An introduction to SDRAM and memory controllers

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Where innovation starts

Presentation Outline

Introduction to SDRAM

Basic SDRAM operation Memory efficiency SDRAM controller architecture Conclusions



Static RAM (SRAM)

SRAM is on-chip memory

- Found in higher levels of the memory hierarchy
 - Commonly used for caches and scratchpads
- Either local to processor or centralized
 - Local memory has very short access time
 - Centralized shared memories have intermediate access time
- An SRAM cell consists of six transistors
 - Limits memory to a few megabytes, or even smaller





Dynamic RAM (DRAM)

DRAM was patented in 1968 by Robert Dennard at IBM

- Significantly cheaper than SRAM
 - DRAM cell has 1 transistor and 1 capacitor vs. 6 transistors for SRAM
 - A bit is represented by a high or low charge on the capacitor
 - Charge dissipates due to leakage hence the term dynamic RAM
 - Capacity of up to a gigabyte per chip
- DRAM is (shared) off-chip memory
 - Long access time compared to SRAM
 - Off-chip pins are expensive in terms of area and power
 - SDRAM bandwidth is scarce and must be efficiently utilized
- Found in lower levels of memory hierarchy
 - Used as remote high-volume storage



The DRAM evolution

Evolution of the DRAM design in the past 15 years

- A clock signal was added making the design synchronous (SDRAM)
- The data bus transfers data on both rising and falling edge of the clock (DDR SDRAM)
- Second and third generation of DDR memory (DDR2/DDR3) scales to higher clock frequencies (up to 800 MHz)
- DDR4 currently being standardized by JEDEC
- Special branches of DDR memories for graphic cards (GDDR) and for low power systems (LPDDR)





SDRAM Architecture

The SDRAM architecture is organized in banks, rows and columns

- A row buffer stores a currently active (open) row
- ► The memory interface has a command bus, address bus, and a data bus
 - Busses shared between all banks to reduce the number of off-chip pins
 - A bank is essentially is an independent memory, but with shared I/O





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Basic SDRAM Operation

Requested row is activated and copied into the row buffer of the bank

- Read bursts and/or write bursts are issued to the active row
 - Programmed burst length (BL) of 4 or 8 words
- Row is precharged and stored back into the memory array

Command	Abbr	Description	
Activate	ACT	Activate a row in a particular bank	
Read	RD	Initiate a read burst to an active row	
Write	WR	Initiate a write burst to an active row	
Precharge	PRE	Close a row in a particular bank	
Refresh	REF	Start a refresh operation	
No operation	NOP	Ignores all inputs	



Timing Constraints

Timing constraints determine which commands can be scheduled

- More than 20 constraints, some are inter-dependent
- Limits the efficiency of memory accesses
 - Wait for precharge, activate and read/write commands before data on bus
- Timing constraints get increasingly severe for faster memories
 - The physical design of the memory core has not changed much
 - Constaint in nanoseconds constant, but clock period gets shorter

Parameter	Abbr.	Cycles
ACT to RD/WR	tRCD	3
ACT to ACT (diff. banks)	tRRD	2
ACT to ACT (same bank)	tRAS	12
Read latency	tRL	3
RD to RD	-	BL/2



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Pipelined SDRAM access

Multiple banks provide parallelism

- SDRAM has separate data and command buses
- Commands to different banks are pipelined
- Activate, precharge and transfer data in parallell (bank preparation)
- Increases efficiency

Figure shows pipelined memory accesses with burst length 8





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Memory Efficiency

Memory efficiency is the fraction of clock cycles with data transfer

- Defines the exchange rate between peak bandwidth and net bandwidth
- Net bandwidth is the actual useful bandwidth after considering overhead
- Five categories of memory efficiency for SDRAM:
 - Refresh efficiency
 - Read/write efficiency
 - Bank efficiency
 - Command efficiency
 - Data efficiency

Memory efficiency is the product of these five categories



Refresh Efficiency

SDRAM need to be refreshed regularly to retain data

- DRAM cell contains leaking capacitor
- Refresh command must be issued every 7.8 µs for DDR2/DDR3 SDRAM
- All banks must be precharged
- Data cannot be transfered during refresh
- Refresh efficiency is largely independent of traffic
 - Depends on density of the memory device (generally 95 99%)





Read / Write Efficiency

Cycles are lost when switching direction of the data bus

- Extra NOPs must be inserted between read and write commands
- Read/write efficiency depends on traffic
 - Determined by frequency of read/write switches
 - Switching too often has a significant impact on memory efficiency
 - Switching after every burst of 8 words gives 57% r/w efficiency with DDR2-400





Bank Efficiency

Bank conflict when a read or write targets an inactive row (row miss)

- Significantly impacts memory efficiency
- Requires precharge followed by activate
 - Less than 40% bank efficiency if always row miss in same bank
- Bank efficiency depends on traffic
 - Determined by address of request and memory map



Command Efficiency

Command bus uses single data rate

- Congested if precharge and activate is required simultaneously
- One command has to be delayed may delay data on bus
- Command efficiency depends on traffic
 - Small bursts reduce command efficiency
 - · Potentially more activate and precharge commands issued
 - Generally quite high (95-100%)



Data Efficiency

► A memory burst can access segments of the programmed burst size.

- Minimum access granularity
 - Burst length 8 words is 16 B with 16-bit memory and 64 B with 64-bit memory
- If data is poorly aligned an extra segment have to be transferred
 Cycles are lost when transferring unrequested data
- Data efficiency depends on the application
 - Smaller requests and bigger burst length reduce data efficiency





wasted

word

Conclusions on Memory Efficiency

Memory efficiency is highly dependent on traffic

- Worst-case efficiency is very low
 - Every burst targets different rows in the same bank
 - Read/write switch after every burst
- Results in
 - Less than 40% efficiency for all DDR2 memories
 - Efficiency drops as memories become faster (DDR3)



- Conclusion
 - Worst-case efficiency must be prevented!



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A general memory controller architecture

► A general controller architecture consists of two parts

► The front-end

- buffers requests and responses per requestor
- schedules one (or more) requests for memory access
- is independent of the memory type

► The back-end

- translates scheduled request(s) into SDRAM command sequence
- is dependent on the memory type





Front-end arbitration

Front-end provides buffering and arbitration

- Arbiter can schedule requests in many different ways
 - Priorities common to give low-latency access to critical requestors
 - E.g. stalling processor waiting for a cache line
 - Important to prevent starvation of low priority requestors
 - Common to schedule fairly in case of multiple processors
 - Next request may be scheduled before previous is finished
 - Gives more options to command generator in back-end
- Scheduled requests are sent to the back-end for memory access





Back-end

- Back-end contains a memory map and a command generator
- Memory map decodes logical address to physical address
 - Physical address is (bank, row, column)
 - Can be done in different ways choice affects efficiency



- Command generator schedules commands for the target memory
 - Customized for a particular memory generation
 - Programmable to handle different timing constraints



Continuous memory map

- The memory map decodes a memory address into (bank, row, column)
 - Decoding is done by slicing the bits in the logical address
- Continuous memory map
 - Map sequential address to columns in row
 - Switch bank when are columns in row are visited
 - Switch row when all banks are visited





Continuous memory map

Continuous memory map very sensitive to locality

- Advantage:
 - Very efficient in best case
 - · No bank conflicts when reading sequential addresses
 - 10 cycles to issue four read commands with burst length 4 words

 cmd
 ACT NOP NOP
 RD 0
 NOP

Disadvantage:

- Very inefficient if requesting different rows in same bank
- 37 cycles to issue the four read commands





Interleaving memory map

Interleaving memory map

- Maps bursts to different banks in interleaving fashion
- Active row in a bank is not changed until all columns are visited





Interleaving memory map

Interleaving memory map is largely insensitive to locality

- Advantage:
 - Makes extensive use of bank parallelism to hide overhead
 - Average case and worst case is almost the same
 - Takes 10 or 11 cycles for the four read commands depending on locality
 - Compare to 10 or 37 for continuous memory map
- Disadvantages:
 - Requires bursts to all banks to be efficient
 - Solved if requests are large, such as 64 B
 - Issues many activate and precharges which increases power consumption



Command generator

Generates and schedules commands for scheduled requests

- May work with both requests and commands
- Many ways to determine which request to process
 - Increase bank efficiency
 - Prefer requests targeting open rows
 - Increase read/write efficiency
 - · Prefer read after read and write after write
 - Reduce stall cycles of processor
 - Always prefer reads, since reads are blocking and writes often posted



Command generator

Generate SDRAM commands without violating timing constraints

- Often use bank controller to determine valid commands to a bank
- Many possible policies to determine which command to schedule
 - Precharge policies
 - Close rows as soon as possible to activate new one faster
 - Keep rows open as long as possible to benefit from locality
 - Command priorities
 - Read and write commands have high priority, as they put data on the bus
 - Precharge and activate commands have lower priorities
 - Algorithms often try to put data on the bus as soon as possible
 - Microsoft proposes a self-learning memory controller that uses reinforment-learning to do long-term planning



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Conclusions

- SDRAM is used as shared off-chip high-volume storage
 - Cheaper but slower than SRAM
- The efficiency of SDRAM is highly variable and depends on
 - Refresh efficiency, bank efficiency, read/write efficiency, command effiency, and data efficiency
- Controller tries to minimize latency and maximize efficiency
 - Low-latency for critical requestors using priorities
 - Fairness among multiple processors
 - High efficiency by reordering requests to fit with memory state
- Memory map impacts efficiency
 - Continuous memory map good if small requests and good locality
 - Interleaving memory map good if large requests and poor locality





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