amherst, MA 01003  
moss@cs.umass.edu

## Abstract

A program run, in the setting of computer architecture and compilers, can be characterized in part by its memory access patterns. We approach the problem of analyzing these patterns using machine learning. We characterize memory accesses using a sequence of *cache miss rates*, and present a new data set for this task. The data set draws from programs run on various Java virtual machines, and C and Fortran compilers. We work towards answering the scientific question: How predictable is a program's cache miss rate from interval to interval as it executes? We report the results of three distinct ANN models, which have been shown to be effective in sequence modeling. We show that programs can be differentiated in terms of the predictability of their cache miss rates.

## 1 Introduction

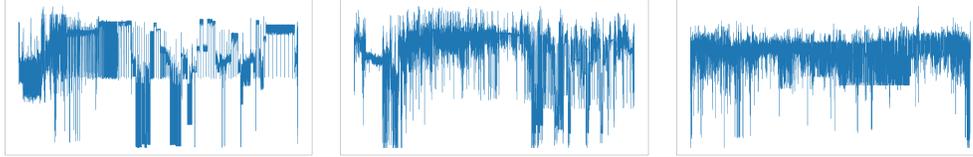
Modern computers use a deep memory hierarchy to boost performance. A typical hierarchy consists of Level 1 data and instruction caches, Level 2 and 3 combined caches, and main memory. Considering virtual memory, the file system is another layer, and data and instruction translation buffers (TLBs) are further caching mechanisms. When data are not found in a particular cache, it is called a *miss*, and the *miss rate* can affect performance greatly. Here we consider the question: How *predictable* is a program's miss rate over time as it executes? This is a scientific question distinct from the engineering question of how to build a good predictor. For current hardware, it is not clear what one would do with a good predictor, except perhaps in adjusting main memory allocations in virtual memory paging.

In order to evaluate the efficiency and efficacy of compilers and computer architectures during a program run, benchmarks such as SPEC CPU 2000 [15] have been developed for C, C++, and Fortran programs, DaCapo [5] for Java programs. Traditionally, the study of benchmark programs has involved aggregate metrics and has not employed machine learning methods. Here we investigate the predictability of cache miss rates for programs from these benchmark suites.

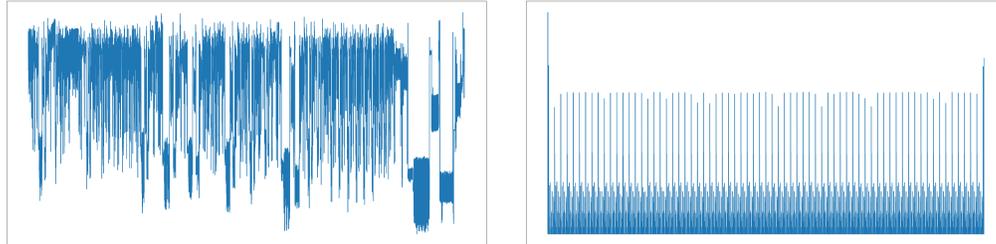
Artificial neural networks (ANNs) have been effective in learning from sequences to predict unseen patterns in Natural Language Processing (NLP) [16, 3, 13] and audio generation [17, 12]. Recently, Hashemi et al. [8] related the problem of modeling memory access pattern as a sequence learning problem in NLP.

---

\*equal contribution



(a) *Jikes RVM* (b) *HotSpot* (c) *J9*  
**Figure 1:**  $\log_{10}$  of cache miss rates for Java programs on 3 virtual machines over time



(a) *C* (b) *Fortran*  
**Figure 2:**  $\log_{10}$  of cache miss rates for Fortran and C programs over time

Chiu et al. [7] and Chiu and Moss [6] apply machine learning to *program phase change* detection and *phase prediction*. We apply ANN sequence learning techniques to study sequences of cache miss rates and determine how predictability of these sequences varies across programs. We make two contributions here. First, we introduce this sequence learning task, introducing a new data set. Second, we work towards insights into benchmark programs and compilers using sequence modeling.

**Data Set:** For the SPEC CPU 2000 programs (“ref” size runs) we collected traces of every memory access made by the programs in `valgrind`, specifically its `Lackey` tool [14]. We used the same tool on DaCapo Java programs (plus a modified `javac` benchmark) run under three Java virtual machines (JVMs): Jikes RVM [1], an IBM standard product JVM, and IBM’s J9. See Figures 1 and 2 for examples. We mapped virtual addresses to their 64-byte (or, for pages, 4096-byte) virtual cache line, and applied the least recently used (LRU) stack algorithm [4] to obtain miss rates for various cache sizes. Here we consider size 32K bytes. The rates are aggregated over windows of 1,000,000 instructions, for instruction accesses only, data only, and both. Thus we obtain six sequences of numbers in the range [0,1] from each trace (two cache line sizes  $\times$  instruction only, data only, both). The dataset is publicly available at <https://github.com/umass-moss-lab/Cache-Miss-Rate-Predictability>.

**Data Preprocessing:** We transform the cache miss rates using  $\log_{10}$  to show better the interesting miss rates close to 0. (To avoid 0 itself, we first add a small  $\epsilon$  to the miss rates.) Values less than  $-6$  we map to  $-6$ , since such small rates are insignificant. For learning, the sequences are divided into contiguous chunks, with some chunks used for training and others for testing. Training and test chunks are drawn from all parts of traces so that all program phases are captured in both training and testing.

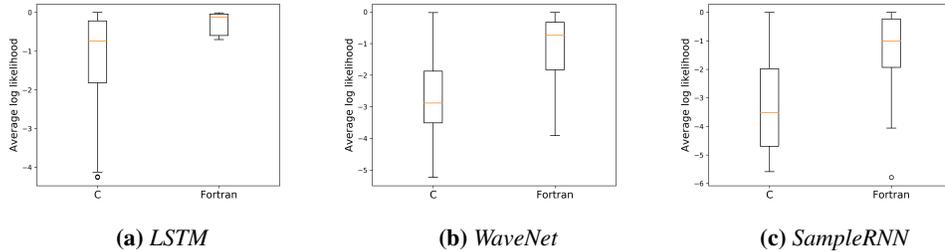
## 2 Models

We model the data using three different ANNs. In keeping with the nature of the data all three models are *auto-regressive*, employ discretized representations in the input and output space, and are ones commonly applied to sequence learning tasks in a variety of settings.

**LSTM:** LSTMs [10], a variant of RNNs, have been successful in sequence modeling due to their ability to capture short and long term dependencies in sequential data [16, 18]. An LSTM estimates the distribution

$$\Pr(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{t=1}^T \Pr(x_t | x_1, \dots, x_{t-1}), \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{x}$  is the sequence of cache miss rates,  $T$  is the length of the sequence  $\mathbf{x}$ , and  $x_t$  represents the cache miss rate at time  $t$ . *Unrolling* LSTMs beyond a certain time step in the history of a sequence leads to heavy computation and *vanishing gradient* issues [9, 2], so we modified the model to account



**Figure 3: Log Likelihood for C and Fortran Programs**

for this by unrolling only up to a finite number of time steps,  $h$ , behind the current history of the sequence. Our model consists of an LSTM layer followed by three fully connected layers [11]. The hidden state of the LSTM is forwarded to the next prediction of the model. The hidden state, in theory, contains information about the values prior to the current time step.

**WaveNet:** Recent advances in raw audio wave form generation from text and also from preceding audio stream have been achieved using ANNs [17]. The similarity, albeit weak, between modeling raw audio wave forms and cache miss rates stems from the fact that the both sequences have high frequency components and span a finite range of values. Also, the discretization of the raw audio space has analogues in the recently proposed *neural prefetchers* [8].

We formulate the problem of predicting cache miss rates analogously to *conditional wavelets* as described by van den Oord et al. [17]. The wavelet is conditioned on  $\mathbf{h}$  which is a 1-hot encoding of the memory trace ids

$$\Pr(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{h}) = \prod_{t=1}^T \Pr(x_t|x_1, \dots, x_{t-1}, \mathbf{h}).$$

The one-hot encoded vector  $\mathbf{h}$  is then projected into a dense representation that is learned at every layer:

$$\tanh(W_{f,k} * \mathbf{x} + V_{f,k}^T \mathbf{h}) \odot \sigma(W_{g,k} * \mathbf{x} + V_{g,k}^T \mathbf{h}),$$

where  $V_{*,k}$  is a learnable linear projection which projects the 1-hot encoded vector into a dense representation,  $\mathbf{x}$  is the output of the previous layer,  $W_{*,k}$  is a matrix of learnable parameters, and the subscripts  $f, g$  represent filter and gate parameters. The scalar variable  $k$  is used to denote the layer number in the model.

We modify the WaveNet architecture, replacing the  $\mu$ -law encoding and decoding layers with a linear one. ( $\mu$ -law encoding ignores outliers, and the mid-range values make fine-grained distinctions, which need not apply in our case.) We also omit stacked dilations and instead use dilations ranging from 2 to 512, increasing exponentially.

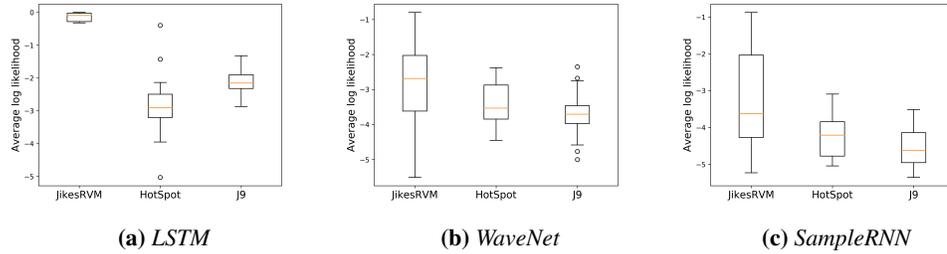
**SampleRNN:** Similar to WaveNet, SampleRNN [12] has achieved state-of-the-art results for audio wave form generation. In contrast to WaveNet, it uses RNNs at different time scales to model long-term dependencies, instead of using dilated convolutions. We use SampleRNN to model the probability distribution as described in Equation 1. The output space is a  $p$ -way soft-max distribution.

### 3 Experimental Results and Insights

We discretize the sequence into 256 channels for all three models. We trained the models to minimize the negative log-likelihood. We found that the following hyper-parameters worked best for our validation set:

**LSTM:** Mini-batches of size 7, learning rate 0.00001, and the Adam optimizer with exponential decay rates  $\beta_1=0.9$ ,  $\beta_2=0.999$ , and  $h = 200$ . **WaveNet:** Mini-batches of size 1, learning rate of 0.001, momentum parameter 0.9, and L2 regularization with coefficient 0.001. **SampleRNN:** Mini-batches of size 128, a *receptive field* of 512, and the Adam Optimizer with learning rate 0.001,  $\beta_1=0.9$ , and  $\beta_2=0.999$ . Frame sizes of 2, 4, and 8, respectively, worked best with our three-tier SampleRNN architecture with  $p=256$ .

We compare the results of the three models (see Figures 3 and 4). We observe that Figure 3a shows how the log likelihood of traces varies across virtual machines. Note that the three virtual machines



**Figure 4: Log Likelihood for Java Virtual Machines**

have typically different likelihoods, and the majority of the traces can be ordered as HotSpot, J9, and Jikes RVM (lowest to highest likelihood). Considering that log likelihoods correspond to the predictability of the traces, Jikes RVM is seen to have the highest predictability and HotSpot the lowest. This can be attributed to the fact that Jikes RVM uses only compiled execution while HotSpot combines interpretation and compilation, so its access patterns vary more. Figure 3a in turn shows how C/Fortran traces differ in log likelihood. Fortran programs show very high predictability compared to C programs, which are spread across the likelihood spectrum. The higher predictability of Fortran traces may be because many Fortran programs emphasize regular processing across dense arrays, while C programs lean toward pointer-linked data structures, whose accesses will be more scattered across memory.

Note that a naive predictor which predicts a uniform distribution (with probability  $1/256$  for each discrete bin) would result in an average log likelihood of  $-5.45$ . Although each one of our models vastly outperforms such a predictor, we observe that estimating a probability distribution  $\Pr(x_t|x_1, \dots, x_{t-1})$  for the provided data set, is a challenging task nevertheless.

## 4 Discussion

We have introduced a new data set for analyzing the predictability of cache miss rates in program runs. We have also formulated a sequence modeling task and train three distinct models for the same. Based on the results of these models, we derived inferences stemming from the design and nature of the underlying system.

For future work we propose to delve deeper into the question of what factors affect this predictability. We need models that are engineered to better predict cache miss rates and the uncertainty surrounding them. A Bayesian approach might add value in the sense that it gives us a distribution of future values conditioned on the parameters of the model. From a systems standpoint, we envision using such a model in a shared cache setting to allocate cache among different processes (e.g., to allocate real memory used for paging). We can use such a model to predict future cache miss rates and to partition memory accordingly.

## References

- [1] B. Alpern, S. Augart, S. M. Blackburn, M. A. Butrico, A. Cocchi, P. Cheng, J. Dolby, S. J. Fink, D. Grove, M. Hind, K. S. McKinley, M. F. Mergen, J. E. B. Moss, T. A. Ngo, V. Sarkar, and M. Trapp. The Jikes Research Virtual Machine project: Building an open-source research community. *IBM Systems Journal*, 44(2):399–418, 2005. doi: 10.1147/sj.442.0399. URL <https://doi.org/10.1147/sj.442.0399>.
- [2] Y. Bengio, P. Simard, and P. Frasconi. Learning long-term dependencies with gradient descent is difficult. *Trans. Neur. Netw.*, 5(2):157–166, Mar. 1994. ISSN 1045-9227. doi: 10.1109/72.279181. URL <http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/72.279181>.
- [3] Y. Bengio, R. Ducharme, and P. Vincent. A neural probabilistic language model. In *NIPS*, 2000.
- [4] B. T. Bennet and V. J. Kruskal. LRU stack processing. *IBM Journal of Research and Development*, 19(4):353–357, 1975. doi: 10.1147/rd.194.0353. URL <https://doi.org/10.1147/rd.194.0353>.
- [5] S. M. Blackburn, R. Garner, C. Hoffman, A. M. Khan, K. S. McKinley, R. Bentzur, A. Diwan, D. Feinberg, D. Frampton, S. Z. Guyer, M. Hirzel, A. Hosking, M. Jump, H. Lee, J. E. B. Moss, A. Phansalkar,

- D. Stefanović, T. VanDrunen, D. von Dincklage, and B. Wiedermann. The DaCapo benchmarks: Java benchmarking development and analysis. In *OOPSLA '06: Proceedings of the 21st Annual ACM SIGPLAN Conference on Object-Oriented Programming, Systems, Languages, and Applications*, pages 169–190, New York, NY, USA, Oct. 2006. ACM Press. doi: <http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/1167473.1167488>.
- [6] M. Chiu and E. Moss. Run-time program-specific phase prediction for Python programs. In *Proceedings of the 15th International Conference on Managed Languages & Runtimes, ManLang 2018, Linz, Austria, September 12-14, 2018*, pages 1:1–1:10, 2018. doi: 10.1145/3237009.3237011. URL <http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/3237009.3237011>.
- [7] M.-C. Chiu, B. M. Marlin, and E. Moss. Real-time program-specific phase change detection for Java programs. In *PPPJ*, 2016.
- [8] M. Hashemi, K. Swersky, J. A. Smith, G. Ayers, H. Litz, J. Chang, C. E. Kozyrakis, and P. Ranganathan. Learning memory access patterns. In *ICML*, 2018.
- [9] S. Hochreiter. The vanishing gradient problem during learning recurrent neural nets and problem solutions. *Int. J. Uncertain. Fuzziness Knowl.-Based Syst.*, 6(2):107–116, Apr. 1998. ISSN 0218-4885. doi: 10.1142/S0218488598000094. URL <http://dx.doi.org/10.1142/S0218488598000094>.
- [10] S. Hochreiter and J. Schmidhuber. Long short-term memory. *Neural Computation*, 9:1735–1780, 1997.
- [11] T. Linzen, E. Dupoux, and Y. Goldberg. Assessing the ability of LSTMs to learn syntax-sensitive dependencies. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 4:521–535, 2016. URL <http://aclweb.org/anthology/Q16-1037>.
- [12] S. Mehri, K. Kumar, I. Gulrajani, R. Kumar, S. Jain, J. Sotelo, A. Courville, and Y. Bengio. SampleRNN: An unconditional end-to-end neural audio generation model. In *ICLR*, 2017.
- [13] T. Mikolov, M. Karafiát, L. Burget, J. Cernocký, and S. Khudanpur. Recurrent neural network based language model. In *INTERSPEECH*, 2010.
- [14] N. Nethercote and J. Seward. Valgrind: a framework for heavyweight dynamic binary instrumentation. In *Proceedings of the ACM SIGPLAN 2007 Conference on Programming Language Design and Implementation, San Diego, California, USA, June 10-13, 2007*, pages 89–100, 2007. doi: 10.1145/1250734.1250746. URL <http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/1250734.1250746>.
- [15] Standard Performance Evaluation Corporation. SPEC CPU 2000 benchmarks, 2000. URL <http://www.spec.org.cpu2000/>.
- [16] I. Sutskever, O. Vinyals, and Q. V. Le. Sequence to sequence learning with neural networks. In *NIPS*, 2014.
- [17] A. van den Oord, S. Dieleman, H. Zen, K. Simonyan, O. Vinyals, A. Graves, N. Kalchbrenner, A. W. Senior, and K. Kavukcuoglu. WaveNet: A generative model for raw audio. In *SSW*, 2016.
- [18] Y. Wu, M. Schuster, Z. Chen, Q. V. Le, M. Norouzi, W. Macherey, M. Krikun, Y. Cao, Q. Gao, K. Macherey, J. Klingner, A. Shah, M. Johnson, X. Liu, L. Kaiser, S. Gouws, Y. Kato, T. Kudo, H. Kazawa, K. Stevens, G. Kurian, N. Patil, W. Wang, C. Young, J. Smith, J. Riesa, A. Rudnick, O. Vinyals, G. S. Corrado, M. Hughes, and J. Dean. Google’s neural machine translation system: Bridging the gap between human and machine translation. *CoRR*, abs/1609.08144, 2016.