

Main Memory Organisation

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Main Memory Organisation – Learning Objectives

- At the end of this lecture you will:
 - Understand the main concepts of memory organisation
 - Know the different memory hardware options
 - Registers, cache, RAM, Disk
 - Understand the relationship between cost and speed of access
 - Understand byte ordering in words
 - Understand the concept of addressing
 - Understand word and byte addressing
 - Understand how RAM memory is organised into chips and modules
 - Comprehend high order and low order interleaving and their uses

Question

- Do you have a laptop or internet device here?
A yes **B** no **C** what's a laptop **D** where is here?
E none of the above

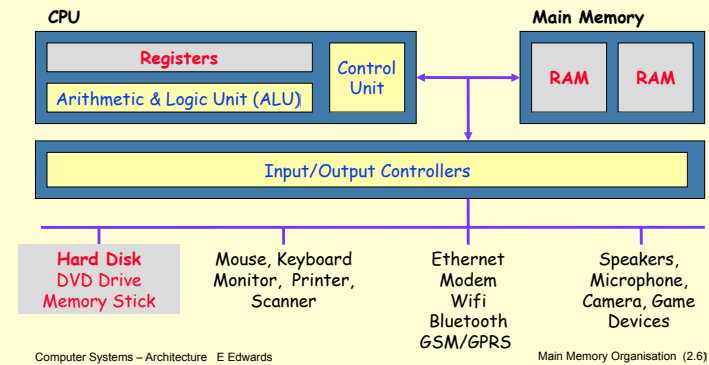
Memories

- Memories hold binary values. These can be:
 - Data** (e.g. Integers, Reals, Characters)
 - CPU Instructions** (i.e. Computer Programs)
 - Memory Addresses** ("Pointers" to data or instructions)
- The **contents** of a memory remain unchanged unless overwritten with a new binary value. For some memories the contents are "lost" when power to the memory is turned off.

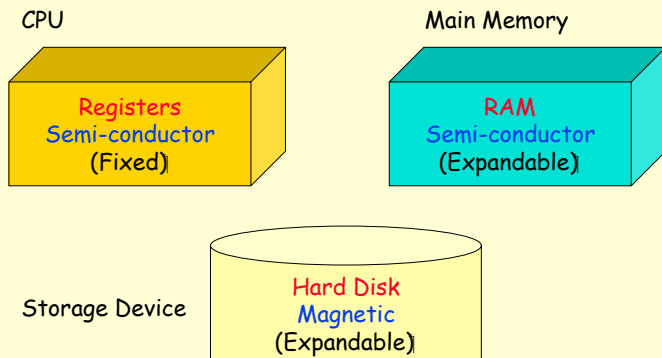
Examples

- > **CPU**
Registers
Caches – L1, L2 [L3]
- > **Motherboard**
RAM (Random Access Memory)
ROM (Read Only Memory)
Caches
I/O Registers & Buffers
Videocard Memory
- > **Storage Devices**
Hard Disks, CDs, DVDs, Tapes,
Memory Sticks, Flashcards

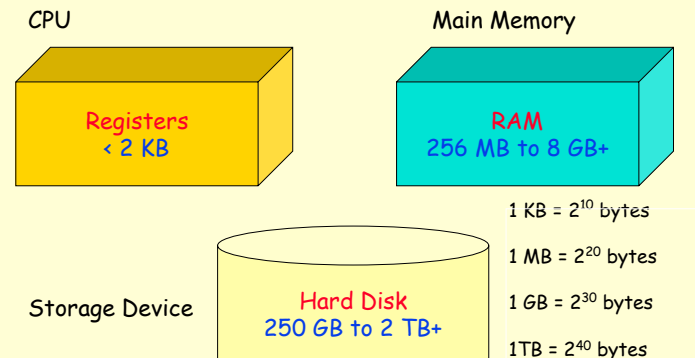
CPU Organisation



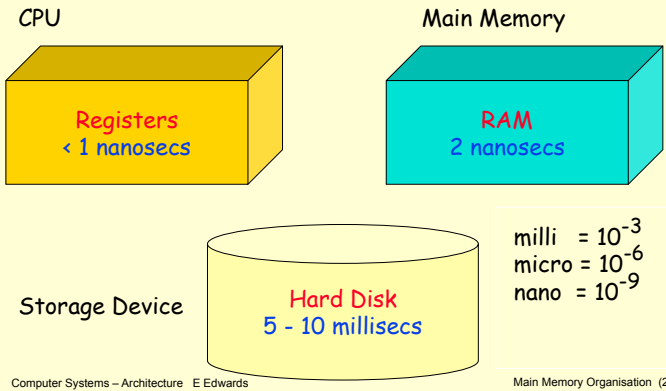
3 Types of Memory



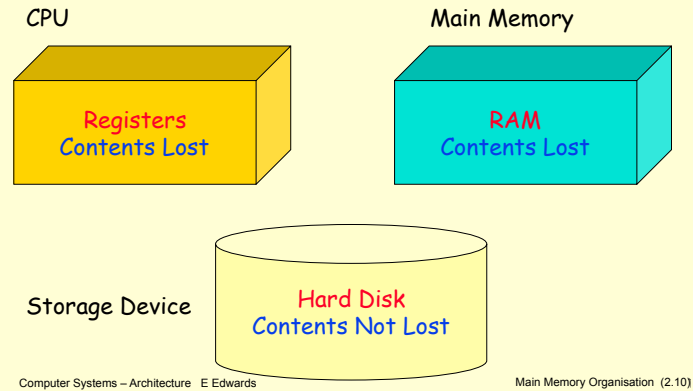
Capacity



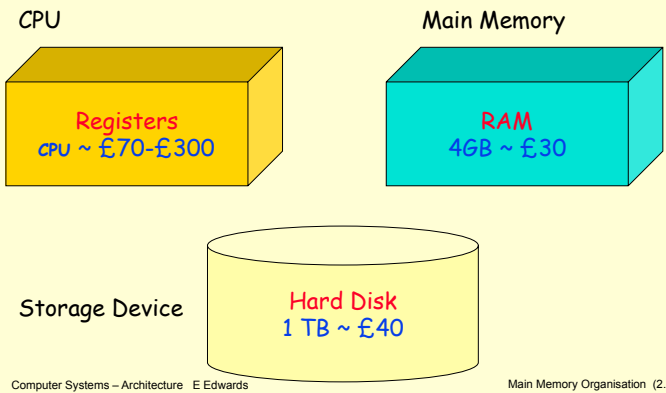
Speed (Access Time)



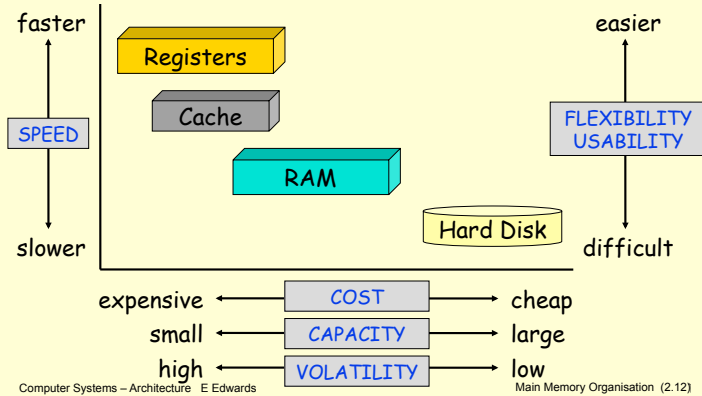
Volatility



Cost



Summary



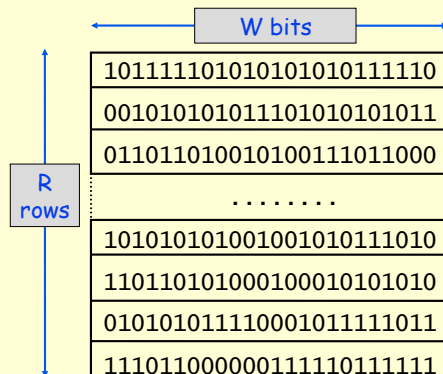
How many registers are there in a X86-64 processor?

A 2 B 4 C 16 D 64 E 256

How much memory is given to registers in a X86-64 processor?

A 16B B 128B C 256B D 32B E 1024B

Main Memory (RAM)



> **Memory Location**
(Memory Word)
= W bits. Normally a
byte-multiple, e.g. 16-
bits, 32-bits.

> **Memory Size**
R x W bits

> **Access:** *** In our
model we will always
Read/Write a whole
Memory Word at a
time ***

Addressing

Main Memory

0110	1101	1010	1101
0000	0000	0000	0011
0000	0000	0000	0000
1111	1111	1111	1111
0000	0000	0000	0000
1001	1010	1010	0010
0000	0000	0000	0000
1111	1111	1111	1110

> Where in memory is the
16-bit two's Complement value
3?

> We need a scheme for uniquely
identifying every memory
location

> **ADDRESSING**
Identify memory locations with a
positive number called the
(memory) **address**

Memory Word Addressing

Main Memory	Address	Address (binary)	
0110 1101 1010 1101	← 0	0000	
0000 0000 0000 0100	← 1	0001	Memory[1] = ?
0000 0000 0000 0000	← 2	0010	Memory[?] = -1
1111 1111 1111 1111	← 3	0011	Memory[?] = 0
0000 0000 0000 0000	← 4	0100	
1001 1010 1010 0010	← 5	0101	Mem[Mem[1]]= ?
0000 0000 0000 0000	← 6	0110	
1111 1111 1111 1110	← 7	0111	

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Byte Addressing

Main Memory	Word Address	
0110 1101 1010 1101	← 0	> With byte addressing, every byte in main memory has an address
0000 0000 0000 0011	← 2	
0000 0000 0000 0000	← 4	
1111 1111 1111 1111	← 6	> In this example which is byte 0 and which is byte 1?
0000 0000 0000 0000	← 8	
1001 1010 1010 0010	← 10	
0000 0000 0000 0000	← 12	
1111 1111 1111 1110	← 14	

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Main Memory Organisation (2.18)

Byte Ordering (Big Endian)

Byte Address	Main Memory	Byte Address
0 →	0110 1101 1010 1101	← 1
2 →	0000 0000 0000 0011	← 3
4 →	0000 0000 0000 0000	← 5
6 →	1111 1111 1111 1111	← 7
8 →	0000 0000 0000 0000	← 9
10 →	1001 1010 1010 0010	← 11
12 →	0000 0000 0000 0000	← 13
14 →	1111 1111 1111 1110	← 15

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Main Memory Organisation (2.19)

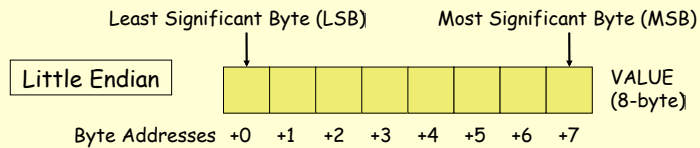
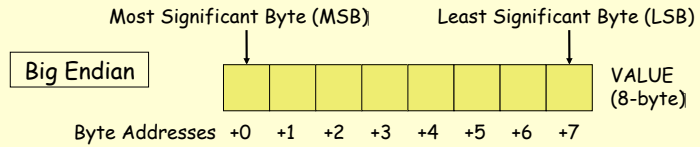
Byte Ordering (Little Endian)

Byte Address	Main Memory	Byte Address
1 →	0110 1101 1010 1101	← 0
3 →	0000 0000 0000 0011	← 2
5 →	0000 0000 0000 0000	← 4
7 →	1111 1111 1111 1111	← 6
9 →	0000 0000 0000 0000	← 8
11 →	1001 1010 1010 0010	← 10
13 →	0000 0000 0000 0000	← 12
15 →	1111 1111 1111 1110	← 14

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Main Memory Organisation (2.20)

Byte Ordering of **Multibyte** Data Items

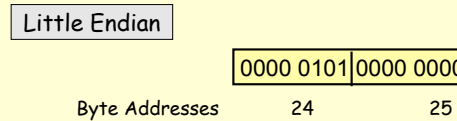
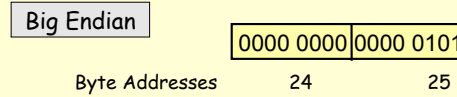


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Main Memory Organisation (2.21)

Example 1: 16-bit integer (View 1)

- > 16-bit (2's Complement) integer 5 stored at memory address 24.

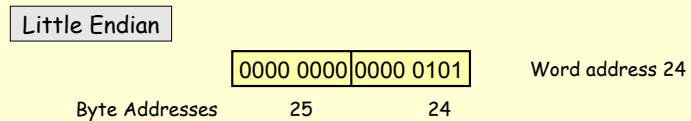
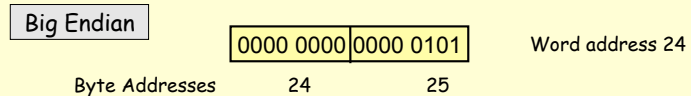


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Main Memory Organisation (2.22)

Example 1: 16-bit integer (View 2)

- > 16-bit (2's Complement) integer 5 stored at memory address 24.

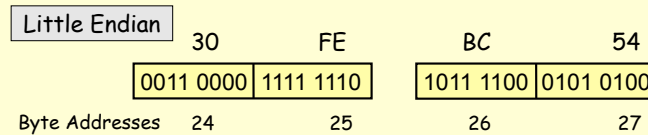
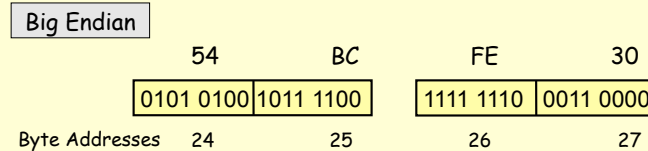


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Main Memory Organisation (2.23)

Example 2: 32-bit value (View 1)

- > 32-bit hex value **54 BC FE 30** stored at memory address 24.



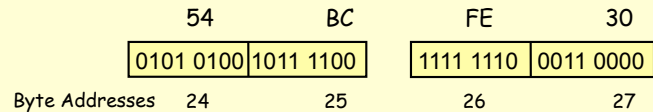
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Main Memory Organisation (2.24)

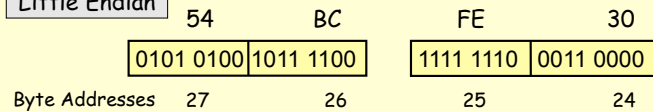
Example 2: 32-bit value (View 2)

- > 32-bit hex value **54 BC FE 30** stored at memory address 24.

Big Endian



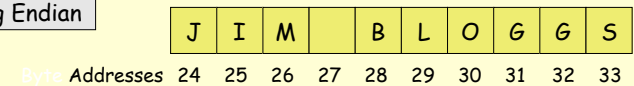
Little Endian



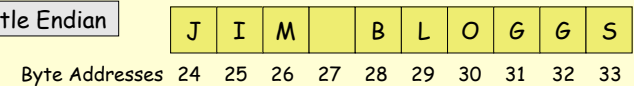
Example 3: ASCII string (View 1)

- > String **"JIM BLOGGS"** stored at memory address 24
- > Treat a string as an array of (ASCII) bytes. Each byte is considered individually.

Big Endian



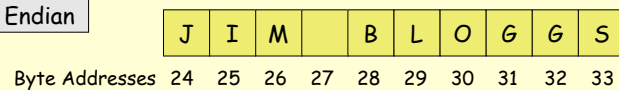
Little Endian



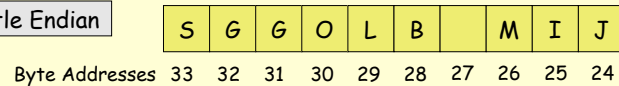
Example 3: ASCII string (View 2)

- > String **"JIM BLOGGS"** stored at memory address 24
- > Treat a string as an array of (ASCII) bytes. Each byte is considered individually.

Big Endian



Little Endian



A Problem

- > How do we **transfer a multi-byte value** (e.g. a 32-bit two's complement integer) from a Big-Endian memory to a Little-Endian memory?
- > How do we transfer an ASCII **string** value (e.g. "JIM BLOGGS") from a Big-Endian memory to a Little-Endian memory?
- > How do we transfer an **object** which holds both types of values above?

What is the maximum amount of memory we can have in a 32bit machine with byte addressing?

- A** 4GB **B** 800MB **C** 16GB **D** 16MB **E** 1GB

(Un) Aligned Memory Accesses (1)

Main Memory (Big Endian)

0	0110 1101	1010 1101
2	1010 1001	1010 0001
4	0000 0000	0000 0000
6	1111 1111	1111 0000
8	0010 0001	0000 0000
10	1001 1010	1010 0010
12	0000 0000	0000 0000
14	1111 1111	1111 1110

➤ The 16-bit hex value (A9A1) at address 2 is memory word **aligned**.

➤ The 16-bit hex value (F021) at address 7 is **unaligned**.

➤ Some architectures prohibit unaligned accesses. Why?

(Un) Aligned Memory Accesses (2)

Main Memory (Big Endian)

0	0110 1101	1010 1101
2	1010 1001	1010 0001
4	0000 0000	0000 0000
6	1111 1111	1111 0000
8	0010 0001	0000 0000
10	1001 1010	1010 0010
12	0000 0000	0000 0000
14	1111 1111	1111 1110

➤ How many memory accesses are required to read a 64-bit value from memory address 3?

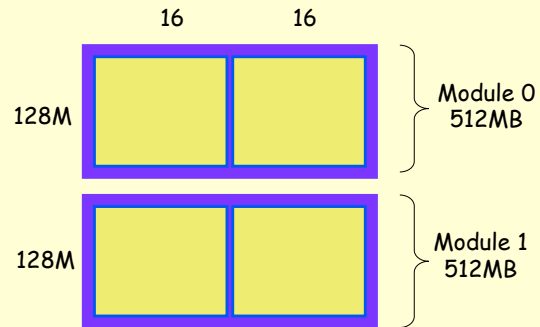
➤ How many memory accesses are required to write a 64-bit value to memory address 3?

Memory Modules and Chips



1GB (256Mx32bit) Memory

- > Two 512MB memory modules. Each module has two 128M x 16-bit RAM Chips

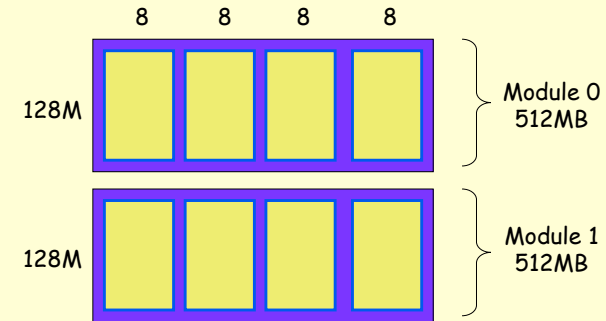


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Main Memory Organisation (2.33)

1GB (256Mx32bit) Memory

- > Two 512MB memory modules. Each module has four 128M x 8-bit RAM Chips

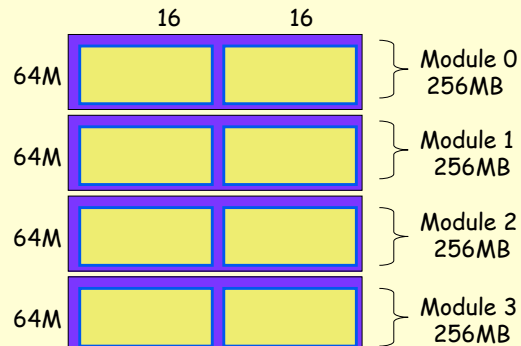


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Main Memory Organisation (2.34)

1GB (256Mx32bit) Memory

- > Four 256MB memory modules. Each module has two 64M x 16-bit RAM Chips

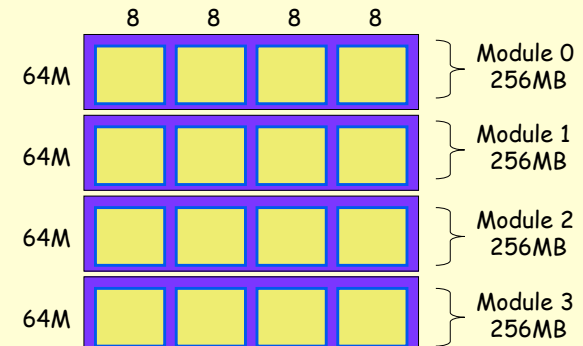


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Main Memory Organisation (2.35)

1GB (256Mx32bit) Memory

- > Four 256MB memory modules. Each module has four 64M x 8-bit RAM Chips

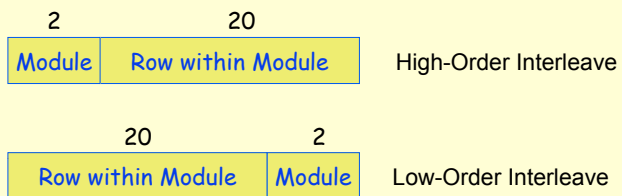


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Main Memory Organisation (2.36)

Memory Interleaving

- **Example.** Memory=4M words. Word Addressed. Each word = 32-bits. Built with 4 x 1Mx32-bit memory modules.
- For 4M words we need 22 bits for an address.
- 22 bits = 2 bits (to select Modules) + 20 bits (to select row within Module)



High-Order Interleave

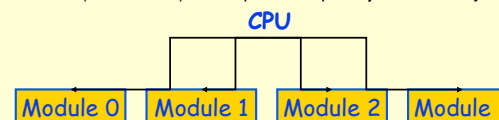
Address Decimal	Address Binary						Module	Row
0	00	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	Module=0	Row=0
1	00	0000	0000	0000	0000	0001	Module=0	Row=1
2	00	0000	0000	0000	0000	0010	Module=0	Row=2
3	00	0000	0000	0000	0000	0011	Module=0	Row=3
4	00	0000	0000	0000	0000	0100	Module=0	Row=4
5	00	0000	0000	0000	0000	0101	Module=0	Row=5
...								
$2^{20}-1$	00	1111	1111	1111	1111	1111	Module=0	Row= $2^{20}-1$
2^{20}	01	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	Module=1	Row=0
$2^{20}+1$	01	0000	0000	0000	0000	0001	Module=1	Row=1

Low-Order Interleave

Address Decimal	Address Binary						Module	Row
0	00	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	Module=0	Row=0
1	00	0000	0000	0000	0000	0001	Module=1	Row=0
2	00	0000	0000	0000	0000	0010	Module=2	Row=0
3	00	0000	0000	0000	0000	0011	Module=3	Row=0
4	00	0000	0000	0000	0000	0100	Module=0	Row=1
5	00	0000	0000	0000	0000	0101	Module=1	Row=1
...								
$2^{20}-1$	00	1111	1111	1111	1111	1111	Module=3	Row= $2^{18}-1$
2^{20}	01	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	Module=0	Row= 2^{18}
$2^{20}+1$	01	0000	0000	0000	0000	0001	Module=1	Row= $2^{18}+1$

Low-Order Interleave

- Good if the CPU (or other unit) can request multiple adjacent memory locations.



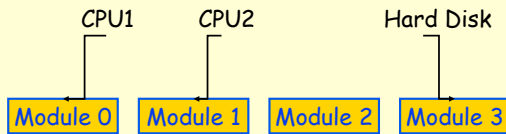
- Since adjacent memory locations lie in different Modules an "advanced" memory system can perform the accesses in parallel. Such adjacent accesses often occur in practice, e.g.

- Elements in an array, e.g. $\text{Array}[N]$, $\text{Array}[N+1]$, $\text{Array}[N+2]$, ...
- Instructions in a Program, $\text{Instruction}[N]$, $\text{Instruction}[N+1]$, ...

- In the above situations, an "advanced" CPU can pre-fetch the adjacent memory locations => higher performance.

High-Order Interleave

- Good if Modules can be accessed independently by different units, e.g. by the CPU and a Hard Disk (or a second CPU) **AND the units use different Modules**
- => Parallel operation => Higher Performance



Think About

- Characteristics of registers, RAM and hard disks.
- Main Memory Addressing: word addressing & byte addressing.
- Byte Ordering: big-endian and little-endian
- (Un) Aligned accesses & interleaved memory
- NEXT Topic

Number Representation

This lecture - feedback

- The pace of the lecture was:
A. much too fast B. too fast C. about right D. too slow E. much too slow
- The learning objectives were met:
A. Fully B. Mostly C. Partially D. Slightly E. Not at all