# William Stallings Computer Organization and Architecture 7th Edition

**Chapter 5 Memory** 

#### **SYLLABUS**

Characteristics of memory system and hierarchy,

Main memory ,ROM, Types of ROM, RAM,

SRAM, DRAM, Flash memory, High speed memories

Cache Memory Organization: Address mapping, Replacement Algorithms

Cache Coherence, MESI protocol, Interleaved and associative memories

Virtual memory, main memory allocation, segmentation paging, secondary storage ,RAID levels

## **Characteristics of Memory**

- 1. Location
- 2. Capacity
- 3. Unit of transfer
- 4. Access method
- Performance(SRAM, DRAM)
- 6. Physical type
- 7. Physical characteristics
- 8. Organisation
  - 1. Direct Mapping, Associative Mapping

## 1. Location

- CPU
- Internal
- External





## 2. Capacity

- Word size
  - —The natural unit of organisation
- Number of words
  - —or Bytes

#### **Types of various Units of Memory-**

Byte

Kilo Byte

Mega Byte

Giga Byte

Tera Byte

Peta Byte

Exa Byte

Zetta Byte

Yotta Byte

| NAME      | EQUAL TO          | SIZE(IN BYTES)                       |
|-----------|-------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Bit       | 1 bit             | 1/8                                  |
| Nibble    | 4 bits            | 1/2 (rare)                           |
| Byte      | 8 bits            | 1                                    |
| Kilobyte  | 1024 bytes        | 1024                                 |
| Megabyte  | 1, 024kilobytes   | 1, 048, 576                          |
| Gigabyte  | 1, 024 megabytes  | 1, 073, 741, 824                     |
| Terrabyte | 1, 024 gigabytes  | 1, 099, 511, 627, 776                |
| Petabyte  | 1, 024 terrabytes | 1, 125, 899, 906, 842, 624           |
| Exabyte   | 1, 024 petabytes  | 1, 152, 921, 504, 606, 846, 976      |
| Zettabyte | 1, 024 exabytes   | 1, 180, 591, 620, 717, 411, 303, 424 |
| Yottahyte | 1 024 zettahytes  | 1 208 925 819 614 629 174 706 176    |

#### 3. Unit of Transfer

#### INTERNAL

—Usually governed by data bus width

#### EXTERNAL

—Usually a **block** which is much larger than a word

#### Addressable unit

—Smallest location which can be uniquely addressed

## 4. Access Methods (1)

## Sequential

- —Start at the beginning and read through in order
- Access time depends on location of data and previous location
- —e.g. tape

#### Direct

- Individual blocks have unique address
- Access is by jumping to vicinity plus sequential search
- Access time depends on location and previous location
- -e.g. disk



## **Access Methods (2)**

#### Random

- Individual addresses identify locations exactly
- Access time is independent of location or previous access
- -e.g. RAM

#### Associative

- Data is located by a comparison with contents of a portion of the store
- Access time is independent of location or previous access
- -e.g. cache

#### 5. Performance

#### Access time

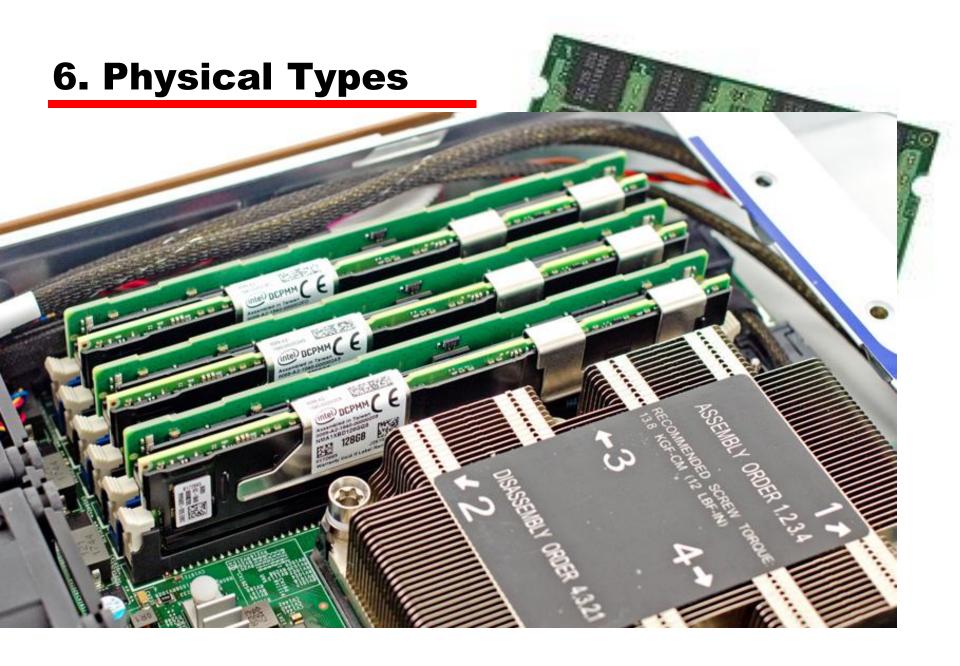
—Time between requesting for operation and the time it is made available at the required location

## Memory Cycle time

—Minimum time elapsed between two consecutive read requests

#### Transfer Rate

—Rate at which data can be moved

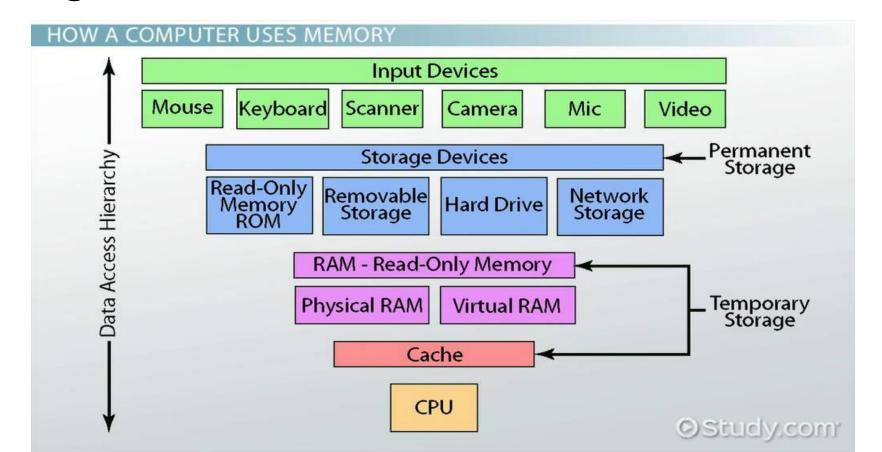


## 7. Physical Characteristics

- Decay
- Volatility
- Erasable
- Power consumption

## 8. Organisation

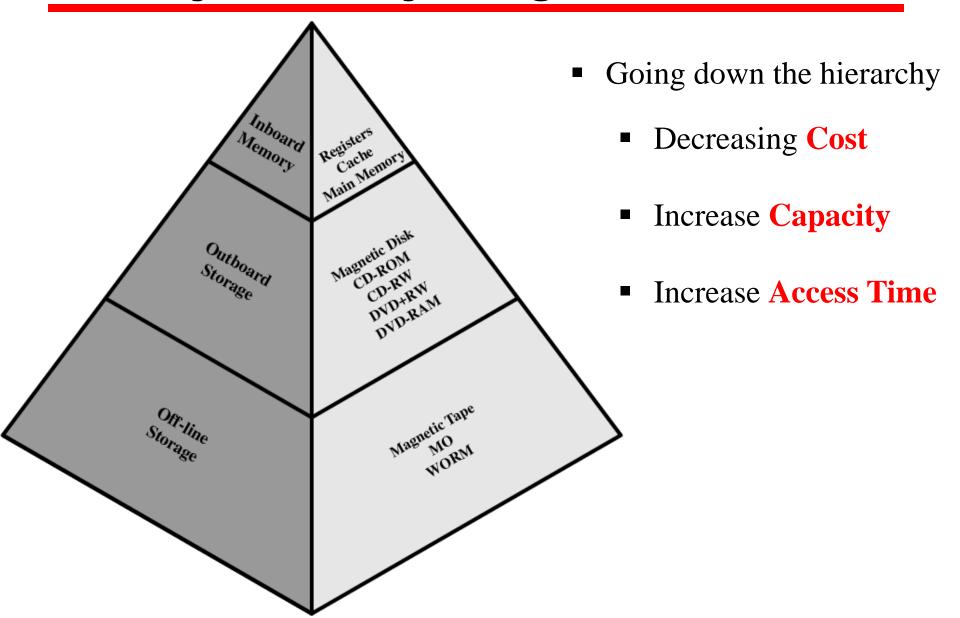
- Physical arrangement of bits into words
- Not always obvious
- e.g. interleaved



## **Memory Hierarchy**

- Registers
  - -In CPU
- Internal or Main memory
  - —May include one or more levels of cache
  - -"RAM"
- External memory
  - —Backing store

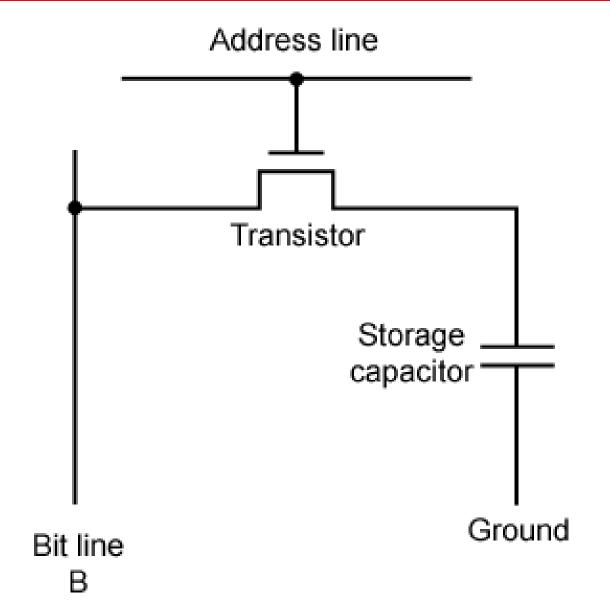
## **Memory Hierarchy - Diagram**



## **RAM- Random Access Memory**

- RAM
  - —random access
  - —Read/Write
  - –Volatile
  - —Temporary storage
  - —Static or dynamic

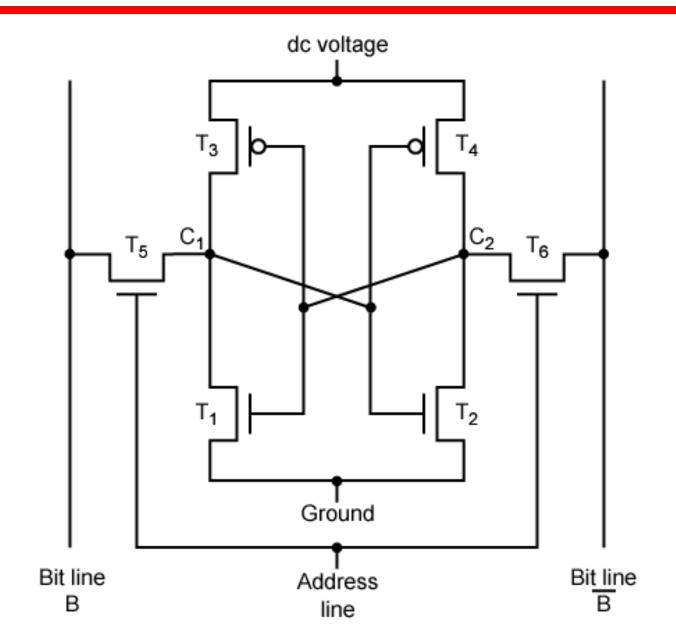
# **Dynamic RAM Structure**



## **Dynamic RAM**

- Bits stored as charge in capacitors
- Charges leak
- Need refreshing even when powered
- Simpler construction
- Less expensive
- Need refresh circuits
- Slower
- Main memory
- Essentially analog
  - Level of charge determines value

## **Static RAM Structure**

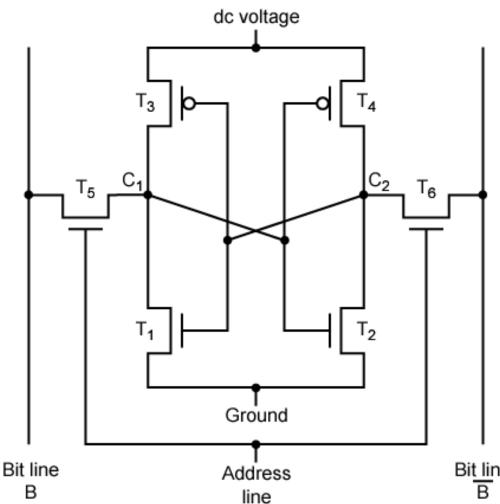


#### **Static RAM**

- Bits stored as on/off switches
- No charges to leak
- No refreshing needed when powered
- More complex construction
- Larger information per bit
- More expensive
- Does not need refresh circuits
- Faster
- Cache
- Digital
  - —Uses flip-flops

## **Static RAM Operation**

- Transistor arrangement gives stable logic state
- State 1
  - $-C_1$  high,  $C_2$  low
  - $-T_1 T_4 \text{ off, } T_2 T_3 \text{ on}$
- State 0
  - $-C_2$  high,  $C_1$  low
  - $-T_2 T_3$  off,  $T_1 T_4$  on



#### **SRAM v DRAM**

- Both volatile
  - -Power needed to preserve data
- Dynamic cell
  - —Simpler to build, smaller
  - —More dense
  - —Less expensive
  - —Needs refresh
  - —Larger memory units
- Static
  - —Faster
  - —Cache

## **Read Only Memory (ROM)**

- Permanent storage
  - —Non volatile
  - —Can read a ROM but cant write new data into it

- TYPES OF ROM
  - -PROM
  - **—**EPROM
  - **—**EEPROM

## **PROM-Programmable ROM**

- Written during manufacture
- Programmable ("once")
  - -PROM
  - —Small amount of data to be written
  - —Less expensive
  - —Non volatile, written only once
  - Writing performed electrically at the time of chip fabrication

## Read "mostly"

- —Erasable Programmable (EPROM)
  - Erased by UV
- —Electrically Erasable (EEPROM)
  - Takes much longer to write than read
- —Flash memory
  - Erase whole memory electrically

#### **EPROM**

- Read and written electrically
- —All storage cells should be erased electrically to **initial state** by exposure to UV radiation
- Can be altered multiple times and holds data virtually indefinitely
- —More expensive than PROM

#### **EEPROM**

- Can be written anytime without erasing prior contents
- Write operation takes longer than read
- More expensive than EPROM, less dense

# Types of ROM

#### 1. Programmable Read Only Memory (PROM)

- · Empty of data when manufactured
- May be permanently programmed by the user

#### 2. Erasable Programmable Read Only Memory (EPROM)

- · Can be programmed, erased and reprogrammed
- The EPROM chip has a small window on top allowing it to be erased by shining ultra-violet light on it
- After reprogramming the window is covered to prevent new contents being erased
- · Access time is around 45 90 nanoseconds

# Types of ROM

#### 3. Electrically Erasable Programmable Read Only Memory (EEPROM)

- · Reprogrammed electrically without using ultraviolet light
- Must be removed from the computer and placed in a special machine to do this
- Access times between 45 and 200 nanoseconds

#### 4. Flash ROM

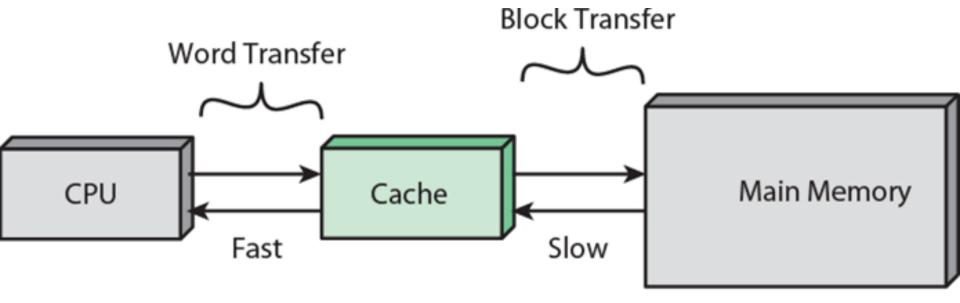
- Similar to EEPROM
- However, can be reprogrammed while still in the computer
- Easier to upgrade programs stored in Flash ROM
- · Used to store programs in devices e.g. modems
- Access time is around 45 90 nanoseconds

#### 5. ROM cartridges

- Commonly used in games machines
- Prevents software from being easily copied

#### **Cache**

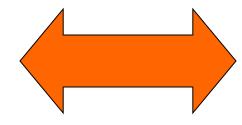
- Small amount of fast memory
- Sits between main memory and CPU
- May be located on CPU chip or module



## The operation of cache memory

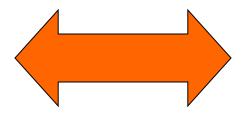
Main Memory (DRAM)

1 Cache fetches data from addresses in main memory



4. If not, the CPU has to fetch next instruction from main memory - a much slower process

Cache Memory (SRAM) 2. CPU checks to see whether the next instruction it requires is in cache



**CPU** 

3. If present then the instruction is fetched from the cache - a very fast operation

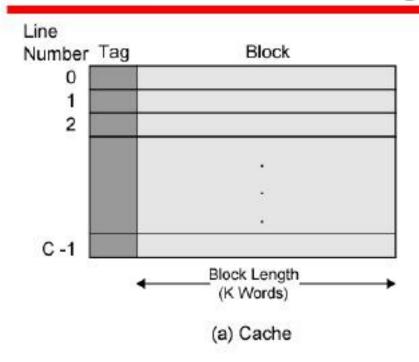


= Bus connections

#### **Cache operation – overview**

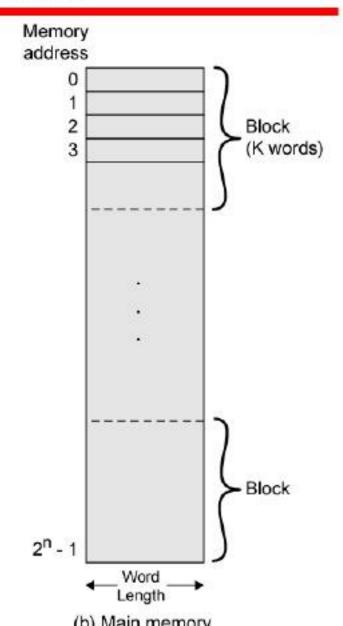
- CPU requests contents of memory location
- Check cache for this data
- If present, get from cache (fast)
- If not present, read required block from main memory to cache
- Then deliver from cache to CPU
- Cache includes tags to identify which block of main memory is in each cache slot

## **Cache/Main Memory Structure**



TAG - A unique identifier for a group of data.

Since different regions of memory may be mapped into a block, the tag is used to differentiate between them.



- CPU cache is divided into three main 'Levels', L1, L2, and L3.
  - The hierarchy is according to the speed, and thus, the size of the cache.
- > Level 1 (L1) cache -fast small, embedded in the processor chip (CPU).
- ➤ Level 2 (L2) cache more capacity than L1; located on the CPU or on a separate chip or coprocessor.
- ➤ Level 3 (L3) cache specialized memory to improve the performance of L1 and L2.
  - Slower than L1 or L2, double the speed of RAM

## **Cache Design**

- Size
- Mapping Function
- Replacement Algorithm
- Write Policy
- Block Size
- Number of Caches

#### Size does matter

- Cost
  - —More cache is expensive
- Speed
  - —More cache is faster (up to a point)
  - —Checking cache for data takes time

#### **MAPPING TECHNIQUES**

DIRECT MAPPING

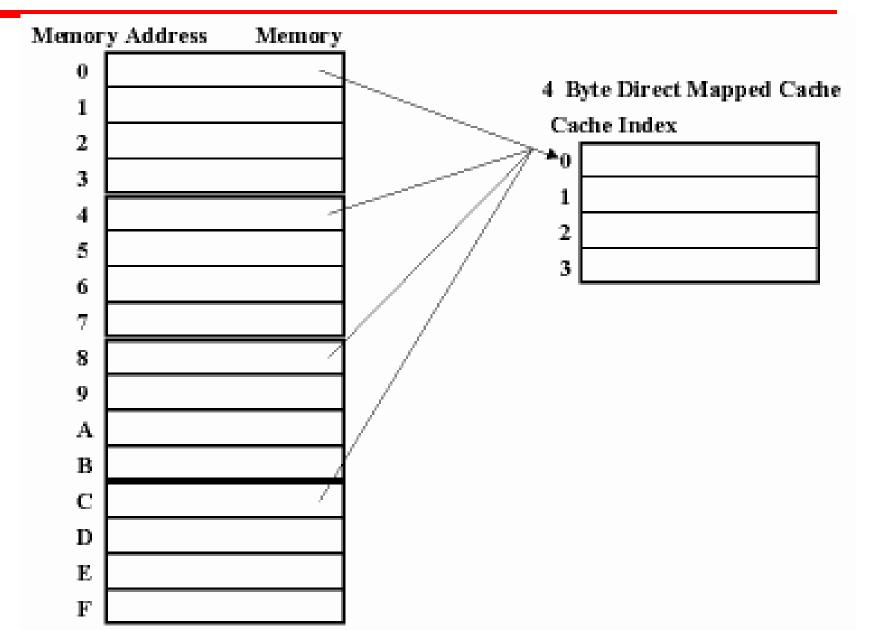
ASSOCIATIVE MAPPING

—FULLY ASSOCIATIVE MAPPING

—SET ASSOCIATIVE MAPPING

2-WAY SET ASSOCIATIVE MAPPING

#### **DIRECT MAPPING CONCEPT**



#### **Main Memory**

#### **OABCCE**

1

2

3

4FFFFE

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

#### Cache

0 / 4 / 8 [4FFFFEE] 1 /5 / 9 [9]

2 /6 / 10 [2]

3 /7/ 11 [7]

#### **DIRECT MAPPING**

Cache- 128 blocks of 16 words each
 -128 \* 16 = 2048 approx 2 KB

| 0   | 16 words |
|-----|----------|
| 1   | 16 words |
|     | 16 words |
| 127 | 16 words |

Main Memory – 4K blocks of 16 words each
 —4K \* 16 = 64000 approx 64 KB

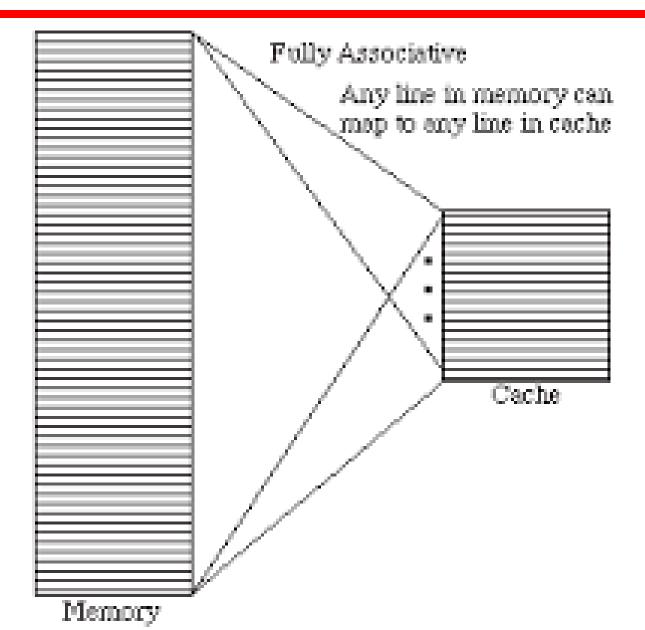
TOTAL ADDRESS SIZE 16 bit

| Tag | Block/Line(128) | Word(16) |
|-----|-----------------|----------|
|     |                 |          |

#### **Working of Direct Mapping**

- Word" field selects one from among the 16 addressable words in a line.
- The "Line" field defines the cache line where this memory line should reside.
- The "Tag" field of the address is then compared with that cache line's 5-bit tag to determine whether there is a hit or a miss.
  - If there's a miss, we need to swap out the memory line that occupies that position in the cache and replace it with the desired memory line.

#### **FULLY ASSOCIATIVE MAPPING**



#### **ASSOCIATIVE MAPPING**

- Cache- 128 blocks of 16 words each
- 128 \* 16 = 2048 approx 2 KB

- Main Memory 4K blocks of 16 words each
- 4K \* 16 = 64000 approx 64 KB
- TOTAL ADDRESS SIZE 16 bit

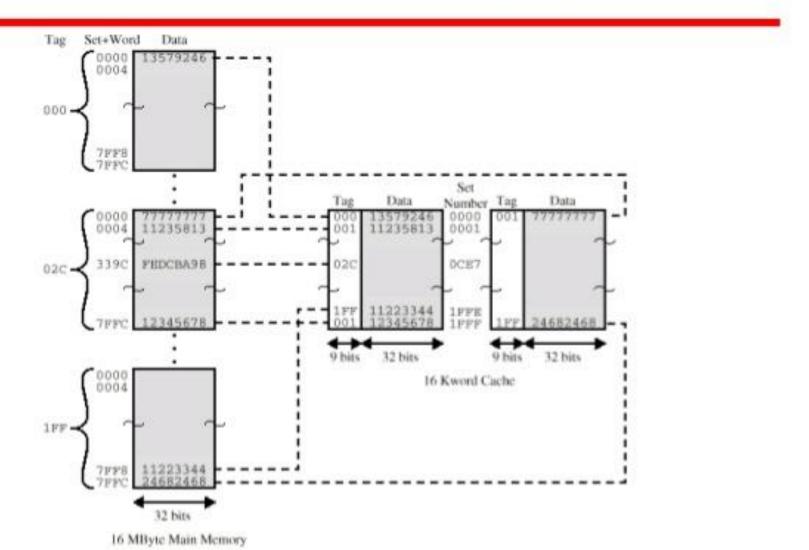
## Tag Word

**12**(16-4) 4 (2 <sup>4</sup>)

#### Working of Fully Associative Mapping

- "Tag" field identifies one of the 2 <sup>12</sup> = 4096 memory lines;
- All the cache tags are searched to find out whether or not the Tag field matches one of the cache tags.
- If so, we have a hit, and if not there's a miss and we need to replace one of the cache lines by this line before reading or writing into the cache.
- (The "Word" field again selects one from among 16 addressable words (bytes) within the line.)

### Two Way Set Associative Mapping Example



#### **SET ASSOCIATIVE MAPPING(2-way)**

- Cache- 128 blocks of 16 words each
- 128 \* 16 = 2048 approx 2 KB
- Set divided into 2 (128 /2) = 64
- Main Memory 4K blocks of 16 words each
- 4K \* 16 = 64000 approx 64 KB

| Tag | Set | Word |  |  |
|-----|-----|------|--|--|
|     |     |      |  |  |

$$6(16-(4+6))$$
  $6(2^6)$   $4(2^4)$ 

#### Working

- "Tag" field identifies one of the  $2^6 = 64$  different memory lines in each of the  $2^6 = 64$  different "Set" values.
- Since each cache set has room for only two lines at a time, the search for a match is limited to those two lines (rather than the entire cache).
- If there's a match, we have a hit and the read or write can proceed immediately.
- Otherwise, there's a miss and we need to replace one of the two cache lines by this line before reading or writing into the cache. (The "Word" field again select one from among 16 addressable words inside the line.)
- In set-associative mapping, when the number of lines per set is n, the mapping is called n-way associative. For instance, the above example is 2-way associative.

# **Direct Mapping Cache Line Table**

Cache line

Main Memory blocks held

• 0

0, m, 2m, 3m...2s-m

• 1

1,m+1, 2m+1...2s-m+1

• m-1

m-1, 2m-1,3m-1...2s-1

#### **Direct Mapping pros & cons**

- Simple
- Inexpensive
- Fixed location for given block
  - —If a program accesses 2 blocks that map to the same line repeatedly, cache misses are very high

#### **Associative Mapping**

- A main memory block can load into any line of cache
- Memory address is interpreted as tag and word
- Tag uniquely identifies block of memory
- Every line's tag is examined for a match
- Cache searching gets expensive

#### **Set Associative Mapping**

- Cache is divided into a number of sets
- Each set contains a number of lines
- A given block maps to any line in a given set
  - —e.g. Block B can be in any line of set i
- e.g. 2 lines per set
  - —2 way associative mapping
  - —A given block can be in one of 2 lines in only one set

#### **Problem statement**

Consider a cache consisting of 256 blocks of 16 words each for a total of 4096(4KB) words and assume that the main memory is addressable by a 16 bit address and it consists of 4KB blocks of 16 words.

How many bits are there in each of the TAG,BLOCK/SET and WORD field for Direct Mapping, Fully Associative and 2-way set associative techniques?

#### **Problem statement**

A block set associative cache memory consists of 128 blocks divided into four block sets. The main memory consists of 16,384 blocks and each block contains 256 words.

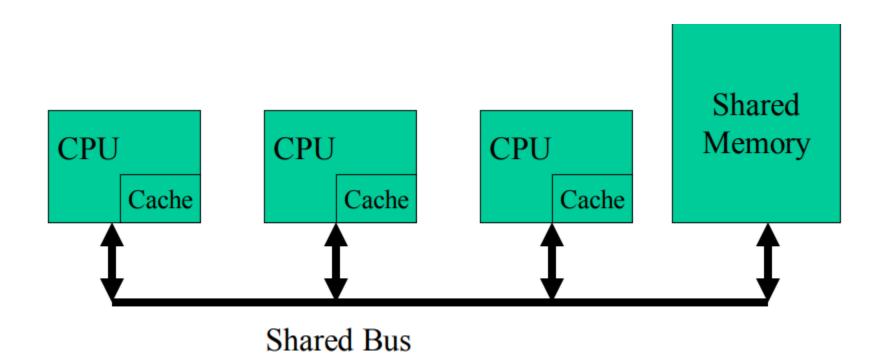
- i) How many bits are required for addressing the main memory?
- ii) How many bits are needed to represent the TAG, SET and WORD fields?

#### **Problem statement**

A block set associative cache memory consists of 64 blocks divided into four block sets. The main memory consists of 4096 blocks and each block contains 128 words.

- i) How many bits are there in main memory?
- ii) How many bits are needed to represent the TAG, SET and WORD fields?

#### **CACHE COHERENCE**



#### **Cache Coherence**

- Problem multiple copies of same data in different caches
- Can result in an inconsistent view of memory
  - —Write through
  - —Write back policy
  - —Write invalidate
  - —Write Update

#### **Software Solutions**

- Compiler and operating system deal with problem
- Overhead transferred to compile time
- Complier marks data likely to be changed and OS prevents such data from being cached
- Design complexity transferred from hardware to software

#### **Hardware Solution**

- Cache coherence protocols
- Dynamic recognition of potential problems
- Run time
- More efficient use of cache
- **Transparent** to programmer
- Snoopy protocols(to maintain cache consistency)

#### **Snoopy Protocols**

- Distribute cache coherence responsibility among cache controllers
- Cache recognizes that a line is shared
- Updates announced to other caches
- Suited to bus based multiprocessor
- Increases bus traffic

#### Write through

- All writes go to main memory as well as cache
- Multiple CPUs can monitor main memory traffic to keep local (to CPU) cache up to date
- Lots of traffic
- Slows down writes

#### Write back

- Updates initially made in cache only
- Update bit for cache slot is set when update occurs
- If block is to be replaced, write to main memory only if update bit is set
- Other caches get out of sync
- I/O must access main memory through cache

#### **Write Update**

- Multiple readers and writers
- Updated word is distributed to all other processors
- Some systems use an adaptive mixture of both solutions

#### **Write Invalidate**

- Multiple readers, one writer
- When a write is required, all other caches of the line are invalidated
- Writing processor then has exclusive access until line required by another processor
- State of every line is marked as modified, exclusive, shared or invalid
- MESI protocol

#### **MESI Protocol**

Commonly implemented for Cache coherence MESI protocol -four states that a cache line may be in:

- Modified
- Exclusive
- Shared
- Invalid

#### **MESI** protocol

- Invalid: This cache line is not valid
- Exclusive: This cache has the only copy of the data. The memory is valid.
- Shared: More than one cache is holding a copy of this line. The memory copy is valid.
- Modified: The line has been modified. The memory copy is invalid.

# Interleaved And Associative Memory

#### **Interleaved Memory**

- Interleaved memory is a design made to compensate for the relatively slow speed of DRAM
- Spreads memory addresses evenly across
- Contiguous memory reads and writes
- Resulting in higher memory throughputs due to reduced waiting.

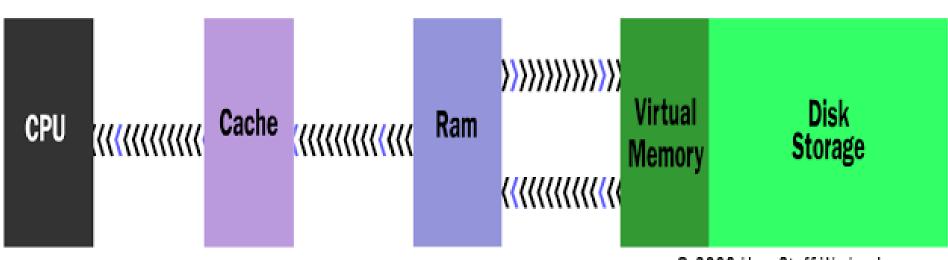
|         | Chip 00 |         | Chip 01 |         | Chip 10 |         | Chip 11 |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| C[0]    | M[0]    | C[0]    | M[1]    | C[0]    | M[2]    | C[0]    | M[3]    |
| C[1]    | M[4]    | C[1]    | M[5]    | C[1]    | M[6]    | C[1]    | M[7]    |
|         |         |         |         |         |         |         |         |
|         |         |         |         |         |         |         |         |
| C[1023] | M[4092] | C[1023] | M[4093] | C[1023] | M[4094] | C[1023] | M[4095] |

#### **Associative Memory**

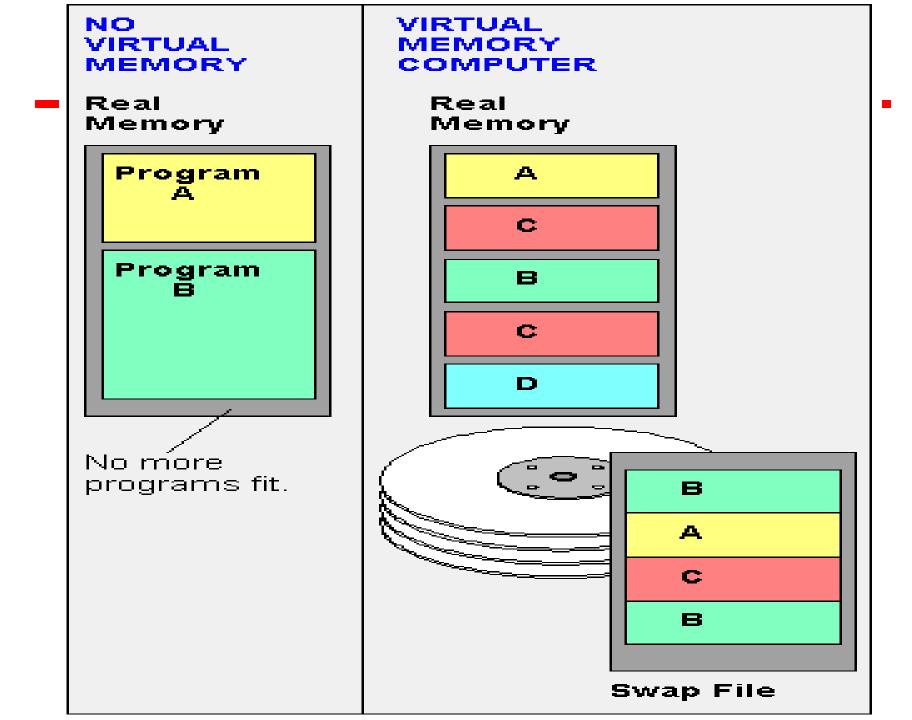
- Content-addressed or associative memory-memory is accessed by its content (as opposed to an explicit address).
- Reference clues are "associated" with actual memory contents until a desirable match (or set of matches) is found.
- Humans retrieve information best when it can be linked to other related information.

#### **Virtual Memory**

# **Memory Management**



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Virtual memory

Allows more

opened

programs to be

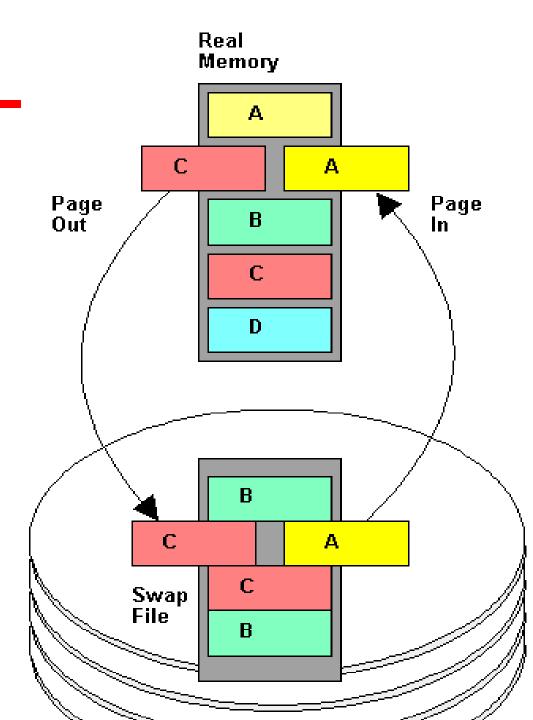
simultaneously by

using the hard disk

as temporary

pages.

storage of memory



# VIRTUAL MEMORY

- 32 or 64MB of RAM available for CPU usage.
- Users expect all their programs to run at once.
- Ex Email program, a Web browser and word processor(all in RAM simultaneously)
- Find RAM for areas that have not been used recently and copy them onto the hard disk

# VIRTUAL MEMORY

- Frees up space in RAM to load the new application.
- Copying happens automatically(feels like unlimited RAM space )
- Hard disk space is much cheaper than RAM chips, thus has a economic benefit.
- Read/write speed of a hard drive & technology is not geared toward accessing small pieces of data at a time.

#### VIRTUAL MEMORY

- Operating system has to constantly swap information back and forth between RAM and the hard disk.
- Thrashing- computer feels incredibly slow.

# **PAGING**

- Unequal fixed size /Variable Size partitions(Inefficient)
- Primary memory is divided into small equal fixed
   sized partitions (256, 512, 1K) called page frames.
- Process are divided into same sized blocks(pages)
   called paging.
- Recently referenced pages in the memory.
- Need a page table to this management.

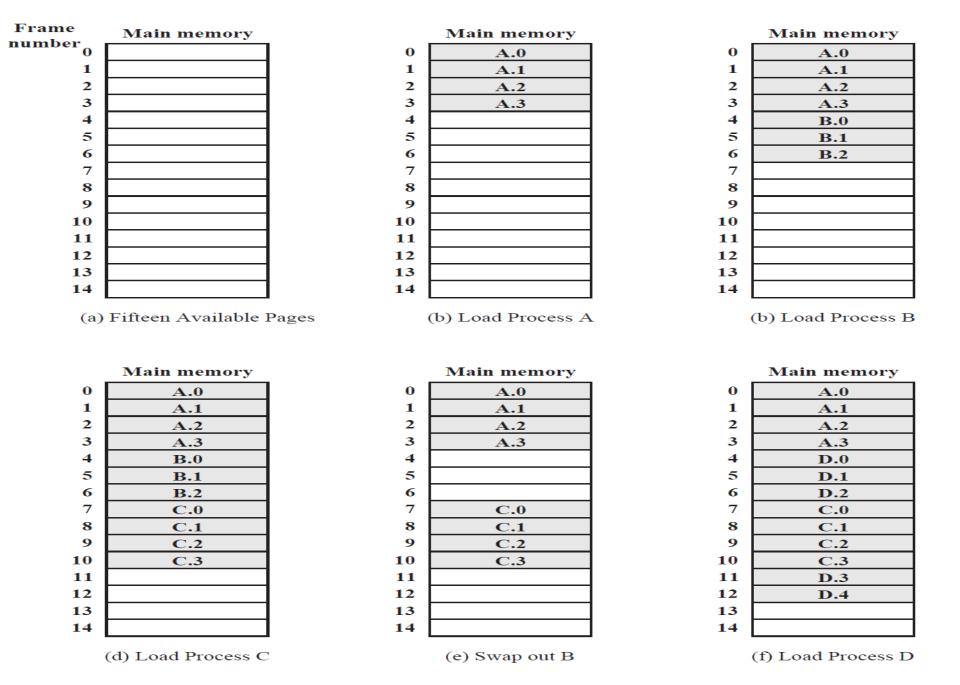


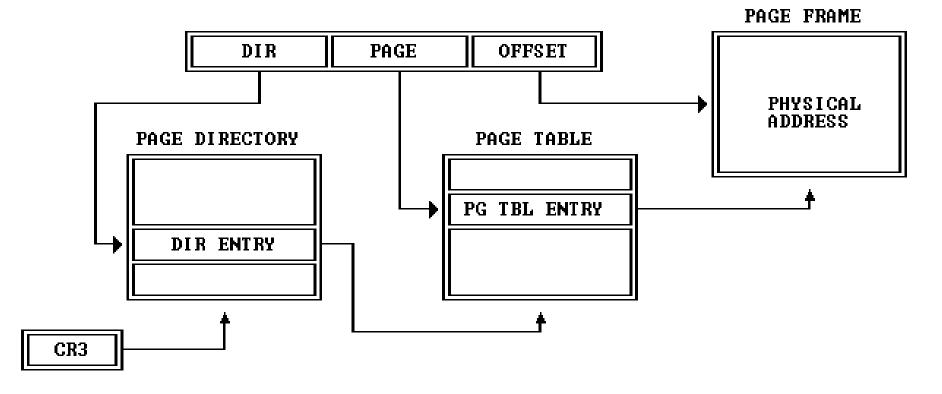
Figure 7.9 Assignment of Process Pages to Free Frames

### **Page Table Sample**

Figure 5-8. Format of a Linear Address



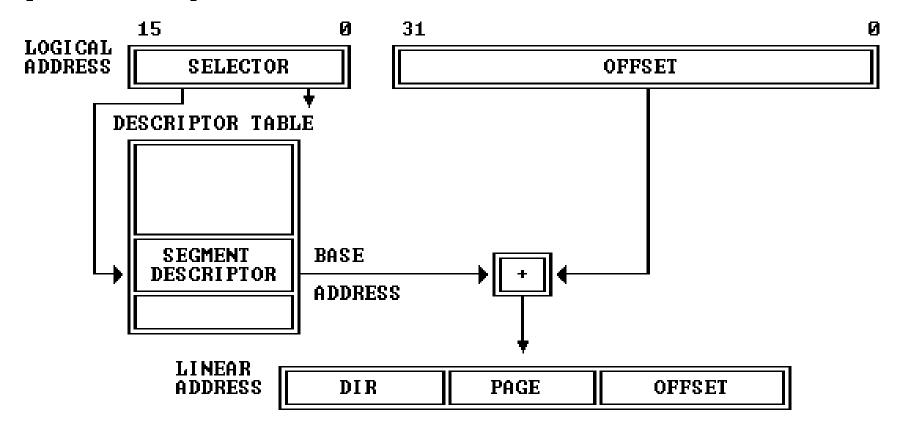
Figure 5-9. Page Translation



# SEGMENTATION

- Paging -> internal fragmentation.
- Segmentation maps segments representing data structures, modules, etc. into variable partitions.
- Nor contiguous memory blocks neither all segments of a process are loaded at a time.
- We need a segment table very much like a page table.

Figure 5-2. Segment Translation

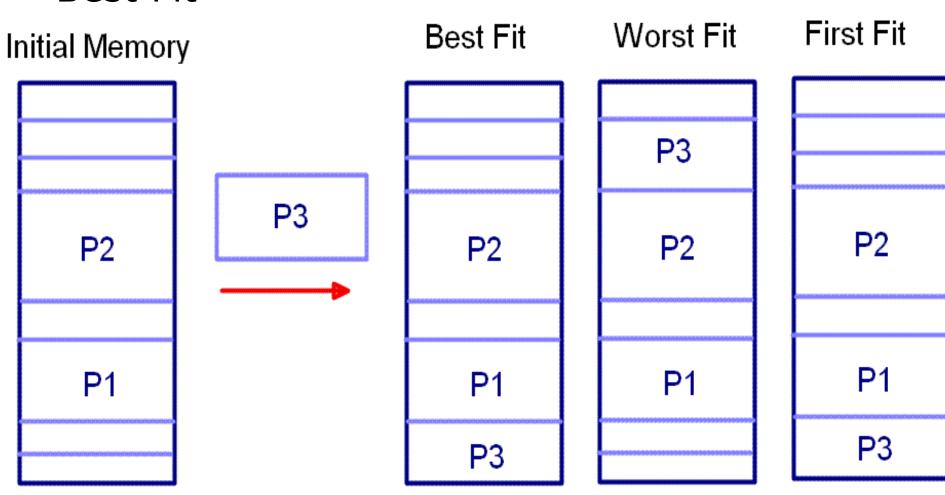


## **Main Memory Allocation**

- Memory is divided into set of contiguous locations called regions/segments/pages
- Store blocks of data
- Placement of blocks of information in memory is called Memory Allocation
- Memory Management Systems keeps information in a table containing available and free slots

# Allocation is done only as per needs

- First Fit
- Best Fit



### **Replacement Algorithms**

- Hardware implemented algorithm (speed)
- Least Recently used (LRU)
  - —Pick the slot that hasn't been used in the longest time.
- First in first out (FIFO)
  - —replace block that has come into cache first
- Random

OPT-Optimal(Future)

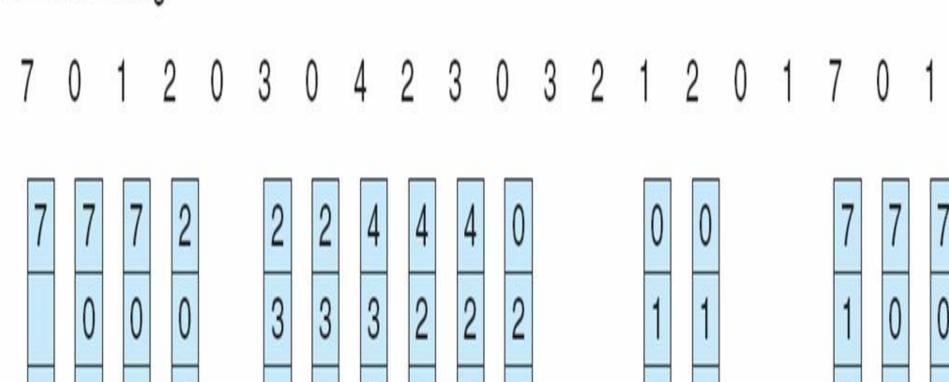
7,0,1,2,0,3,0,4,2,3,0,3,2,1,2,0,1,7,0,1

### FIFO, LRU, OPT

```
1) 1, 6, 4, 5, 1, 4, 3, 2, 1, 2, 1, 4, 6, 7, 4
FIFO \rightarrow 7 - 4 - 6
LRU \rightarrow 4 - 6 - 7
OPT \rightarrow 7 - 6 - 4 (Conflict resolved using LRU)
2) 2, 3, 2, 1, 5, 2, 4, 5, 3, 2, 5, 2
FIFO \rightarrow 3 - 2 - 5
LRU \rightarrow 3-5-2
OPT \rightarrow 2 - 3 - 5
```

# FIFO Page Replacement

reference string

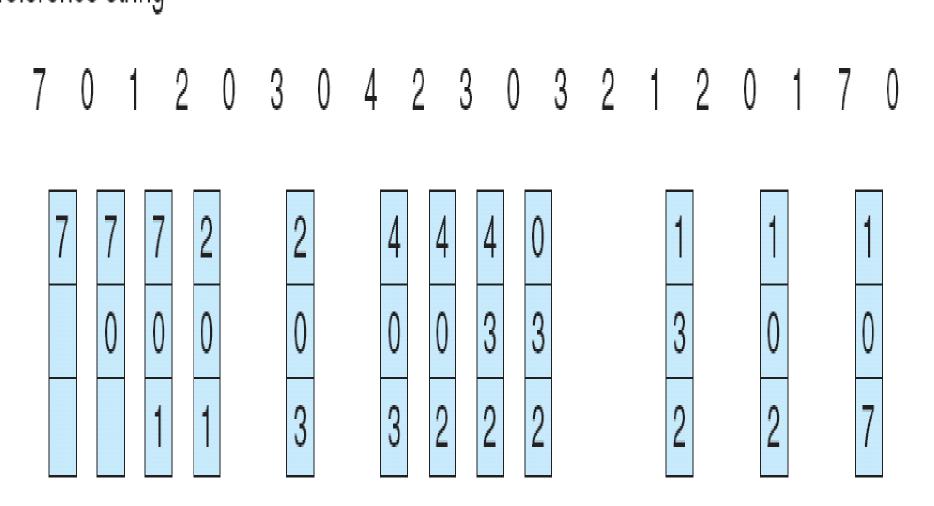


3

page frames

# LRU Page Replacement

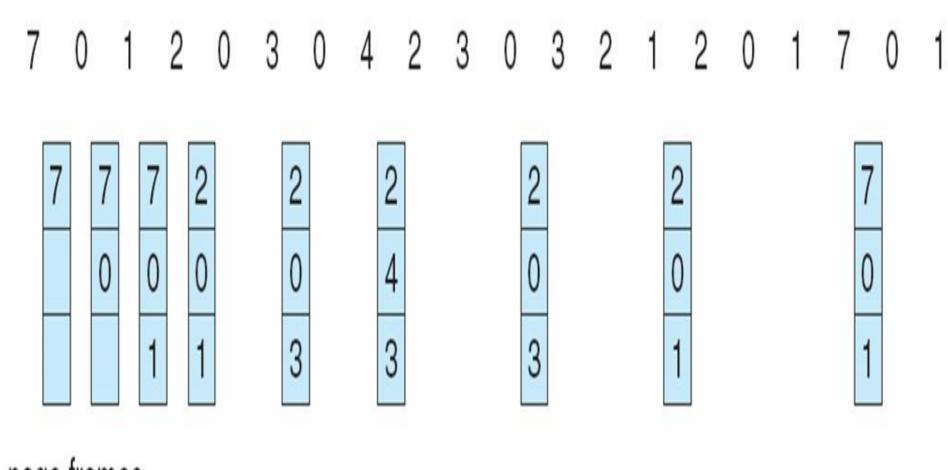
reference string



page frames

# **Optimal Page Replacement**

reference string



page frames

# **Secondary Storage**

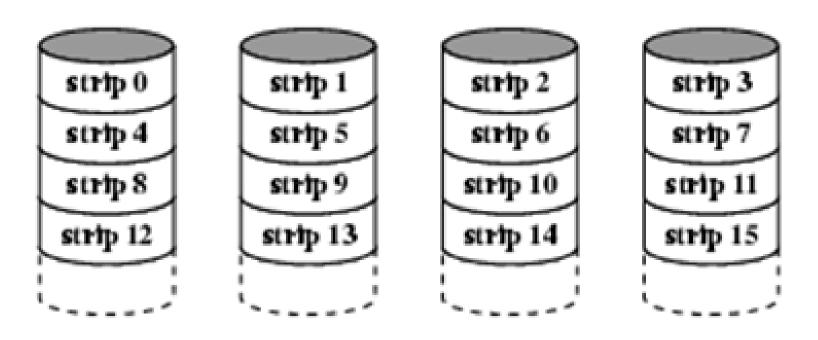
- Magnetic disks
- Floppy disks
- Magnetic Tape
- RAID
- Optical Memory
- CD-ROM
- DVD

#### RAID Levels 0 - 6

#### REDUNDANT ARRAY OF INDEPENDENT DISKS

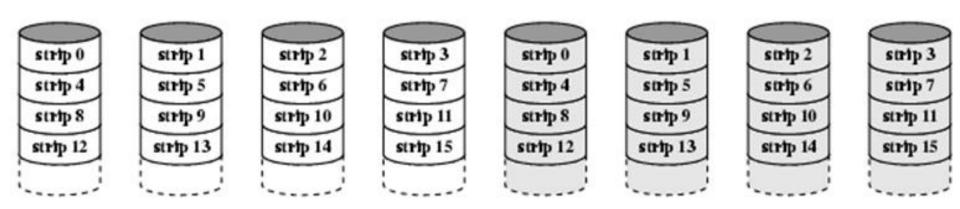
- Storage is an important consideration when setting up a server.
- Almost all of the important information that you and your users care
  about will at one point be written to a storage device to save for
  later retrieval.
- Single disks can serve you well if your needs are straight forward.
- However, if you have more complex redundancy or performance requirements, solutions like RAID can be helpful.

### **RAID Level 0- Non Redundant**



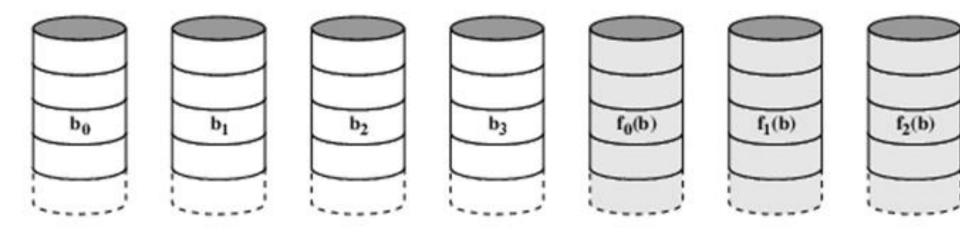
(a) RAID 0 (non-redundant)

#### **RAID Level -1 Mirrored**



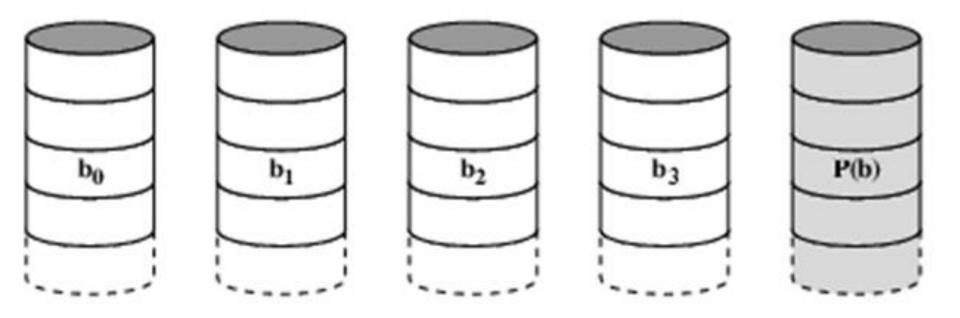
(b) RAID 1 (mtrrored)

# **RAID Level 2- Hamming Code**



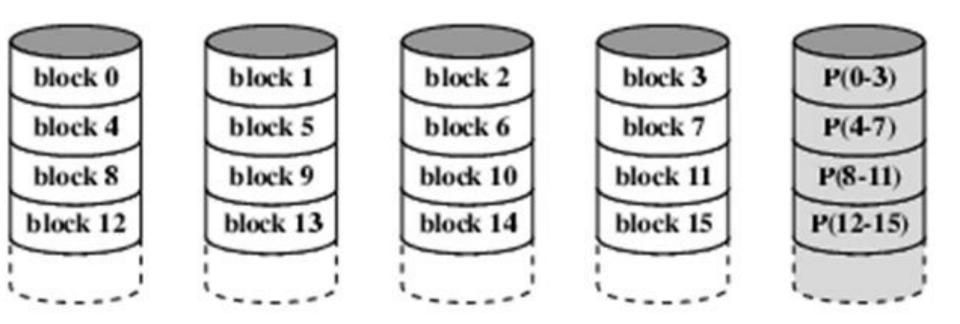
(c) RAID 2 (redundancy through Hamming code)

# **RAID Level 3 –Bit Interleaved Parity**



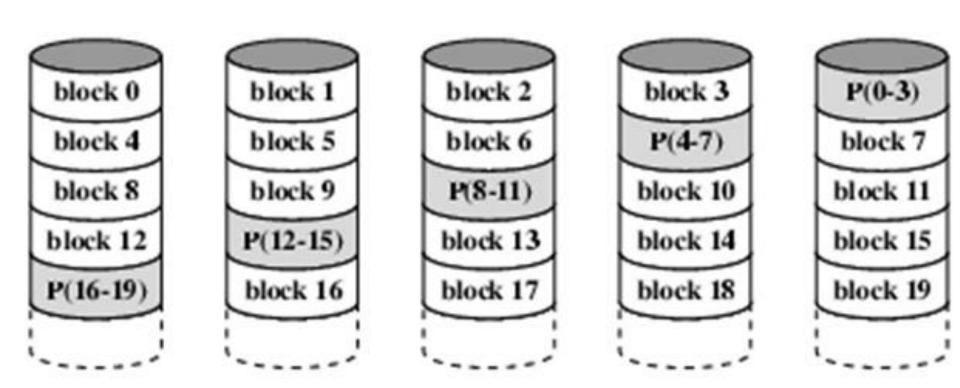
(d) RAID 3 (bit-interleaved parity)

## **RAID Level 4- Block level parity**



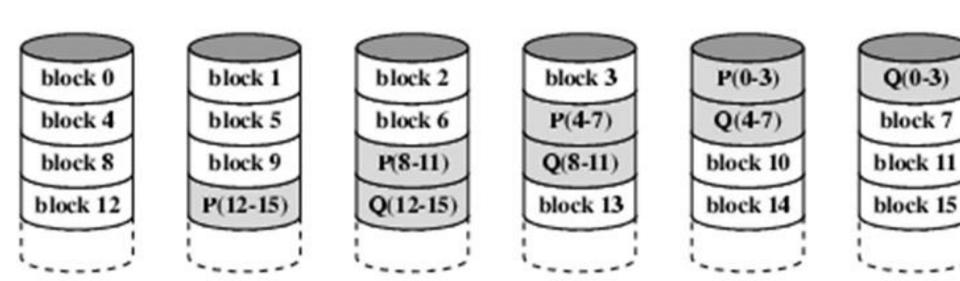
(e) RAID 4 (block-level parity)

# RAID Level 5- Block level Distributed Parity



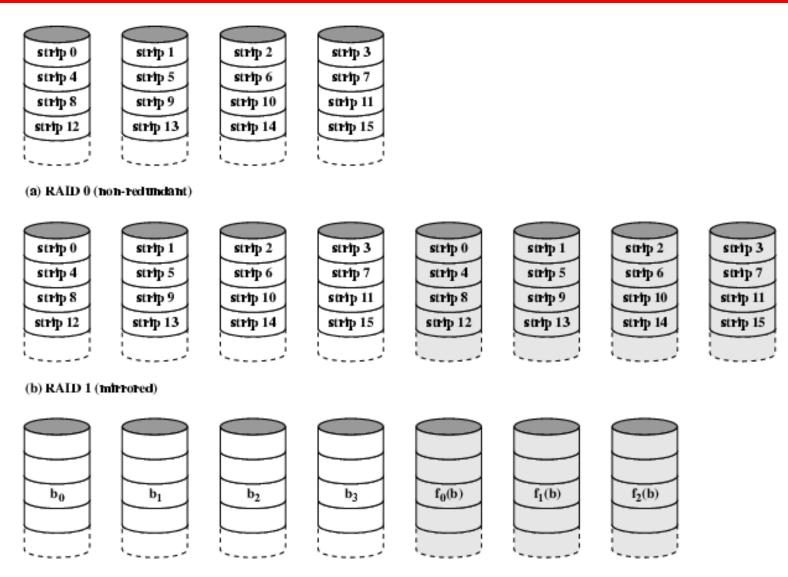
(f) RAID 5 (block-level distributed parity)

### **RAID Level 6- Dual Redundancy**

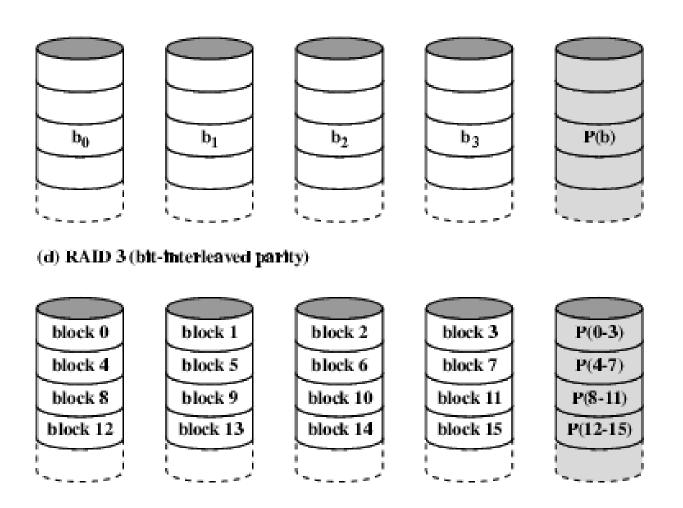


(g) RAID 6 (dual redundancy)

# RAID 0, 1, 2 – Redundant Array of Independent Disks

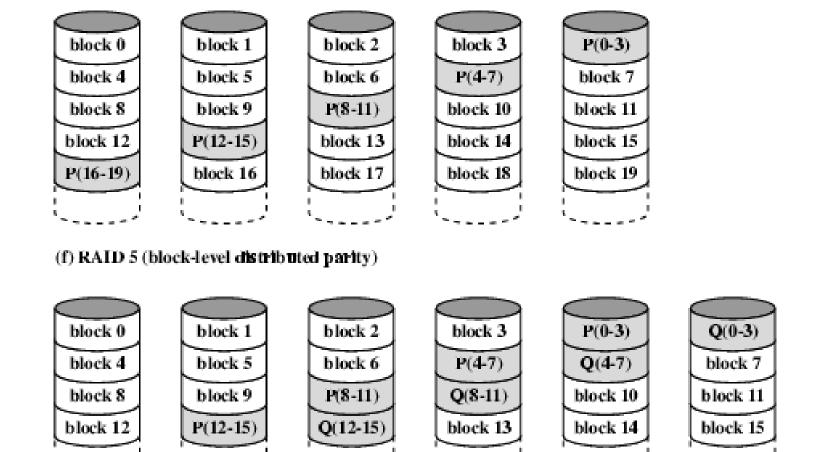


#### **RAID 3 & 4**



(e) RAID 4 (block-level parity)

#### **RAID 5 & 6**



(g) RAID 6 (dual redundancy)

# Solve using FIFO, LRU and OPT page replacement algorithms

Given page reference string:
 1,2,3,4,2,1,5,6,2,1,2,3,7,6,3,2,1,2,3,6