Memory Organization

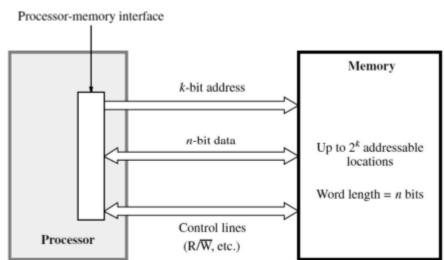
Outline

- Semiconductor Memory
- CPU-Memory Interaction
- Organization of Memory Modules
- Cache Memory
- Cache Mapping and Replacement Policies
- Virtual Memory

- Books Recommended:
- 1. John L. Hannessy, David A. Patterson, "Computer organization and Design", 3/E, Morgan Kaufmaan, reprint -2003.
- 2. Andrew S. Tanenbaum, "Structured Computer Organization", 6/E, PHI EEE, reprint 1995.
- 3. William Stallings, "Computer Organization & Architecture: Designing For Performance", 6/E, PHI, 2002.
- 4. Carl Hamacher, Zvonko Vranesic, Safwat Zaky, "Computer Organization", 5/E, McGraw-Hill, 2002.
- 5. Morris Mano, "Computer Systems Architecture", 3/E, PHI, reprint 1997.

Memory

- Programs and the data they operate on are held in the memory of the computer
- The maximum size of the memory that can be used in any computer is determined by the addressing scheme.
- For example, a computer that generates 16-bit addresses is capable of addressing up to $2^16 = 64$ K (kilo) memory locations.
- Machines whose instructions generate 32-bit addresses can utilize a memory that contains up to 2^32 = 4G (giga) locations,



Memory

 If memory is having 12 address lines and 8 data lines, then Number of registers/memory locations= 2^N = 2^12 = 4096 Word length = M bit = 8 bit

Memory capacity	Address Lines Required
1K = 1024 memory locations	10
2K = 2048 memory locations	11
4K=4096 memory locations	12
8K = 8192 memory locations	13
16K = 16384 memory locations	14
32K = 32768 memory locations	15
64K = 65536 memory locations	16

Characteristics of Memory Systems

- Location
 - Internal
 - External
- Capacity
 - Number of Words
 - Number of bytes
- Unit of Transfer
 - Word
 - Block
- Access Method
 - Sequential
 - Random
 - Associative

- Performance
 - Access Time
 - Cycle Time
 - Transfer Time
- Physical Type
 - Semi Conductor
 - Magnetic
 - Optical
 - Magneto-Optical
- Physical Characteristics
 - Volatile / Non volatile
 - Erasable/ Non Erasable
- Organization
 - Memory Modules

Characteristics of Memory Systems

Location

- Refers to whether memory is internal and external to the computer
- Internal memory is often equated with main memory
- Processor requires its own local memory, in the form of registers
- Cache is another form of internal memory
- External memory consists of peripheral storage devices that are accessible to the processor via I/O controllers

Capacity

- Memory is typically expressed in terms of bytes
- Unit of transfer
 - For internal memory the unit of transfer is equal to the word size

Access Methods

Sequential access

Memory is organized into units of data called records

Access must be made in a specific linear sequence

Access time is variable

Random access

Each addressable location in memory has a unique, physically wired-in addressing mechanism

The time to access a given location is independent of the sequence of prior accesses and is constant

Any location can be selected at random and directly addressed and accessed

Main memory and some cache systems are random access

Associative

A word is retrieved based on a portion of its contents rather than its address

Each location has its own addressing mechanism and retrieval time is constant independent of location or prior access patterns

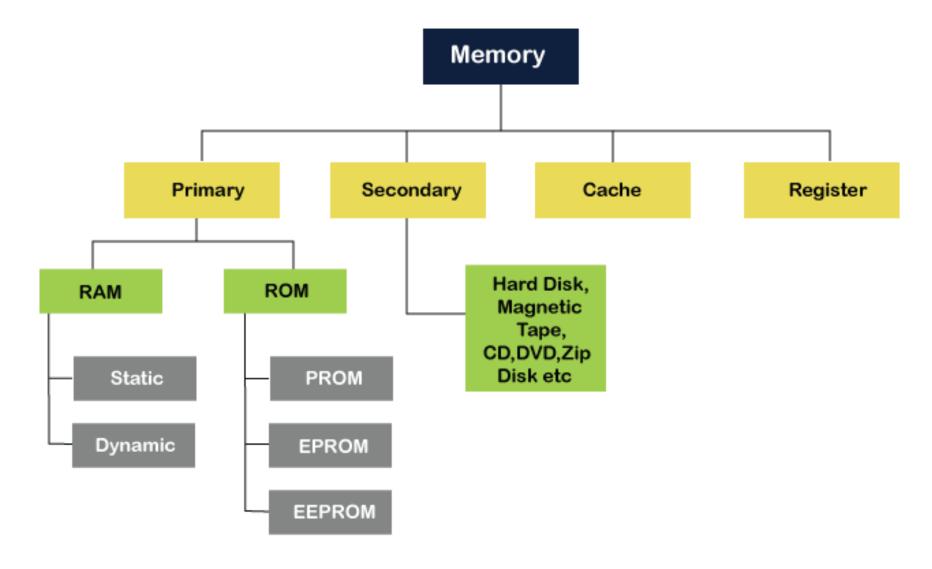
Cache memories may employ associative access

Performance

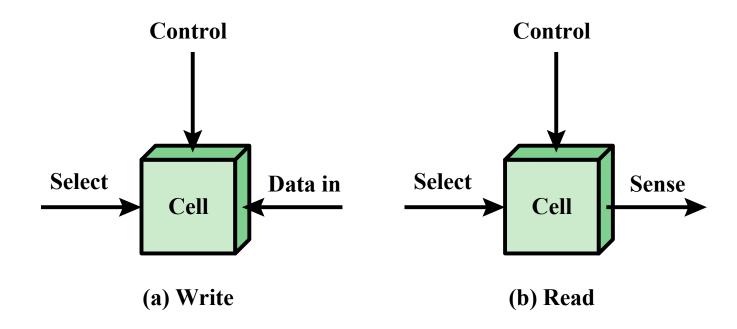
- The performance of the memory system is determined using three parameters:
 - Access time: In case of random access memory, it is the time taken by memory to complete read/ write operation from the instant that an address is sent to the memory. On the other hand, for nonrandom access memory, access time is the time it takes to position the read-write mechanism at the desired location.
 - Memory cycle time: This term is used only in concern with random access memory and it is defined as access time plus additional time required before a second access can commence.
 - Transfer rate: It is defined as the rate at which data can be transferred into or out of a memory unit.

- Physical Type: Two most common physical types used today are semiconductor memory and magnetic surface memory.
- Physical characteristics:
 - I. Volatile/Nonvolatile: If memory can hold data even if power is turned off, it is called as nonvolatile memory; otherwise it is called as volatile memory.
 - II. Erasable/Nonerasable: The memories in which data is once programmed cannot be erased are called as nonerasable memories. On the other hand, if data in the memory is erasable then memory is called as erasable memory

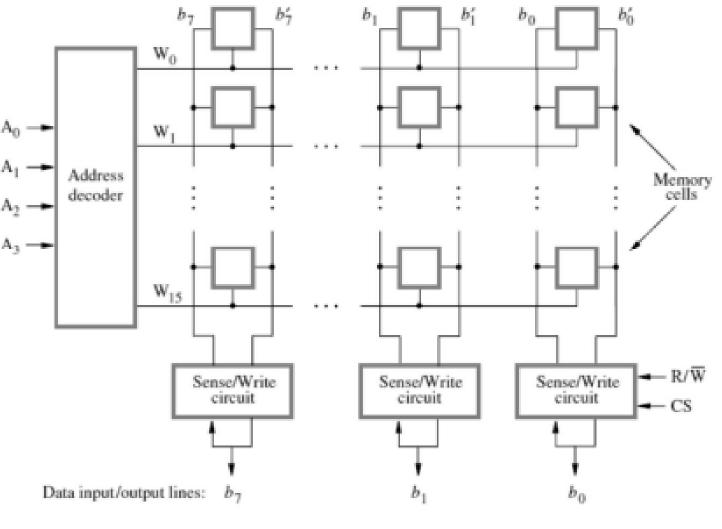
Memory



Memory Cell Operation



nternal Organization of Memory Chips



- Memory cells are usually organized in the form of an array, in which each cell is capable of storing one bit of information
- Each row of cells constitutes a memory word, and all cells of a row are connected to a common line referred to as the word line, which is driven by the address decoder on the chip.
- The cells in each column are connected to a Sense/Write circuit by two bit lines, and the Sense/Write circuits are connected to the data input/output lines of the chip.
- During a Read operation, these circuits sense, or read, the information stored in the cells selected by a word line and place this information on the output data lines.
- During a Write operation, the Sense/Write circuits receive input data and store them in the cells of the selected word.

16 × 8 organization

Primary Memory

- Primary memory is also known as the computer system's main memory
- Random Access Memory
 - Volatile
 - SRAM
 - Digital device that uses the same logic elements used in the processor
 - Binary values are stored using traditional flip-flop logic gate configurations
 - Will hold its data as long as power is supplied to it
 - DRAM
 - Made with cells that store data as charge on capacitors
 - Presence or absence of charge in a capacitor is interpreted as a binary 1 or 0
 - Requires periodic charge refreshing to maintain data storage

Primary Memory

- Read Only Memory
- No power source is required to maintain the bit values in memory
- Data or program is permanently in main memory and never needs to be loaded from a secondary storage device
- Data is actually wired into the chip as part of the fabrication process
 - Disadvantages of this:
 - No room for error, if one bit is wrong the whole batch of ROMs must be thrown out
 - Data insertion step includes a relatively large fixed cost

Primary Memory

Random Access Memory

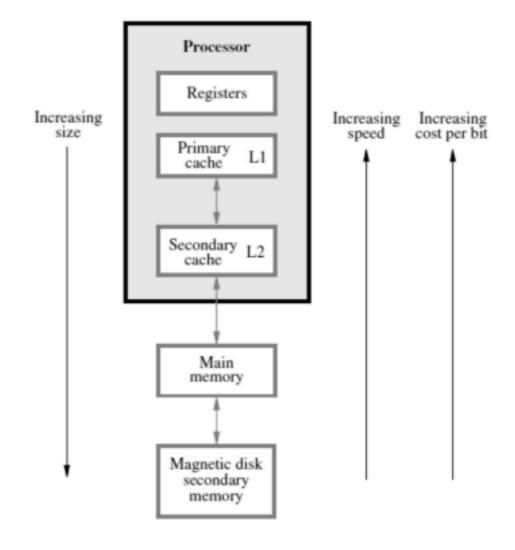
Read Only Memory

Memory Type	Category	Erasure	Write Mechanism	Volatility
Random-access memory (RAM)	Read-write memory	Electrically, byte-level	Electrically	Volatile
Read-only memory (ROM)	Read-only memory	Not possible	Masks	
Programmable ROM (PROM)			Electrically	Nonvolatile
Erasable PROM (EPROM)	Read-mostly memory	UV light, chip- level		
Electrically Erasable PROM (EEPROM)		Electrically, byte-level		
Flash memory		Electrically, block-level		

Secondary Memory

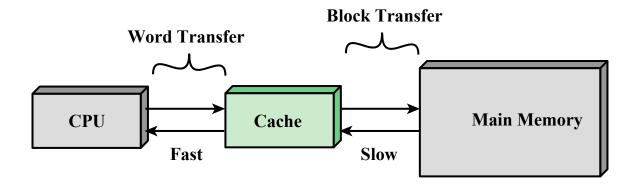
- is a **permanent storage** space to hold a large amount of data.
- It is also known as external memory that representing the various storage media (hard drives, USB, CDs, flash drives and DVDs) on which the computer data and program can be saved on a long term basis.
- However, it is cheaper and slower than the main memory. Unlike primary memory, secondary memory cannot be accessed directly by the CPU. Instead of that, secondary memory data is first loaded into the RAM (Random Access Memory) and then sent to the processor to read and update the data.
- Secondary memory devices also include magnetic disks like hard disk and floppy disks, an optical disk such as CDs and CDROMs, and magnetic tapes.

Memory Hierarchy

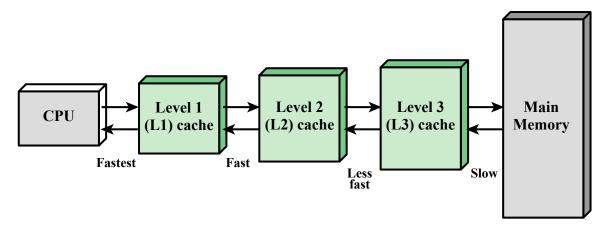


Cache Memory

- It is a small-sized chip-based computer memory that lies between the CPU and the main memory.
- It is a faster, high performance and temporary memory to enhance the performance of the CPU.
- It stores all the data and instructions that are often used by computer CPUs.
- Locality of Reference
 - Temporal Locality
 - This type of optimization includes bringing in the frequently accessed memory references to a nearby memory location for a short duration of time so that the future accesses are much faster.
 - Spatial Locality
 - if a memory location has been accessed it is highly likely that a nearby/consecutive memory location will be accessed as well and hence we bring in the nearby memory references too in a nearby memory location for faster access.



(a) Single cache



(b) Three-level cache organization

Cache

- Cache Hit
- Cache Miss

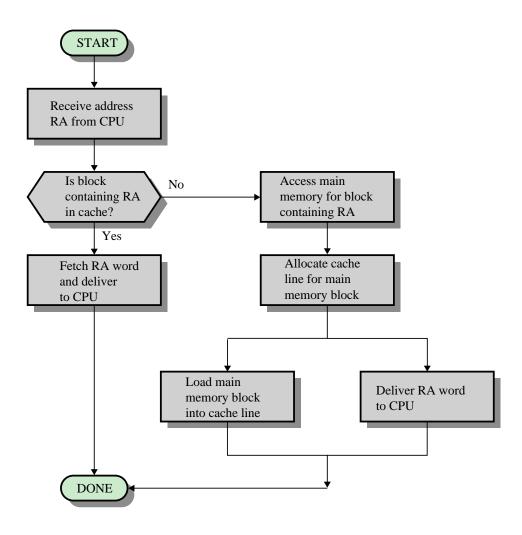
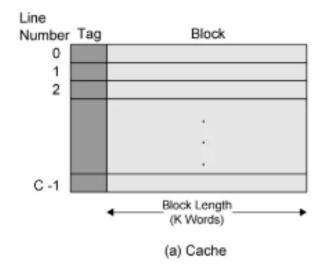
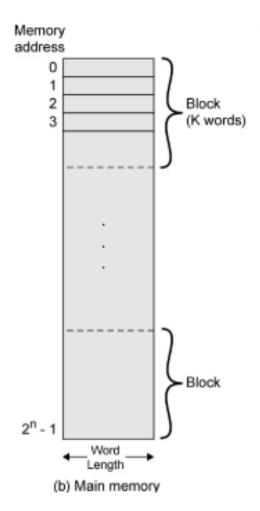


Figure 4.5 Cache Read Operation

Cache/Main Memory Structure

- Main memory is divided into equal size partitions called as blocks or frames.
- Cache memory is divided into partitions having same size as that of blocks called as lines.
- During cache mapping, block of main memory is simply copied to the cache and the block is not actually brought from the main memory.



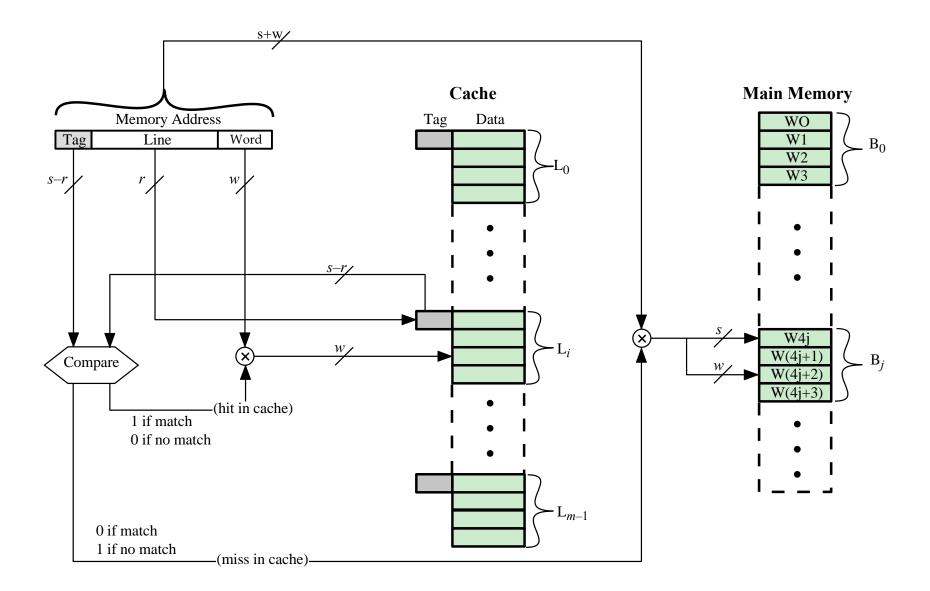


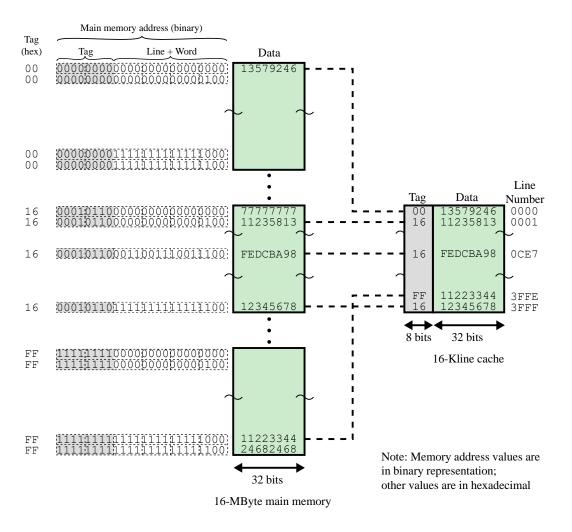
Mapping Function

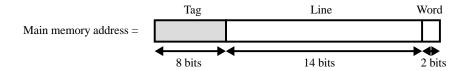
- Cache mapping defines how a block from the main memory is mapped to the cache memory in case of a cache miss.
- Cache includes tags to identify which block of main memory is in each cache slot
- Cache mapping is a technique by which the contents of main memory are brought into the cache memory.

Cache Mapping Techniques

- Direct Mapping
- Fully Associative Mapping
- K-way Set Associative Mapping







Direct Mapping Summary

- Address length = (s + w) bits
- Number of addressable units = 2^{s+w} words or bytes
- Block size = line size = 2^w words or bytes
- Number of blocks in main memory = $2^{s+w}/2^w = 2^s$
- Number of lines in cache = m = 2^r
- Size of tag = (s r) bits

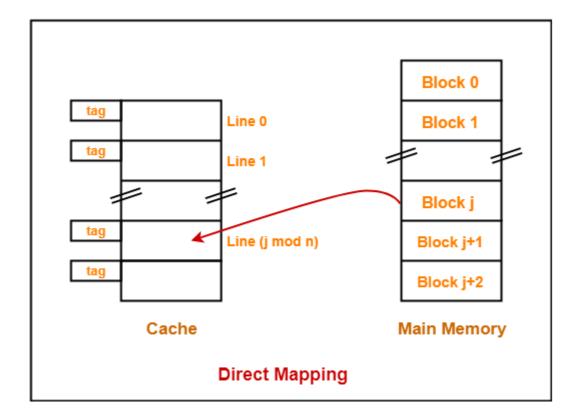
Direct Mapping

 A particular block of main memory can map only to a particular line of the cache.

The line number of cache to which a particular block can map is given by-

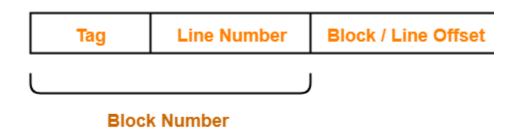
Cache line number= (Main Memory Block Address) Modulo (Number of

lines in Cache)

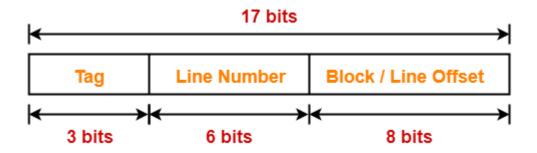


Direct Mapping

- Cache memory size = 16 KB
- Block size = Frame size = Line size = 256 bytes
- Main memory size = 128 KB



Division of Physical Address in Direct Mapping



Tag Directory Size-

Tag directory size

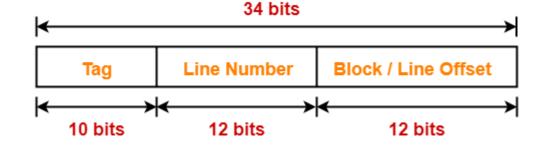
- = Number of tags x Tag size
- = Number of lines in cache x Number of bits in tag
- $= 2^6 \times 3 \text{ bits}$
- = 192 bits
- = 24 bytes

Thus, size of tag directory = 24 bytes

- Block size = Frame size = Line size = 4 KB
- Size of main memory = 16 GB
- Number of bits in tag = 10 bits
- Find:
 - Size of cache memory
 - Tag directory size

- Number of Lines in Cache-
- Number of bits in line number = 12 bits
- Total number of lines in cache = 2^{12} lines

Size of Cache Memory-



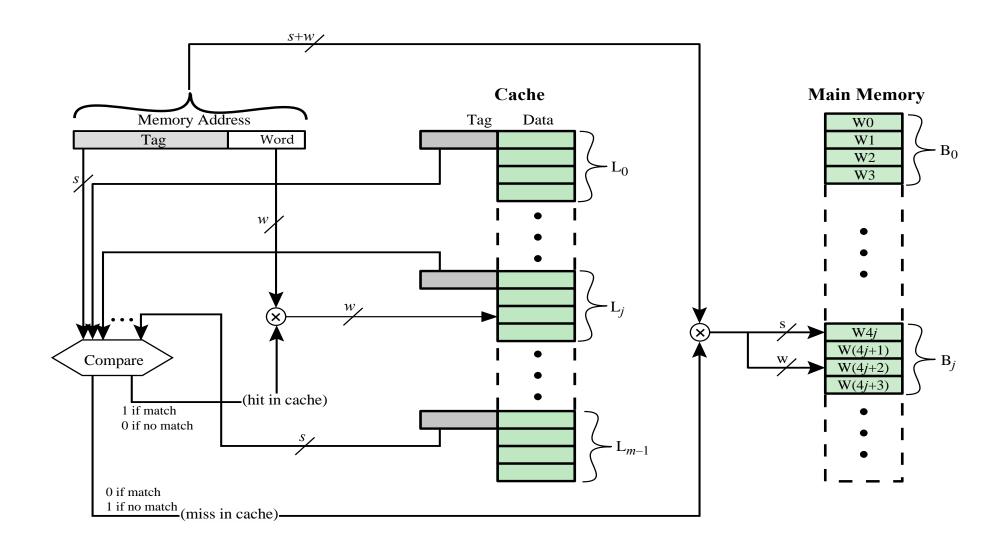
- Size of cache memory
- = Total number of lines in cache x Line size
- $\bullet = 2^{12} \times 4 \text{ KB}$
- = 2^{14} KB
- = 16 MB
- Size of cache memory = 16 MB

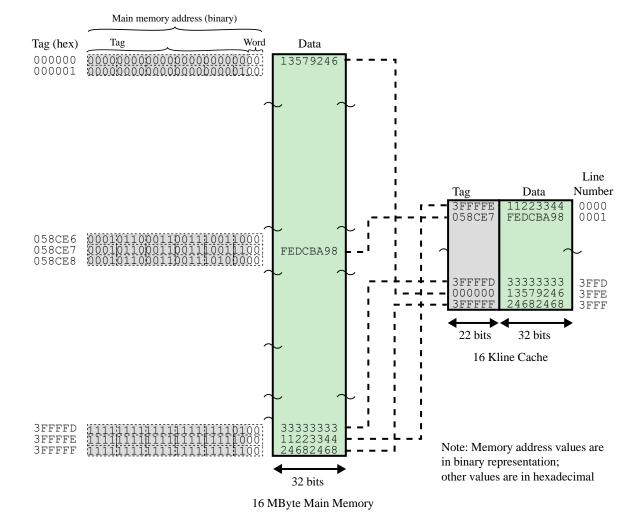
Consider a direct mapped cache with 8 cache blocks (0-7). If the memory block requests are in the order-3, 5, 2, 8, 0, 6, 3, 9, 16, 20, 17, 25, 18, 30, 24, 2, 63, 5, 82, 17, 24. calculate the hit ratio and miss ratio.

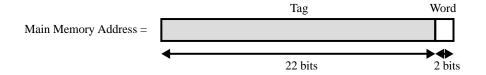
Line-0	<i>8</i> , <i>8</i> , 18, 24
Line-1	<i>8</i> , 1∕1, 2∕5, 17
Line-2	<i>2</i> , 1 <i>8</i> , <i>2</i> , 82
Line-3	3
Line-4	20
Line-5	5
Line-6	∕ 8, 30
Line-7	63
	Cache Memory

Associative mapping

- Associative mapping overcomes the disadvantage of direct mapping by permitting each main memory block to be loaded into any line of the cache.
- In this case, the cache control logic interprets a memory address simply as a Tag and a Word field. The Tag field uniquely identifies a block of main memory.



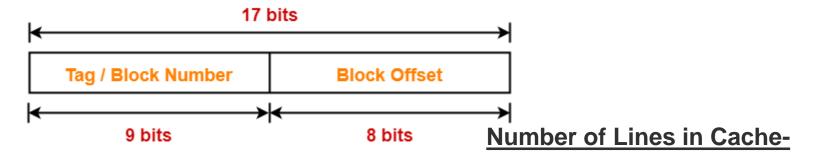




Associative Mapping Summary

- Address length = (s + w) bits
- Number of addressable units = 2^{s+w} words or bytes
- Block size = line size = 2^w words or bytes
- Number of blocks in main memory = 2^{s+ w}/2^w = 2^s
- Number of lines in cache = undetermined
- Size of tag = s bits

- Cache memory size = 16 KB
- Block size = Frame size = Line size = 256 bytes
- Main memory size = 128 KB
- Number of bits in tag=?
- Tag directory size=?



Total number of lines in cache

- = Cache size / Line size
- = 16 KB / 256 bytes
- = 2^{14} bytes / 2^8 bytes
- $= 2^6$ lines

Tag Directory Size-

Tag directory size

- = Number of tags x Tag size
- = Number of lines in cache x Number of bits in tag
- $= 2^6 \times 9 \text{ bits}$
- = 576 bits
- = 72 bytes

Thus, size of tag directory = 72 bytes

- Cache memory size = 512 KB
- Block size = Frame size = Line size = 1 KB
- Number of bits in tag = 17 bits

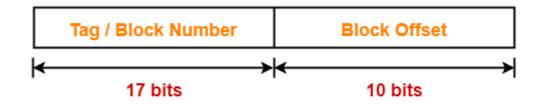
Size of main memory =?

Tag directory size=?

Size of Main Memory-

We have, Number of bits in physical address = 27 bits Thus, Size of main memory

- = 2²⁷ bytes
- = 128 MB



Number of Lines in Cache-

Total number of lines in cache

- = Cache size / Line size
- = 512 KB / 1 KB
- = 512 lines
- $= 2^9$ lines

Tag Directory Size-

Tag directory size

- = Number of tags x Tag size
- = Number of lines in cache x Number of bits in tag
- $= 2^9 \times 17 \text{ bits}$
- = 8704 bits
- = 1088 bytes

- Consider a fully associative cache with 8 cache blocks (0-7). The memory block requests are in the order- 4, 3, 25, 8, 19, 6, 25, 8, 16, 35, 45, 22, 8, 3, 16, 25, 7
- If LRU replacement policy is used, which cache block will have memory block 7? Also, calculate the hit ratio and miss ratio.

- There are 8 blocks in cache memory numbered from 0 to 7.
- In fully associative mapping, any block of main memory can be mapped to any line of the cache that is freely available.
- If all the cache lines are already occupied, then a block is replaced in accordance with the replacement policy

Line-0	4 , 45
Line-1	₺ , 22
Line-2	25
Line-3	8
Line-4	1⁄9, 3
Line-5	% , 7
Line-6	16
Line-7	35
	Cache Memory

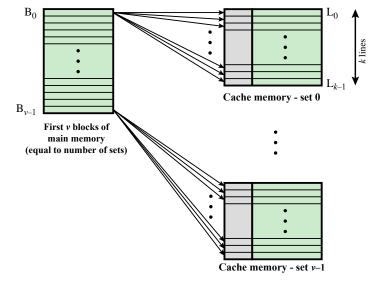
•Line-5 contains the block-7.

•Hit ratio = 5 / 17

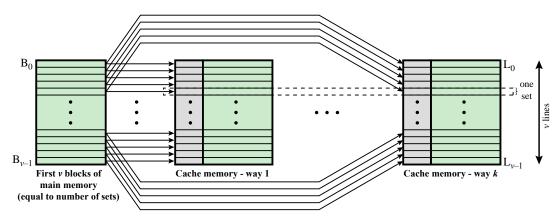
•Miss ratio = 12 / 17

Set Associative Mapping

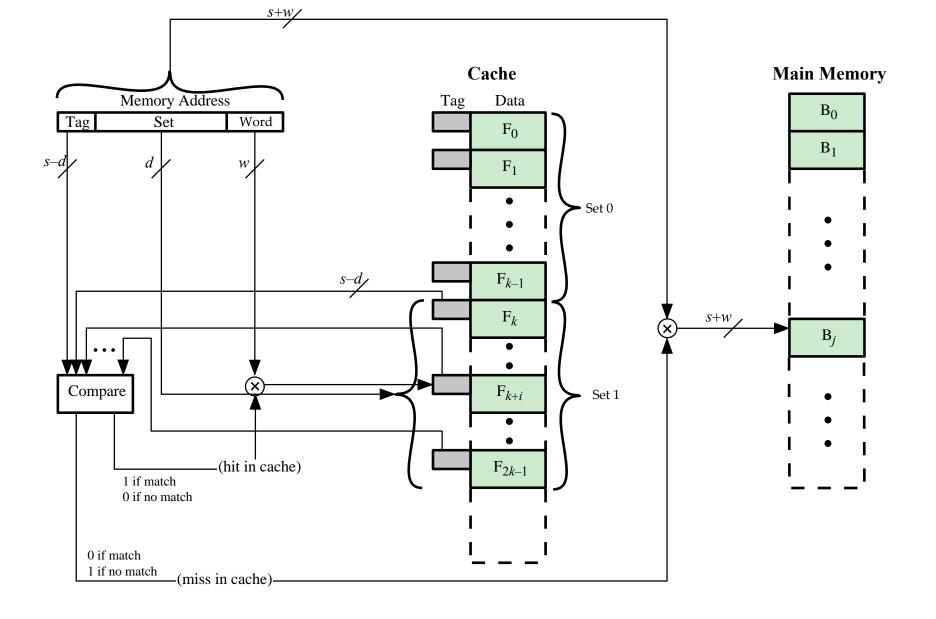
- Compromise that exhibits the strengths of both the direct and associative approaches while reducing their disadvantages
- Cache consists of a number of sets
- Each set contains a number of lines
- A given block maps to any line in a given set
- e.g. 2 lines per set
 - 2 way associative mapping
 - A given block can be in one of 2 lines in only one set



(a) v associative-mapped caches

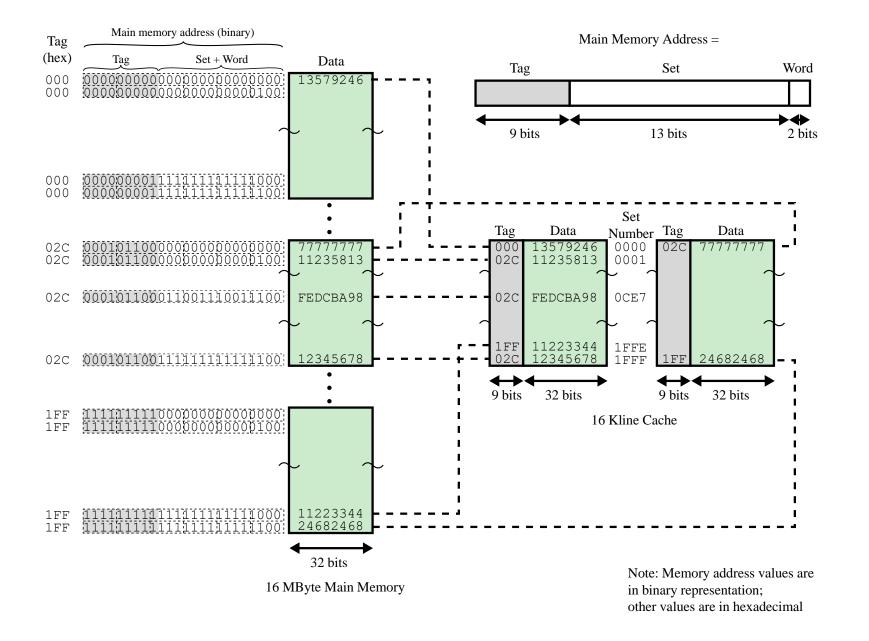


(b) k direct-mapped caches



Set Associative Mapping Summary

- Address length = (s + w) bits
- Number of addressable units = 2^{s+w} words or bytes
- Block size = line size = 2^w words or bytes
- Number of blocks in main memory = 2^{s+w/}2^{w=}2^s
- Number of lines in set = k
- Number of sets = v = 2^d
- Number of lines in cache = m=kv = k * 2^d
- Size of cache = $k * 2^{d+w}$ words or bytes
- Size of tag = (s d) bits



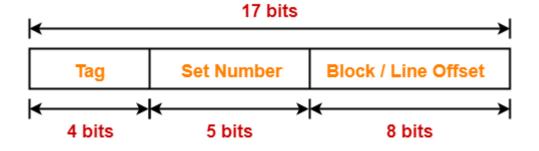
Set Associative Mapping Summary

- Cache set number
- = (Main Memory Block Address) Modulo (Number of sets in Cache)



Division of Physical Address in K-way Set Associative Mapping

- Consider a 2-way set associative mapped cache of size 16 KB with block size 256 bytes. The size of main memory is 128 KB. Find-
- Number of bits in tag
- Tag directory size



Number of Lines in Cache-

Total number of lines in cache

- = Cache size / Line size
- = 16 KB / 256 bytes
- = 2^{14} bytes / 2^8 bytes
- = 64 lines

Thus, Number of lines in cache = 64 lines

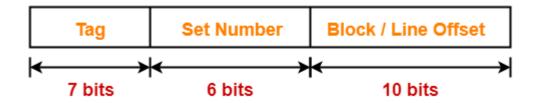
Number of Sets in Cache-

Total number of sets in cache

- = Total number of lines in cache / Set size
- = 64 / 2
- = 32 sets
- = 2⁵ sets

Thus, Number of bits in set number = 5 bits

- Consider a 8-way set associative mapped cache of size 512 KB with block size 1 KB. There are 7 bits in the tag. Find-
- Size of main memory
- Tag directory size



Consider a 4-way set associative mapping with 16 cache blocks. The memory block requests are in the order-0, 255, 1, 4, 3, 8, 133, 159, 216, 129, 63, 8, 48, 32, 73, 92, 155

- If LRU replacement policy is used, which cache block will not be present in the cache?
- 3
- 8
- 129
- 216

		_		
Line-0	∕ 8, 48]		
Line-1	4 , 32	0-4.0	Blocks requests in order Calculation of set number	
Line-2	8	Set-0	0 % 4 = 0	(Miss)
Line-3	216, 92		255 % 4 = 3	(Miss)
Line-4	1	1	1 % 4 = 1	(Miss)
Line-5	133	Set-1	4 % 4 = 0	(Miss)
Line-5	100		3 % 4 = 3	(Miss)
Line-6	129		8 % 4 = 0	(Miss)
Line-7	73		133 % 4 = 1	(Miss)
		1	159 % 4 = 3	(Miss)
Line-8			216 % 4 = 0	(Miss)
Line-9		0.40	129 % 4 = 1	(Miss)
Line-10		Set-2	63 % 4 = 3	(Miss)
			8 % 4 = 0	(Hit)
Line-11		J	48 % 4 = 0	(Miss)
Line-12	285, 155		32 % 4 = 0	(Miss)
Line-13	3	Set-3	73 % 4 = 1	(Miss)
	450		92 % 4 = 0	(Miss)
Line-14	159		155 % 4 = 3	(Miss)
Line-15	63	J		

Cache Memory

Replacement Algorithms

- Once the cache has been filled, when a new block is brought into the cache, one of the existing blocks must be replaced
- For direct mapping there is only one possible line for any particular block and no choice is possible
- For the associative and set-associative techniques a replacement algorithm is needed
- To achieve high speed, an algorithm must be implemented in hardware

The most common replacement algorithms are:

- Least recently used (LRU)
 - Most effective
 - Replace that block in the set that has been in the cache longest with no reference to it
 - Because of its simplicity of implementation, LRU is the most popular replacement algorithm
- First-in-first-out (FIFO)
 - Replace that block in the set that has been in the cache longest
 - Easily implemented as a round-robin or circular buffer technique
- Least frequently used (LFU)
 - Replace that block in the set that has experienced the fewest references
 - Could be implemented by associating a counter with each line

Write Policy

When a block that is resident in the cache is to be replaced there are two cases to consider:

If the old block in the cache has not been altered then it may be overwritten with a new block without first writing out the old block

If at least one write operation has been performed on a word in that line of the cache then main memory must be updated by writing the line of cache out to the block of memory before bringing in the new block

There are two problems to contend with:

J

More than one device may have access to main memory

-

A more complex problem occurs when multiple processors are attached to the same bus and each processor has its own local cache - if a word is altered in one cache it could conceivably invalidate a word in other caches

Write Through and Write Back

Write through

- Simplest technique
- All write operations are made to main memory as well as to the cache
- The main disadvantage of this technique is that it generates substantial memory traffic and may create a bottleneck

Write back

- Minimizes memory writes
- Updates are made only in the cache
- Portions of main memory are invalid and hence accesses by I/O modules can be allowed only through the cache
- This makes for complex circuitry and a potential bottleneck

Multilevel Caches

- As logic density has increased it has become possible to have a cache on the same chip as the processor
- The on-chip cache reduces the processor's external bus activity and speeds up execution time and increases overall system performance
 - When the requested instruction or data is found in the on-chip cache, the bus access is eliminated
 - On-chip cache accesses will complete appreciably faster than would even zero-wait state bus cycles
 - During this period the bus is free to support other transfers
- Two-level cache:
 - Internal cache designated as level 1 (L1)
 - External cache designated as level 2 (L2)
- Potential savings due to the use of an L2 cache depends on the hit rates in both the L1 and L2 caches
- The use of multilevel caches complicates all of the design issues related to caches, including size, replacement algorithm, and write policy

Memory Organization

Simultaneous Access Memory Organization

Average Memory Access Time

Average time required to access memory per operation

$$= H1 \times T1 + (1 - H1) \times H2 \times T2$$

Hierarchical Access Memory Organization

Average time required to access memory per operation

$$= H1 \times T1 + (1 - H1) \times H2 \times (T1 + T2)$$