

# Memory

## Introduction

1. This lesson covers the following:
  - Different types of memory
  - Why memory can't be large, fast, and cheap
  - How memory can store so many bits in a small physical space

## How Memory Works

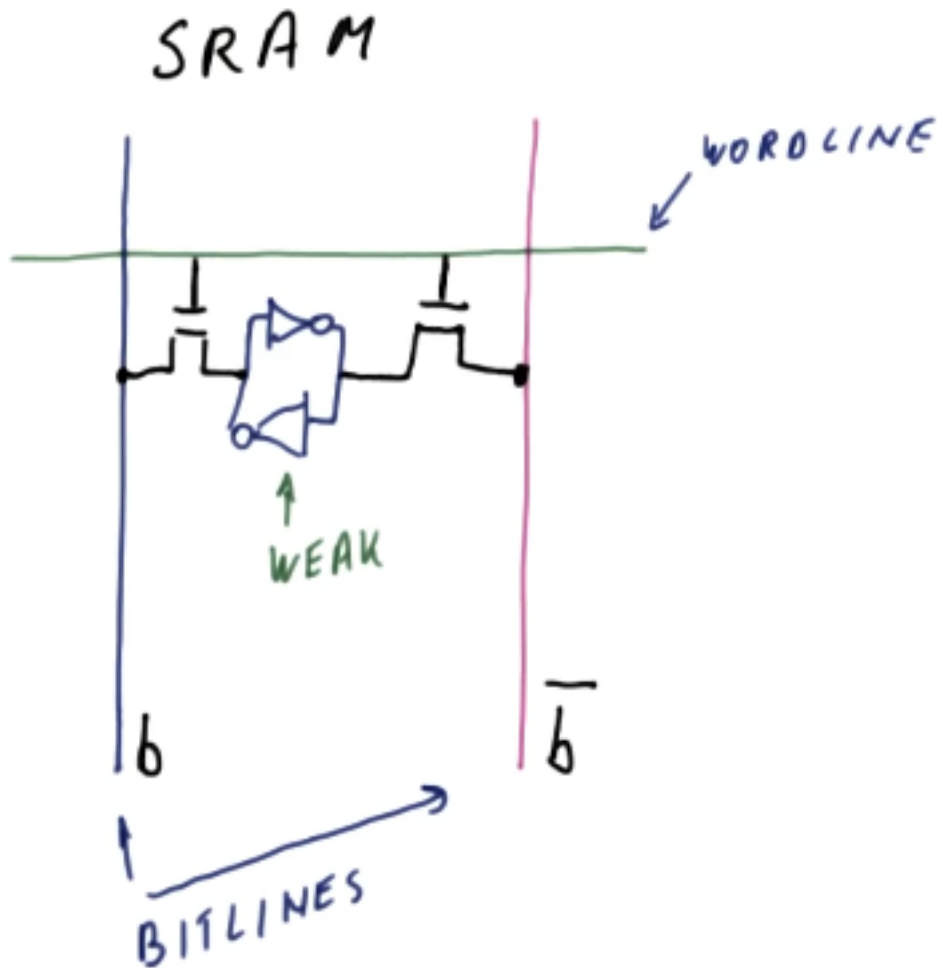
1. Memory technology: SRAM and DRAM
2. Why is memory slow?
3. Why don't we use cache-like memory?
4. What happens when we access main memory?
5. How do we make it faster?

## Memory Technology: SRAM and DRAM

1. SRAM: Static Random Access Memory
  - Static: SRAM retains data while power is supplied
  - Requires several transistors per bit
  - Typically faster
2. DRAM: Dynamic Random Access Memory
  - Dynamic: DRAM will lose data if we don't refresh it
  - Only requires one transistor per bit
  - Typically slower
3. Random access: Can access any memory location without going through all memory locations
  - As opposed to sequential access like a tape
4. SRAM and DRAM will lose data when power is not supplied

## One Memory Bit SRAM

1. Memory works by manipulating a wordline and bitline to read/write to an array of transistors
2. In SRAM, each cell has a double inverter (one inverter requires two transistors)
  - This feedback loop is what makes the memory static
  - The voltage output by the transistor is greater than the voltage output by the inverter loop, so they are easy to overwrite
  - Typically connect the inverters to two bit lines with a transistor in between each
    - Allows us to more easily detect changes because we can observe the difference in voltage between the two bitlines
3. SRAM is a 6T cell (6 transistors)

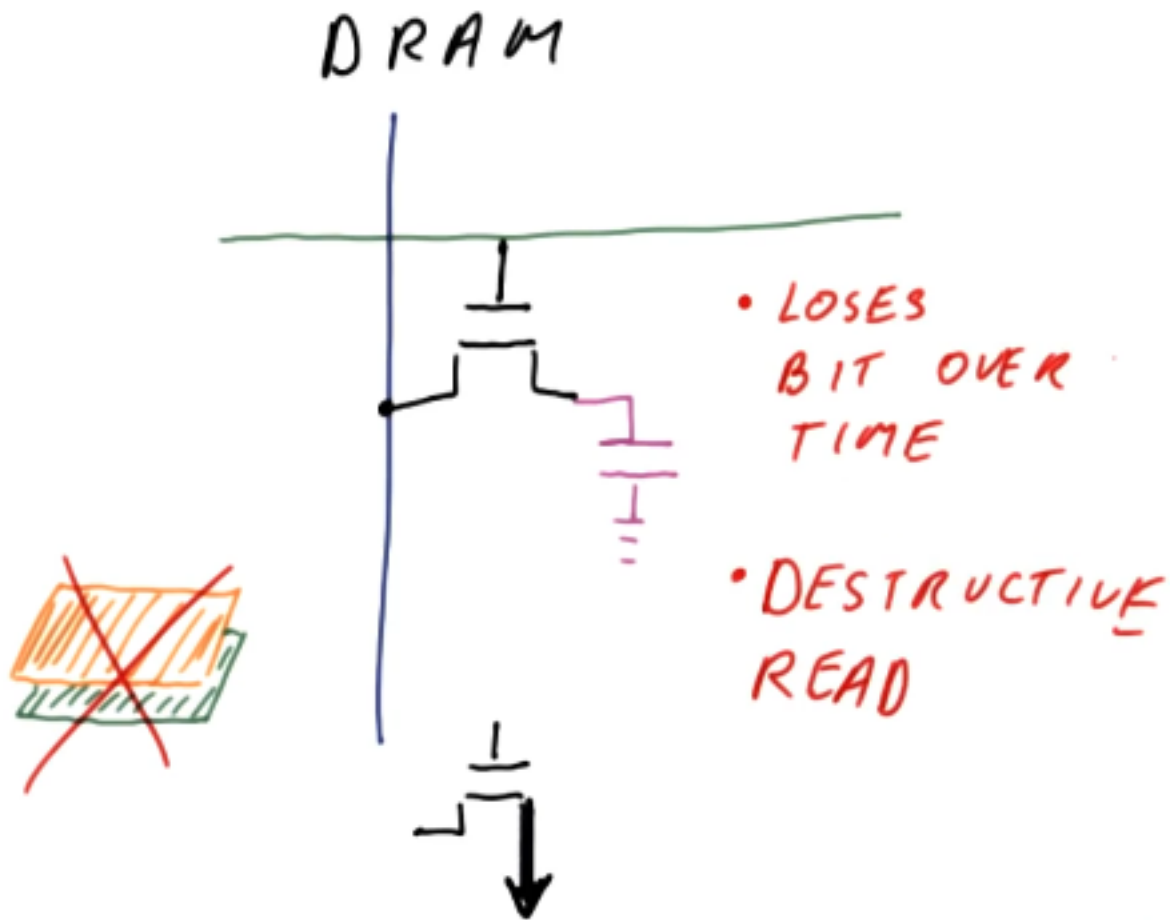


One Bit Memory SRAM

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## One Memory Bit DRAM

1. Implemented with a single capacitor
  - When we activate the bitline, the capacitor is charged with a 1
  - When we deactivate the bitline, the capacitor is discharged to a 0
2. Transistor is not a perfect switch, it's a little bit leaky
  - In SRAM, the inverter loop keeps the charge
  - In DRAM, the capacitor loses charge, so we need to periodically refresh it
3. Destructive read: Opening the wordline to read the value causes the capacitor to lose some charge
  - When we perform a read, we also need to recharge the capacitor
4. DRAM is a 1T cell (1 transistor)
5. Area of a DRAM cell is area of transistor plus area of capacitor
  - Bigger capacitors allow for the charge to be maintained longer
  - Capacitor is buried beneath the silicon, so the effective area is the area of the transistor ("trench cell")
  - DRAM also only requires one bitline



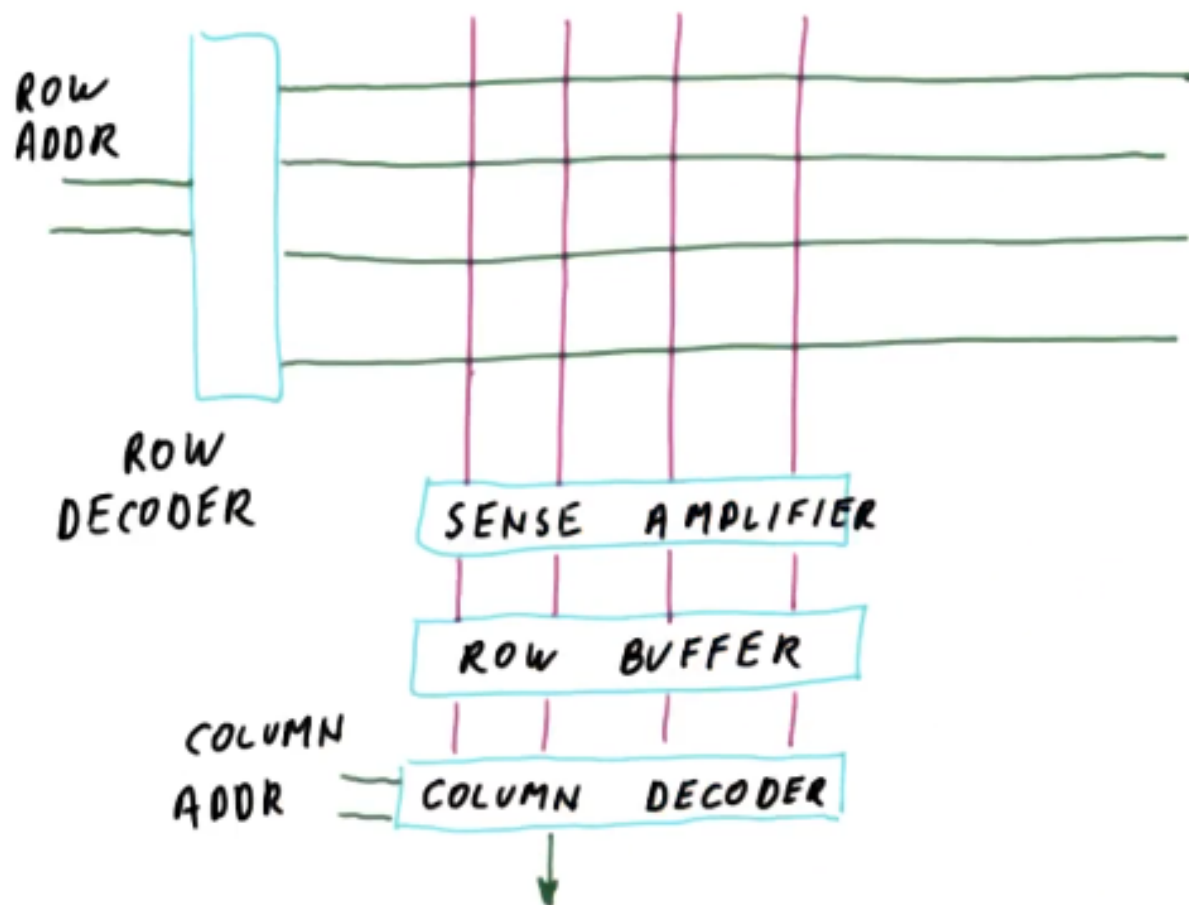
One Bit Memory DRAM

## DRAM Technology Quiz

1. What not use a “normal” transistor and a capacitor when making DRAM?
  - Trench cell is easier to make (false)
  - Trench cell is more reliable (false)
  - Trench cell lets us make cheaper DRAM chips (true)

## Memory Chip Organization Part 1

1. Row decoder takes a row address and determines which wordline to read
  - Detects multiple cells to the bitline
2. Bitlines are connected to a sense amplifier
  - Helps the cell raise or lower the voltage on a bitline
  - Only need one at end of bitline, not one per cell
3. Output of sense amplifier goes to a row buffer
4. Row buffer goes to column decoder
  - Column address is input to the column decoder to pick one bit from the row
5. If we want to be able to read more than one bit at a time, we replicate this structure



## Memory Organization

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### Memory Chip Organization Part 2

1. After the bit is read, the sense amplifier is reversed to write the values back
  - This is due to the fact that reads to DRAM are destructive
2. DRAM is slower for two reasons
  - Destructive read requires writing the value back (read-then-write)
  - Cell does not pull the bitline as strongly, so the sense amplifier needs more time to determine the correct value
3. Refresh: Make sure each row is read at some regular interval
  - Refresh row counter: Iterates through the rows reading-then-writing each
  - Refresh period  $T$  (typically less than a second)
  - $N$  rows (modern memory has large  $N$ )

### Memory Refresh Quiz

1. Consider memory with the following parameters: \*4096 rows, 2048 columns
  - Refresh period is 500 microseconds
2. Read timing:
  - 4 ns to select a row
  - 10 ns for sense amplifier to get bit values

- 2 ns to put data in row buffer
  - 4 ns for column decoder
  - 11 ns to write data from sense amplifier to memory row
    - This is overlapped with putting data in row buffer and decoding
3. How many reads per second can this memory support?
- Read takes  $4 + 10 + \max(2 + 4, 11) = 25$  ns  $\rightarrow$  40 M refreshes per second
  - Refresh period is 500 microseconds, so we need to do 2000 refreshes per second
  - Refreshes per second =  $2000 * 4096 = 8.192$  M refreshes per second
  - Total reads =  $40\text{M} - 8.192\text{M} = 31808000$

## Memory Chip Organization Part 3

1. How do we write to memory?
  - Use the row address to select a row
  - Read all of the bits in the row and latch into the row buffer
  - Use the column decoder to select the correct bitline
  - Write the value to the row buffer
  - When the sense amplifier writes the data back, the memory will store the correct value
2. Write is a “read-then-write” operation

## Fast Page Mode

1. Once a word is read into the row buffer, we can read data directly from the row buffer instead of re-opening the page
2. Opening a page:
  - Row address
  - Select row
  - Sense amplifier
  - Latch into row buffer
3. Read/write
  - Reading and writing only modifies the row buffer
  - Can do this many times without having to close/reopen the page
4. Closing the page:
  - Write data from row buffer back to memory row

## DRAM Access Scheduling Quiz

1. DRAM has 32 1-bit arrays
2. Each array is 16 megabit array ( $2^{12}$  rows \*  $2^{12}$  bits per row)
3. Assume the following:
  - Page open: 10 ns
  - Read from row buffer: 2 ns
  - Page close: 5 ns
4. Consider the following set of memory accesses:
  - 0xF00F00
  - 0xE00F00
  - 0xF00E04
  - 0xE04F00
  - 0xE00E00
  - 0xF00123
  - 0x123F00
  - The upper three hex digits are the row address, the lower three are the column address
5. How long do these memory accesses take in the current order?
  - 0xF00F00 ( $10 + 2 + 5 = 17$ )

- 0xE00F00 ( $10 + 2 + 5 = 17$ )
  - 0xF00E04 ( $10 + 2 + 5 = 17$ )
  - 0xE04F00 ( $10 + 2 + 5 = 17$ )
  - 0xE00E00 ( $10 + 2 + 5 = 17$ )
  - 0xF00123 ( $10 + 2 + 5 = 17$ )
  - 0x123F00 ( $10 + 2 + 5 = 17$ )
  - $17 * 7 = 119$  ns
6. How long do these memory accesses take in the optimal reordering?
- 0xF00F00 ( $10 + 2 = 12$ )
  - 0xF00E04 (2)
  - 0xF00123 ( $2 + 5 = 7$ )
  - 0xE00E00 ( $10 + 2 = 12$ )
  - 0xE00F00 ( $2 + 5 = 7$ )
  - 0xE04F00 ( $10 + 2 + 5 = 17$ )
  - 0x123F00 ( $10 + 2 + 5 = 17$ )
  - Total =  $12 + 2 + 7 + 12 + 7 + 17 + 17 = 74$

## Connecting DRAM to the Processor

1. Want to be able to connect multiple memory chips to the same processor
  - Add a memory controller between the front-side bus and DRAM that connects the LLC to the memory
  - Memory channel connects memory controller to DRAM
2. Total memory latency includes the following:
  - Sending request to memory controller, its
  - Memory controller logic
  - Sending the data over the memory channel
  - Memory latency
  - Sending the data back over the memory channel
  - Sending the data back to the processor from the memory controller
3. Recent processors integrate the memory controller into the same chip as the processor and caches
  - Eliminates the need for the front-side bus to reduce latency (10-30%)
  - This means the processor is designed to work with a specific type of DRAM
    - Required standardizing memory construction

## Conclusion

1. Examined how DRAM and SRAM works
2. Will examine disk drives which have a lower cost per bit but are much slower