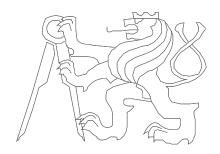
Computer Architectures

Real Numbers and Computer Memory
Pavel Píša, Richard Šusta
Michal Štepanovský, Miroslav Šnorek



Czech Technical University in Prague, Faculty of Electrical Engineering

English version partially supported by:

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APO at Dona Lake 84° 28' 45" E, 28° 29' 52" N, 4038m, 2019-11-28 APO at InstallFest (https://installfest.cz/) 50°4'36.682"N, 14°25'4.116"E, 2020-02-29 **QtMIPS Hands on Session to Understand** Computer Architectures and Discuss Its Teaching Embedded Linux, FPGA and Motion Control Hands-On

Speed of Arithmetic Operations

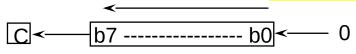
Operation	C language operator	
Bitwise complement (negation)	~X	
Multiply and divide by 2 ⁿ	x< <n ,="" x="">>n</n>	
Increment, decrement	++X, X++,X, X	
Negate ← complement + increment	- X	
Addition	x+y	
Subtraction <- negation + addition	x-y	
Multiply on hardware multiplier	\/\\\\\	
Multiply on sequential multiplier/SW	x*y	
Division	x/y	

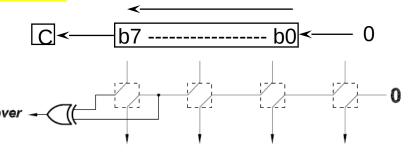
Multiply/Divide by 2

Logical Shift

Arithmetic Shift

Multiply by 2

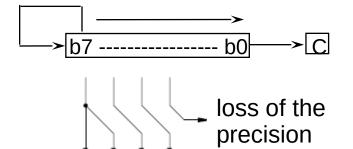




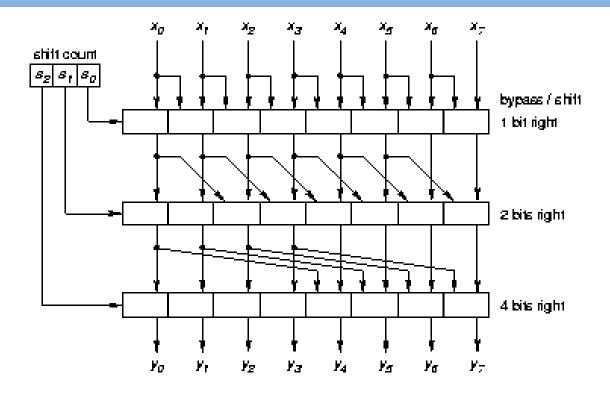
Divide by 2 unsigned

C represents Carry Flag, it is present only on some processors: x86/ARM yes, MIPS no

Divide by 2 signed



Barrel Shifter



Barrel shifter can be used for fast variable shifts

Overflow of Unsigned Number Binary Representation

- The carry from MSB (the most significant bit) is observed in this case
- The arithmetic result is incorrect because it is out of range. For 5 bit representation:

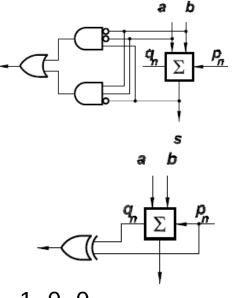
28

1 1 1 0 0

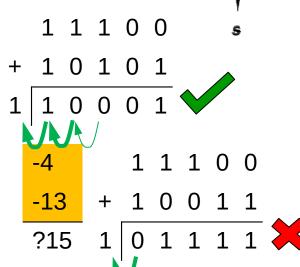
The incorrect result is smaller than each of addends

Overflow of Signed Binary Representation

- Result is incorrect, numeric value is outside of the range that can be represented with a given number of digits
- It is manifested by result sign different from the sign of addends when both addends signs are the same, and
- the exclusive-or (xor) of carry to and from MSB differs.



For 5 bit representation:



Sign Extension

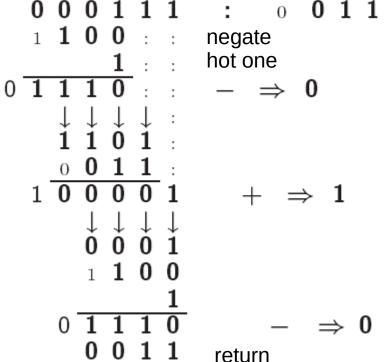
```
Example:
```

```
short int x = 15213;
int        ix = (int) x;
short int y = -15213;
int        iy = (int) y;
```

	Decimal	Hex		Binary				
X	15213		3B	6D			00111011	01101101
ix	15213	00 00	C4	92	0000000	0000000	00111011	01101101
У	-15213		C4	93			11000100	10010011
iy	-15213	FF FF	C4	93	11111111	11111111	11000100	10010011

Hardware Divider – Simple Sequential Algorithm

Non-restoring division



ALU does not check, if the dividend is smaller or not than divisor. It finds that during subtraction and needs to correct the result by addition.

Hardware divider logic (32b case)

111:011

 $dividend = quotient \times divisor + reminder$ negate hot one $- \Rightarrow 0$ 32-bit ALU \pm Shift Right Control Shift Left -Test AC MQ Write A mod B 64-bit A div B N return **0 0 1** — reminder **0 1 0** — quotient

Algorithm of the sequential division

```
MQ = dividend;
B = divisor; (Condition: divisor is not 0!)
AC = 0;
for( int i=1; i <= n; i++) {
  SL (shift AC MQ by one bit to the left, the LSB bit is kept on zero)
  if(AC >= B) {
       AC = AC - B;
      MQ_0 = 1; // the LSB of the MQ register is set to 1
```

→ Value of MQ register represents quotient and AC remainder

Example of X/Y division

Dividend x=1010 and divisor y=0011

i	operation	AC	\mathbf{MQ}	В	comment
		0000	1010	0011	initial setup
1	SL	0001	0100		
	nothing	0001	0100		the if condition not true
2	SL	0010	1000		
		0010	1000		the if condition not true
3	SL	0101	0000		$r \ge y$
	$AC = AC - B; MQ_0 = 1;$	0010	0001		
4	SL	0100	0010		$r \ge y$
	$AC = AC - B; MQ_0 = 1;$	0001	0011		end of the cycle

x : y = 1010 : 0011 = 0011 reminder 0001, (10 : 3 = 3 reminder 1)

*Real Numbers

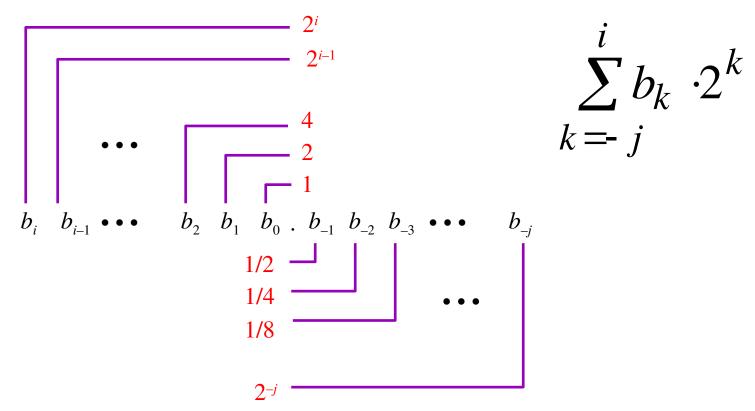
and their representation in computer

Higher dynamic range for numbers (REAL/float)

- Scientific notation, semi-logarithmic, floating point
 - The value is represented by:
 - EXPONENT (E) represents scale for given value
 - MANTISSA (M) represents value in that scale
 - the sign(s) are usually separated as well
 - Mantissa x base^{Exponent}
- Normalized notation
 - The exponent and mantissa are adjusted such way, that mantissa is held in some standard range. Usually (0.5, base)
 - When considered base z=2 is considered then mantissa range is $\langle 1, 2 \rangle$ or alternatively $\langle 0.5, 1 \rangle$.
- Decimal representation: 7.26478 x 10³
- Binary representation: $1,010011 \times 2^{1001}$

Fractional Binary Numbers/Fixed Point

They can be used directly or as base for mantissa of float



Real number representation in fixed point (fractional numbers)

Bits following "binary point" specify fractions in power two series

Fixed point Examples

Value Representation

Operations

Divide by 2 → shift right

Multiply by 2 → shift left.

Numbers $0.1111111..._2$ are smaller than 1.0

$$1/2 + 1/4 + 1/8 + ... + 1/2^{i} + ... \rightarrow 1.0$$

Exact notation \rightarrow 1.0 – ϵ

Binary and Decimal Real Numbers Examples

$$23.47 = 2 \times 10^{1} + 3 \times 10^{0} + 4 \times 10^{-1} + 7 \times 10^{-2}$$

† decimal point

$$10.01_{two} = 1 \times 2^{1} + 0 \times 2^{0} + 0 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2}$$
† binary point
$$= 1 \times 2 + 0 \times 1 + 0 \times \frac{1}{2} + 1 \times \frac{1}{4}$$

$$= 2 + 0.25 = 2.25$$

Scientific Notation and Binary Numbers

Decimal number:

```
-123\ 000\ 000\ 000\ 000\ \rightarrow\ -1.23\times 10^{14}
```

 $0.000\ 000\ 000\ 000\ 000\ 123 \rightarrow +1.23 \times 10^{-16}$

Binary number:

```
110\ 1100\ 0000\ 0000\ \rightarrow\ 1.1011\times\ 2^{14}\ =\ 29696_{10}
```

 $-0.0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0001\ 1011 \rightarrow -1.1101 \times 2^{-16}$

 $=-2.765655517578125 \times 10^{-5}$

Standardized format for REAL type numbers

- Standard IEEE-754 defines next REAL representation and precision
 - single-precision in the C language declared as float
 - uses 32 bits (1 + 8 + 23) to represent a number
 - double-precision C language double
 - Uses 64 bits (1 + 11 + 52) to represent a number
 - actual standard (IEEE 754-2008) adds half-precision float (16 bits) mainly for graphics and neural networks, quadruple-precision (128 bits) and octuple-precision (256 bits) for special scientific computations

The Representation/Encoding of Floating Point Number

- Mantissa encoded as the sign and absolute value (magnitude) – equivalent to the direct representation
- Exponent encoded in biased representation (K=+127 for single precision, +1023 for double)
- The implicit leading one can be omitted due to normalization of $m \in \langle 1, 2 \rangle 23+1$ implicit bit for single

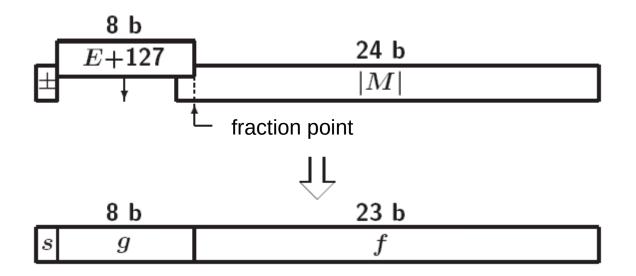
$$X = -1^{s} \ 2^{A(E)-127} \ m \qquad \qquad \text{where } m \in \langle 1, 2 \rangle$$

$$m = 1 + 2^{-23} \ M$$
 Sign of M
$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad$$

Radix point position for E and M

ANSI/IEEE Std 754-1985 – 32b a 64b formats

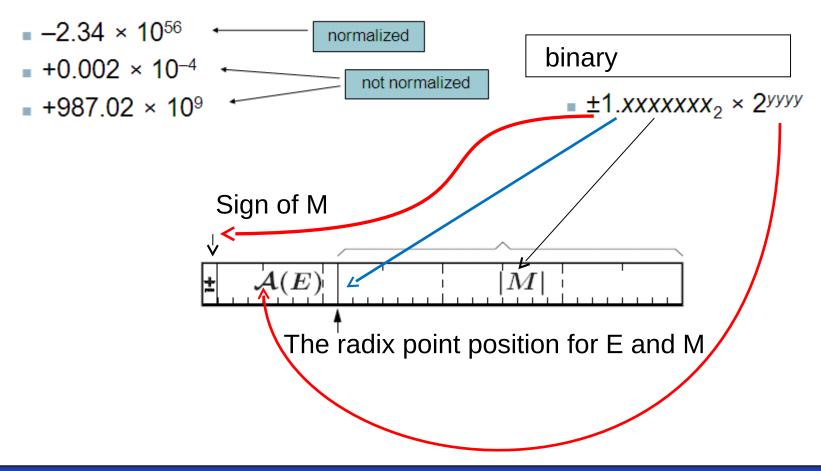
ANSI/IEEE Std 754-1985 — single precision format — 32b



ANSI/IEEE Std 754-1985 — double precision format — 64b
$$g \dots 11b$$
 $f \dots 52b$

ANSI/IEEE Std 754-1985 — half precision format — 16b
$$g \dots 5b$$
 $f \dots 10b$

Examples of (De)Normalized Numbers in Base 10 and 2



IEEE 754 – Conversion Examples

Find IEEE-754 float representation of -12.625₁₀

- Step #1: convert $-12.625_{10} = -1100.101_2 = 101 / 8$
- Step #2: normalize $-1100.101_2 = -1.100101_2 \times 2^3$
- Step #3:

Fill sign field, negative for this case -> S=1.

Exponent + 127 -> 130 -> 1000 0010.

The first mantissa bit 1 is a hidden one ->

Alternative approach, separate sign, find floor of binary logarithm for absolute value, compute equivalent power of two, divide number (result is normalized) and, subtract one, multiply by two, if > 1 subtract and append 1 to result else append 0, multiply by two and repeat.

Example 0.75

$$0.75_{10} = 0.11_{2} = 1.1 \times 2^{-1} = 3/4$$
 $1.1 = 1. F \rightarrow F = 1$
 $E - 127 = -1 \rightarrow E = 127 - 1 = 126 = 011111110_{2}$
 $S = 0$

Example 0.1_{10} – Conversion to Float

$$0.1_{10} = 0.00011_{\underline{0011}}_{\underline{00$$

$$F = 10011$$
 $-4 = E - 127$

$$E = 127 - 4 = 123 = 01111011_2$$

0011 1101 1100 1100 1100 1100 1100 1100 1100 11...

0x3DCCCCD, why the last is a D?

Example 0.1_{10} – Conversion to Float

$$0.1_{10} = 0.000110011..._{2} =$$

```
0011 001 10011 00110 01 10011 001 10011 0011 001 1001 10011 0011 0011 0011 001 10011 0011 0011
0011001100110011001100110011001100110011001100110011001100110011001100110011
0011001100110011001100110011001100110011001100110011001100110011001100110011
0011...
```

Often Inexact Floating Point Number Representation

Decadic number with finite expansion → infinite binary expansion Examples:

$$0.1_{ten} \rightarrow 0.2 \rightarrow 0.4 \rightarrow 0.8 \rightarrow 1.6 \rightarrow 3.2 \rightarrow 6.4 \rightarrow 12.8 \rightarrow ...$$

$$0.1_{10} = 0.00011001100110011..._{2}$$

= 0.00011_{2} (infinite bit stream)

More bits only enhance precission of 0.1_{10} representation

Real Number Representation - Limitations

Limitation

Only numbers corresponding to $x/2^k$ allows exact representation, all other are stored inexact

```
Value representation
```

```
1/3 0.0101010101[01]...<sub>2</sub>
```

```
1/5 0.001100110011[0011]...<sub>2</sub>
```

Special Values – Not a Number (NaN) and Infinity

- If the result of the mathematical operation is not defined, such as the calculation of log (-1), or the result is ambiguous 0/0, +Inf + -Inf, then the value NaN (Not-a-Number) is saved
 - = exponent is set to all ones and the mantissa is nonzero.

NaN

positive	0 11111111	mantisa !=0	NaN
----------	------------	-------------	-----

 If the operation results only overflow the range or infinity is on input (X + +Inf) and result sign is unambiguous

Infinity

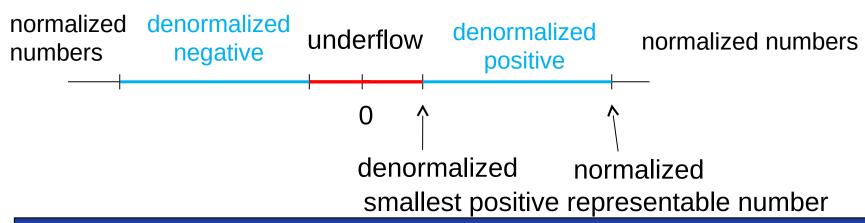
positive	Θ	11111111	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	+Inf
negative	1	11111111	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	-Inf

Implied (Hidden) Leading 1 bit

- Most significant bit of the mantissa is one for each normalized number and it is not stored in the representation for the normalized numbers
- If exponent representation is zero then encoded value is zero or denormalized number which requires to store most significant bit and there is zero considered on usual hidden one location
- Denormalized numbers allow to keep resolution in the range from the smallest normalized number to zero but the computation when some of operands is denormalized is more complex. Some coprocessors do not support denormalized numbers and emulation is required to fulfill IEEE-754 strict requirements, Intel coprocessors supports denormalized numbers

Underflow/lost of the precision for IEEE-754 representation

- The case where stored number value is not zero but it is smaller than smallest number which can be represented in the normalized form
- The direct underflow to the zero can be prevented by extension of the representation range by denormalized numbers



Representation of the Fundamental Values

Zero

Positive zero	0	0000000	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	+0.0
Negative zero	1	0000000	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	-0.0

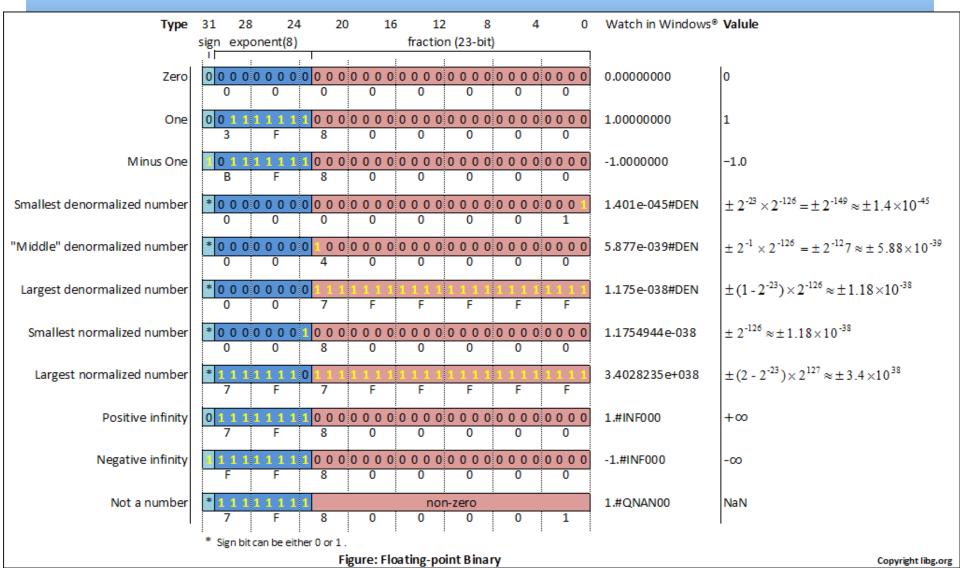
Infinity

Positive infinity	0 1111111 000000000000000000000000	+Inf
Negative infinity	1 1111111 0000000000000000000000000	-Inf

Representation corner values

Smallest normalized	* 00000001 0000000000000000000000000000	±2 ⁽¹⁻¹²⁷⁾ ±1.1755 10 ⁻³⁸
Biggest denormalized	* 00000000 11111111111111111111111	$\pm (1-2^{-23})2^{(1-126)}$
Smallest denormalized	* 00000000 0000000000000000000000000000	±2 ⁻²³ 2 ⁻¹²⁶ ±1.4013 10 ⁻⁴⁵
Max. value	0 11111110 1111111111111111111111	(2-2 ⁻²³)2 ⁽¹²⁷⁾ +3.4028 10 ⁺³⁸

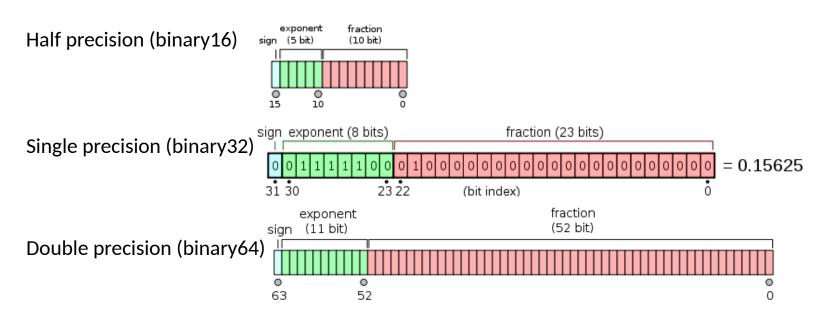
The Table in Another Format



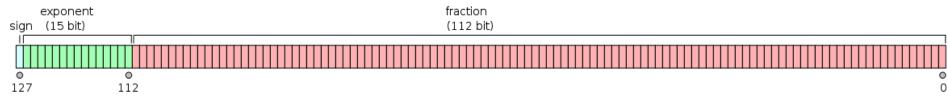
Some Features of ANSI/IEEE Standard Floating-point Formats

Feature	Single/Float	Double/Long
Word width in bits	32	64
Significand in bits	23 + 1 hidden	52 + 1 hidden
Significand range	$[1, 2-2^{-23}]$	$[1, 2-2^{-52}]$
Exponent bits	8	11
Exponent bias	127	1023
Zero (±0)	e + bias = 0, f = 0	e + bias = 0, f = 0
Denormal	e + bias = 0, $f \neq 0$ represents ± 0 . $f \times 2^{-126}$	e + bias = 0, $f \neq 0$ represents ± 0 . $f \times 2^{-1022}$
Infinity (±∞)	e + bias = 255, f = 0	e + bias = 2047, f = 0
Not-a-number (NaN)	$e + bias = 255, f \neq 0$	$e + bias = 2047, f \neq 0$
Ordinary number	e + bias ∈ [1, 254] e ∈ [-126, 127] represents 1. f × 2 e	e + bias ∈ [1, 2046] e ∈ [-1022, 1023] represents 1. f × 2 e
min	$2^{-126} \approx 1.2 \times 10^{-38}$	$2^{-1022} \cong 2.2 \times 10^{-308}$
max	$\simeq 2^{128} \simeq 3.4 \times 10^{38}$	$\simeq 2^{1024} \simeq 1.8 \times 10^{308}$

IEEE-754 Formats

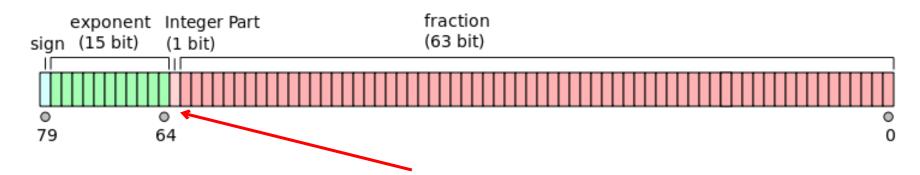


Quadruple precision (binary128)



Source: Herbert G. Mayer, PSU

X86 Extended Precision Format (80-bits)



Bit 1. is not hidden in mantissa!

Advanced readers note:

- Intel processors integrate arithmetic coprocessor on the single chip with processor (from Intel 80486), which computes float and double expressions in "extended precision" internally and the results are rounded to float/double when stored.
- But Streaming SIMD Extensions (SSE) instructions (vector operations) from Intel Pentium III on provides only double precision and the result rounding/precission can be dependent on compiler selection

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IEEE-754 Special Values Summary

sign bit	Exponent representation	Mantissa	Represented value/meaning
0	0 <e<255< td=""><td>any value</td><td>normalized positive number</td></e<255<>	any value	normalized positive number
1	0 <e<255< td=""><td>any value</td><td>normalized negative number</td></e<255<>	any value	normalized negative number
0	0	>0	denormalized positive number
1	0	>0	denormalized negative number
0	0	0	positive zero
1	0	0	negative zero
0	255	0	positive infinity
1	255	0	negative infinity
0	255	≠0	NaN – does not represent a number
1	255	≠0	NaN – does not represent a number

Comparison

 Comparison of the two IEEE-754 encoded numbers requires to solve signs separately but then it can be processed by unsigned ALU unit on the representations

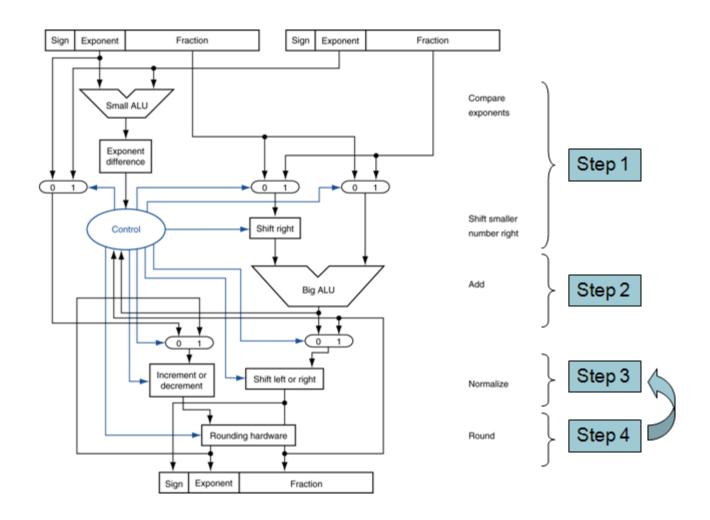
$$A \ge B \iff A - B \ge 0 \iff D(A) - D(B) \ge 0$$

 This is advantage of the selected encoding and reason why sign is not placed at start of the mantissa

Addition of floating point numbers

- The number with bigger exponent value is selected
- Mantissa of the number with smaller exponent is shifted right – the mantissas are then expressed at same scale
- The signs are analyzed and mantissas are added (same sign) or subtracted (smaller number from bigger)
- The resulting mantissa is shifted right (max by one) if addition overflows or shifted left after subtraction until all leading zeros are eliminated
- The resulting exponent is adjusted according to the shift
- Result is normalized after these steps
- The special cases and processing is required if inputs are not regular normalized numbers or result does not fit into normalized representation

Hardware of the floating point adder



Multiplication of floating point numbers

- Exponents are added and signs xor-ed
- Mantissas are multiplied
- Result can require normalization max 2 bits right for normalized numbers
- The result is rounded
- Hardware for multiplier is of the same or even lower complexity as the adder hardware – only adder part is replaced by unsigned multiplier

Floating point arithmetic operations overview

Addition: $A \cdot z^a$, $B \cdot z^b$, b < a unify exponents

 $B \cdot z^b = (B \cdot z^{b-a}) \cdot z^{b-(b-a)}$ by shift of mantissa

 $A \cdot z^a + B \cdot z^b = [A + (B \cdot z^{b-a})] \cdot z^a$ sum + normalization

Subtraction: unification of exponents, subtraction and

normalization

Multiplication: $A \cdot z^a \cdot B \cdot z^b = A \cdot B \cdot z^{a+b}$

A · B - normalize if required

 $A \cdot B \cdot z^{a+b} = A \cdot B \cdot z \cdot z^{a+b-1}$ - by left shift

Division: $A \cdot z^a/B \cdot z^b = A/B \cdot z^{a-b}$

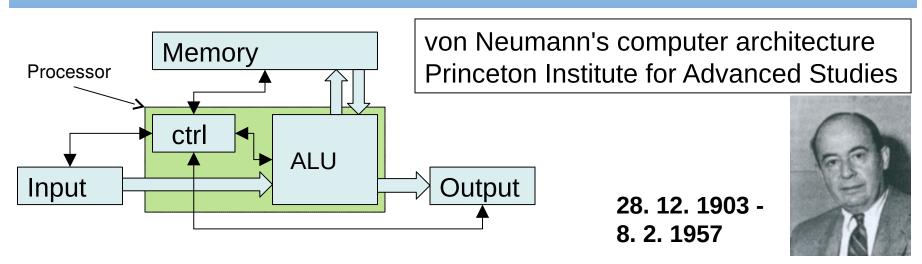
A/B - normalize if required

 $A/B \cdot z^{a-b} = A/B \cdot z \cdot z^{a-b+1}$ - by right shift

*Memory and Data

and their store in computer memory

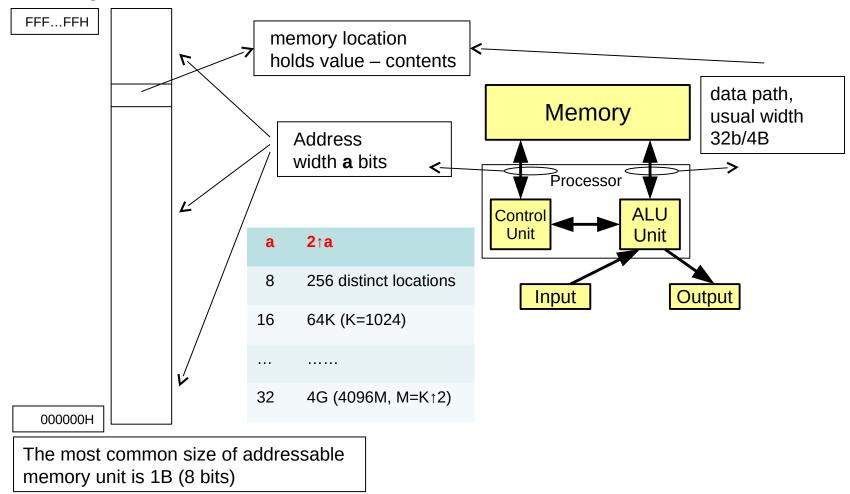
John von Neumann, Hungarian physicist



- •5 functional units control unit, arithmetic logic unit, memory, input (devices), output (devices)
- •An computer architecture should be independent of solved problems. It has to provide mechanism to load program into memory. The program controls what the computer does with data, which problem it solves.
- •Programs and results/data are stored in the same memory. That memory consists of a cells of same size and these cells are sequentially numbered (address).
- •The instruction which should be executed next, is stored in the cell exactly after the cell where preceding instruction is stored (exceptions branching etc.).
- •The instruction set consists of arithmetics, logic, data movement, jump/branch and special/control instructions.

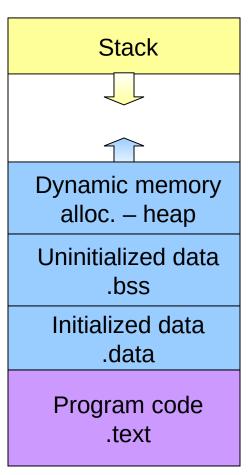
Memory address space

It is an array of addressable units (locations) where each unit can hold a data value. Number/range of addresses same as addressable units/words are limited in size.



Program Layout in Memory at Process Startup

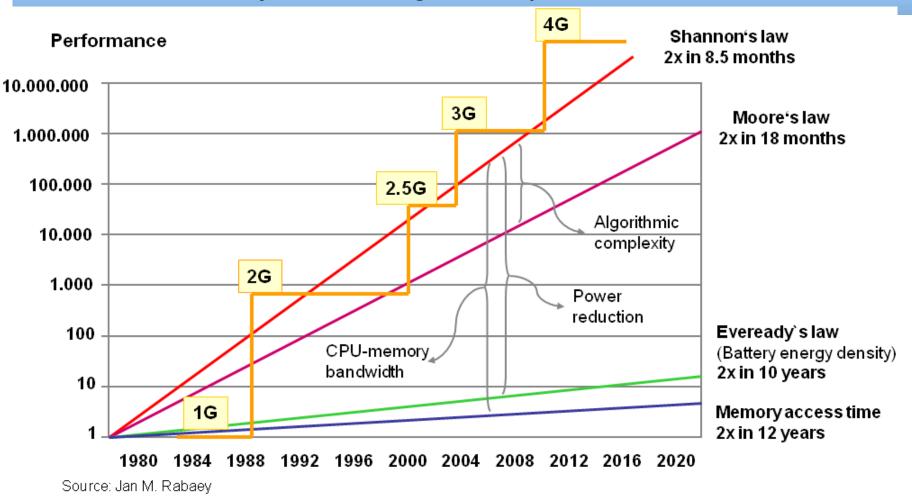
0x7fffffff



- The executable file is mapped
 ("loaded") to process address space
 – sections .data and .text (note:
 LMA != VMA for some special
 cases)
- Uninitialized data area (.bss block starting by symbol) is reserved and zeroed for C programs
- Stack pointer is set and control is passed to the function _start
- Dynamic memory is usually allocated above _end symbol pointing after .bss

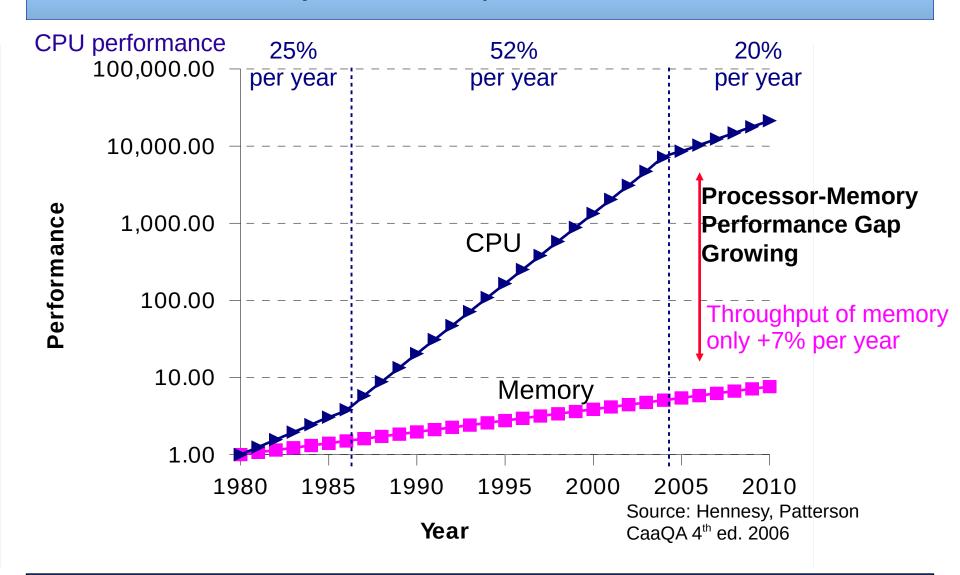
 0×00000000

Key Technological Gaps Prediction

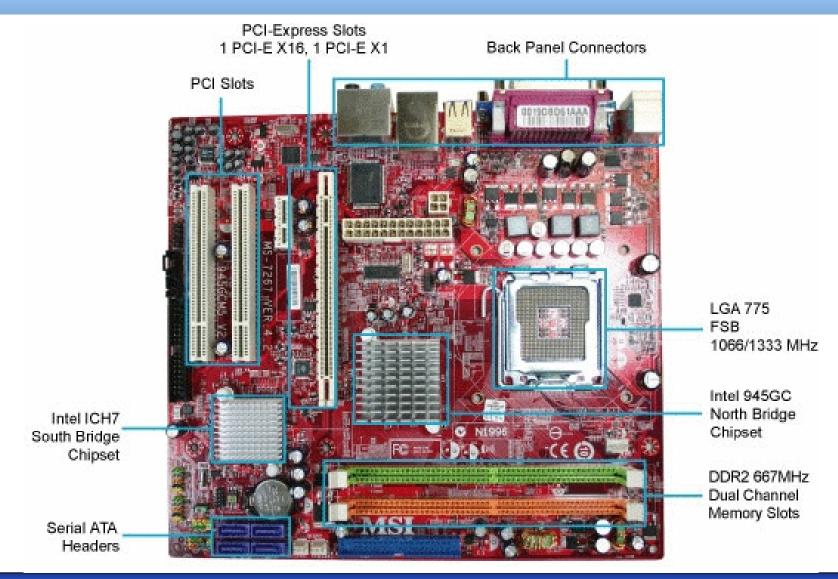


Note: The increase in complexity of algorithms over time has been formalized in literature as the so-called Shannon's Law of Algorithmic Complexity.

Memory and CPU speed - Moore's law



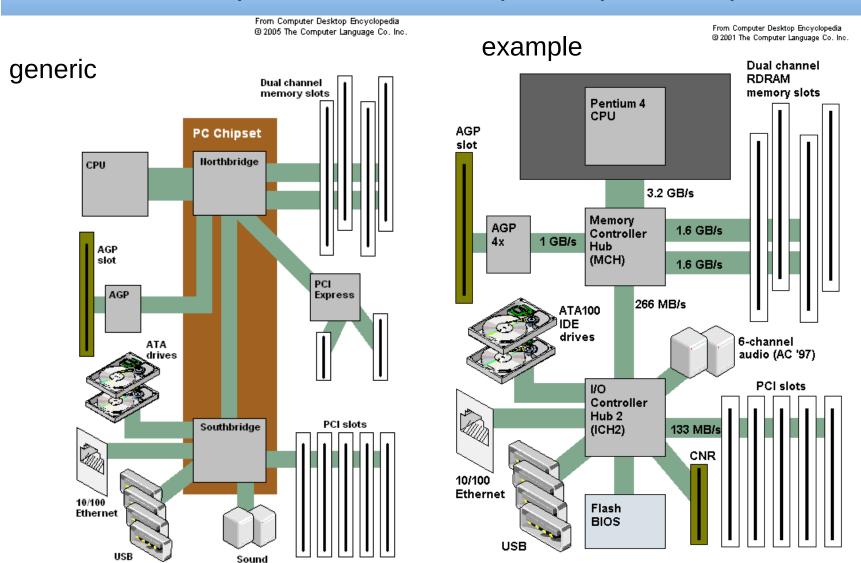
PC Computer Motherboard



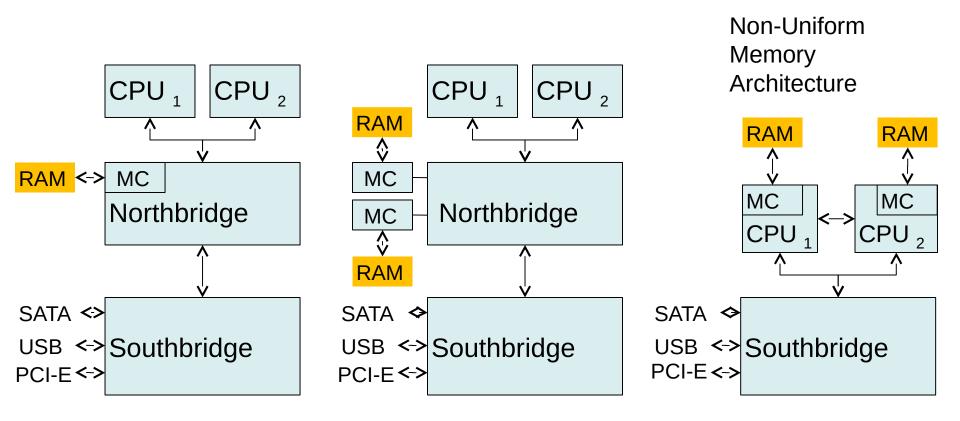
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Computer architecture (desktop x86 PC)

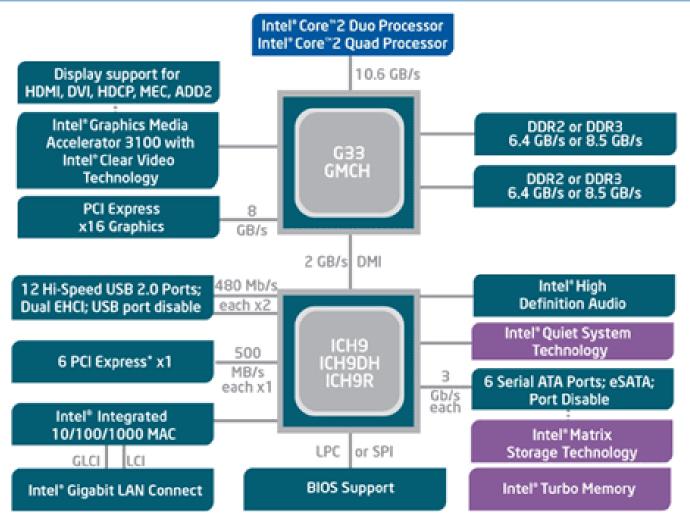


From UMA to NUMA development (even in PC segment)



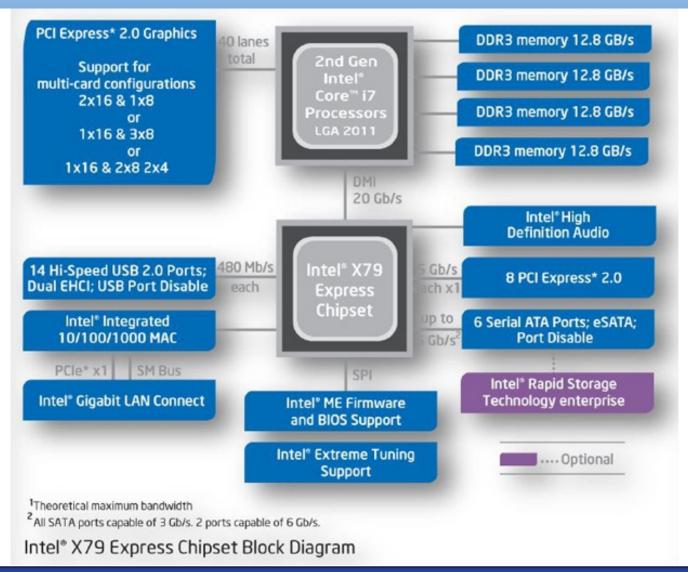
MC - Memory controller – contains circuitry responsible for SDRAM read and writes. It also takes care of refreshing each memory cell every 64 ms.

Intel Core 2 generation



Northbridge became Graphics and Memory Controller Hub (GMCH)

Intel i3/5/7 generation



Memory Subsystem – Terms and Definitions

- Memory address fixed-length sequences of bits or index
- Data value the visible content of a memory location
 Memory location can hold even more control/bookkeeping information
 - validity flag, parity and ECC bits etc.
- Basic memory parameters:
 - Access time delay or latency between a request and the access being completed or the requested data returned
 - Memory latency time between request and data being available (does not include time required for refresh and deactivation)
 - Throughput/bandwidth main performance indicator. Rate of transferred data units per time.
 - Maximal, average and other latency parameters

Memory Types and Maintenance

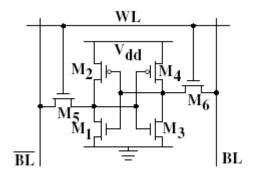
- Types: RWM (RAM), ROM, FLASH
- Implementation: SRAM, DRAM
- Data retention time and conditions (volatile/nonvolatile)
- Dynamic memories (DRAM, SDRAM) require specific care
 - Memory refresh state of each memory cell has to be internally read, amplified and fed back to the cell once every refresh period (usually about 60 ms), even in idle state. Each refresh cycle processes one row of cells.
 - Precharge necessary phase of access cycle to restore cell state after its partial discharge by read
 - Both contribute to maximal and average access time.

Typical Memory Parameters

- Memory types: RWM (RAM), ROM, FLASH,
- RAM realization:
 SRAM (static), DRAM (dynamic).
- RAM = Random Access Memory

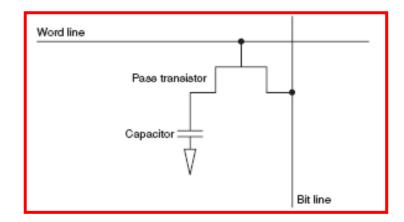
```
type transistor 1 bit area data availability latency s per cell SRAM cca 6 < 0,1 \mum² always < 1ns – 5ns DRAM 1 < 0,001 \mum² requires refresh today 20 ns – 35 ns
```

Detail of static and dynamic memory bit cell



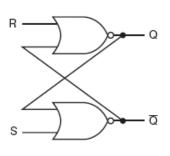
6 transistor static memory cell (single bit)

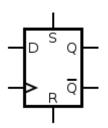
Single transistor cell of dynamic memory



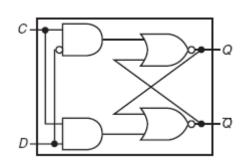
Flip-flop circuits – reminder from previous courses

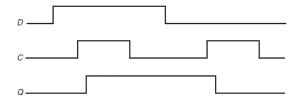
RS



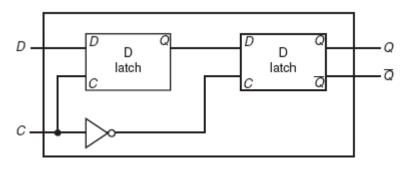


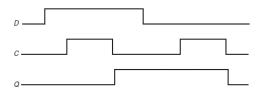
D latch, level-controlled flip-flop





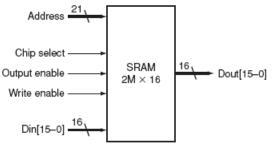
D flip-flop, edge-controlled flip-flop



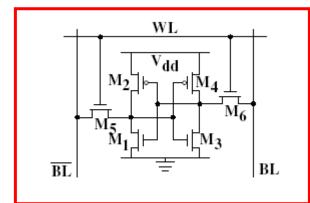


Usual SRAM Chip and SRAM Cell

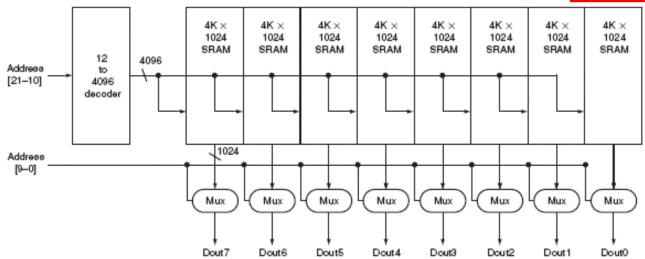
Usual SRAM chip



SRAM memory cell CMOS technology

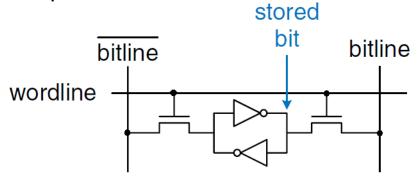


Bigger memory size?

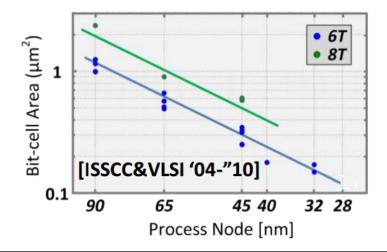


Usual Static Memory Chip Cell

Principle:

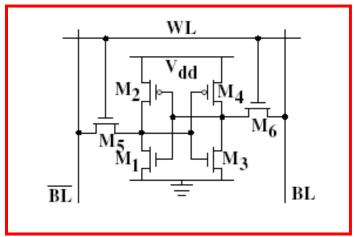


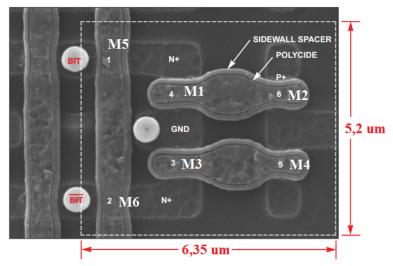
Area of one memory cell(bit):



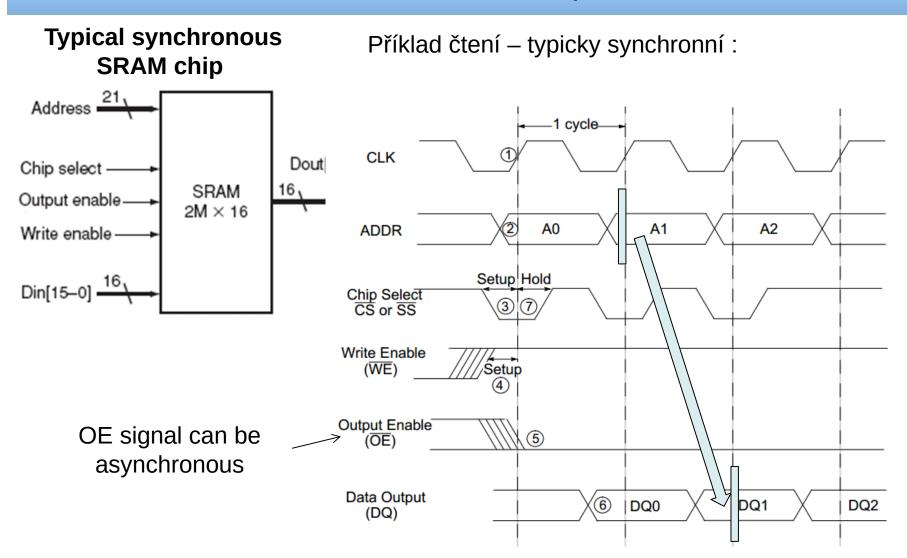
SRAM memory cell

6-transistors CMOS, 4 trans. Version exists

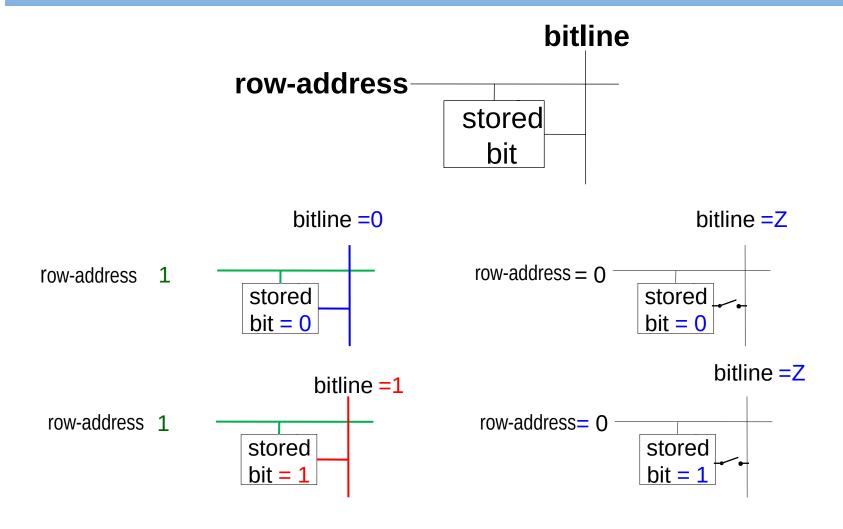




Usual SRAM Chip

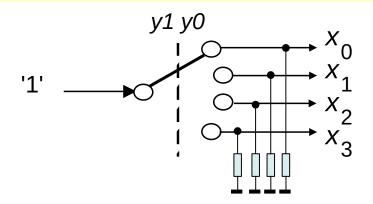


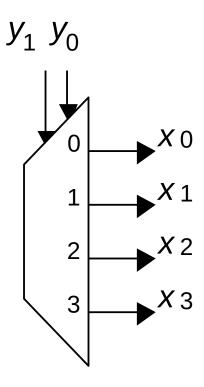
Memory Cell



Selector Switch – One from N Decoder

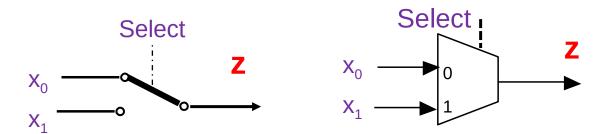
One Hot Decoder cz: Dekodér 1 ze 4



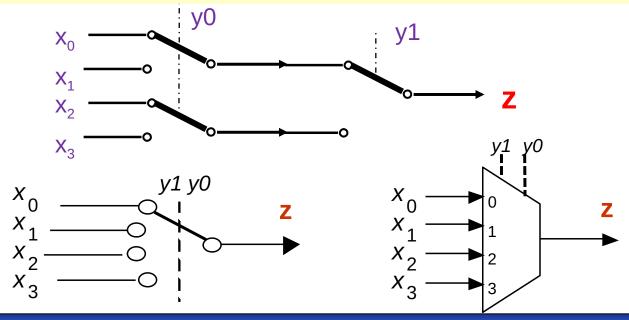


Switch Analogy of Multiplexor

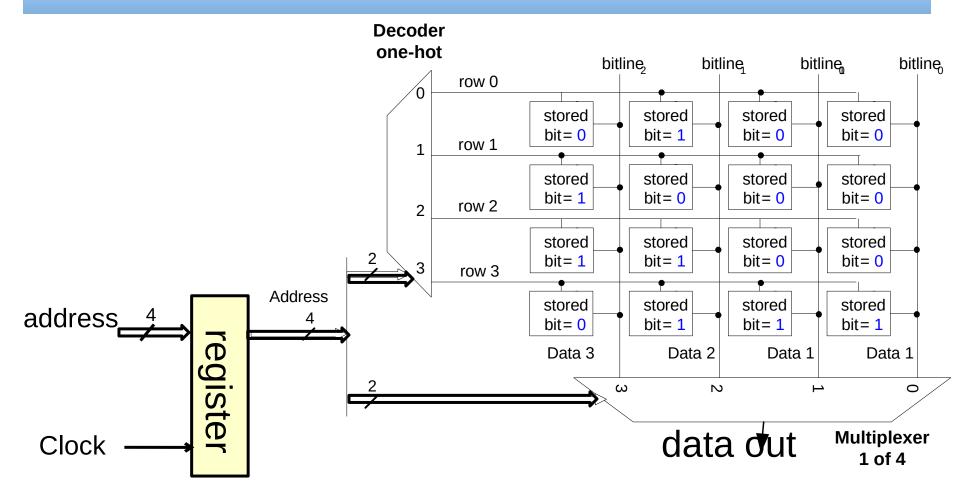
Multiplexer 2 to 1 or 1 of 2 cz :2 kanálový (2-vstupový) multiplexor



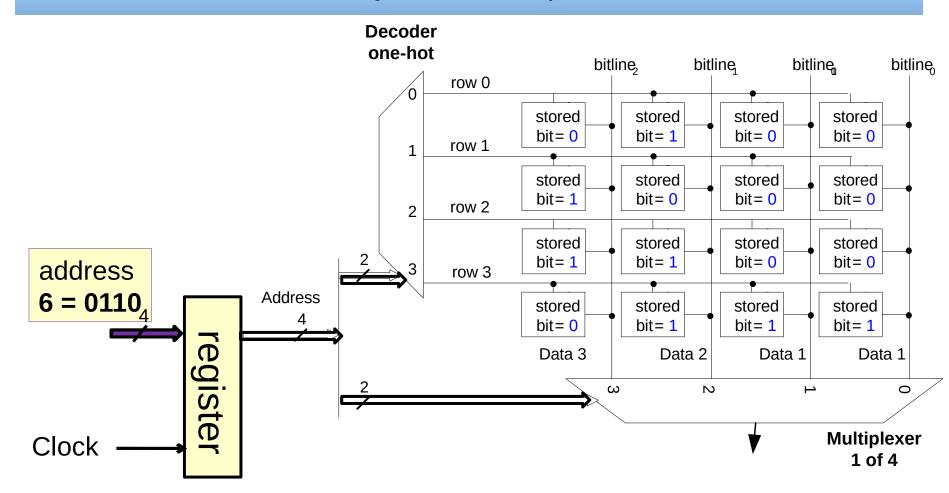
Multiplexer 4 to 1 or 1 of 4 cz : 4 kanálový (4-vstupový) multiplexor



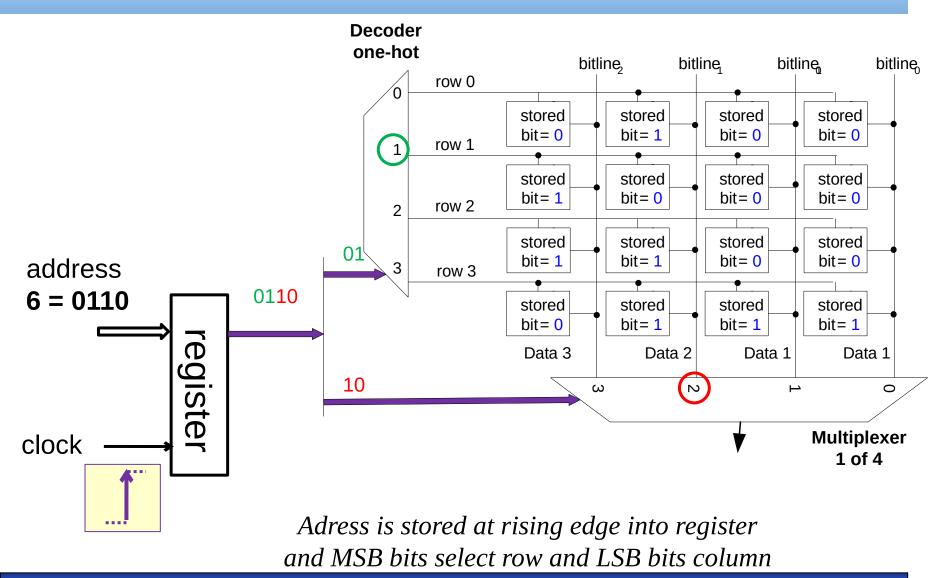
Memory Matrix

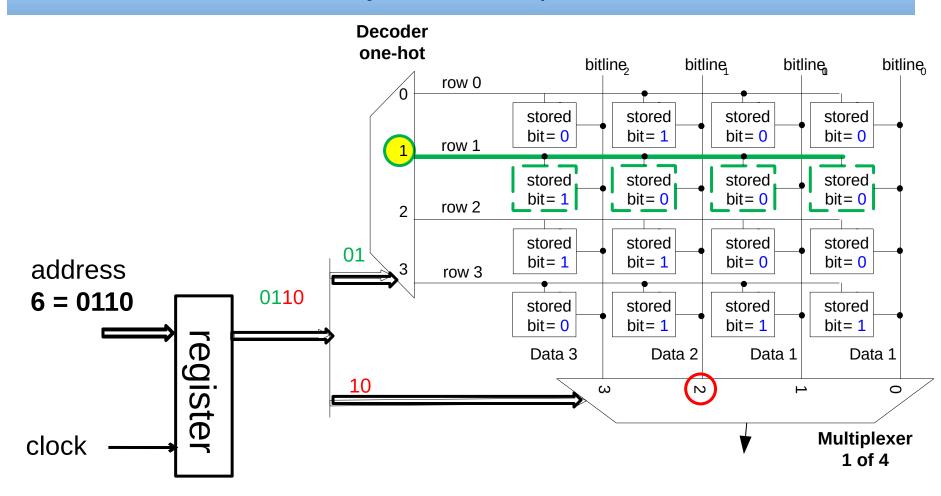


Register is necessary for synchronous memory implementation (SDRAM)

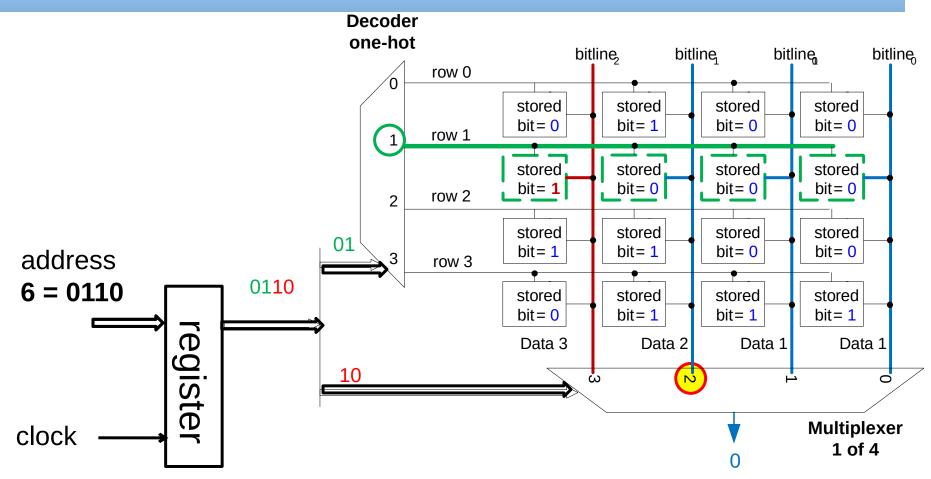


Address is setup at input and it is confirmed by rising edge.





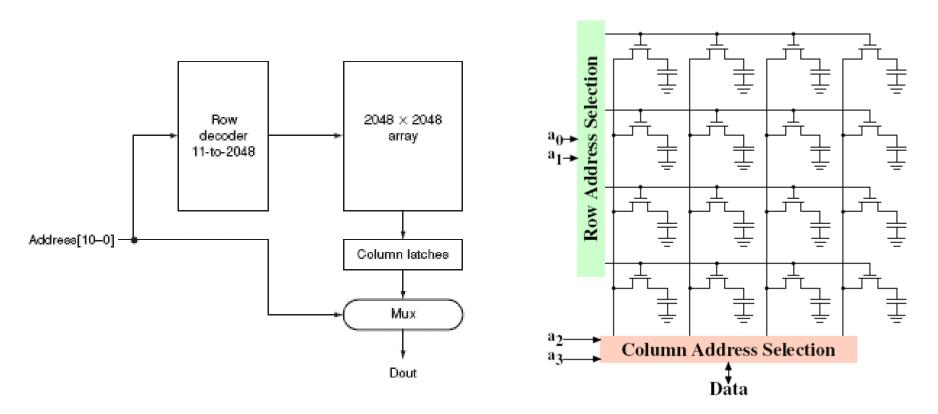
Decoder activates 1 of N rows and the selected cells are connected to all columns bitlines



Multiplexer selects column - Data 2 = 0

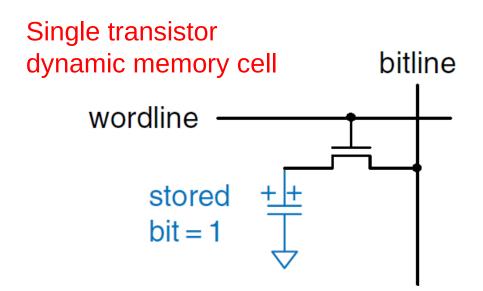
When register is connected before multiplexer then whole row can be read at once and consecutive data words can be streamed out by multiplexer only switching columns

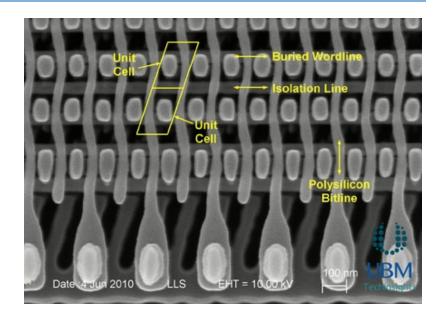
Internal architecture of the DRAM memory chip



This 4M × 1 DRAM is internally realized as an 2048x2048 array of 1b memory cells

Detail of Dynamic Memory Cell





- nMOS transistor nMOS works as analog switch which connects selected cell to "bitline".
- "wordline" controls which capacitor is connected to "bitline"

Dynamic Memory Capacitor Parameters

Today DRAM parameters		
	Capacity fF [femtofarad]	
Capacitor capacity	from 10 fF to 50 fF	
Bit line capacity	about 2 fF	

[Source: I'INSA de Toulouse]

fF - femtofarad

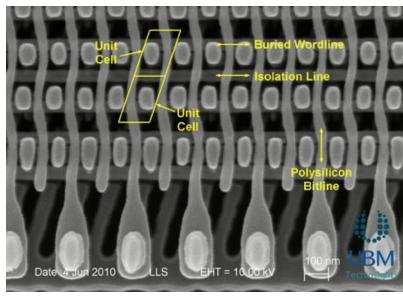
fF is SI unit equal to 10^{-15} Farads.

$$10^{-6} \, \text{F} = 1 \, \mu \text{F} = 10^3 \, \text{nF} = 10^6 \, \text{pF} = 10^9 \, \text{fF}$$

~9 fF is capacity between two plates of 1 mm² area with distance between plates around 1 mm,

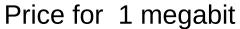
Detail of Dynamic Memory Cell

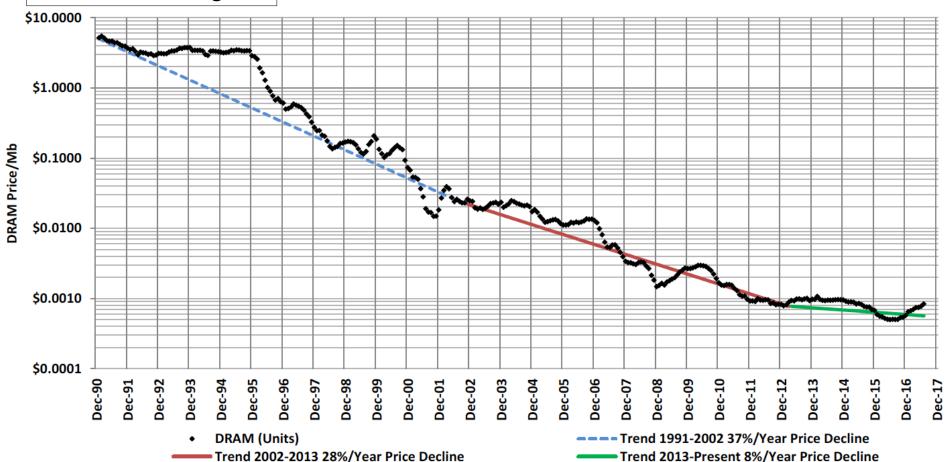
Single transistor dynamic memory cell bitline wordline stored bit = 1



- Read operation is complex and slow, takes from 20 to 35 ns, and speedup is almost impossible
- Read is destructive, capacitor is discharged and original value has to be restored (refreshed) after each read.
- Femto-farad capacitor spontaneously discharges in short time
 - it is necessary to refresh it, in optimum case 60 ms for each cell, but maintenance frequency is multiplied by row count. Required refresh rate depends on temperature

DRAM Memories – Price Seems to Be Settled for Now

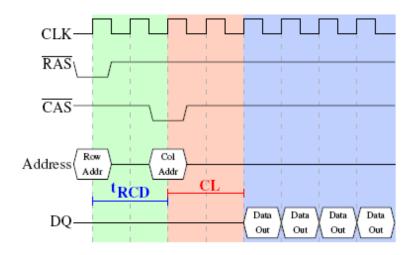




Source: Wells Fargo Securities, LLC and Semiconductor Industry Association

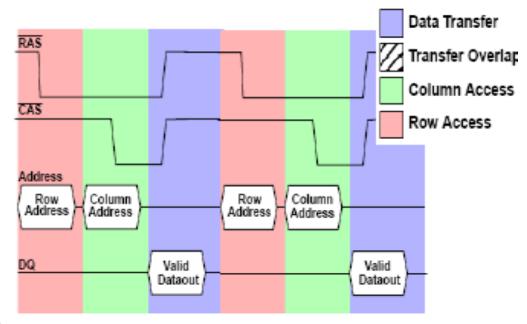
History of DRAM chips development

Year	Capacity	Price[\$]/GB	Access time [ns]
1980	64 Kb	1 500 000	250
1983	256 Kb	500 000	185
1985	1 Mb	200 000	135
1989	4 Mb	50 000	110
1992	16 Mb	15 000	90
1996	64 Mb	10 000	60
1998	128 Mb	4 000	60
2000	256 Mb	1 000	55
2004	512 Mb	250	50
2007	1 Gb	50	40



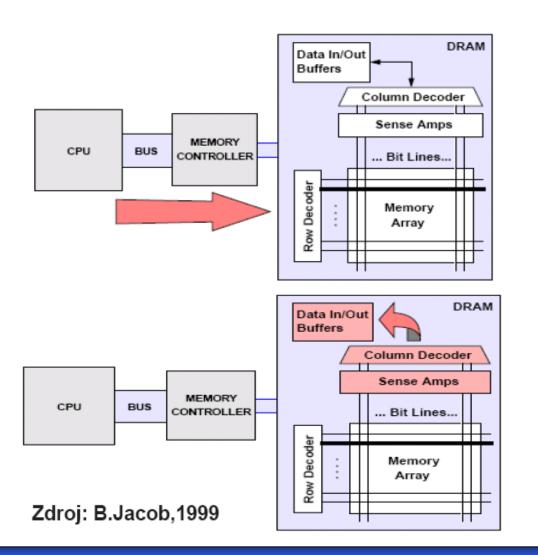
Old school DRAM – asynchronous access

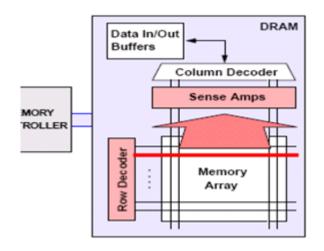
- The address is transferred in two phases reduces number of chip module pins and is natural for internal DRAM organization
- This method is preserved even for today chips

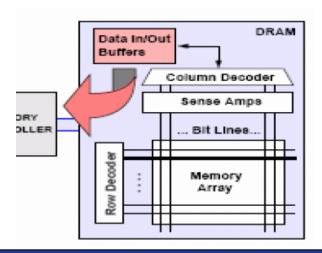


RAS – Row Address Strobe, CAS – Column Address Strobe

Phases of DRAM memory read

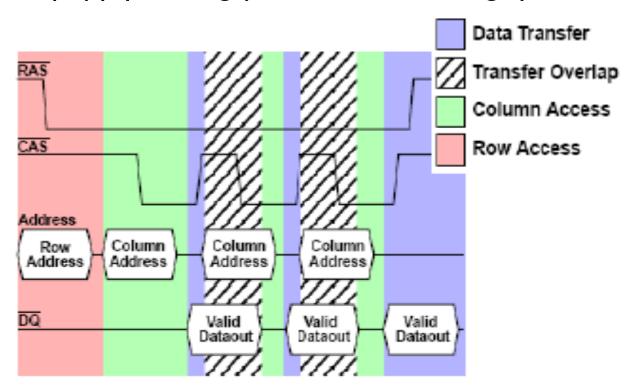






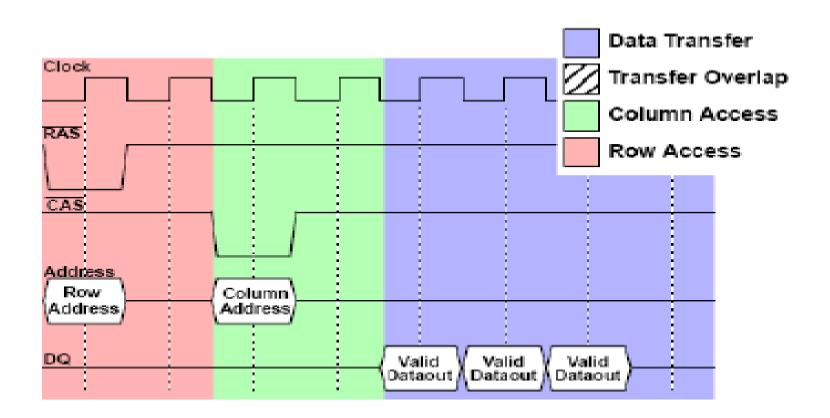
EDO-RAM – about 1995

 Output register holds data during overlap of next read CAS phase with previous access data transfer this overlap ("pipelining") increases throughput



SDRAM – end of 90-ties – synchronous DRAM

 SDRAM chip is equipped by counter that can be used to define continuous block length (burst) which is read together



SDRAM – the most widely used main memory technology

- SDRAM clock frequency up to 100 MHz, 2.5V.
- DDR SDRAM data transfer at both CLK edges, 2.5V, I/O bus clock 100-200 MHz, 0.2-0.4 GT/s (gigatransfers per second)
- DDR2 SDRAM lower power consumption 1.8V, frequency up to 400 MHz, 0.8 GT/s
- DDR3 SDRAM even lower power consumption at 1.5V, frequency up to 800 MHz, 1.6 GT/s
- DDR4 SDRAM 1.05 1.2V, I/O bus clock 1.2 GHz, 2.4 GT/s
- DDR5 SDRAM expected 2019-2020, ~6 GT/s
- All these innovations are focused mainly on throughput, not on the random access latency which for large capacities is still 20 to 35 ns.

Other Main Memory Types

- QDRx SDRAM (Quad Data Rate) not twice as fast, allows only simultaneous read and write thanks to separated clocks for RD and WR, DDR are more effective than QDR for single access type only přístupu.
- GDDR SDRAM today up to GDDR6, designed for graphics cards/GPUs
 - based on DDR memories.
 - data rate accelerated by wider output bus
- High Bandwidth Memory (HBM) is a high-performance RAM interface for 3D-stacked SDRAM from Samsung, AMD and SK Hynix.
- Another concept RDRAM (RAMBUS DRAM), which use completely different interface. Due to patent litigationare not in use in personal computers from 2003 year.

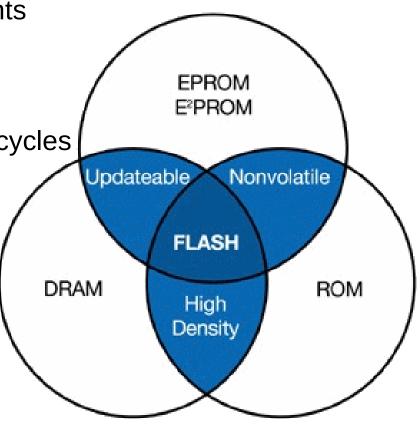
Notes for Today SDRAMs and Slides

 Use of the banked architecture that enables throughput to be increased by hiding latency of the opening and closing rows. These operations can proceed in parallel on different banks (sequential and interleaved banks mapping). The change result in a minimal pin count increase that is critical for price and density.

 Ulrich Drepper, Red Hat, Inc., What Every Programmer Should Know About Memory Other memory technologies – secondary storage

Flash

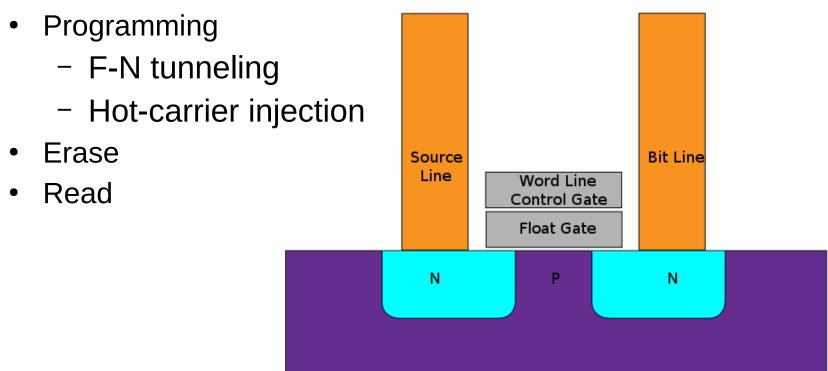
- Combines properties of E2PROM, DRAM, ROM
- Data are stored in transistor (floating gates) array (cells)
- Each block can be programmed separately
- But be aware of large erase segments
 - Nor type RAM access
 - NAND block addressing and access
- Nonvolatile computer memory
- Endures about 100 000 erase-write cycles
- Read access time (50 110 ns)
- Writes are slow, erase even slower
- Data retention is 10 or more years
- Uses:
 - memory cards
 - USB flash disk
 - memory chips
 - SSD disk



Flash memory cell

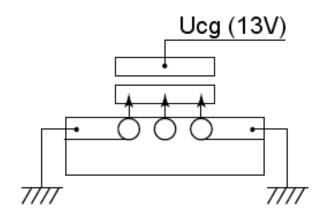
Modified MOSFET transistor with electrically isolated floating gate

Memory cell operations:



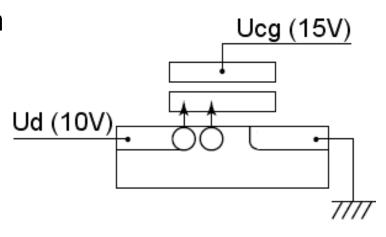
Programming – Fowler-Nordheim's tunneling

- The U_{cq}voltage is applied to the control gate
- This voltage creates an electric field that creates a potential barrier
- This barrier simplifies the way for electrons in the substrate to the floating gate
- Alternative to programing by Fowler-Nordheim's tunneling is Drain-side tunneling



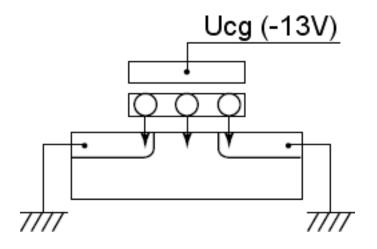
Hot-carrier injection programming

- There are two methods of Hot-carrier injection
 - a) hot-electron injection (for N type MOSFET placed on Psubstrate) – used in practice for higher speed
 - b) hot-hole injection (for P type on N-substrate)
- •Hot-electron injection :
 - 1)The U_{cg} U_{d} voltage creates an electric field in the semiconductor
 - 2)This field accelerates electrons from source electrode to drain electrode
 - 3)The do not land to the drain electrode because of they have enough kinetic energy to cross isolation layer to the floating gate with higher potential



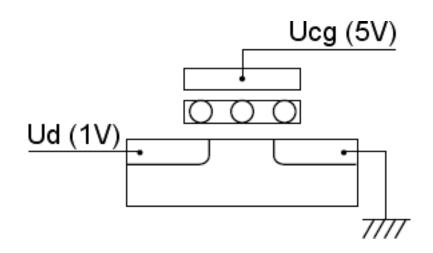
Flash cell erase

- Erase can be realized by Fowler-Nordheim's tunneling as well
- Electrons are expelled from floating point gate by opposite polarity of U_{cg} than polarity used for programming

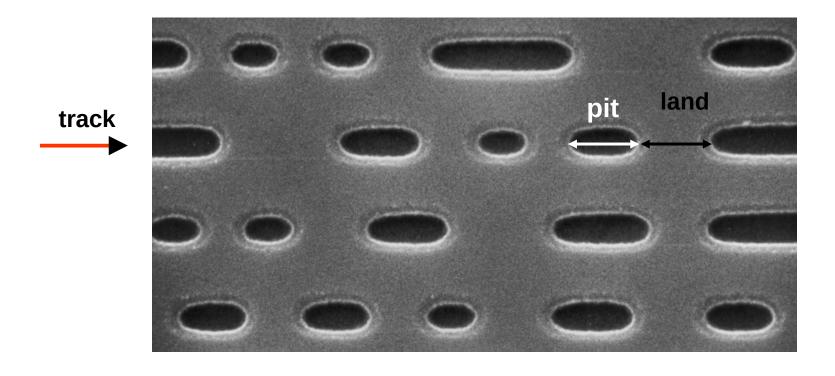


Flash cell read operation

- The current flowing through transistor depends on floating gate charge value (in combination with word selector U_{cg}).
- The current on common rail is compared to same threshold(s) and converted to digital bit(s) value



Optic storage – CD-ROM – detail



How to record "0" and "1"?

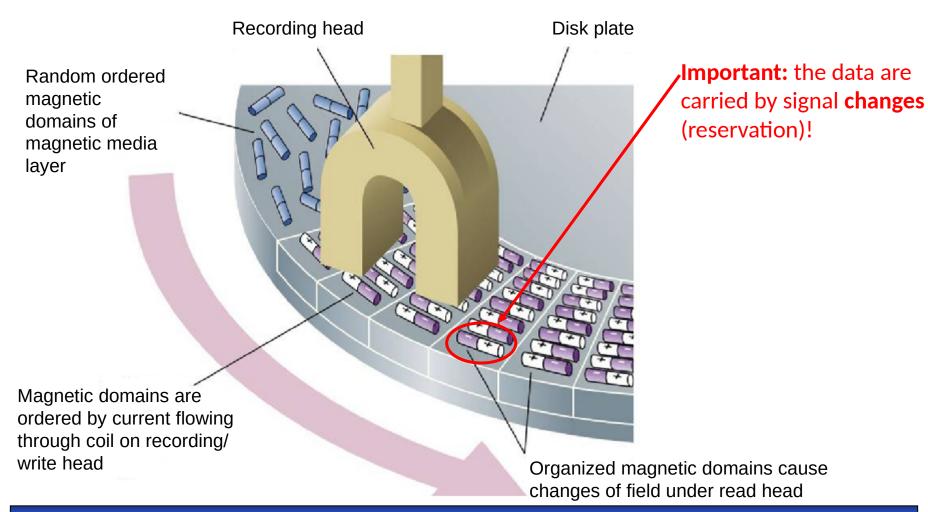
NRZ (d,k)

O10101001001000100001000

Record on media (one track)

- Ones are encoded by signal change!
- Zeros as no change. Bit stuffing etc.

Physical principle of magnetic media record



Quick Quiz

 Are associative memory and cache memory synonymous?

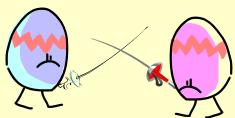
*Multi-byte Numbers

and their store in computer memory

How to Store Multi-byte Number in memory

Hexadecimal number: 0x1234567

Big Endian - downto		wnto	0x100	0x101	0x102	0x103	
			01	23	45	67	
Little Endian - to		0x100	0x101	0x102	0x103		
			67	45	23	01	



Little-Endien comes from a book by Gulliver's Travels, Jonathan Swift 1726, in which he referred to one of the two opposing factions of the Lilliput. Ones ate eggs from the narrow end to the broader while

Big Endien proceeded the other way around. And

the war did not wait long ...

Do you remember how war ended?



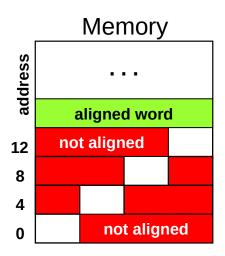
Memory Alignment (cz:zarovnání paměti?)

.align n directive

- next space allocated for data or text starts at 2ⁿ divisible address Example .align 2
- two least significant bits (LSB) are equal to 00

Memory is addressed as byte array us usually (in C more precisely as array of **char**s)

The word of 32-bit processor is formed of 4-bytes in such case



Align in Data Segment Filled by Assembler

```
.data
  .align 2 // or .align 4 on x86, use .p2align and .baling
      var1: .byte 3, 5, 'A', 'P', '0'
   .align 2 // or .align 4 on x86, use .p2align and .baling
      var2: .word 0x12345678 // or .long on x86
   .align 3 // or .align 8 on x86, use .p2align and .baling
       var3: .2byte
                        1000 // or .word on x86
       var1 ¬
                                         var2
BIG ENDIAN
                     2
                         3
                             4
                                  5
                                          7
                                              8
                                                   9
                                                           В
                                                               C
                                                                    D
                                                                        E
                                                                            F
            0
                1
                                      6
                                                       Α
   0x2000
            3
                5
                    41
                        50
                            4F
                                              12
                                                  34
                                                      56
                                                          78
   0x2010
           10
               00
       var3 🗐
       var1
                                         var2
LITTLE ENDIAN
            0
                1
                     2
                         3
                             4
                                  5
                                      6
                                          7
                                              8
                                                   9
                                                           В
                                                               C
                                                                        E
                                                                            F
                                                       Α
                                                                    D
   0x2000
                        50
                            4F
                                              78
                                                  56
                                                      34
                                                          12
                    41
           00
                10
   0x2010
```

var3 $^{-1}$

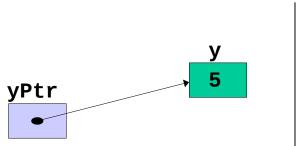
C Language: Pointer

& (address operator)

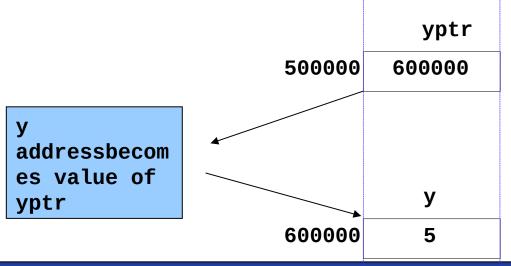
Returns the lowest address in memory address space where space/cells allocated to store variable starts.

Example

```
int y = 5;
int *yPtr;
yPtr = &y;
yPtr "points to" y
```



// yPtr is signed to y address



C Language: Pointer Operations

- & (address operator) returns address of operand
- * dereference address returns value stored on address interpreted according to pointer type
- * and & are inverse (but are not applicable in each case)

```
*&myVar == myVar
and
&*yPtr == yPtr
```

Opakování C: Size of Element Pointed by C Pointer

```
int * ptri;
                                                 ptri
char * ptrc;
double * ptrd;
                                                ptri+1
     *ptrx \equiv ptrx[0]
                                                 ptrc
     *(ptrx+1) \equiv ptrx[1]
                                                ptrc+1
     *(ptrx+n) \equiv ptrx[n]
                                                 ptrd
     *(ptrx-n) \equiv ptrx[-n]
 nr1 = sizeof (double);
 nr2 = sizeof (double*);
```

nr1 != nr2

C Language: Pointer with const Qualifier

```
int x, y;
int * lpio = &y;
 *lpio = 1; x=*lpio; lpio++;
const int * lpCio = &y;
 *InCio I: x=*IpCio; IpCio++;
int * const lpioC = &y;
 *lpioC = 1; x=*lpioC; /pioC+
const int * const lpCioC = &y;
 *IpCioC=1; x=*IpCioC; tpCioC++;
```

Lecture motivation

Quick Quiz 1.: Is the result of both code fragments a same?

Quick Quiz 2.: Which of the code fragments is processed faster and why?

```
A: int matrix[M][N]; int matrix[M][N]; int i, j, sum = 0; int i, j, sum = 0; ... for(i=0; i<M; i++) for(j=0; j<N; j++) for(i=0; i<M; i++) sum += matrix[i][j]; sum += matrix[i][j];
```

Is there a rule how to iterate over matrix element efficiently?