

Systems I

The Memory Hierarchy

Topics

- Storage technologies
- Capacity and latency trends
- The hierarchy

Random-Access Memory (RAM)

Key features

- **RAM** is packaged as a chip.
- Basic storage unit is a **cell** (one bit per cell).
- Multiple RAM chips form a memory.

Static RAM (**SRAM**)

- Each cell stores bit with a six-transistor circuit.
- Retains value indefinitely, as long as it is kept powered.
- Relatively insensitive to disturbances such as electrical noise.
- Faster and more expensive than DRAM.

Dynamic RAM (**DRAM**)

- Each cell stores bit with a capacitor and transistor.
- Value must be refreshed every 10-100 ms.
- Sensitive to disturbances, slower and cheaper than SRAM.

Flash RAM - it's in your ipod and cell phone

- Each cell stores 1 or more bits on a “floating-gate” capacitor
- Keeps state even when power is off
- As cheap as DRAM, but much slower

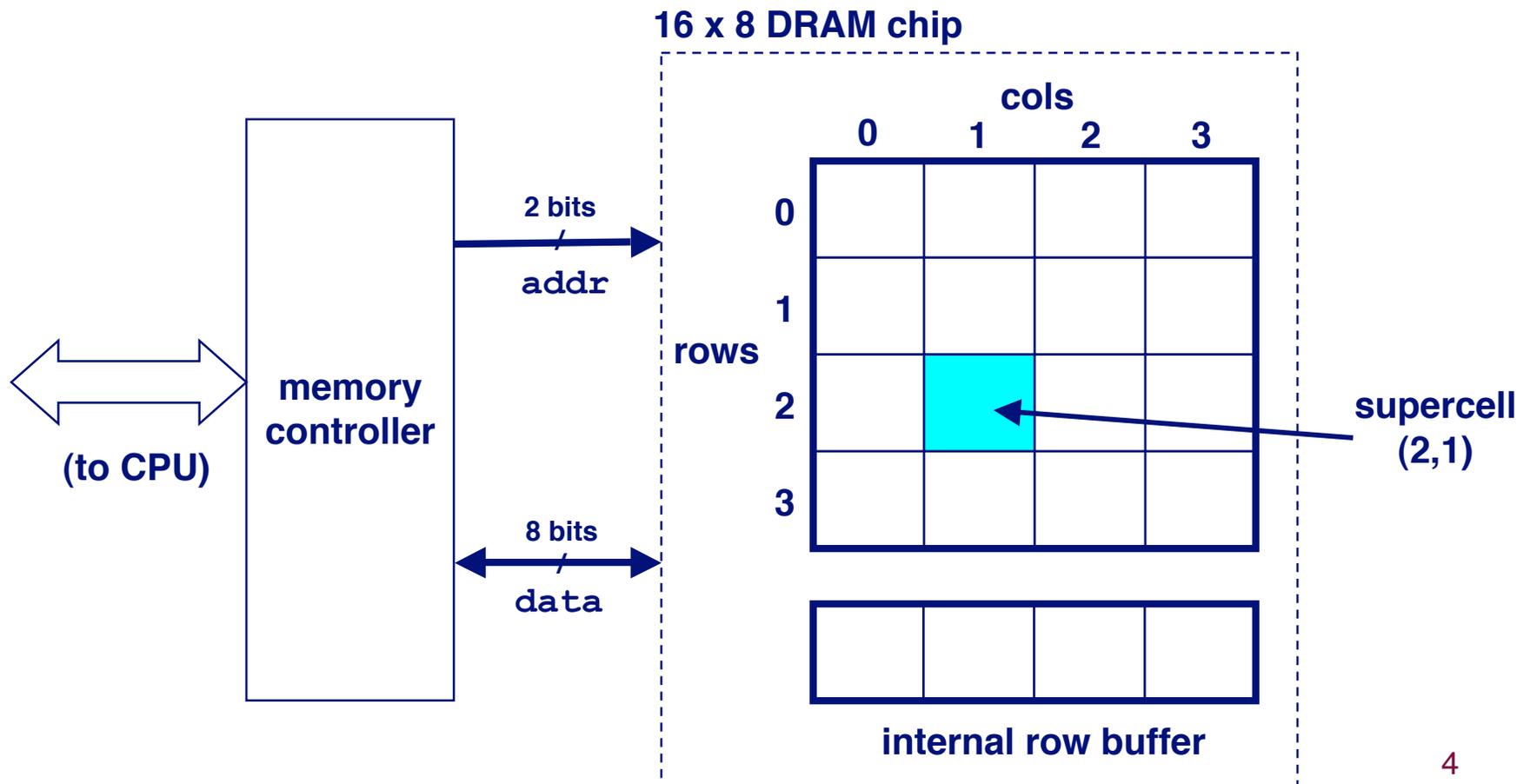
RAM Summary

	Tran. per bit	Access time	Persist?	Sensitive?	Cost	Applications
SRAM	6	1X	Yes	No	100x	cache memories
DRAM	1	10X	No	Yes	1X	Main memories, frame buffers
Flash	1/2-1	10000X	Yes	No	1X	Disk substitute

Conventional DRAM Organization

d x w DRAM:

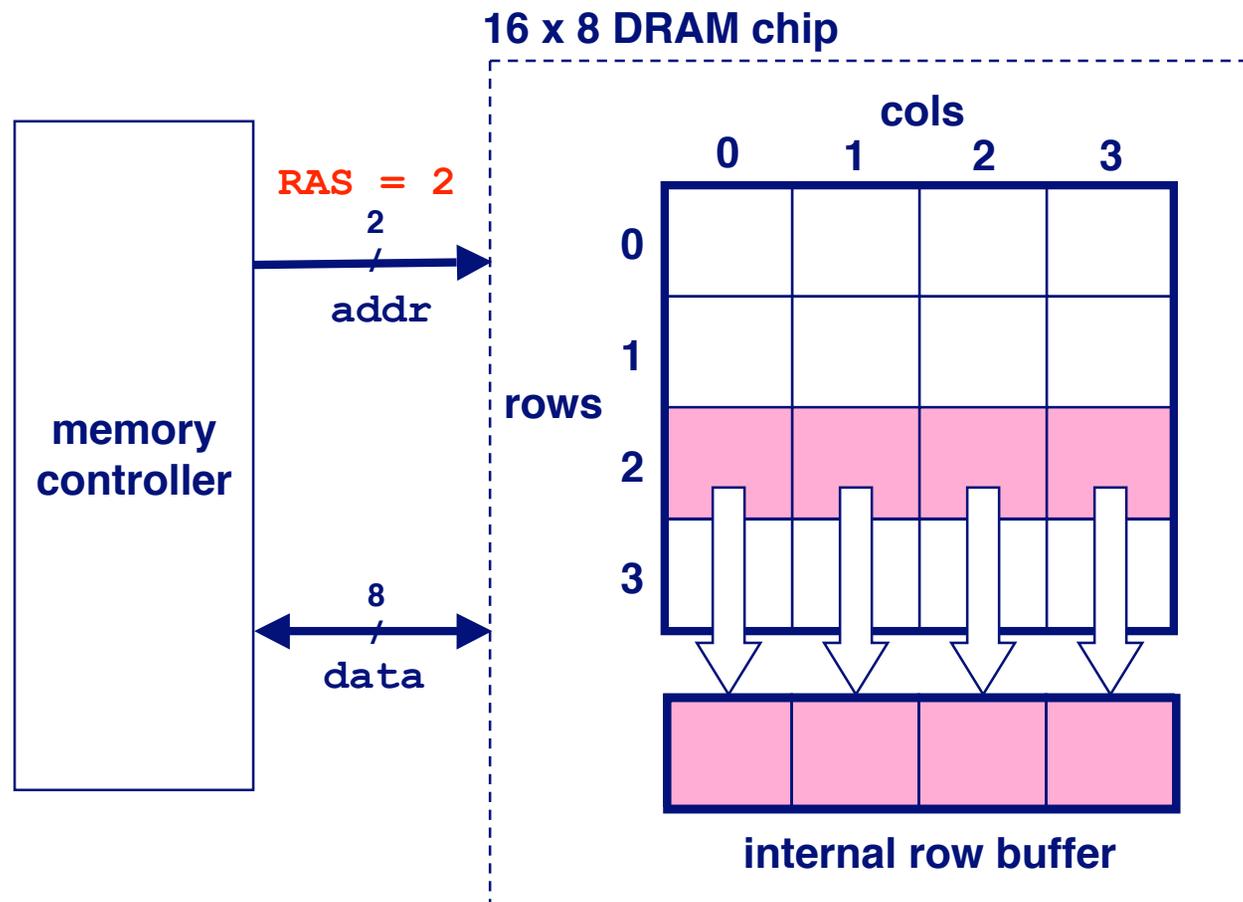
- dw total bits organized as d **supercells** of size w bits



Reading DRAM Supercell (2,1)

Step 1(a): Row access strobe (**RAS**) selects row 2.

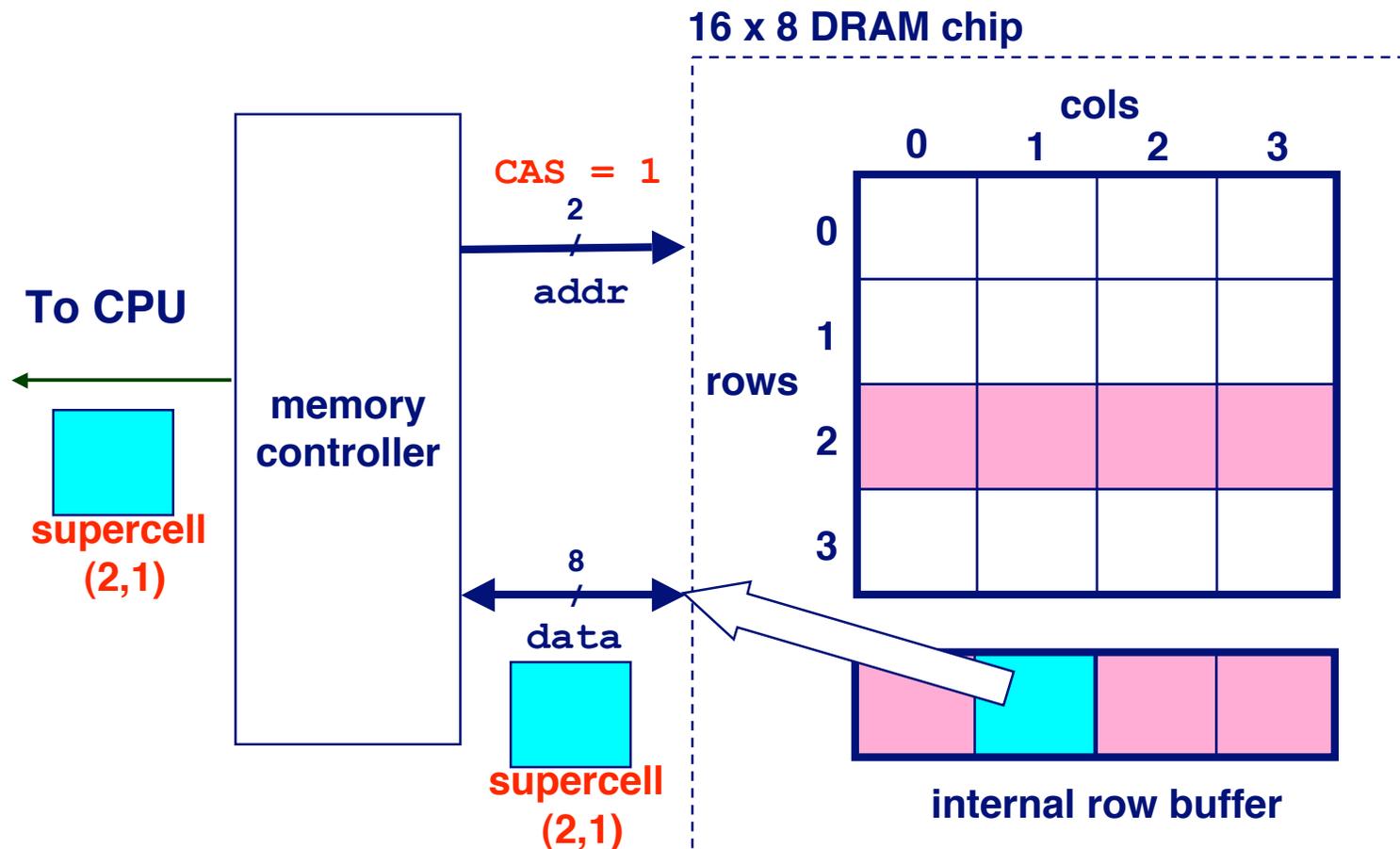
Step 1(b): Row 2 copied from DRAM array to row buffer.



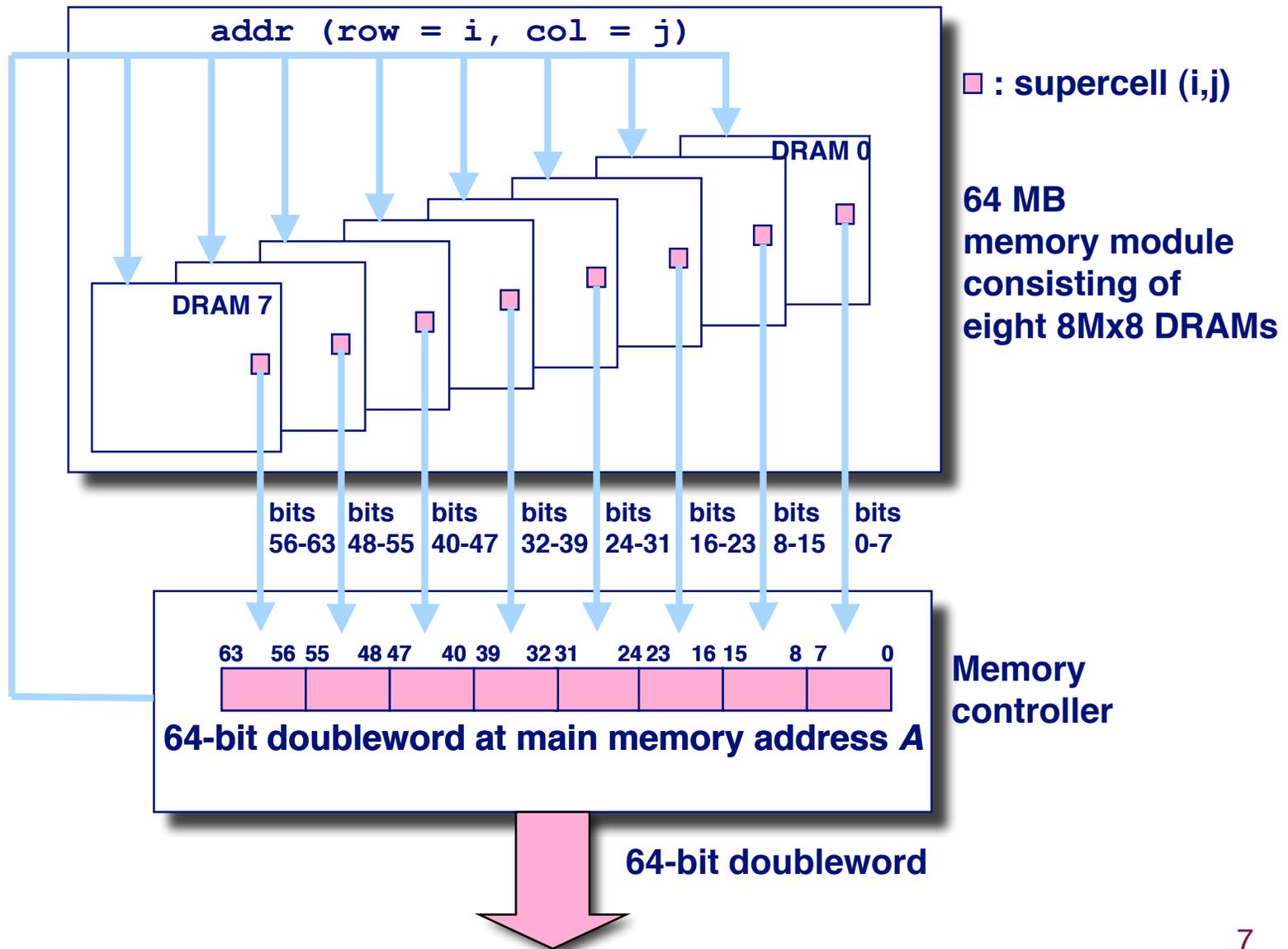
Reading DRAM Supercell (2,1)

Step 2(a): Column access strobe (**CAS**) selects column 1.

Step 2(b): Supercell (2,1) copied from buffer to data lines, and eventually back to the CPU.



Memory Modules



Enhanced DRAMs

All enhanced DRAMs are built around the conventional DRAM core.

- **Fast page mode DRAM (FPM DRAM)**
 - Access contents of row with [RAS, CAS, CAS, CAS, CAS] instead of [(RAS,CAS), (RAS,CAS), (RAS,CAS), (RAS,CAS)].
- **Extended data out DRAM (EDO DRAM)**
 - Enhanced FPM DRAM with more closely spaced CAS signals.
- **Synchronous DRAM (SDRAM)**
 - Driven with rising clock edge instead of asynchronous control signals.
- **Double data-rate synchronous DRAM (DDR SDRAM)**
 - Enhancement of SDRAM that uses both clock edges as control signals.
- **Video RAM (VRAM)**
 - Like FPM DRAM, but output is produced by shifting row buffer
 - Dual ported (allows concurrent reads and writes)

Nonvolatile Memories

DRAM and SRAM are volatile memories

- Lose information if powered off.

Nonvolatile memories retain value even if powered off.

- Generic name is read-only memory (**ROM**).
- Misleading because some ROMs can be read and modified.

Types of ROMs

- Programmable ROM (**PROM**)
- Erasable programmable ROM (**EPROM**)
- Electrically erasable PROM (**EEPROM**)
- Flash memory

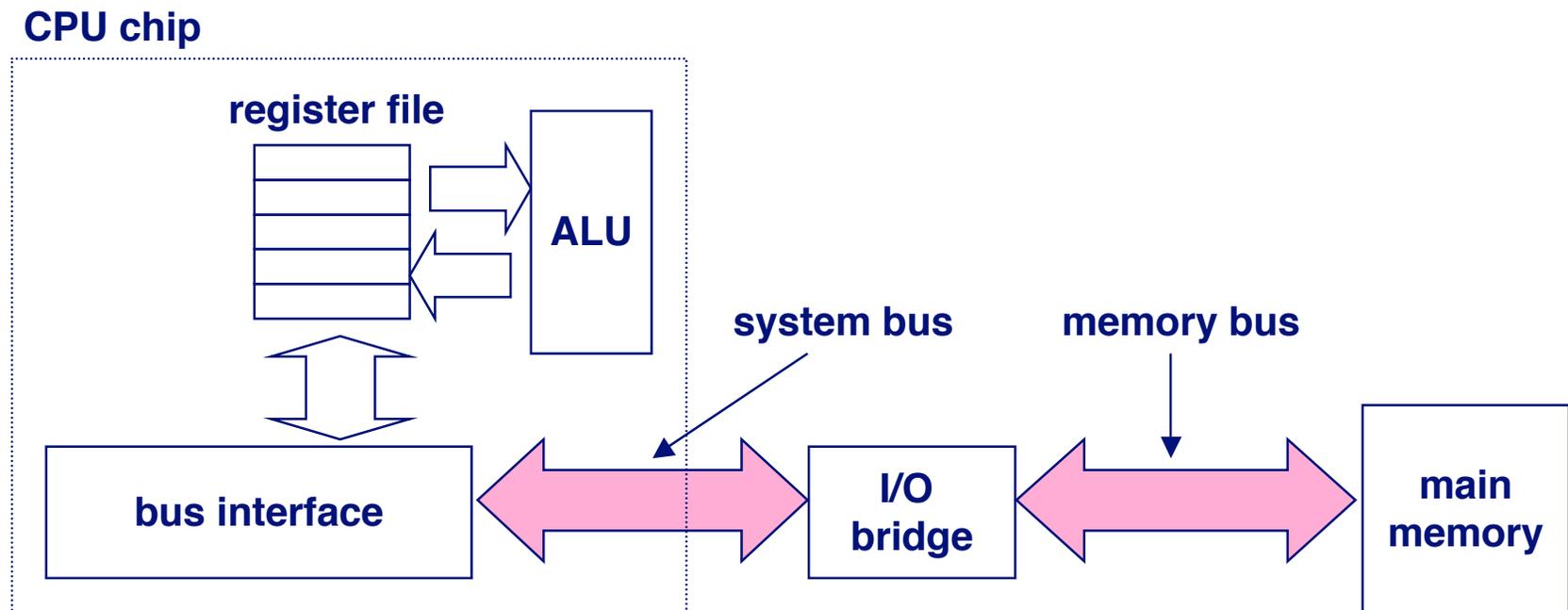
Firmware

- Program stored in a ROM
 - Boot time code, BIOS (basic input/output system)
 - graphics cards, disk controllers.

Typical Bus Structure Connecting CPU and Memory

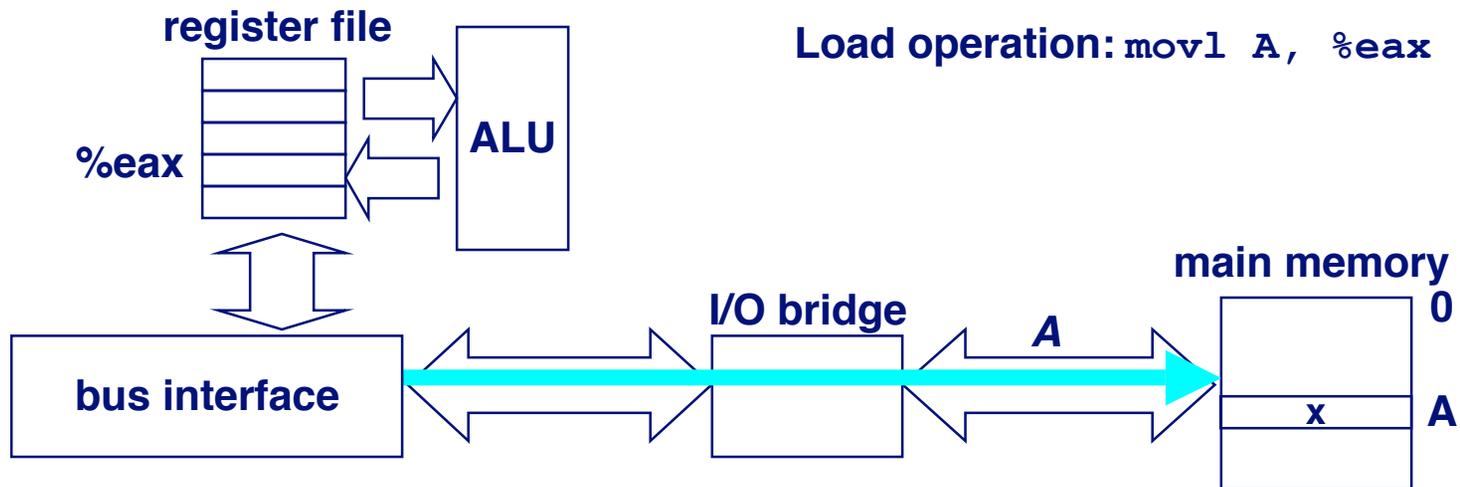
A **bus** is a collection of parallel wires that carry address, data, and control signals.

Buses are typically shared by multiple devices.



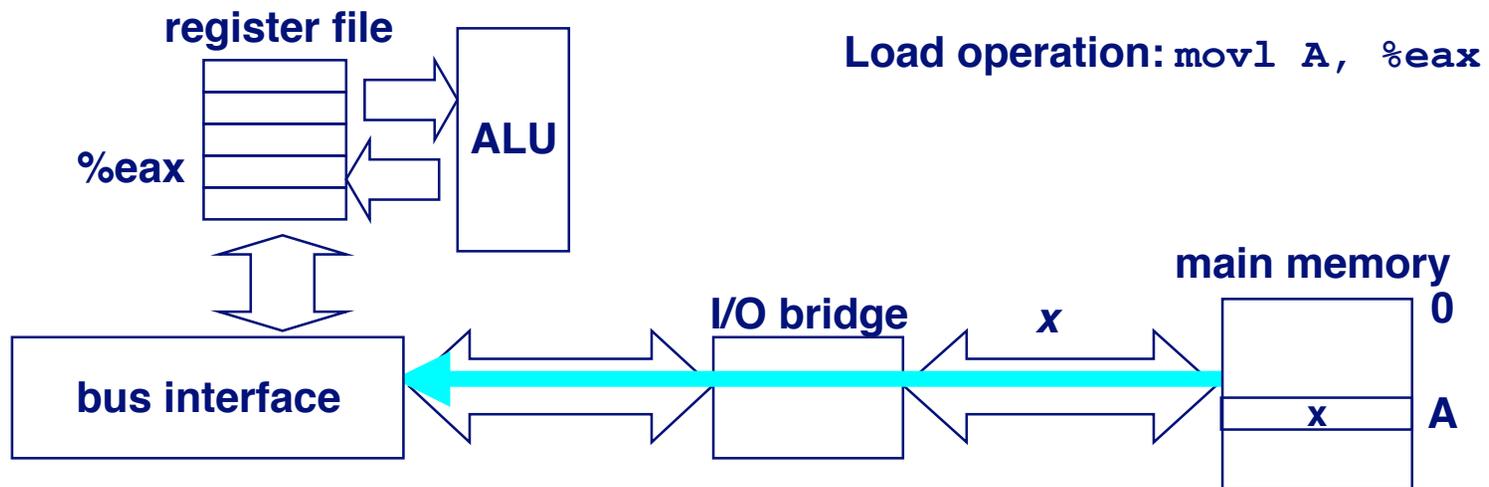
Memory Read Transaction (1)

CPU places address **A** on the memory bus.



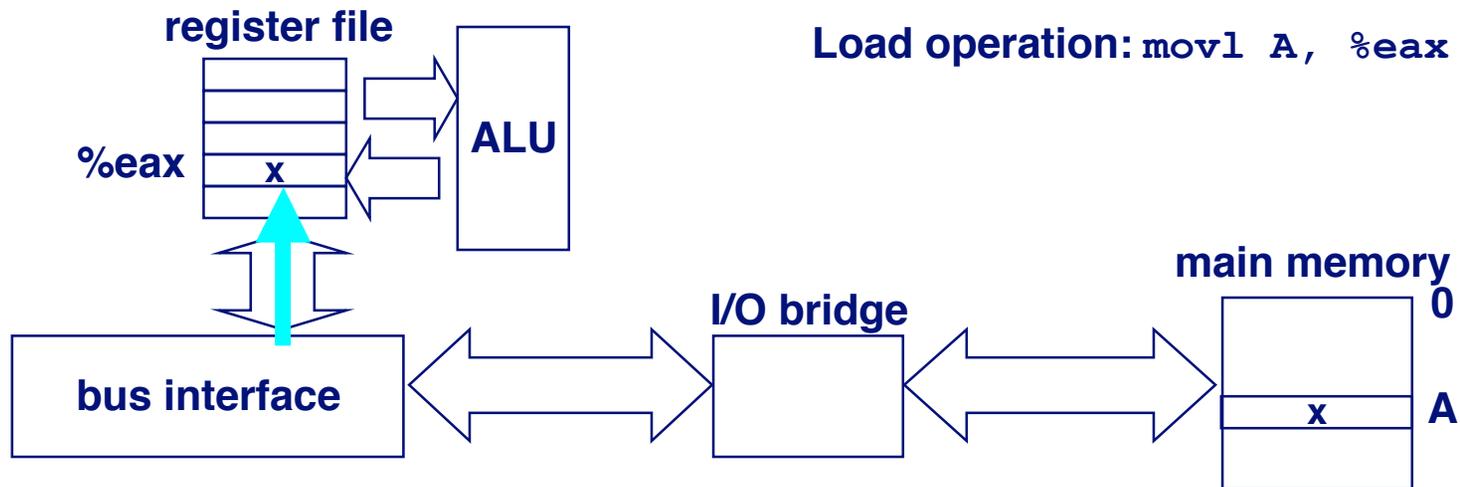
Memory Read Transaction (2)

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



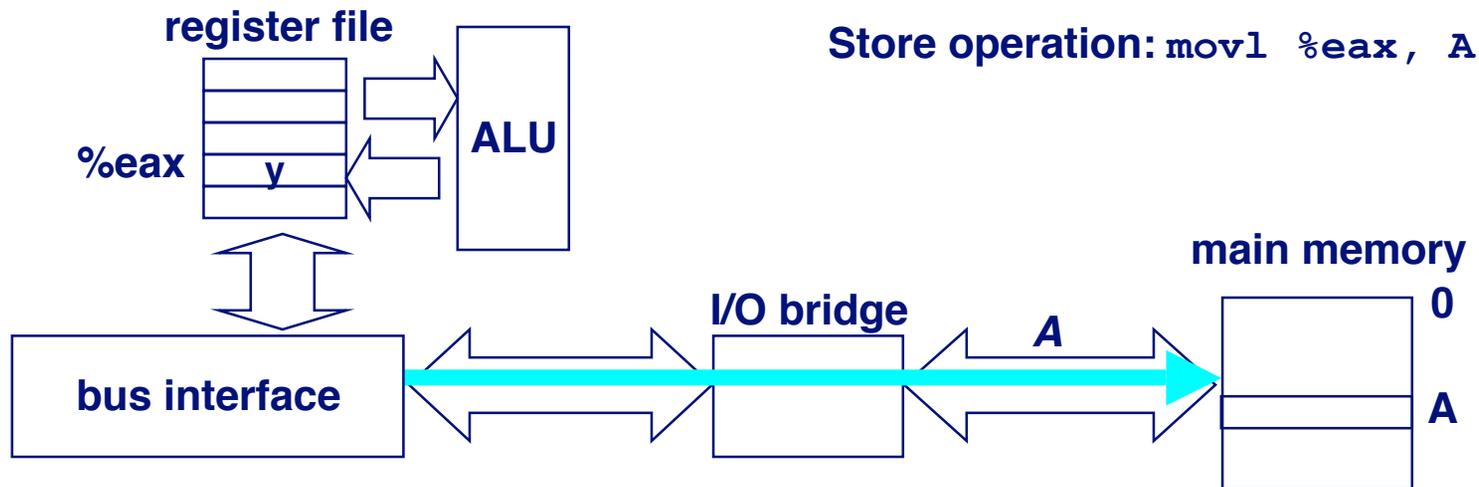
Memory Read Transaction (3)

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



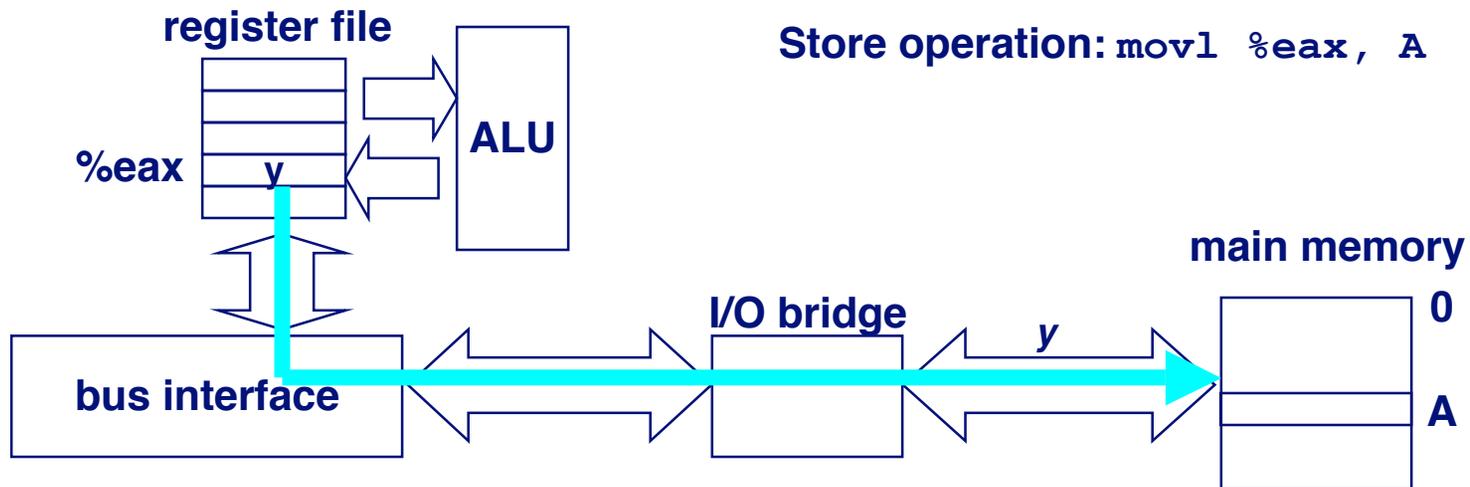
Memory Write Transaction (1)

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



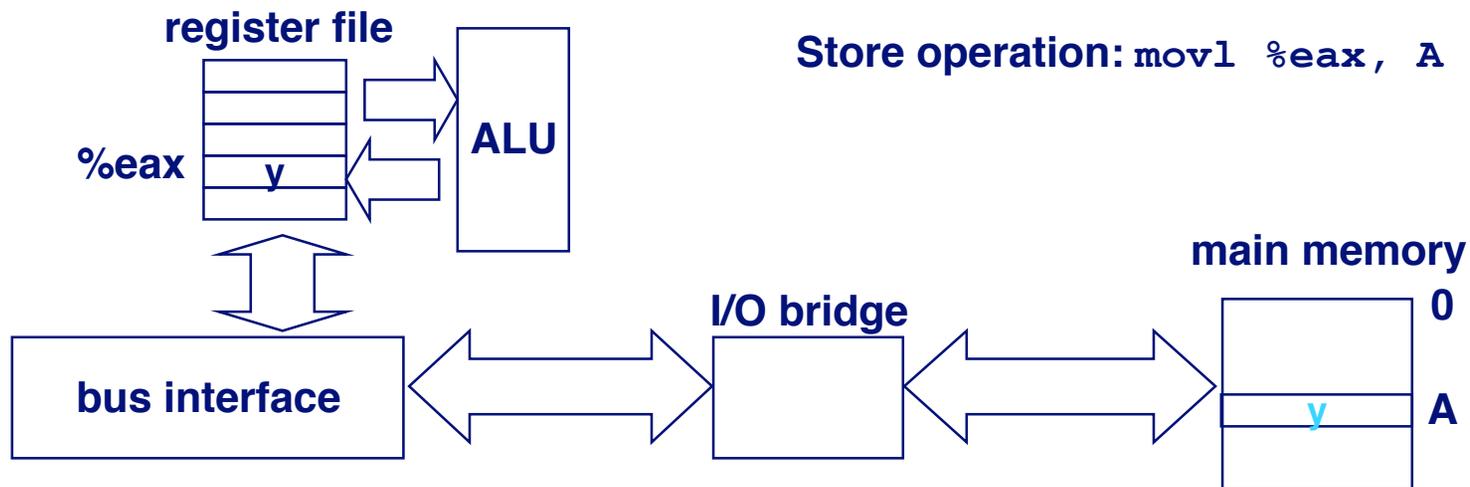
Memory Write Transaction (2)

CPU places data word y on the bus.



Memory Write Transaction (3)

Main memory read data word y from the bus and stores it at address A .

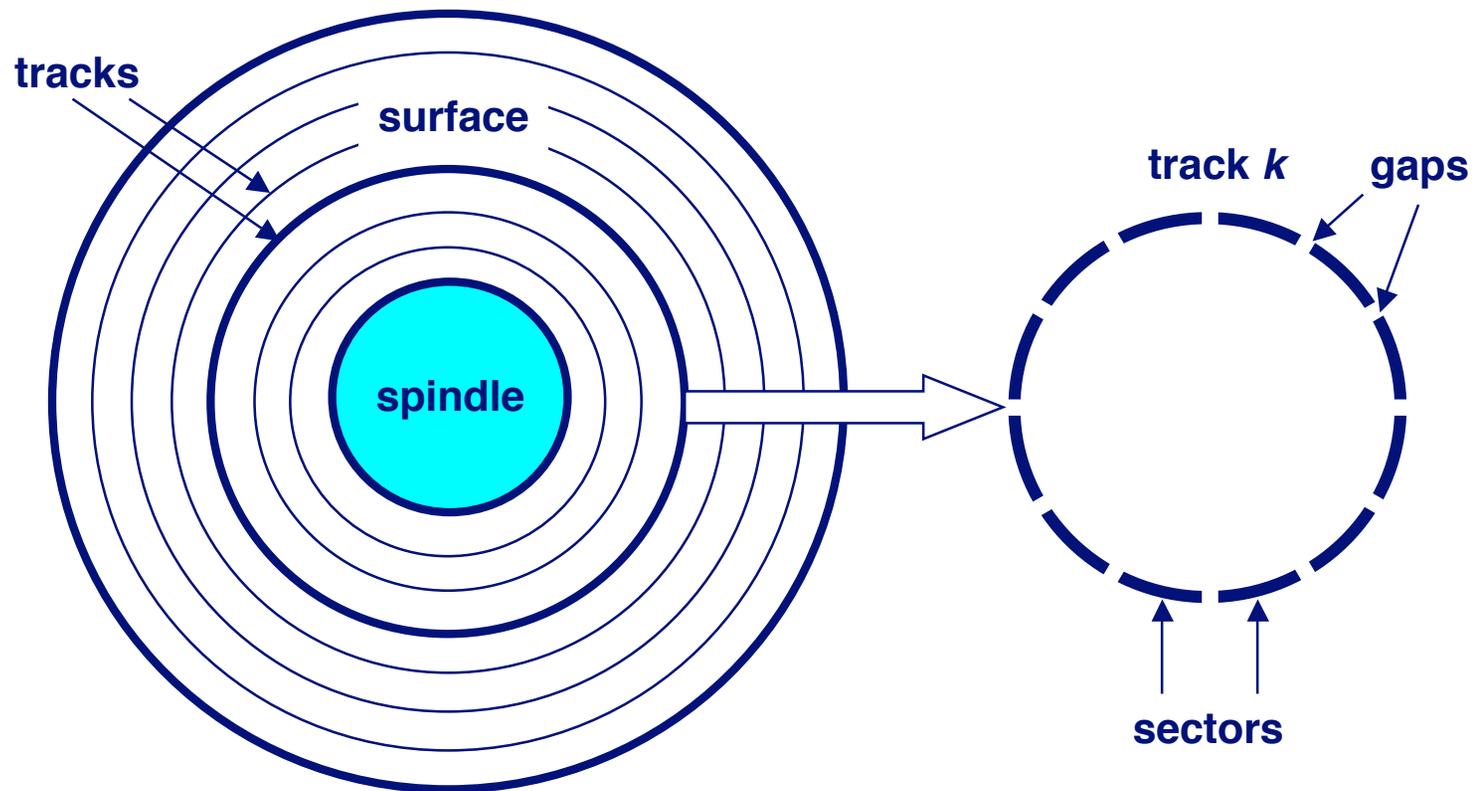


Disk Geometry

Disks consist of **platters**, each with two **surfaces**.

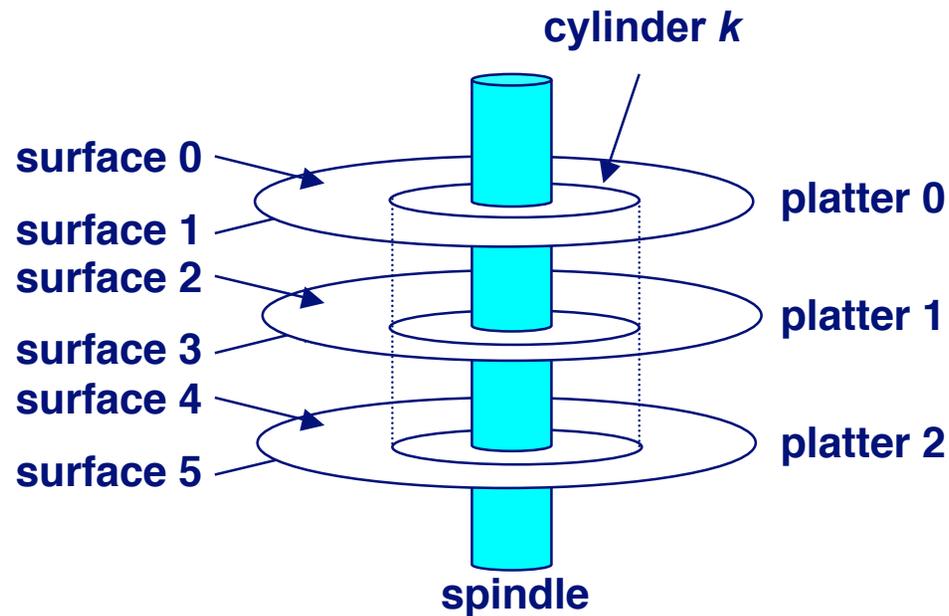
Each surface consists of concentric rings called **tracks**.

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 = 10^9 .

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.

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

Computing Disk Capacity

$$\text{Capacity} = (\# \text{ bytes/sector}) \times (\text{avg. } \# \text{ sectors/track}) \times (\# \text{ tracks/surface}) \times (\# \text{ surfaces/platter}) \times (\# \text{ platters/disk})$$

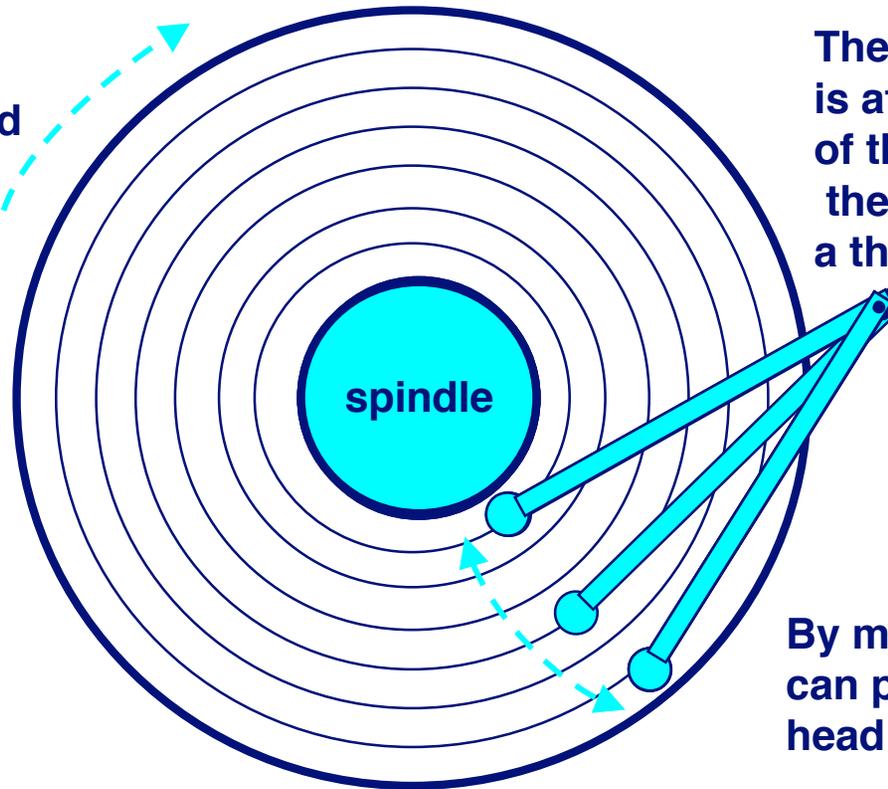
Example:

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

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Capacity} &= 512 \times 300 \times 20000 \times 2 \times 5 \\ &= 30,720,000,000 \\ &= 30.72 \text{ GB}\end{aligned}$$

Disk Operation (Single-Platter View)

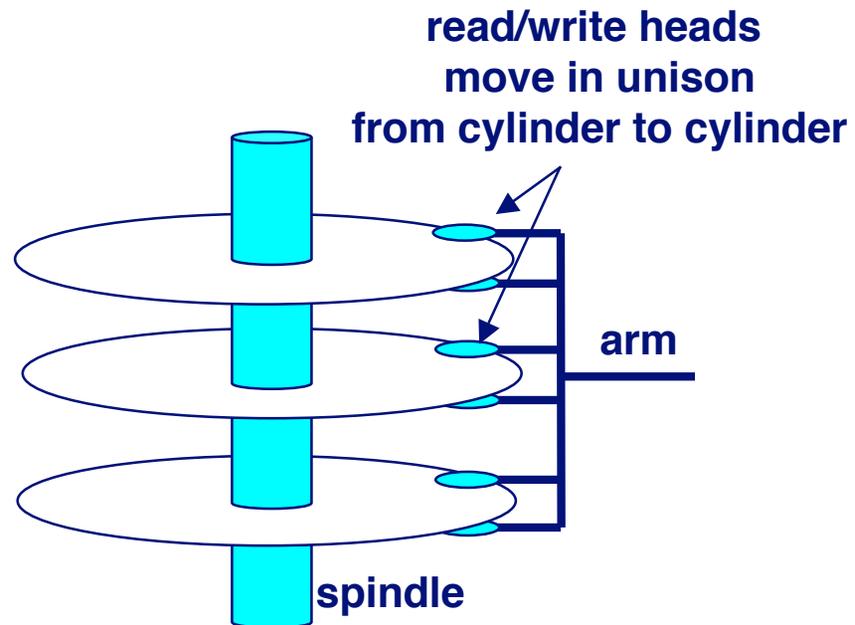
The disk surface spins at a fixed rotational rate



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.

Disk Operation (Multi-Platter View)



Disk Access Time

Average time to access some target sector approximated by :

- $T_{\text{access}} = T_{\text{avg seek}} + T_{\text{avg rotation}} + T_{\text{avg transfer}}$

Seek time ($T_{\text{avg seek}}$)

- Time to position heads over cylinder containing target sector.
- Typical $T_{\text{avg seek}} = 9 \text{ ms}$

Rotational latency ($T_{\text{avg rotation}}$)

- Time waiting for first bit of target sector to pass under r/w head.
- $T_{\text{avg rotation}} = 1/2 \times 1/\text{RPMs} \times 60 \text{ sec}/1 \text{ min}$

Transfer time ($T_{\text{avg transfer}}$)

- Time to read the bits in the target sector.
- $T_{\text{avg transfer}} = 1/\text{RPM} \times 1/(\text{avg \# sectors/track}) \times 60 \text{ secs}/1 \text{ min.}$

Disk Access Time Example

Given:

- Rotational rate = 7,200 RPM
- Average seek time = 9 ms.
- Avg # sectors/track = 400.

Derived:

- $T_{\text{avg rotation}} = \frac{1}{2} \times (60 \text{ secs}/7200 \text{ RPM}) \times 1000 \text{ ms/sec} = 4 \text{ ms.}$
- $T_{\text{avg transfer}} = 60/7200 \text{ RPM} \times 1/400 \text{ secs/track} \times 1000 \text{ ms/sec} = 0.02 \text{ ms}$
- $T_{\text{access}} = 9 \text{ ms} + 4 \text{ ms} + 0.02 \text{ ms}$

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 than 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, ...)

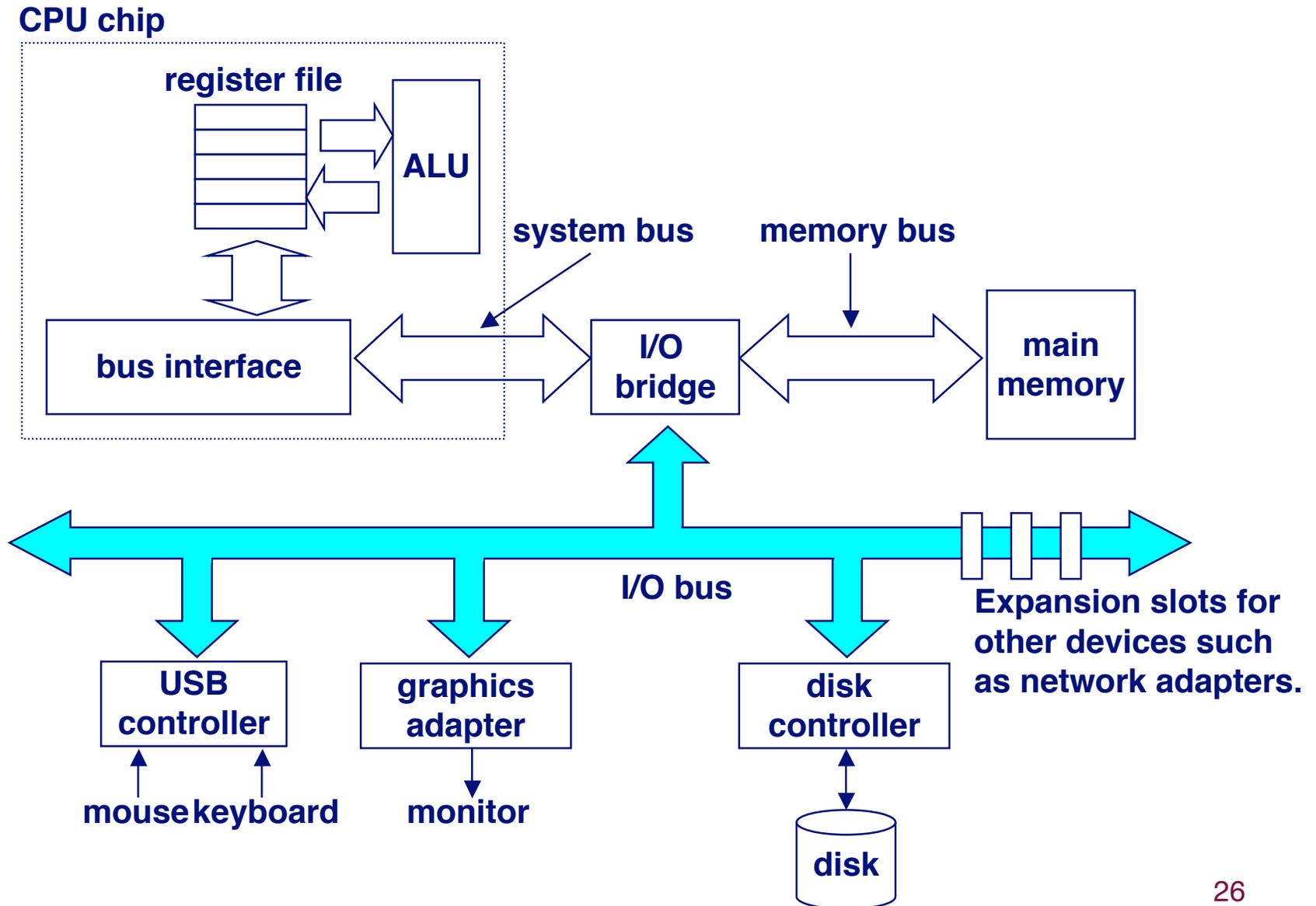
Mapping between logical blocks and actual (physical) sectors

- 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.

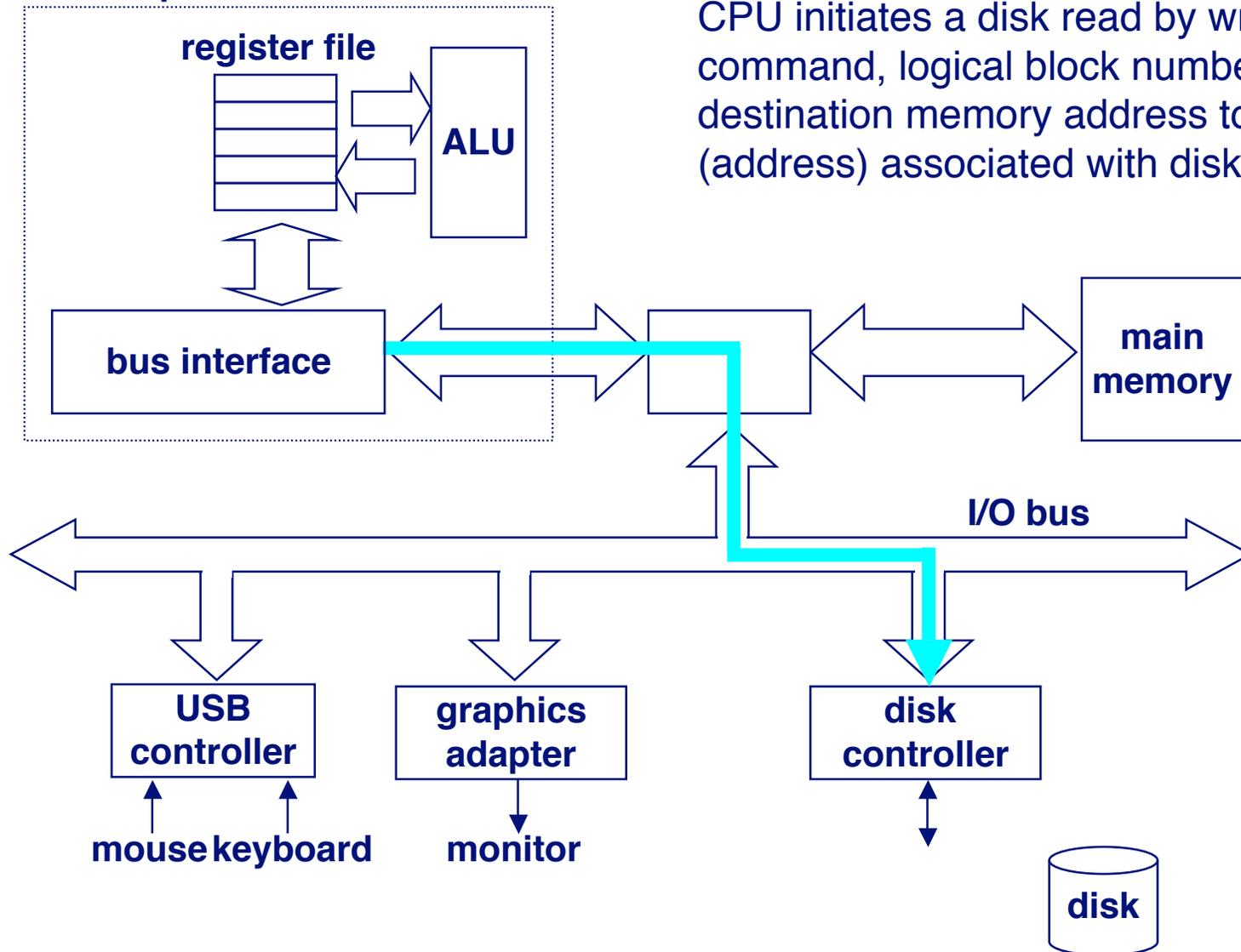
- Accounts for the difference in “**formatted capacity**” and “**maximum capacity**”.

I/O Bus



Reading a Disk Sector (1)

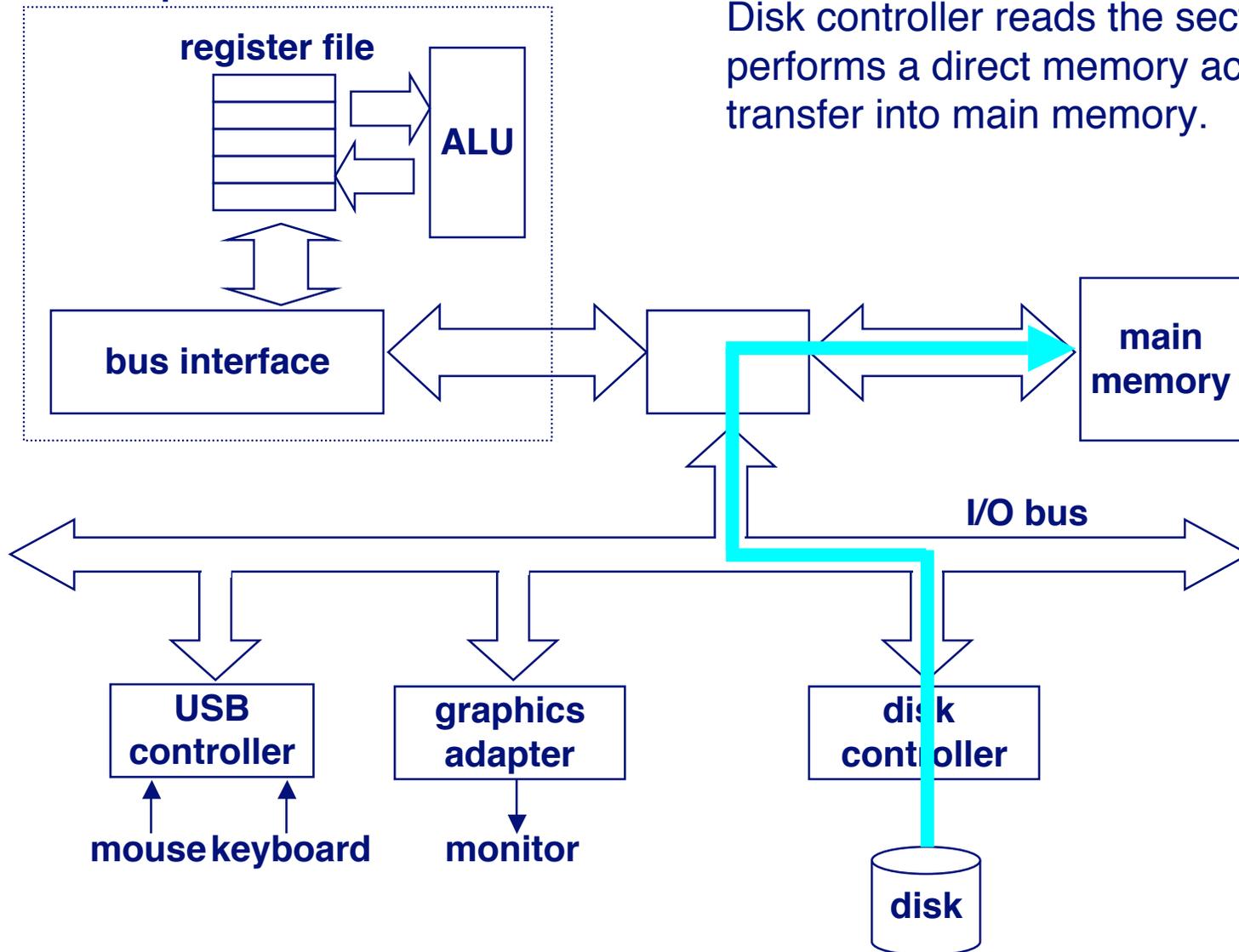
CPU chip



CPU initiates a disk read by writing a command, logical block number, and destination memory address to a **port** (address) associated with disk controller.

Reading a Disk Sector (2)

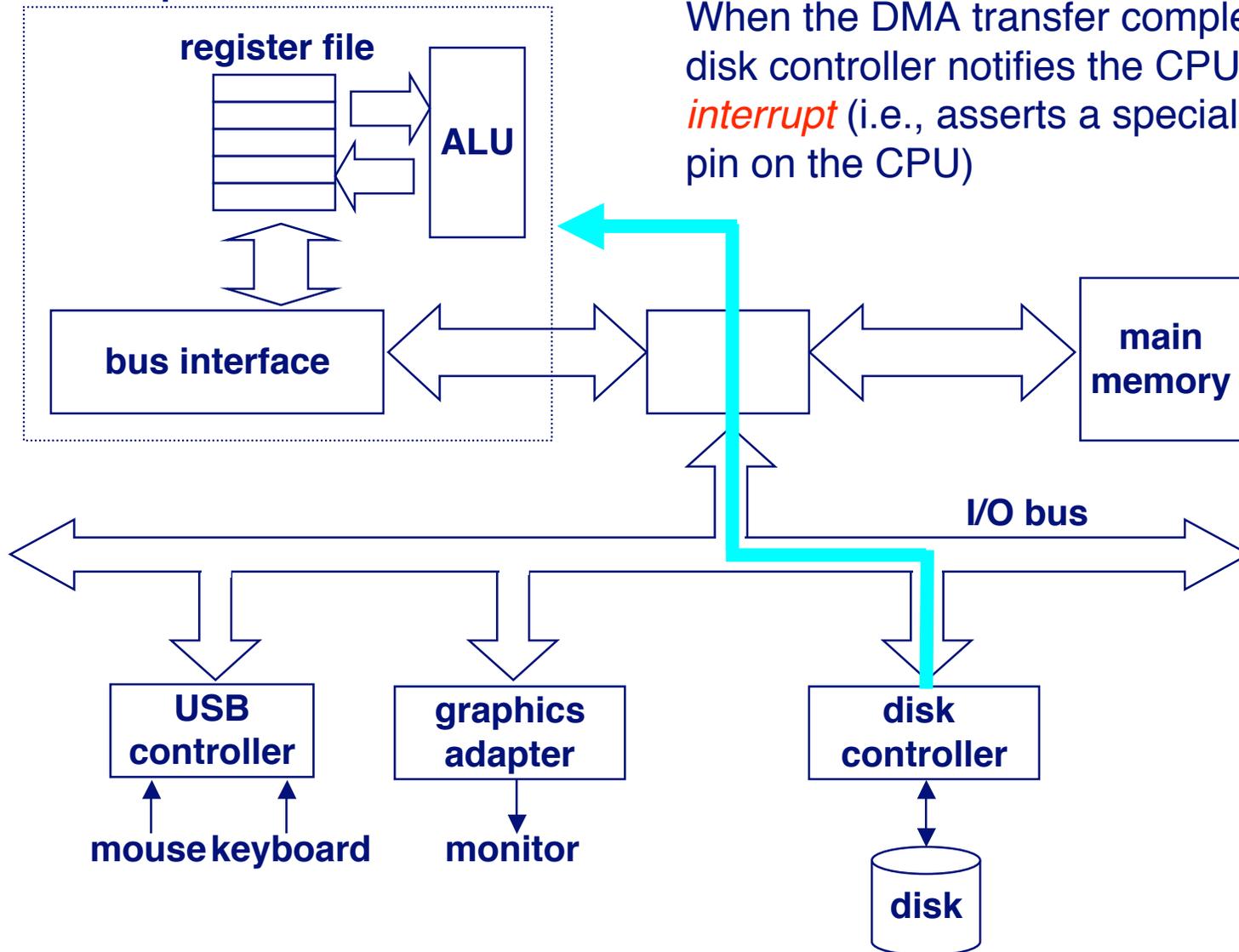
CPU chip



Disk controller reads the sector and performs a direct memory access (DMA) transfer into main memory.

Reading a Disk Sector (3)

CPU chip



When the DMA transfer completes, the disk controller notifies the CPU with an *interrupt* (i.e., asserts a special “interrupt” pin on the CPU)

Storage Trends

	metric	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	<i>2000:1980</i>
SRAM	\$/MB	19,200	2,900	320	256	100	<i>190</i>
	access (ns)	300	150	35	15	2	<i>100</i>

	metric	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	<i>2000:1980</i>
DRAM	\$/MB	8,000	880	100	30	1	<i>8,000</i>
	access (ns)	375	200	100	70	60	<i>6</i>
	typical size(MB)	0.064	0.256	4	16	64	<i>1,000</i>

	metric	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	<i>2000:1980</i>
Disk	\$/MB	500	100	8	0.30	0.05	<i>10,000</i>
	access (ms)	87	75	28	10	8	<i>11</i>
	typical size(MB)	1	10	160	1,000	9,000	<i>9,000</i>

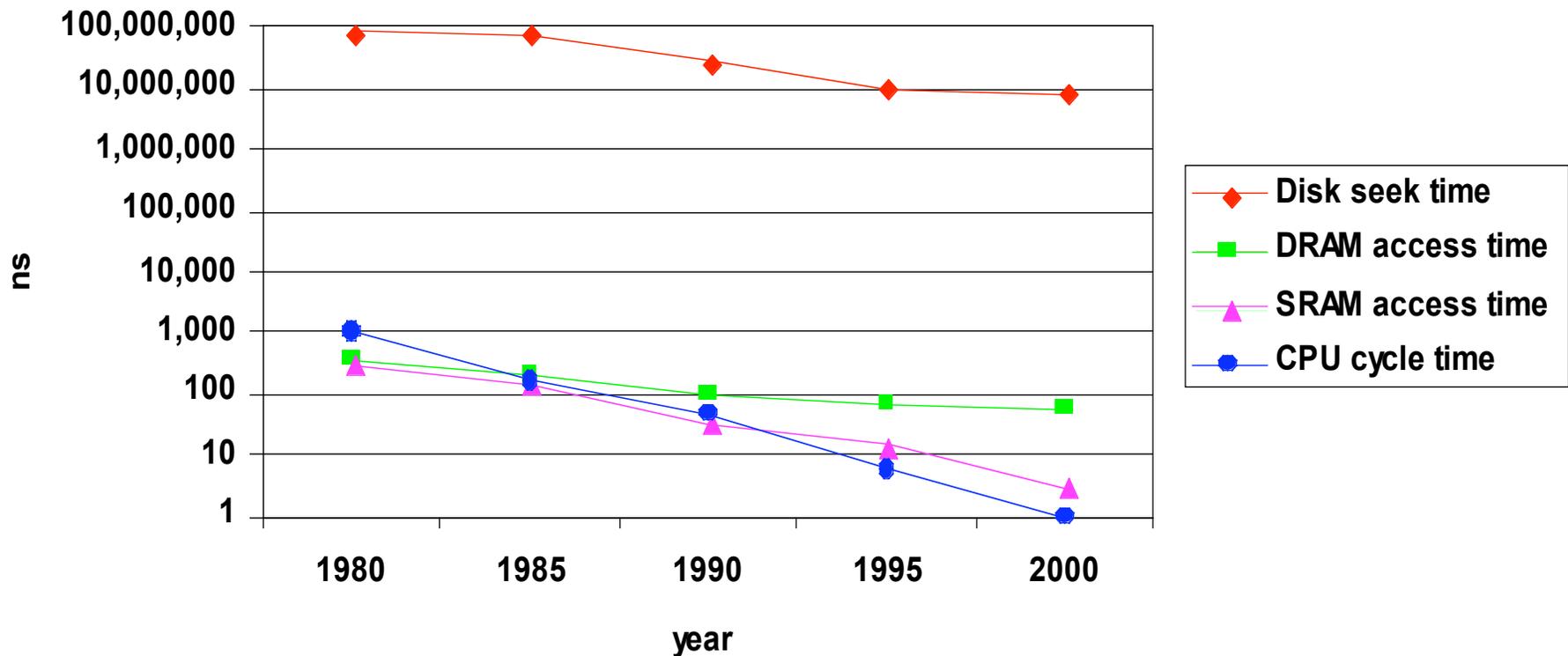
(Culled from back issues of Byte and PC Magazine)

CPU Clock Rates

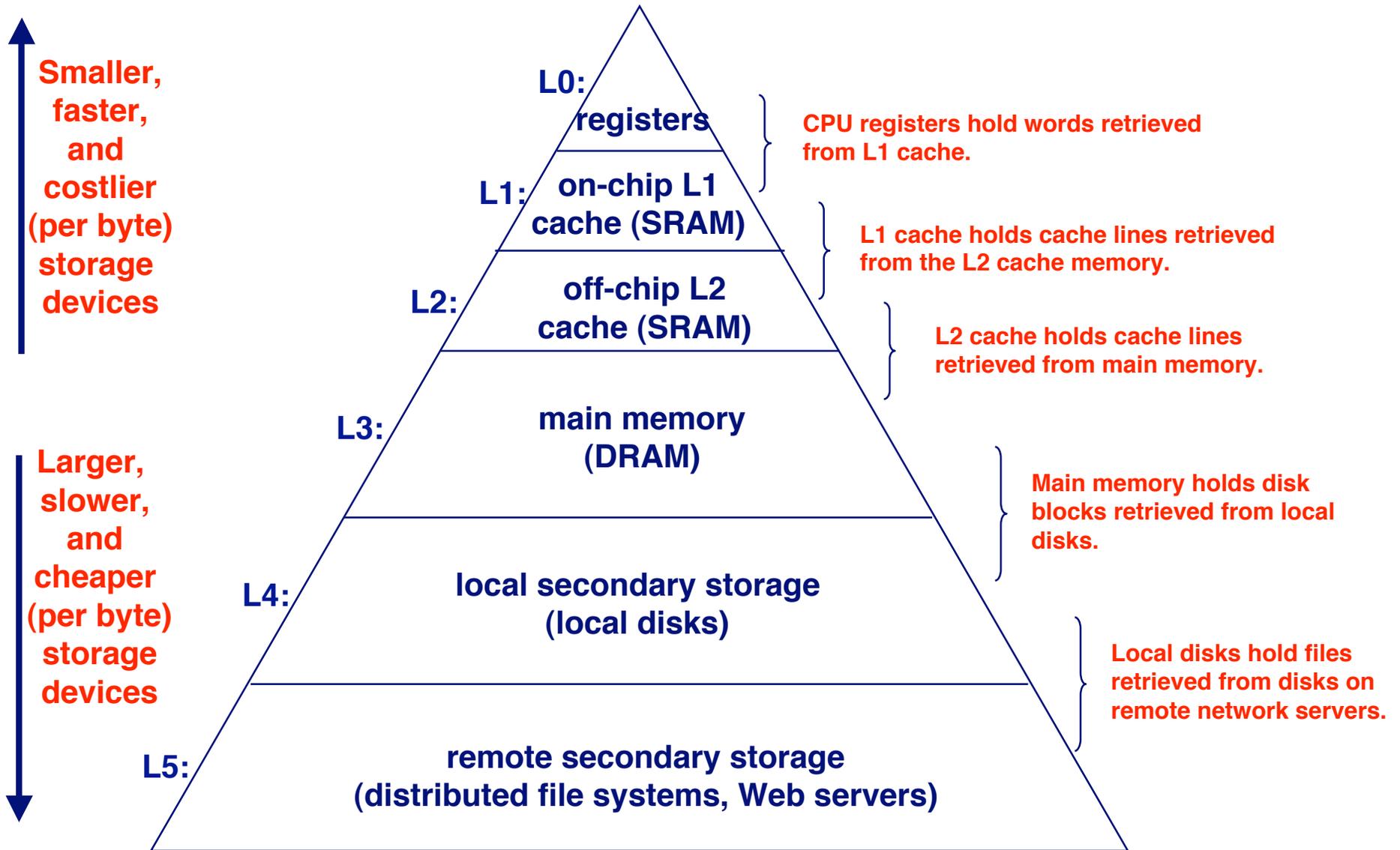
	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	<i>2000:1980</i>
processor	8080	286	386	Pent	P-III	
clock rate(MHz)	1	6	20	150	750	750
cycle time(ns)	1,000	166	50	6	1.6	750

The CPU-Memory Gap

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



An Example Memory Hierarchy



Summary

Today

- Memory and storage technologies
- Trends
- Hierarchy of capacity and latency

Next time

- Principles of locality
- Cache architectures