Memory Technology and System-level Memory Design

presented by Class professor David Morano

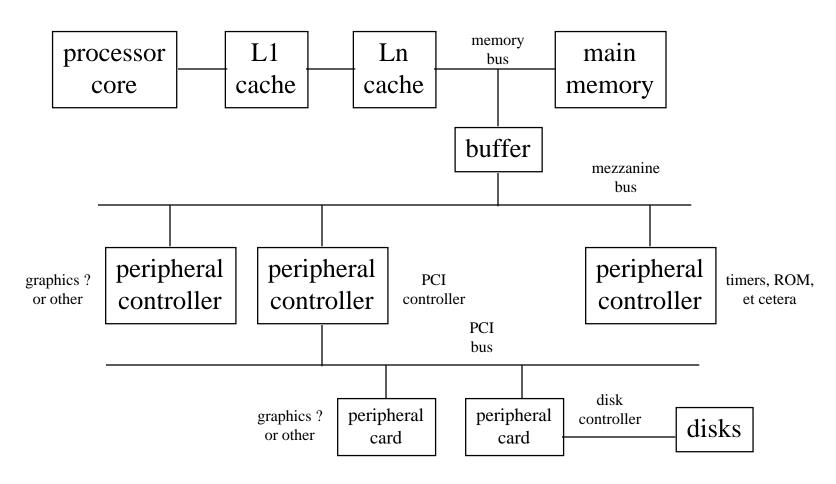
Professor David Kaeli

class notes 03/09/29

objectives

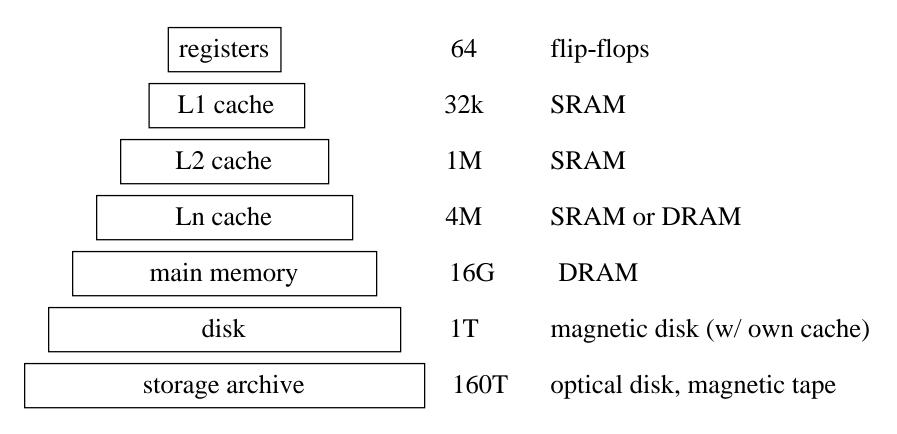
- review
- memory technology
 - —SRAM
 - —DRAM
- system-level design using memory
 - —SRAM
 - —DRAM
 - refresh stragegies
 - burst read and write
 - error correction
- questions

posssibe computer organization



- many, many variations
- more or less bus levels depending on overall computer size

memory hierarchy



- organized fastest to slowest
- highest cost per bit to lowest cost per bit
- smallest capacity components to largest capacity components

memory technologies

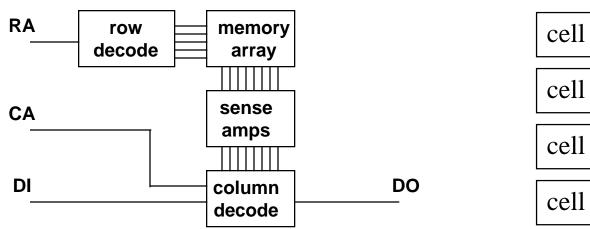
SRAM and DRAM

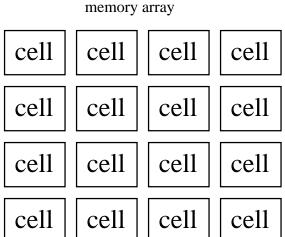
- —basic circuit
- —operation
- —features
- —operation and timing (for DRAM)

other

—not going to talk about them!

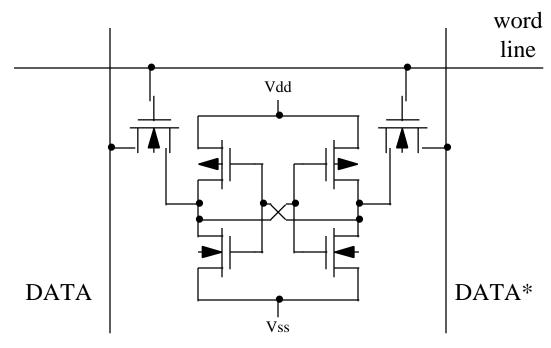
basic SRAM integrated circuit





- RA Row Address
- CA Column Address
- DI Data In
- DO Data Out
- only one column is selected at a time by the column decoder

basic SRAM memory cell

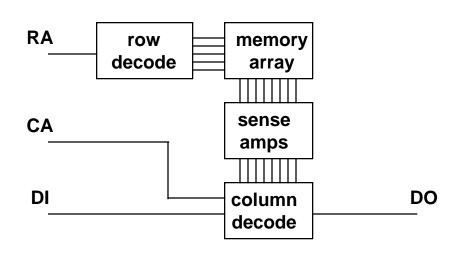


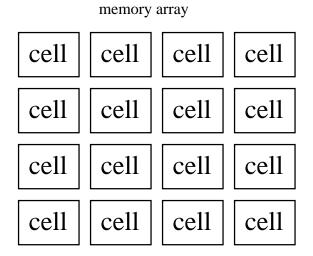
- this example is CMOS -- six transistors, four N-channel devices, two P-channel
- two cross-coupled inverters
- needs two column lines per cell -- DATA and DATA*
- word line selects a row of cells
- data (column) lines act on the selected cell
- data lines are generally pre-charged to Vdd / 2 before a read

basic SRAM features

- the cell bit is actively reinforced in the presence of noise by the inverters
- the state of the cell is changed by overpowering the outputs of the two inverters
- data is read out very quickly
- no power is needed to refresh the bit cell on a read
- control for reads and writes is very simple
- can use the same sort of IC manufacturing processing as used for the processor
- can be readily integrated on the same IC as the processor

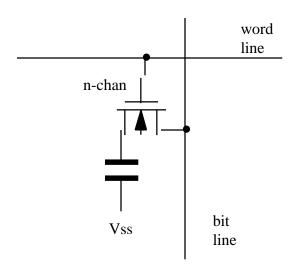
basic DRAM integrated circuit

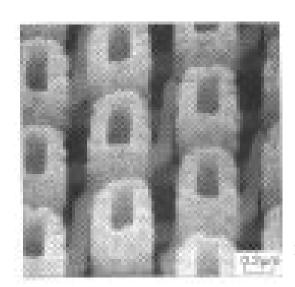




- RA Row Address
- CA Column Address
- DI Data In
- DO Data Out
- all columns are active on a row access (read out and refreshed)
- sense amplifiers double as drivers for writes and drivers for refresh on reads
- all reads refresh the entire row they are in

basic DRAM memory cell

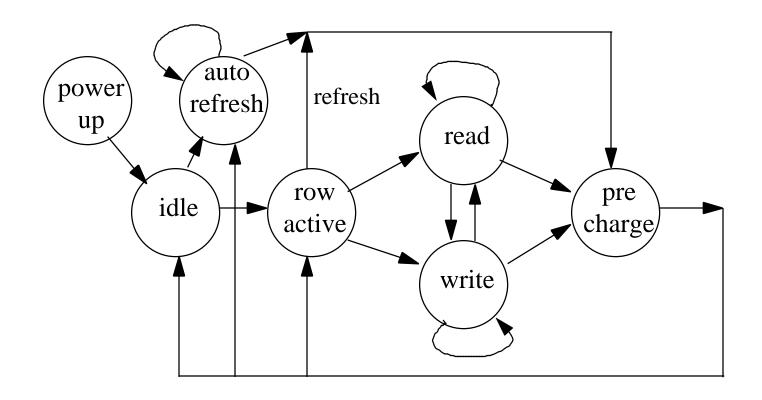




1 Gbit

- this is a "one transister cell" (standard now -- there were 3 originally)
- one transister and one capacitor is used
- the word line selects a whole row of cells to work on (either read or write)
- the data line reads and writes the capacitor on a READ (regenerative read), and writes it on a WRITE
- the problem is in carefully reading the fragile voltage on the capacitor
- the bit line is pre-charged to Vdd / 2
- another reference capacitor is normally used for output voltage comparison

simplified basic DRAM operation



- all DRAMs share a similar operational philosophy
- a DRAM "row" is also called a "page"
- "row active" is entered by providing a "row address" (RA)
- read and write is entered by providing a "column address" (CA)

basic DRAM control (DDR-SDRAM)

control signals

- CLK -- Clock
- CKE -- Clock Enable
- CS* -- Chip Select
- RAS* -- Row Address Strobe
- CAS* -- Column Address Strobe
- WE* -- Write Enable
- DM -- Data Mask
- DQS -- Data Strobe

extended command operations



masking out bits on WRITEs

strobing data on WRITEs and READs

usage notes

- all commands are synchronous with respect to the clock
- data is roughly synchronized to the clock and strobed by DQS
- the data rate is twice the clock rate (Double Data Rate -- DDR)
- minimum READ or WRITE burst length is 2!
- all reads and writes are bursts of 2, 4, or 8 transfers

basic DRAM features (1)

- higher density than comparable generation of SRAM (always about 4 times higher)
- since cost tracks transistors, DRAMs always have a much better cost-perbit than comparable generation SRAMs
- much slower than SRAM -- reading a capacitor is fairly difficult and slow in comparison to the reading of the differential output of two inverters, as with SRAM!
- the required timings and necessary control logic is fairly complex as compared with SRAM
- needs refreshing in order to maintain data storage integrity -- the charge on the capacitors leaks off! -- typically 8k rows every 64 msec
- the memory bit cell is passive (not actively regenerated as with SRAM)
- has a higher soft bit error rate than SRAM -- things happen that blow away the charge on the capacitors!
- although it can be integrated along with a processor on the same IC, this is generally NOT done since it would compromise the performance of either the processor, the DRAM, or both !!

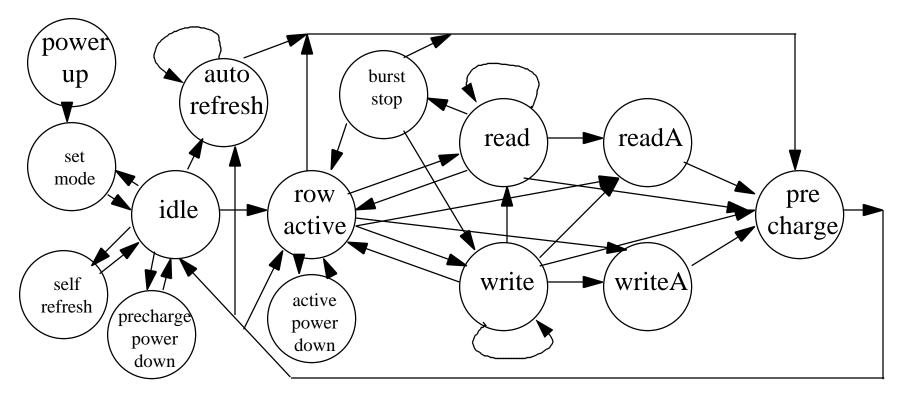
basic DRAM features (2)

- cycle times (time to start a new "row" access) are long !!
- burst transfers are available (practically mandatory) and increase the access bandwidth
- for DDR SDRAMs, all reads and writes are bursts of 2, 4, or 8 transfers
- individual bursts can be prematurely terminated ("stopped")
- reads and writes can follow each other making long trains of burst transfers
- all memory accesses are made first to a "page" (row) and then to the bits within that page
- there is a required delay before going to another "page" -- "pre-charge"
- new DRAMs have multiple independent banks within them (generally 2 or 4 banks -- so far)

basic DRAM features (3)

- example speeds:
 - DDR333
 - 167 MHz clock, CL=2.5, RCD=3, RP=3
 - earliest read data 33 nsec, single cyle time 60 nsec, BW 16.7 Mtps
 - burst read of 32, BW 281 Mtps
 - **DDR400**
 - 200 MHz clock, CL=3, RCD=3, RP=3
 - earliest read data 30 nsec, single cyle time 50 nsec, BW 20.0 Mtps
 - burst read of 32, BW 337 Mtps

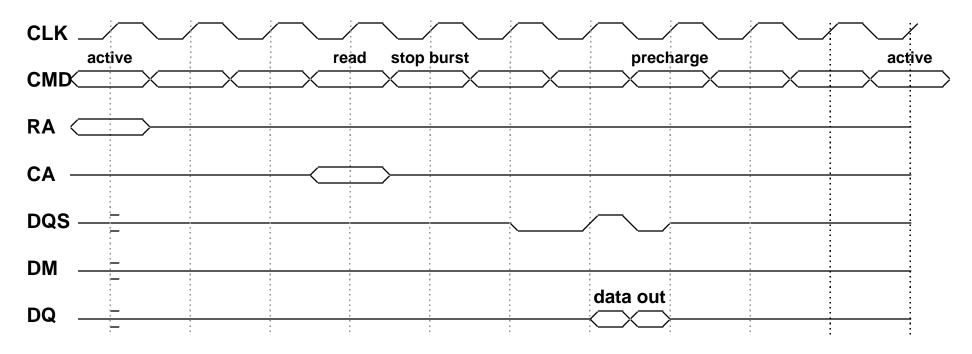
simplified DRAM operation (DDR)



- "readA" -- read followed by "auto-precharge"; similar w/ "writeA"
- each read or write is generally a burst operation with programmed length
- due to bus turn-around, a read transitions to write through "burst stop"
- new DRAMs now have "power down" modes
- DRAM operational mode is programmed after power up

basic single read

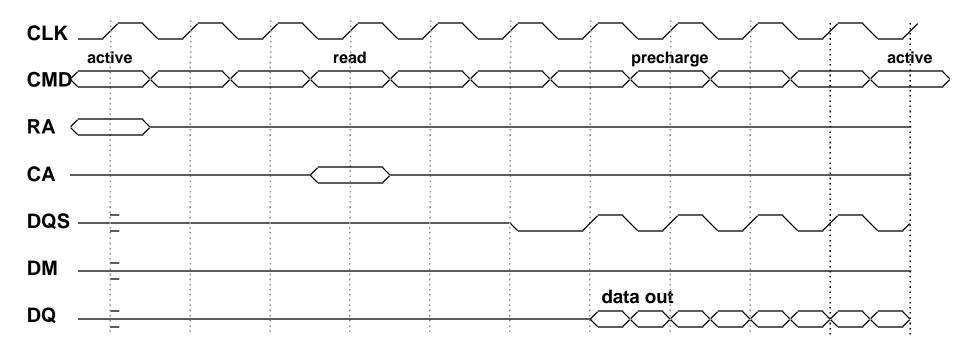
RCD=3, CL=3, RP=3, BL=2 or BL=4-8 w/ "stop burst" (timed for DDR400)



- minimum of 2 data transfers (due to DDR) -- ignore any not wanted!
- the long cycle time limits the bandwidth when doing short transfers!

basic burst read

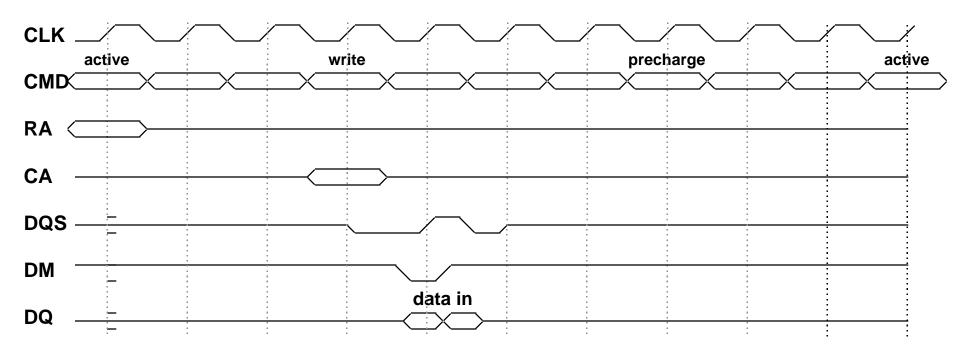
RCD=3, CL=3, RP=3, BL=8 (timed for DDR400)



- burst transfer of 8
- but bandwidth is still low due to the long cycle time!

basic single write

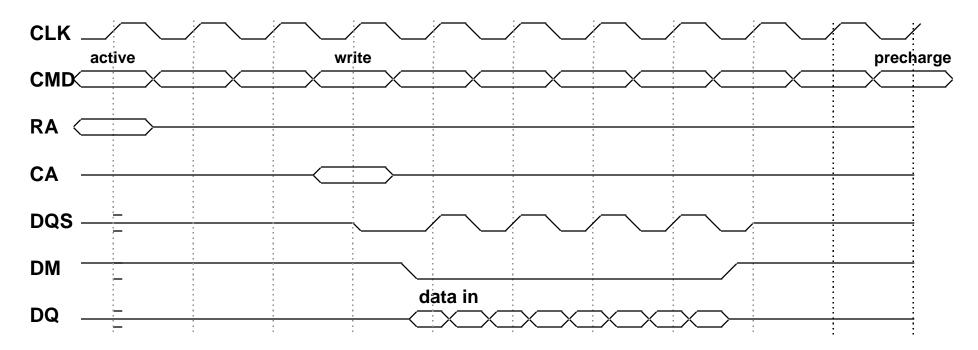
RCD=3, CL=3, RP=3 (timed for DDR400)



- minimum of 2 data transfers (due to DDR)
- second data transfer is "masked" in this example using DM signal
- the 2 clocks after the write data is supplied forms "write recovery" time
- the long cycle time limits the bandwidth when doing short transfers!

basic burst write

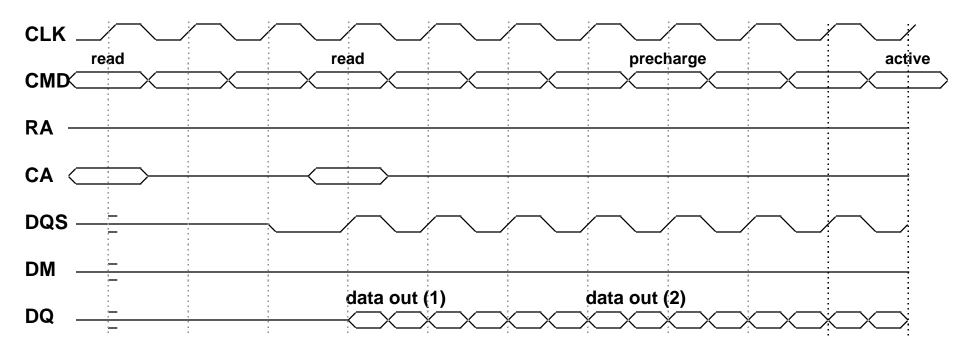
RCD=3, CL=3, RP=3, BL=8 (timed for DDR400)



- burst transfer of 8
- the whole cycle is not even shown -- need 3 clocks more!
- even w/ the burst the long cycle time of 13 clocks still limits the bandwidth

read interrupted by read

RCD=3, CL=3, RP=3, BL=8 (timed for DDR400)



- first read of burst transfer of 8 was interrupted and only output 6
- the second read was able to put out 8
- different reads can have different column addresses (but still in same row)

some other DRAM operations

- read followed by read
- write followed by write
- burst read burst stopped
- burst read interrupted by stop & write
- burst write interrupted by read
- burst write interrupted by write
- burst read interrupted by precharge (need to close page)
- burst write interrupted by precharge (need to close page)
- all multi-bank variations of all of these so far!
- many variations of refresh
- more

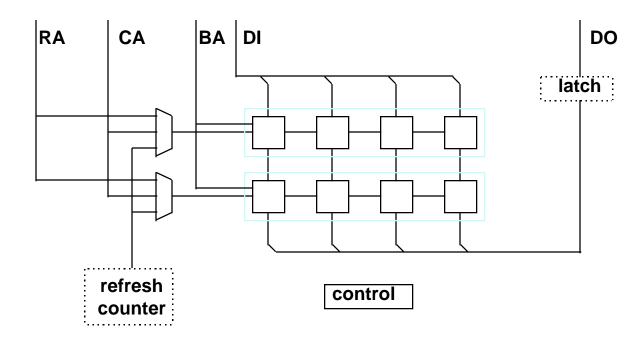
system-level memory design

- what is SRAM good for in a computer
- representative DRAM IC layout
- basic DRAM refresh strategies
- delaying RAS precharge
- using multiple independent banks within the DRAM ICs (or otherwise)
- error detection and correction
- interaction between the cache and main memory

using SRAM

- since SRAM is :
 - —fast
 - —tracks the processor clock rate fairly closely
 - —uses similar IC fabrication processing as the processor IC
 - —has relatively simple control logic requirements
- use it for the caches
 - —L1
 - -L2
 - —often L3
- due to its high cost and lower bit density, it is not a good fit for :
 - —main memory
 - —long-term storage

basic system DRAM circuit



- BA Bank Address (for DRAMs with multiple banks)
- RA Row Address
- CA Column Address
- DI Data In
- DO Data Out
- controls for read, write, refresh, et cetera

basic refresh strategies

- refresh all rows in a single burst during each refresh period
- refresh one row at a time
- refresh a few rows in a burst periodically
- software does the refreshing
- try to hide the refreshes when the higher level cache doesn't need access
- let something like video hardware do it for you
- let a DRAM controller do what it wants (or program it also)
- try to do a refresh when you think the processor is not about to request a transfer
- other -- use your imagination!

delaying RAS precharge

- use the current "open" page that is on the sense amplifiers as a cache
- we've seen this already with burst transfers to different column addresses
- what about more random non-burst transfers?
 - put high processor addresses on DRAM row and low processor addresses on DRAM column
 - wait to see where the next access is addressed to
 - must time-out on maximum RAS "on" time
 - close the page after the last access to the page (if known)
 - last address in the page (like if they have been sequential)
 - last access to this page because another page is likely needed next (like if the processor is changing state of some kind)
 - time-out on waiting for the next access then close the current page

using multiple independent banks

- newer SDRAMs have multiple independent banks within each IC or DIMM
- this means that we can have one page open for each bank at any given time (very nice)
- of course, each bank can be independently active with their own read or write operations in progress
- we can "close" pages in some banks that we think we don't need while keeping pages open in the other banks that may still be needed for likely caching advantages
- with multiple banks, we don't always need to close an open page to go to another page that is needed now
- use your imagination !
- and ... old-style external memory banks can still also be used
- note: memory banks are not needed for address memory interleaving (like in the old days) since DRAMs perform interleaved burst transfers (sequential and non-sequential) already

error detection and/or correction (1)

- due to their relatively high soft bit error rate, DRAMs generally have either error detection or error detection with some correction
- error detection of 1 or 2 bits per word is common
- 1 bit error detection is done easily using parity
- 2 bit detection and 1 bit correction ("SECDED") requires a Hamming distance of at least 4 between each valid code word
- SECDED is done using an Error Correcting Code (ECC) that commonly uses E extra bits per memory word, where E is roughly computed:

$$E = S + 1$$
$$S = \log_2(W + E)$$

- solved iteratively and rounded up to an integer
- W is the number of architected bits in the memory word
- S bits are used to form the "syndrome" to find the single bit in error
- the extra single bit (E S) differentiates a single from a double bit error
- other codes, and codes that correct up to 2 errors are also used

error detection and/or correction (2)

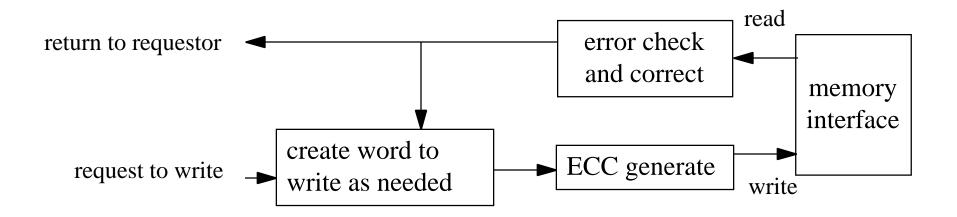
extra bits needed for given memory word lengths to implement SECDED :

```
    \begin{array}{rrrr}
        -16 & 6 \\
        -32 & 7 \\
        -64 & 8 \\
        -128 & 9 \\
        -256 & 10 \\
    \end{array}
```

- memory reads of either the full or partial memory word :
 - read the whole memory word (with the ECC bits) and check for error
- on a double bit error, signal the error back to the processor
 - will cause either the process that initiated the error to get killed
 - or cause the whole OS to panic if the error was in the OS code or data
- on a single bit error (correctable), we correct the error (flip the bit that is in error) and then write the corrected value back to memory
 - this would be a write after a read

error detection and/or correction (3)

- memory writes of the full memory word width need to:
 - computer the ECC code for the architected data being written
 - write the architected and the ECC bits to the memory word
- memory writes of less than the full memory word width need to:
 - read the memory word, replace the part of it with what is being written
 - proceed as above
 - this operation is a read followed by a write to the same memory word



error detection and/or correction (4)

- what if a memory word is rarely read? a single bit error (correctable) can get compounded by an additional error causing a double bit error (uncorrectable)!! this is a bad thing!
- solution: periodically, we will read all of memory and check it for any errors
 - \$ cat /dev/mem > /dev/null
 - (don't laugh -- this was actually done on many UNIX based systems)
 - the memory system hardware can do the periodic reads (and make any associated corrections)
 - this is called "memory scrubbing" (we are periodically "scrubbing" the memory clean)!
- more recent OSes may have paging algorithms that guarantee that all pages are periodically read by some means or another
- note that "scrubbing" corrects soft errors in the memory and can be applied to either DRAM or SRAM
- in contrast "refresh" is the process of retaining the memory bits in DRAM

cache - main memory interaction

- the processor (executing your programs) likes to perform many single memory reads and single memory writes
- but DRAM has a very high cost (in terms of a very long cycle time) for doing single reads and writes
- however, the bandwidth of accessing DRAM can dramtically increase if we can do burst reads and burst writes!!
- solution: have the cache that is just above the DRAM in the memory heirarchy convert single reads and writes from the processor to burst reads and writes to the DRAM

• for reads:

- the cache will fill whole cache blocks (4, 8, 16, 32, ? words) on a single read miss using a burst read to the DRAM
- arrange for the access that was the "miss" to be returned first

• for writes:

— the cache will use a write strategy called "write back" to accumulate several single processor writes into a single burst write to the DRAM

some key points

- SRAM is faster and more costly per bit than DRAM
- SRAM is easier to control and can be integrated with the processor without substantial performance compromise
- SRAM is generally used for cache memory
- DRAM is slower but higher density than SRAM (about 4 times higher)
- DRAM is used for main memory
- DRAM needs to be refreshed
- DRAM has a higher soft bit error rate than SRAM
- design with DRAM often uses an Error Correcting Code (ECC)
- DRAM has a long cycle time for doing single or short transfers
- we try to use burst transfers with DRAM to get higher bandwidth
- we try to create burst transfers from the way we manage the cache

review questions (1)

memory technology

- how does the bit density compare between SRAM and DRAM?
- which technology (SRAM or DRAM) is faster at any given time?
- how do they compare on cost-per-bit?
- which is better for integration on the same IC as the processor?
- what does "dynamic" mean in DRAM? what does "static" mean?
- which is easier to control?
- which technology has higher bit error rates?

review questions (2)

system design

- why is a memory hierarchy used in computer design?
- where do each technology (SRAM or DRAM) better fit into an overall memory hierarchy? (which might be higher or lower in the hierarchy)
- what are some ways to create burst read sequences from single reads from the core processor ?
- what are some ways to create burst write sequences from single write requests from the core processor?
- what sort of maintenance does each memory technology (SRAM or DRAM) require, if any ?
- what is a refresh operation?
- what is an Error Correcting Code (ECC)?
- what is a scrub operation?
- what is the difference between refreshing and scrubbing?