# CENG4480

Lecture 08: Memory 1

## Bei Yu

byu@cse.cuhk.edu.hk (Latest update: August 19, 2020)

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香港中文大學 The Chinese University of Hong Kong

## Overview



Introduction

Memory Principle

Random Access Memory (RAM)

Non-Volatile Memory

Conclusion

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Non-Volatile Memory

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# Why We Need Memory?



#### Combinational Circuit:

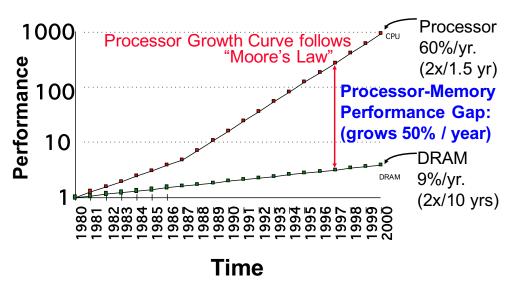
- Always gives the same output for a given set of inputs
- E.g., adders

#### Sequential Circuit:

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

# Who Cares About the Memory Hierarchy?



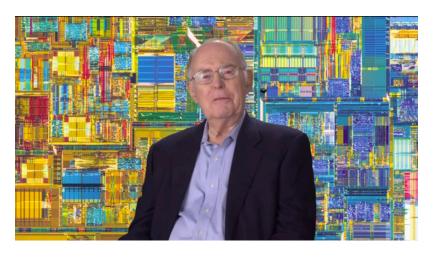


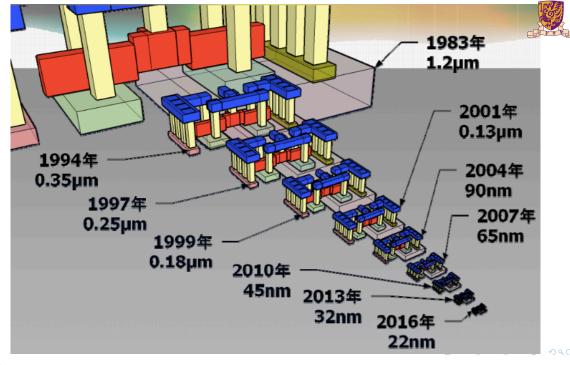
#### Moore's Law

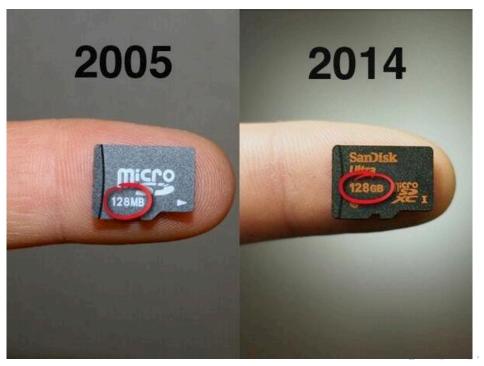


Transistor number on a unit area would double every 1.5 years.

\*1965 paper reprint: link









# Memory System Revisted



Maximum size of memory is determined by addressing scheme

## E.g.

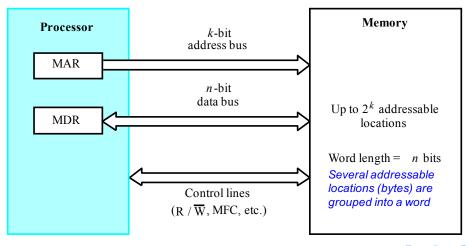
16-bit addresses can only address  $2^{16} = 65536$  memory locations

- ► 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 Processor Control **Tertiary** Secondary Storage Storage (Tape) Second Main (Disk) Datapath Registers Level Memory Cache (DRAM) (SRAM) Speed: Hundreds ns -1 us  $\sim 1 \text{ ns}$ Tens ns 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



Introduction

#### Memory Principle

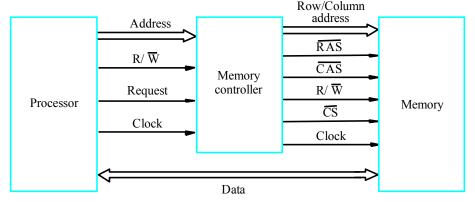
Random Access Memory (RAM

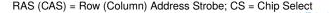
Non-Volatile Memory

Conclusion



- 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.







- ► 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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- 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.

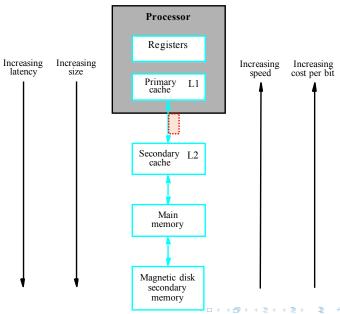


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- Then the low-order address bits, which select a column, are provided on the same address pins under the control of the CAS (Column Access Strobe) signal.
- The right memory module will be selected based on the address. Data lines are connected directly 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.

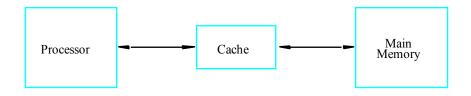
DRAM is slow but cheap and dense:

- ► 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



#### Scheme 1: Write-Through

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?

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Random Access Memory (RAM)

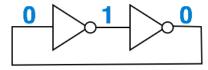
Non-Volatile Memory

Conclusion

# Storage based on Feedback



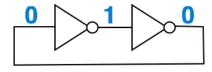
▶ What if we add feedback to a pair of inverters?



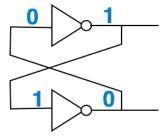
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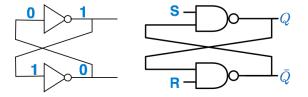
- Usually drawn as a ring of cross-coupled inverters
- Stable way to store one bit of information (w. power)



# How to change the value stored?



- ► Replace inverter with NAND gate
- ► RS Latch

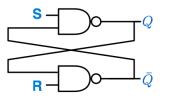


Α	В	A nand B
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

#### QUESTION:



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



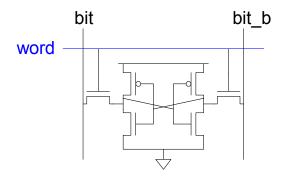
Α	В	A nand B
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- ► R=S=1:
- ► S=0, R=1:
- ► S=1, R=0:
- ► R=S=0:

## **SRAM Cell**



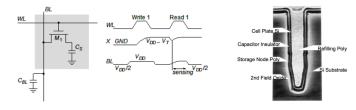
- At least 6 transistors (6T)
- Used in most commercial chips
- A pair of weak cross-coupled inverters
- Data stored in cross-coupled inverters



## **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 the 1990s 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.



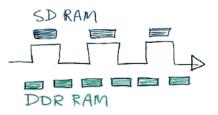
# Double Data Rate (DDR) SDRAM



- 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

Theoretical Maximum Bandwidth
100 MHz X 64 bit/ cycle = 800 MByte/sec
133 MHz X 64 bit/ cycle = 1064 MByte/sec
2 X 100 MHz X 64 bit/ cycle ~= 1600 MByte/sec
2 X 133 MHz X 64 bit/ cycle ~= 2100 MByte/sec
2 X 166 MHz X 64 bit/ cycle ~= 2600 MByte/sec
2 X 2 X 166 MHz X 64 bit/ cycle ~= 5400 MByte/sec
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.

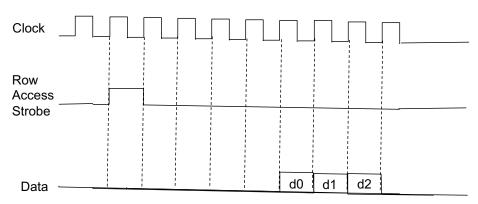
#### Latency:

- 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?





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# Read-Only Memory (ROM)



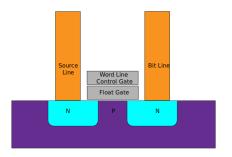
- Memory content fixed and cannot be changed easily.
- Useful to bootstrap a computer since RAM is volatile (i.e. lost memory) when power removed.
- We need to store a small program in such a memory, to be used to start the process of loading the OS from a hard disk into the main memory.

#### 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

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### 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:
  - $\blacktriangleright \; \; \mathsf{Register} \to \mathsf{Cache} \to \mathsf{Main} \; \mathsf{Memory} \to \mathsf{Disk} \to \mathsf{Tape}$