The Memory Hierarchy: Storage technologies and trends

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.

RAM comes in two varieties:

- SRAM (Static RAM)
- DRAM (Dynamic RAM)

SRAM vs DRAM Summary

	Trans. per bit	Access time	Needs refresh?	Needs EDC?	Cost	Applications
SRAM	4 or 6	1X	No	Maybe	100x	Cache memories
DRAM	1	10X	Yes	Yes	1X	Main memories, frame buffers

Nonvolatile Memories

DRAM and SRAM are volatile memories

Lose information if powered off.

Nonvolatile memories retain value even if powered off

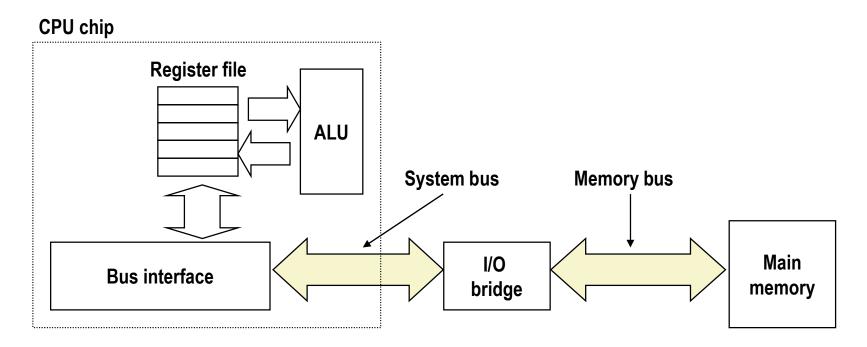
- Read-only memory (ROM): programmed during production
- Programmable ROM (PROM): can be programmed once
- Eraseable PROM (EPROM): can be bulk erased (UV, X-Ray)
- Electrically eraseable PROM (EEPROM): electronic erase capability
- Flash memory: EEPROMs. with partial (block-level) erase capability
 - 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

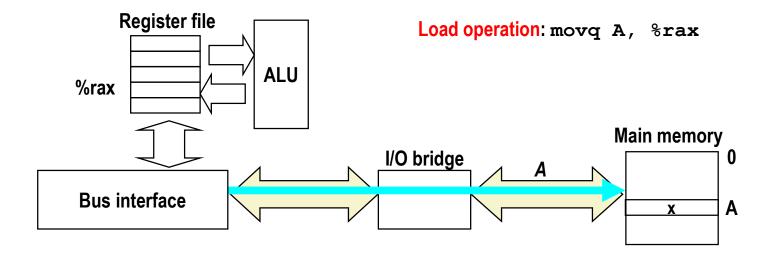
Traditional Bus Structure Connecting CPU and Memory

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



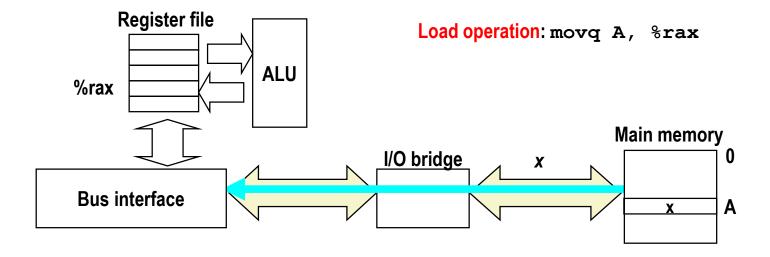
Memory Read Transaction (1)

CPU places address A on the memory bus.



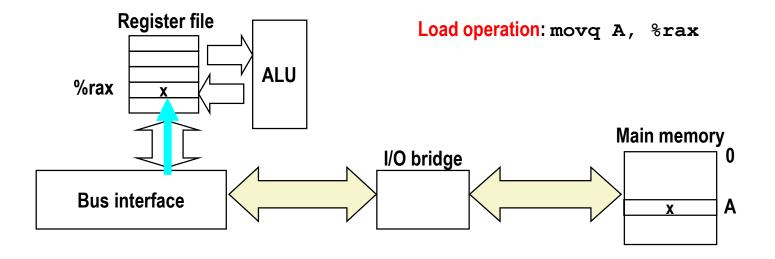
Memory Read Transaction (2)

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



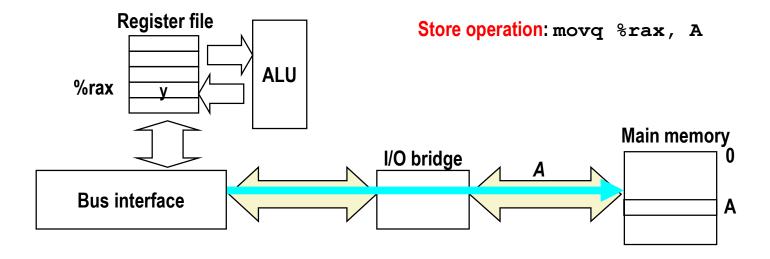
Memory Read Transaction (3)

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



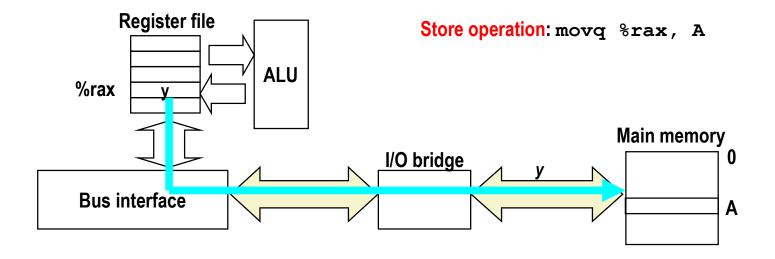
Memory Write Transaction (1)

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



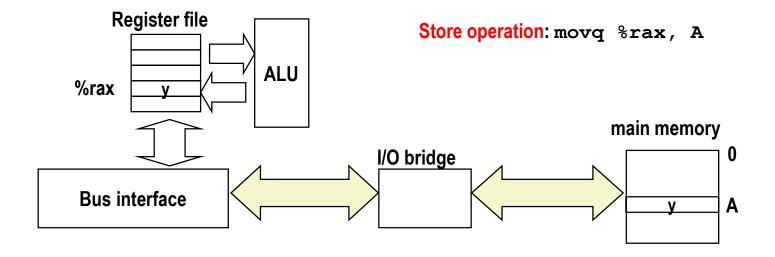
Memory Write Transaction (2)

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.



What's Inside A Disk Drive?

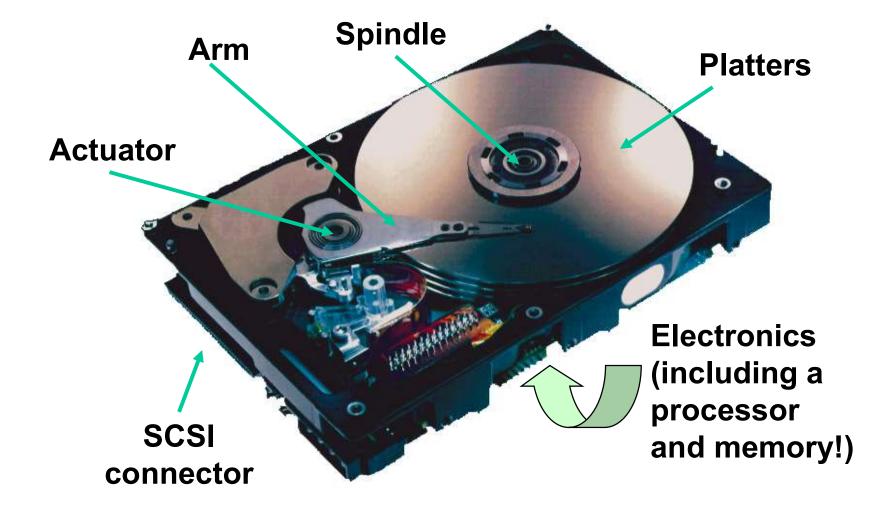
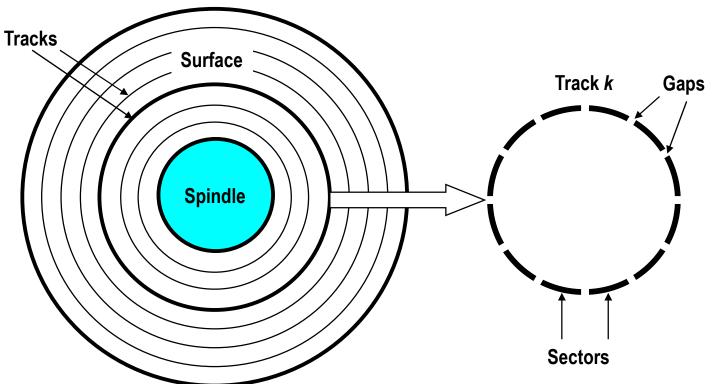


Image courtesy of Seagate Technology

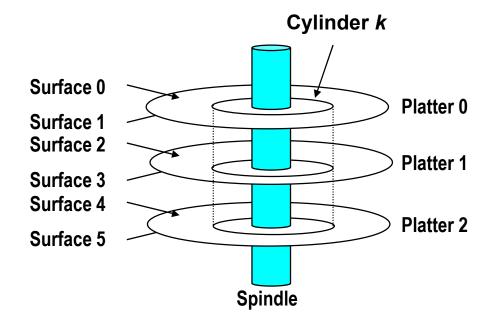
Disk Geometry

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



Disk Geometry (Multiple-Platter View)

Aligned tracks form a cylinder.

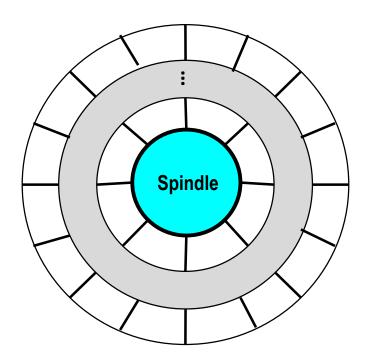


Disk Capacity

- Capacity: maximum number of bits that can be stored.
 - Vendors express capacity in units of gigabytes (GB), where
 1 GB = 10⁹ Bytes.
- 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.

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.



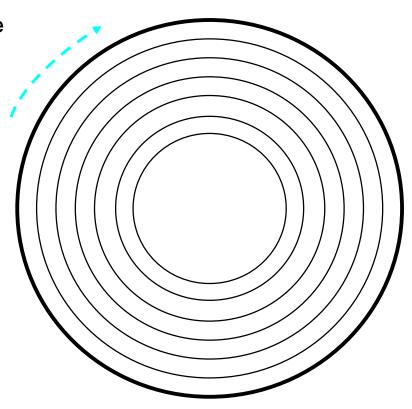
Computing Disk Capacity

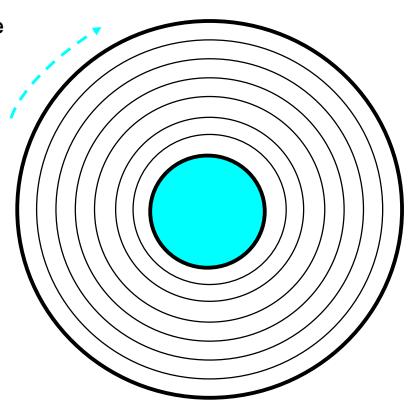
```
Capacity = (# bytes/sector) x (avg. # sectors/track) x (# tracks/surface) x (# surfaces/platter) x (# platters/disk)
```

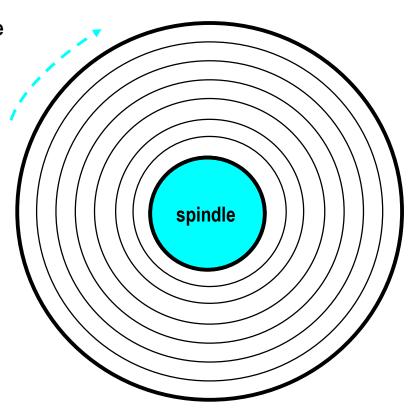
Example:

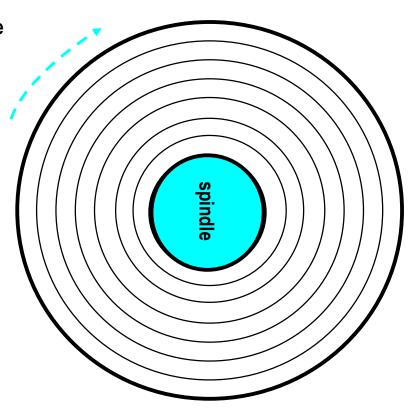
- 512 bytes/sector
- 300 sectors/track (on average)
- 20,000 tracks/surface
- 2 surfaces/platter
- 5 platters/disk

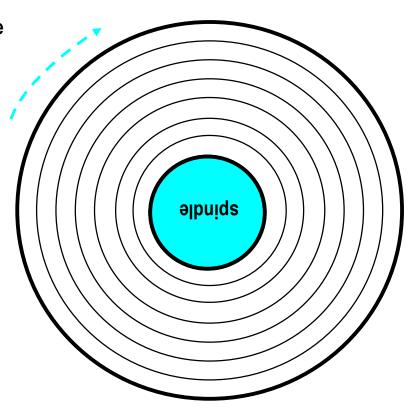
```
Capacity = 512 x 300 x 20000 x 2 x 5
= 30,720,000,000
= 30.72 GB
```

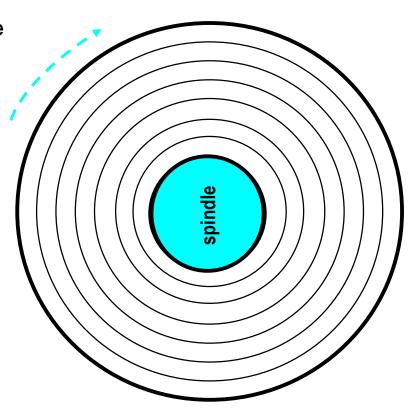


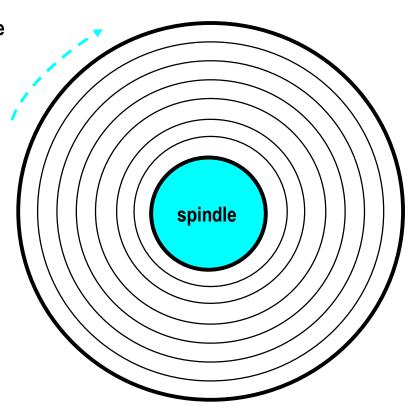




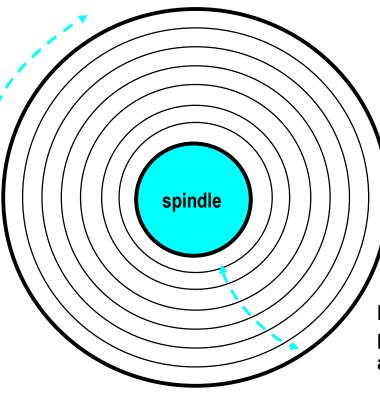






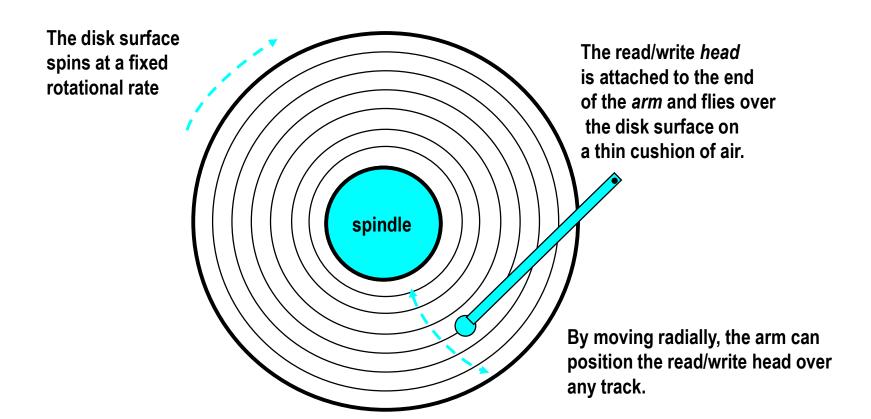


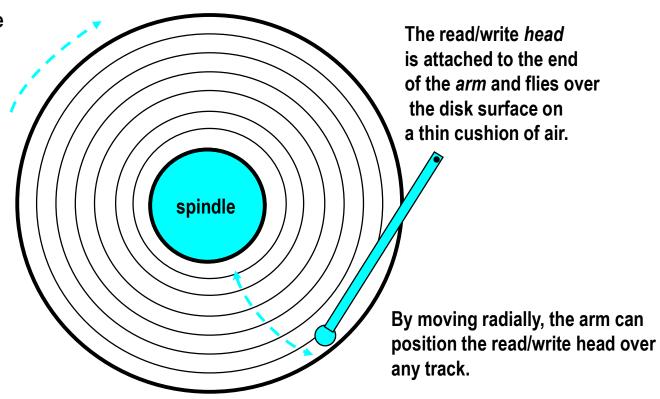
The disk surface spins at a fixed rotational rate

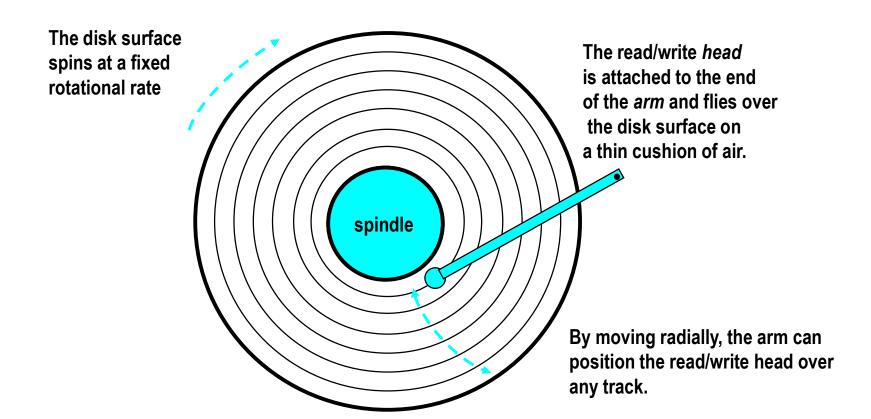


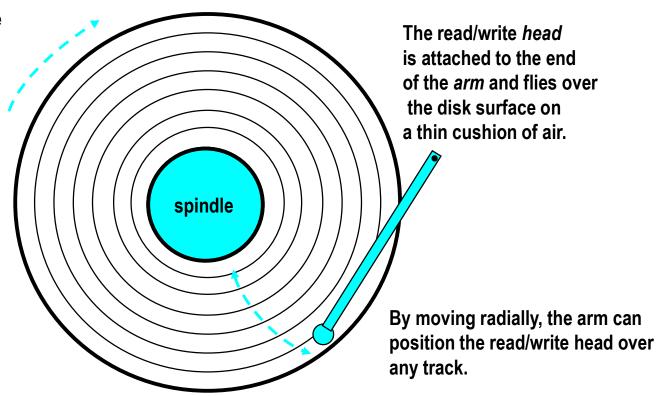
The read/write head is attached to the end of the arm and flies over the disk surface on a thin cushion of air.

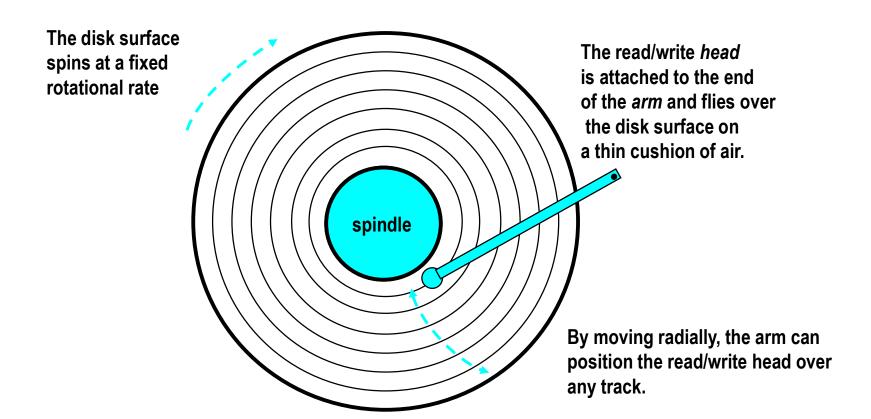
By moving radially, the arm can position the read/write head over any track.

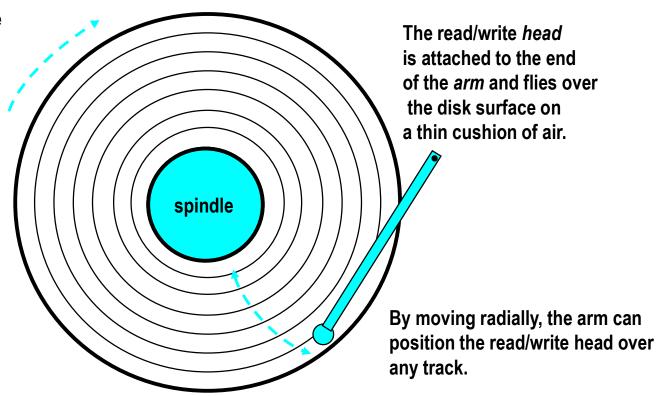


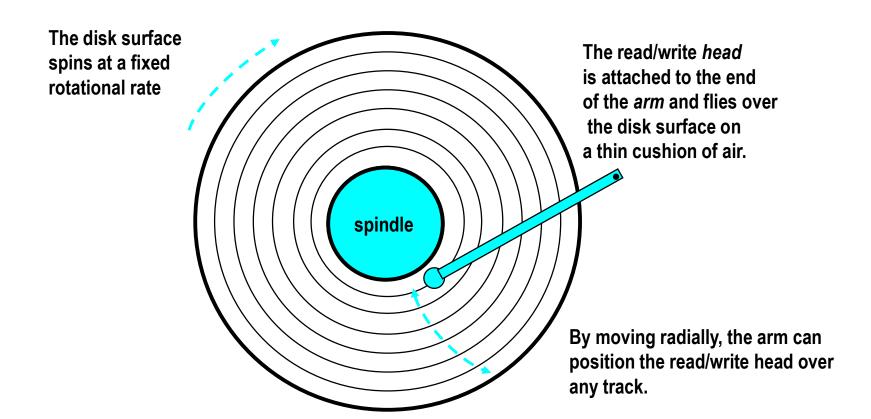


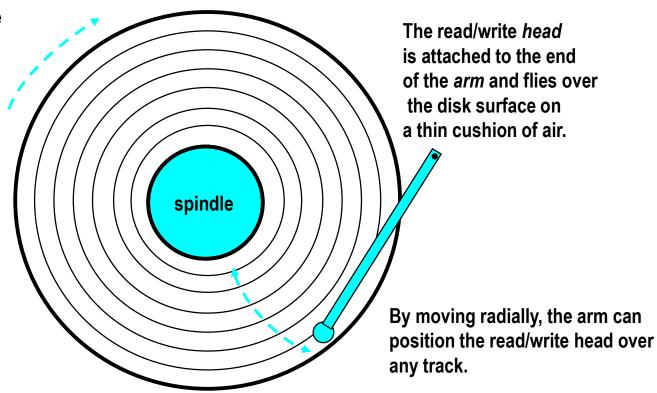




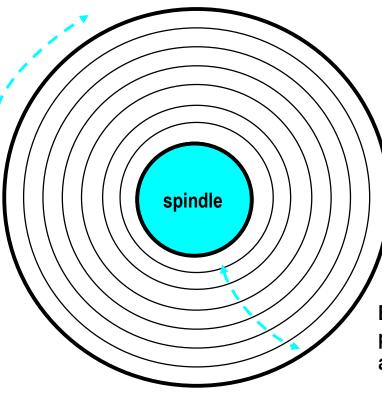








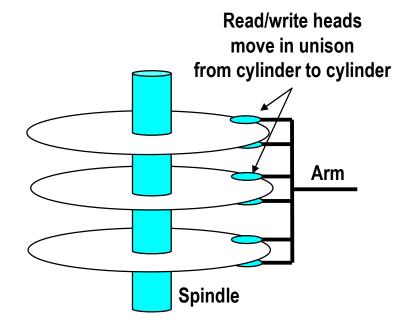
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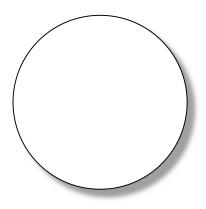
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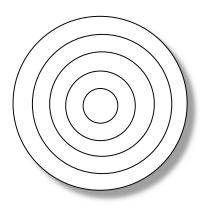
Disk Operation (Multi-Platter View)



Disk Structure - top view of single platter

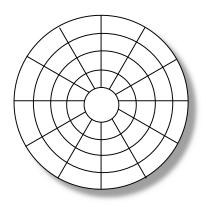


Disk Structure - top view of single platter



Surface organized into tracks

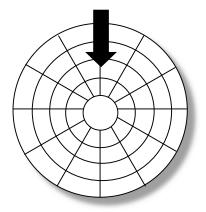
Disk Structure - top view of single platter



Surface organized into tracks

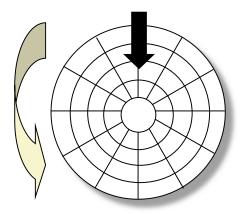
Tracks divided into sectors

Disk Access

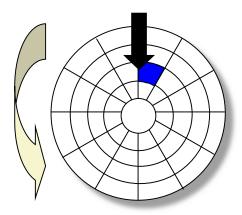


Head in position above a track

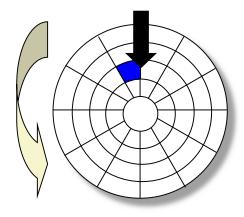
Disk Access



Rotation is counter-clockwise

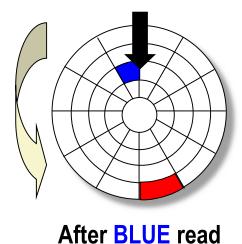


About to read blue sector



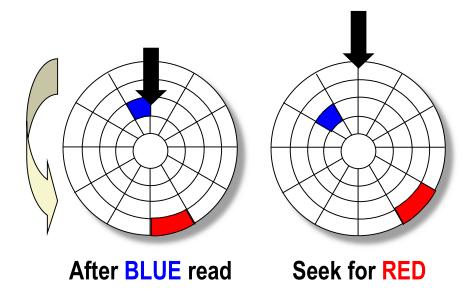
After **BLUE** read

After reading blue sector



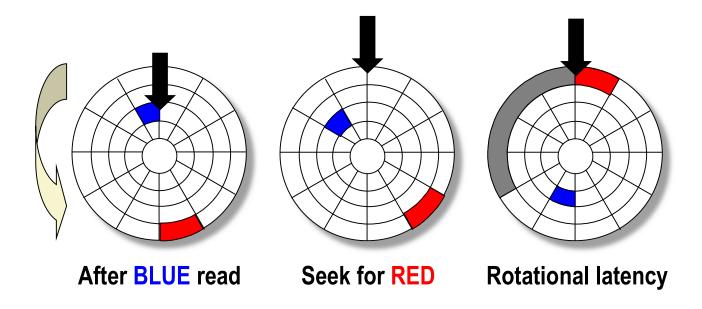
Red request scheduled next

Disk Access – Seek

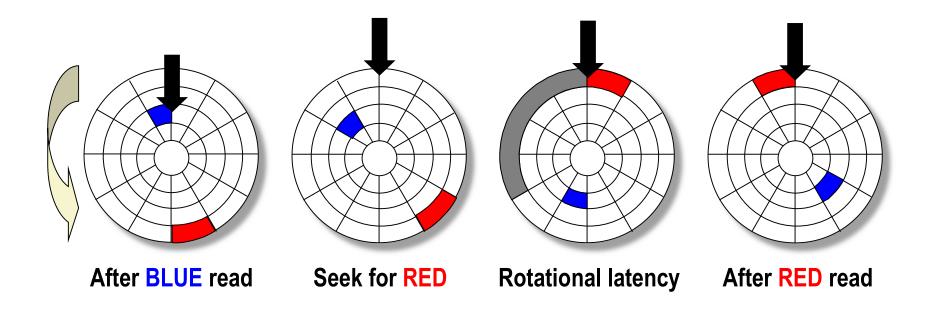


Seek to red's track

Disk Access – Rotational Latency

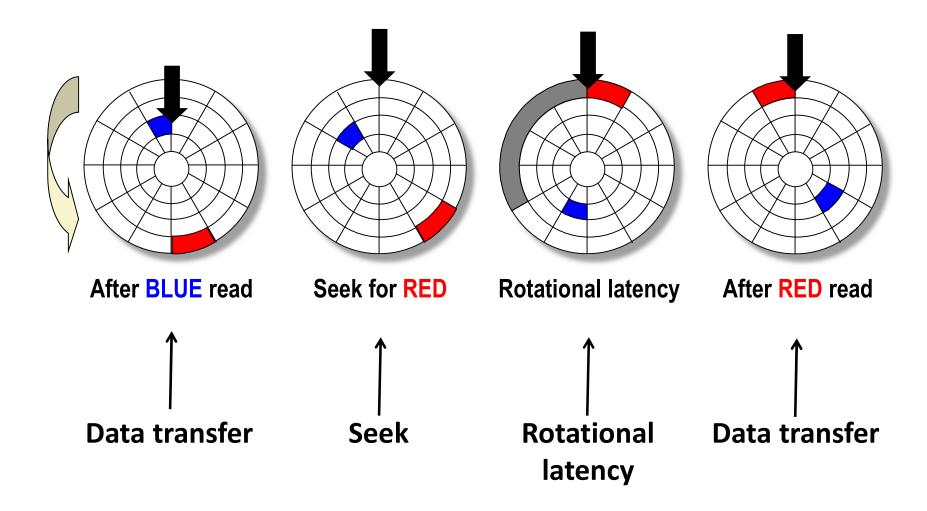


Wait for red sector to rotate around



Complete read of red

Disk Access – Service Time Components



Disk Access Time

Average time to access some target sector approximated by :

- Taccess = Tavg seek + Tavg rotation + Tavg transfer
- Seek time (Tavg seek)
 - Time to position heads over cylinder containing target sector.
 - Typical Tavg seek is 3—9 ms

Rotational latency (Tavg rotation)

- Time waiting for first bit of target sector to pass under r/w head.
- Tavg rotation = 1/2 x 1/RPMs x 60 sec/1 min
- Typical Tavg rotation = 7200 RPMs

Transfer time (Tavg transfer)

- Time to read the bits in the target sector.
- Tavg 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:

- Tavg rotation = 1/2 x (60 secs/7200 RPM) x 1000 ms/sec = 4 ms.
- Tavg transfer = 60/7200 RPM x 1/400 secs/track x 1000 ms/sec = 0.02 ms
- Taccess = 9 ms + 4 ms + 0.02 ms

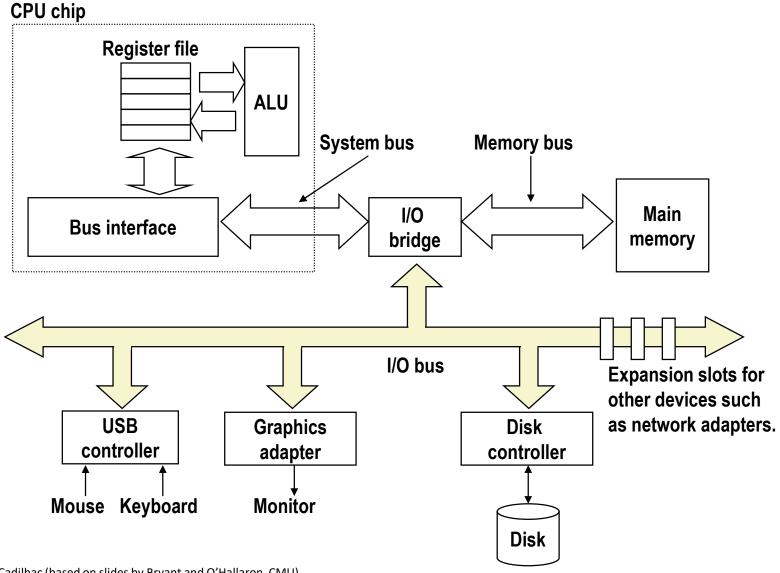
Important points:

- 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.

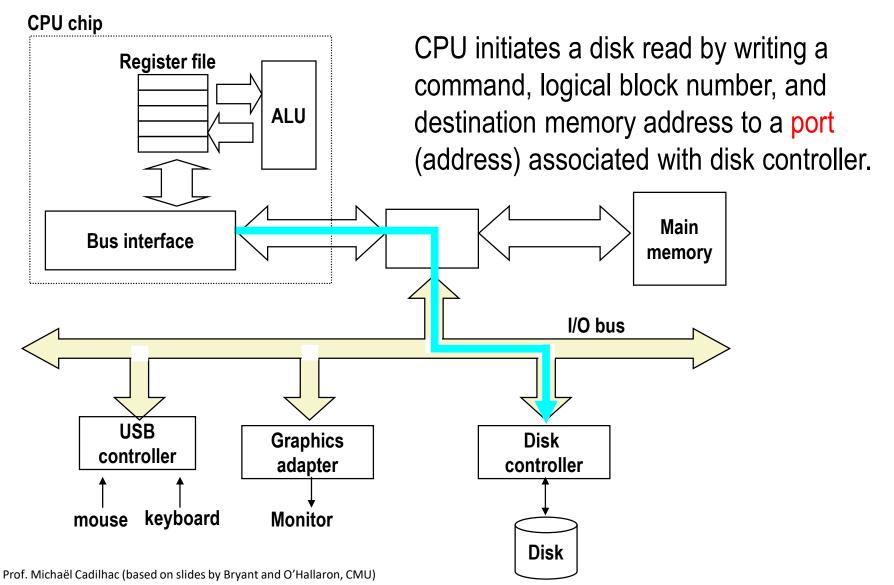
Logical Disk Blocks

- 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".

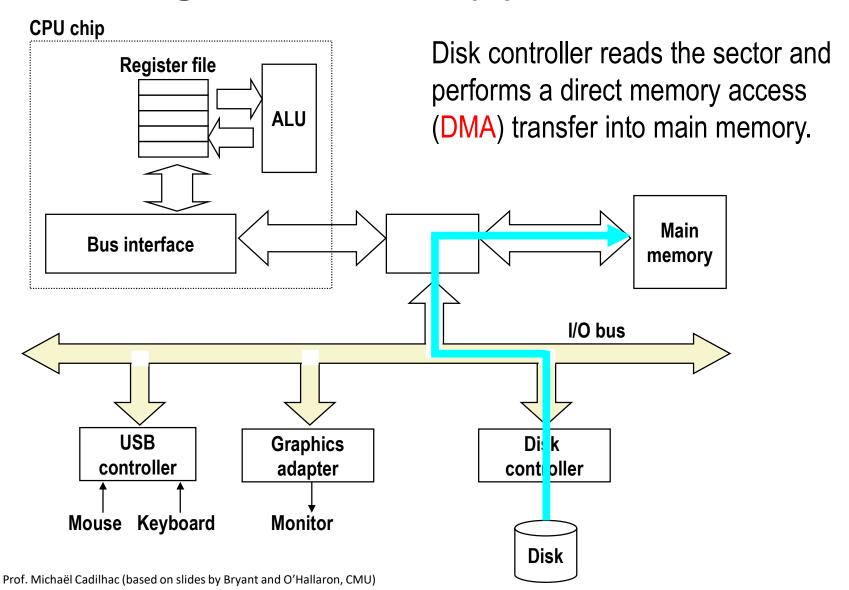
I/O Bus



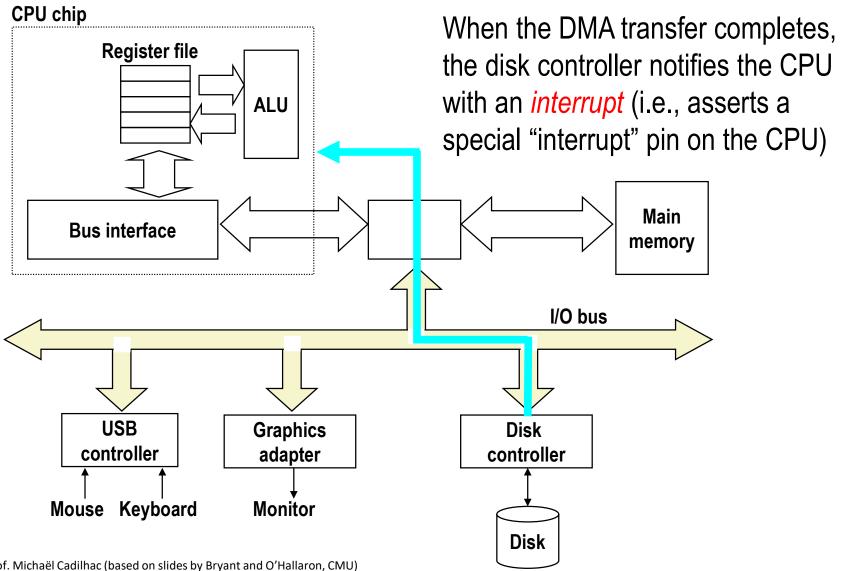
Reading a Disk Sector (1)



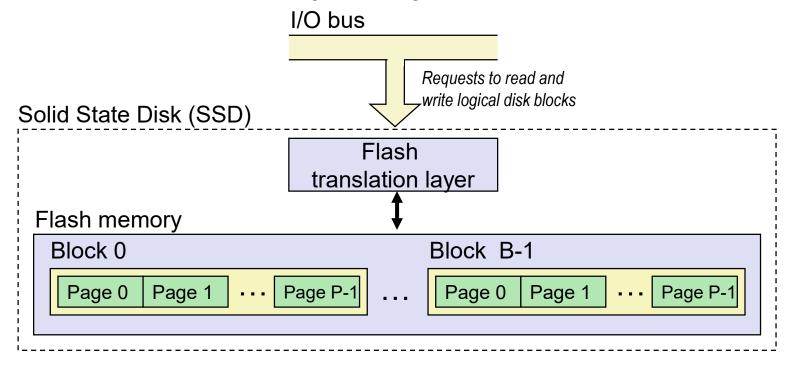
Reading a Disk Sector (2)



Reading a Disk Sector (3)



Solid State Disks (SSDs)



- Pages: 1KB to 16KB, Blocks: 32 to 256 pages
- Data read/written in units of pages.
- Page can be written only after its block has been erased
- A block wears out after about 100,000 repeated writes.

SSD Performance Characteristics

Sequential read tput	550 MB/s	Sequential write tput	470 MB/s
Random read tput	365 MB/s	Random write tput	303 MB/s
Avg seq read time	50 us	Avg seq write time	60 us

Sequential access faster than random access

Common theme in the memory hierarchy

Random writes are somewhat slower

- Erasing a block takes a long time (~1 ms)
- Modifying a block page requires all other pages to be copied to new block
- In earlier SSDs, the read/write gap was much larger.

Source: Intel SSD 730 product specification.

SSD Tradeoffs vs Rotating Disks

Advantages

No moving parts → faster, less power, more rugged

Disadvantages

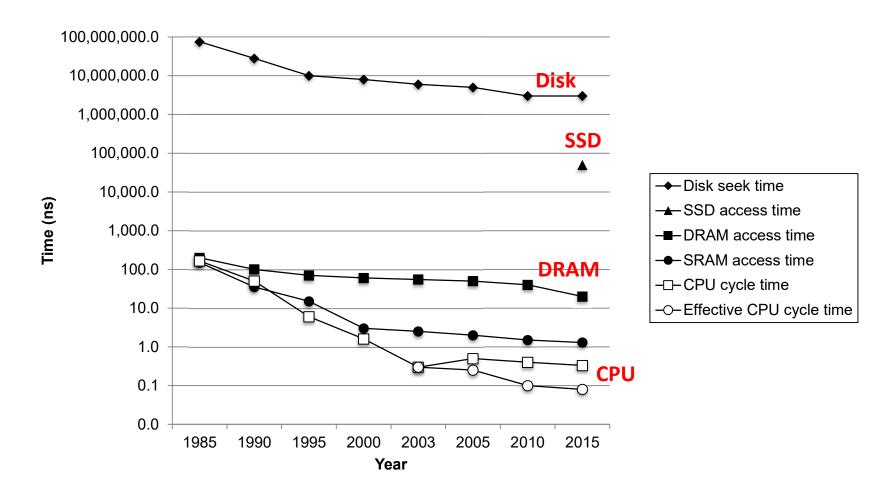
- Have the potential to wear out
 - Mitigated by "wear leveling logic" in flash translation layer
 - E.g. Intel SSD 730 guarantees 128 petabyte (128 x 10¹⁵ bytes) of writes before they wear out
- In 2020, about 2.5 times more expensive per byte (30 in 2015!)

Applications

- MP3 players, smart phones, laptops
- Beginning to appear in desktops and servers

The CPU-Memory Gap

The gap widens between DRAM, disk, and CPU speeds.



Locality to the Rescue!

The key to bridging this CPU-Memory gap is a fundamental property of computer programs known as locality