Chapter 5 Memory

Introduction

• Embedded system’s functionality aspects
  – Processing
    • processors
    • transformation of data
  – Storage
    • memory
    • retention of data
  – Communication
    • buses
    • transfer of data

Memory: basic concepts

• Stores large number of bits
  – \( m \times n \); \( m \) words of \( n \) bits each
  – \( k = \log(m) \) address input signals
  – or \( m = 2^k \) words
  – e.g., 4,096 x 8 memory:
    • 32,768 bits
    • 12 address input signals
    • 8 input/output data signals
• Memory access
  – r/w: selects read or write
  – enable: read or write only when asserted
  – multiport: multiple accesses to different locations simultaneously
Write ability/ storage permanence

- Traditional ROM/RAM distinctions
  - ROM
    - read only, bits stored without power
  - RAM
    - read and write, lose stored bits without power

- Traditional distinctions blurred
  - Advanced ROMs can be written to
    - e.g., EPROM
  - Advanced RAMs can hold bits without power
    - e.g., NVRAM

- Write ability
  - Manner and speed a memory can be written

- Storage permanence
  - ability of memory to hold stored bits after they are written

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Storage permanence

- Range of storage permanence
  - High end
    - essentially never loses bits
    - e.g., mask-programmed ROM
  - Middle range
    - holds bits days, months, or years after memory’s power source turned off
    - e.g., NVRAM
  - Lower range
    - holds bits as long as power supplied to memory
    - e.g., SRAM
  - Low end
    - begins to lose bits almost immediately after written
    - e.g., DRAM

- Nonvolatile memory
  - Holds bits after power is no longer supplied
  - High end and middle range of storage permanence

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Write ability

- Ranges of write ability
  - High end
    - processor writes to memory simply and quickly
    - e.g., RAM
  - Middle range
    - processor writes to memory, but slower
    - e.g., FLASH, EEPROM
  - Lower range
    - special equipment, “programmer”, must be used to write to memory
    - e.g., EPROM, OTP ROM
  - Low end
    - bits stored only during fabrication
    - e.g., Mask-programmed ROM

- In-system programmable memory
  - Can be written to by a processor in the embedded system using the memory
  - Memories in high end and middle range of write ability

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ROM: “Read-Only” Memory

- Nonvolatile memory
- Can be read from but not written to, by a processor in an embedded system
- Traditionally written to, “programmed”, before inserting to embedded system
- Uses
  - Store software program for general-purpose processor
    - program instructions can be one or more ROM words
  - Store constant data needed by system
  - Implement combinational circuit
**Example: 8 x 4 ROM**

- Horizontal lines = words
- Vertical lines = data
- Lines connected only at circles
- Decoder sets word 2’s line to 1 if address input is 010
- Data lines Q3 and Q1 are set to 1 because there is a “programmed” connection with word 2’s line
- Word 2 is not connected with data lines Q2 and Q0
- Output is 1010

**Internal view**

**Implementing combinational function**

- Any combinational circuit of $n$ functions of same $k$ variables can be done with $2^k \times n$ ROM

**Truth table**

**Mask-programmed ROM**

- Connections “programmed” at fabrication
  - set of masks
- Lowest write ability
  - only once
- Highest storage permanence
  - bits never change unless damaged
- Typically used for final design of high-volume systems
  - spread out NRE cost for a low unit cost

**OTP ROM: One-time programmable ROM**

- Connections “programmed” after manufacture by user
  - user provides file of desired contents of ROM
  - file input to machine called ROM programmer
  - each programmable connection is a fuse
  - ROM programmer blows fuses where connections should not exist
- Very low write ability
  - typically written only once and requires ROM programmer device
- Very high storage permanence
  - bits don’t change unless reconnected to programmer and more fuses blown
- Commonly used in final products
  - cheaper, harder to inadvertently modify
EPROM: Erasable programmable ROM

- Programmed component is a MOS transistor
  - Transistor has “floating” gate surrounded by an insulator
  - (a) Negative charges form a channel between source and drain storing a logic 1
  - (b) Large positive voltage at gate causes negative charges to move out of channel and get trapped in floating gate storing a logic 0
  - (c) Erase: Shining UV rays on surface of floating-gate causes negative charges to return to channel from floating gate restoring the logic 1
  - (d) An EPROM package showing quartz window through which UV light can pass
- Better write ability
  - can be erased and reprogrammed thousands of times
- Reduced storage permanence
  - program lasts about 10 years but is susceptible to radiation and electric noise
- Typically used during design development

EEPROM: Electrically erasable programmable ROM

- Programmed and erased electronically
  - typically by using higher than normal voltage
  - can program and erase individual words
- Better write ability
  - can be in-system programmable with built-in circuit to provide higher than normal voltage
    - built-in memory controller commonly used to hide details from memory user
    - writes very slow due to erasing and programming
      - “busy” pin indicates to processor EEPROM still writing
      - can be erased and programmed tens of thousands of times
- Similar storage permanence to EPROM (about 10 years)
- Far more convenient than EPROMs, but more expensive

Flash Memory

- Extension of EEPROM
  - Same floating gate principle
  - Same write ability and storage permanence
- Fast erase
  - Large blocks of memory erased at once, rather than one word at a time
  - Blocks typically several thousand bytes large
- Writes to single words may be slower
  - Entire block must be read, word updated, then entire block written back
- Used with embedded systems storing large data items in nonvolatile memory
  - e.g., digital cameras, TV set-top boxes, cell phones

RAM: “Random-access” memory

- Typically volatile memory
  - bits are not held without power supply
- Read and written to easily by embedded system during execution
- Internal structure more complex than ROM
  - a word consists of several memory cells, each storing 1 bit
  - each input and output data line connects to each cell in its column
  - rd/wr connected to every cell
  - when row is enabled by decoder, each cell has logic that stores input data bit when rd/wr indicates write or outputs stored bit when rd/wr indicates read
Basic types of RAM

- **SRAM: Static RAM**
  - Memory cell uses flip-flop to store bit
  - Requires 6 transistors
  - Holds data as long as power supplied
- **DRAM: Dynamic RAM**
  - Memory cell uses MOS transistor and capacitor to store bit
  - More compact than SRAM
  - "Refresh" required due to capacitor leak
    - word’s cells refreshed when read
  - Typical refresh rate 15.625 microsec.
  - Slower to access than SRAM

#### Example:

**HM6264 & 27C256 RAM/ROM devices**

- Low-cost low-capacity memory devices
- Commonly used in 8-bit microcontroller-based embedded systems
- First two numeric digits indicate device type
  - RAM: 62
  - ROM: 27
- Subsequent digits indicate capacity in kilobits

Ram variations

- **PSRAM: Pseudo-static RAM**
  - DRAM with built-in memory refresh controller
  - Popular low-cost high-density alternative to SRAM
- **NVRAM: Nonvolatile RAM**
  - Holds data after external power removed
  - Battery-backed RAM
    - SRAM with own permanently connected battery
    - writes as fast as reads
    - no limit on number of writes unlike nonvolatile ROM-based memory
  - SRAM with EEPROM or flash
    - stores complete RAM contents on EEPROM or flash before power turned off

#### Example:

**TC55V2325FF-100 memory device**

- 2-megabit synchronous pipelined burst SRAM memory device
- Designed to be interfaced with 32-bit processors
- Capable of fast sequential reads and writes as well as single byte I/O
Composing memory

- Memory size needed often differs from size of readily available memories
- When available memory is larger, simply ignore unneeded high-order address bits and higher data lines
- When available memory is smaller, compose several smaller memories into one larger memory
  - Connect side-by-side to increase width of words
  - Connect top to bottom to increase number of words
    - add high-order address line selects smaller memory containing desired word using a decoder
  - Combine techniques to increase number and width of words

Memory hierarchy

- Want inexpensive, fast memory
- Main memory
  - Large, inexpensive, slow memory stores entire program and data
- Cache
  - Small, expensive, fast memory stores copy of likely accessed parts of larger memory
  - Can be multiple levels of cache

Cache

- Usually designed with SRAM
  - faster but more expensive than DRAM
- Usually on same chip as processor
  - space limited, so much smaller than off-chip main memory
  - faster access (1 cycle vs. several cycles for main memory)
- Cache operation:
  - Request for main memory access (read or write)
  - First, check cache for copy
    - cache hit
      - copy is in cache, quick access
    - cache miss
      - copy not in cache, read address and possibly its neighbors into cache
- Several cache design choices
  - cache mapping, replacement policies, and write techniques

Cache mapping

- Far fewer number of available cache addresses
- Are address’ contents in cache?
- Cache mapping used to assign main memory address to cache address and determine hit or miss
- Three basic techniques:
  - Direct mapping
  - Fully associative mapping
  - Set-associative mapping
- Caches partitioned into indivisible blocks or lines of adjacent memory addresses
  - usually 4 or 8 addresses per line
Direct mapping

- Main memory address divided into 2 fields
  - Index
    - cache address
    - number of bits determined by cache size
  - Tag
    - compared with tag stored in cache at address indicated by index
    - if tags match, check valid bit
- Valid bit
  - indicates whether data in slot has been loaded from memory
- Offset
  - used to find particular word in cache line

Fully associative mapping

- Complete main memory address stored in each cache address
- All addresses stored in cache simultaneously compared with desired address
- Valid bit and offset same as direct mapping

Set-associative mapping

- Compromise between direct mapping and fully associative mapping
- Index same as in direct mapping
- But, each cache address contains content and tags of 2 or more memory address locations
- Tags of that set simultaneously compared as in fully associative mapping
- Cache with set size N called N-way set-associative
  - 2-way, 4-way, 8-way are common

Cache-replacement policy

- Technique for choosing which block to replace
  - when fully associative cache is full
  - when set-associative cache’s line is full
- Direct mapped cache has no choice
- Random
  - replace block chosen at random
- LRU: least-recently used
  - replace block not accessed for longest time
- FIFO: first-in-first-out
  - push block onto queue when accessed
  - choose block to replace by popping queue
Cache write techniques

- When written, data cache must update main memory
  - Write-through
    - write to main memory whenever cache is written to
    - easiest to implement
    - processor must wait for slower main memory write
    - potential for unnecessary writes
  - Write-back
    - main memory only written when “dirty” block replaced
    - extra dirty bit for each block set when cache block written to
    - reduces number of slow main memory writes

Cache impact on system performance

- Most important parameters in terms of performance:
  - Total size of cache
    - total number of data bytes cache can hold
    - tag, valid and other house keeping bits not included in total
  - Degree of associativity
  - Data block size
  - Larger caches achieve lower miss rates but higher access cost
    - e.g.,
      - 2 Kbyte cache: miss rate = 15%, hit cost = 2 cycles, miss cost = 20 cycles
        - avg. cost of memory access = (0.85 * 2) + (0.15 * 20) = 4.7 cycles
      - 4 Kbyte cache: miss rate = 6.5%, hit cost = 3 cycles, miss cost will not change
        - avg. cost of memory access = (0.935 * 3) + (0.065 * 20) = 4.105 cycles (improvement)
      - 8 Kbyte cache: miss rate = 5.565%, hit cost = 4 cycles, miss cost will not change
        - avg. cost of memory access = (0.94415 * 4) + (0.05585 * 20) = 4.8904 cycles (worse)

Cache performance trade-offs

- Improving cache hit rate without increasing size
  - Increase line size
  - Change set-associativity

Advanced RAM

- DRAMs commonly used as main memory in processor based embedded systems
  - high capacity, low cost
- Many variations of DRAMs proposed
  - need to keep pace with processor speeds
    - FPM DRAM: fast page mode DRAM
    - EDO DRAM: extended data out DRAM
    - SDRAM/ESDRAM: synchronous and enhanced synchronous DRAM
    - RDRAM: rambus DRAM
Basic DRAM

- Address bus multiplexed between row and column components
- Row and column addresses are latched in, sequentially, by strobing ras and cas signals, respectively
- Refresh circuitry can be external or internal to DRAM device
  - strobes consecutive memory address periodically causing memory content to be refreshed
  - Refresh circuitry disabled during read or write operation

Extended data out DRAM (EDO DRAM)

- Improvement of FPM DRAM
- Extra latch before output buffer
  - allows strobing of cas before data read operation completed
- Reduces read/write latency by additional cycle

Fast Page Mode DRAM (FPM DRAM)

- Each row of memory bit array is viewed as a page
- Page contains multiple words
- Individual words addressed by column address
- Timing diagram:
  - row (page) address sent
  - 3 words read consecutively by sending column address for each
- Extra cycle eliminated on each read/write of words from same page

(S)ynchronous and Enhanced Synchronous (ES) DRAM

- SDRAM latches data on active edge of clock
- Eliminates time to detect ras/cas and rd/wr signals
- A counter is initialized to column address then incremented on active edge of clock to access consecutive memory locations
- ESDRAM improves SDRAM
  - added buffers enable overlapping of column addressing
  - faster clocking and lower read/write latency possible
Rambus DRAM (RDRAM)

- More of a bus interface architecture than DRAM architecture
- Data is latched on both rising and falling edge of clock
- Broken into 4 banks each with own row decoder
  - can have 4 pages open at a time
- Capable of very high throughput

Memory Management Unit (MMU)

- Duties of MMU
  - Handles DRAM refresh, bus interface and arbitration
  - Takes care of memory sharing among multiple processors
  - Translates logic memory addresses from processor to physical memory addresses of DRAM
- Modern CPUs often come with MMU built-in
- Single-purpose processors can be used

DRAM integration problem

- SRAM easily integrated on same chip as processor
- DRAM more difficult
  - Different chip making process between DRAM and conventional logic
  - Goal of conventional logic (IC) designers:
    - minimize parasitic capacitance to reduce signal propagation delays and power consumption
  - Goal of DRAM designers:
    - create capacitor cells to retain stored information
  - Integration processes beginning to appear