

RANDOM ACCESS SEMICONDUCTOR MEMORIES

MODULE OUTLINE

- 1. BASIC MEMORY CONCEPTS**
- 2. STATIC READ WRITE MEMORY, SRAM**
- 3. DYNAMIC RANDOM ACCESS MEMORY, DRAM**
- 4. ADVANCED MEMORY TECHNOLOGIES**
- 5. ERASABLE PROGRAMMABLE READ-ONLY MEMORY, EPROM**
- 6. MEMORY SYSTEM DESIGN**
- 7. MEMORY CLASSES**

RAM vs. ROM

- Volatile
- RAM (random access)
 - SRAM (static)
 - Synchronous
 - Asynchronous
 - DRAM (dynamic)
 - FPM DRAM
 - EDO DRAM
 - SDRAM
 - DDR SDRAM
 - DDR2 SDRAM
 - Etc..
- Non-volatile
- ROM (read only)
 - System/Video BIOS
- PROM
 - OTP with fuses/anti-fuses
- EPROM
 - UV light for erasure
- EEPROM
 - Reprogrammable with software and hardware
 - ↳ Flash Memory

SRAM & DRAM

- SRAM

- Pros

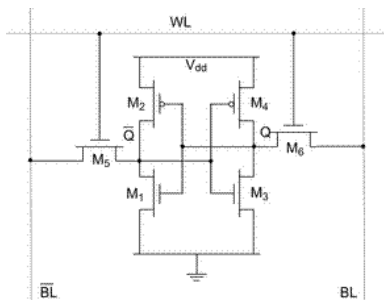
- Extremely Fast
 - No refresh cycle

- Cons

- Large area - 6T/bit
 - Expensive

- Applications

- Memory caches L1 & L2



- DRAM

- Pros

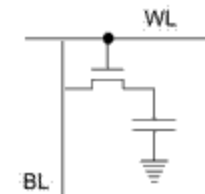
- Cheaper
 - Higher density - 1T/bit

- Cons

- Slower in speed
 - Needs refresh cycle

- Applications

- Computer memory



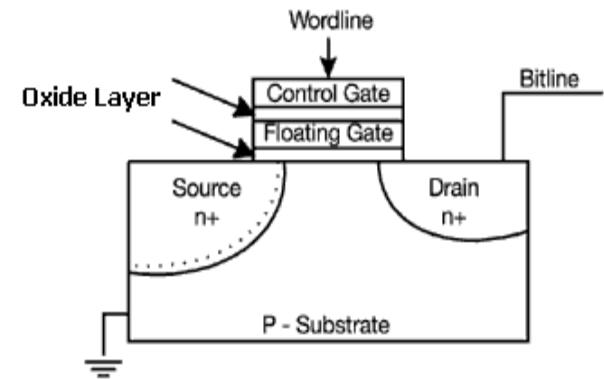
Flash Memory

Pros

- Non-volatile
- Portability
- High Density
 - Floating gate transistor
 - CG and FG
 - MLC technology
- High Isolation

Cons

- Oxide layers near min. limit
- High voltage required
- Slow WRITE cycle
- Capacitance Coupling
- Limited Use



Focus For Improvement

- Non-volatility
- Portability
- Small Area
- High Density
- Faster WRITE/ERASE cycles
- Lower Power
- Lower Costs
- Longevity

FRAM

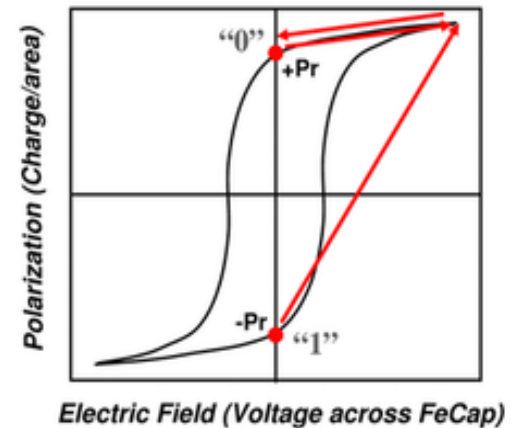
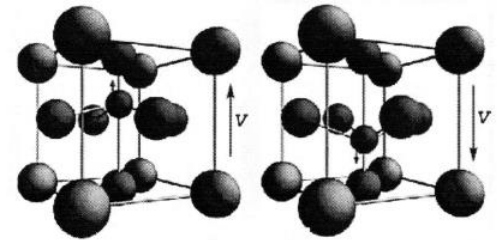
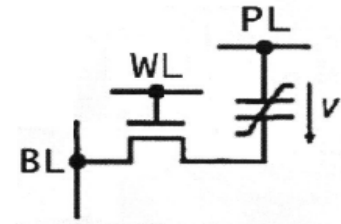
- FeRAM (Ferroelectric RAM)
 - Uses ferroelectric characteristics of the capacitor
 - lead (Pb) zirconate (Zr) titanate (Ti) - PZT

Pros

- Non-volatile
- Small size
- Fast WRITE cycles

Cons

- A potential WRITE after each READ
- Longevity
- Polarization degradation
- Requires high temperatures
- Want higher densities



MRAM

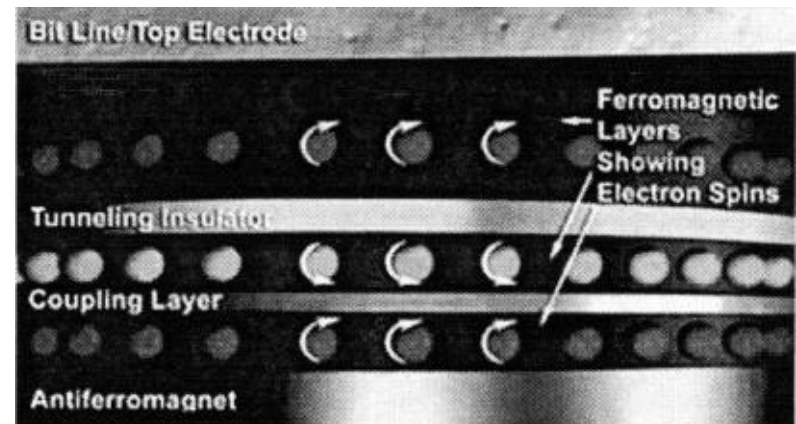
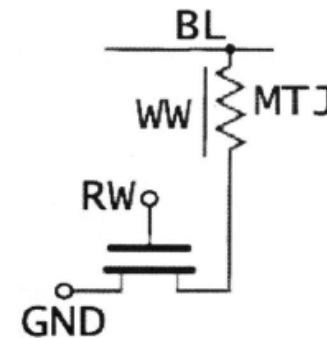
- Magnetoresistive RAM
 - Uses properties of magnetism and the development of the MTJ
 - Uses STT technology (Spin Torque Transfer)

Pros

- Non-volatile
- Small size
- Fast WRITE cycles
- Longevity

Cons

- Requires high temperatures
- Want higher densities



PRAM

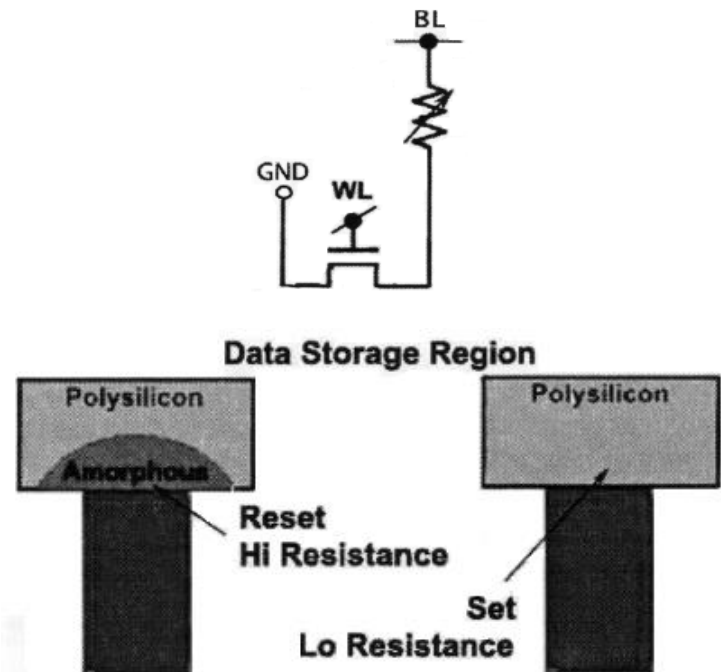
- Phase-change RAM, PCM, C-RAM (chalcogenide RAM)
 - Uses the special property of chalcogenide alloy
 - Germanium (Ge), antimony (Sb) and tellurium (Te) – GST
 - Switches between amorphous (0) and crystallized (1) states with heat from current

Pros

- Non-volatile
- Small size
- High density
- Fast switching times

Cons

- Requires high current (heat)
- Longevity



Comparisons

- Overall View

Parameters	SRAM	DRAM	Flash	FRAM	MRAM	PRAM
Non-volatile	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Refresh	No	ms	No	No	No	No
Cell Size	6T	1T1C	1T	1T1C	1TCMTJ	1T1R
Read Time	2 ns	10 ns	70ns	10ns	10ns	10ns
Write Time	2 ns	10 ns	10 μ s	20 ns	5 ns	5 ns
Write cycles	> 10 ¹⁵	> 10 ¹⁵	10 ⁵	> 10 ¹²	> 10 ¹⁵	> 10 ¹²

2.1. BASIC MEMORY CONCEPTS

2.1.1. *FLIP-FLOP / 1-BIT REGISTER*

- Smallest unit of information is a bit (0 or 1)
- Can be stored in a Flip-Flop (ON or OFF)
- Common: D-type Flip-Flop, a bistable sub-system or device

2.1. BASIC MEMORY CONCEPTS

2.1.1. FLIP-FLOP / 1-BIT REGISTER - contnd

– **Positive clock pulse (0 to 1):**

- Leading or Rising edge
- Positive transition

– **Negative clock pulse (1 to 0):**

- Trailing or Falling edge
- Negative transition

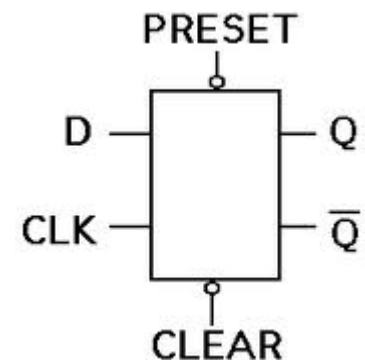
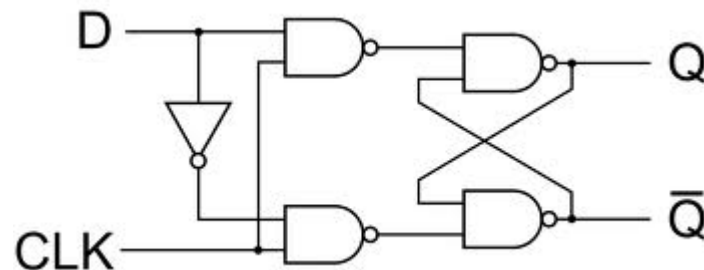


Figure 1: D-type Flip-Flop: (a) Logical diagram; (b) IC Cicutry

2.1. BASIC MEMORY CONCEPTS

2.1.1. *FLIP-FLOP / 1-BIT REGISTER - contnd*

– Level triggered Flip-Flop: LATCH

- When clock is 1 – Flip-Flop changes its state
- When clock transitions (1 to 0)
- The data present at D input is latched (transferred)

Figure 1: D-type Flip-Flop: (a) Logical diagram; (b) IC Cicutry

2.1. BASIC MEMORY CONCEPTS

2.1.2. *m*-BIT REGISTERS

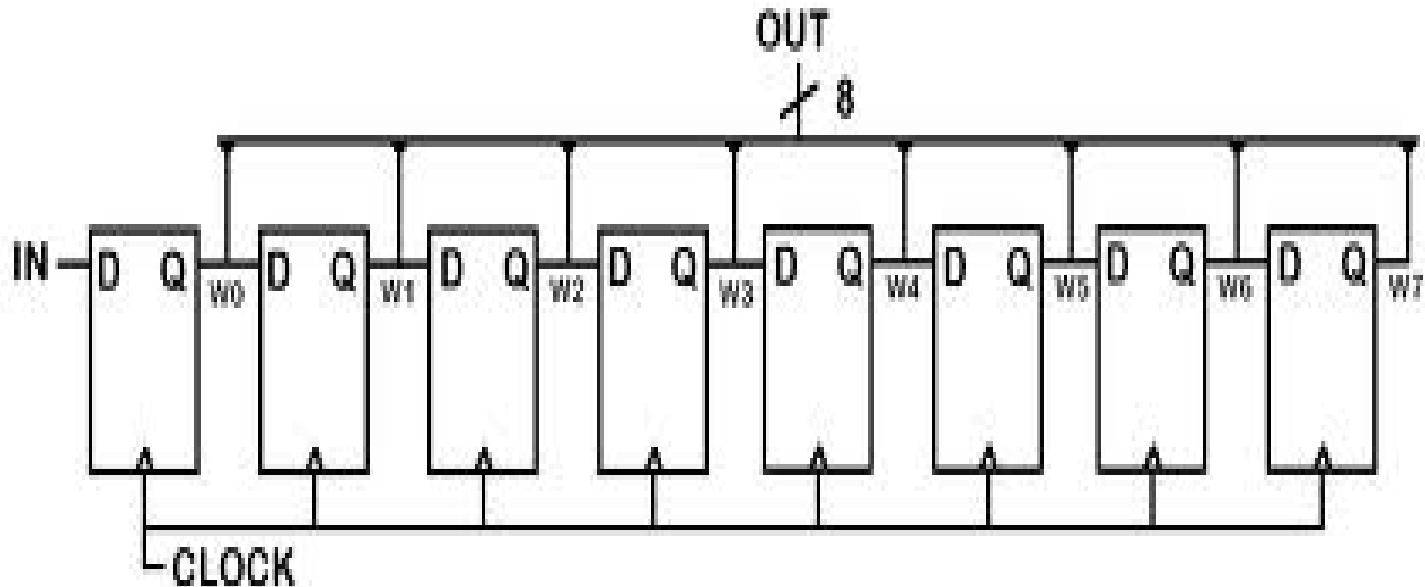


Figure 2: 8-bit (Octal) Register

2.1. BASIC MEMORY CONCEPTS

2.1.2. *m*-BIT REGISTERS - contd

- The m bits make a Word
- m is known as a Word length
- In digital systems, the Word length is 8 bits = Byte
- Half of a byte is known as Nibble
- Three-state buffers are buffers (registers) with three output states (0, 1 and undetermined)

2.1. BASIC MEMORY CONCEPTS

2.1.3. *DATA TRANSFERS BETWEEN REGISTERS*

- Source registers on one side
- Destination registers on the other
- Data bus between registers – UNIDIRECTIONAL (?)
- Data contention (may lead to data corruption)
- Common Input to Output registers = DIRECTIONAL Data bus
- The memory capacity is measured in bits, byte and its multiple (kB, MB, GB, ...)

2.2. STATIC READ WRITE MEMEORY, SRAM

2.2.1. EXTERNAL ORGANISATION

- Typical SRAM are of 1, 4 or 8 bits Word Lengths
- Pins on a RWM: Address, Data, Control, Power, GND and Clock.
- Common I/O often used

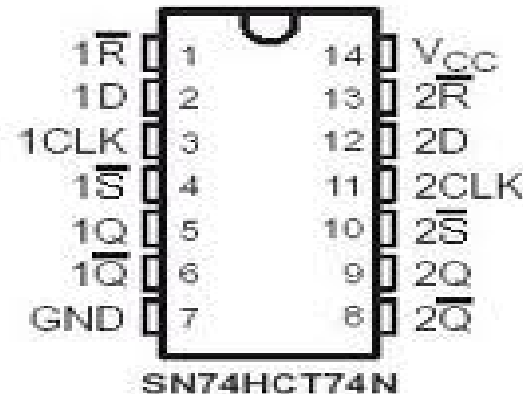


Figure 3: Memory chip

2.2. STATIC READ WRITE MEMEORY, SRAM

2.2.2. INTERNAL ORGANISATION

- Array of memory cells (1 bit)**
- Logic to address any memory location.**
- Circuitry to read content of any address**
- Circuitry to write to any memory address**
- Logic circuitries make up logical Word**
- Physical Word – number of bits**

2.2. STATIC READ WRITE MEMEORY, SRAM

2.2.3. *TIMING REQUIREMENTS*

A. STEPS FOR MEMORY READ

- Address applied to input.
- SRAM is selected by CS input
- Selected content appears at the output => Access time
- Logic circuitries make up logical Word
- Physical Word – number of bits

2.2. STATIC READ WRITE MEMEORY, SRAM

2.2.3. TIMING REQUIREMENTS

B. STEPS FOR MEMORY WRITE

- Address applied to input.**
- SRAM is enabled by logic level of CS input**
- Input takes data to be written**
- Write Enable (WE) goes low**
- Address and CS signals are reallocated**

2.6. COMPUTATION OF TIMING REQUIREMENTS FOR MEMORY

- **READ OPERATION**

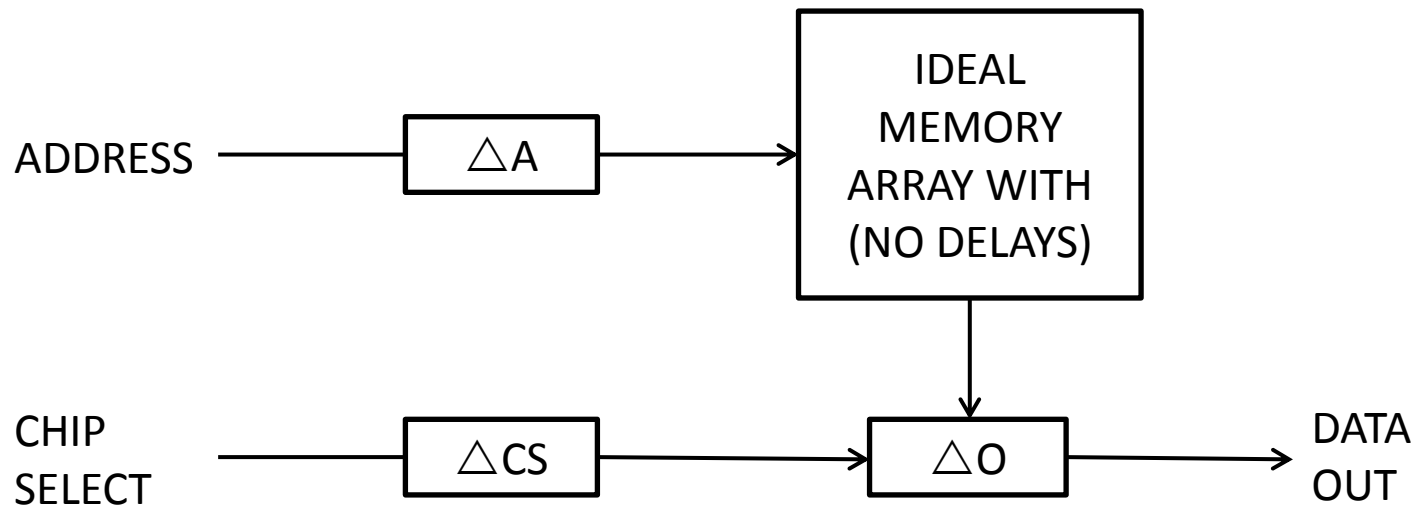


Figure 2.6.1: Lumped delay memory model for a read operation

2.6. COMPUTATION OF TIMING REQUIREMENTS FOR MEMORY

- **READ OPERATION – contd**
 - **Figure 2.6.1 depicts a model of an ideal SRAM (with no delays in signal propagation for a read operation).**
 - **In a real device, there are delays:**
 - **Two input delays: ΔA and ΔCS**
 - **One output delay: ΔO**
 - **Total delay from address application to output is $\Delta A + \Delta O$**
 - **Total delay from chip select signal to output is $\Delta CS + \Delta O$**
 - **Let's see timing constraints in the hand-drawn diagram.**

2.6. COMPUTATION OF TIMING REQUIREMENTS FOR MEMORY

- **READ OPERATION – contd**
 - **t_A : Access Time, it's the time elapsed from the subsequent application of an address at the Address Inputs to the appearance at the memory's output of a stable copy of the Address data.**
 - **t_{CO} : Chip Select to Output (Data) valid.**
 - **t_{DF} : Chip Deselect to output Float transition)Time**
 - **t_{OH} : Output Hold from Address change, it's maximum period of previous output data is valid after the address is changed.**
 - **t_{RC} : Read Cycle Time, it specifies the maximum rate at which at which different memory locations can be successfully read.**

2.6. COMPUTATION OF TIMING REQUIREMENTS FOR MEMORY

- **WRITE OPERATION**

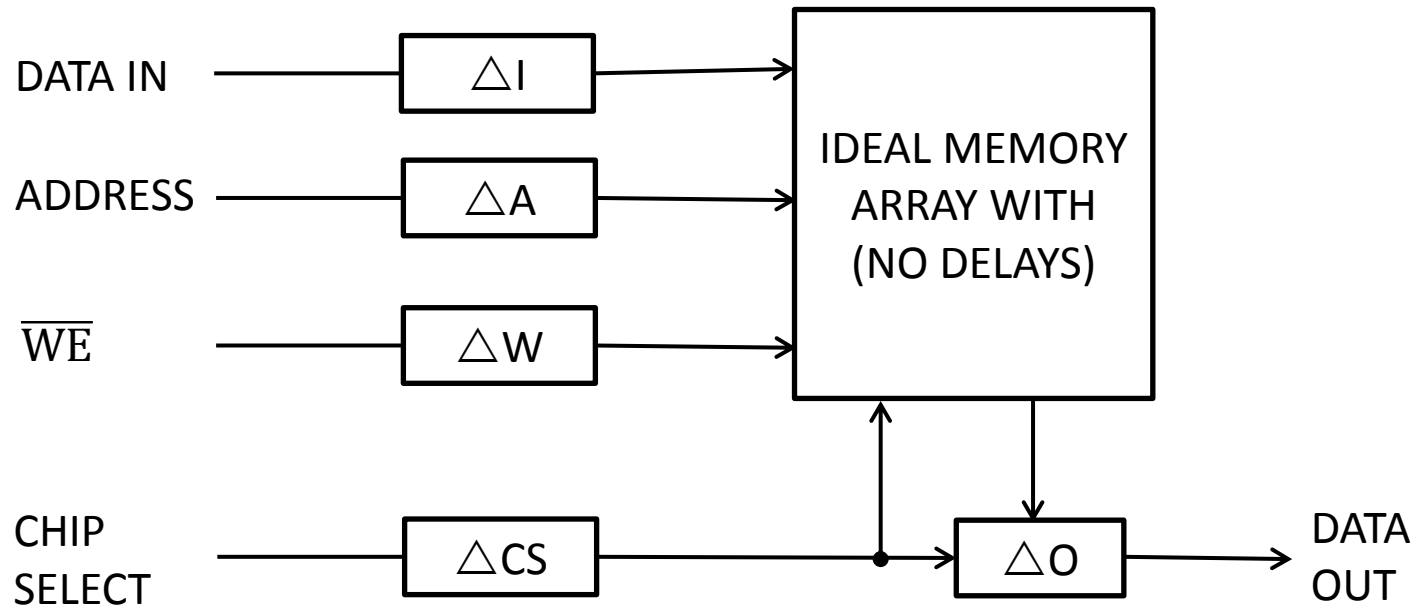


Figure 2.6.2: Lumped delay memory model for a write operation

2.6. COMPUTATION OF TIMING REQUIREMENTS FOR MEMORY

- **WRITE OPERATION – contd**
 - Figure 2.6.2 depicts a model of an ideal SRAM (with no delays in signal propagation for a write operation).
 - In a real device, there are delays:
 - Four input delays: ΔI , ΔA , ΔW and ΔCS
 - One output delay: ΔO
 - Number of considerations are in play for a successful write operation
 - Delay in changes in input data at the package input pins is given by ΔI .
 - Data stable at the package input pins at least $\Delta I - \Delta W$ earlier.
 - For more details on timing constraints, let's see the following hand-drawn digram...

2.6. COMPUTATION OF TIMING REQUIREMENTS FOR MEMORY

- **READ OPERATION – contd**
 - **t_{AW} : Write delay, indicates how long the address must be stable before the write pulse changes from 1 to 0.**
 - **t_{CW} : Chip Enable to Write Time, indicates how Chip Select stable period before \overline{WE} line changes from 0 to 1.**
 - **t_{DH} : Data Hold from write time, it's the period during the input data is held stable after the \overline{WE} line changes from 0 to 1.**
 - **t_{DW} : Data to Write Time overlap, it's data setup time; this is the period during which data is stable.**
 - **t_{WCY} : Write Cycle Time, it specifies the minimum time between write operations.**
 - **t_{WP} : Write Pulse Time, it's minimum length of time to guarantee writing into the slowest memory devices.**
 - **t_{WR} : Period during which the address must be held stable after the 0 to 1 transition of \overline{WE} .**

2.7. ERASABLE PROGRAMMABLE READ-ONLY MEMORY, EPROM

2.7.1. INTRODUCTION

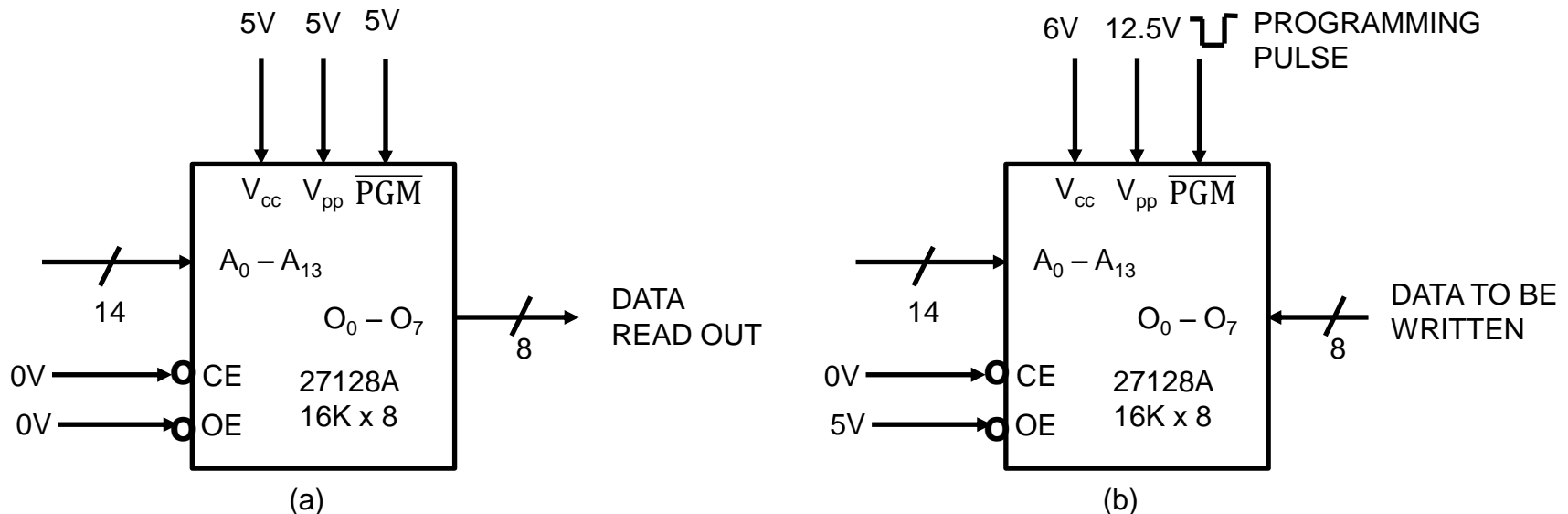
- EPROM is made by use of ultraviolet light.**
- EPROM is non-volatile.**
- Erasure is done by shining ultraviolet light**
- Must remove EPROM from the microprocessor system before writing o it.**
- EPROM programmer is special instrument for programming EPPROM chips.**

2.7. ERASABLE PROGRAMMABLE READ-ONLY MEMORY, EPROM

2.7.2. ORGANISATION AND IN-CIRCUIT OPERATION

OPERATION - EPROM's external organisation is similar to SRAM, except there is no \overline{WE} .

Figure 27.2.1: 27128A EPROM External connections: (a) Configuration for in-circuit read operation; (b) Configuration for programming on an EPROM programmer



2.7. ERASABLE PROGRAMMABLE READ-ONLY MEMORY, EPROM

2.7.3. EPROM PROGRAMMERS AND INTELLIGENT PROGRAMMERS

- Generic device programmers.**
- Two types by their operation mode:**
 - Standalone programmer**
 - PC-driven programmer**
- Microprocessor are critical in programming EPROM.**
- Intelligent programmers use intelligent algorithms with short pulses.**

2.8. MEMEORY SYSTEM DESIGN

1. Estimate RAM and ROM required
2. Determine address boundaries
3. Select memory devices
4. Determine layout to achieve Word lengths
5. Draw detailed memory mapping
6. Determine buffering requirement
7. Determine memory access speed

2.8. PRACTICAL MEMORY DESIGN

2.8.1. TYPES OF MEMORY DECODING

– Exhaustive Decoding:

- All address bits are decoded for selection of a memory location
- Leads to one-to-one mapping of addresses and memory locations
- Also referred to as *fully decoded* memory.

– Partial Decoding:

- Not all addresses bits are decoded
- Results in simplified decoding logic
- Leads to many-to-one mapping of addresses to memory locations.

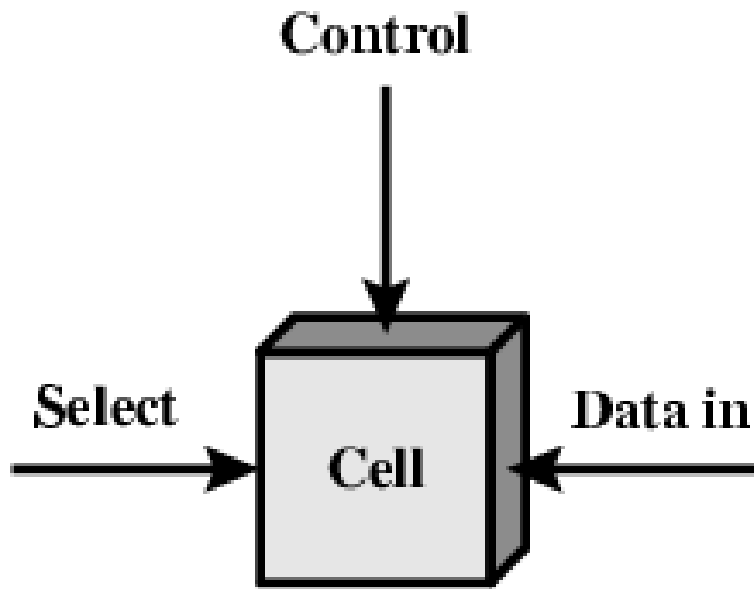
Semiconductor Memory

- RAM
 - Misnamed as all semiconductor memory is random access
 - Read/Write
 - Volatile (contents are lost when power switched off)
 - Temporary storage
 - Static or dynamic
 - Dynamic is based on capacitors – leaks thus needs refresh
 - Static is based on flip-flops – no leaks, does not need refresh

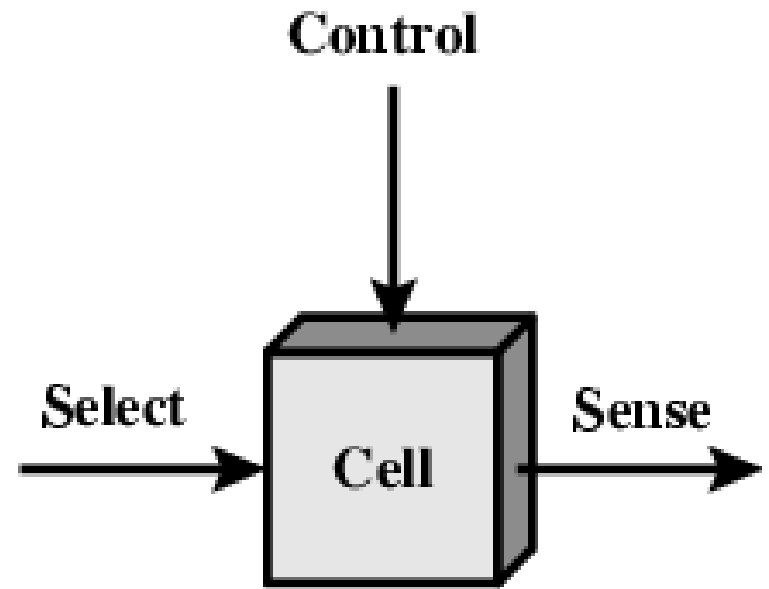
Semiconductor Memory Types

Memory Type	Category	Erasure	Write Mechanism	Volatility
Random-access memory (RAM)	Read-write memory	Electrically, byte-level	Electrically	Volatile
Read-only memory (ROM)	Read-only memory	Not possible	Masks	Nonvolatile
Programmable ROM (PROM)			Electrically	
Erasable PROM (EPROM)	Read-mostly memory	UV light, chip-level	Electrically	
Electrically Erasable PROM (EEPROM)		Electrically, byte-level		
Flash memory		Electrically, block-level		

Memory Cell Operation



(a) Write

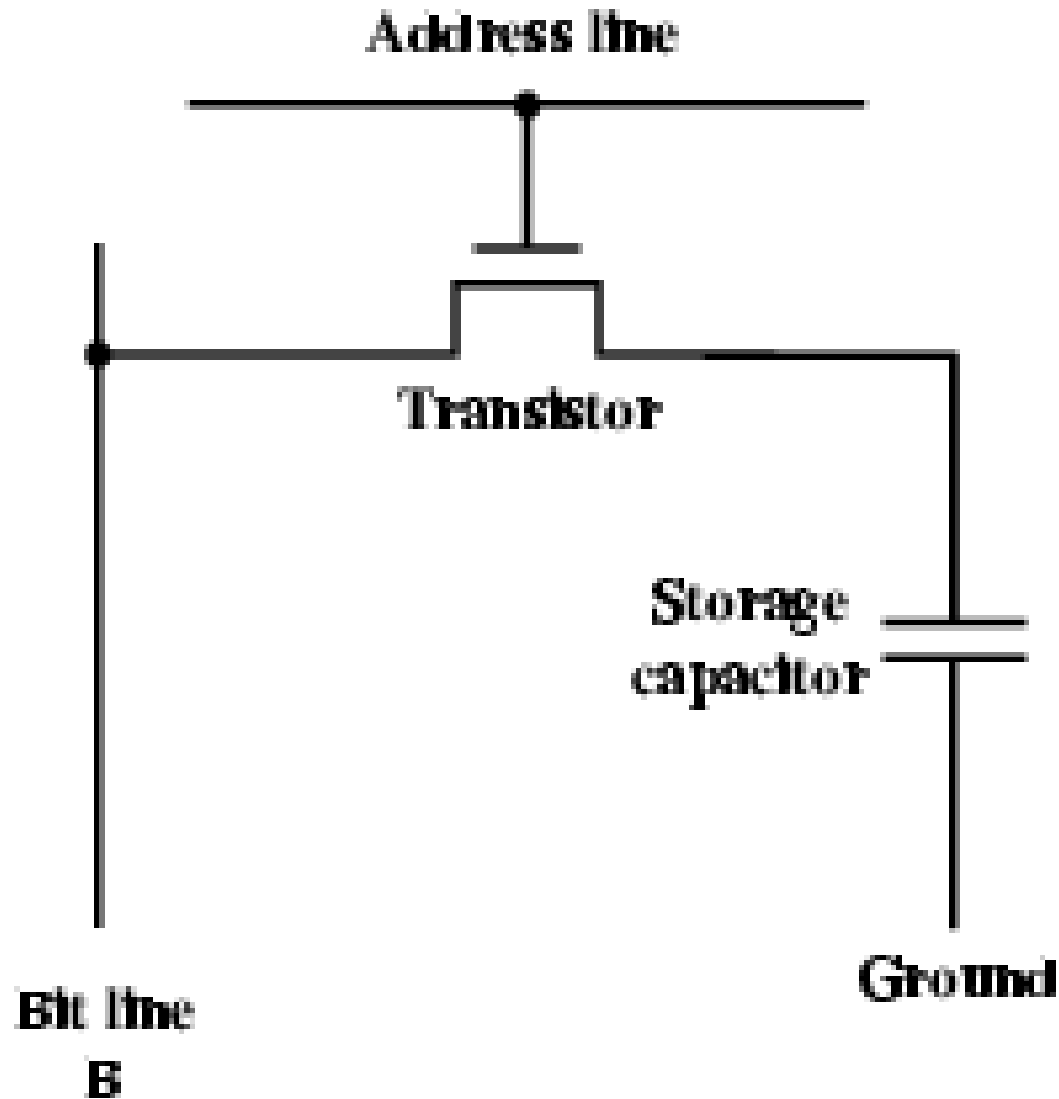


(b) Read

Dynamic RAM

- Bits stored as charge in capacitors
- Charges leak
- Need refreshing even when powered
- Simpler construction
- Smaller per bit
- Less expensive
- Need refresh circuits
- Slower
- Used in main memory
- Essentially analogue
 - Level of charge determines value

Dynamic RAM Structure



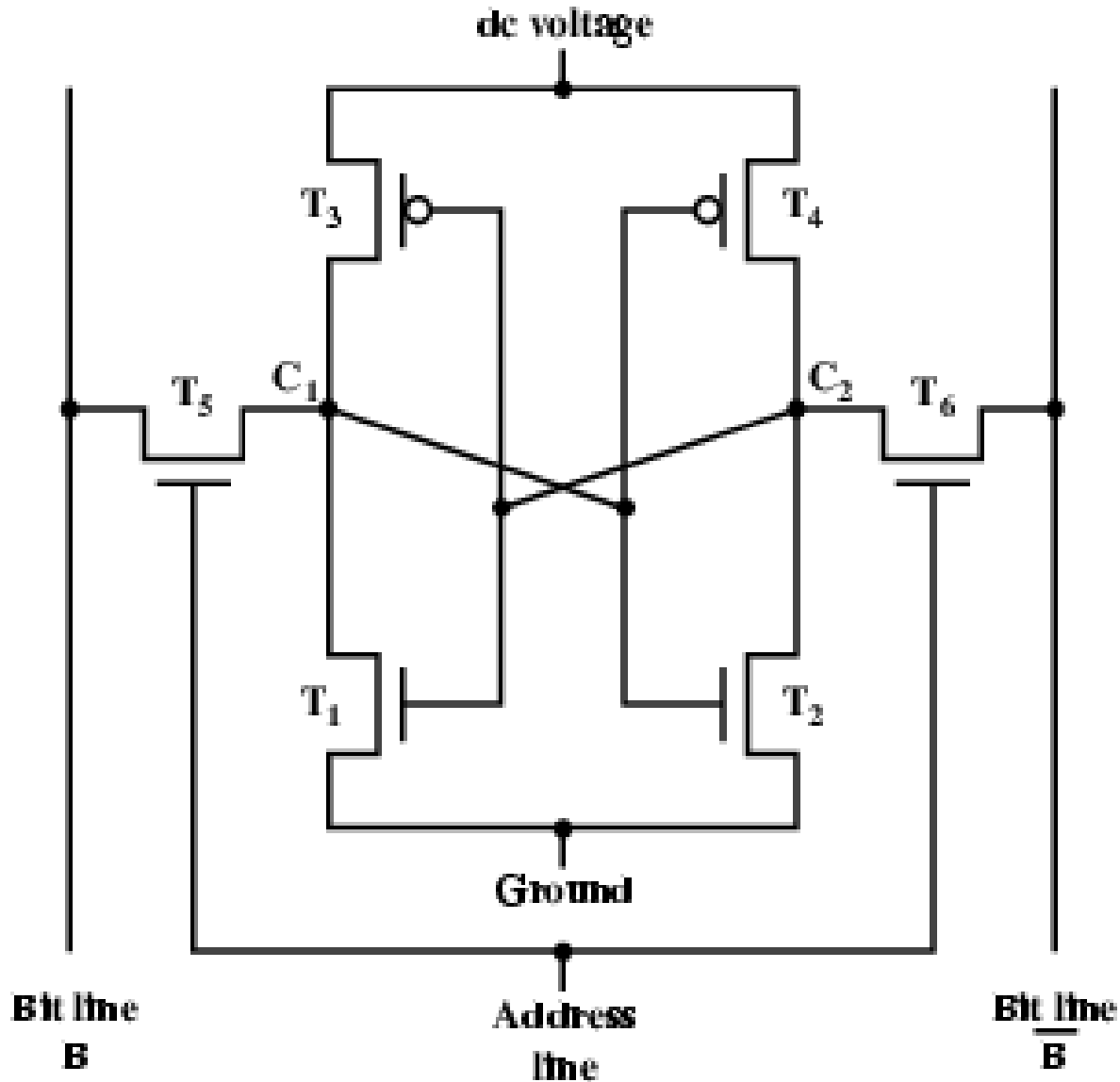
DRAM Operation

- Address line active when bit read or written
 - Transistor switch closed (current flows)
- Write
 - Voltage to bit line
 - High for 1 low for 0
 - Then signal address line
 - Transfers charge to capacitor
- Read
 - Address line selected
 - transistor turns on
 - Charge from capacitor fed via bit line to sense amplifier
 - Compares with reference value to determine 0 or 1
 - Capacitor charge must be restored

Static RAM

- Bits stored as on/off switches
- No charges to leak
- No refreshing needed when powered
- More complex construction
- Larger per bit
- More expensive
- Does not need refresh circuits
- Faster
- Cache
- Digital
 - Uses flip-flops

Static RAM Structure



Static RAM Operation

- Transistor arrangement gives stable logic state
- State 1
 - C_1 high, C_2 low
 - $T_1 T_4$ off, $T_2 T_3$ on
- State 0
 - C_2 high, C_1 low
 - $T_2 T_3$ off, $T_1 T_4$ on
- Address line transistors $T_5 T_6$ is switch
- Write – apply value to B & compliment to B
- Read – value is on line B

SRAM v DRAM

- Both volatile
 - Power needed to preserve data
- Dynamic cell
 - Simpler to build, smaller
 - More dense
 - Less expensive
 - Needs refresh
 - Larger memory units
- Static
 - Faster
 - Doesn't need refresh
 - Cache
 - Consumes more power

Read Only Memory (ROM)

- Permanent storage
 - Nonvolatile
- Microprogramming (see later)
- Library subroutines
- Systems programs (BIOS)
- Function tables

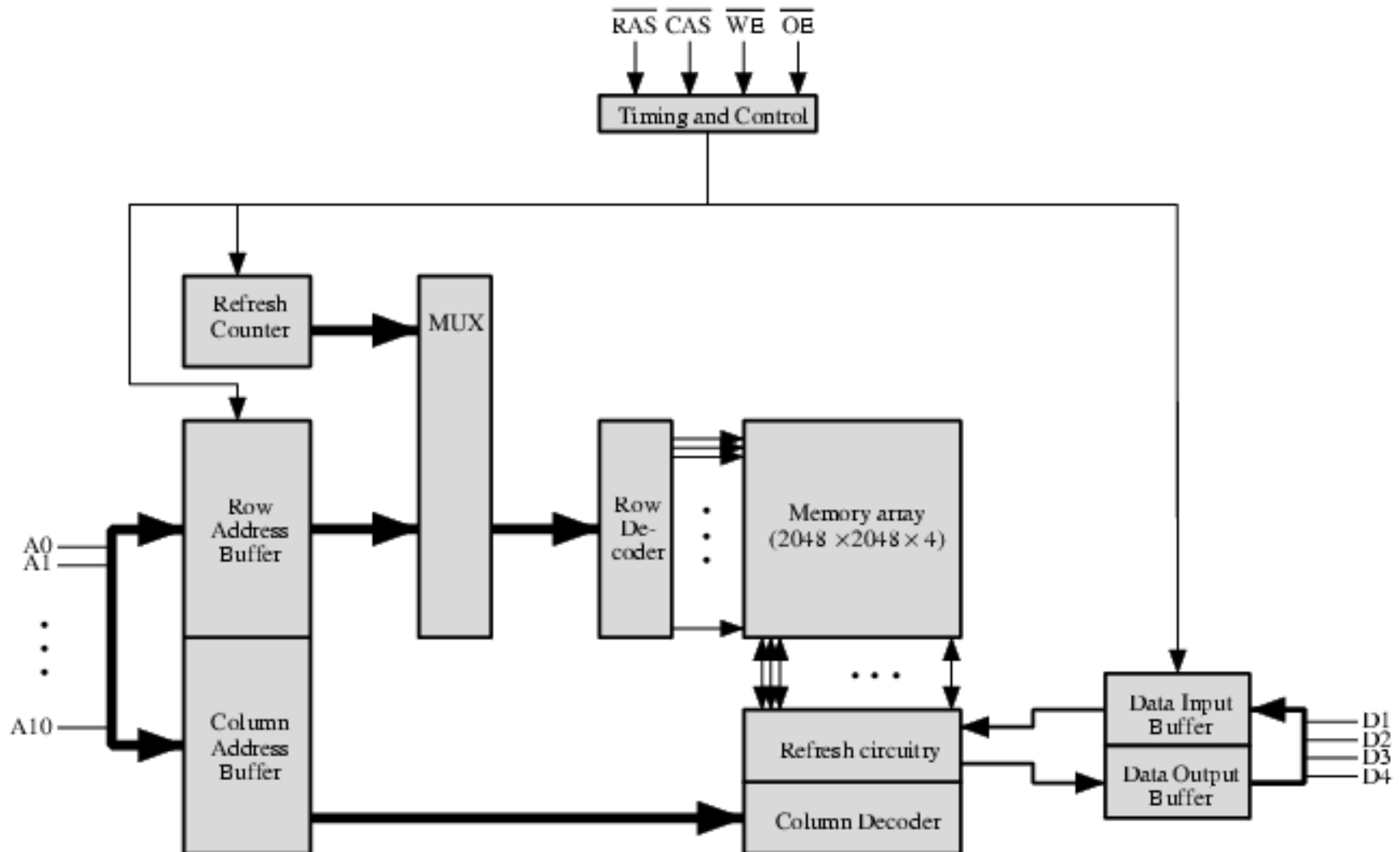
Types of ROM

- Written during manufacture
 - Very expensive for small runs
- Programmable (once)
 - PROM
 - Needs special equipment to program
- Read “mostly”
 - Erasable Programmable (EPROM)
 - Erased by UV
 - Electrically Erasable (EEPROM)
 - Takes much longer to write than read
 - Flash memory
 - Erase whole memory electrically, no byte-level erase
 - But much faster write

Memory Organization Designs

- Physical arrangement is same as logical
 - A 16Mbit chip is organized as 1M of 16 bit words
- One bit per chip system
 - 16 instances of 1Mbit chips, with bit 1 of each word in chip 1 and so on
- A 16Mbit chip can be organised as a 2048 x 2048 x 4bit array
 - $16M = 2^{24} = 2^{11} * 2^{11} * 4$
 - Reduces number of address pins
 - Multiplex row address and column address
 - 11 pins to address ($2^{11}=2048$)
 - Adding one more pin doubles range of values so x4 capacity (because each dimension of the square array is doubled)

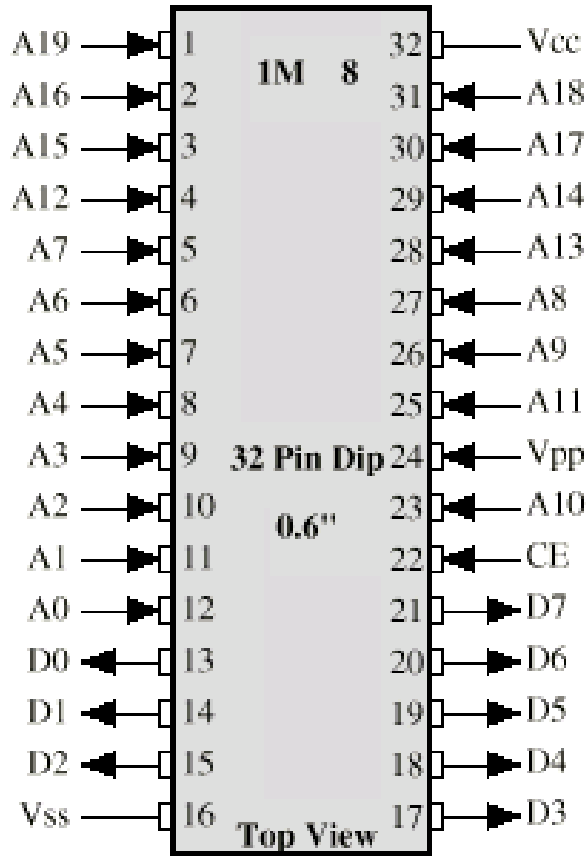
Typical 16 Mb DRAM (4M x 4)



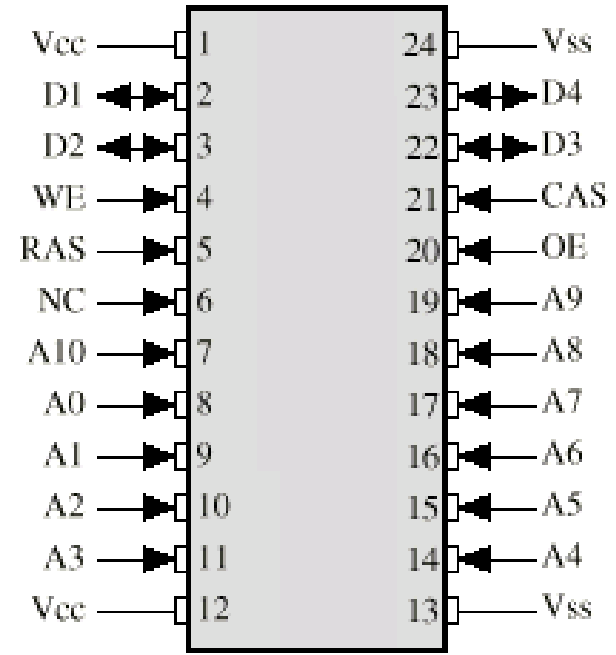
Refreshing

- Refresh circuit included on chip
- Disable chip while refreshing
- Refresh row by row
- Read & Write back
- Takes time
- Slows down apparent performance

Packaging



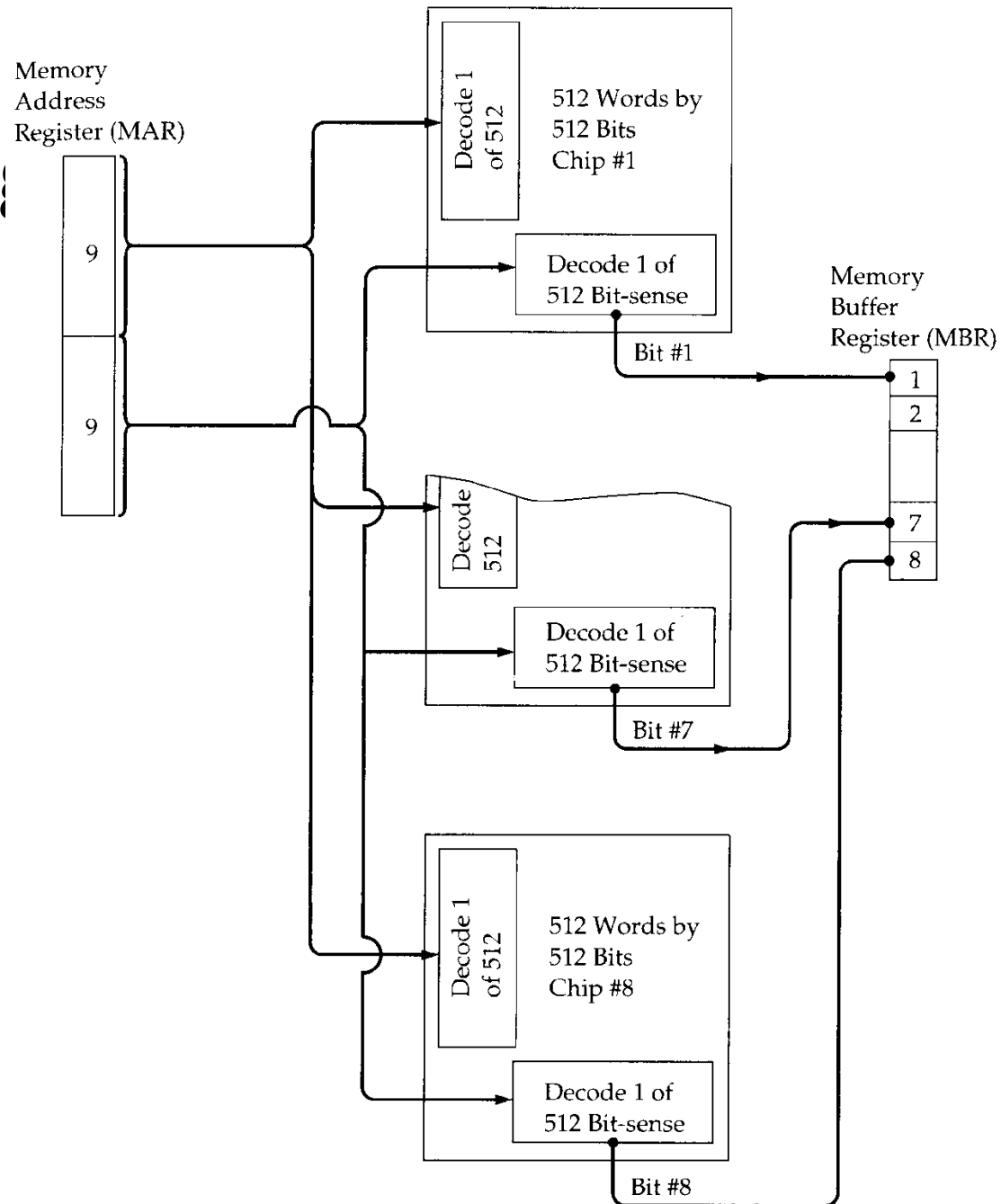
(a) 8 Mbit EPROM



(b) 16 Mbit DRAM

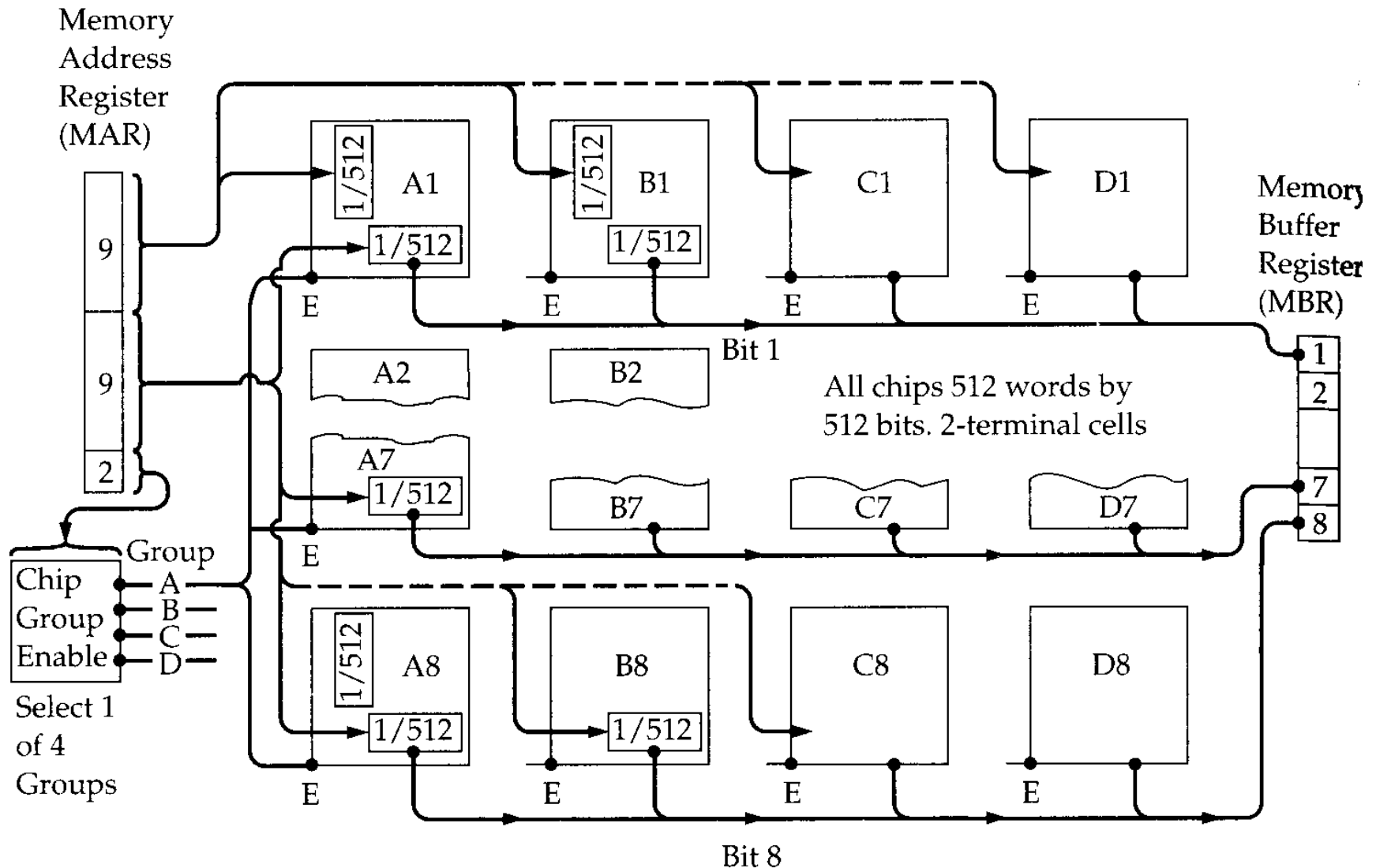
- Multiple chips make up the entire memory
- 1 bit per chip system org.
- 8 256K x 1 bit chips

Org



Module Organization

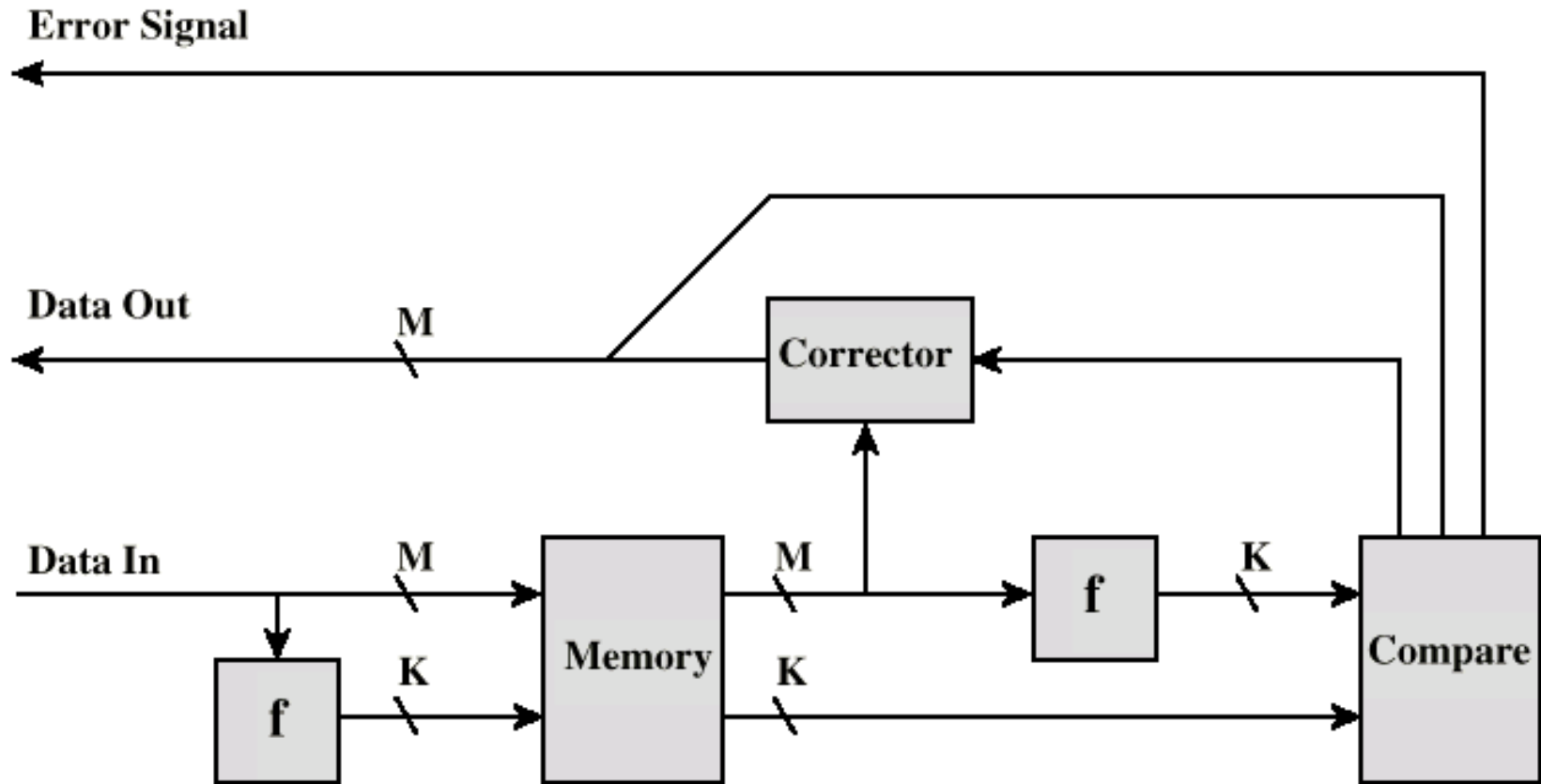
- 1 M 8 bit words



Error Correction

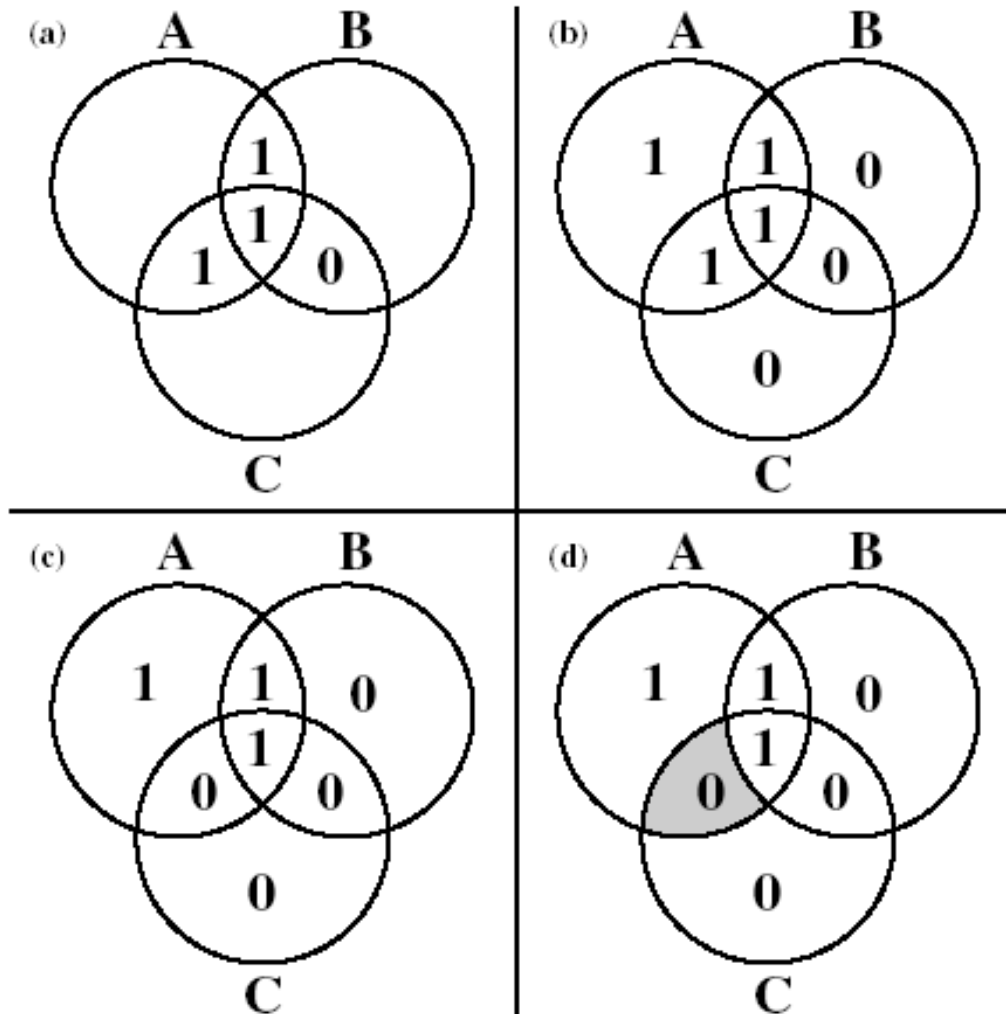
- Hard Failure
 - Permanent defect
- Soft Error
 - Random, non-destructive
 - No permanent damage to memory
 - E.g. alpha particles from radioactive decay
 - Present in all materials
- Detected using Hamming code
- Can be also repaired using error correcting code
- SEC-DED code: single error correcting - double error detecting code
 - can detect 2 errors, can correct 1

Error Correcting Code Function



Hamming Code Operation

- Parity bits can detect error



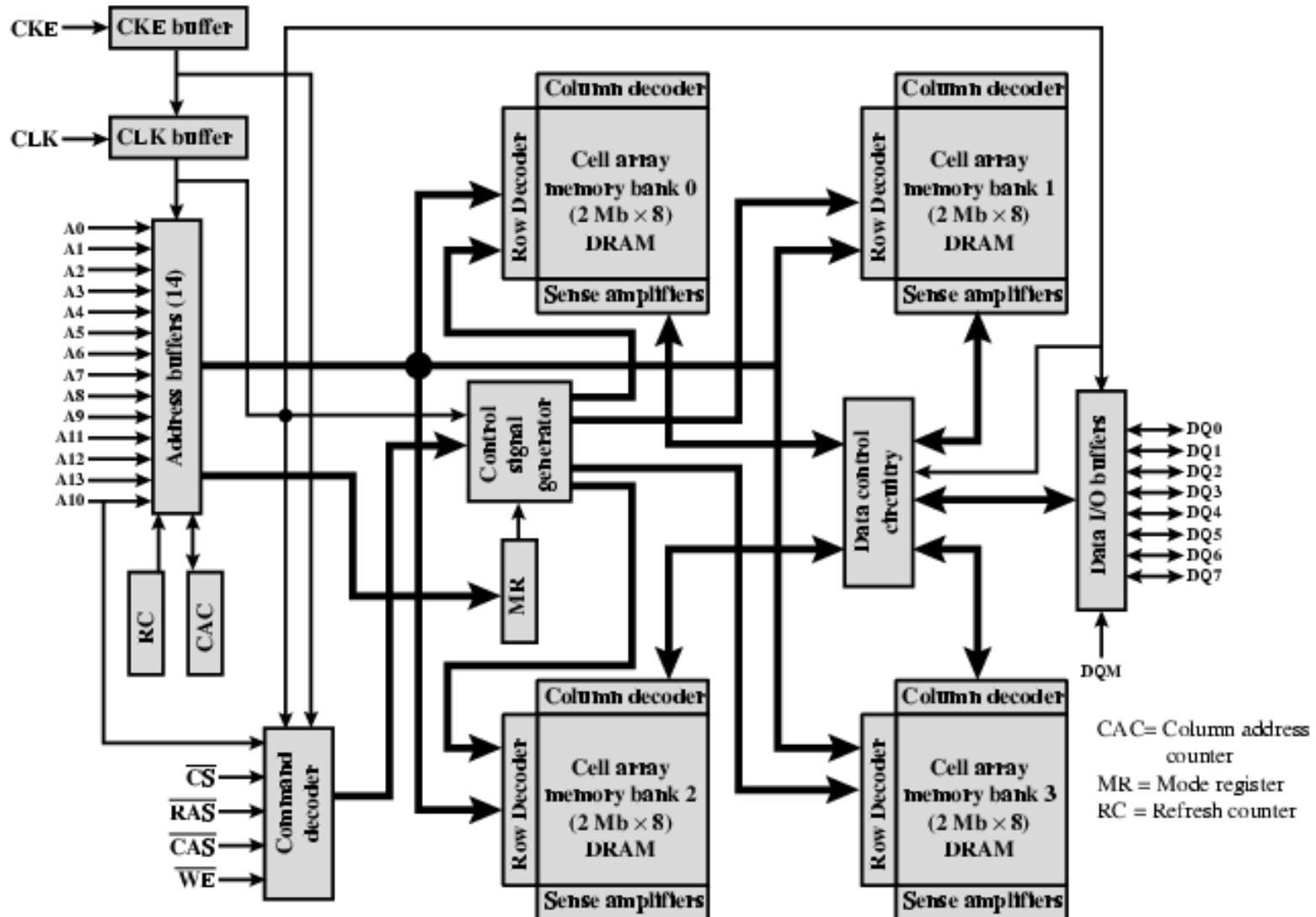
Advanced DRAM Organization

- Basic DRAM same since first RAM chips
- Enhanced DRAM
 - Contains small SRAM as well
 - SRAM holds last line read (locality of reference)
- Cache DRAM
 - Larger SRAM component
 - Used as cache or serial buffer

Synchronous DRAM (SDRAM)

- Access is synchronized with an external clock
- Address is presented to RAM
- RAM finds data (CPU waits in conventional DRAM)
- Since SDRAM moves data in time with system clock, CPU knows when data will be ready
- CPU does not have to wait, it can do something else
- Burst mode allows SDRAM to set up stream of data and fire it out in block
- DDR-SDRAM sends data twice per clock cycle (leading & trailing edge)

IBM 64Mb SDRAM



SDRAM Operation

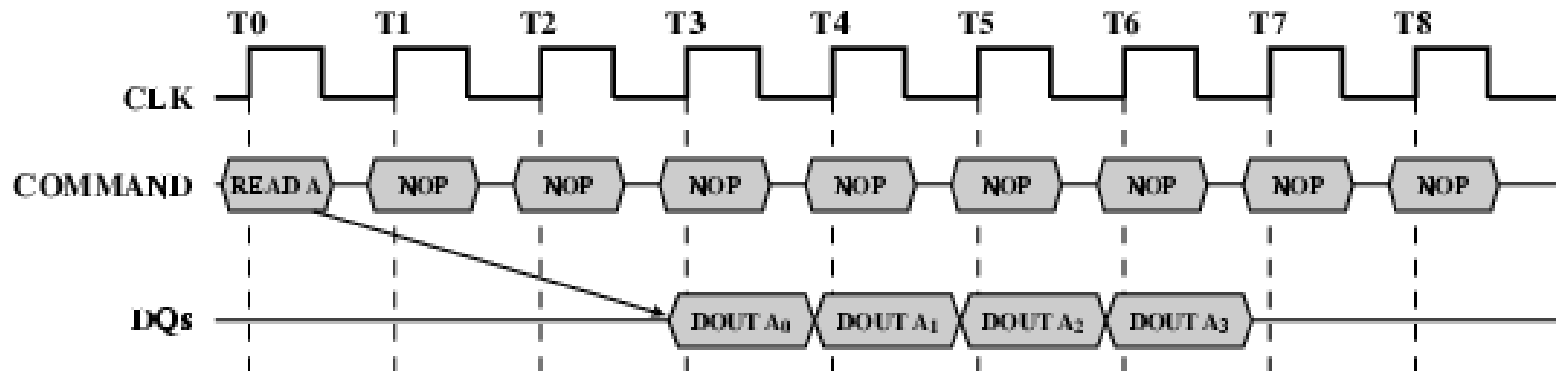


Figure 5.13 SDRAM Read Timing (Burst Length = 4, CAS latency = 2)

RAMBUS

- Adopted by Intel for Pentium & Itanium
- Main competitor to SDRAM
- Vertical package – all pins on one side
- Data exchange over 28 wires < 12 cm long
- Bus addresses up to 320 RDRAM chips at 1.6Gbps
- Asynchronous block protocol
 - 480ns access time
 - Then 1.6 Gbps

RAMBUS Diagram

