## More on Memory Hierarchy

Professor Hugh C. Lauer CS-2011, Machine Organization and Assembly Language

(Slides include copyright materials from *Computer Systems: A Programmer's Perspective*, by Bryant and O'Hallaron, and from *The C Programming Language*, by Kernighan and Ritchie)

# **Today**

Reading Assignment: §6.1 – §6.5

- Storage technologies and trends
- Locality of reference ← First
- Caching in the memory hierarchy ← Preparation for Cachelab

### Random-Access Memory (RAM)

#### Key features

- RAM is traditionally packaged as a chip.
- Basic storage unit is normally a cell (one bit per cell).
- Multiple RAM chips form a memory.

#### Static RAM (SRAM)

- Each cell stores a bit with a four or six-transistor circuit.
- Retains value indefinitely, as long as it is kept powered.
- Relatively insensitive to electrical noise (EMI), radiation, etc.
- Faster and more expensive than DRAM.

#### Dynamic RAM (DRAM)

- Each cell stores bit with a capacitor. One transistor is used for access
- Value must be refreshed every 10-100 ms.
- More sensitive to disturbances (EMI, radiation,...) than SRAM.
- Slower and cheaper than SRAM.

## **SRAM vs DRAM Summary**

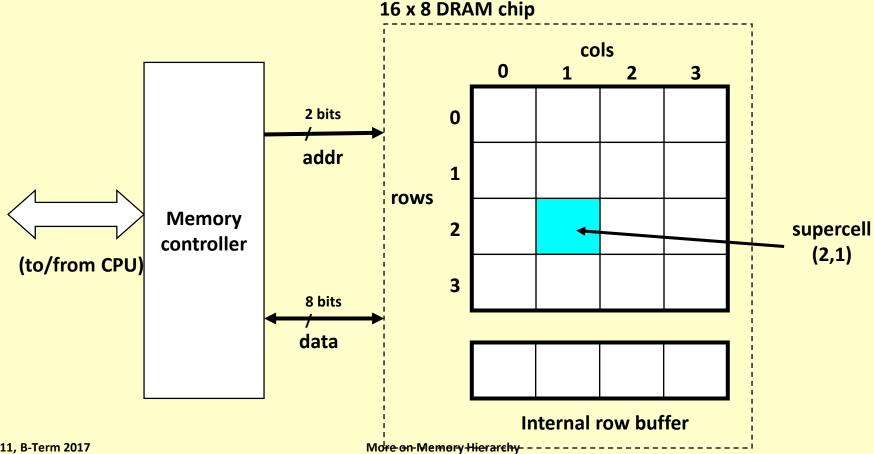
			Needs refresh		Cost	Applications
SRAM	4 or 6	1X	No	Maybe	100x	Cache memories
DRAM	1	10X	Yes	Yes	1X	Main memories, frame buffers

**EDC = Error Detection and Correction** 

### **Conventional DRAM Organization**

#### d x w DRAM:

d\*w total bits organized as d supercells of size w bits

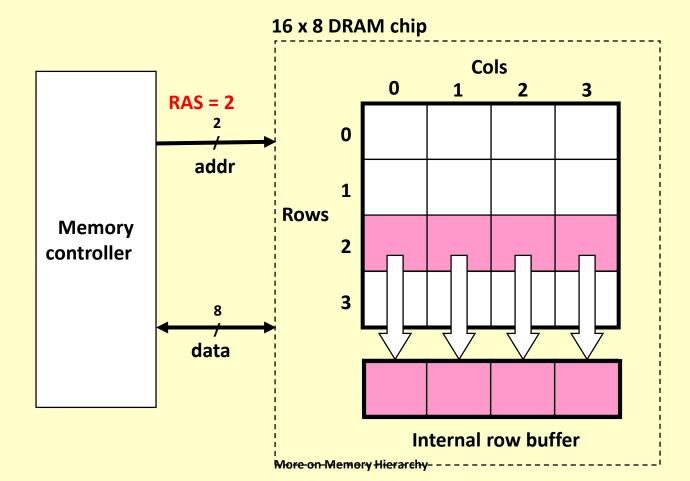


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## Reading DRAM Supercell (2,1)

Step 1(a): Row access strobe (RAS) selects row 2.

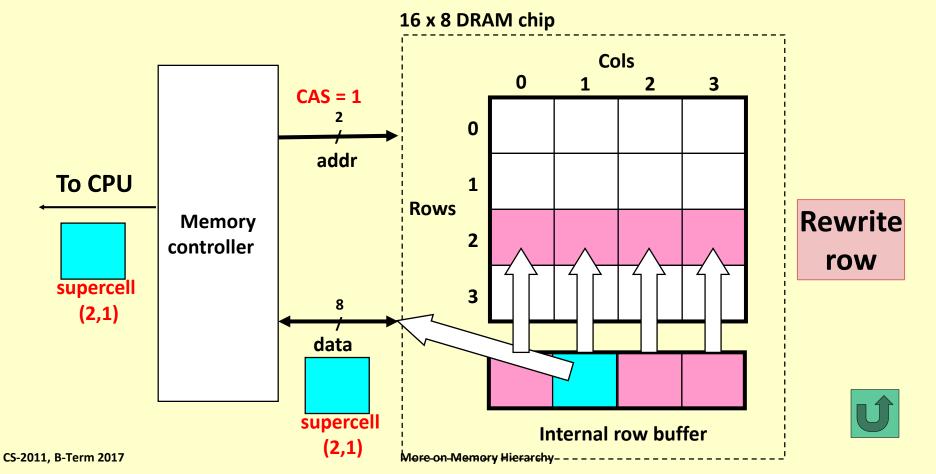
Step 1(b): Row 2 copied from DRAM array to row buffer.



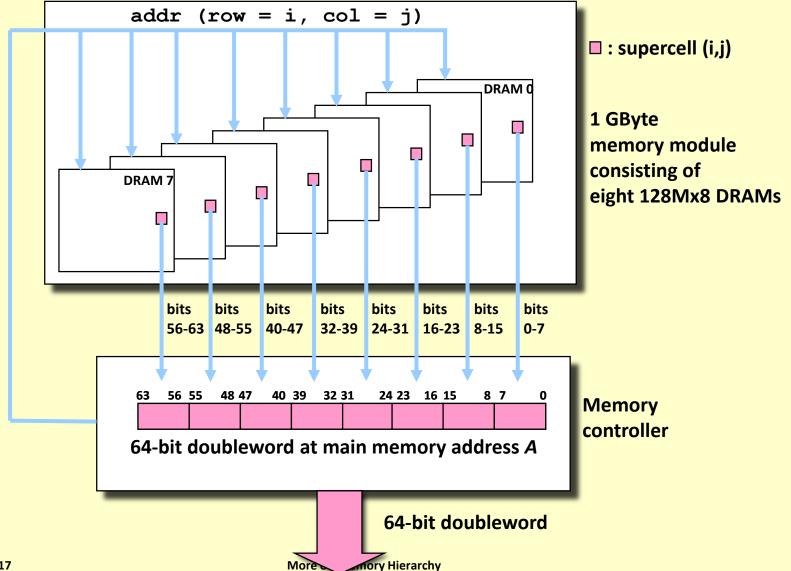
## Reading DRAM Supercell (2,1)

Step 2(a): Column access strobe (CAS) selects column 1.

Step 2(b): Supercell (2,1) copied from buffer to data lines, and eventually back to the CPU.



### **Memory Modules**



### **Enhanced DRAMs**

- Basic DRAM cell has not changed since invention in 1966.
  - Commercialized by Intel in 1970
  - (except for tinier cells, more bits per sq millimeter)
- DRAM cores with better interface logic and faster I/O :
  - Synchronous DRAM (SDRAM)
    - Uses a conventional clock signal instead of asynchronous control
    - Allows reuse of the row addresses (e.g., RAS, CAS, CAS, CAS)
  - Double data-rate synchronous DRAM (DDR SDRAM)
    - Double edge clocking sends two bits per cycle per pin
    - Different types distinguished by size of small prefetch buffer:
      - DDR (2 bits), DDR2 (4 bits), DDR3 (8 bits)
    - By 2010, standard for most server and desktop systems
    - Intel Core i7 supports only DDR3 SDRAM



### **Nonvolatile Memories**

#### DRAM and SRAM are volatile memories

Lose information if powered off.

#### Nonvolatile memories retain value even if powered off

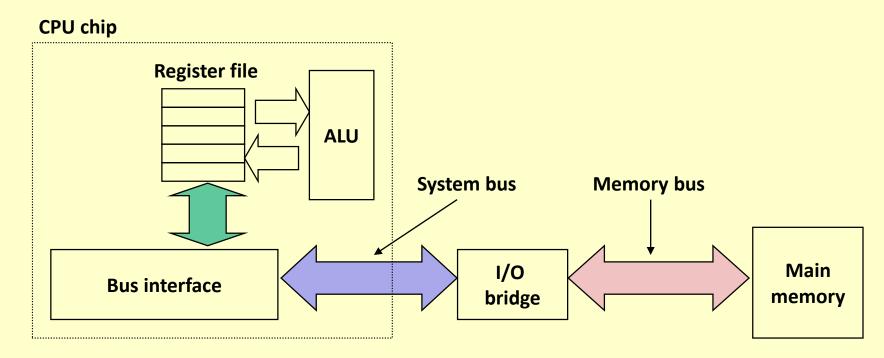
- Read-only memory (ROM): programmed during production
- Programmable ROM (PROM): can be programmed once
- Eraseable PROM (EPROM): can be bulk erased (UV, X-Ray)
- Electrically eraseable PROM (EEPROM): electronic erase capability
- Flash memory: EEPROMs with partial (sector) erase capability
  - Wears out after about 100,000 erasings.

#### Uses for Nonvolatile Memories

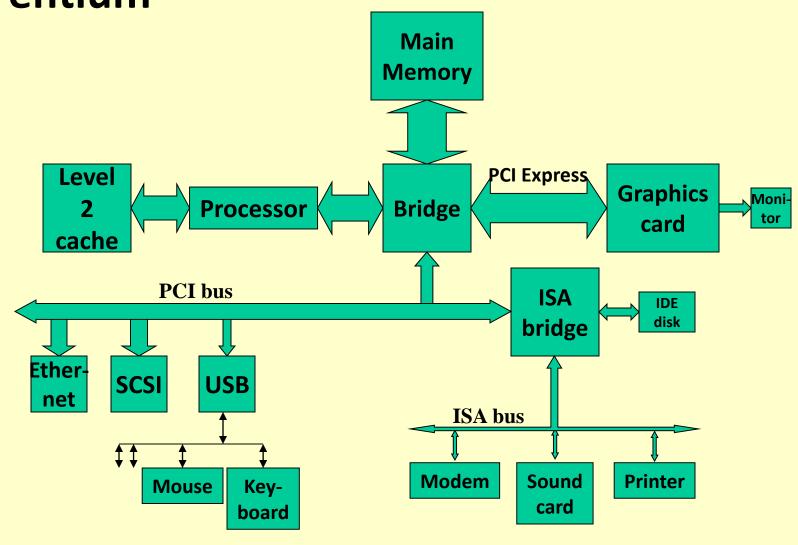
- Firmware programs stored in a ROM (BIOS, controllers for disks, network cards, graphics accelerators, security subsystems,...)
- Solid state disks (replace rotating disks in thumb drives, smart phones, mp3 players, tablets, laptops,...)
- Disk caches

# Traditional Bus Structure Connecting CPU and Memory

- A bus is a collection of parallel wires that carry address, data, and control signals.
- Buses are typically shared by multiple devices.

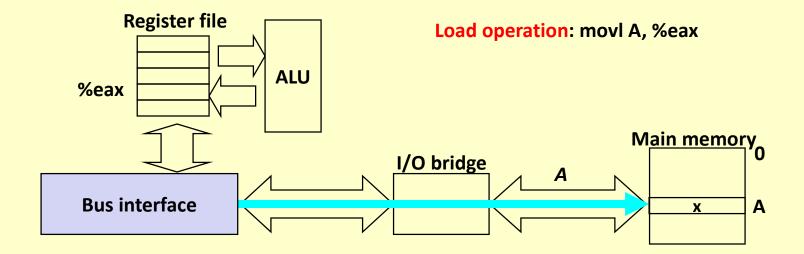


# Hardware Organization — 2005 era Pentium



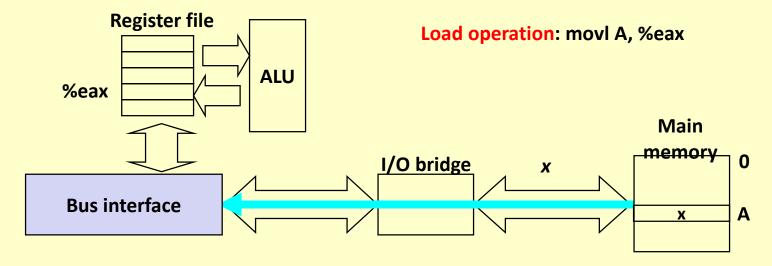
## **Memory Read Transaction (1)**

CPU places address A on the memory bus.



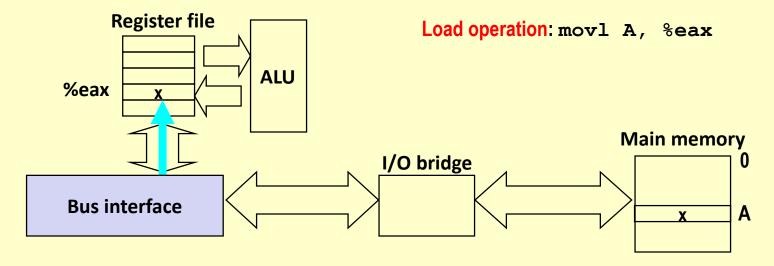
# **Memory Read Transaction (2)**

Main memory reads A from the memory bus, retrieves word x, and places it on the bus.



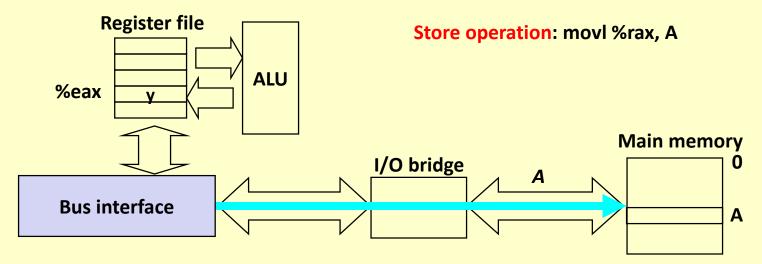
## **Memory Read Transaction (3)**

CPU read word x from the bus and copies it into register %rax.



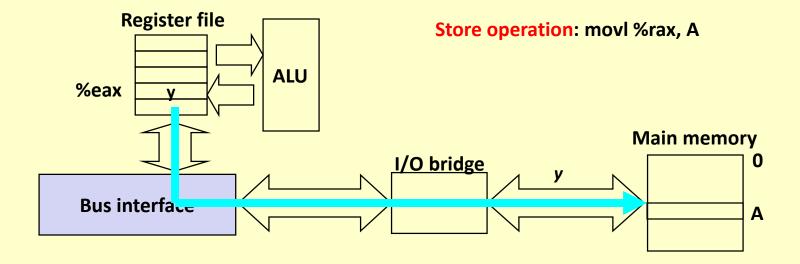
# **Memory Write Transaction (1)**

CPU places address A on bus. Main memory reads it and waits for the corresponding data word to arrive.



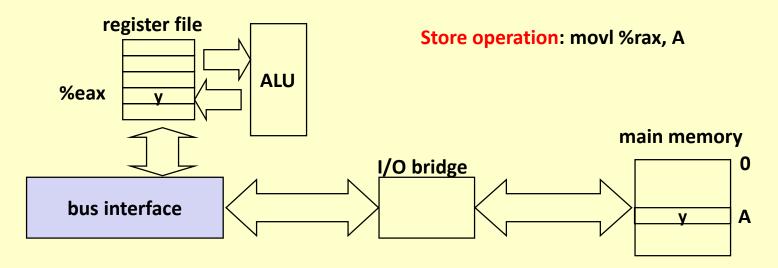
### **Memory Write Transaction (2)**

CPU places data word y on the bus.



# **Memory Write Transaction (3)**

Main memory reads data word y from the bus and stores it at address A.



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# **Questions?**

### What's Inside A Disk Drive?

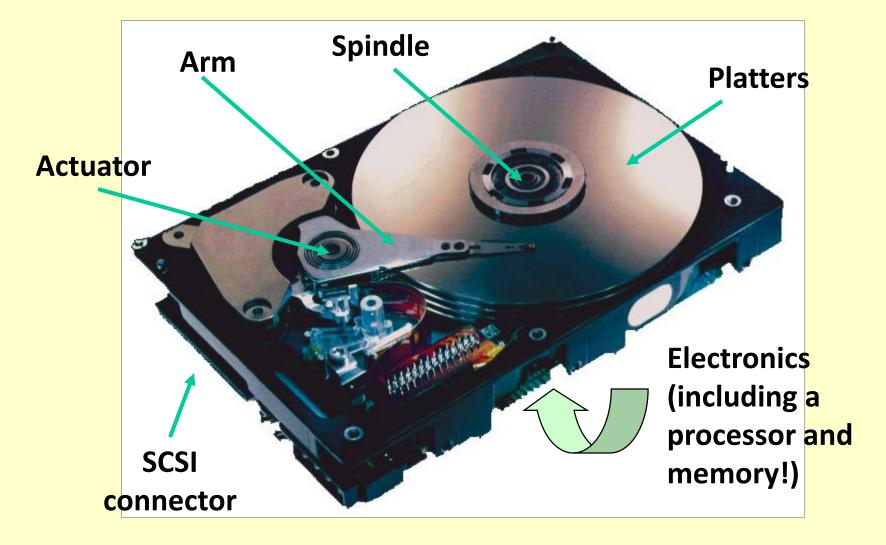


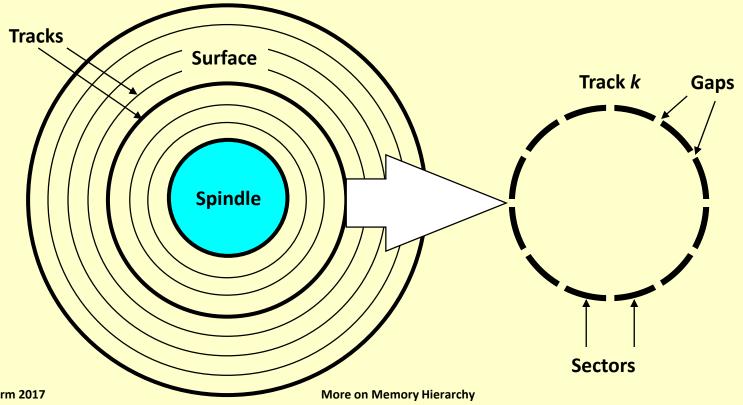
Image courtesy of Seagate Technology

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### **Disk Geometry**

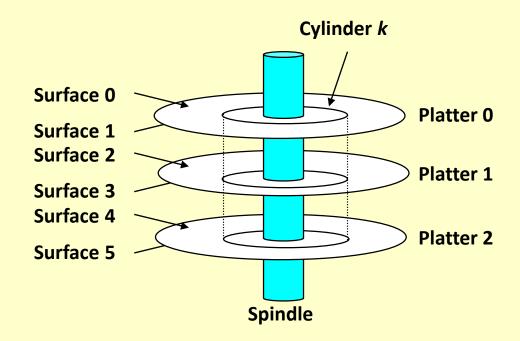
- Disks consist of platters, each with two surfaces.
- Each surface consists of concentric rings called tracks.
- Each track consists of sectors separated by gaps.



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### **Disk Geometry** (Multiple-Platter View)

Aligned tracks form a cylinder.

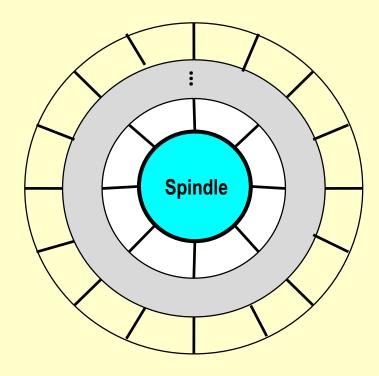


### **Disk Capacity**

- Capacity: maximum number of bits that can be stored.
  - Vendors express capacity in units of gigabytes (GB), where
     1 GB = 10<sup>9</sup> Bytes (Lawsuit pending! Claims deceptive advertising).
- Capacity is determined by these technology factors:
  - Recording density (bits/in): number of bits that can be squeezed into a 1 inch segment of a track.
  - Track density (tracks/in): number of tracks that can be squeezed into a 1 inch radial segment.
  - Areal density (bits/in²): product of recording and track density.
- Modern disks partition tracks into disjoint subsets called recording zones
  - Each track in a zone has the same number of sectors, determined by the circumference of innermost track.
  - Each zone has a different number of sectors/track

### **Recording zones**

- Modern disks partition tracks into disjoint subsets called recording zones
  - Each track in a zone has the same number of sectors, determined by the circumference of innermost track.
  - Each zone has a different number of sectors/track, outer zones have more sectors/track than inner zones.
  - So we use average number of sectors/track when computing capacity.



### **Computing Disk Capacity**

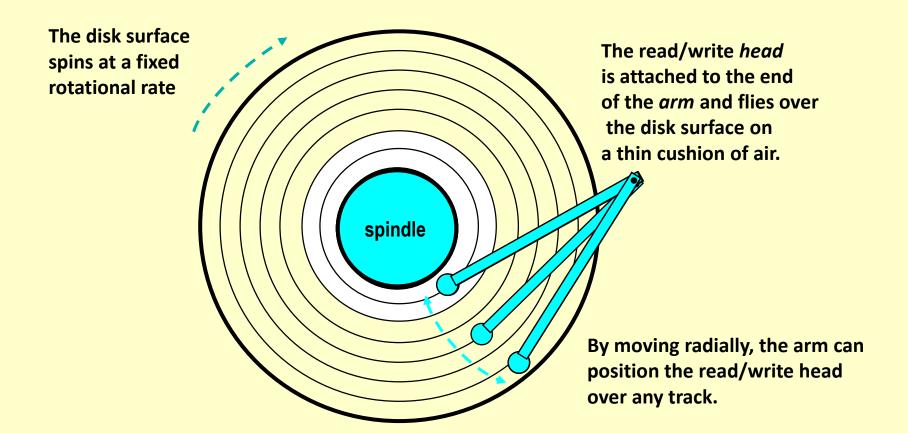
```
Capacity = (# bytes/sector) x (avg. # sectors/track) x (# tracks/surface) x (# surfaces/platter) x (# platters/disk)
```

#### **Example:**

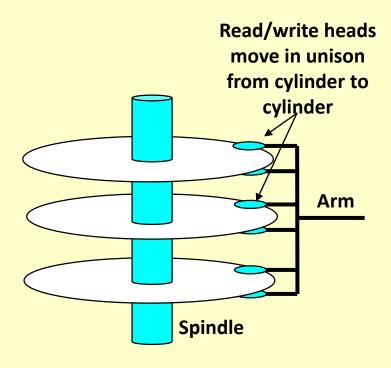
- 512 bytes/sector
- 300 sectors/track (on average)
- 20,000 tracks/surface
- 2 surfaces/platter
- 5 platters/disk

```
Capacity = 512 x 300 x 20000 x 2 x 5
= 30,720,000,000
= 30.72 GB
```

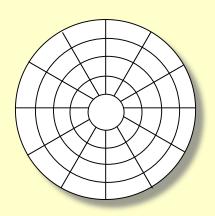
# **Disk Operation (Single-Platter View)**



### **Disk Operation** (Multi-Platter View)



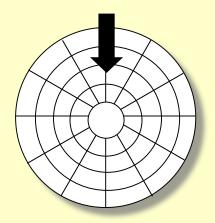
### Disk Structure - top view of single platter



Surface organized into tracks

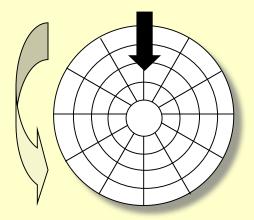
Tracks divided into sectors

### **Disk Access**

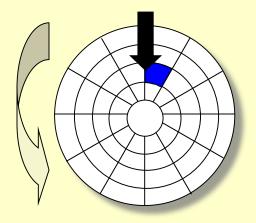


**Head in position above a track** 

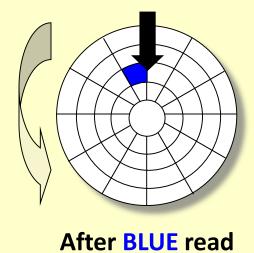
### **Disk Access**



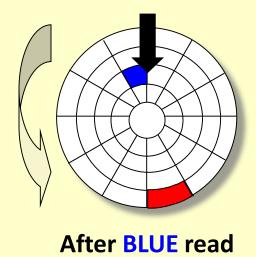
### **Rotation is counter-clockwise**



#### About to read blue sector

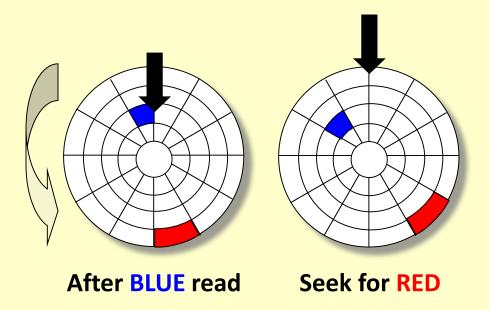


After reading blue sector



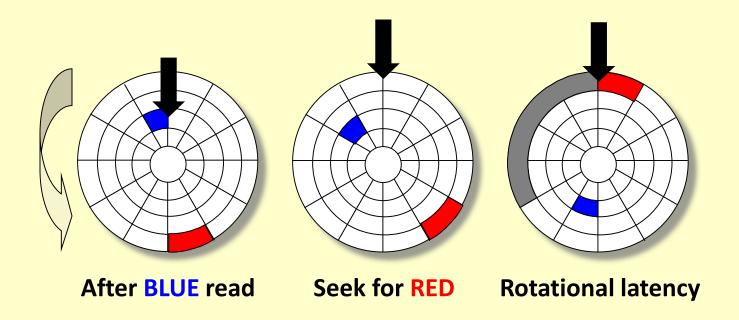
Red request scheduled next

### Disk Access – Seek

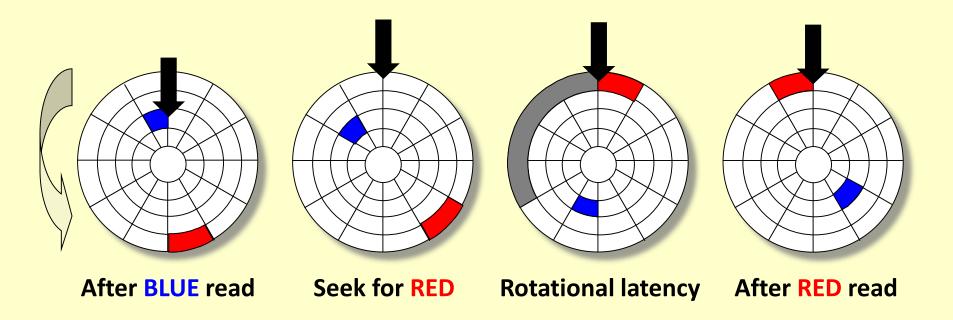


Seek to red's track

### **Disk Access – Rotational Latency**

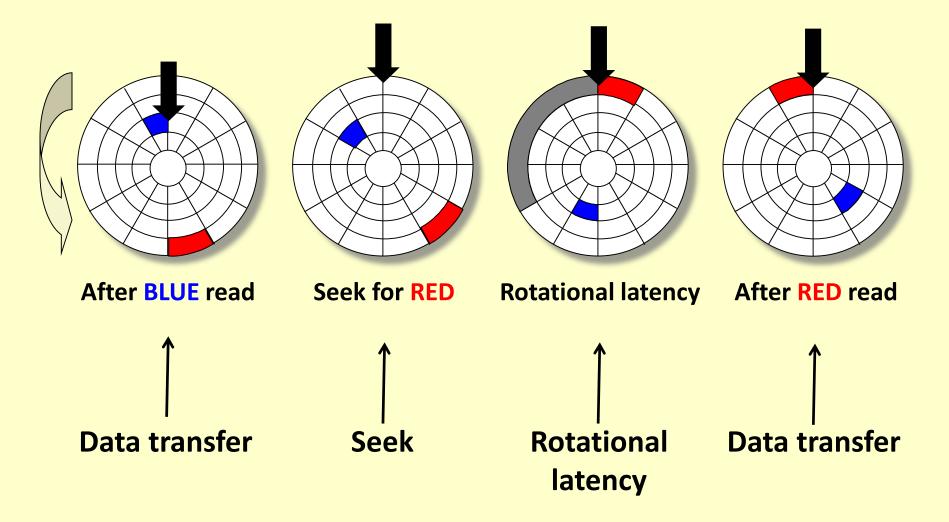


Wait for red sector to rotate around



### **Complete read of red**

## **Disk Access – Service Time Components**



### **Disk Access Time**

#### Average time to access some target sector approximated by :

- Taccess =  $T_{avg}$  seek +  $T_{avg}$  rotation +  $T_{avg}$  transfer
- Seek time (T<sub>avg</sub> seek)
  - Time to position heads over cylinder containing target sector.
  - Typical T<sub>avg</sub> seek is 3—9 ms
- Rotational latency (T<sub>avg</sub> rotation)
  - Time waiting for first bit of target sector to pass under r/w head.
  - $T_{avg}$  rotation =  $1/2 \times 1/RPMs \times 60 \sec/1 \min$
  - Typical T<sub>avg</sub> rotation = 7200 RPMs
- Transfer time (T<sub>avg</sub> transfer)
  - Time to read the bits in the target sector.
  - $T_{avg}$  transfer = 1/RPM x 1/(avg # sectors/track) x 60 secs/1 min.

### **Disk Access Time Example**

#### Given:

- Rotational rate = 7,200 RPM
- Average seek time = 9 ms.
- Avg # sectors/track = 400.

#### Derived:

- $T_{avg}$  rotation = 1/2 x (60 secs/7200 RPM) x 1000 ms/sec = 4 ms.
- T<sub>avg</sub> transfer = 60/7200 RPM x 1/400 secs/track x 1000 ms/sec = 0.02 ms
- $T_{access} = 9 \text{ ms} + 4 \text{ ms} + 0.02 \text{ ms}$

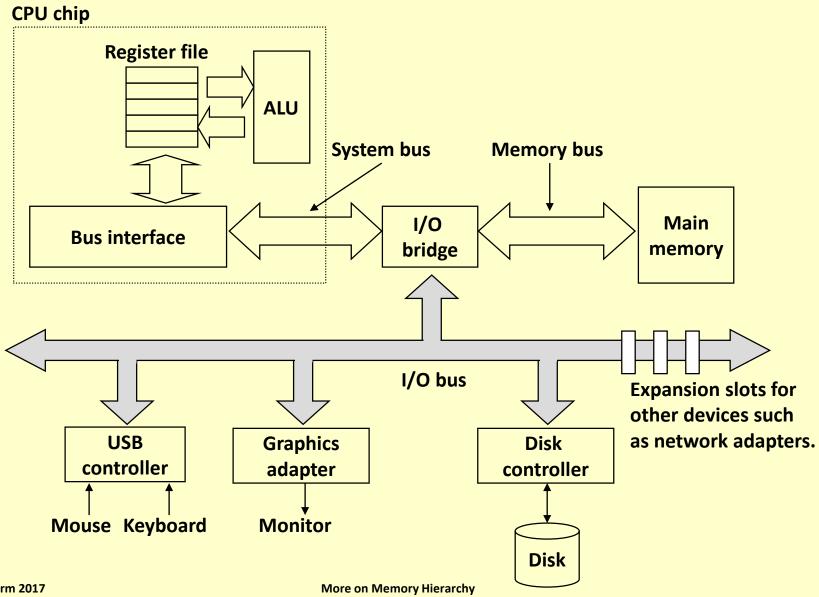
#### Important points:

- Access time dominated by seek time and rotational latency.
- First bit in a sector is the most expensive, the rest are free.
- SRAM access time is about 4 ns/doubleword, DRAM about 60 ns
  - Disk is about 40,000 times slower than SRAM,
  - 2,500 times slower then DRAM.

### **Logical Disk Blocks**

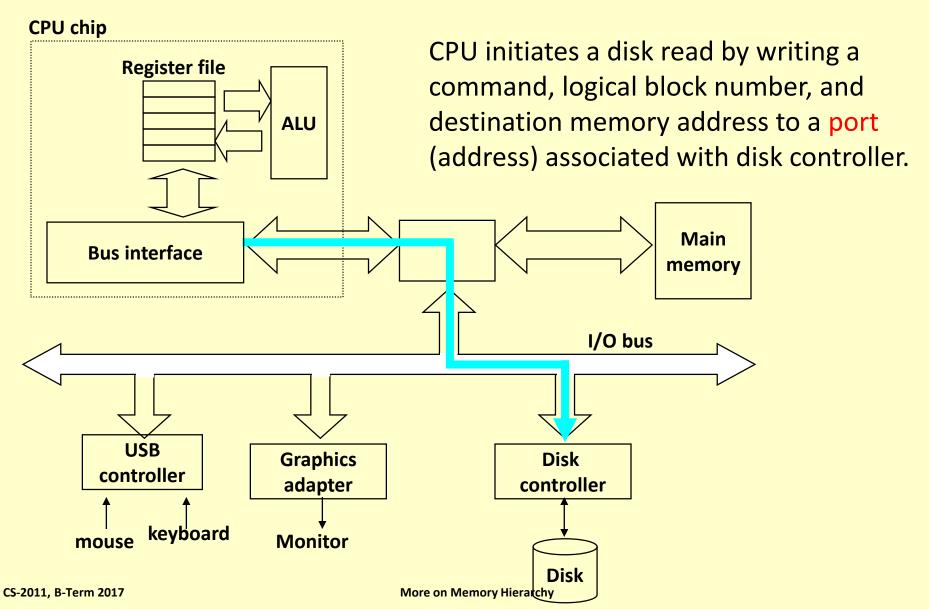
- Modern disks present a simpler abstract view of the complex sector geometry:
  - The set of available sectors is modeled as a sequence of b-sized logical blocks (0, 1, 2, ...)
- Mapping between logical blocks and actual (physical) sectors
  - Maintained by hardware/firmware device called disk controller
  - Converts requests for logical blocks into (surface,track,sector) triples
- Allows controller to set aside spare cylinders for each zone.
  - Accounts for the difference in "formatted capacity" and "maximum capacity"

# I/O Bus

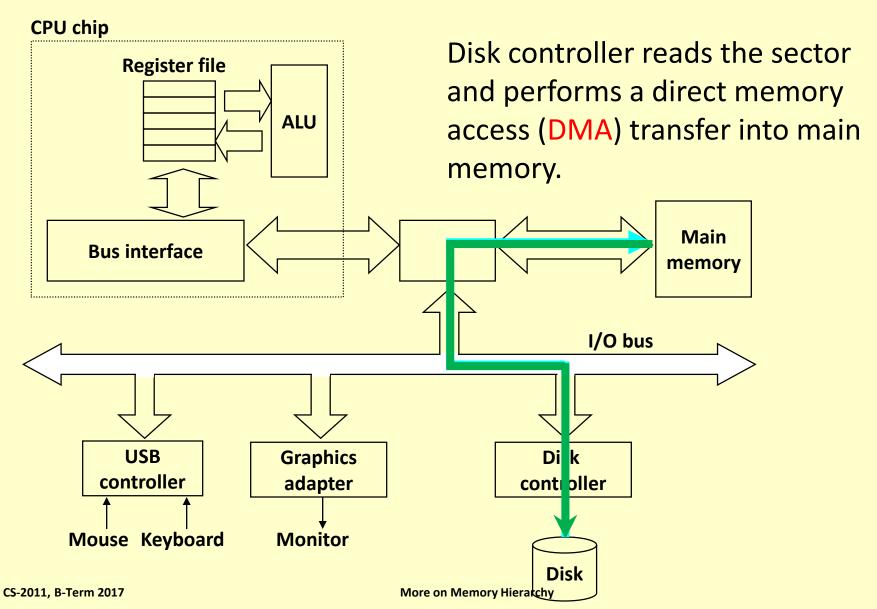


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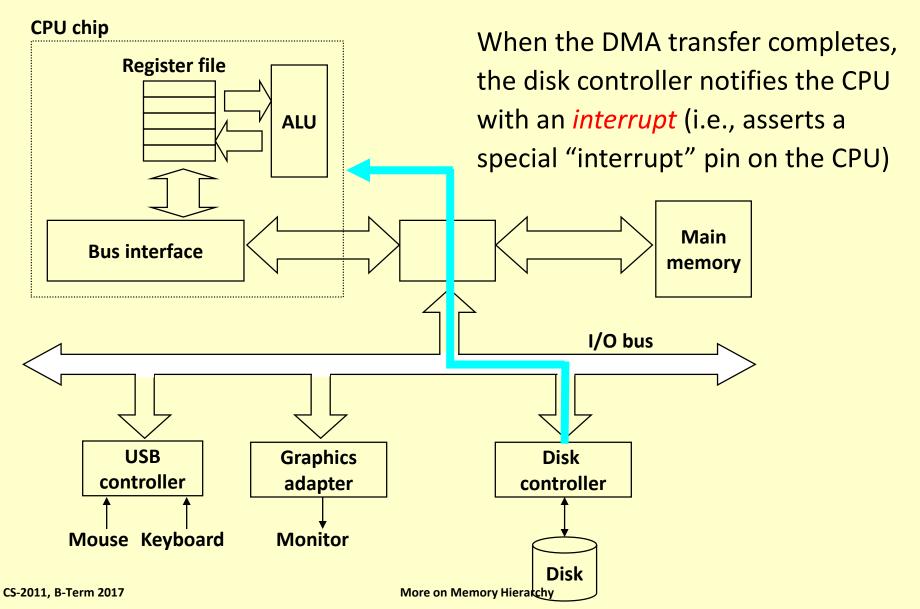
# Reading a Disk Sector (1)



# Reading a Disk Sector (2)



# Reading a Disk Sector (3)



# **Questions?**