Chapter 12 – Part 1

Memory Organization

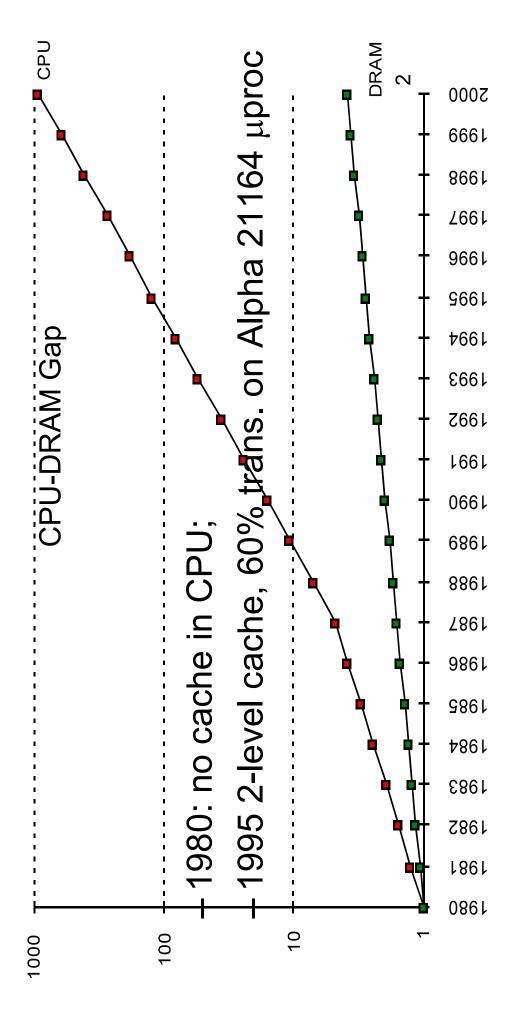
Based on slides by:

Prof. Myung-Eui Lee

Department of Information & Communication Korea University of Technology & Education

Why is memory important? ~

faster rate than memory performance, making CPU performance has increased at a much main memory the bottleneck.

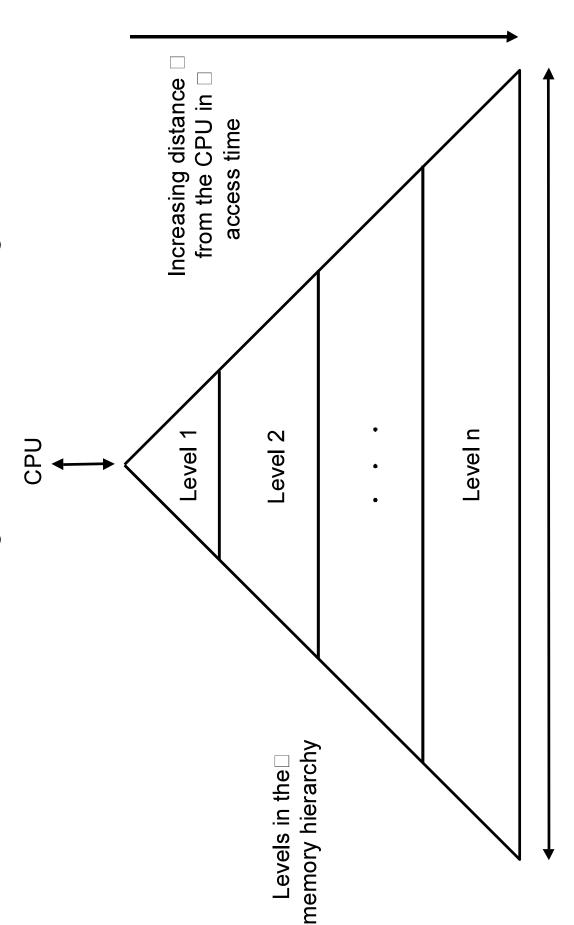


- A memory hierarchy in which the
- faster but smaller part is "close" to the CPU and used most of the time
- will give us the illusion of having a fast large Slower but larger part is "far" from the CPU, inexpensive memory
- Data flow
- slower → faster when is needed
- faster → slower when is not needed

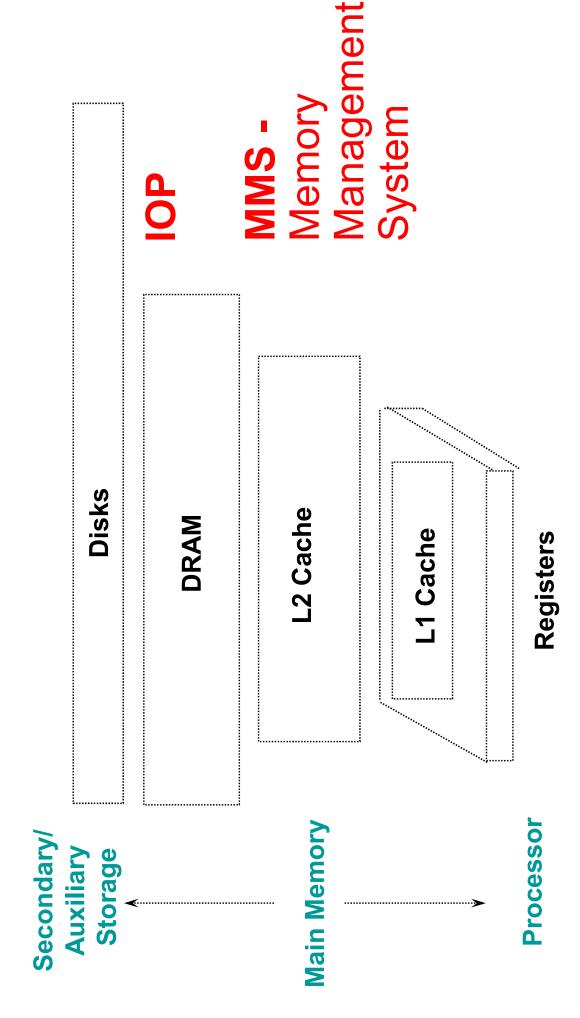
	Type	Access	Capacity	Price
Cache	SRAM	2 - 25 ns	1-4 MB	
Memory	DRAM	40 - 80 ns	1-4 GB	
Auxiliary	Disk	10-20 ms	0.5-1 TB	

Overall goal

- highest-possible average access speed while
- minimizing the total cost of the entire memory



Size of the memory at each level



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Cache

- CPU logic is usually faster than main memory
- main memory is the bottleneck
- A very-high-speed memory between the CPU and main memory
- Access time is close to processor logic clock cycle time.
- Holds current programs and data
- Available to the CPU at a rapid rate
- Resides in CPU

Multiprogramming

- OS feature
- Enable the CPU to process a number of independent programs concurrently
- Two or more programs exist in different parts of the memory hierarchy at the same time.
- At least one in main memory
- Keep all parts of the computer busy by working with several programs in sequence.
- For example, when an I/O transfer is required
- The CPU initiates the IOP to start executing the transfer
- Meanwhile the CPU is free to execute another program

Virtual memory

- Programs are sometimes too long to fit in main memory
- In multiprogramming all programs do not fit in main memory at the same time
- A need for running partial programs,
- For varying the amount of main memory in use by a given program
- and for moving programs around the memory hierarchy.

Virtual memory

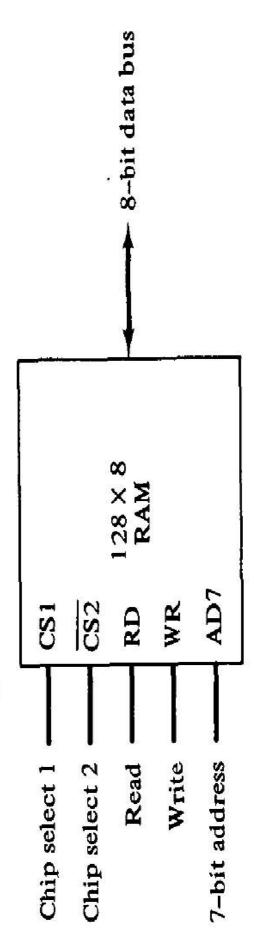
- A program and its data normally resides in auxiliary memory.
- program is to be executed, it is transferred to When the program or a segment of the main memory
- Thus auxiliary memory is an integral extension of main memory.
- OS maintains in main memory currently active portions
- Memory management system (MMS)

RAM - Random access Memory

- **SRAM** Static Random Access Memory
- FFs that store the binary information.
- Remains valid as long as power is ON
- Fast (shorter R/W cycles) and easier to use
- offers reduced power consumption
- **DRAM** Dynamic RAM
- Info stored as electric charges applied to capacitors.
- The stored charge tends to discharge with time
- Capacitors must be periodically recharged (refreshing)
- Cycling through words every few ms to restore decaying charge.
- Offers larger storage capacity on a single memory

Typical RAM chip

Figure 12-2 Typical RAM chip.



(a) Block diagram

State of data bus	High-impedance	High-impedance	High-impedance	Input data to RAM	Output data from RAM	High-impedance
Memory function	Inhibit	Inhibit	Inhibit	Write	Read	Inhibit
WR	X	X	0	-	X	X
$\mathbf{R}\mathbf{D}$	×	X	0	0	_	×
$\overline{cs_2}$	0	-	0	0	0	-
CS1	0	0	-	-	-	-

Taken from: M. Mano/Computer Design and

Architecture 3rd Ed.

(b) Function table

RAM - cont.

- More than one control input
- For chip selection when multiple chips are used (via address decoding)
- Read and write sometimes combined into one line labeled R/W.

ROM - Read Only Memory

- Has random access w/o write capabilities
- **ROM** content **remains** unchanged **regardless** of power
- RAM is volatile its contents is lost when power is turned **off**.
- Stores information that does not change
- Used for storing programs that are permanently resident in the computer
- bootstrap loader.

ROM – cont.

- Organized externally in a similar manner to RAM
- The data bus only in output mode (no write)
- More bits per mm² than RAM
- Different implementation

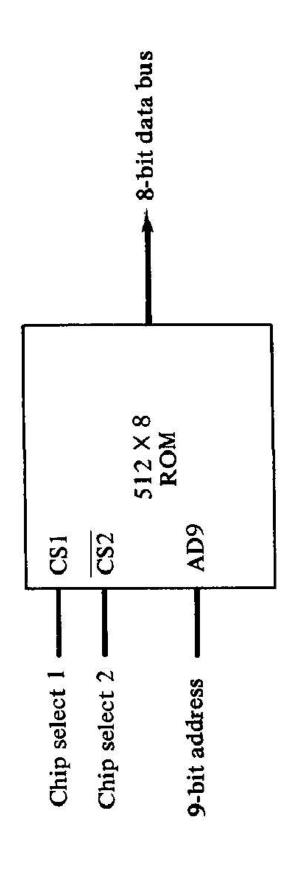


Figure 12-3 Typical ROM chip.

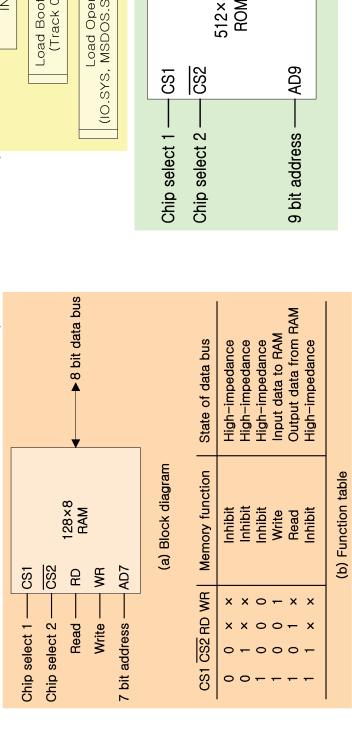
Bootstrap Loader

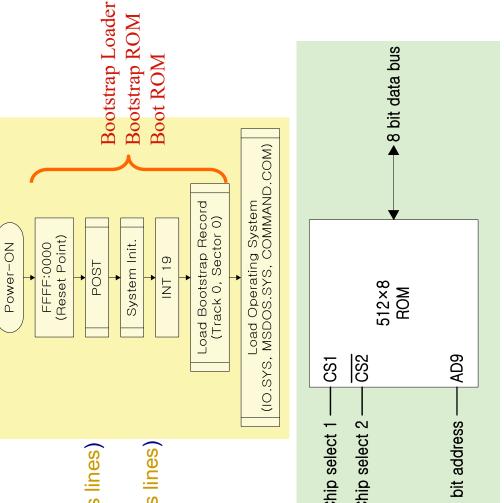
- Program that starts the computer operating when **power** is turned **on**.
 - PC is set to the starting address of BL
- Loads a portion of the operating system from disk to main memory
- Control is transferred to OS
- prepares the computer for general use

12-2 Main Memory

Bootstrap Loader

- A program whose function is to start the computer software operating when power is turned on
- RAM and ROM Chips
- Typical RAM chip: Fig. 12-2
- * 128 X 8 RAM : 2⁷ = 128 (7 bit address lines)
- Typical ROM chip: Fig. 12-3
- $512 \times 8 \text{ ROM} : 2^9 = 512 (9 \text{ bit address lines})$





Memory Map

- The computer architect calculates required memory -RAM & ROM.
- Memory and processor are interconnected according to
- memory size and
- RAM and ROM chip types

Memory address map

Table with address space of every memory chip.

TABLE 12-1 Memory Address Map for Microprocomputer

	Trees				Aċ	Address		pns			
Component	address	10	6	∞	7	9	5	4	3	7	
RAM 1	0000 007F	0	0	0	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
RAM 2	0080-00FF	0	0	-	×	×	×	×	×	×	X
RAM 3	0100-017F	0	-	0	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
RAM 4	0180-01FF	0	- 4	-	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
ROM	0200-03FF	-	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×

Faken from: M.

Mano/Computer Design and Architecture 3rd Ed. Alon Schclar, Tel-Aviv College, 2009

Memory Map – cont.

- 16 lines in address bus only 10 are used (rest is zero)
- RAM chips have 128 bytes 7 address lines
- The ROM chip has 512 bytes 9 address lines
- Distinguish 4 RAM chips by assigning different addresses
- Lines 8 and 9 represent four distinct combinations
- A combination per chip
- Any other pair of unused bus lines can be chosen
- The nine low-order bus lines constitute RAM space: $2^9 = 512$ bytes.
- RAM/ROM address distinction bus line#10.
- 0/1 CPU selects a RAM/ROM

Memory Connection to CPU

- RAM & ROM connected to CPU through data and address
- The low-order lines in address bus select the byte within the chips
- other address bus lines select a chip through its chip-select (CS)
- Example: memory capacity of 4X128=512 bytes of RAM and 512 bytes of ROM.
- Each RAM chip receives
- the 7 low-order bits of the address bus select 1 of 128 possible bytes.
- A particular RAM chip selected by lines 8 & 9 in the address bus
- a 2 x 4 decoder whose outputs go to the CS1 inputs in each RAM chip.
- When 00, the first RAM chip is selected.
- When 01, the second RAM chip is selected, and so on.
- RD & WR CPU-outputs applied to the inputs of every RAM chip
- RAM/ROM select through bus line#10: 0/1 RAM/ROM

² Memory Connection to CPU

- CPU RD goes to chip select input in ROM
- ROM is enabled only during a read operation.
- Address bus lines#1-9 go to ROM w/o decoder
- Addresses 0 511 to RAM
- Addresses 512 1023 to ROM
- Data bus
- ROM only output capability,
- RAM bidirectional info transfer
- If more ROM/RAM chips
- → more external decoders / bigger decoder
- Architect must determine a memory map
- addresses to chips

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Memory Configuration : 512 bytes RAM + 512 bytes ROM

* 1 x 512 byte ROM + 4 x 128 bytes RAM

Memory Address Map: Tab. 12-1

» Address line 9 8

0 0 : 0000 - 007F RAM 1

0 1 : 0080 - 00FF RAM 1

RAM 1

1 0 : 0100 - 017F 1 1 : 0180 - 01FF RAM 1

» Address line

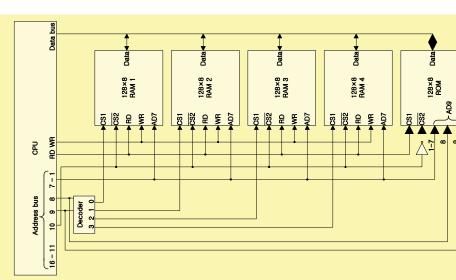
1 : 0200 - 03FF ROM Memory Connection to CPU: Fig. 12-4

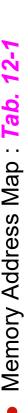
2 x 4 Decoder: RAM select (CS1)

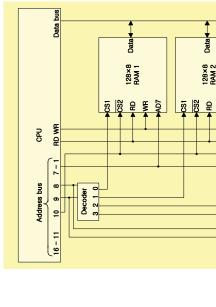
» Address line 10

RAM select: CS2

ROM select : CS2 의 Invert







Memory connection to the CPU

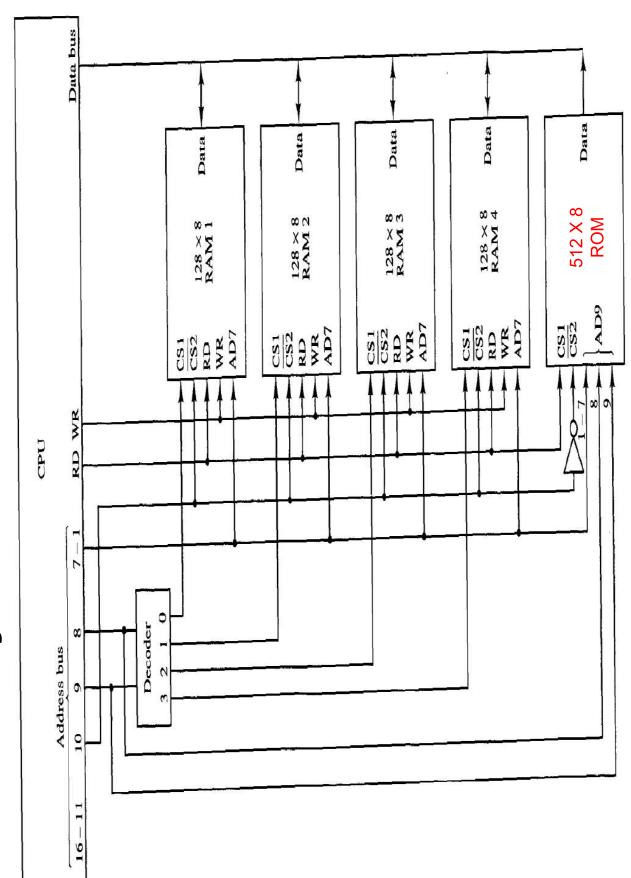


Figure 12-4 Memory connection to the CPU.

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Auxiliary Memory

- HDD, SSD
- Important characteristics:
- 1. Access mode
- 2. Access time seek time + transfer time
- Seek time find the memory location (milliseconds) mechanical
- **Transfer** time time to transfer the content much faster than seektime - *electronic*
- **Transfer** rate chars(words) per sec after location found
- 4. Capacity
- 5. Cost
- Organized in blocks or records (a specified number of characters/words)
- Read/write always done on entire records

Hard disks

Short - high

Long – low bit density

bit density

- Circular metal plate(s) coated with magnetized material.
- Read/write heads on each surface.
- All disks **rotate together non-stop** at high uniform speed
- Bits are stored in **spots** along **concentric circles** called *tracks*
- Read/write head
- Read a change in magnetic field produced by a recorded spot passing through a read head
- Tracks are commonly divided into sectors
- the minimum quantity which can be transferred is a sector

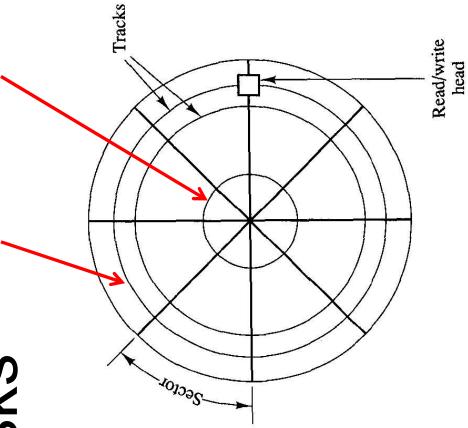


Figure 12.5 Magnetic disk.

Taken from: M. Mano/Computer Design and Architecture 3rd Ed.

Hard disks

- **Timing tracks** used to
- synchronize bits and recognize sectors
- Every sector has an address
- 1. disk number
- 2. disk surface
- 3. sector number
- 4. track within the sector
- Seek consists of:
- Position the read/write head in the specified track,
- 2. Wait until the rotating disk reaches the specified sector
- Information transfer is very fast
- once sector beginning is reached
- Disks may have multiple heads
- simultaneous transfer of bits from several tracks

Associative memory

- Search of items in a table in memory
- Example: An assembler symbol address table extract a symbol's binary equivalent
- Common way to search a table
- choose a sequence of addresses
- read the content of memory at each address,
- compare the content with searched-item until match
- Number of accesses depends
- on item location and
- search efficiency minimize the number of accesses in random/sequential access memory

Associative memory – cont.

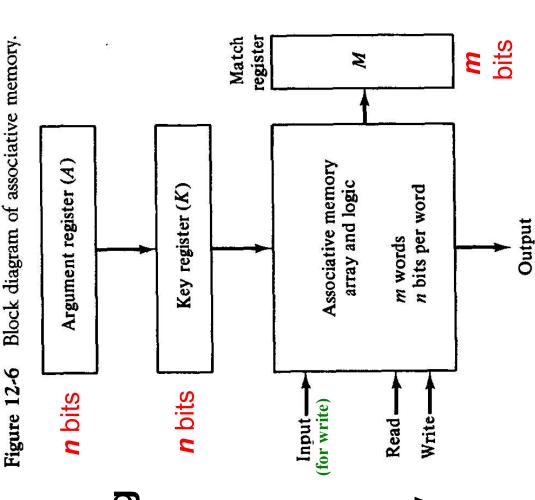
- Considerably reduces the search time
- Identifies data for access by content not address
- No address is given
- Searches simultaneously and in parallel by data association

• Write:

- The memory finds an empty unused location to store the word
- Read:
- the content (or part) of the word is specified
- Memory locates all words matching specified content
- marks them for reading

Hardware Organization Associative memory –

- Each **cell** has both
- storage capability
- logic circuits for matching its content with an external argument
- → more expensive than RAM
- → used in applications where search time is very critical and must be very short



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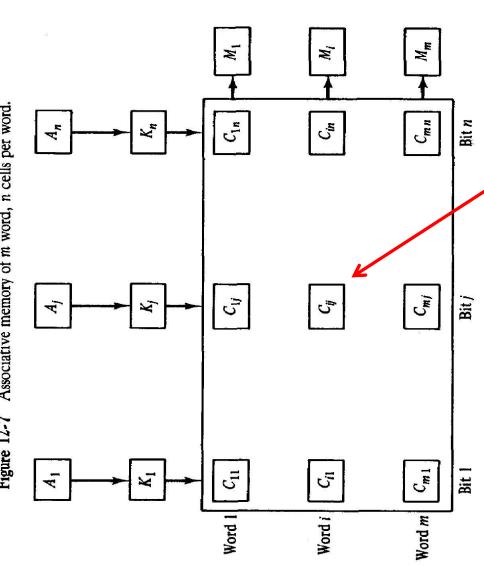
Faken from: M.

Hardware Organization – cont.

- Each memory word compared in parallel with A
- Words that match A set a corresponding bit in M
- Reading: sequential access to memory words whose corresponding bits in M have been set
- **K** provides a **mask** for **choosing fields** or **keys** in **A**
 - Only bits in A that have 1's in K (same pos) are compared
- Example:
- 111 000000 101 111100
- no match match 100 111100 – Word 2 – Word 1
- Only the three leftmost bits of A are compared

Alon Schclar, Tel-Aviv College, 2009 with memory words

Figure 12-7 Associative memory of m word, n cells per word.



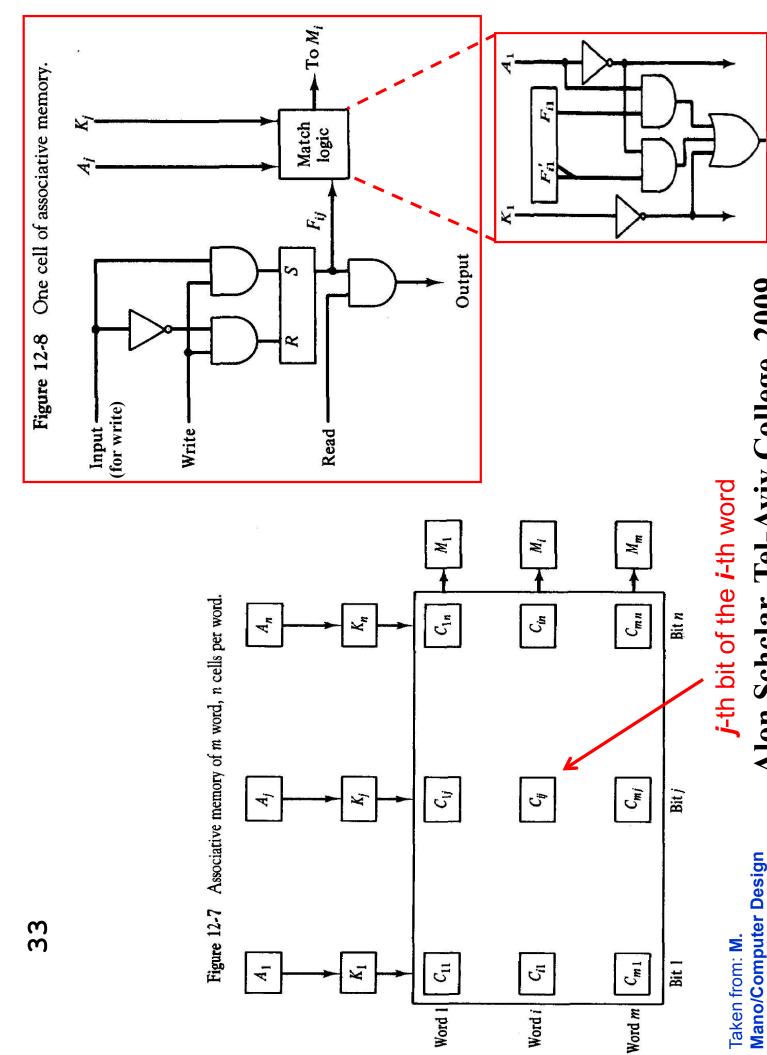
j-th bit of the j-th word Alon Schclar, Tel-Aviv College, 2009

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Match Logic

 $x_j = A_j F_{ij} (1 \text{ AND } 1) + A_j F_{ij} (0 \text{ AND } 0)$

$$X_j = A_j \operatorname{nxor} F_{ij} = A_j F_{ij} + A_j F_{ij}'$$

Comparison of two bits

$$x_j + K_j' = \begin{cases} x_j \\ 1 \end{cases}$$

if
$$K_j = 1$$

if $K_j = 0$

Combining all results i = 1, 2, 3, ..., m

$$M_i = (x_1 + K_1)(x_2 + K_2)(x_3 + K_3)\cdots(x_n + K_n)$$

When $K_j = 1 \rightarrow K_j = 0 \rightarrow x_j + 0 = x_j$

When
$$K_j = 0 \rightarrow K_j = 1 \rightarrow x_j + 1 = 1$$

 $(x_j + K'_j) = 1$ if its pair of bits is not compared \rightarrow no effect on M_i

Read

- If more than one memory word matches K-masked A
- Matched words have 1's in corresponding bit position of M
- Necessary to **scan** the **bits** of **M** one at a time.
- Matched words are read in sequence by applying a read signal to word \vec{i} if $\vec{M}_i = 1$.
- Usually associative memory contains unique entries
- only one word may match the unmasked argument field
- **M**, is connected **directly** to the **read line** in the **same** word **position** (instead of the **M** register),
- content of the matched word → output lines
- no special read command signal is needed
- Furthermore, assuming non-zero word content
- an all-zero output indicate no match

Cache memory

Locality of reference

- References to memory at any given (short) interval of time tend to be **confined** within a few **localized areas** in memory
- while the remainder of memory is accessed relatively infrequently.
- Code: loops and subroutine calls instructions stored **continuously** in memory → localized references
- Data: Memory references to arrays e.g. table-lookup

Cache - fast small memory

- Stores active portions of the program and data
- Placed between the CPU and main memory
- access time 5-10 times faster than memory access time
- Reduces average memory access time
- many memory requests will be found in the cache memory
- → average memory access time will approach cache access time
- → reduces the total execution time
- fastest component in memory hierarchy approaches the speed of CPU components

Cache operation

- CPU needs to access memory for a word X
- the cache is examined.
- If X is found in cache, it is read from it
- Otherwise, the main memory is accessed
- A continuous block of words containing X is fetched from main memory to cache memory.
- Block size 1-16 words (1 = just X)
- future near references can find the required words in the cache
- Every cache word has a duplicate in main mem

Hit ratio

- Measures performance of cache memory
- Hit When CPU finds X in cache
- Miss otherwise
- Hit ratio = hits / (hits+misses)
- hits+misses = total CPU references to memory
- Measured experimentally by benchmark programs
- executed during a given interval of time.
- Hit ratios ≥ 0.9 reported
- Verifies locality of reference validity

Average read time: (9*10 + 1*(10+100))/10 = 20ns ~ more than 5 times faster than w/o using cache mem **Example:** hit ratio 0.9 (9 from 10 reads in found in cache); Mem read time 100ns; Cache read time 10ns

Mapping

- Transformation of data from main memory to cache
- Three types of mapping
- 1. Associative
- 2. Direct
- 3. Set-associative
- **Example**:
- Main memory stores 215=32K words of 12 bits each
- Cache stores 512 words
- CPU communicates with both memories
- First sends a 15-bit address to cache
- Hit: the CPU accepts the 12-bit data from cache.
- Miss:
- CPU reads the word from main memory
- the word is then transferred to cache.

Example

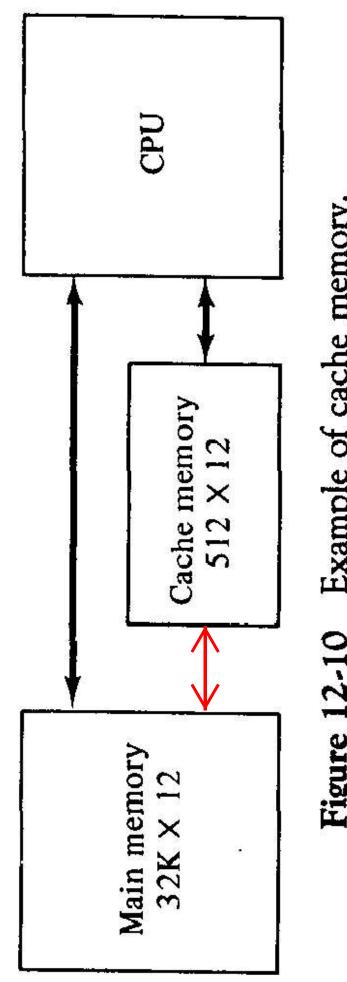


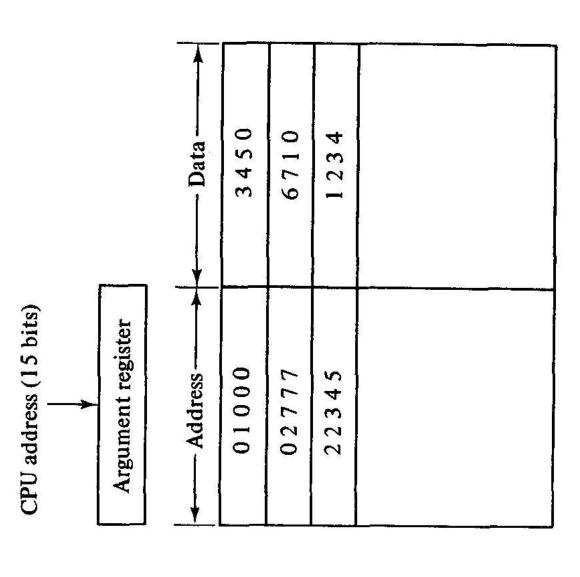
Figure 12-10 Example of cache memory.

Associative mapping

- The fastest and most flexible cache organization
- Uses an associative memory (AM)
- Stores both address and content of memory word
- Any location in cache can store any word from main mem
- A CPU address placed in argument register (A)
- AM is searched for a matching address
- Found: corresponding 12-bit data is fetched to CPU
- No match:
- the main memory accessed
- The address-data pair transferred to AM cache
- If cache is full, an address-data pair is displaced replacement algorithm - FIFO, LRU, etc

Associative mapping example

Figure 12-11 Associative mapping cache (all numbers in octal).



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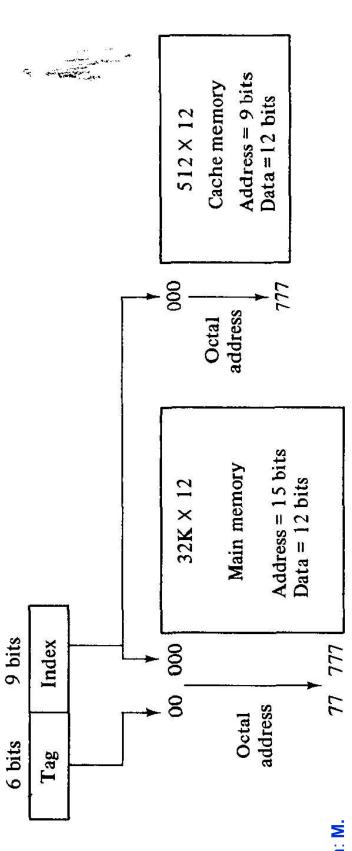
Direct mapping - (DM)

- AMs are expensive compared to RAM (added logic)
- DM uses RAM
- Usually: **cache** contains **2^k words** and **main** mem **2**ⁿ (**k<<n**)
- The n-bit memory address is divided into two fields:
- k bits for the index field (like last) and LSB
- (n k) bits for the tag field (first name) MSB
- DM uses
- the **n-bit** address to **access** the **main** memory and
- the k-bit **index** to **access** the **cache**.
- Each word in cache consists of the data word and its associated tag
- **CPU** memory request
- the **index** field is **used** for the address to **access** the **cache**.
- tag field of the CPU address is compared with the tag in cache word
- If tags match → hit
- Otherwise a miss → required word is read from main memory
- store word in the cache (new tag and content)
- Disadvantage: Frequent access to words same index but different tags
 - possibility is **minimized** since words are **relatively far** apart (multiples of **2**^k)

Direct Mapping - example

- CPU address of 15 bits
- Index field:
- Use as the address in the cache memory
- The 9 least significant bits
- Tag field: remaining 6 bits

Figure 12-12 Addressing relationships between main and cache memories.



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Direct Mapping - example

MEM[0]=1220 is currently stored in cache

$$-$$
 index = 000, tag = 00, data = 1220

CPU now wants to access the word at address 02000

$$-$$
 index = 000, tag = **02**

The two tags are then compared.

main memory is accessed

data word 5670 is transferred to the CPU.

Cache[000].tag ← 02

Cache[000].data ← 5670

Figure 12-13 Direct mapping cache organization.

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DM with block-size > 1

- So far block size = 1 word.
- Block can contain 2^h words
- The index field divided into two parts:
- the **block number** field k-h bits
- Word number within block field h bits

Example:

- 512-word cache, 8 words per block, 64 blocks (64 X 8 = 512)
- Block number is specified by 6-bit and
- the word number within the block is specified by a 3-bit field.
- Tag field common to all eight words of same block
- Miss x₄x₃x₂x₁x₀ <u>octal</u>: x₄x₃-tag ; x₂x₁-block# ; x₀-word#

entire block (addresses x₄x₃x₂x₁0-7) fetched from main to cache

larger block size because of the sequential nature of computer programs Although takes extra time, the hit ratio will most likely improve with a

Word

Block

9

Index

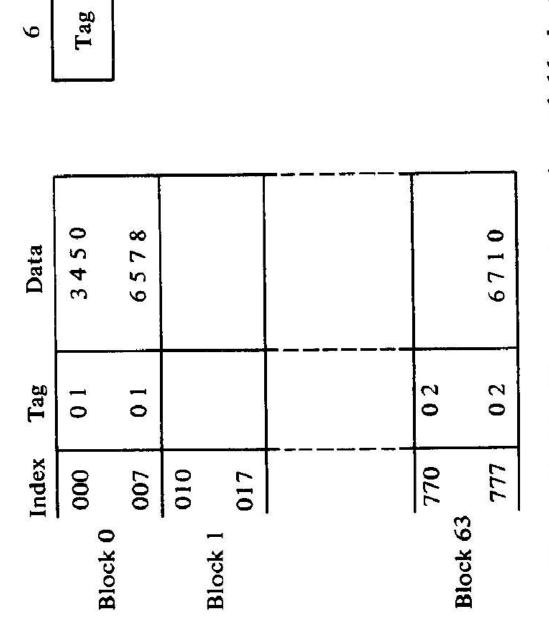


Figure 12-14 Direct mapping cache with block size of 8 words.

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\$et-Associative Mapping (N-way)

Extension of DM

- cache word (entry) ≥ main memory word
- Each cache index address refers to N memory words and their associated tags.
- Direct map N=1
- All entry words share the same index but have different tags
- Example: N=2 & Index address of 9 bits

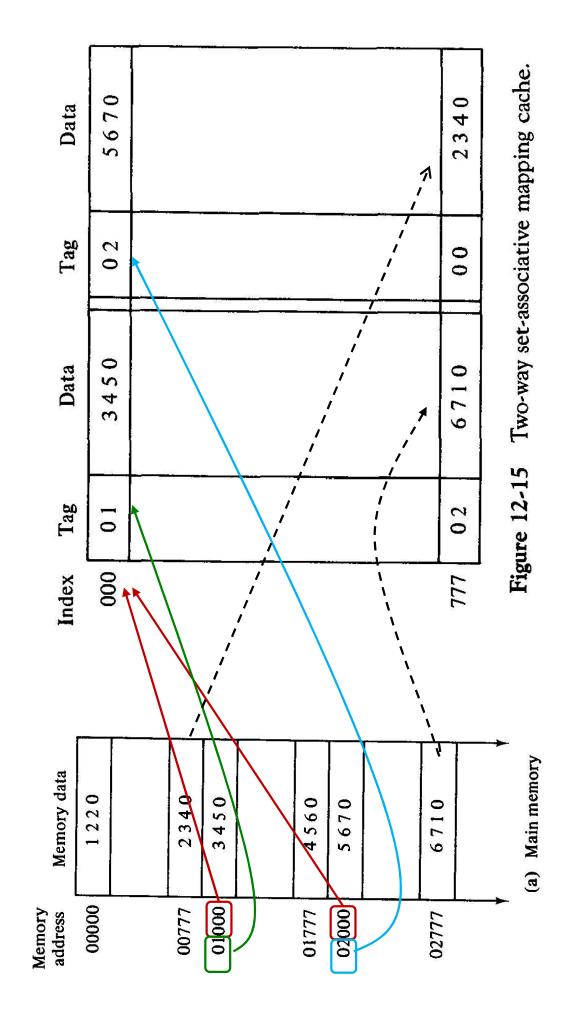
512 entries(words)

- Cache accommodates 1024 memory words:
- cache word = 2 main memory words.
- Each tag requires 6 bits and each data word has 12 bits
- Index entry length is 2(6 + 12) = 36 bits
- **Total size** of cache memory: 512 X 36 bits

2-way associative mapping example

- MEM[01000] and MEM[02000] stored in cache[000]
 - MEM[02777] and MEM[00777] stored in cache[777]
- CPU memory request
- index value of address used to access the cache
- tag field of address compared with both cache entry tags
- comparison logic via associative search of tags (similar to associative memory → name "set-associative")
- The hit ratio improves as the set size increases
- more words with same index, different tags
- However
- an increase in number of bits in words of cache and
- more complex comparison logic

2-way set-associative cache



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Replacement algorithms (RA)

- When miss occurs and the set is full
- it is necessary to replace one of the tag-data items with a new value
- The most common RA's:
- Random randomly choose one entry
- FIFO item that has been in the set the longest
- —→LRU item least recently used by the CPU
 - FIFO and LRU can be implemented by adding a few extra bits in each entry

Writing to Cache

Write-through method

- Update main memory with every memory write operation
- Update cache memory in parallel if it contains the updated word
- Advantage: main memory always in sync with cache
- Important in systems with DMA transfers.
- Data residing in main memory are valid at all times
- DMA write delivers valid and most recent data to I/O device

Write-back method

- Only the cache location is updated during write
- The word is marked by a flag "need to write to main mem"
- Word is copied into main memory only when displaced from cache
- Why ?
- Faster if program updates word several times when it is in cache
- results show # of memory writes is 10%-30% of the total memory refs
- Copy in main memory can be out of date
- requests for word are filled from the cache

Cache Initialization

- Cache initialized when
- power is turned on or
- main memory is loaded with a complete set of programs from aux. mem.
- After initialization cache is considered empty
- in effect it contains some non valid (garbage) data
- Include a valid bit in each cache word
- indicate whether or not the word contains valid data
- Cache initialization: clear all valid bits to 0
- set to 1 after the first time word is loaded from main mem
- and stays set until next initialization
- A cache word is replaced by another only if
- the valid bit is set to 1 and
- a mismatch of tags occurs.
- IF valid bit = 0, cache word is replaced regardless of tags
- forces misses until cache fills with valid data