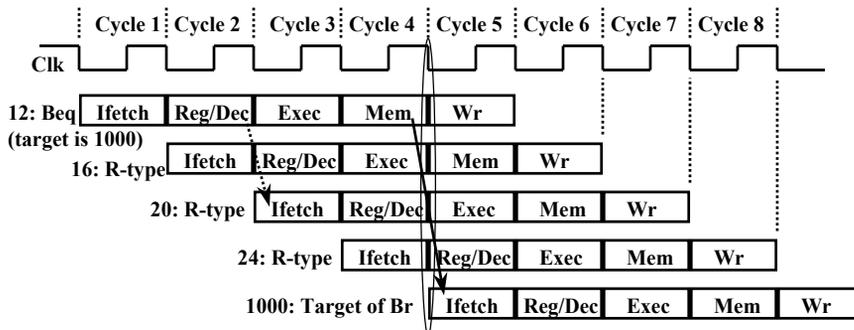


361 Computer Architecture Lecture 16: Memory Systems

memory.1

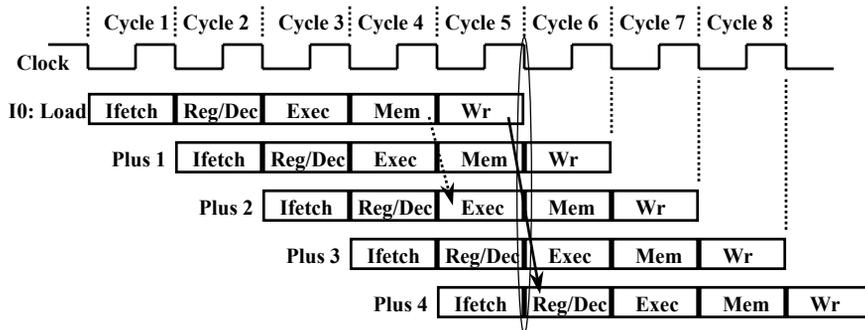
Recap: Solution to Branch Hazard



- In the Simple Pipeline Processor if a Beq is fetched during Cycle 1:
 - Target address is NOT written into the PC until the end of Cycle 4
 - Branch's target is NOT fetched until Cycle 5
 - 3-instruction delay before the branch take effect
- This Branch Hazard can be reduced to 1 instruction if in Beq's Reg/Dec:
 - Calculate the target address
 - Compare the registers using some "quick compare" logic

memory.2

Recap: Solution to Load Hazard



- In the Simple Pipeline Processor if a Load is fetched during Cycle 1:
 - The data is NOT written into the Reg File until the end of Cycle 5
 - We cannot read this value from the Reg File until Cycle 6
 - 3-instruction delay before the load take effect
- This Data Hazard can be reduced to 1 instruction if we:
 - Forward the data from the pipeline register to the next instruction

memory.3

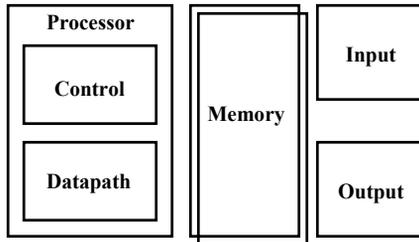
Outline of Today's Lecture

- Recap and Introduction
- Memory System: the BIG Picture?
- Questions and Administrative Matters
- Memory Technology: SRAM
- Memory Technology: DRAM
- A Real Life Example: SPARCstation 20's Memory System
- Summary

memory.4

The Big Picture: Where are We Now?

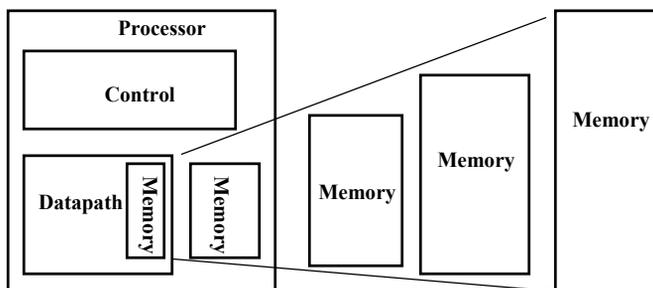
- The Five Classic Components of a Computer



- Today's Topic: Memory System

memory.5

An Expanded View of the Memory System



Speed: Fastest
Size: Smallest
Cost: Highest

Slowest
Biggest
Lowest

memory.6

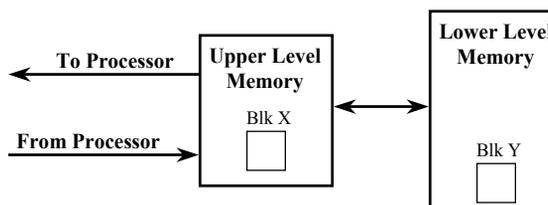
The Principle of Locality

- The Principle of Locality:
 - Program access a relatively small portion of the address space at any instant of time.
- Two Different Types of Locality:
 - Temporal Locality (Locality in Time): If an item is referenced, it will tend to be referenced again soon.
 - Spatial Locality (Locality in Space): If an item is referenced, items whose addresses are close by tend to be referenced soon.

memory.7

Memory Hierarchy: Principles of Operation

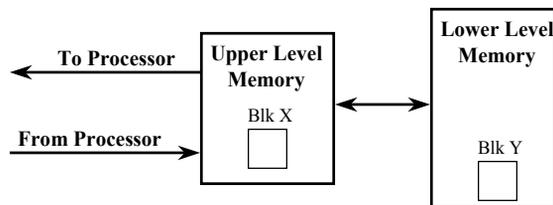
- At any given time, data is copied between only 2 adjacent levels:
 - Upper Level: the one closer to the processor
 - Smaller, faster, and uses more expensive technology
 - Lower Level: the one further away from the processor
 - Bigger, slower, and uses less expensive technology
- Block:
 - The minimum unit of information that can either be present or not present in the two level hierarchy



memory.8

Memory Hierarchy: Terminology

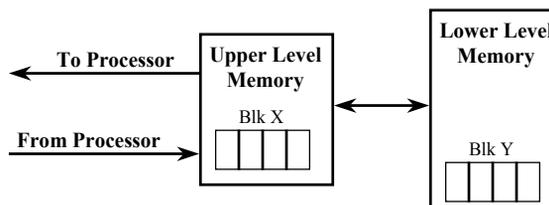
- **Hit:** data appears in some block in the upper level (example: Block X)
 - **Hit Rate:** the fraction of memory access found in the upper level
 - **Hit Time:** Time to access the upper level which consists of
RAM access time + Time to determine hit/miss
- **Miss:** data needs to be retrieve from a block in the lower level (Block Y)
 - **Miss Rate** = 1 - (Hit Rate)
 - **Miss Penalty:** Time to replace a block in the upper level +
Time to deliver the block the processor
- **Hit Time** << **Miss Penalty**



memory.9

Memory Hierarchy: How Does it Work?

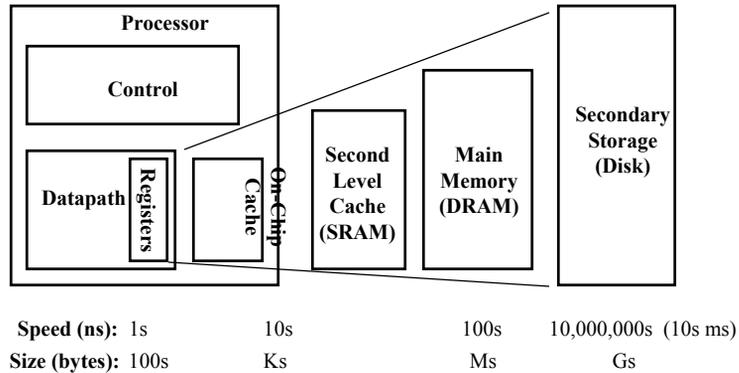
- **Temporal Locality (Locality in Time):** If an item is referenced, it will tend to be referenced again soon.
 - Keep more recently accessed data items closer to the processor
- **Spatial Locality (Locality in Space):** If an item is referenced, items whose addresses are close by tend to be referenced soon.
 - Move blocks consists of contiguous words to the upper levels



memory.10

Memory Hierarchy of a Modern Computer System

- By 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.



memory.11

Memory Hierarchy Technology

- **Random Access:**
 - “Random” is good: access time is the same for all locations
 - **DRAM: Dynamic Random Access Memory**
 - High density, low power, cheap, slow
 - Dynamic: need to be “refreshed” regularly
 - **SRAM: Static Random Access Memory**
 - Low density, high power, expensive, fast
 - Static: content will last “forever”
- **“Non-so-random” Access Technology:**
 - Access time varies from location to location and from time to time
 - Examples: Disk, tape drive, CDROM

memory.12

Random Access Memory (RAM) Technology

- Why do computer designers need to know about RAM technology?
 - Processor performance is usually limited by memory bandwidth
 - As IC densities increase, lots of memory will fit on processor chip
 - Tailor on-chip memory to specific needs
 - Instruction cache
 - Data cache
 - Write buffer
- What makes RAM different from a bunch of flip-flops?
 - Density: RAM is much more denser

memory.13

Technology Trends

Capacity Speed

Logic: 2x in 3 years 2x in 3 years

DRAM: 4x in 3 years 1.4x in 10 years

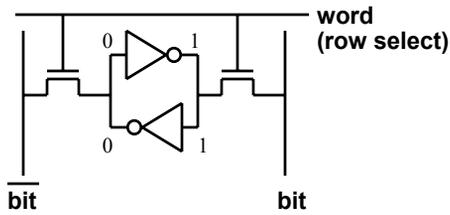
Disk: 2x in 3 years 1.4x in 10 years

DRAM		
<u>Year</u>	<u>Size</u>	<u>Cycle Time</u>
1980	64 Kb	250 ns
1983	256 Kb	220 ns
1986	1 Mb	190 ns
1989	4 Mb	165 ns
1992	16 Mb	145 ns
1995	64 Mb	120 ns

memory.14

Static RAM Cell

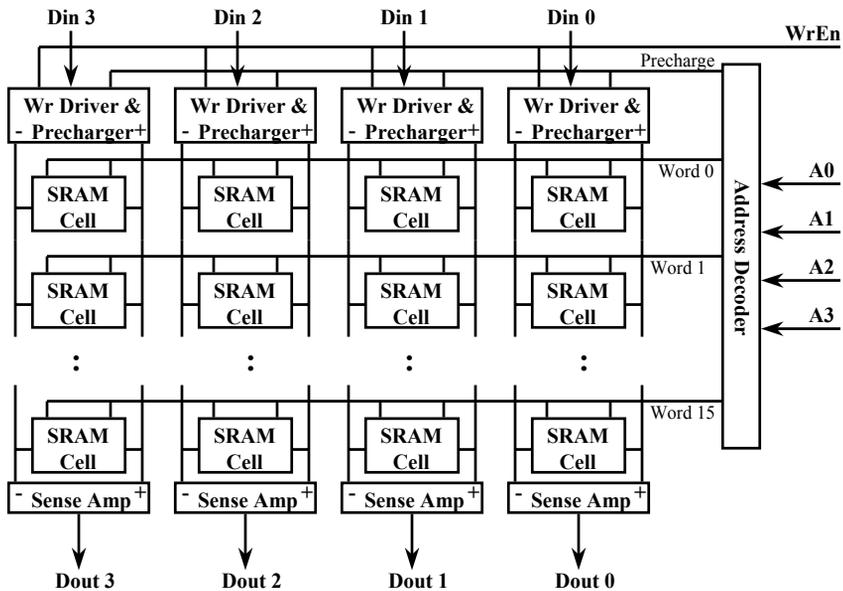
6-Transistor SRAM Cell



- Write:
 1. Drive bit lines
 - 2.. Select row
- Read:
 1. Precharge bit and bit' to Vdd
 - 2.. Select row
 3. Cell pulls one line low
 4. Sense amp on column detects difference

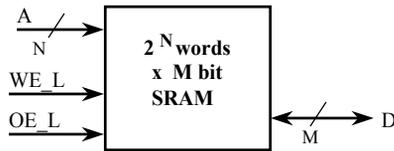
memory.15

Typical SRAM Organization: 16-word x 4-bit



memory.16

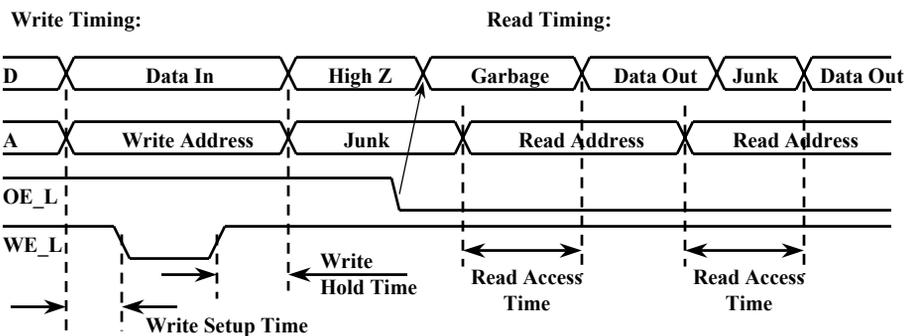
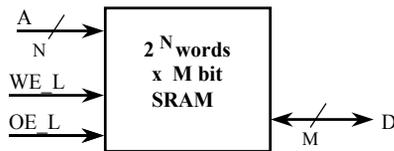
Logic Diagram of a Typical SRAM



- Write Enable is usually active low (WE_L)
- Din and Dout are combined:
 - A new control signal, output enable (OE_L) is needed
 - WE_L is asserted (Low), OE_L is disasserted (High)
 - D serves as the data input pin
 - WE_L is disasserted (High), OE_L is asserted (Low)
 - D is the data output pin
 - Both WE_L and OE_L are asserted:
 - Result is unknown. Don't do that!!!

memory.17

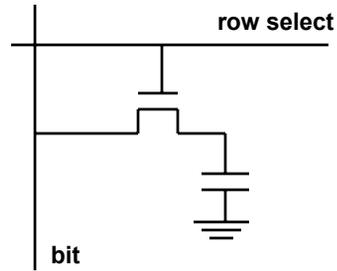
Typical SRAM Timing



memory.18

1-Transistor Cell

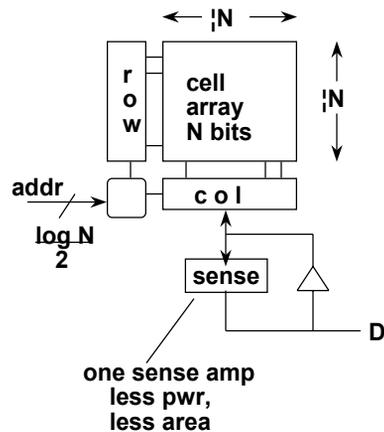
- Write:
 - 1. Drive bit line
 - 2.. Select row
- Read:
 - 1. Precharge bit line to Vdd
 - 2.. Select row
 - 3. Sense (fancy sense amp)
 - Can detect changes of ~1 million electrons
 - 4. Write: restore the value
- Refresh
 - 1. Just do a dummy read to every cell.



memory.19

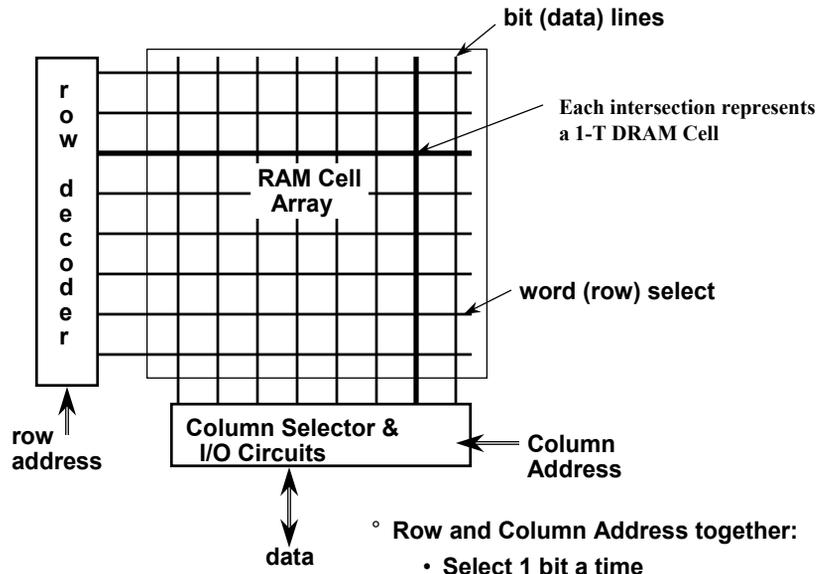
Introduction to DRAM

- Dynamic RAM (DRAM):
 - Refresh required
 - Very high density
 - Low power (.1 - .5 W active, .25 - 10 mW standby)
 - Low cost per bit
 - Pin sensitive:
 - Output Enable (OE_L)
 - Write Enable (WE_L)
 - Row address strobe (ras)
 - Col address strobe (cas)
 - Page mode operation



memory.20

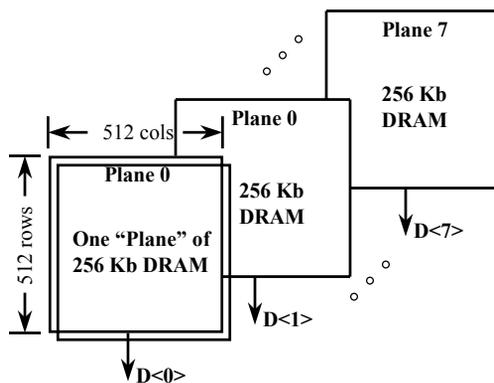
Classical DRAM Organization



memory.21

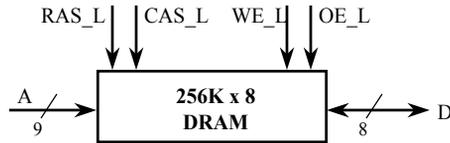
Typical DRAM Organization

- Typical DRAMs: access multiple bits in parallel
 - Example: 2 Mb DRAM = 256K x 8 = 512 rows x 512 cols x 8 bits
 - Row and column addresses are applied to all 8 planes in parallel



memory.22

Logic Diagram of a Typical DRAM

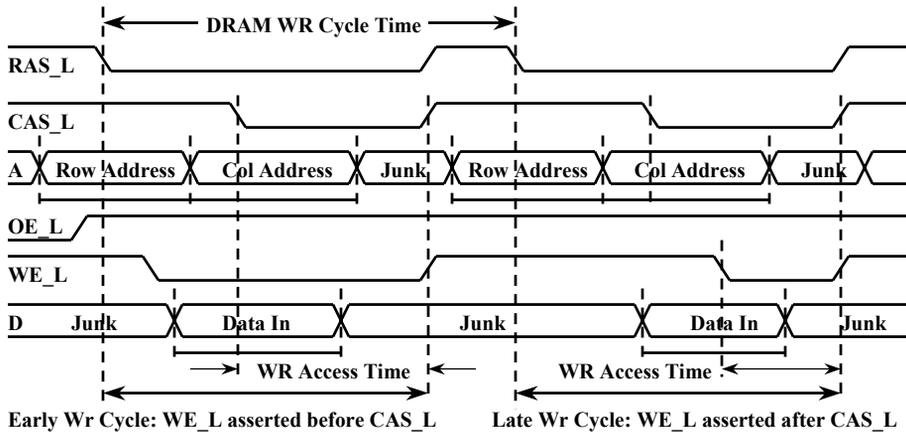
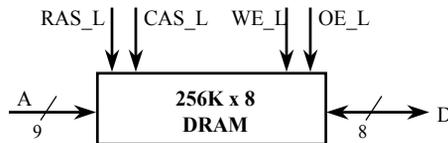


- Control Signals (RAS_L, CAS_L, WE_L, OE_L) are all active low
- Din and Dout are combined (D):
 - WE_L is asserted (Low), OE_L is disasserted (High)
 - D serves as the data input pin
 - WE_L is disasserted (High), OE_L is asserted (Low)
 - D is the data output pin
- Row and column addresses share the same pins (A)
 - RAS_L goes low: Pins A are latched in as row address
 - CAS_L goes low: Pins A are latched in as column address

memory.23

DRAM Write Timing

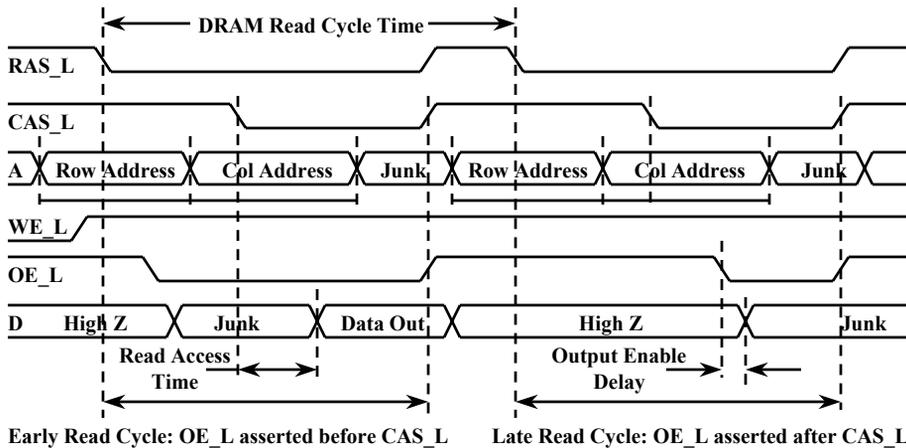
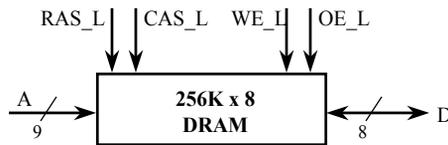
- Every DRAM access begins at:
 - The assertion of the RAS_L



memory.24

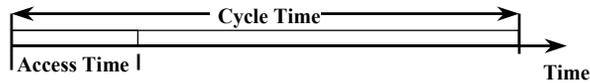
DRAM Read Timing

- Every DRAM access begins at:
 - The assertion of the RAS_L



memory.25

Cycle Time versus Access Time

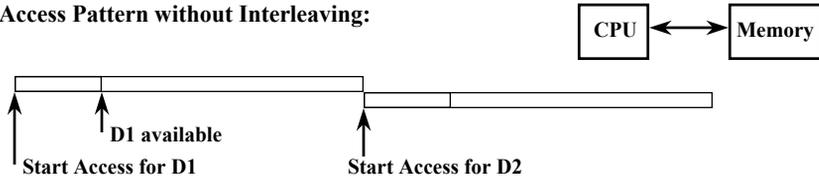


- DRAM (Read/Write) Cycle Time >> DRAM (Read/Write) Access Time
- DRAM (Read/Write) Cycle Time :
 - How frequent can you initiate an access?
 - Analogy: A little kid can only ask his father for money on Saturday
- DRAM (Read/Write) Access Time:
 - How quickly will you get what you want once you initiate an access?
 - Analogy: As soon as he asks, his father will give him the money
- DRAM Bandwidth Limitation analogy:
 - What happens if he runs out of money on Wednesday?

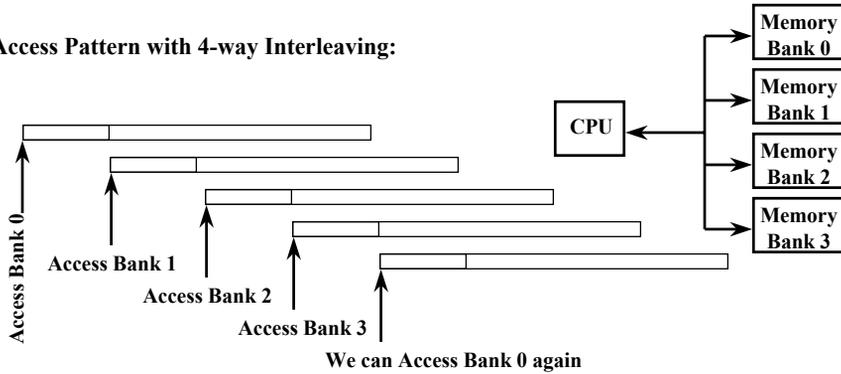
memory.26

Increasing Bandwidth - Interleaving

Access Pattern without Interleaving:



Access Pattern with 4-way Interleaving:



memory.27

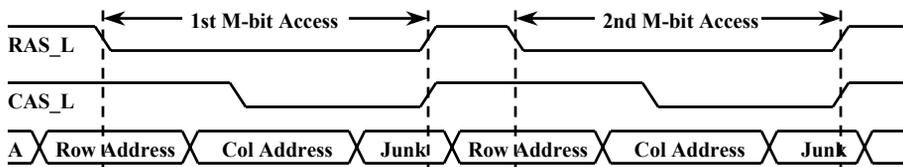
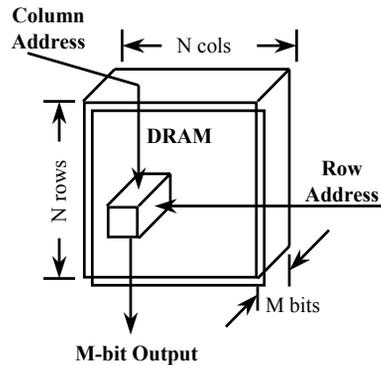
Fast Page Mode DRAM

◦ Regular DRAM Organization:

- N rows x N column x M-bit
- Read & Write M-bit at a time
- Each M-bit access requires a RAS / CAS cycle

◦ Fast Page Mode DRAM

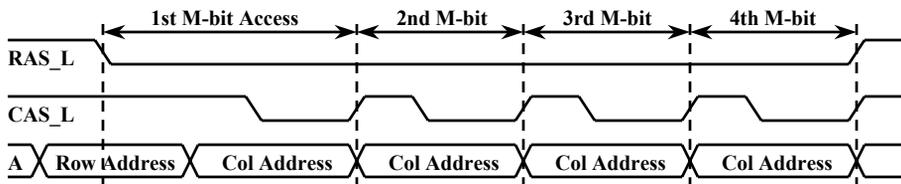
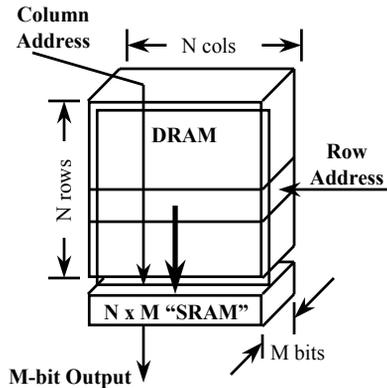
- N x M "register" to save a row



memory.28

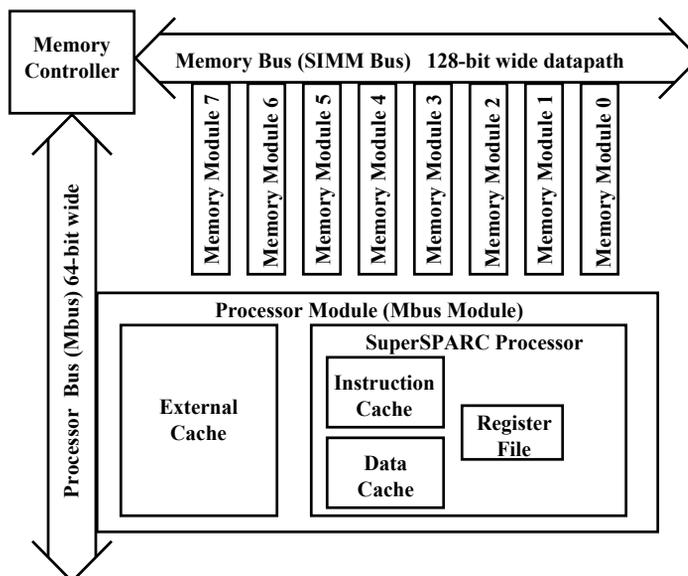
Fast Page Mode Operation

- Fast Page Mode DRAM
 - $N \times M$ "SRAM" to save a row
- After a row is read into the register
 - Only CAS is needed to access other M-bit blocks on that row
 - RAS_L remains asserted while CAS_L is toggled



memory.29

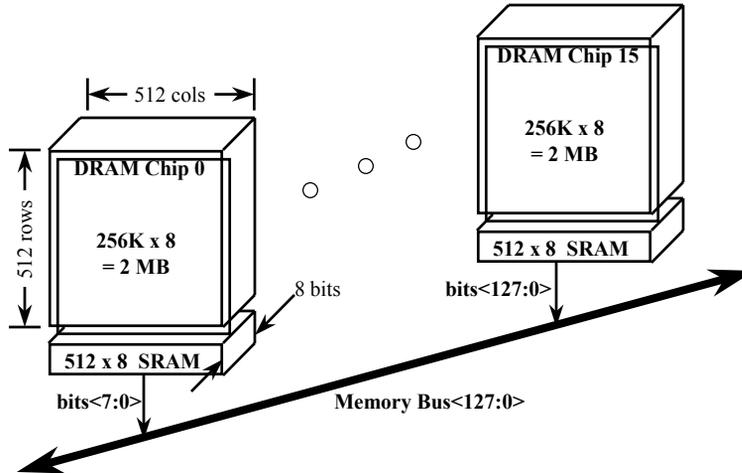
SPARCstation 20's Memory System Overview



memory.30

SPARCstation 20's Memory Module

- Supports a wide range of sizes:
 - Smallest 4 MB: 16 2Mb DRAM chips, 8 KB of Page Mode SRAM
 - Biggest: 64 MB: 32 16Mb chips, 16 KB of Page Mode SRAM



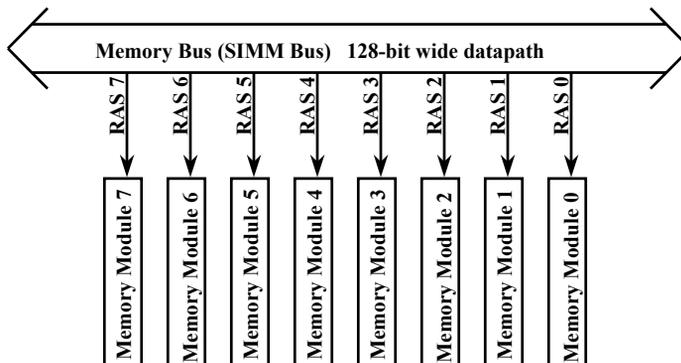
memory.31

SPARCstation 20's Main Memory

- Biggest Possible Main Memory :
 - 8 64MB Modules: 8 x 64 MB DRAM 8 x 16 KB of Page Mode SRAM
- How do we select 1 out of the 8 memory modules?

Remember: every DRAM operation start with the assertion of RAS

 - SS20's Memory Bus has 8 separate RAS lines



memory.32

Summary:

- **Two Different Types of Locality:**
 - **Temporal Locality (Locality in Time):** If an item is referenced, it will tend to be referenced again soon.
 - **Spatial Locality (Locality in Space):** If an item is referenced, items whose addresses are close by tend to be referenced soon.
- **By 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.**
- **DRAM is slow but cheap and dense:**
 - **Good choice for presenting the user with a BIG memory system**
- **SRAM is fast but expensive and not very dense:**
 - **Good choice for providing the user FAST access time.**

memory.33

Where to get more information?

- **To be continued ...**

memory.34