

# LECTURE 16

## Digital Logic Families

- Sequential circuits all depend upon the presence of memory.
  - A flip-flop can store one bit of information.
  - A register can store a single “word,” typically 32 or 64 bits.
- Memory allows us to store even larger amounts of data.

### Sequential Memories

#### Shift Registers

#### Charge Coupled Devices (CCD)

## Memory

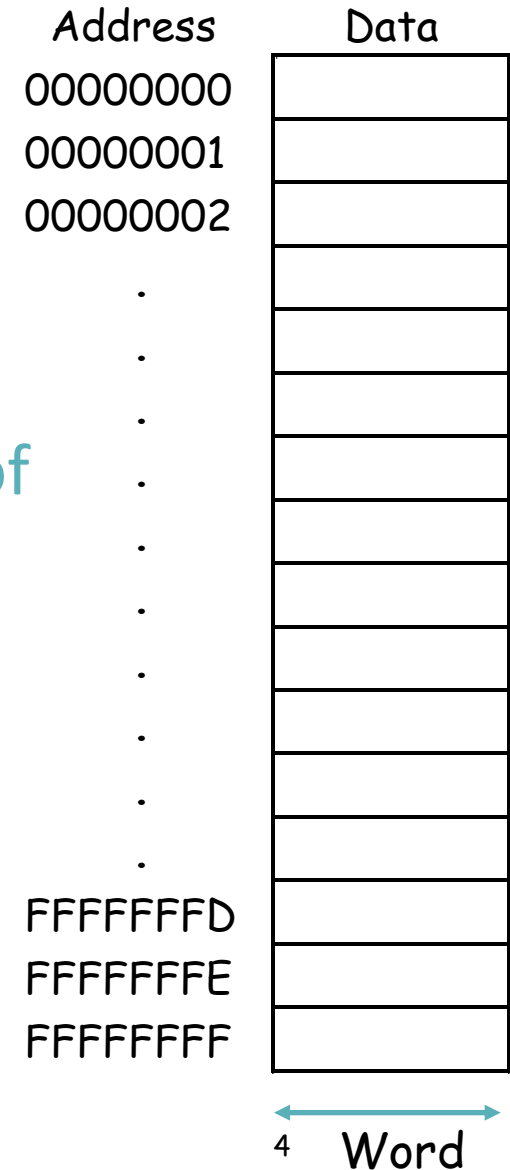
- Read Only Memory (ROM)
  - ROM
  - PROM
  - EPROM
  - EAROM
- Random Access Memory (RAM)
  - Static RAM (SRAM)
  - Dynamic RAM (DRAM)

# Advantages

- Small Size
  - High speed
  - Better Reliability
  - Low Cost
  - Ease of Expansion of memory
- 
- One flip flop is one bit memory cell.

## Picture of Memory

- You can think of 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.



## Memory Signal Types

- Memory signals fall into three groups
  - **Address bus** - selects one of memory locations
  - **Data bus**
    - n number of data input lines
    - **Read**: the selected location's stored data is put on the data bus
    - **Write (RAM)**: The data on the data bus is stored into the selected location
  - **Control signals** - specifies what the memory is to do
    - Control signals are usually active low
    - Includes read/write line and chip select line
    - Most common signals are:
      - CS: Chip Select; must be active to do anything
      - OE: Output Enable; active to read data
      - WR: Write; active to write data

- Location - the smallest selectable unit in memory
  - Has 1 or more data bits per location.
  - All bits in location are read/written together
  - Cannot manipulate single bits in a location
- For **k address signals**, there are  $2^k$  locations in memory device
- Each location contains an **n bit word**
- Memory size is specified as
  - #loc x bits per location
    - $2^{24} \times 16$  RAM -  $2^{24} = 16$ M words, each 16 bits long
    - 24 address lines, 16 data lines
  - #bits
    - The total **storage capacity** is  $2^{24} \times 16 = 2^{28}$  bits

## Memory Address, Location and Size

- Memory sizes are usually specified in numbers of **bytes** (1 byte= 8 bits).
- The  $2^{28}$ -bit memory on the previous page translates into:

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

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

Size matters!

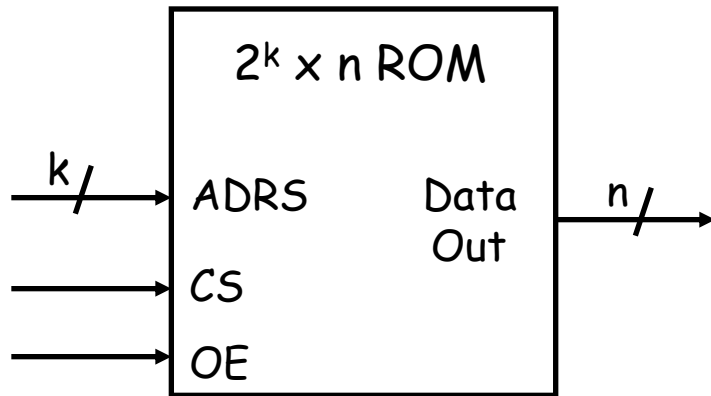
	Prefix	Base 2	Base 10
K	Kilo	$2^{10} = 1,024$	$10^3 = 1,000$
M	Mega	$2^{20} = 1,048,576$	$10^6 = 1,000,000$
G	Giga	$2^{30} = 1,073,741,824$	$10^9 = 1,000,000,000$

- Parameters for classification of memory devices:

1. Principle of operation
2. Physical characteristics
3. Mode of access
4. Technology used for fabrication

## Memory





- Non-volatile
  - If un-powered, its content retains
- Read-only
  - normal operation cannot change contents

## Read-only memory (ROM)

- **k-bit ADRS** specifies the address or location to read from
- A Chip Select, **CS**, enables or disables the RAM
- An Output Enable, **OE**, turns on or off tri-state output buffers
- **Data Out** will be the n-bit value stored at ADRS

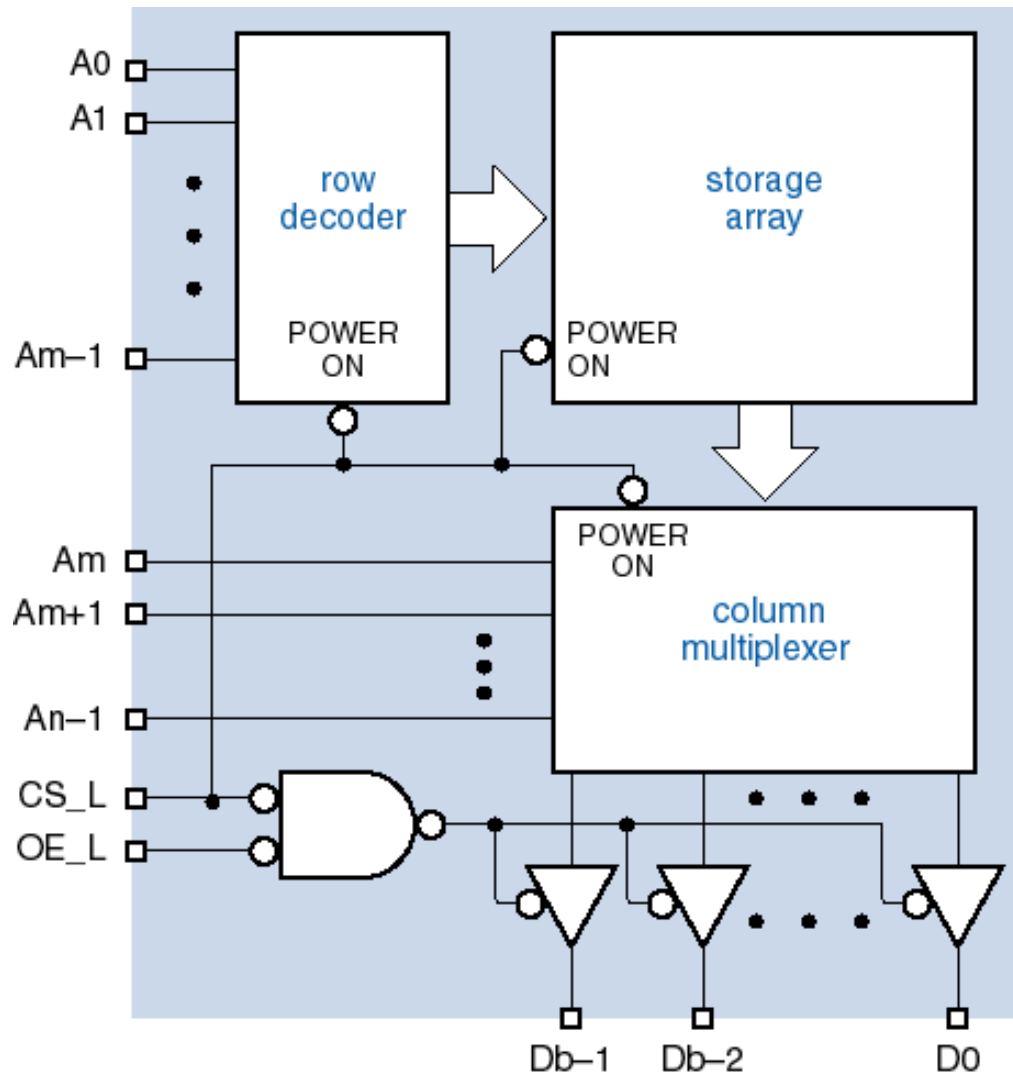
# ROM Programming

- Content loading (programming) done many ways depending on device type
  - Programmed ROM (PROM): contents loaded at the factory
    - hardwired - can't be changed
    - embedded mass-produced systems
  - OTP (One Time Programmable): Programmed by user
  - UVPROM: reusable, erased by UV light
  - EEPROM: Electrically erasable; clears entire blocks with single operation

## ROM Usage

- ROMs are useful for holding data that never changes.
  - Arithmetic circuits might use tables to speed up computations of logarithms or divisions.
  - Many computers use a ROM to store important programs that should not be modified, such as the system BIOS.
  - Application programs of embedded systems, PDAs, game machines, cell phones, vending machines, etc., are stored in ROMs.

# ROM Structure



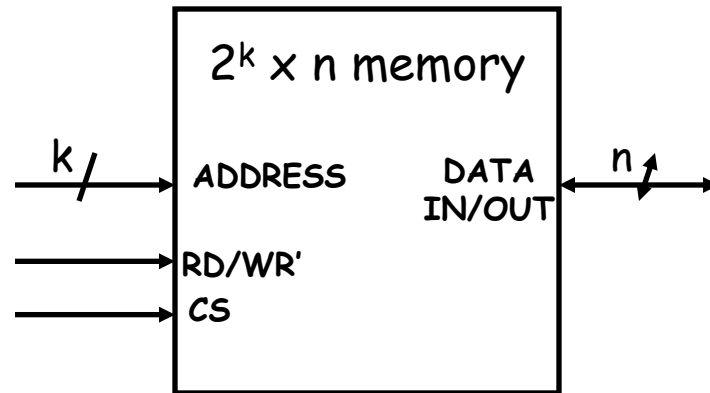
## Memories and functions

- ROMs are actually combinational devices, not sequential ones!
  - You can store arbitrary data into a ROM, so the same address will always contain the same data.
  - You can think of a ROM as a combinational circuit that takes an address as input, and produces some data as the output.
- A **ROM table** is basically just a truth table.
  - The table shows what data is stored at each ROM address.
  - You can generate that data combinatorially, using the address as the input.

Address $A_2A_1A_0$	Data $V_2V_1V_0$
000	000
001	100
010	110
011	100
100	101
101	000
110	011
111	011

## Introduction to RAM

- **Random-access memory, or RAM**, provides large quantities of temporary storage in a computer system.
  - Memory cells can be accessed to transfer information to or from any desired location, with the access taking the same time regardless of the location
- **Volatility**
  - Most RAMs lose their memory when power is removed
  - NVRAM = RAM + battery
  - Or use EEPROM
- **SRAM (Static RAM)**
  - Memory behaves like latches or flip-flops
- **DRAM (Dynamic Memory)**
  - Memory lasts only for a few milliseconds
  - Must “refresh” locations by reading or writing

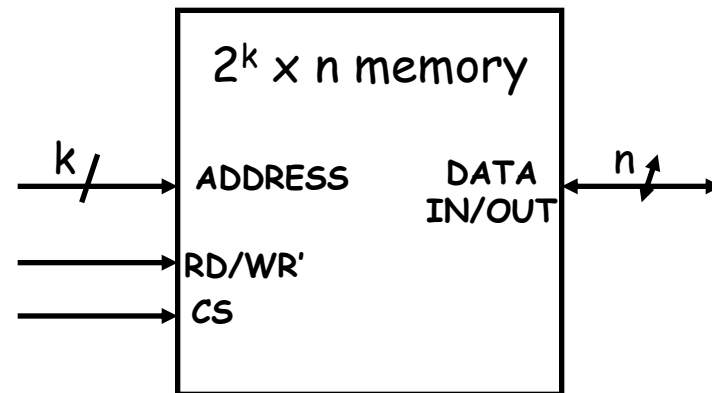


## Block diagram of RAM

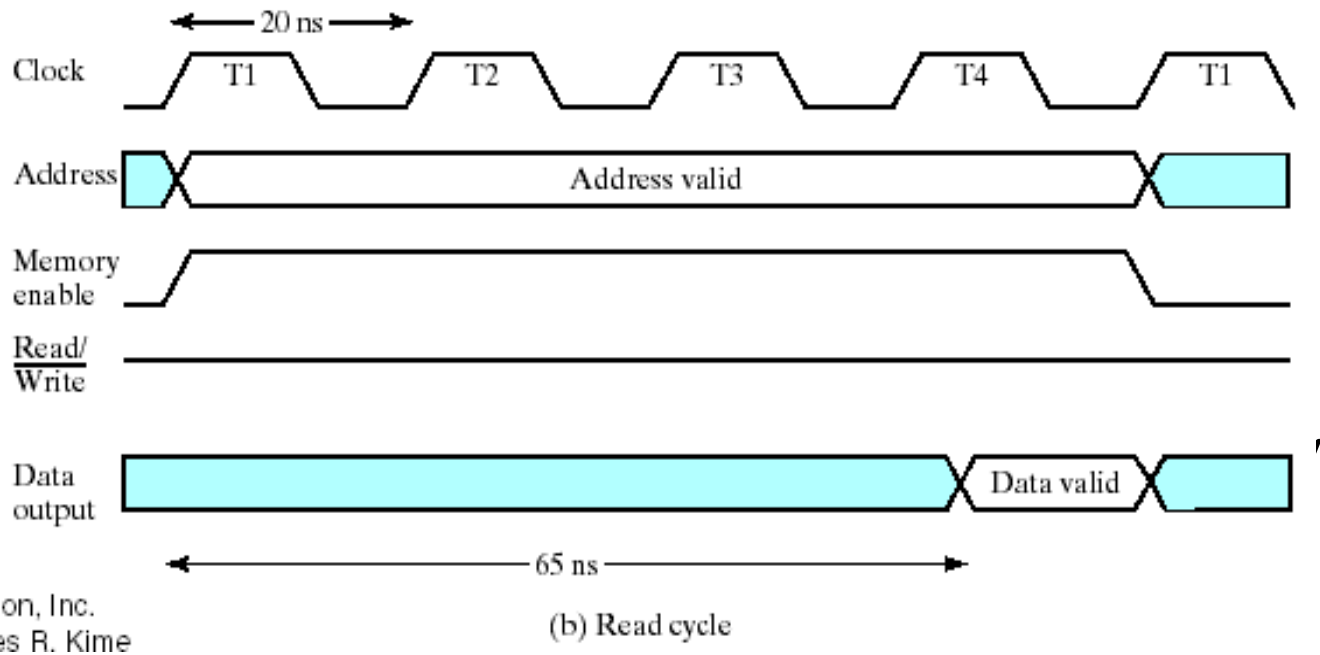
- This block diagram introduces the main interface to RAM.
  - A Chip Select, **CS**, enables or disables the RAM.
  - **ADRS** specifies the address or location to read from or write to.
  - **RD/WR'** selects between reading from or writing to the memory.
    - ▶ To read from memory, **RD/WR'** should be set to 1.  
**DATA IN/OUT** will be the n-bit value stored at ADRS.
    - ▶ To write to memory, we set **RD/WR'** to 0.  
**DATA IN/OUT** is the n-bit value to save in memory.

- To *read* from this RAM, the controlling circuit must:
  - Enable the chip by ensuring  $CS = 1$ .
  - Select the read operation, by setting  $RD/WR' = 1$ .
  - Send the desired address to the ADDRESS input.
  - The contents of that address appear on DATA IN/OUT after a little while.

## Reading RAM

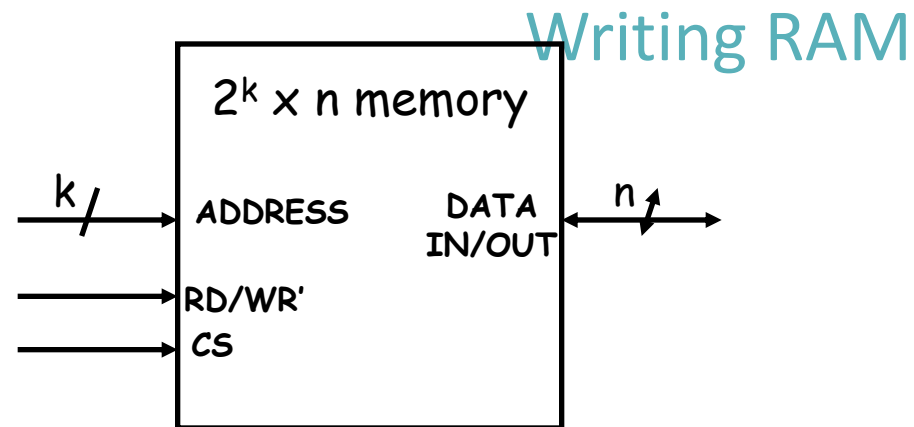


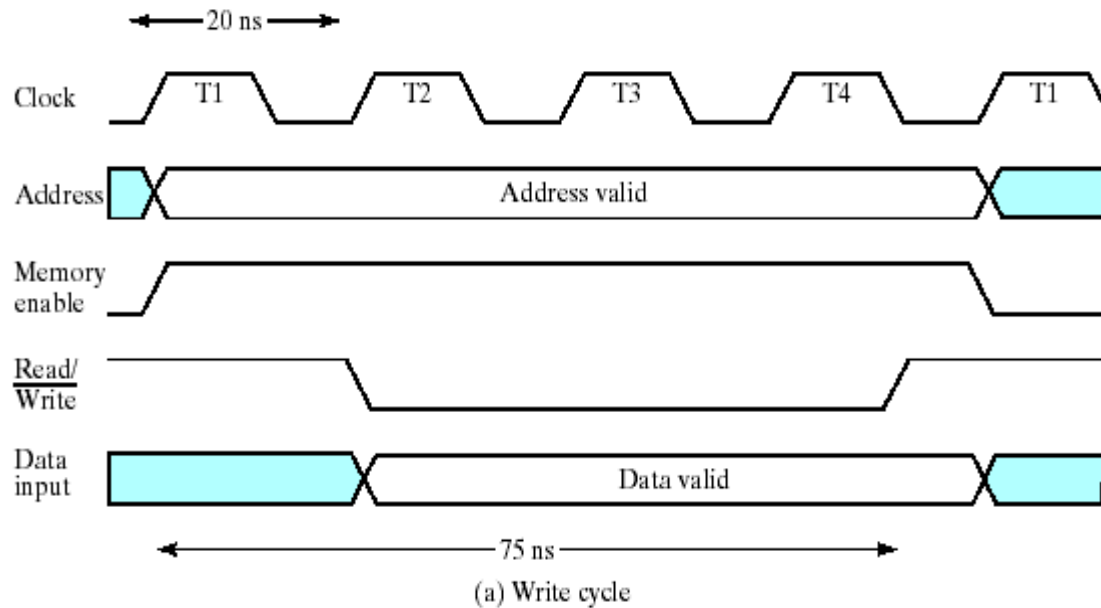




- 50 MHz CPU - 20 ns clock cycle time
- **Memory access time** = 65 ns
  - Maximum time from the application of the address to the appearance of the data at the Data Output

- To *write* to this RAM, you need to:
  - Enable the chip by setting  $CS = 1$ .
  - Select the write operation, by setting  $RD/WR' = 0$ .
  - Send the desired address to the ADDRESS input.
  - Send the word to store to the DATA IN/OUT.

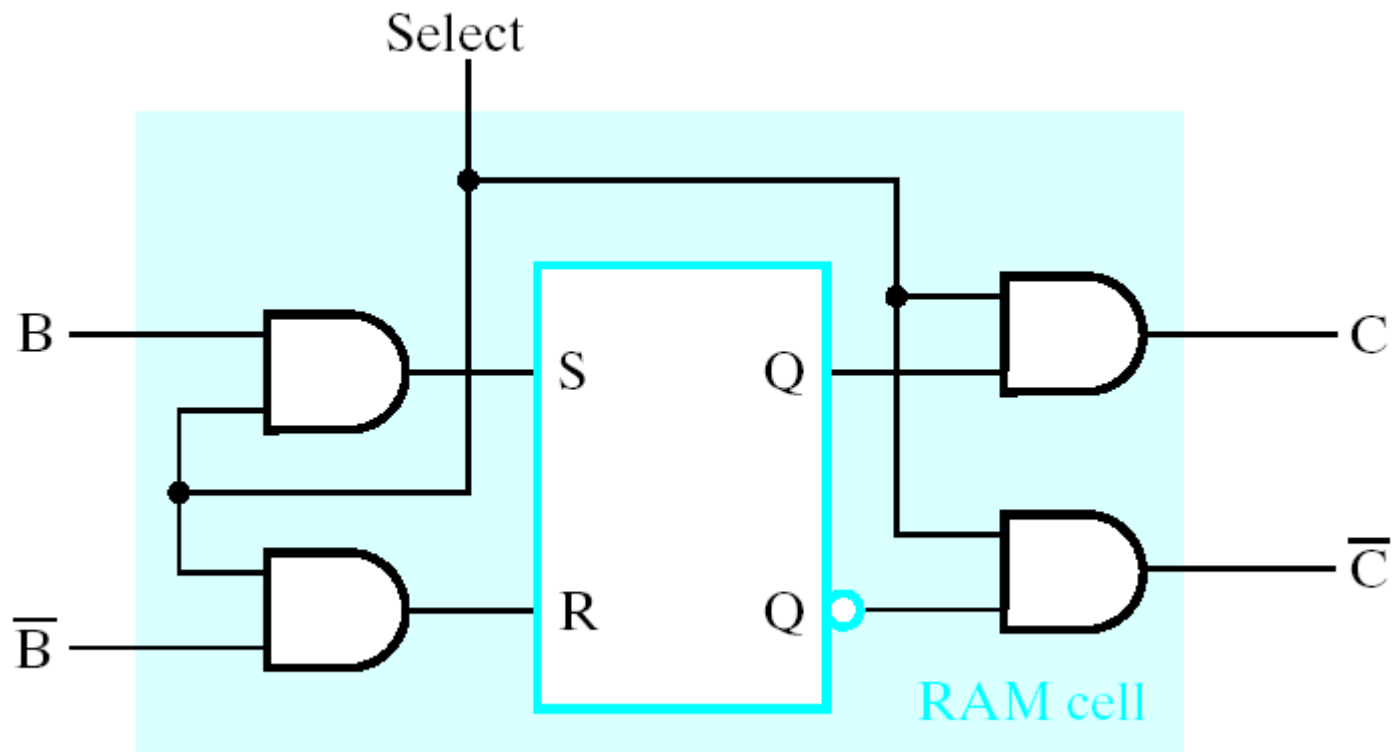


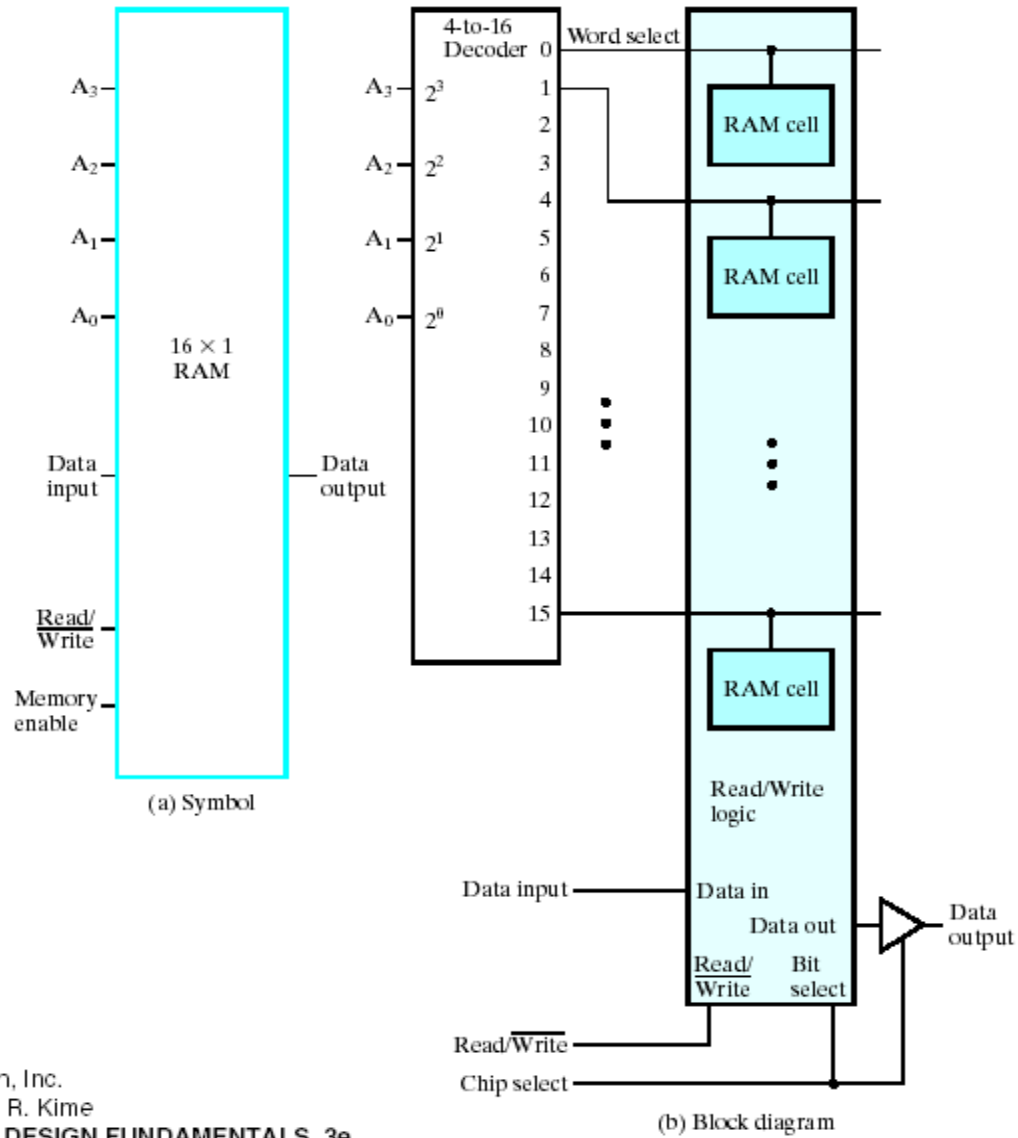


- 50 MHz CPU - 20 ns clock cycle time
- **Write cycle time** = 75 ns
  - Maximum time from the application of the address to the completion of all internal memory operations to store a word

- How can you implement the memory chip?
- 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 mention a little about **dynamic memory**, which forms the bulk of a computer's main memory.
- Static memory is modeled 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.

Static memory

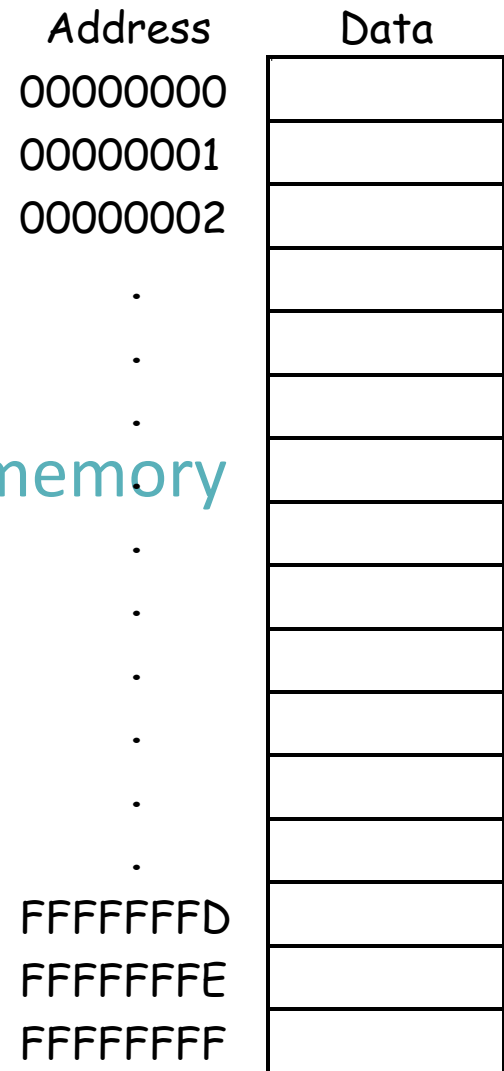




bit

- Some typical memory capacities:
  - PCs usually come with 128-256MB RAM.
  - 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 makes the memory seem larger than it really is.
  - Most systems allow up to 32-bit addresses. This works out to  $2^{32}$ , or about four billion, different possible addresses.
  - With a data size of one byte, the result is apparently a 4GB memory!
  - The operating system uses hard disk space as a substitute for “real” memory.

Typical memory sizes



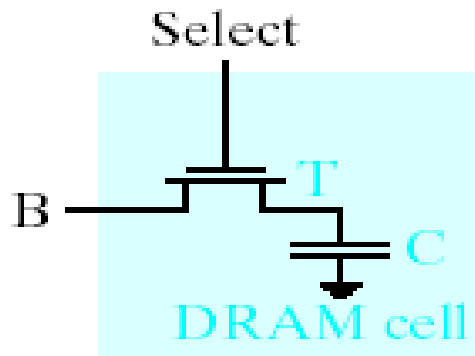
## RAM Summary

- A RAM looks like a bunch of registers connected together, allowing users to select a particular address to read or write.
- Much of the hardware in memory chips supports this selection process:
  - Chip select inputs
  - Decoders
  - Tri-state buffers
- By providing a general interface, it's easy to connect RAMs together to make "longer" and "wider" memories.
- Next, we'll look at some other types of memories

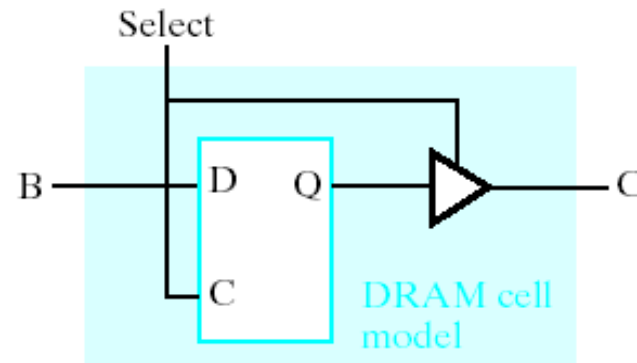


## Dynamic memory

- **Dynamic memory** is built with capacitors.
  - A stored charge on the capacitor represents a logical 1.
  - No charge represents a logic 0.
- However, 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 of data can be stored with just one capacitor and one transistor, while static RAM cells typically require 4-6 transistors.
  - This means dynamic RAM is cheaper and denser—more bits can be stored in the same physical area.

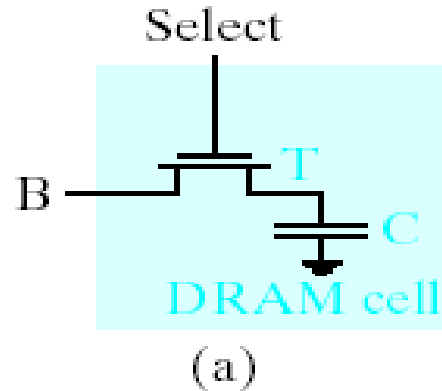


(a)



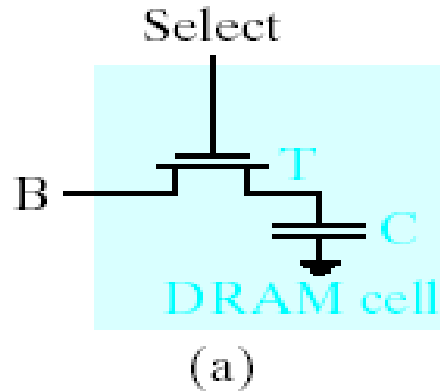
(h)

- DRAM cell: One transistor and one capacitor
  - 1/0 = capacitor charged/discharged
- SRAM cell: Six transistors - Costs 3 times more (cell complexity)
- Cost per bit is less for DRAM - reason for why large memories are DRAMs



## DRAM Cell Read

- Precharge bit line to  $V_{DD}/2$ .
- Take the select line HIGH.
- Detect whether current flows into or out of the cell
- Cell contents are destroyed by the read!
  - Must write the bit value back after reading.



## DRAM Cell Write

- Take the select line HIGH.
- Set the bit line LOW or HIGH to store 0 or 1.
- Take the select line LOW.
  - The stored charge for a 1 will eventually leak off.
  - Typical devices require each cell to be refreshed once every 4 to 64 msec.

- 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 256MB of memory for as little as \$60.
  - You can also load a system with 1.5GB or more of memory.
- The disadvantage of dynamic RAM is its speed.
  - Transfer rates are 800MHz at best, which can be much slower than the processor itself.
  - You also have to consider **latency**, or the time it takes data to travel from RAM 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 128KB to 320KB.
  - That's small compared to a 128MB main memory, but it's enough to significantly increase a computer's overall speed.

## Dynamic vs. static memory

## ROMs vs. RAMs

- There are some important differences between ROM and RAM.
  - ROMs are “non-volatile” —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, so they’re considered to be “read-only” devices.
- Some newer types of ROMs do allow for easier writing, although the speeds still don’t compare with regular RAMs.
  - MP3 players, digital cameras and other toys use CompactFlash, Secure Digital, or MemoryStick cards for non-volatile storage.
  - Many



upgrade p



ROM.”

