CENG4480

Lecture 08: Memory 1

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Overview

Overview

Why We Need Memory?

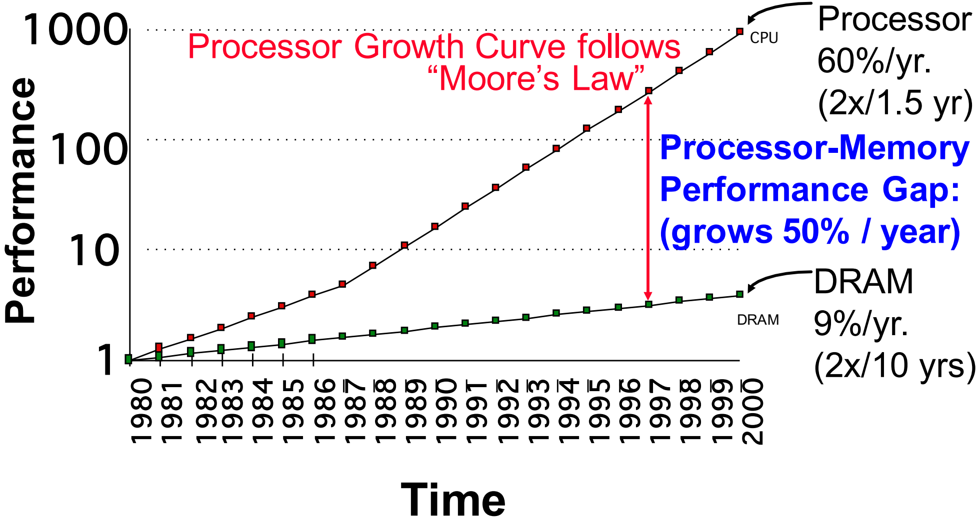
Combinational Circuit:

- Always gives the same output for a given set of inputs
- E.g., adders

Sequential Circuit:

- Store information
- Output depends on stored information
- E.g., counter
- Need a storage element

Who Cares About the Memory Hierarchy?

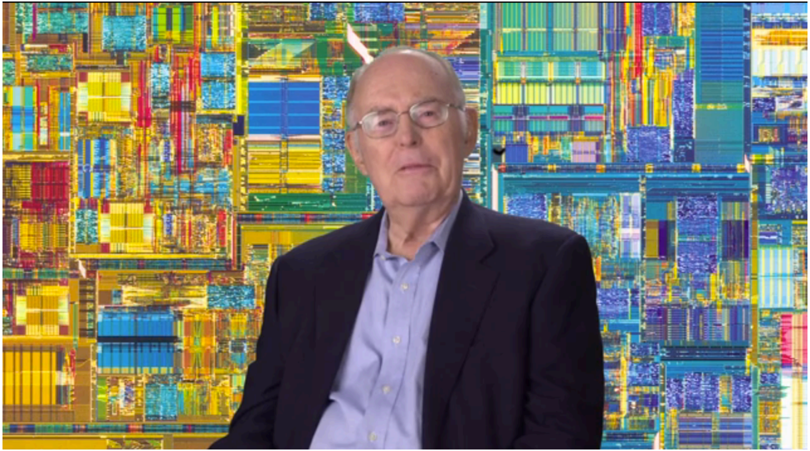


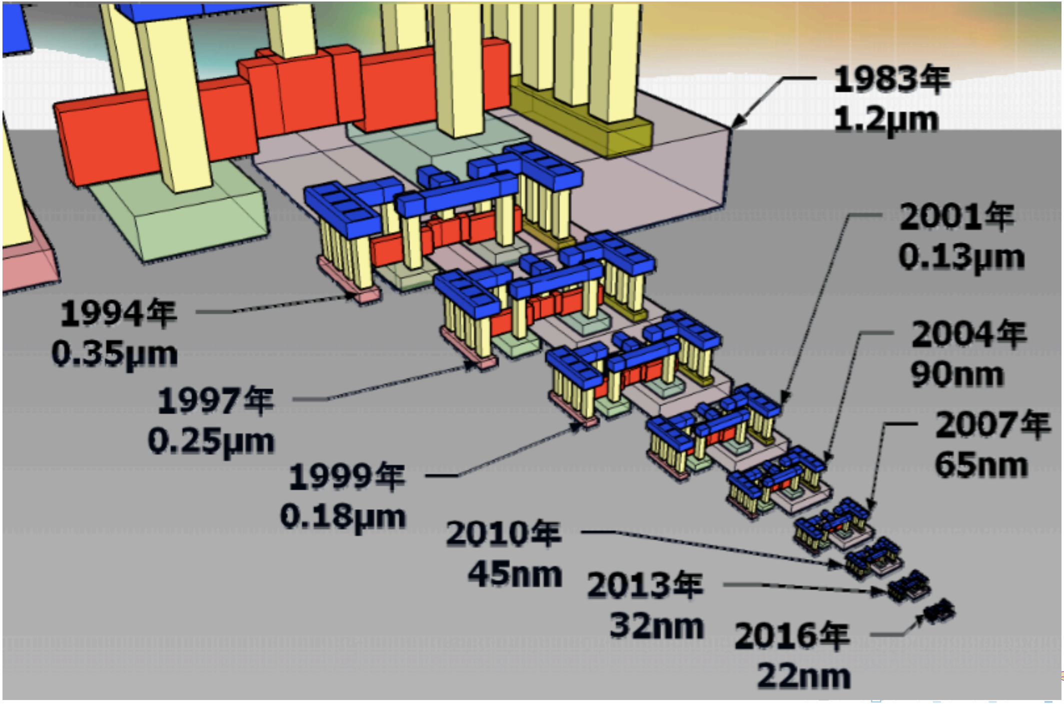
Processor-DRAM Memory Performance Gap

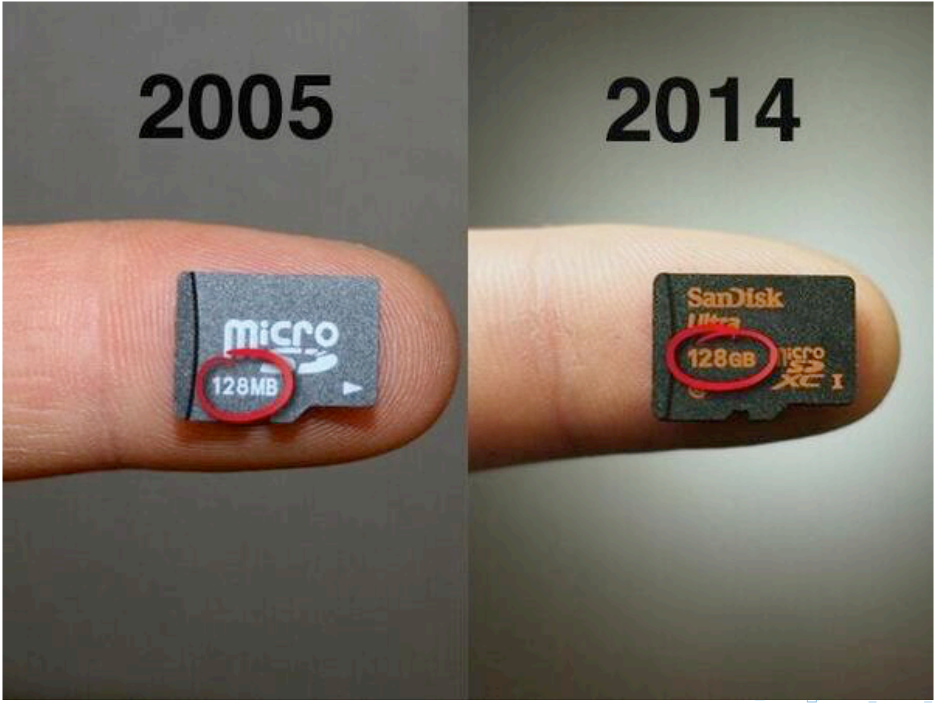
Moore's Law

Transistor number on a unit area would double every 1.5 years.

*1965 paper reprint: link




1983年
1.2μm
2001年
0.13μm
2004年
90nm
2007年
65nm
1994年
0.35μm
1997年
0.25μm
1999年
0.18μm
2010年
45nm
2013年
32nm
2016年
22nm


2005
2014
micro
128MB
SanDisk
128GB

Memory System Revisted

- Maximum size of memory is determined by addressing scheme

E.g.

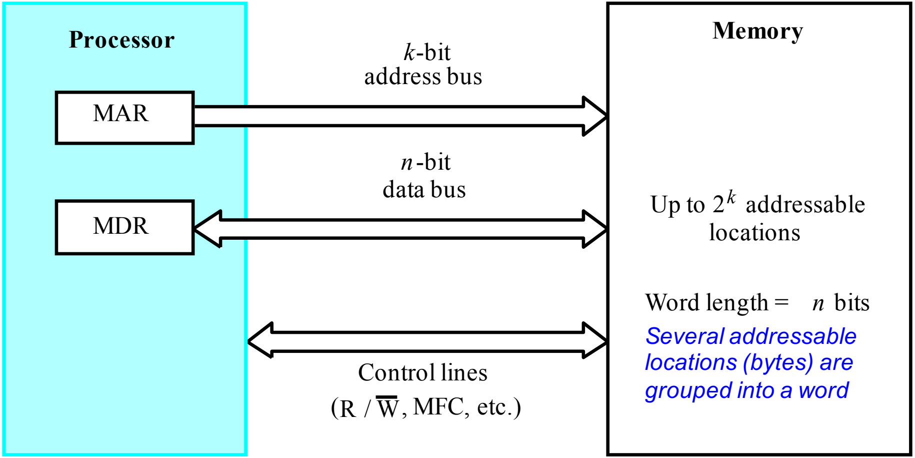
16-bit addresses can only address $2^{16} = 65536$ memory locations

- Most machines are byte-addressable
- each memory address location refers to a byte
- Most machines retrieve/store data in words
- Common abbreviations
  - 1k $\approx 2^{10}$ (kilo)
  - 1M $\approx 2^{20}$ (Mega)
  - 1G $\approx 2^{30}$ (Giga)
  - 1T $\approx 2^{40}$ (Tera)

Simplified View

Data transfer takes place through

- MAR: memory address register
- MDR: memory data register



Big Picture

Processor usually runs much faster than main memory:

- Small memories are fast, large memories are slow.
- Use a cache memory to store data in the processor that is likely to be used.

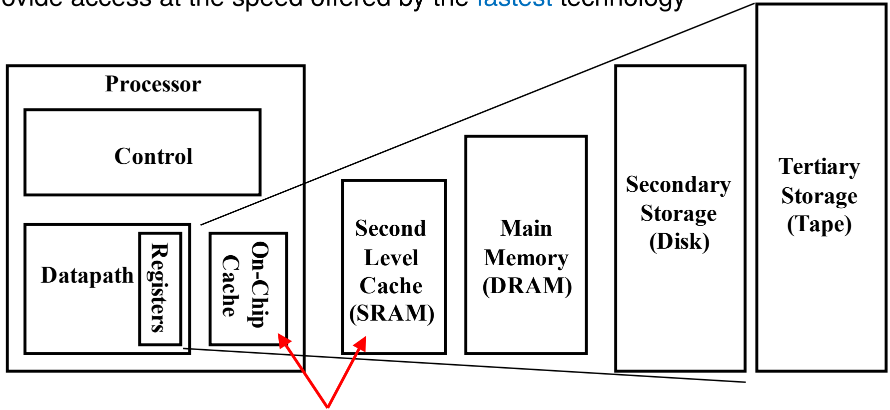
Main memory is limited:

- Use virtual memory to increase the apparent size of physical memory by moving unused sections of memory to disk (automatically).
- A translation between virtual and physical addresses is done by a memory management unit (MMU)
- To be discussed in later lectures

Memory Hierarchy

Taking advantage of the **principle of locality**:

- Present the user with as much memory as is available in the cheapest technology.
- Provide access at the speed offered by the fastest technology



Speed:	~1 ns	Tens ns	Hundreds ns – 1 us	Tens ms	Tens sec
Size (bytes):	Hundreds	Mega's	Giga's	Tera's	

Terminology

Memory Access Time

time between start and finish of a memory request

Memory Cycle Time

minimum delay between successive memory operations

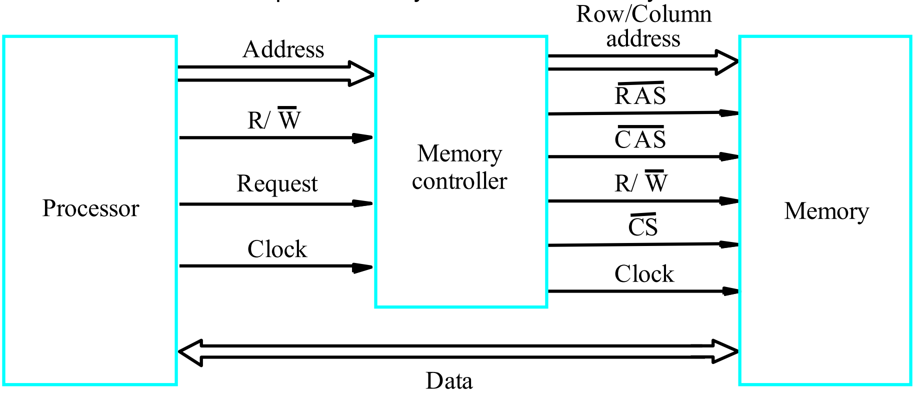
Random Access Memory (RAM)

Property: comparable access time for any memory locations

Overview

Memory Controller

- A memory controller is normally used to interface between the memory and the processor.
- DRAMs have a slightly more complex interface as they need refreshing and they usually have time-multiplex signals to reduce pin number.
- SRAM interfaces are simpler and may not need a memory controller.



RAS (CAS) = Row (Column) Address Strobe; CS = Chip Select

Memory Controller

- The memory controller accepts a complete address and the R/W signal from the processor.
- The controller generates the RAS (Row Access Strobe) and CAS (Column Access Strobe) signals.

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- The high-order address bits, which select a row in the cell array, are provided first under the control of the RAS (Row Access Strobe) signal.
- Then the low-order address bits, which select a column, are provided on the same address pins under the control of the CAS (Column Access Strobe) signal.

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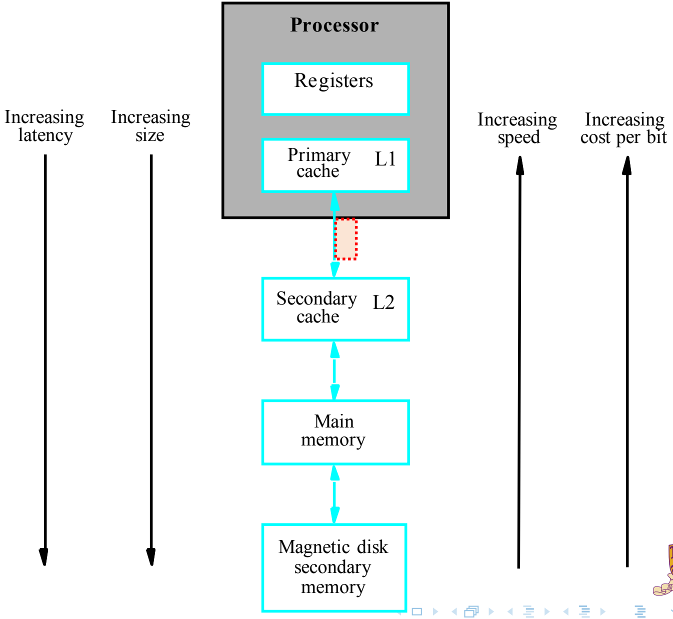
- The right memory module will be selected based on the address. Data lines are connected directly between the processor and the memory.
- SDRAM needs refresh, but the refresh overhead is only less than 1 percent of the total time available to access the memory.

Memory Hierarchy

- **Aim**: to produce fast, big and cheap memory
- L1, L2 cache are usually SRAM
- Main memory is DRAM
- Relies on locality of reference



Locality of Reference

Temporal Locality (locality in time)

- If an item is referenced, it will tend to be referenced again soon.
- When information item (instruction or data) is first needed, brought it into cache where it will hopefully be used again.

Spatial Locality (locality in space)

- If an item is referenced, neighbouring items whose addresses are close-by will tend to be referenced soon.
- Rather than a single word, fetch data from adjacent addresses as well.

Mix-and-Match: Best of Both

By taking advantages of the principle of locality:

- Present the user with as much memory as is available in the cheapest technology.
- Provide access at the speed offered by the fastest technology.

DRAM is slow but cheap and dense:

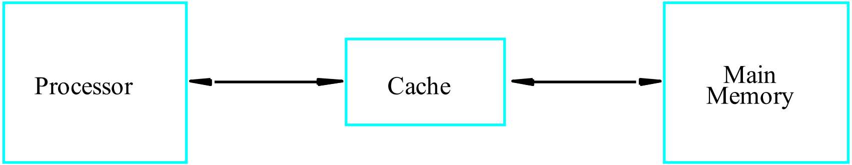
- Good choice for presenting the user with a BIG memory system âĂŞ main memory

SRAM is fast but expensive and not very dense:

- Good choice for providing the user FAST access time âĂŞ L1 and L2 cache

Cache Usage

- Need to determine how the cache is organized
- Mapping functions determine how memory addresses are assigned to cache locations
- Need to have a replacement algorithm to decide what to do when cache is full (i.e. decide which item to be unloaded from cache).



Block

A set of contiguous addresses of a given size (cache block is also called cache line)

Cache Read Operation

- Contents of a block are read into the cache the first time from the memory.
- Subsequent accesses are (hopefully) from the cache, called a cache read hit.
- Number of cache entries is relatively small, need to keep most likely used data in cache.
- When an un-cached block is required, need to employ a replacement algorithm to remove an old block and to create space for the new one.

Cache Write Operation

Scheme 1: Write-Through

Cache and main memory updated at the same time.

Note that read misses and read hits can occur.

Cache Write Operation

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Cache and main memory updated at the same time.

Note that read misses and read hits can occur.

Scheme 2: Write-Back

Update cache only and mark the entry dirty. Main memory will be updated later when cache block is removed.

Note that write misses and write hits can occur.

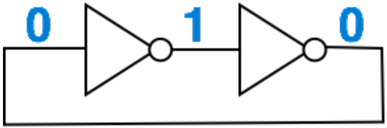
Question 2:

Which write scheme is simpler? Which one has better performance? Why?

Overview

Storage based on Feedback

- What if we add feedback to a pair of inverters?



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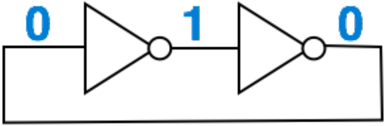
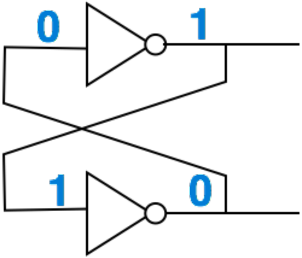
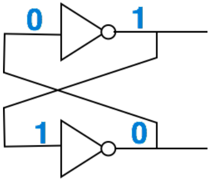


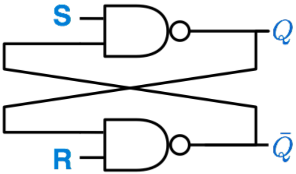
- Usually drawn as a ring of cross-coupled inverters
- Stable way to store one bit of information (w. power)



How to change the value stored?

- Replace inverter with NAND gate
- **RS Latch**

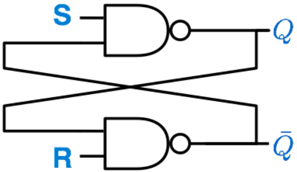




A	B	A nand B
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

QUESTION:

What's the Q value based on different R, S inputs?

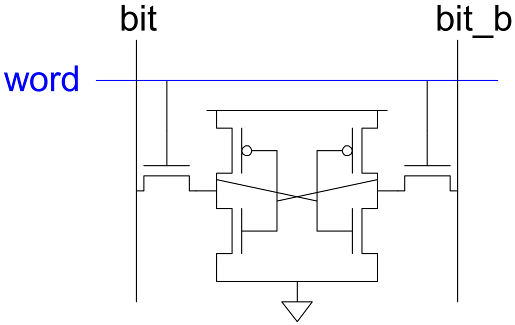


A	B	A nand B
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

- R=S=1:
- S=0, R=1:
- S=1, R=0:
- R=S=0:

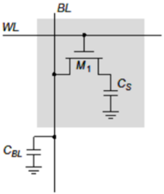
SRAM Cell

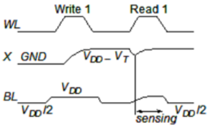
- At least 6 transistors (**6T**)
- Used in most commercial chips
- A pair of weak cross-coupled inverters
- Data stored in cross-coupled inverters

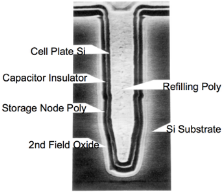


DRAM Cell

- 1 Transistor (**1T**)
- Requires presence of an extra capacitor
- Modifications in the manufacturing process.
- Higher density
- **Write**: Charged or discharged the capacitor (slow)
- **Read**: Charge redistribution takes place between bit line and storage capacitance







SRAM v.s. DRAM

Static RAM (SRAM)

- Capable of retaining the state as long as power is applied.
- They are fast, low power (current flows only when accessing the cells) but costly (require several transistors), so the capacity is small.
- They are the Level 1 cache and Level 2 cache inside a processor, of size 3 MB or more.

Dynamic RAM (DRAM)

- store data as electric charge on a capacitor.
- Charge leaks away with time, so DRAMs must be refreshed.
- In return for this trouble, much higher density (simpler cells).

Synchronous DRAM (SDRAM)

- The common type used today as it uses a clock to synchronize the operation.
- The refresh operation becomes transparent to the users.
- All control signals needed are generated inside the chip.
- The initial commercial SDRAM in the1990s were designed for clock speed of up to 133MHz.
- Today's SDRAM chips operate with clock speeds exceeding 1 GHz.

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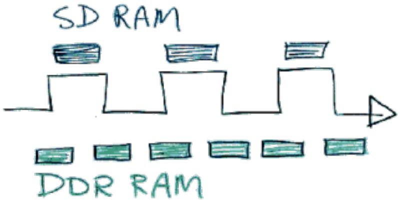
Memory modules are used to hold several SDRAM chips and are the standard type used in a computer's motherboard, of size like 4GB or more.

Double Data Rate (DDR) SDRAM

- normal SDRAMs only operate once per clock cycle
- Double Data Rate (DDR) SDRAM transfers data on both clock edges
- DDR-2 (4x basic memory clock) and DDR-3 (8x basic memory clock) are in the market.
- They offer increased storage capacity, lower power and faster clock speeds.
- For example, DDR2 can operate at clock frequencies of 400 and 800 MHz. Therefore, they can transfer data at effective clock speed of 800 and 1600 MHz.

Performance of SDRAM



1 Hertz

1 Cycle per second

RAM Type	Theoretical Maximum Bandwidth
SDRAM 100 MHz (PC100)	100 MHz X 64 bit/ cycle = 800 MByte/sec
SDRAM 133 MHz (PC133)	133 MHz X 64 bit/ cycle = 1064 MByte/sec
DDR SDRAM 200 MHz (PC1600)	2 X 100 MHz X 64 bit/ cycle ~= 1600 MByte/sec
DDR SDRAM 266 MHz (PC2100)	2 X 133 MHz X 64 bit/ cycle ~= 2100 MByte/sec
DDR SDRAM 333 MHz (PC2600)	2 X 166 MHz X 64 bit/ cycle ~= 2600 MByte/sec
DDR-2 SDRAM 667 MHz (PC2-5400)	2 X 2 X 166 MHz X 64 bit/ cycle ~= 5400 MByte/sec
DDR-2 SDRAM 800 MHz (PC2-6400)	2 X 2 X 200 MHz X 64 bit/ cycle ~= 6400 MByte/sec

Bandwidth comparison. However, due to latencies, SDRAM does not perform as good as the figures shown.

Bandwidth v.s. Latency

Example

- Mary acts FAST but she's always LATE.
- Peter is always PUNCTUAL but he is SLOW.

Bandwidth v.s. Latency

Example

- Mary acts FAST but she's always LATE.
- Peter is always PUNCTUAL but he is SLOW.

Bandwidth:

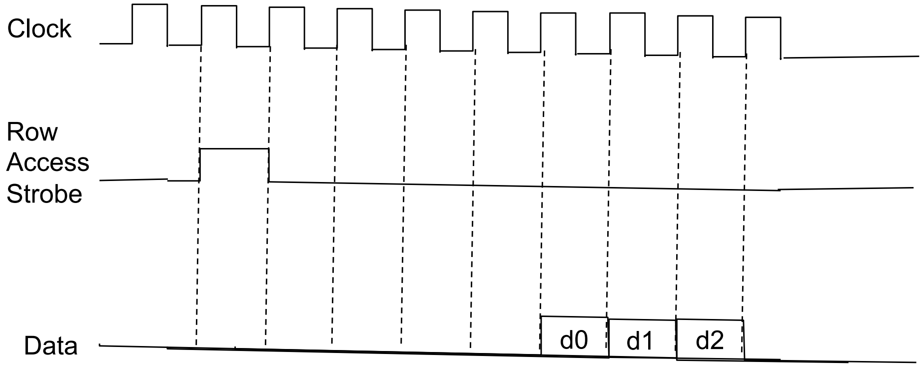
- talking about the "number of bits/bytes per second" when transferring a block of data steadily.

Latency:

- amount of time to transfer the first word of a block after issuing the access signal.
- Usually measure in "number of clock cycles" or in $ns/\mu s$.

Question:

Suppose the clock rate is 500 MHz. What is the latency and what is the bandwidth, assuming that each data is 64 bits?



Overview

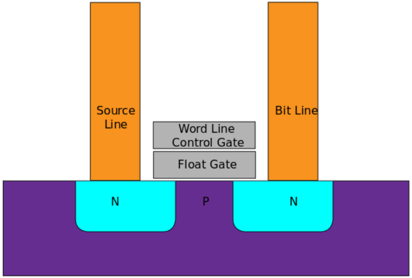
Read-Only Memory (ROM)

- Memory content fixed and cannot be changed easily.
- Useful to bootstrap a computer since RAM is volatile (i.e. lost memory) when power removed.
- We need to store a small program in such a memory, to be used to start the process of loading the OS from a hard disk into the main memory.

PROM/EPROM/EEPROM

FLASH Memory

- Flash devices have greater density, higher capacity and lower cost per bit.
- Can be read and written
- This is normally used for non-volatile storage
- Typical applications include cell phones, digital cameras, MP3 players, etc.



FLASH Cards

- Flash cards are made from FLASH chips
- Flash cards with standard interface are usable in a variety of products.
- Flash cards with USB interface are widely used – memory keys.
- Larger cards may hold 32GB. A minute of music can be stored in about 1MB of memory, hence 32GB can hold 500 hours of music.

Flash v.s. EEPROM

- Flash is just one type of EEPROM.
- Flash uses NAND-type memory, while EEPROM uses NOR type.
- Flash is block-wise erasable, while EEPROM is byte-wise erasable.
- Flash is constantly rewritten, while other EEPROMs are seldom rewritten.
- Flash is used when large amounts are needed, while EEPROM is used when only small amounts are needed.

Arduino Memory

	ATMega168	ATMega328P	ATmega1280	ATmega2560
Flash (1 kByte used for bootloader)	16 kBytes	32 kBytes	128 kBytes	256 kBytes
SRAM	1024 bytes	2048 bytes	8 kBytes	8 kBytes
EEPROM	512 bytes	1024 bytes	4 kBytes	4 kBytes

Overview

Conclusion

- Processor usually runs much faster than main memory
- Common RAM types:
  SRAM, DRAM, SDRAM, DDR SDRAM
- Principle of locality: Temporal and Spatial
  - Present the user with as much memory as is available in the cheapest technology.
  - Provide access at the speed offered by the fastest technology.
- Memory hierarchy:
  - Register $\rightarrow$ Cache $\rightarrow$ Main Memory $\rightarrow$ Disk $\rightarrow$ Tape