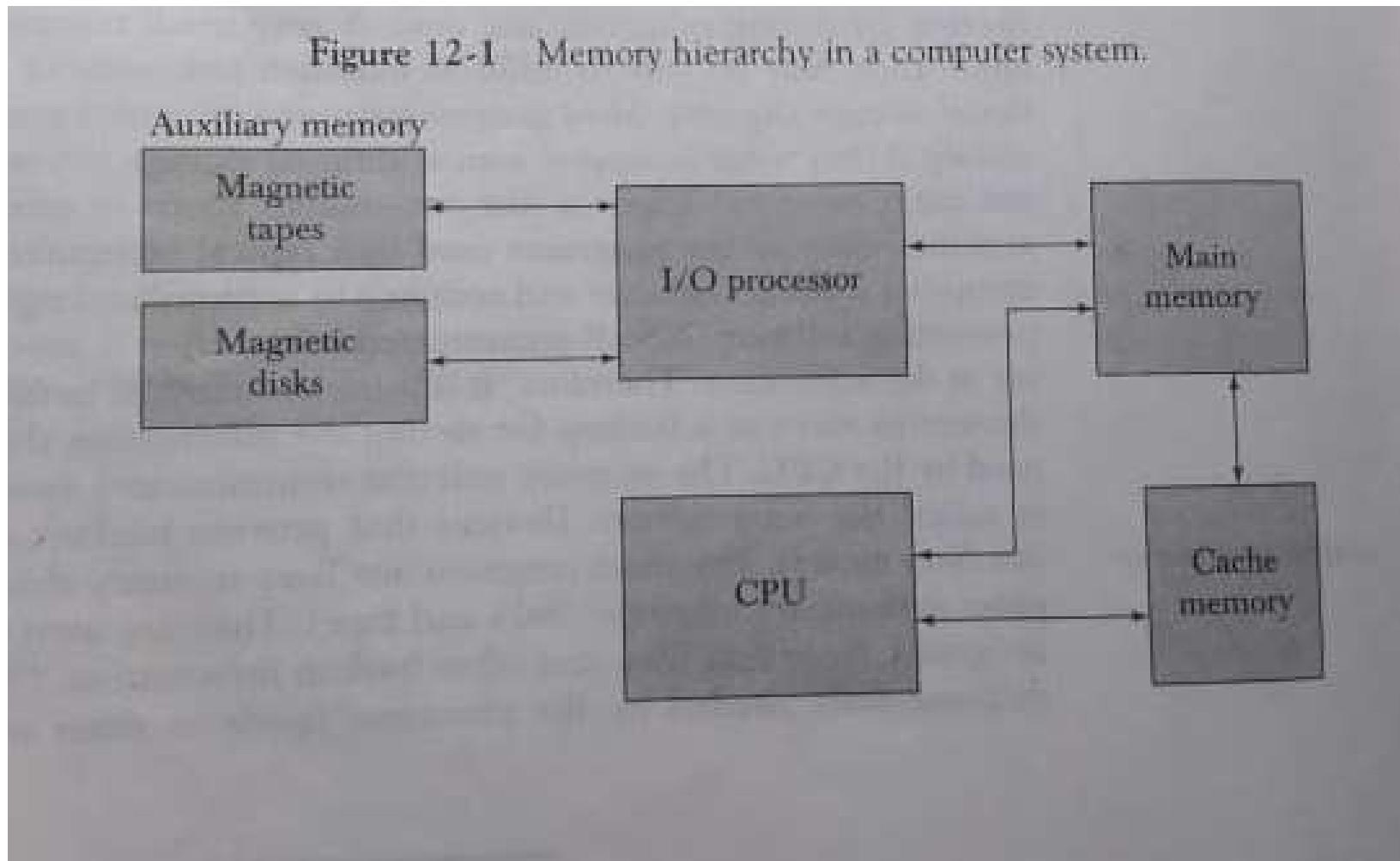


UNIT 4

Memory Organization: Memory Hierarchy, Main Memory, Auxiliary Memory, Associative Memory, Cache Memory - Mapping functions, Replacement algorithms, Write policies.

Memory Hierarchy



- The reason for having two or three levels of memory hierarchy is economics.
- As the storage capacity of the memory increases, the cost per bit for storing binary information decreases and the access time of the memory becomes longer.
- The auxiliary memory has a large storage capacity, is relatively inexpensive, but has low access speed compared to main memory.

- The cache memory is very small, relatively expensive, and has very high access speed.
- Thus, as the memory access speed increases, so does its relative cost.
- The overall goal of using a memory hierarchy is to obtain the highest-possible average access speed while minimizing the total cost of the entire memory system.

- Auxiliary and cache memories are used for different purposes.
- The cache holds those parts of the program and data that are most heavily used, while the auxiliary memory holds those parts that are not presently used by the CPU.
- Moreover, the CPU has direct access to both cache and main memory but not to auxiliary memory.
- The transfer from auxiliary to main memory is usually done by means of direct memory access of large blocks of data.

- The typical access time ratio between cache and main memory is about 1 to 7.
- For example, a typical cache memory may have an access time of 100 ns, while main memory access time may be 700 ns.
- Auxiliary memory average access time is usually 1000 times that of main memory.
- Block size in auxiliary memory typically ranges from 256 to 2048 words, while cache block size is typically from 1 to 16 words.

Main Memory

- The principal technology used for the main memory is based on **semiconductor integrated circuits**.
- Integrated circuit **RAM chips** are available in two possible operating modes, **static and dynamic**.
- The **dynamic RAM** offers **reduced power consumption** and **larger storage capacity** in a single memory chip.
- The **static RAM** is easier to use and **has shorter read and write cycles**.

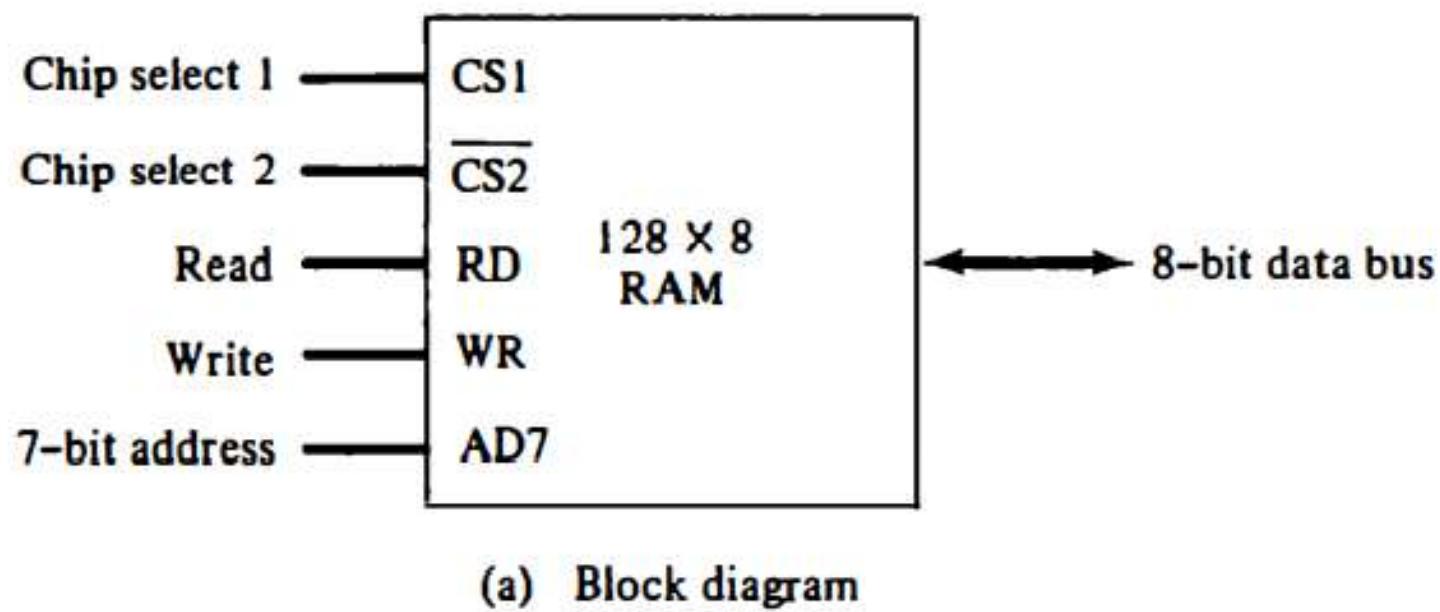
- One of the major applications of the **static RAM** is in implementing the **cache memories**.
- The **dynamic RAMs** are used for implementing the main memory.
- The **ROM portion** of main memory is needed for storing an **initial program** called a **bootstrap loader**.
- The **bootstrap loader** is a program whose function is to **start the computer** software operating when power is turned on.

- when power is turned on, the hardware of the computer sets the program counter to the first address of the bootstrap loader.
- The bootstrap program loads a portion of the operating system from disk to main memory and control is then transferred to the operating system, which prepares the computer for general use.

RAM and ROM chips

- RAM and ROM chips are available in a variety of sizes.
- To demonstrate the chip interconnection, an example of a 1024 x 8 memory constructed with 128 x 8 RAM chips and 512 x 8 ROM chips.

Figure 12-2 Typical RAM chip.



CSI	CS2	RD	WR	Memory function	State of data bus
0	0	x	x	Inhibit	High-impedance
0	1	x	x	Inhibit	High-impedance
1	0	0	0	Inhibit	High-impedance
1	0	0	1	Write	Input data to RAM
1	0	1	x	Read	Output data from RAM
1	1	x	x	Inhibit	High-impedance

(b) Function table

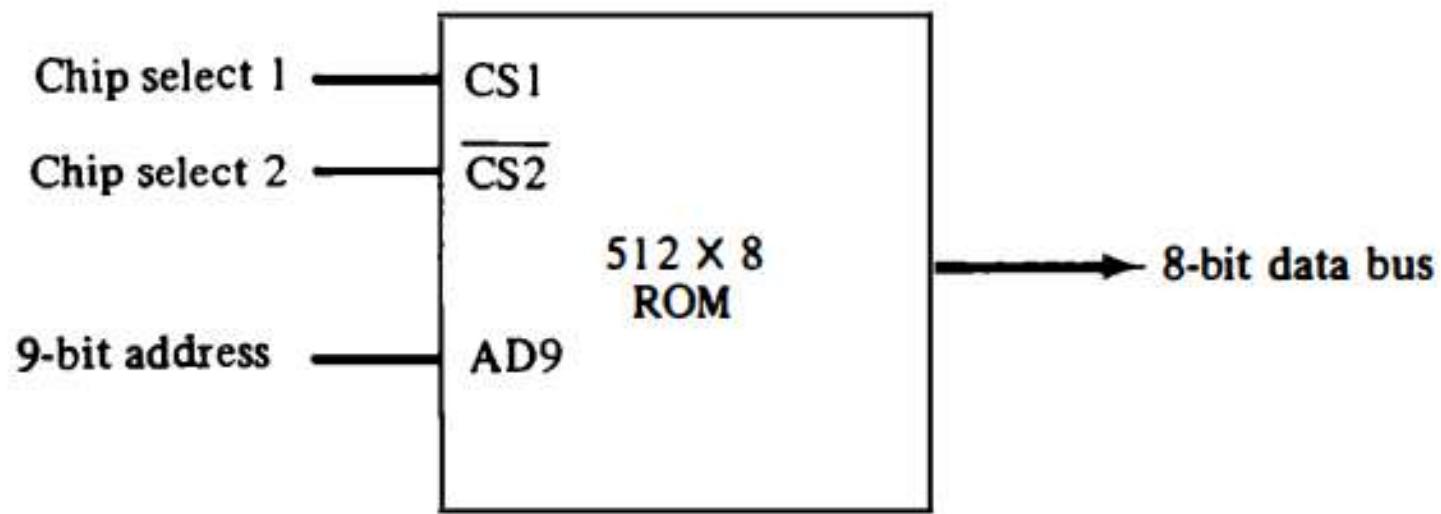


Figure 12-3 Typical ROM chip.

Memory Address Map

TABLE 12-1 Memory Address Map for Microprocessor

Memory Connection to CPU

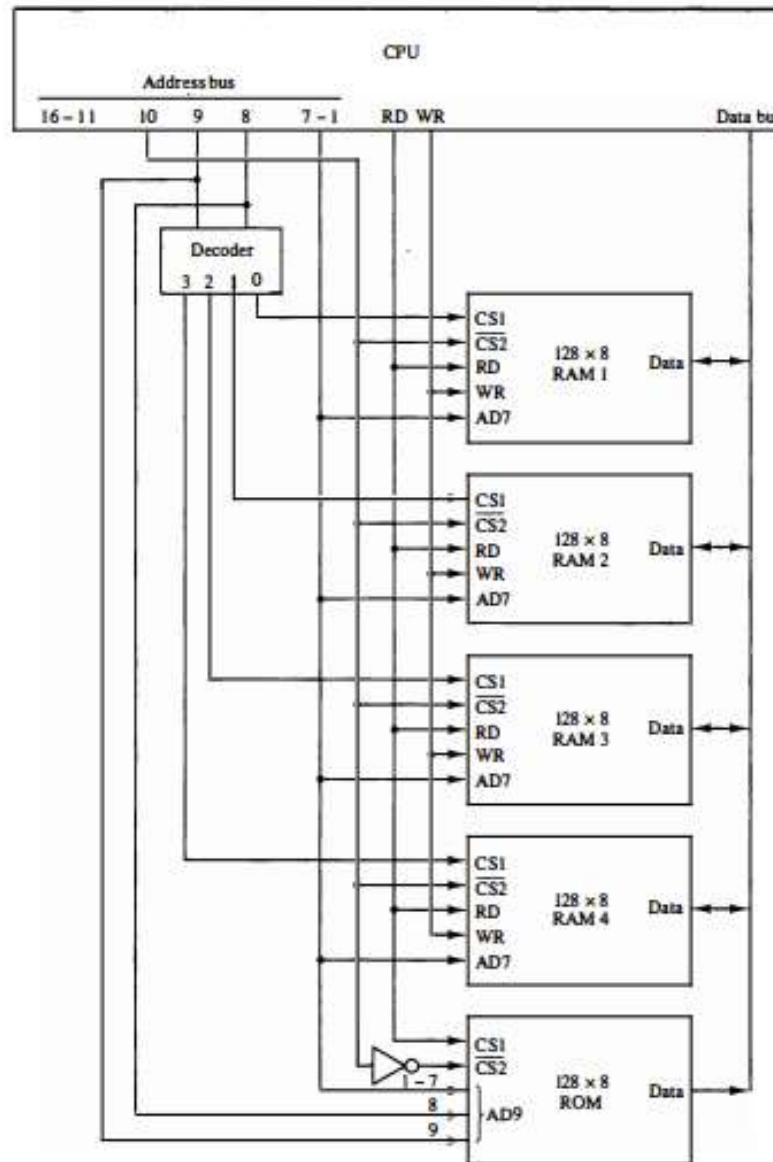


Figure 12-4 Memory connection to the CPU.

Associative Memory

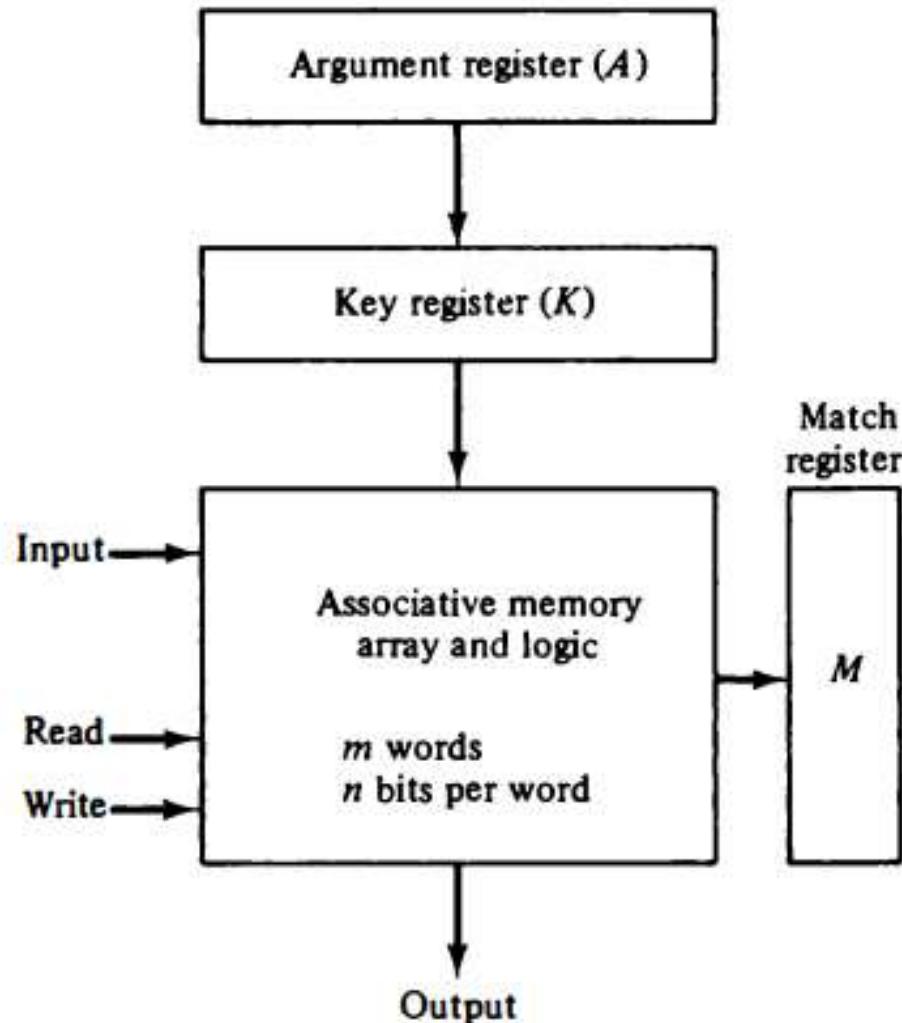
- The **time** required to find an item stored in memory can be **reduced** considerably if stored data can be identified for access by the **content of the data itself** rather **than by an address**.
- A memory unit accessed by **content** is called an **associative memory** or content addressable memory (CAM).
- This type of **memory** is accessed simultaneously and in **parallel** on the basis of data **content** rather than by **specific address** or location.

- When a word is written in an associative memory, no address is given.
- The memory is capable of finding an empty unused location to store the word.
- When a word is to be read from an associative memory, the content of the word, or part of the word, is specified.
- The memory locates all words which match the specified content and marks them for reading.

- Because of its organization, the **associative memory** is uniquely suited to do **parallel searches** by data association.
- An associative memory is more **expensive** than a random access memory because each **cell** must have **storage capability** as well as logic circuits for **matching** its content with an external argument.
- For this reason, **associative memories** are used in applications where **the search time is very critical** and must be **very short**.

Hardware Organization

Figure 12-6 Block diagram of associative memory.

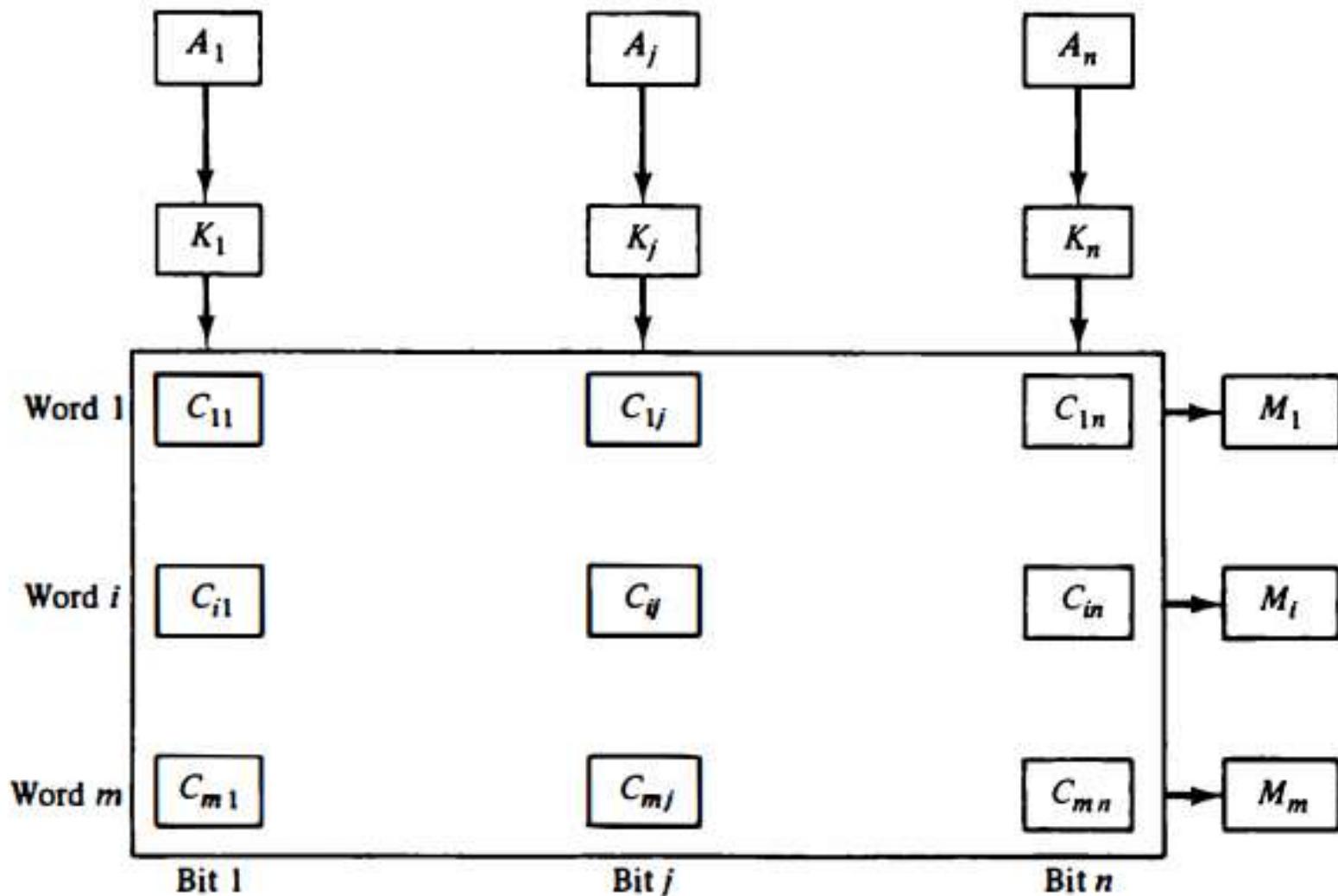


- The **key register** provides a **mask** for choosing a particular field or key in the **argument word**.
- The **entire argument is compared** with each memory word if the **key register** contains all 1's.
- Otherwise, only those bits in the **argument** that have 1's in their corresponding **position of the key register** are **compared**.
- Thus the **key** provides a **mask** or identifying piece of information which specifies how the **reference** to memory is made.

Example

A	101	111100	
K	111	000000	
Word 1	100	111100	no match
Word 2	101	000001	match

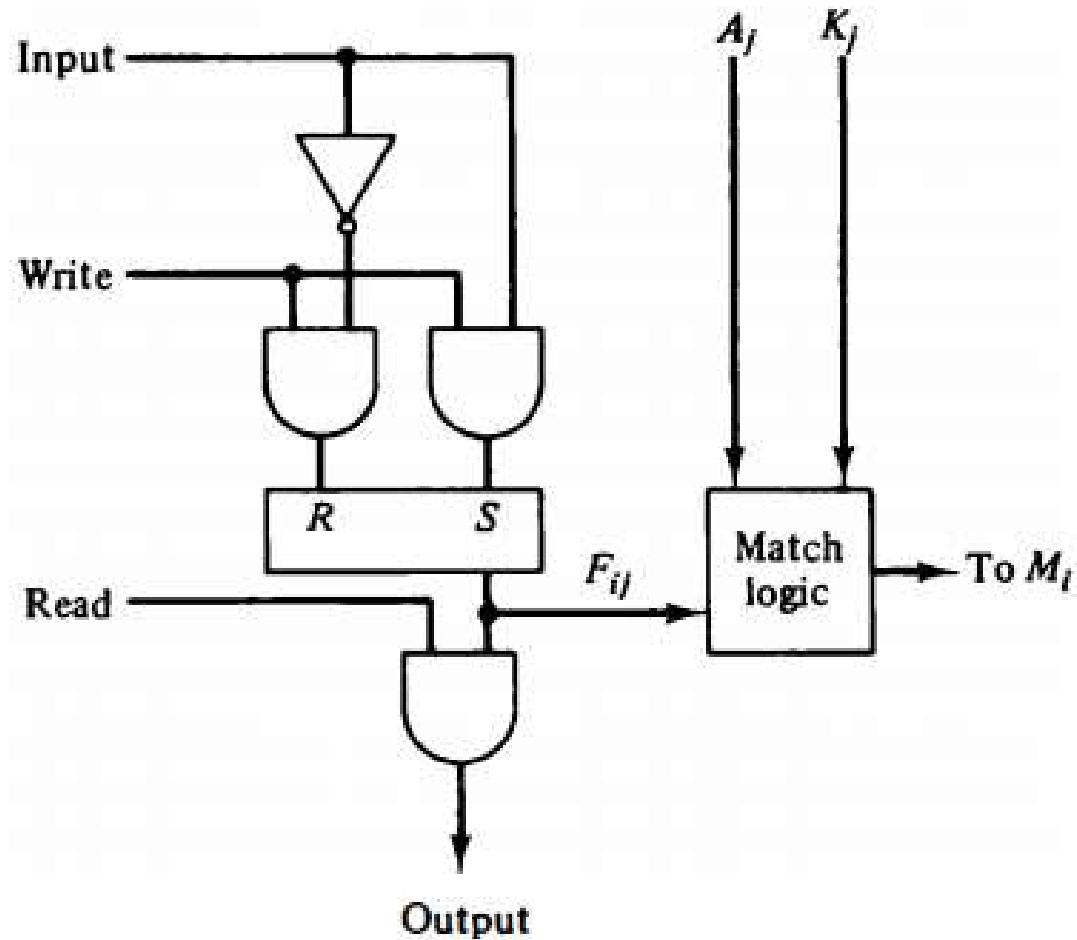
Figure 12-7 Associative memory of m word, n cells per word.



- The cells in the array are marked by the letter **C** with two subscripts.
- The **first** subscript gives the **word number** and the **second** specifies the **bit position** in the word. Thus cell C_{ij} is the cell for bit j in word i .
- A bit A_i in the argument register is **compared** with all the bits in column j of the array provided that $K_i = 1$.

- This is done for all columns $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$. If a match occurs between all the unmasked bits of the argument and the bits in word i , the corresponding bit M_i in the **match register** is set to 1.
- If one or more unmasked bits of the argument and the word do not match, M_i is cleared to 0.

Figure 12-8 One cell of associative memory.



- It consists of a **flip-flop** storage element F_{ij} and the circuits for reading, writing, and matching the cell.
- The **input bit** is transferred into the storage cell during a **write operation**.
- The **bit stored** is read out during a **read operation**.
- The match logic compares the content of the storage cell with the corresponding unmasked bit of the argument and provides an output for the decision logic that **sets the bit** in M_i .

Match Logic

- First, we **neglect the key** bits and compare the argument in A with the bits stored in the cells of the words.
- Word **i** is equal to the argument in A if $A_j = F_{ij}$ for $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$.
- **Two bits** are equal if they are **both 1 or both 0**. The **equality** of two bits can be expressed logically by the Boolean function

$$x_j = A_j F_{ij} + A'_j F'_{ij}$$

where $x_j = 1$ if the pair of bits in position j are equal; otherwise, $x_j = 0$.

- For a word i to be equal to the argument in A we must have all x_j variables equal to 1.
- This is the condition for setting the corresponding match bit M_i to 1. The Boolean function for this condition is

$$M_i = x_1 x_2 x_3 \dots x_n$$

and constitutes the AND operation of all pairs of matched bits in a word.

- We now include the key bit K_j in the comparison logic. The requirement is that if $K_j = 0$, the corresponding bits of A_j and F_{jj} ; need no comparison.
- Only when $K_j = 1$ must they be compared.
- This requirement is achieved by ORing each term with K'_j , thus:

$$x_j + K'_j = \begin{cases} x_j & \text{if } K_j = 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } K_j = 0 \end{cases}$$

- The match logic for word i in an associative memory can now be expressed by the following Boolean function:

$$M_i = (x_1 + K'_1)(x_2 + K'_2)(x_3 + K'_3) \cdots (x_n + K'_n)$$

- If we substitute the original definition of x_j , the Boolean function above can be expressed as follows:

$$M_i = \prod_{j=1}^n (A_j F_{ij} + A'_j F'_{ij} + K'_j)$$

where \prod is a product symbol designating the AND operation of all n terms. We need m such functions, one for each word $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, m$.

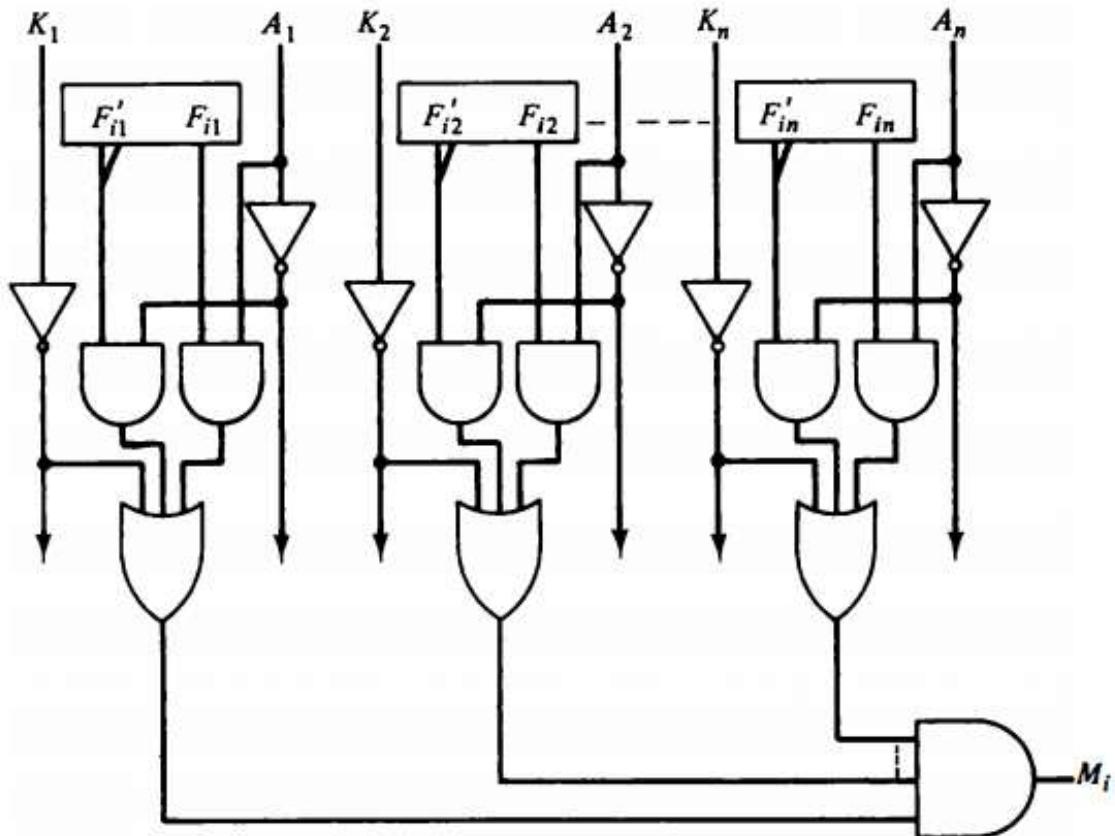


Figure 12-9 Match logic for one word of associative memory.

Read Operation

- In most applications, the associative memory stores a **table** with **no two identical items** under a given key.
- In this case, **only one word** may match the unmasked argument field.
- By connecting **output M_i** directly to the **read line** in the same word position (instead of the M register), the content of the matched word will be presented **automatically at the output lines** and **no special read command signal** is needed.

Write Operation

- Writing in an associative memory can take different forms, depending on the application.
- If the entire memory is loaded with new information at once prior to a search operation then the writing can be done by addressing each location in sequence.
- This will make the device a random access memory for writing and a content addressable memory for reading.

- If unwanted words have to be deleted and new words inserted one at a time, there is a need for a special register to distinguish between active and inactive words.
- This register, sometimes called a tag register, would have as many bits as there are words in the memory.
- For every active word stored in memory, the corresponding bit in the tag register is set to 1. A word is deleted from memory by clearing its tag bit to 0.

- Words are stored in memory by scanning the **tag register** until the **first 0** bit is encountered.
- This gives the **first available inactive word** and a position for **writing a new word**.
- After the new word is stored in memory it is made **active** by setting its tag bit to **1**.
- An **unwanted word** when deleted from memory can be cleared to **all 0's** if this value is used to specify an empty location.

Cache Memory

- Analysis of a large number of typical programs has shown that the references to memory at any given interval of time tend to be confined within a few **localized areas** in memory.
- This phenomenon is known as the property of **locality of reference**.
- If the **active portions** of the program and data are placed in a fast small memory, the **average memory access time can be reduced**, thus reducing the total execution time of the program. Such a fast small memory is referred to as a **cache memory**.

- The **cache memory** access time is **less** than the access time of **main memory** by a factor of 5 to 10.
- The **cache** is the **fastest** component in the memory hierarchy and approaches the speed of CPU components.

Basic operation of the Cache

- When the CPU needs to access memory, the cache is examined.
- If the word is found in the cache, it is read from the fast memory.
- If the word addressed by the CPU is not found in the cache, the main memory is accessed to read the word.
- A block of words containing the one just accessed is then transferred from main memory to cache memory.

- The **block size** may vary from **one word** (the one just accessed) **to about 16 words** adjacent to the one just accessed.
- In this manner, some data are transferred to cache so that future references to memory find the required words in the fast cache memory.

Hit ratio

- The performance of cache memory is frequently measured in terms of a quantity called **hit ratio**.
- When the CPU refers to memory and finds the word in cache, it is said to produce a **hit**.
- If the word is not found in cache, it is in main memory and it counts as a **miss**.
- The ratio of the number of hits divided by the total CPU references to memory (hits plus misses) is the **hit ratio**.

- The average memory access time of a computer system can be improved considerably by use of a **cache**.
- If the **hit ratio is high** enough so that most of the time the CPU accesses the **cache** instead of main memory, the **average access time** is closer to the access time of the fast cache memory.

Mapping functions

- The transformation of data from main memory to cache memory is referred to as a **mapping process**.
- **Three types** of mapping procedures are of practical interest when considering the organization of cache memory:
 - 1. Associative mapping
 - 2. Direct mapping
 - 3. Set-associative mapping

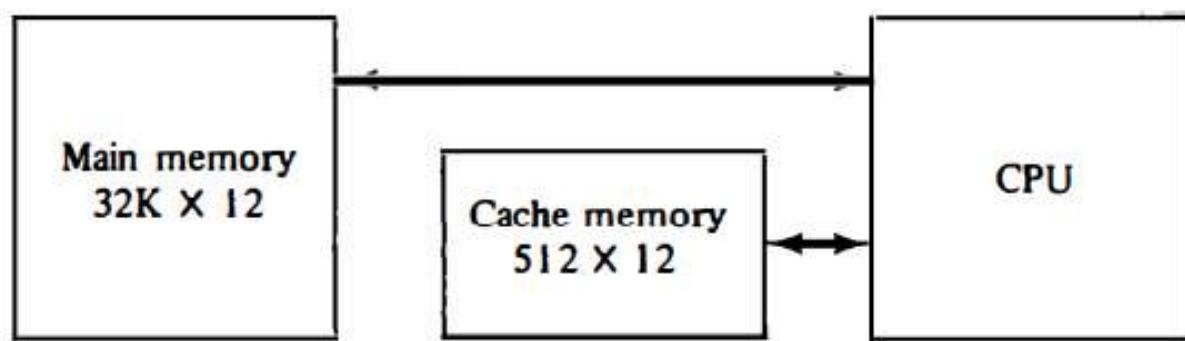
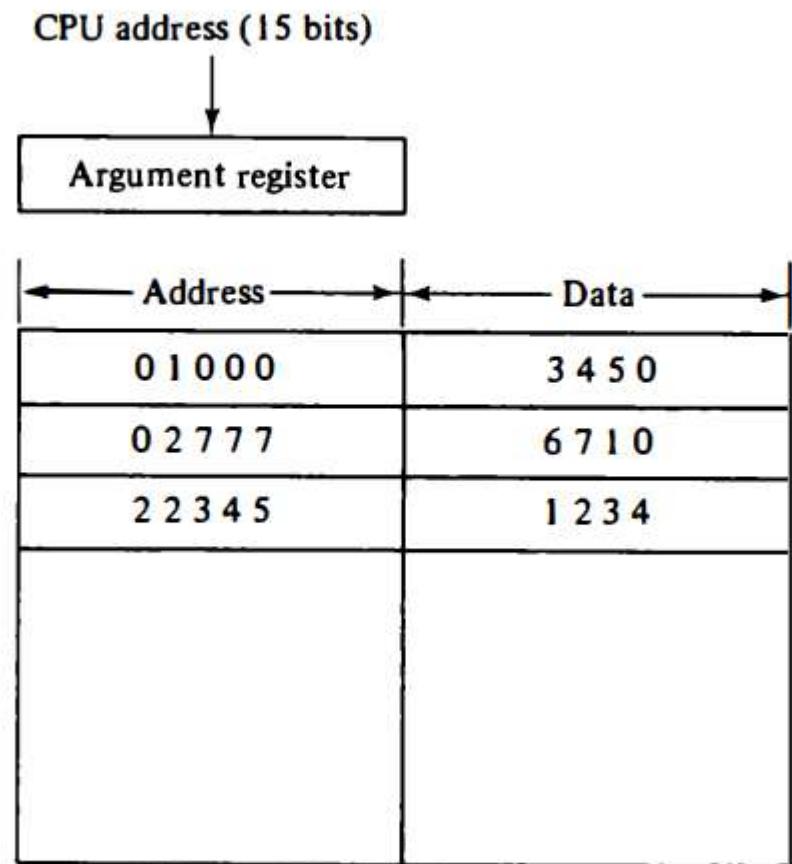


Figure 12-10 Example of cache memory.

Associative mapping

- The **fastest and most flexible** cache organization uses an associative memory.
- The **associative memory** stores both the **address and content** (data) of the memory word.
- This permits any location in cache to **store any word** from main memory.

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

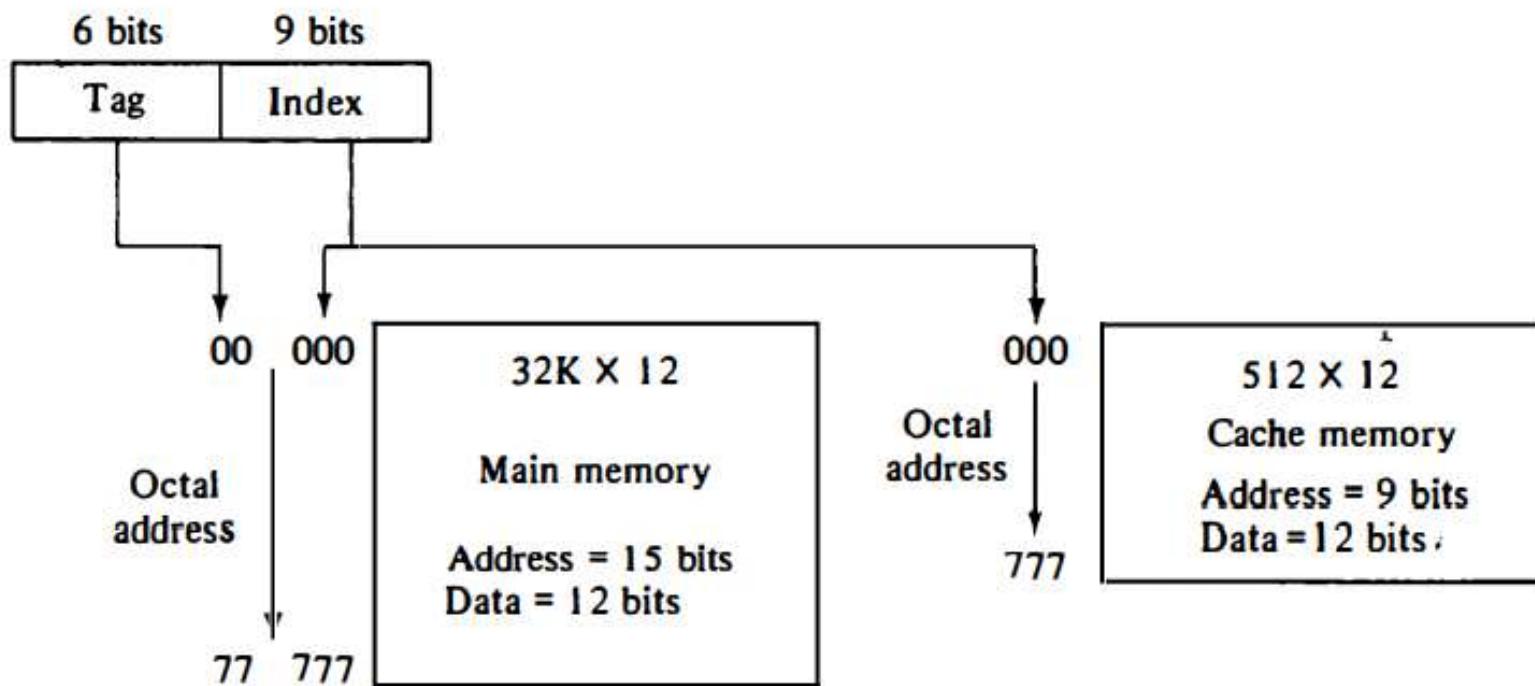


- If the cache is **full**, an address-data pair must be displaced to make room for a pair that is needed and not presently in the cache.
- The decision as to what pair is replaced is determined from the **replacement algorithm** that the designer chooses for the cache.
- A simple procedure is to replace cells of the cache in **round-robin order** whenever a new word is requested from main memory. This constitutes a **first-in first-out (FIFO) replacement policy**.

Direct mapping

- Associative memories are **expensive** compared to random-access memories because of the added logic associated with each cell.
- In the general case, there are 2^k words in **cache memory** and 2^n words in **main memory**.
- The **n-bit memory** address is divided into two fields: **k bits** for the **index field** and **n - k bits** for the **tag field**.
- The **direct mapping** cache organization uses the **n-bit address** to access the **main memory** and the **k-bit index** to access the **cache**.

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



Direct mapping cache with block size of one word

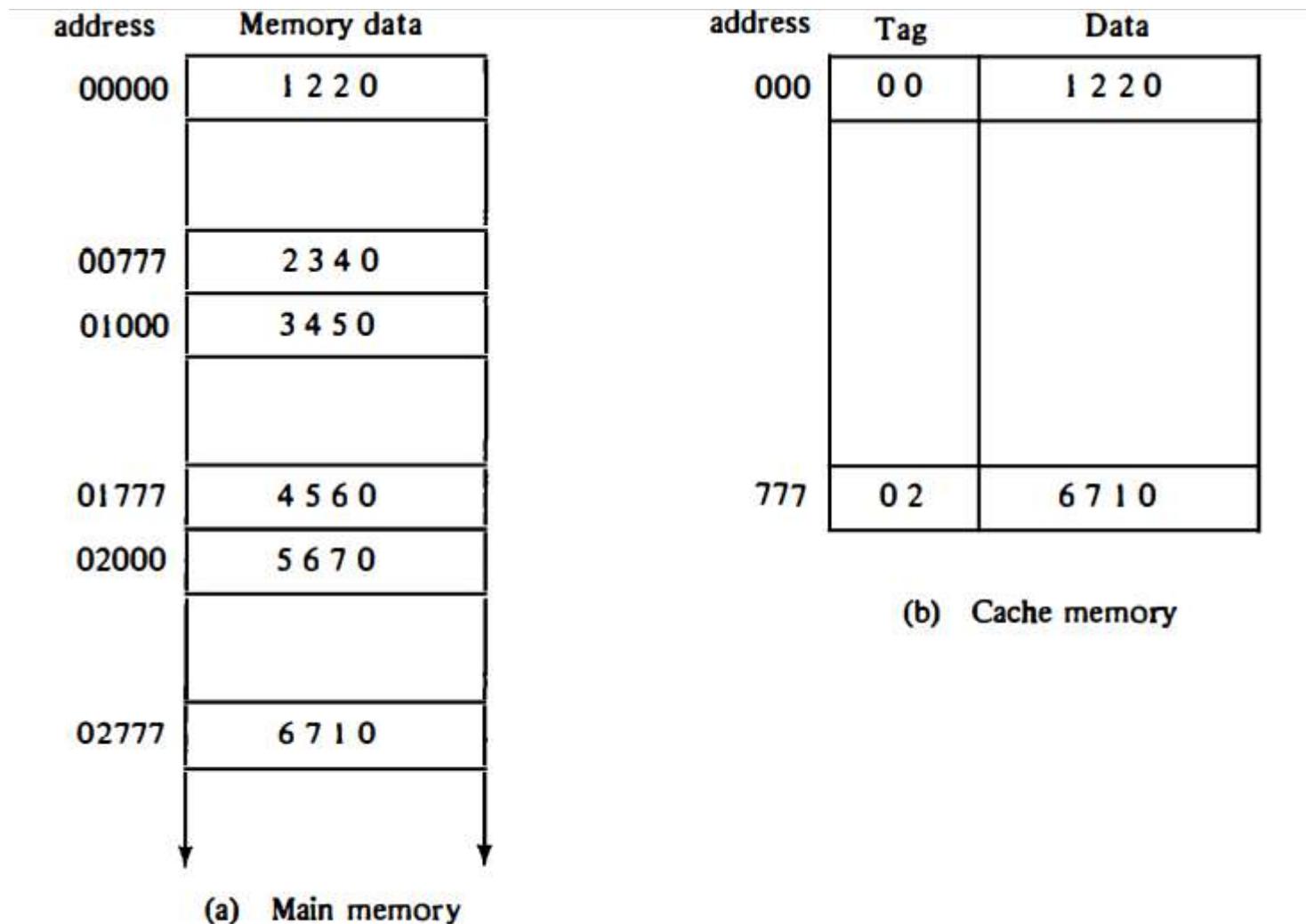
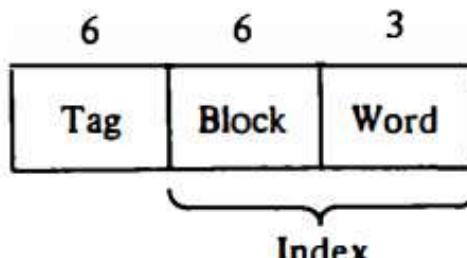


Figure 12-13 Direct mapping cache organization.

- The **tag field** of the CPU address is compared with the tag in the word read from the cache.
- If the **two tags match**, there is a **hit** and the desired data word is in cache.
- If there is **no match**, there is a **miss** and the required word is read from main memory.
- It is then stored in the **cache** together with the **new tag**, replacing the **previous value**.

- The **disadvantage** of direct mapping is that the **hit ratio can drop** considerably if **two or more words** whose addresses have the **same index** but different **tags** are accessed **repeatedly**.
- This possibility is **minimized** by the fact that such words are relatively far apart in the **address range**.

	Index	Tag	Data	
Block 0	000	0 1	3 4 5 0	
	007	0 1	6 5 7 8	
Block 1	010			
	017			
Block 63	770	0 2		
	777	0 2	6 7 1 0	



The diagram illustrates the internal structure of a cache word. It consists of three fields: Tag (6 bits), Block (6 bits), and Word (3 bits). The Block field is further divided into two sub-fields: Index (3 bits) and Block (3 bits). A brace underlines the Index and Block fields, grouping them together as the 'Index' field.

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

- The **tag field** stored within the cache is common to all **eight words** of the **same block**.
- Every time a **miss** occurs, an **entire block** of eight words must be transferred from main memory to cache memory.
- Although this takes **extra time**, the **hit ratio** will most likely **improve** with a larger block size because of the **sequential nature of computer programs**.

Set-Associative mapping

- The disadvantage of direct mapping is that two words with the same index in their address but with different tag values cannot reside in cache memory at the same time.
- A third type of cache organization, called set-associative mapping, is an improvement over the direct mapping organization in that each word of cache can store two or more words of memory under the same index address.

- Each **data word** is stored together with its **tag** and the **number of tag-data items** in **one word** of cache is said to form a **set**.

Index	Tag	Data	Tag	Data
000	0 1	3 4 5 0	0 2	5 6 7 0
777	0 2	6 7 1 0	0 0	2 3 4 0

Figure 12-15 Two-way set-associative mapping cache.

- Each index address refers to two data words and their associated tags.
- Each tag requires six bits and each data word has 12 bits, so the word length is $2(6 + 12) = 36$ bits.
- An index address of nine bits can accommodate 512 words. Thus the size of cache memory is 512×36 .
- It can accommodate 1024 words of main memory since each word of cache contains two data words.
- In general, a set-associative cache of set size k will accommodate k words of main memory in each word of cache.

- When the CPU generates a **memory request**, the **index value** of the address is used to **access the cache**.
- The **tag field** of the CPU address is then **compared** with **both tags** in the cache to determine if a **match** occurs.
- The **comparison logic** is done by an **associative search** of the **tags** in the set similar to an **associative memory** search: thus the name "**set-associative**."

- The hit ratio will improve as the set size increases because more words with the same index but different tags can reside in cache.
- An increase in the set size increases the number of bits in words of cache and requires more complex comparison logic.

Replacement Algorithms

- When a **miss** occurs in a set-associative cache and the **set is full**, it is necessary to **replace** one of the tag-data items with a new value.
- The most common **replacement algorithms** used are: **random** replacement, **first-in, first-out (FIFO)**, and **least recently used (LRU)**.

- With the **random** replacement policy the control chooses **one tag-data** item for replacement at **random**.
- The **FIFO** procedure selects for replacement the item that has been in the set the **longest**.
- The **LRU** algorithm selects for replacement the item that has been **least recently used** by the CPU.
- Both FIFO and LRU can be implemented by adding a few extra bits in each word of cache.

Write policies

- When the CPU finds a word in cache during a **read** operation, the **main memory** is **not involved** in the transfer.
- However, if the operation is a **write**, there are **two ways** that the system can proceed.

- The simplest and most commonly used procedure is to **update main memory** with every memory write operation, with **cache memory** being updated **in parallel** if it contains the word at the specified address. This is called the **write-through** method.
- The second procedure is called the **write-back** method. In this method **only** the **cache location** is **updated** during a write operation. The location is then marked by a flag so that later when the word is removed from the cache it is copied into main memory.

Cache initialization

- It is customary to include with each word in cache a **valid bit** to indicate whether or not the word contains **valid data**.
- The cache is **initialized** by clearing all the **valid bits** to 0.
- The **valid bit** of a particular cache word is **set to 1** the first time this word is **loaded from main memory** and stays set unless the cache has to be initialized again.

- The introduction of the valid bit means that a word in cache is **not replaced** by another word unless the valid bit is set to 1 and a mismatch of tags occurs.
- If the **valid bit** happens to be **0**, the new word automatically **replaces the invalid data**.
- Thus the initialization condition has the effect of forcing misses from the cache until it fills with valid data.

Auxiliary Memory

- The most common **auxiliary memory** devices used in computer systems are **magnetic disks** and **tapes**.
- The **average time** required to reach a **storage location** in memory and obtain its contents is called the **access time**.
- In **electromechanical devices** with moving parts such as **disks** and **tapes**, the **access time** consists of a **seek time** required to **position the read-write head** to a location and a **transfer time** required to **transfer data** to or from the device.

Magnetic Disks

- A magnetic disk is a **circular plate** constructed of metal or plastic coated with magnetized material.
- Often both sides of the disk are used and several disks may be stacked on **one spindle with read/write heads** available on each surface.
- Bits are stored in the **magnetized surface** in spots along **concentric circles** called tracks.
- The **tracks** are commonly divided into **sections** called **sectors**.
- In most systems, the **minimum quantity of information** which can be transferred is a **sector**.

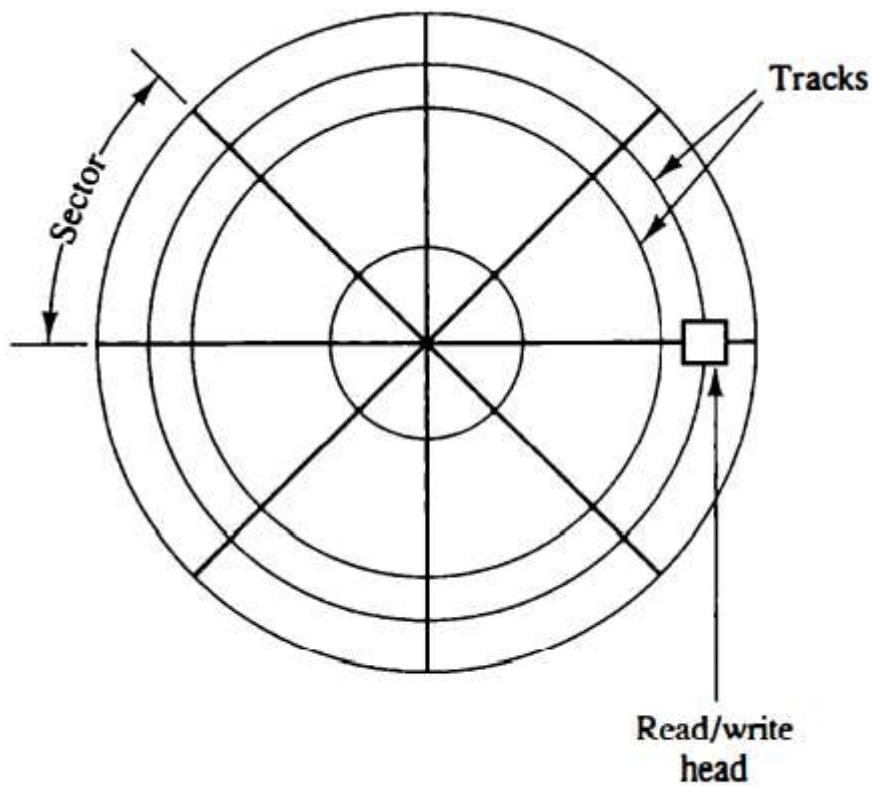


Figure 12-5 Magnetic disk.

- A **disk system** is addressed by address bits that specify the disk number, the disk surface, the sector number and the track within the sector.
- Information transfer is **very fast** once the beginning of a sector has been reached.
- Disks may have multiple heads and simultaneous transfer of bits from **several tracks at the same time**.
- **Disks** that are **permanently attached** to the unit assembly and cannot be removed by the occasional user are called **hard disks**.
- A disk drive with removable disks is called a **floppy disk**.

Magnetic Tape

The **tape** itself is a strip of plastic coated with a **magnetic recording** medium.

Bits are recorded as **magnetic spots** on the tape along several tracks.

Usually, **seven or nine** bits are recorded simultaneously to form a character together with a **parity bit**.

Read/write heads are mounted one in each track so that data can be recorded and read as a sequence of characters.