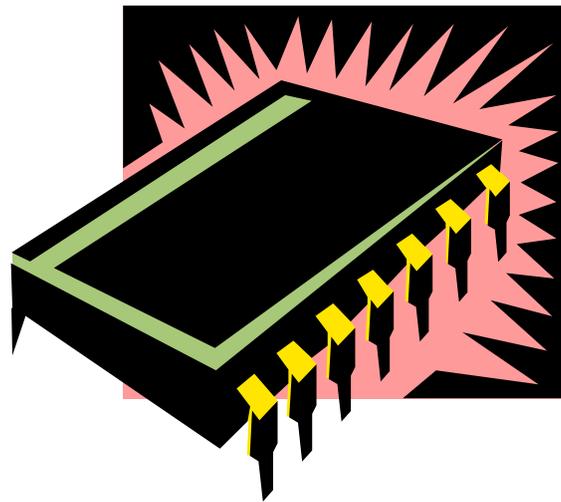


Random access memory

- **Random access memory**, or **RAM**, allows us to store even larger amounts of data than flip-flops or registers.
- Today we'll see the external and internal aspects of **static RAM**.
 - All memories share the same basic interface.
 - You can implement static RAM chips hierarchically.
- We'll also talk a bit about different kinds of **dynamic memory**, which also appear in all modern computer systems.
- This gives us all the pieces we need to put together a computer!



Introduction to RAM

- **Random-access memory**, or **RAM**, provides large quantities of temporary storage in a computer system.
- Remember the basic capabilities of a memory.
 - It should be able to store a value.
 - You should be able to read the value that was saved.
 - You should be able to change the stored value.
- A RAM is similar, except that it can store *many* values.
 - An **address** will specify which memory value we're interested in.
 - Each value can be a multiple-bit **word** (e.g., 32 bits).
- We'll refine the memory properties as follows.

A RAM should be able to:

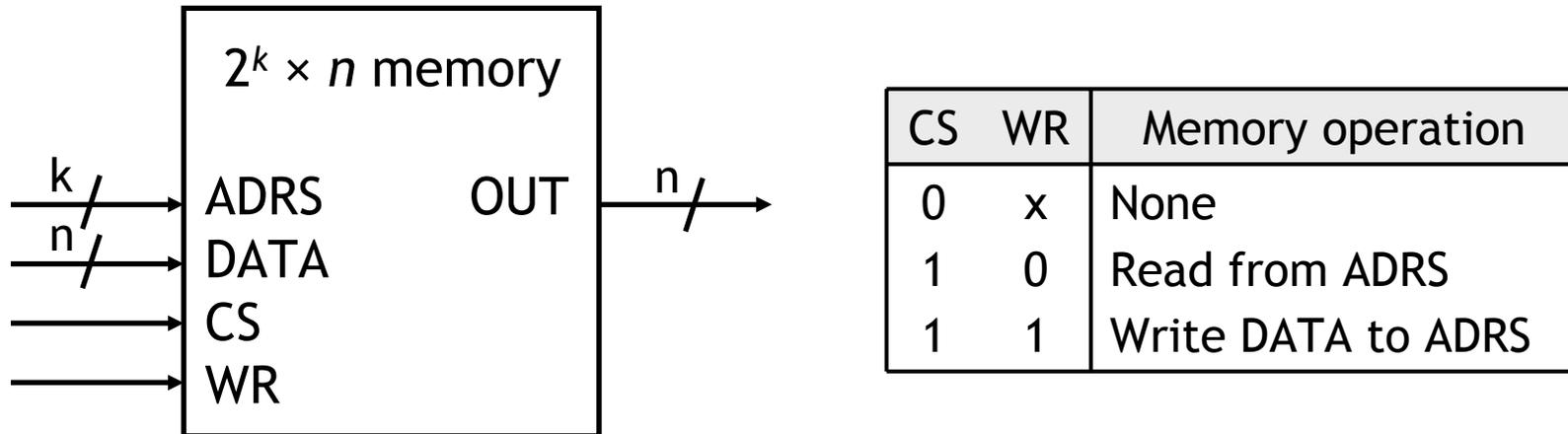
1. Store many words, one per address
2. Read the word that was saved at a particular address
3. Change the word that's saved at a particular address

Picture of memory

- You can think of computer memory as being one big array of data.
 - The address serves as an array index.
 - Each address refers to one word of data.
- You can read or modify the data at any given memory address, just like you can read or modify the contents of an array at any given index.
- If you've worked with pointers in C or C++, then you've already worked with memory addresses.

| Address | Data |
|-----------|------|
| 00000000 | |
| 00000001 | |
| 00000010 | |
| . | |
| . | |
| . | |
| . | |
| . | |
| . | |
| . | |
| . | |
| . | |
| . | |
| FFFFFFFFD | |
| FFFFFFFE | |
| FFFFFFF | |

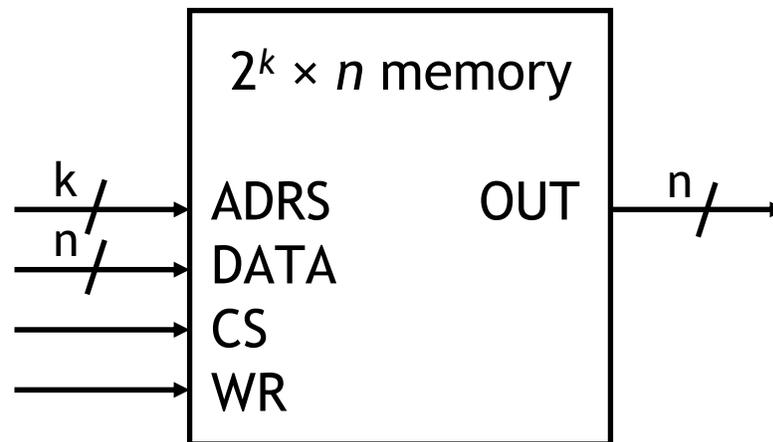
Block diagram of RAM



- This block diagram introduces the main interface to RAM.
 - A Chip Select, **CS**, enables or disables the RAM.
 - **ADRS** specifies the address or location to read from or write to.
 - **WR** selects between reading from or writing to the memory.
 - To read from memory, **WR** should be set to 0.
OUT will be the n -bit value stored at **ADRS**.
 - To write to memory, we set **WR** = 1.
DATA is the n -bit value to save in memory.
- This interface makes it easy to combine RAMs together, as we'll see.

Memory sizes

- We refer to this as a $2^k \times n$ memory.
 - There are k **address lines**, which can specify one of 2^k addresses.
 - Each address contains an n -bit word.



- For example, a $2^{24} \times 16$ RAM contains $2^{24} = 16\text{M}$ words, each 16 bits long.
 - The RAM would need 24 address lines.
 - The total **storage capacity** is $2^{24} \times 16 = 2^{28}$ bits.

Size matters!

- Memory sizes are usually specified in numbers of **bytes** (8 bits).
- The 2^{28} -bit memory on the previous page has a capacity of 2^{25} bytes.

$$2^{28} \text{ bits} / 8 \text{ bits per byte} = 2^{25} \text{ bytes}$$

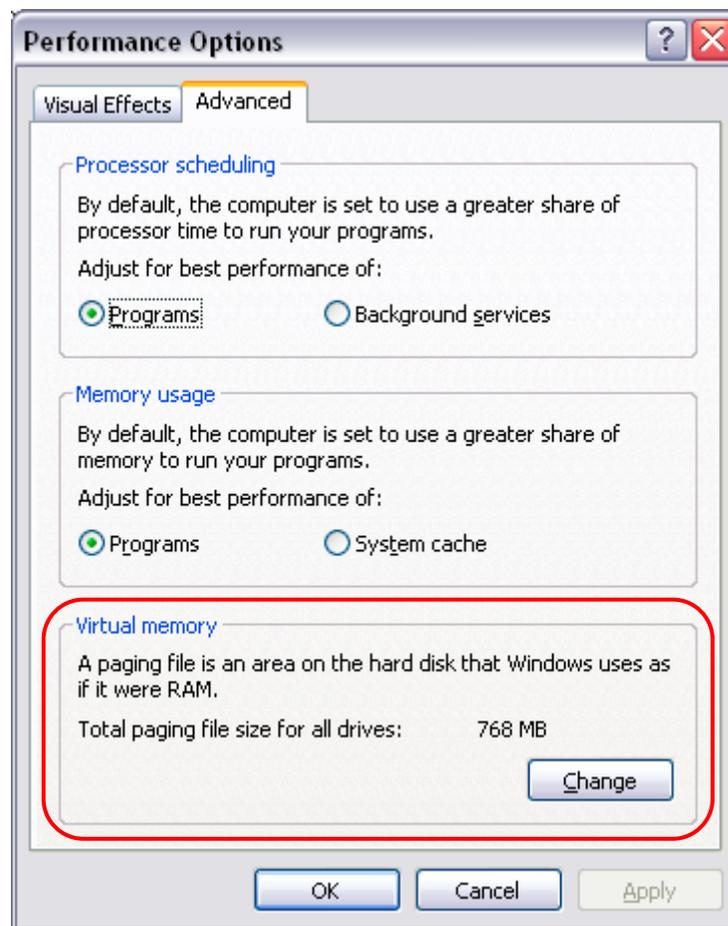
- With the abbreviations below, this is equivalent to 32 megabytes.

$$2^{25} \text{ bytes} = 2^5 \times 2^{20} \text{ bytes} = 32 \text{ MB}$$

| | Prefix | Base 2 | Base 10 |
|---|--------|--------------------------|------------------------|
| K | Kilo | $2^{10} = 1,024$ | $10^3 = 1,000$ |
| M | Mega | $2^{20} = 1,048,576$ | $10^6 = 1,000,000$ |
| G | Giga | $2^{30} = 1,073,741,824$ | $10^9 = 1,000,000,000$ |

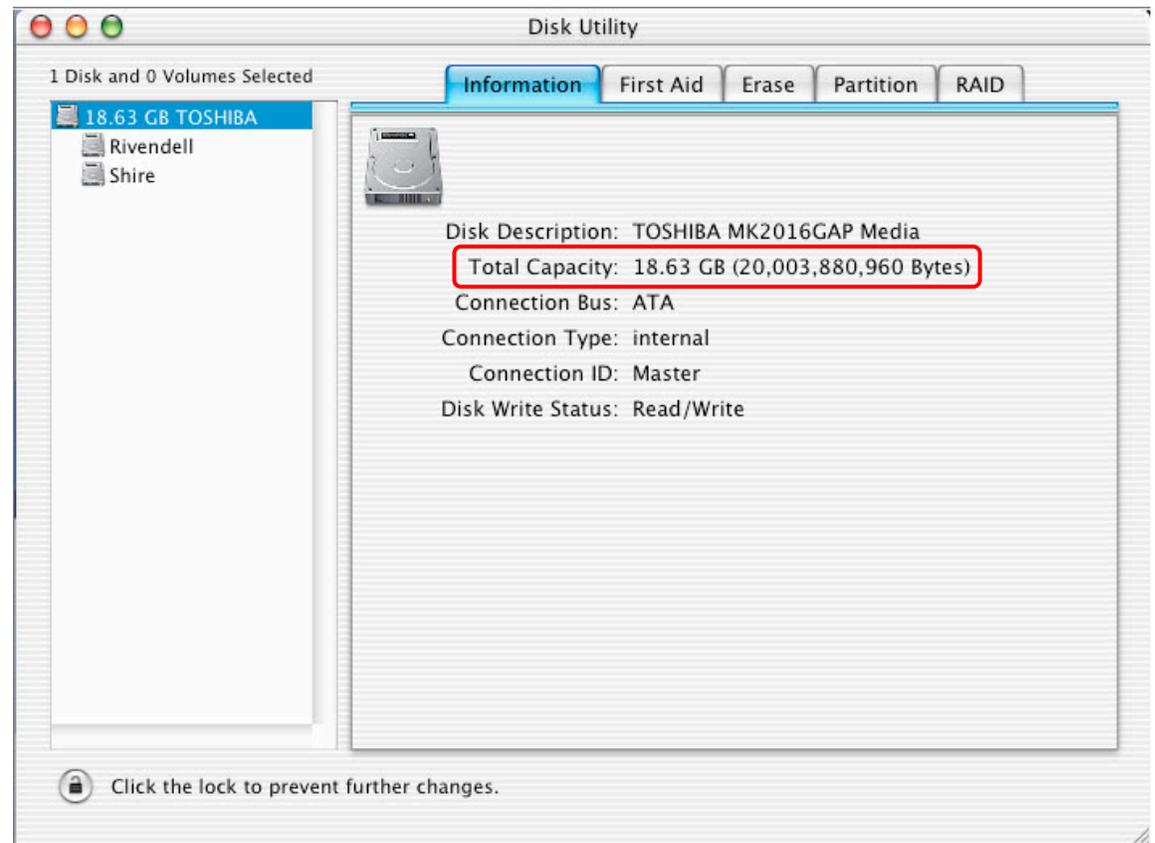
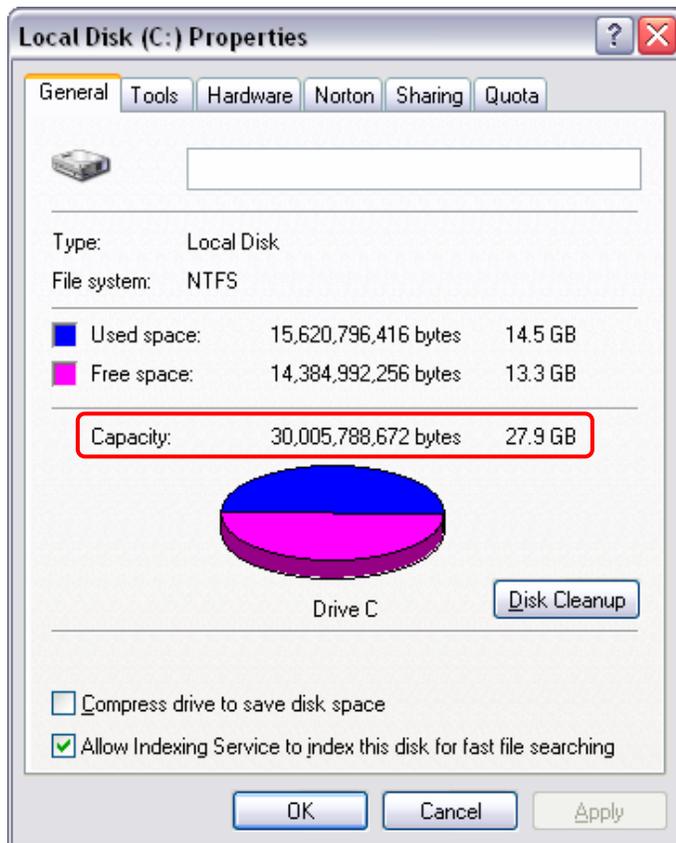
Typical memory sizes

- Current PCs work with 32-bit addresses. With one byte of data at each address, this results in a maximum memory of 4GB.
- Most consumer devices have far less RAM.
 - PCs usually come with 128-256MB.
 - PDAs have 8-64MB of memory.
 - Digital cameras and MP3 players can have 32MB or more of storage.
- Many operating systems implement **virtual memory**, which uses hard drive space as an extension of the physical memory.
 - Hard drives are much slower, but also much cheaper, than main memory.
 - The hard drive space used for virtual memory may be a separate partition, or it may appear as a normal file like `PAGEFILE.SYS` or `swapfile0`.



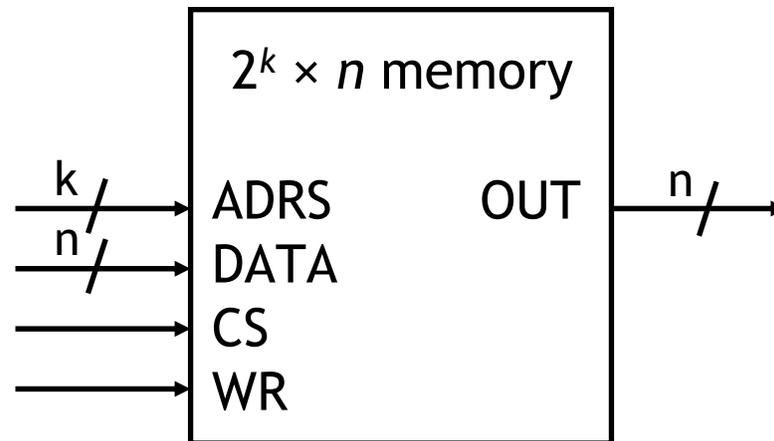
Be careful what you buy

- To confuse you, RAM size is measured in base 2 units, while hard drive size is measured in base 10 units.
- To confuse you more, operating systems often report hard drive sizes in base 2 units. This is why a “30GB” hard drive shows up with only 27.9GB of free space, or why a “20GB” drive has only 18.63GB available.



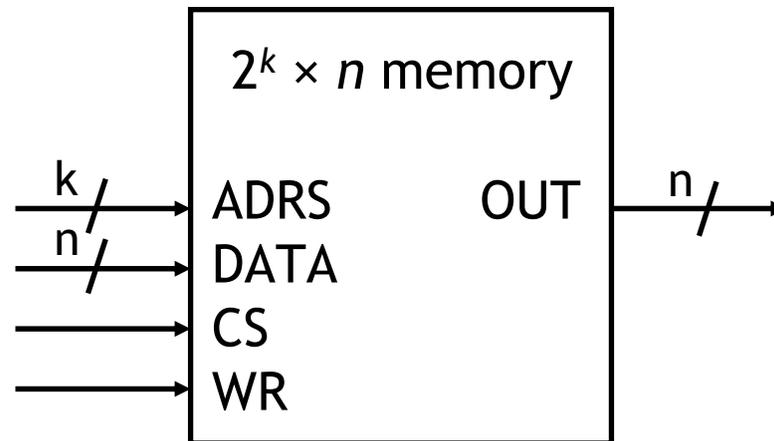
Reading RAM

- To *read* from a RAM, the controlling circuit must take several steps.
 1. Enable the chip by ensuring $CS = 1$.
 2. Select the read operation, by setting $WR = 0$.
 3. Send the desired address to the ADRS input.
 4. The contents of that address appear on OUT after a little while.
- Notice that the DATA input is unused for read operations.



Writing RAM

- To *write* to this RAM, you need to do the following tasks.
 1. Enable the chip by setting $CS = 1$.
 2. Select the write operation, by setting $WR = 1$.
 3. Send the desired address to the ADRS input.
 4. Send the word to store to the DATA input.
- The output OUT is not needed for memory write operations.

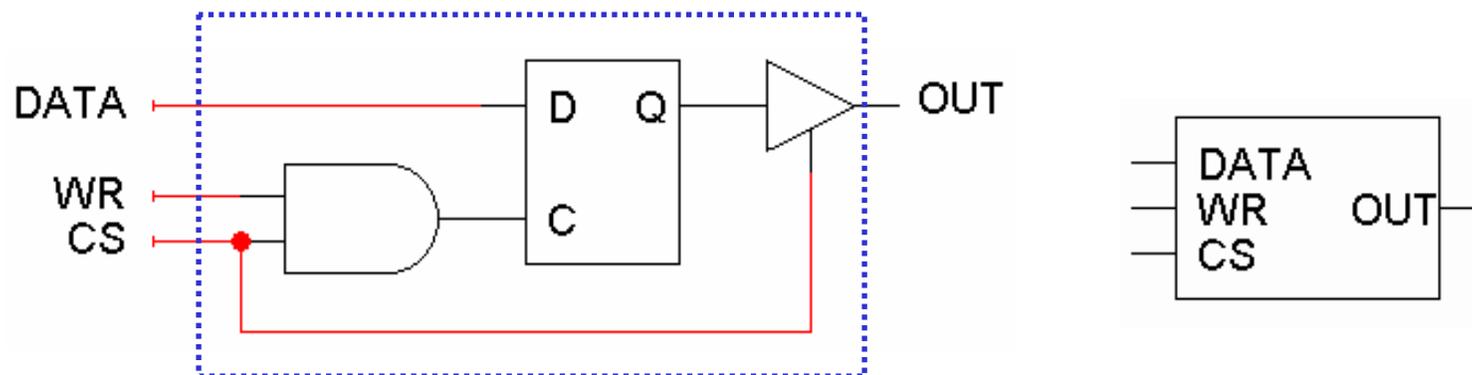


Static memory

- What's inside that memory block symbol?
- There are many different kinds of RAM.
 - We'll start off discussing **static memory**, which is most commonly used in caches and video cards.
 - Later we'll mention a little about **dynamic memory**, which forms the bulk of a computer's main memory.
- Static memory is modelled using one *latch* for each bit of storage.
- Why use latches instead of flip flops?
 - A latch can be made with only two NAND or two NOR gates, but a flip-flop requires at least twice that much hardware.
 - In general, smaller is faster, cheaper and requires less power.
 - The tradeoff is that getting the timing exactly right is a pain.

Starting with latches

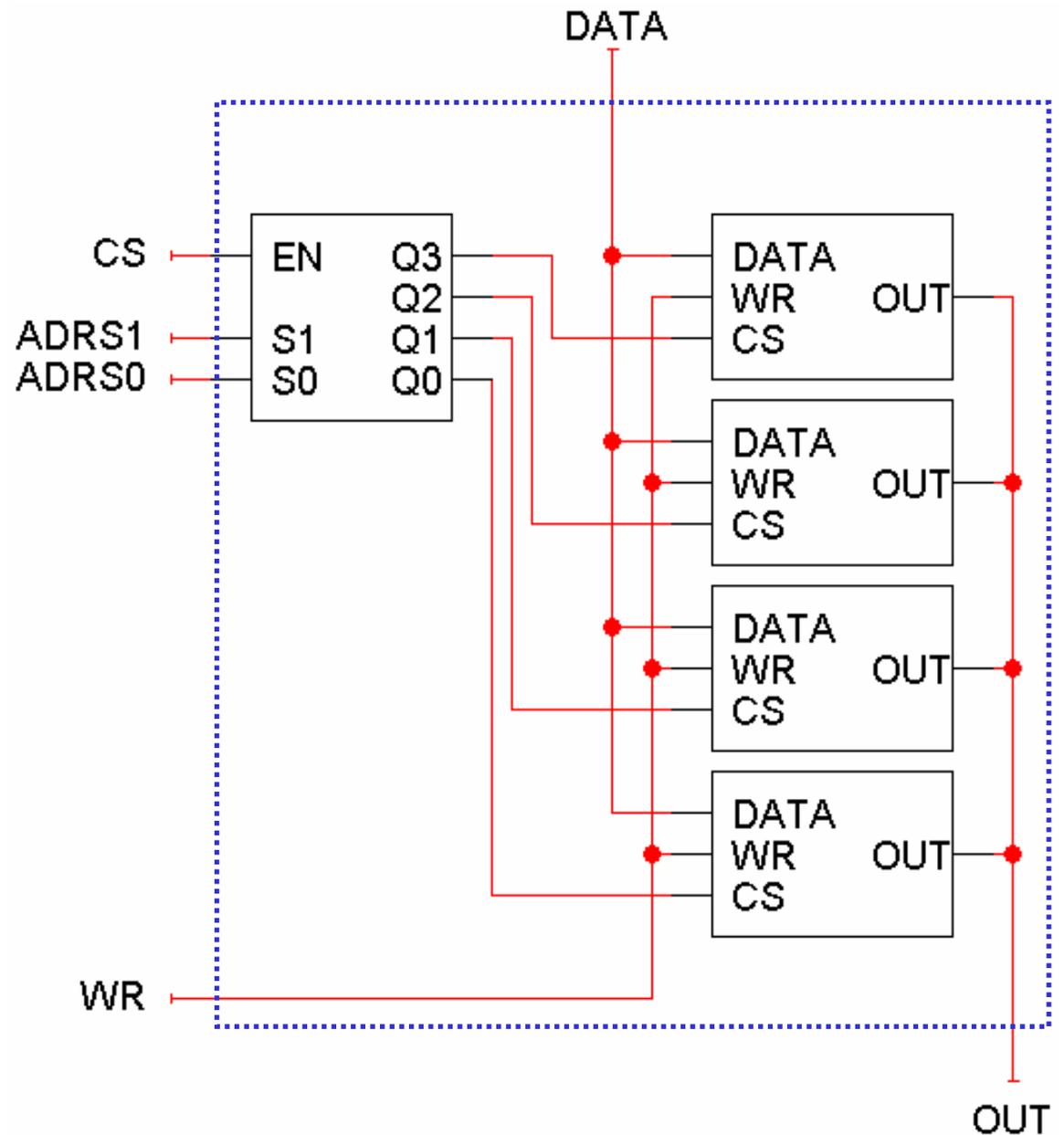
- To start, a one-bit **RAM cell** is shown here. Since this stores just one bit, an ADRS input is not needed.



- You can ignore the funny triangle symbol for now.
- We can write to this RAM cell.
 - When $CS = 1$ and $WR = 1$, the latch control input will be 1.
 - The DATA input is thus saved in the D latch.
- We can also read from it and maintain the current contents.
 - When $CS = 0$ or when $WR = 0$, the latch control input is also 0, so the latch just maintains its present state.
 - The current latch contents will appear on OUT.

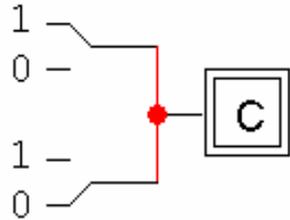
My first RAM

- We can use these cells to make a 4 x 1 RAM.
- Since there are four words, ADRS is two bits.
- Each word is only one bit, so DATA and OUT are one bit each.
- Word selection is done with a decoder attached to the CS inputs of the RAM cells. Only one cell can be read or written at a time.
- Notice that the outputs are connected together with a *single* line!



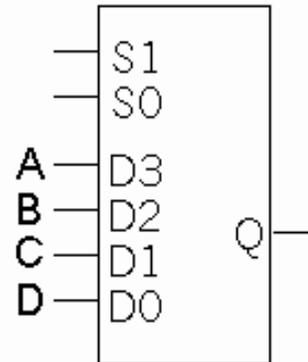
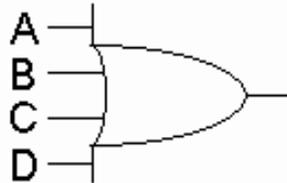
Connecting outputs together

- In normal practice, it's bad to connect outputs together. If the outputs have different values, then a conflict arises.



The "C" in LogicWorks means "conflict."

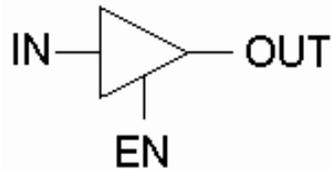
- The standard way to "combine" outputs is to use OR gates or muxes.



- This can get expensive, with many wires and gates with large fan-ins.

Those funny triangles

- The triangle represents a **three-state buffer**.
- Unlike regular logic gates, the output can be one of *three* possible values, as shown in the table.

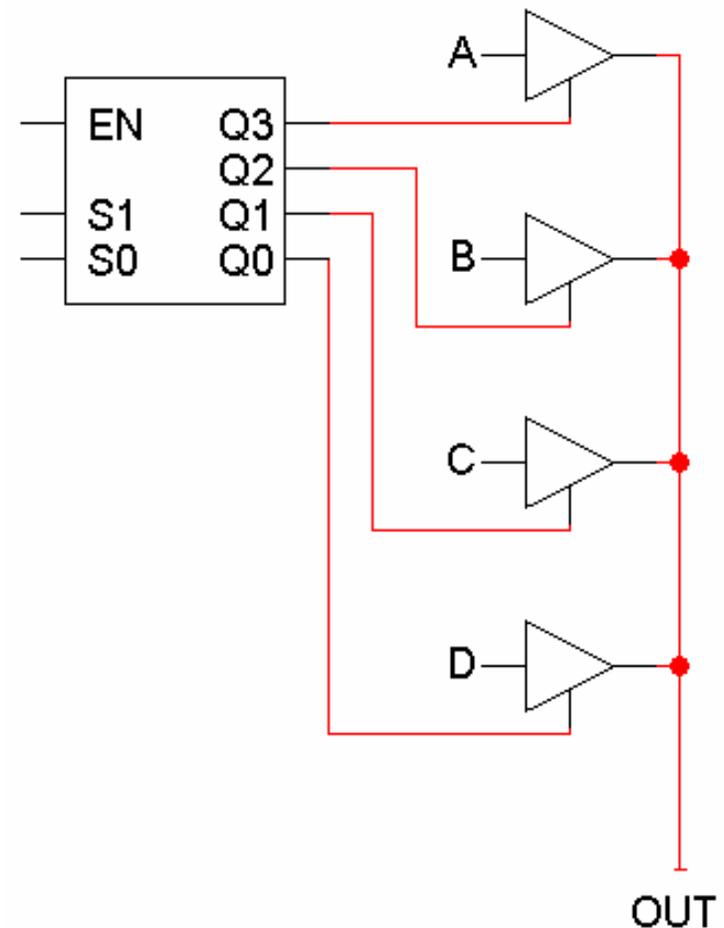


| EN | IN | OUT |
|----|----|--------------|
| 0 | x | Disconnected |
| 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |

- “Disconnected” means no output appears at all, in which case it’s safe to connect OUT to another output signal.

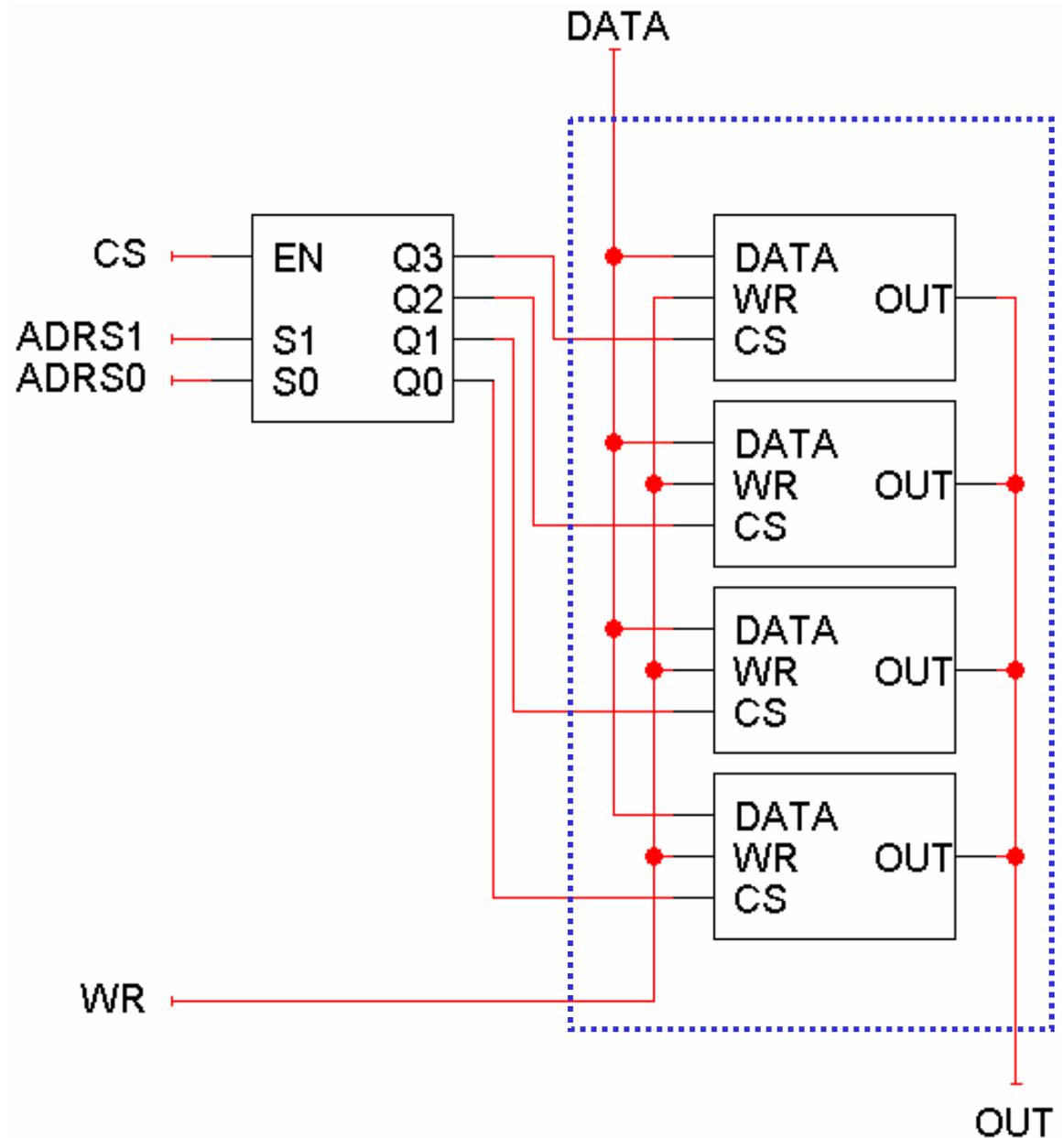
Connecting three-state buffers together

- You can connect the outputs of several three-state buffers together if you can guarantee that at most one of them is enabled at any time.
- The easiest way to do this is to use a decoder!
 - If the decoder is disabled, then all of the three-state buffers will appear to be disconnected, and OUT will also appear disconnected.
 - If the decoder is enabled, exactly one of its outputs will be true, so only one of the tri-state buffers will produce an output.
- The net result is we can save some wire and gate costs. We also get a little more flexibility in putting circuits together.



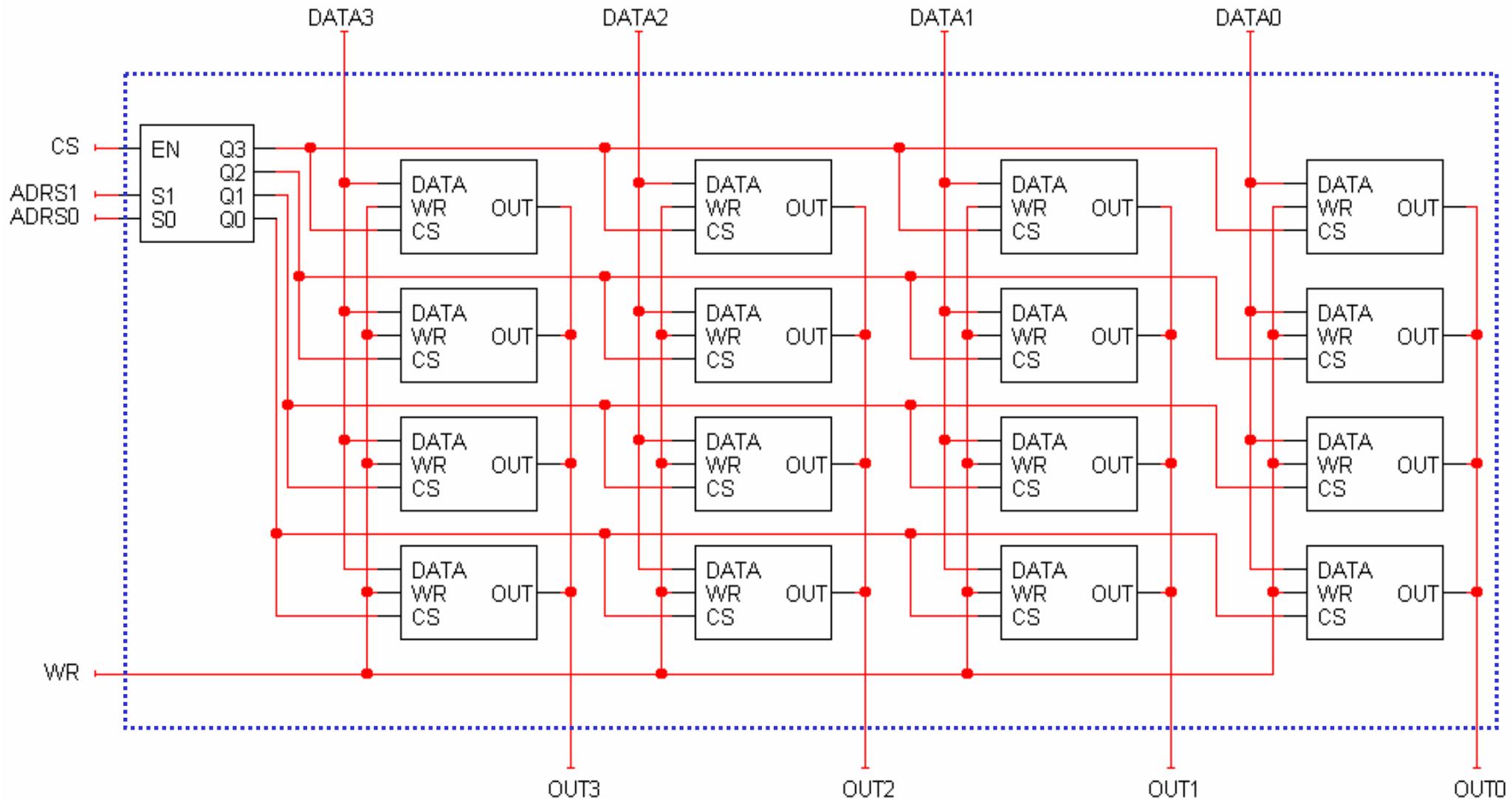
Bigger and better

- Here is the 4 x 1 RAM once again.
- Can we make a **wider** memory with more bits per word, like perhaps a 4 x 4 RAM?
- Duplicate the stuff in the blue box!



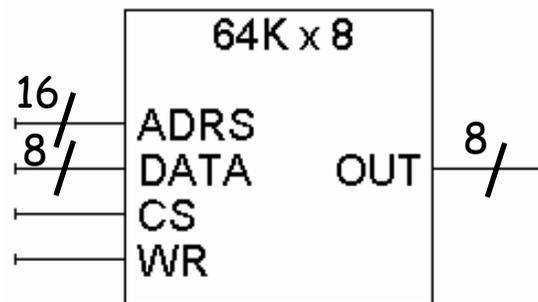
A 4 × 4 RAM

- DATA and OUT are now each *four* bits long, so you can read and write four-bit words.



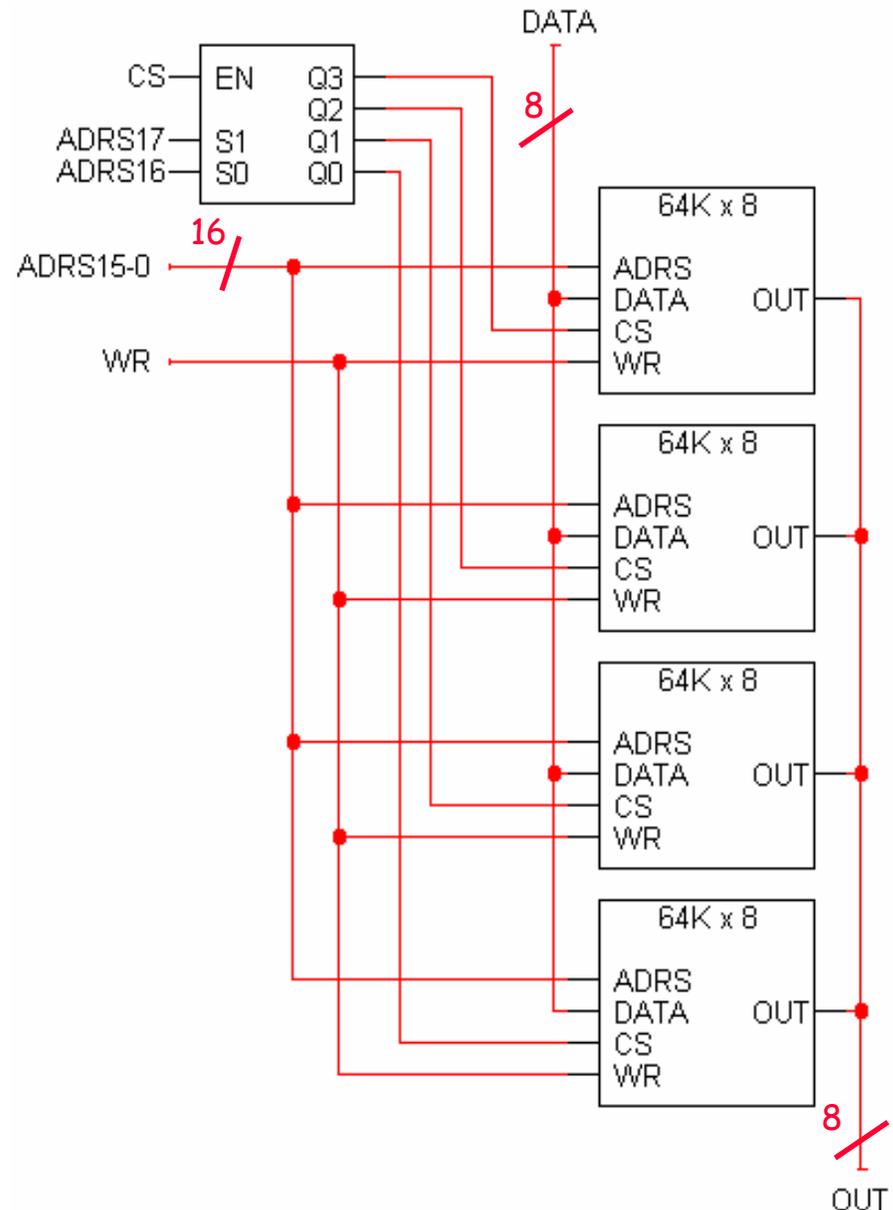
Bigger RAMs from smaller RAMs

- We can use small RAMs as building blocks for making larger memories, by following the same principles as in the previous examples.
- As an example, suppose we have some $64\text{K} \times 8$ RAMs to start with.
 - $64\text{K} = 2^6 \times 2^{10} = 2^{16}$, so there are 16 address lines.
 - There are 8 data lines.



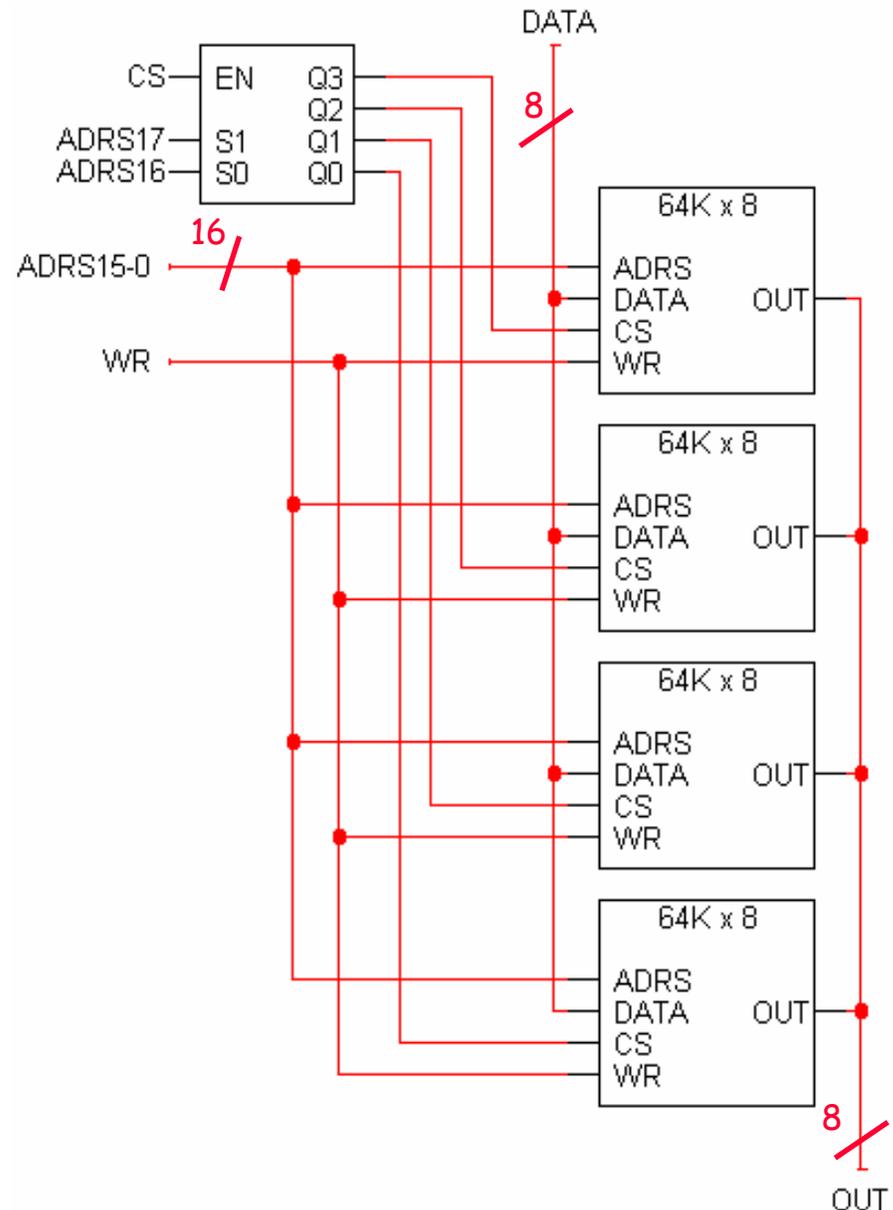
Making a larger memory

- Four $64\text{K} \times 8$ chips together form a $256\text{K} \times 8$ memory.
- There are 18 address lines in a RAM with 256K words.
 - The two most significant address lines go to the decoder, which selects one of the four $64\text{K} \times 8$ RAM chips.
 - The other 16 address lines are shared by the $64\text{K} \times 8$ chips.
- The $64\text{K} \times 8$ chips also share WR and DATA inputs.
- This assumes the $64\text{K} \times 8$ chip has three-state outputs.

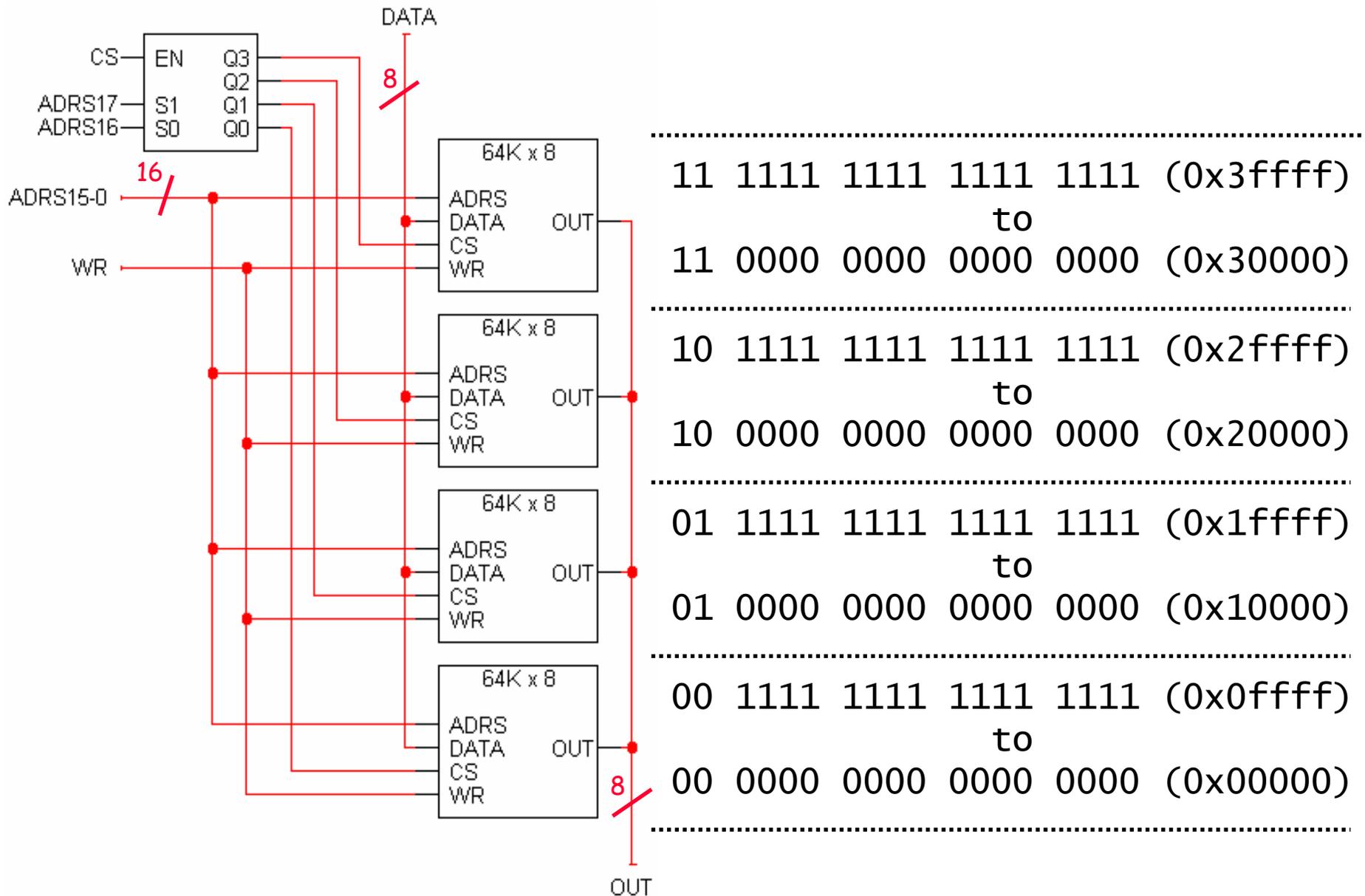


Analyzing the 256K × 8 RAM

- There are 256K words of memory, spread out among the four smaller 64K × 8 RAM chips.
- When the two most significant bits of the address are 00, the bottom RAM chip is selected. It holds data for the first 64K addresses.
- The next chip up is enabled when the address starts with 01. It holds data for the second 64K addresses.
- The third chip up holds data for the next 64K addresses.
- The final chip contains the data of the final 64K addresses.

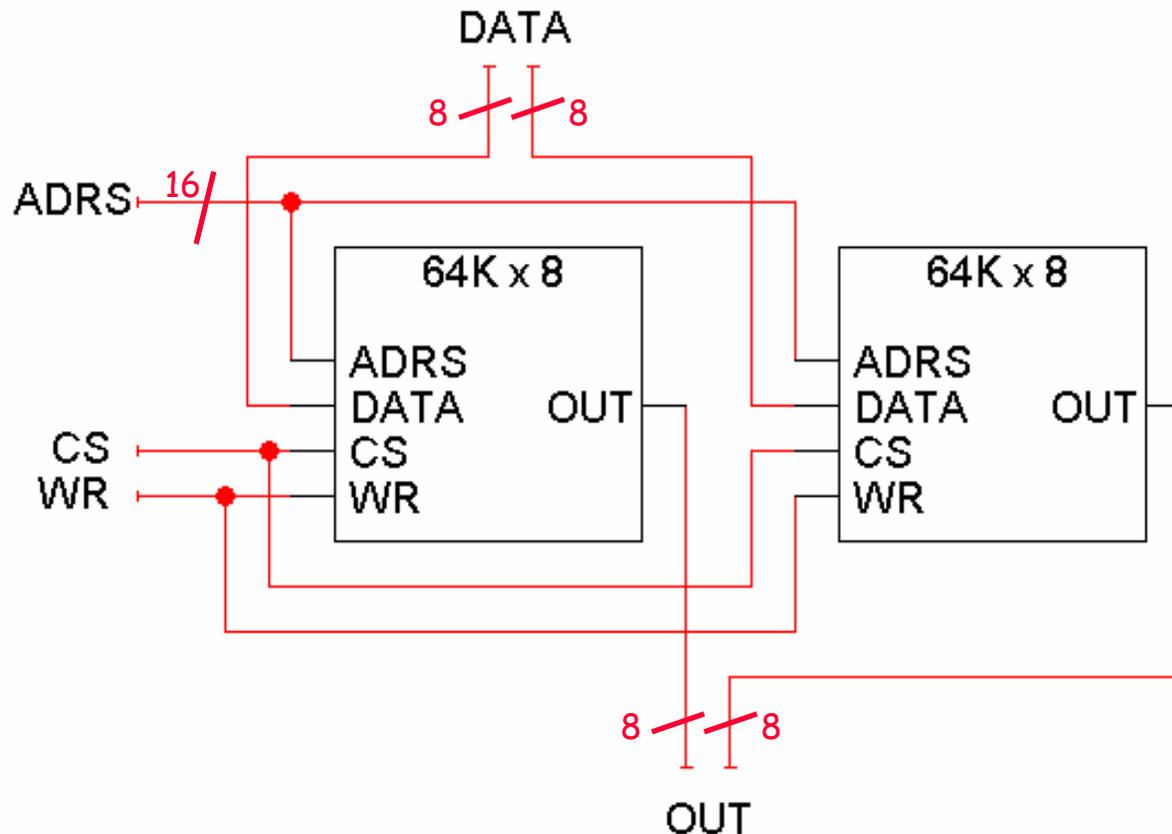


Address ranges



Making a wider memory

- You can also combine smaller chips to make wider memories, with the same number of addresses but more bits per word.
- Here is a $64\text{K} \times 16$ RAM, created from two $64\text{K} \times 8$ chips.
 - The left chip contains the most significant 8 bits of the data.
 - The right chip contains the lower 8 bits of the data.



Dynamic memory in a nutshell

- **Dynamic memory** is built with capacitors.
 - A stored charge on the capacitor represents a logical 1.
 - No charge represents a logic 0.
- However, all capacitors lose their charge after a few milliseconds. The memory requires constant **refreshing** to recharge the capacitors. (That's what's "dynamic" about it.)
- Dynamic RAMs tend to be physically smaller than static RAMs.
 - A single bit can be stored with just one capacitor and one transistor, while static RAM cells typically require 4-6 transistors.
 - So dynamic RAM is cheaper and denser—more bits can be stored in the same physical area.

SDRAM

- **Synchronous DRAM**, or **SDRAM**, is one of the more common types of PC memory now.
- Memory chips are organized into modules that are connected to the CPU via a 64-bit (8-byte) bus.
- Speeds are rated in megahertz: PC66, PC100 and PC133 memory run at 66MHz, 100MHz and 133MHz respectively.
- The maximum memory **bandwidth** is found by multiplying the number of transfers per second by the size of each transfer.
 - PC100 memory can transfer up to 800MB per second (100MHz × 8 bytes/cycle).
 - PC133 can get over 1 GB per second.
- Unfortunately, systems never achieve these maximum data rates in practice.



DDR-RAM

- A newer type of memory is **Double Data Rate**, or **DDR-RAM**.
- It's very similar to regular SDRAM, except data is transferred on both the positive *and* negative clock edges. So on 100-133MHz buses, the memory speeds appear to be 200-266MHz.
- This is known as DDR200 or DDR266 RAM, where the number now refers to the effective memory speed instead of the actual frequency.
- It's also sometimes confusingly called PC1600 and PC2100 RAM because of its bandwidth, and because larger numbers look better.
 - $200\text{MHz} \times 8 \text{ bytes/cycle} = 1600 \text{ MB/s}$
 - $266\text{MHz} \times 8 \text{ bytes/cycle} = 2100 \text{ MB/s}$.
- Newer systems can support DDR333 or even DDR400 memory.
- DDR-RAM has lower power consumption, using 2.5V instead of 3.3V like SDRAM. This makes it good for notebooks and other mobile devices.

RDRAM

- A type of memory called **RDRAM** is used in the Playstation 2 as well as some Pentium 4 computers.
- The data bus is only 16 bits wide, but the memory runs at 400-533MHz and data is transferred on both positive and negative clock edges.
- This works out to maximum transfer rates of 1.6 to 2.1GB per second.
- RDRAM-based machines also often use two “channels” of memory, or two modules in parallel, resulting in a 4.2 GB/s maximum bandwidth.

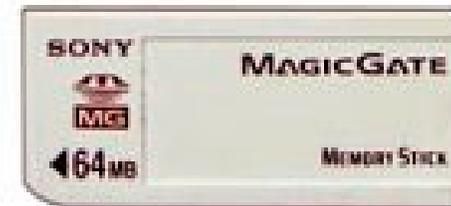


Dynamic vs. static memory

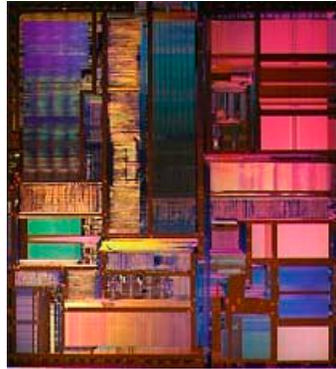
- In practice, dynamic RAM is used for a computer's main memory, since it's cheap and you can pack a lot of storage into a small space.
 - These days you can buy 512MB of memory for \$60 or less.
 - You can also load a system with 1.5GB or more of memory.
- The disadvantage of dynamic RAM is its speed.
 - Memory transfer rates are still much slower than the processor itself, which can run at up to 3 GHz, or 3 billion cycles per second.
 - You also have to consider **latency**, or the time it takes data to travel from the memory modules to the processor.
- Real systems augment dynamic memory with small but fast sections of static memory called **caches**.
 - Typical processor caches range in size from 128 to 512 *kilobytes*.
 - That's small compared to a 128 *megabyte* main memory, but it's big enough to significantly increase a computer's overall speed.
 - We'll talk about caches a little more at the end of the summer, and you'll study them a lot more if you take CS232 or CS333.

ROMs vs. RAMs

- How do the ROMs that we mentioned earlier compare with RAMs?
 - ROMs are **non-volatile** and data is preserved even without power. On the other hand, RAM contents disappear once power is lost.
 - ROMs require special (and slower) techniques for writing, which is why they're considered to be read-only devices.
- Many newer types of ROMs do permit easier writing, although the speeds are still much slower than RAMs.
 - MP3 players, digital cameras and other toys use CompactFlash, Secure Digital, or MemoryStick cards for non-volatile storage.
 - Many devices also allow you to upgrade data stored in “flash ROM.”



Summary



- Today we talked about static and dynamic **random-access memory**.
- **Static RAM** is just a bunch of latches connected together, allowing users to select a particular **address** to read or write.
 - Much of the hardware in memory chips supports the address selection process: **chip select** inputs, decoders and **tri-state buffers**.
 - By providing a uniform interface, RAM chips are easily joined to form longer and wider memories.
- **Dynamic RAM** is built from capacitors instead of latches.
 - They cost less and require less physical space, making them ideal for larger-capacity memories.
 - However, dynamic memories are much slower than static RAMs.