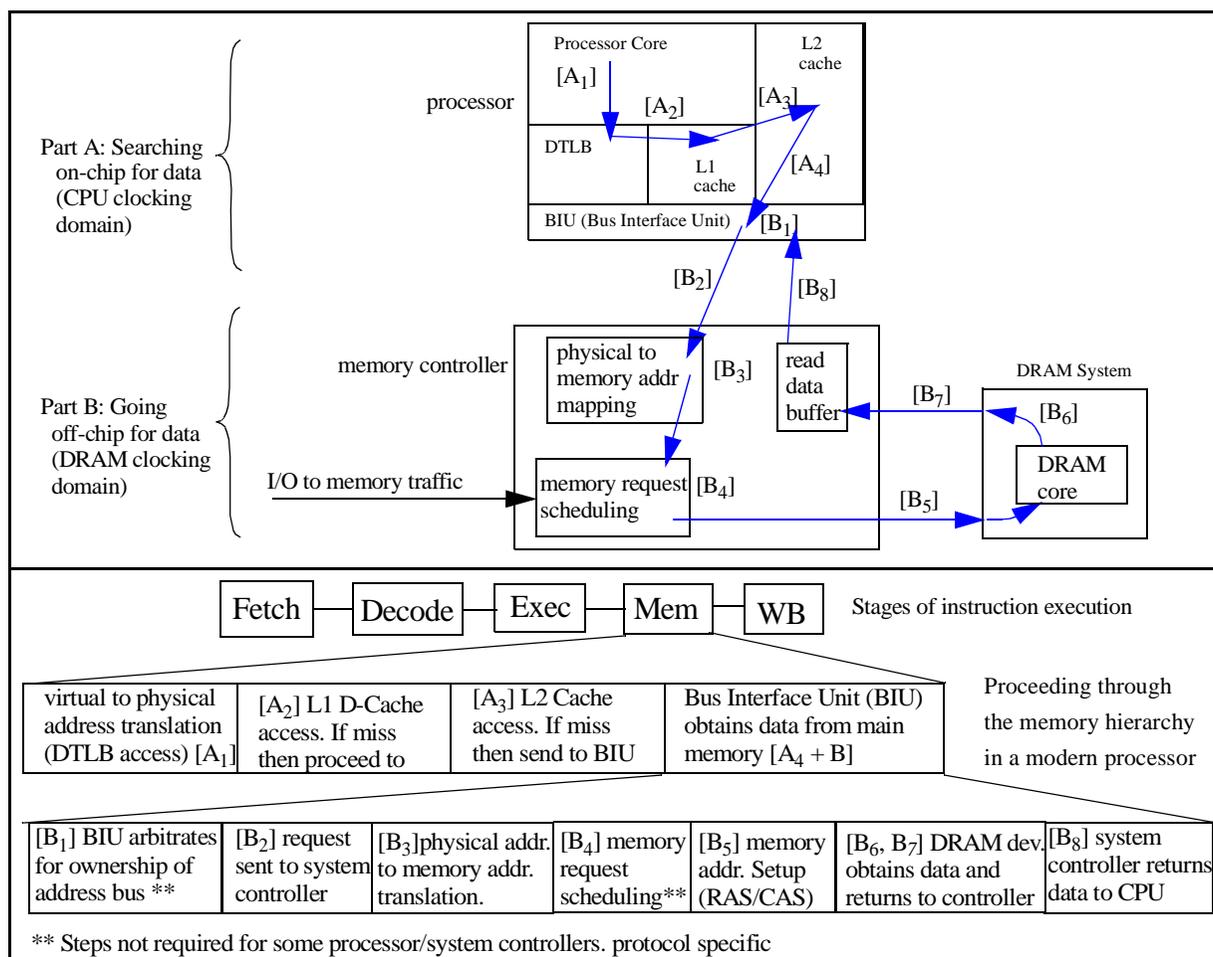


# University of Maryland Memory System Simulator Manual

## I. INTRODUCTION

The simulated memory system described in this manual consists of a bus interface unit (BIU), one or more transaction driven memory controllers, and one or more command driven memory systems. This documentation has been prepared to familiarize the user to the terminology used in the design of the memory system, and provide a brief explanation of the basic assumptions of the simulated memory system as well as the simulation framework.

Figure 1 shows the system topology of the simulated processor-memory system. Three distinct and separate



**Fig. 1: Abstract Illustration of a Load Instruction in a Processor-Memory System**

entities that interact in the life of a memory transaction request: are assumed in this framework: processor(s), memory controller(s), and DRAM memory system(s). Each of these three distinct and separate entities is assumed to be an independently clocked synchronous state machine that operates in separate clocking domains. In the current implementation of the simulation framework, there are only two clocking domains: the CPU clock domain and the DRAM memory system clock domain. {FB-DIMM memory systems excepted} The simulation framework assumes

that the DRAM memory system as well as the memory controller operate in the DRAM memory system clock domain, and the CPU operates in the CPU clock domain. This assumption holds true for legacy systems with separate memory controllers, while newer systems where the memory controllers is integrated into the CPU core the assumption may be reversed. In such a system, the memory controller is assumed to operate in the same clocking domain as the CPU. A more generalized model would operate the three separate entities as three independent clock domains, then the frequency of each clock domain may be set separately, and the model may be altered as necessary. However, at this time we believe that such an implementation would be unnecessarily complex, and decreases simulation speed for minimal increase in the system simulation model flexibility and accuracy.

## II. BUS INTERFACE UNIT

The memory system's basic assumptions about the processor is illustrated in figure 2. In essence, the memory

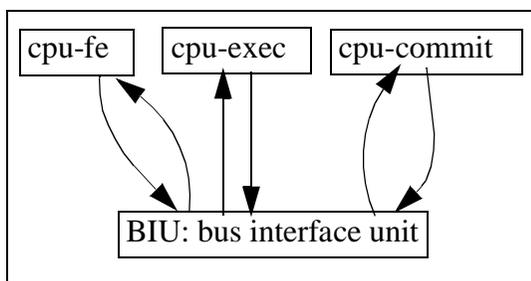


Fig. 2a: Bus Interface of Simulated CPU

status	rid	start_time	address	access_type
Valid	0	54	0xXXXXX	I Fetch
Invalid	-1	---	---	---
Valid	-1	14	0xXXXXX	D Write
Valid	0	36	0xXXXXX	D Read
Invalid	-1	---	---	---
Invalid	-1	---	---	---

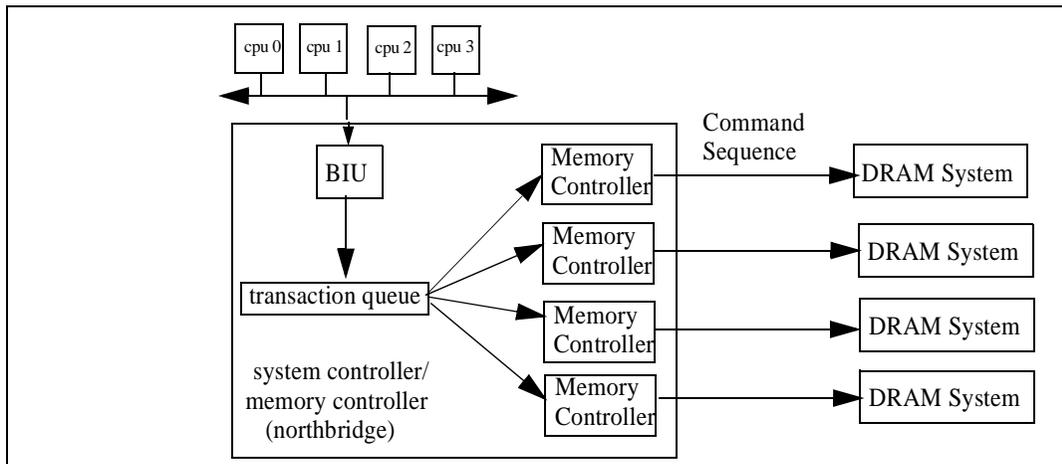
Fig. 2b: Bus Interface Unit Data Structure

system assume an out of order execution core where different portions of the processor can all generate memory requests. The simulator assume that each request is tagged with a request id (rid), so that when the memory callback function is invoked, the callback function would be able to uniquely identify the functional unit that had generated the request and also identify the specific pending operation by the request id. The simulator assumes that each functional unit can sustain more than one memory transaction miss at a given instance in time, and the memory transaction may be returned out of order by the memory system. We assume that the life of a memory transaction request begins when a requesting functional unit generates a DRAM memory request. The requesting unit begins this process by attempting to place the request into a slot in the *bus interface unit* (BIU)<sup>1</sup>. In the simulation framework, the BIU is a data structure with multiple entires/slots, and the entires/slots in the BIU do not have any assumed ordering. If there is a free slot available, then the request will be successfully placed into the bus interface unit, and the status MEM\_UNKNOWN will be returned to the requesting functional unit, and the memory system will return the latency of the request at a later time. If all of the slots have been filled, and no free slot is available, then MEM\_RETRY will be returned to the requesting functional unit, and the functional unit must retry the request at a later time to see if a memory slot has become available at the later time.

1. The BIU has the functional equivalence to MSHR's in this simulator

### III. SYSTEM CONTROLLER

In figure 3, we show a generalized system controller that supports multiple processors. The simulation of the



**Fig. 3: Transaction Queue and Memory Controller(s) System Architecture**

system controller begins with the selection of a memory transaction from the BIU to the transaction queue. The transaction queue then takes the memory transaction and maps the physical address of the transaction to the memory address in terms of channel ID, rank ID, bank ID, row ID and column ID via an *address mapping scheme*. Then, depending on the *row-buffer management policy* used by the system, a sequence of DRAM commands are generated for each memory transaction.

The simulated memory system supports multiple memory controllers, each of which can independently control a logical channel of memory. Each logical channel may contain multiple physical channels of memory. As an example, each Alpha EV7 processor contains 2 logical channels of memory, each channel of memory consists of 4 physical channels of Direct RDRAM. The way to simulate such a system in our simulator is to specify the channel count as “2”, and the channel width as “8” (unit is in bytes).

#### A. THE TRANSACTION QUEUE AND THE TRANSACTION ORDERING POLICY

In the memory system simulator, the simulation begins when the system controller goes to the BIU to select a request for processing. After the appropriate BIU entry(slot) has been selected, the status of the BIU entry is marked as SCHEDULED, then a memory transaction is created in the memory transaction queue. Unlike the BIU, the memory transaction queue is nominally implemented as an in-order queue, where DRAM commands of an earlier memory transaction are given higher priority than DRAM commands from later transactions. The selection of the memory request from the BIU into the transaction queue is referred to as the *transaction ordering policy*. Since the transaction queue is an in-order queue, the *transaction ordering policy* that selects which request is to be serviced is of great importance to determine the bandwidth and latency characteristics of DRAM memory systems. In this simulation framework, four transaction ordering policies are supported: *First Come First Serve* (FCFS), *Read or Instruction Fetch First* (RIFF), *Bank Round Robin* (BRR), and *Command Pair Rank Hopping* (CPRH).

## B. ROW BUFFER MANAGEMENT POLICY

Modern memory controllers typically deploy one of two policies to manage operations of the sense amplifiers. Since a DRAM access is essentially a two step process, in cases where the memory access sequence has a high degree of spatial locality, it would be favorable to direct the memory access sequences to the same row of memory. The *Open Page* row buffer management policy is designed to favor memory accesses to the same row of memory by keeping sense amplifiers open and holding an entire row of data for ready access. In contrast, the *Close Page* row buffer management policy is designed to favor random accesses to different rows of memory. Different row buffer management policies exist, including dynamic row buffer management policies that use timers to keep pages open for a limited period of time before closing. However, dynamic row buffer management policies and other alternative row buffer management policies are typically derivatives of either the close page or open page policies. For the sake of simplicity, the discussion and examination in this text is limited to the open page and closed page policies.

In the *Open Page* row buffer management policy, the primary assumption is that once a row of data is brought to the array of sense amplifiers, different parts of the same row may be accessed again in the near future. Under this assumption, after a column access is performed, the sense amplifiers are kept active and the entire row of data is buffered to await another memory access to the same row. In the case another access is made to the same row, that memory access could occur with the minimal latency of  $t_{CAS}$ , since the row is already active in the sense amplifiers. However, in the case that the access is to a different row of the same bank, the memory controller would have to first precharge the DRAM array, perform another row access, then perform the column access. The minimal latency to access data in this case is  $t_{RP} + t_{RCD} + t_{CAS}$ .

In the *Close Page* row buffer management policy, the primary assumption is that there is limited spatial locality in the memory access pattern, and as soon as a data has been obtained via a column access, the DRAM array and sense amplifiers are precharged in preparation for another memory access to a different row of memory.

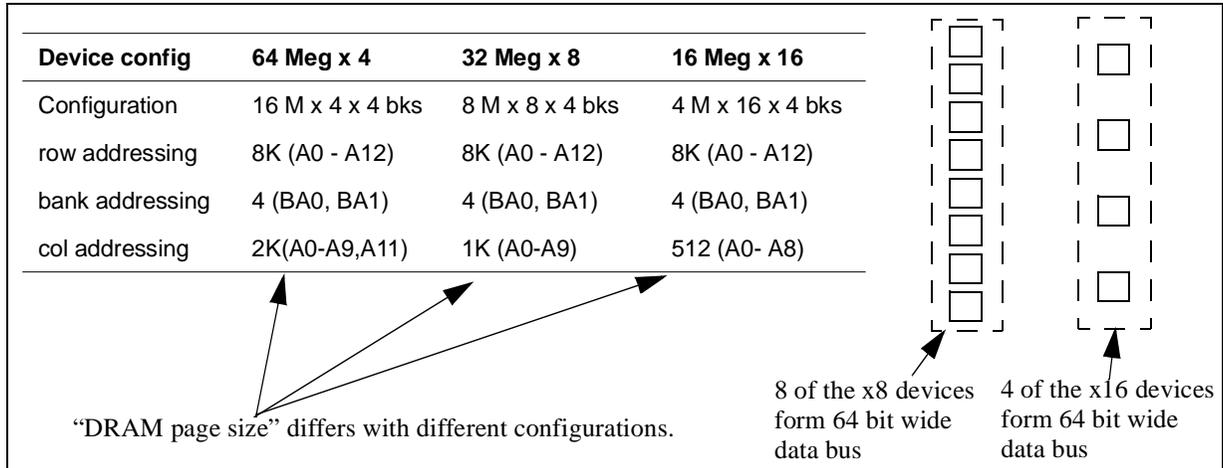
## C. ADDRESS MAPPING

In a memory system, before data can be read from or written to a memory location, the physical address given by the CPU has to be translated into memory addresses in the form of channel ID, rank ID, bank ID, row ID, and column ID. In a memory system that implements the open page row buffer management policy, the role of the address mapping scheme is to optimize the temporal and spatial locality of the address request stream and direct memory accesses to an open DRAM row (bank) and minimize DRAM bank conflicts. However, in a memory system that implements the close-page row-buffer management policy, the goal of the address mapping scheme is to minimize temporal and spatial locality to any given bank and instead distribute memory accesses throughout different banks in the memory system. In this manner, the DRAM memory system can avoid memory accesses to the same bank of memory and instead focus on transaction and DRAM command ordering algorithms that rotates through all available DRAM banks to achieve maximum DRAM bandwidth.

Address mapping scheme depends not only on the row buffer management policy, but also the configuration of the DRAM memory system as well as the expandability/non-expandability of the memory system. For example,

depending on design, the channel ID or rank ID can be mapped to the low order address bit to obtain the most bank parallelism, but in memory systems that allow end users to flexibly configure the memory system by adding more ranks or changing channel configurations, the channel ID and rank ID's are typically mapped to the high order address bits.

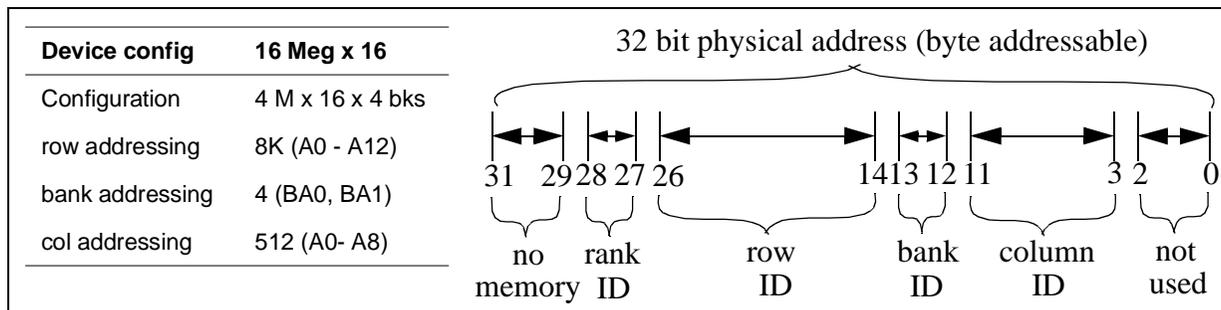
.Figure 4 demonstrates the device configuration of a specific 256 Mbit SDRAM device. Figure 4 shows that a



**Fig. 4: Different Configurations of a 256 Mbit DRAM device**

256 Mbit SDRAM device may be shipped in one of three different configurations: 64 Mbit x 4, 32 Mbit x 8, and 16 Mbit x 16. Basically, the same 256 Mbit device could contain 64 million uniquely addressable locations with each location being 4 bit wide, 32 million uniquely addressable 8 bit wide locations, or 16 million uniquely addressable 16 bit wide locations. However, many modern memory systems use 64 bit wide data busses, so in this case, multiple DRAM devices are then combined to form the 64 bit wide data bus. The effect of these different configurations is that there are different numbers of columns per “DRAM page” for each configuration.

Due to the variable sizes and configuration of the memory devices used in memory systems, address mapping differs with each configuration. One difficulty related to the precise definition of an address mapping scheme is that in a memory system with differently configured memory modules, the mapping scheme must differ from module to module. In figure 5, one memory address mapping scheme with 256 Mbit SDRAM devices and uniform configuration of the memory system is assumed. In this figure there are 4 ranks of memory modules, each module formed from 16 bit wide 256 Mbit SDRAM devices. In this configuration, the 16 bit wide Mbit devices use 9 bits for column addressing, 2 bits to



**Fig. 5: Open Page Address Mapping Scheme of a 512 MB system with 256 Mbit DRAM devices**

address 4 different banks, 13 bits to address 8192 rows, and 2 bits to address 4 ranks of memory. Altogether, 29 bits of physical address is used here to address 512 Megabyte of memory. The address mapping policy illustrated in figure 5 is optimized for an open page memory system, since the column ID's are mapped to the lowest order bits, and multiple accesses to the same array of memory would most likely be mapped to different columns within the saw row and same bank of DRAM devices. Alternative memory address mapping schemes may achieve a higher degrees of performance depending on the configuration and row buffer management policy. Finally, the memory addressing scheme presented in figure 5 is specified for a single channel of memory. Multi-channel memory require an address mapping policy that can adequately distribute the memory accesses to different channels.

#### D. BASIC TIMING PARAMETERS

In any DRAM memory-access protocol, a set of timing parameters is used to characterize various command durations and latencies. Although the exacting description of a full and complete protocol requires the use of tens of different timing parameters, a generic protocol can be well described with a subset of the timing parameters. The timing parameters used in the simulation framework are summarized in table 1

Parameter	Description	Illust.
$t_{Burst}$	Data <b>Burst</b> duration. Time period that data burst occupies on the data bus. Typically 4 or 8 beats of data. In DDR SDRAM, 4 beats of data occupies 2 full cycles. Also known as $t_{BL}$ .	figure 7
$t_{CAS}$	<b>Column Access Strobe</b> latency. Time interval between column access command and data return by DRAM device(s). Also known as $t_{CL}$ .	figure 7
$t_{CMD}$	<b>Command</b> transport duration. Time period that a command occupies on the command bus as it is transported from the DRAM controller to the DRAM devices.	figure 6
$t_{CWD}$	<b>Column Write Delay</b> . Time interval between issuance of column write command and placement of data on data bus by the DRAM controller.	figure 7
$t_{DQS}$	<b>Data Strobe</b> turnaround. Used in DDR and DDR2 SDRAM memory systems. Not used in SDRAM or Direct RDRAM memory systems. 1 full cycle in DDR SDRAM systems.	figure 12
$t_{FAW}$	<b>Four bank Activation Window</b> . A rolling time frame in which a maximum of four bank activation may be engaged. Limits peak current profile.	figure 15
$t_{RAS}$	<b>Row Access Strobe</b> . Time interval between row access command and data restoration in DRAM array. After $t_{RAS}$ , DRAM bank could be precharged.	figure 6
$t_{RC}$	<b>Row Cycle</b> . Time interval between accesses to different rows in same bank $t_{RC} = t_{RAS} + t_{RP}$	figure 7
$t_{RCD}$	<b>Row to Column command Delay</b> . Time interval between row access command and data ready at sense amplifiers.	figure 6
$t_{RFC}$	<b>Refresh Cycle</b> . Time between refresh commands or refresh command and row activation.	figure 10
$t_{RRD}$	<b>Row activation to Row activation Delay</b> . Minimum time interval between two row activation commands to same DRAM device. Limits peak current profile.	figure 14
$t_{RP}$	<b>Row Precharge</b> . Time interval that it takes for a DRAM array to be precharged and readied for another row access.	figure 9
$t_{WR}$	<b>Write Recovery</b> time. Minimum time interval between end of write data burst and the start of a precharge command. Allows sense amplifiers to restore data to cells	figure 8

Table 1: Summary of DRAM Timing Parameters

## E. BASIC DRAM COMMANDS

In this section, five basic DRAM commands are described: row access command, column read command, column write command, precharge command, and the refresh command. The descriptions of the basic commands form the foundation of accurate and flexible simulation of DRAM memory systems.

### ROW ACCESS COMMAND

In DRAM memory systems, data must be retrieved from DRAM cells and resolved into digital values by an array of sense amplifiers before it can be accessed by the DRAM controller. The array of sense amplifiers is also known as the row buffer because a row access command moves an entire row of data from the DRAM cells into the array of sense amplifiers. DRAM memory systems accomplish this movement of data by issuing a row access command, also known as a row activation command. Figure 6 illustrates the progression of a generic row access command. A row access

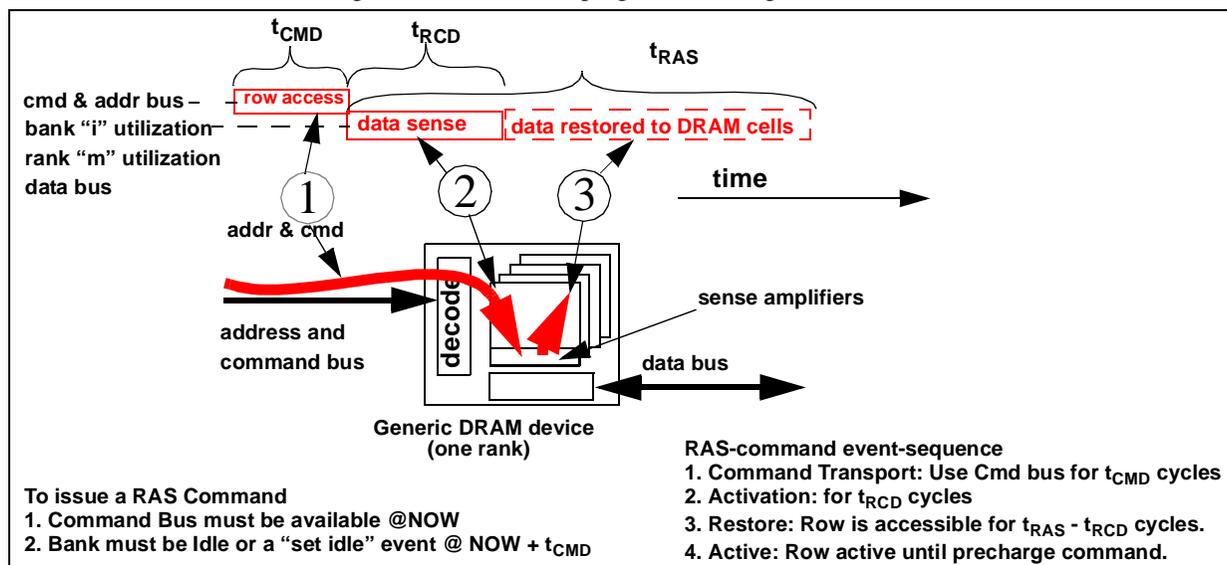


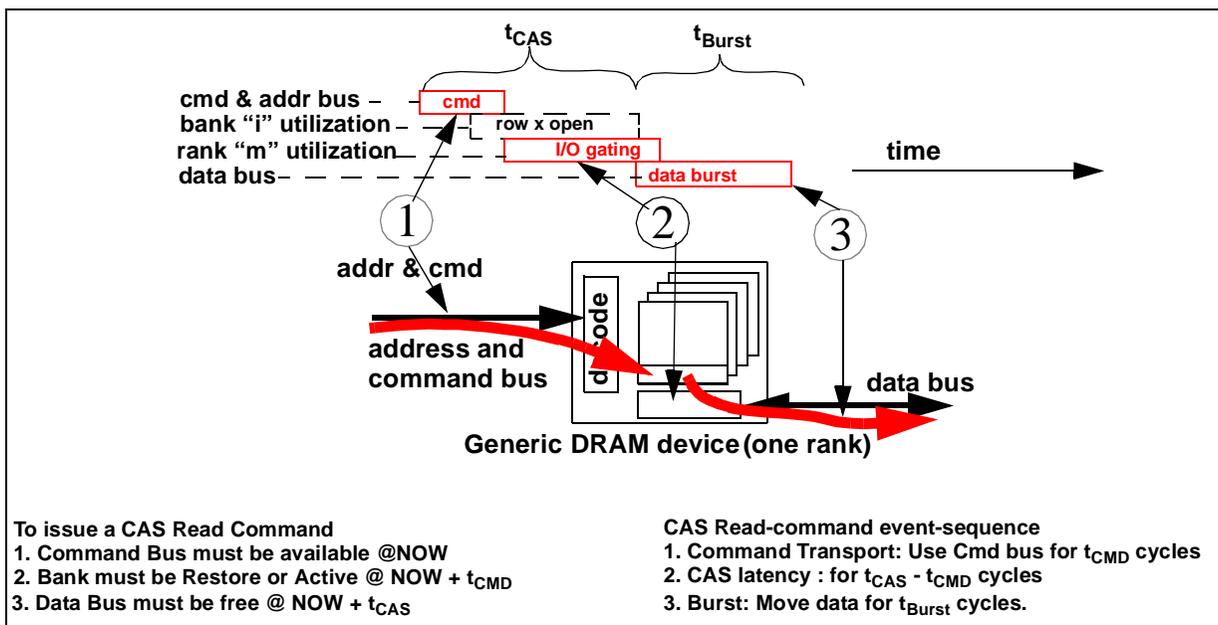
Fig. 6: Row Access Command Illustrated

command only moves data internally within a given bank, and it does not make use of I/O gating resources, nor does it make use of the data bus to move data between the DRAM controller and DRAM devices.

Two timing parameters are associated with the row access command:  $t_{RCD}$  and  $t_{RAS}$ . One timing parameter associated with the row access command is the row column delay, labelled as  $t_{RCD}$  in figure 6. The row column delay measures the time it takes for the row access command to move data from the DRAM cell arrays to the sense amplifiers. After  $t_{RCD}$ , the sense amplifiers has completed the task of resolving the electronic charges stored in DRAM cells into digital values. At this point, one or more column access commands could retrieve data from the sense amplifiers and move it through the data bus to the memory controller or store data from the memory controller into the sense amplifiers. However, the act of reading data discharges the DRAM storage cells and the data needs to be restored from the sense amplifiers back into the DRAM storage cells. The row access strobe latency,  $t_{RAS}$ , describes the time duration between activation of a row and restoration of data into DRAM cell arrays. Essentially, a precharge command to prepare the sense amplifiers for another row access command cannot be issued until minimally  $t_{RAS}$  after the previous row access command.

**COLUMN READ COMMAND**

In DRAM memory systems, once data has been moved into the array of sense amplifiers, it can then be accessed by the DRAM controller through one or more column read commands or column write commands. The purpose of a column read command is to move a subset of the row of data from the array of sense amplifiers through the shared data bus back to the memory controller. There are two timing parameters associated with a column read command,  $t_{CAS}$  and  $t_{Burst}$ . The time it takes for the column read command to be issued and for the DRAM device to place the requested data onto the data bus is known as the column access strobe<sup>1</sup> latency,  $t_{CAS}$ <sup>2</sup>. After  $t_{CAS}$ , the requested data is moved onto the data bus then into the memory controller. Modern DRAM memory systems move data in relatively short bursts, usually occupying 4 or 8 beats on the data bus. The duration of the data burst is simply  $t_{Burst}$ <sup>3</sup>. Figure 7 illustrates the



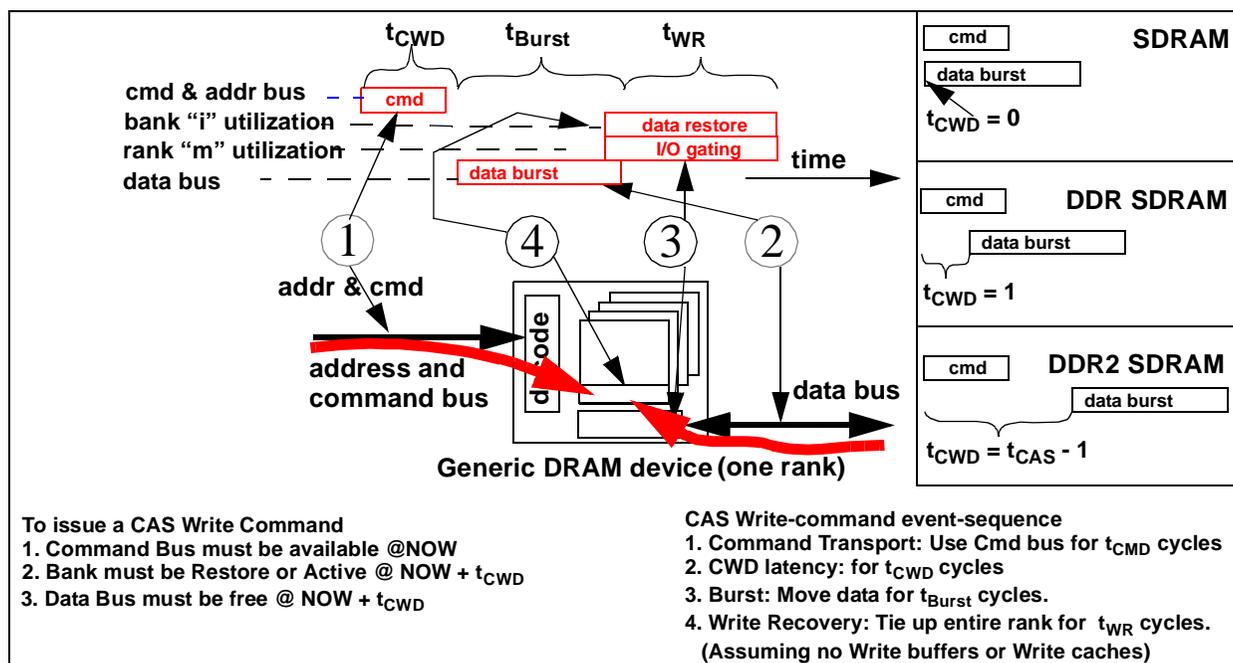
**Fig. 7: Column Read Command**

progression of a column read command and shows that the column read command goes through three basic phases. In phase one, the command is transported on the address and command busses then latched and decoded by the DRAM devices. In phase two, the appropriate columns of data is retrieved from the sense amplifier array of the selected bank and moved through the I/O gating structures and readied for transport across the data bus. In phase three, the data flows through the I/O gating and out to the data bus, occupying the data bus for the time duration of  $t_{Burst}$ . One basic assumption of the column read command illustrated in figure 7 is that before the I/O gating phase of the command can proceed, the accessed DRAM bank must be open to the selected row, labelled as row x in figure 7. That is,  $t_{RCD}$  time must have passed since the row access command was issued to the selected row x before the column read command can be issued.

1. The column access strobe signal also no longer exists in modern DRAM systems, but the terminology remains.  
 2. Sometimes referred to as  $t_{CL}$ , or Cas Latency.  
 3. Sometimes referred to as  $t_{BL}$ .

**COLUMN WRITE COMMAND**

In DRAM memory systems, once a row of data has been moved to the sense amplifiers, write commands can be issued to overwrite data in the array of sense amplifiers. The array of sense amplifiers then seamlessly restores the new data values back into the DRAM cells<sup>1</sup>. From the perspective of the memory access protocol, the column write command goes through a similar same set of operations as the column read command. However, the primary difference between a column read command and a column write command is that the direction of data movement is opposite to each other, and the column write command has one additional phase that accounts for the time that the column write command overwrites data from the sense amplifiers into the DRAM cells. Moreover, unlike the timing of the column read command, the timing of the command transport phase with respect to the data transport phase in a column write command is defined differently for different DRAM memory systems. Figure 8 illustrates the progression of a column



**Fig. 8: Column Write Command in SDRAM, DDR SDRAM and DDR2 SDRAM**

write command through four phases. In figure 8, phase one shows that the column address and column write command is placed on the address and command bus. In phase two, the data is placed on the data bus by the memory controller. In phase three the data flows through the I/O gating structures to the array of sense amplifiers. Finally, in phase four, the sense amplifiers in the selected bank overwrites data in the DRAM cells with the newly received data.

One timing parameters associated with a column write command is  $t_{CWD}$ , column write delay<sup>2</sup>. Column write delay defines the time it takes for the column write command to be issued and data placed onto the data bus by the DRAM controller. Figure 8 shows that in SDRAM memory system, the command, address and data is placed on the respective busses in the same cycle. In this manner,  $t_{CWD}$  is zero cycles in duration. In DDR SDRAM memory system, data for the write command is placed on the data bus one full cycle after the command and address is placed on the command and

1. Some DRAM devices with write buffers operate in a slightly different manner. The analysis here assumes no write buffer.  
 2. Sometimes referred to as command write delay.

address busses, so  $t_{CWD}$  is defined as one full cycle. Finally, in DDR2 SDRAM memory system, the write delay is one full cycle less than  $t_{CAS}$ . The definition of write delay to match the read latency simplifies DRAM command scheduling in a DDR2 SDRAM memory system<sup>1</sup>.

Figure 8 also illustrates  $t_{WR}$ , the write recovery time. The write recovery time denotes the time between the end of the data burst and the completion of the movement of data into the DRAM arrays. The movement of data into the DRAM arrays in this time period means that in case of a bank conflict with the next DRAM request, the precharge command to prepare the array of sense amplifiers for another row access cannot begin until the write recovery time for the current write command has been satisfied.

### PRECHARGE COMMAND

DRAM device data access is a two step process. A row access command moves an entire row of data from the DRAM cells to the array of sense amplifiers. The data remains in the array of sense amplifiers for one or more column access commands to move data to and from the DRAM devices to the DRAM controller. In this framework, a precharge command completes the sequence as it resets the array of sense amplifiers and the bitlines to a preset voltage, and prepares the sense amplifiers for another row access command. Figure 9 illustrates the progression of a precharge

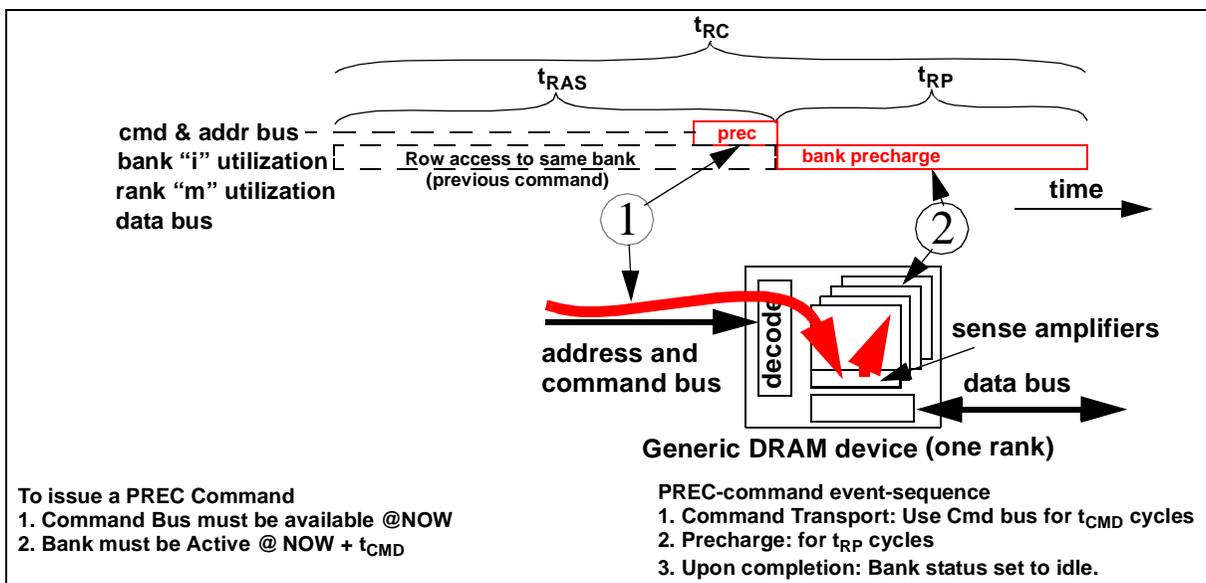


Fig. 9: Row Precharge Command Illustrated

command. Figure 9 shows that in the first phase, the precharge command is sent to the DRAM device, and in phase two, the array of sense amplifiers in the selected bank is precharged to the preset voltage.

1. One more difference between a read command and a write command is that the data are offset in different clock phases in SDRAM, DDR SDRAM and DDR2 SDRAM memory systems. However, the difference in clock phases may be masked by the use of the  $t_{DQS}$  timing parameter to illustrate the overhead in data bus turn around time. One issue that result from this difference is that column write delay defined as equal to column access latency provides no benefit to the scheduling algorithms, because the overhead of  $t_{DQS}$  would have to be inserted in the protocol to denote the data bus turnaround time. As a result, the difference in the relative clock phases of read and write data bursts may be abstracted out, and it has no impact in the description of the abstract DRAM access protocol.

The timing parameter associated with the precharge command is the row precharge duration,  $t_{RP}$ . The row precharge duration describes the length of time the DRAM devices utilizes to precharge the bitlines and the sense amplifiers. Figure 9 shows that a precharge command cannot be issued to the DRAM device until minimally  $t_{RAS}$  time period after the previous row access command to the same bank. Collectively, the sum of  $t_{RAS}$  and  $t_{RP}$  forms  $t_{RC}$ , the row cycle time. The row cycle time of a given DRAM device measures the speed at which a DRAM device could bring data from the DRAM cell arrays into the sense amplifiers, restore the data values back into the DRAM cells, then precharge the bitlines and sense amplifiers back to the reference voltage level and made ready for another row access command. The row cycle time is the fundamental limitation to the speed at which data may be retrieved from different rows of a given DRAM bank.

**REFRESH COMMAND AND TIMING**

In DRAM devices, data is stored in the form of electrical charges in DRAM cells. The DRAM cells are composed of a storage capacitor and an access transistor. With the passage of time, the electrical charges stored in the capacitor gradually leaks through the access transistor. A low level of charge leakage is acceptable as long as the remaining electrical charge will still resolve to the correct digital values. However, without intervention, electrical charge leakage eventually leads to a state where the stored digital values can no longer be correctly resolved by the sense amplifiers. As a result, data held in DRAM cells must be periodically read out to the sense amplifiers and restored with full electrical charge levels back into DRAM cells. As long as DRAM cells are periodically refreshed before the levels of electrical charges deteriorate to indistinguishable values, DRAM refresh cycles can be used to overcome leaky DRAM cells and ensure data integrity. The drawback to any refresh mechanism is that refresh commands constitute an overhead in terms of utilizable bandwidth and additional power consumption by DRAM devices.

There are multitudes of DRAM refresh strategies designed to minimize peak power consumption or maximize available device bandwidth. Figure 10 illustrates a basic refresh command that allows the DRAM controller to send a

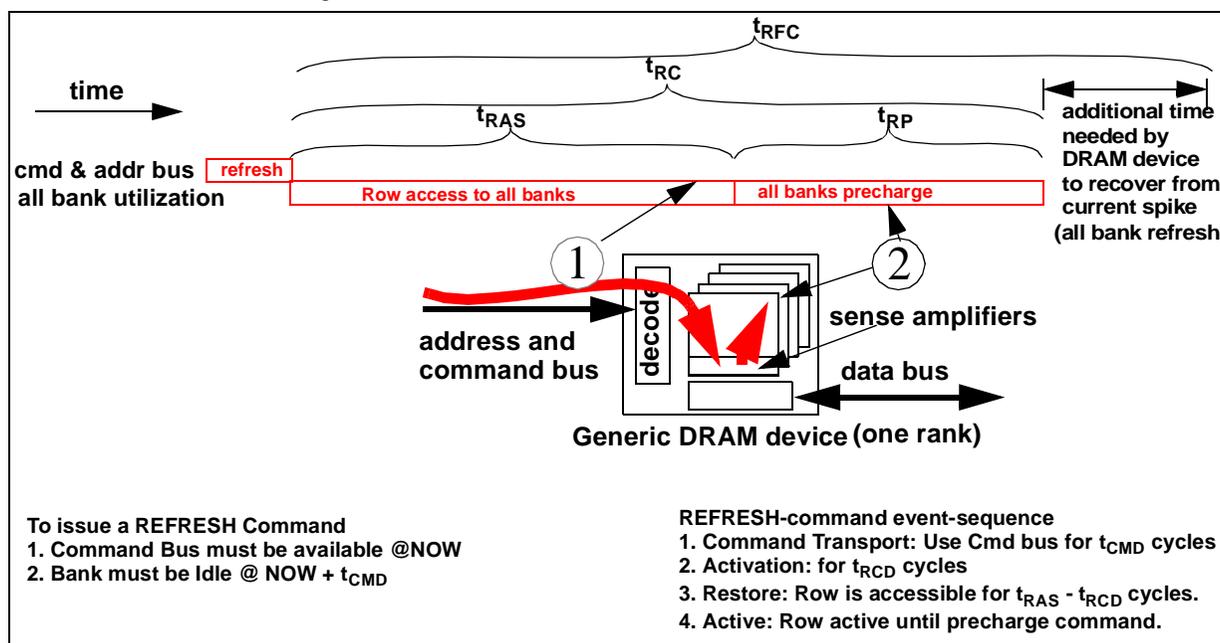


Fig. 10: Refresh Command Illustrated

single refresh command to a DRAM device, and the device takes the address of the row to be refreshed from an internal register, sends the same row address to all banks in the device concurrently, each bank then brings a row of data into the sense amplifiers, resolves the stored electrical charges to full voltage levels, restores the data back into DRAM cells, and precharges the DRAM array to ready it for another row access. This single, basic refresh command to all banks takes one row refresh cycle time,  $t_{RFC}$ , to complete. The reason that  $t_{RFC}$  is longer than  $t_{RC}$  is due to the fact that the bank-concurrent refresh command draws a lot of current, and it takes longer than  $t_{RC}$  for the DRAM device to recover from the current spike. In many modern DRAM memory systems, the memory controller would inject one row refresh command per row in a bank every 32 or 64 milliseconds. Depending on the design and refresh policy, refresh commands could be issued consecutively or opportunistically, one at a time.

#### F. DRAM COMMAND SCHEDULING IN MULTI-RANK SYSTEM

Figure 11, illustrates the topology of a DDRx SDRAM memory system. DDRx SDRAM memory systems use

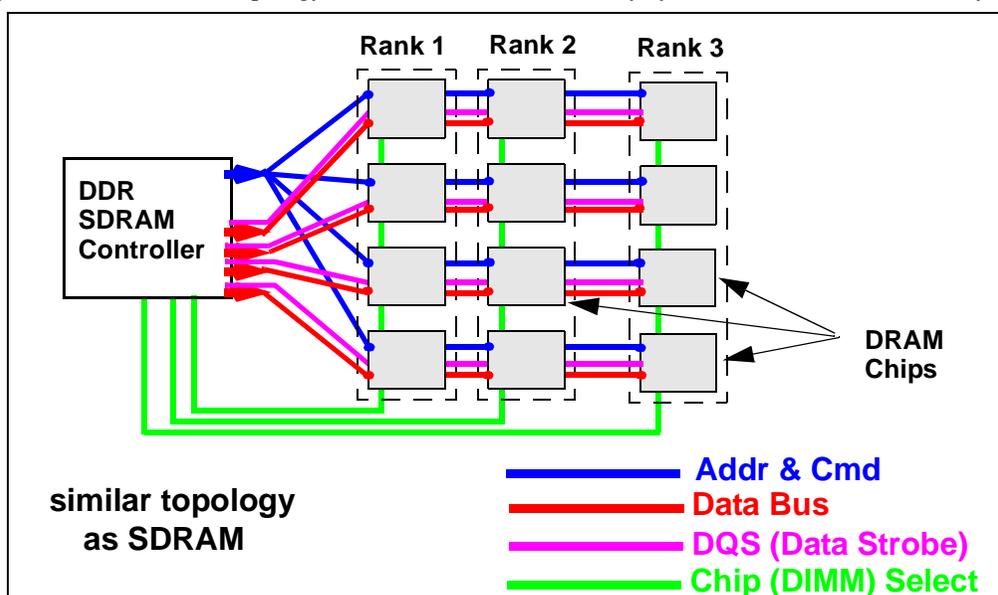


Fig. 11: DDRx SDRAM Memory System Topology

source synchronous data reference strobe signals to ensure proper timing on the data bus. However, the use of the source synchronous data strobe signal creates problems in scheduling column access commands between different rank in DDRx SDRAM memory systems.

Figure 12 illustrates the timing and command sequence of two consecutive read commands to different ranks of

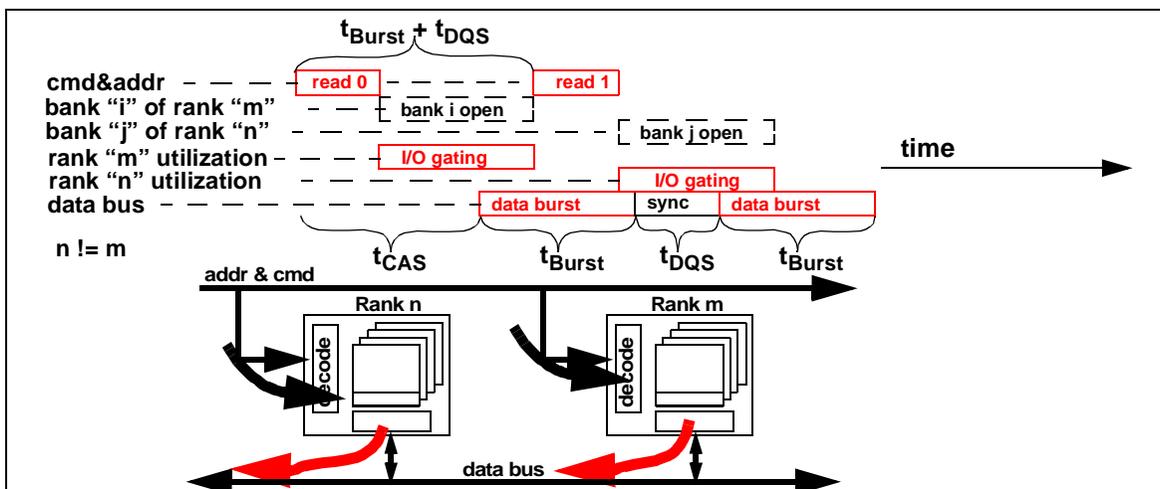


Fig. 12: Consecutive Read Command to Different Ranks

DRAM devices in a memory system that uses a data strobe to synchronize timing on the data bus. In figure 12, the rank switching penalty is labelled as  $t_{DQS}$ , the read-write data strobe re-synchronization time. For relatively low frequency SDRAM memory system, data synchronization strobes are not used and  $t_{DQS}$  is zero. For Direct RDRAM memory system, the use of the topology matched source synchronous clocking scheme obviates the need separate strobe signals, and  $t_{DQS}$  is also zero. However, for DDRx SDRAM memory systems, the use of the data strobe signal means that the  $t_{DQS}$  data strobe re-synchronization penalty for read bursts between different ranks requires at least one full clock cycle.

### G. ADDITIONAL CONSTRAINTS: POWER

Numerous constraints exist in modern DRAM memory systems that limits bandwidth utilization of the DRAM device. One such constraint is related to the power consumption of DRAM devices. With continuing emphasis placed on memory system performance, DRAM manufacturers are expected to push for ever higher data transfer rates in each successive generation of DRAM devices. However, just as increasing operating frequencies lead to higher activity rates and higher power consumption in modern processors, increasing data rates for DRAM devices also increase the potential for higher activity rates and higher power consumptions on DRAM devices. One solution deployed to limited the power consumption of DRAM devices is to constrain the activity rate of DRAM devices. However, constraints on the activity rate of DRAM devices in turn limit the capability of DRAM devices to move data, and further limits the performance capability of DRAM memory systems.

In modern DRAM devices, each time a row is activated, thousands of bits are discharged, sensed, then recharged in parallel. As a result, the row activation command is a relatively energy intensive operation. Figure 13 shows the current

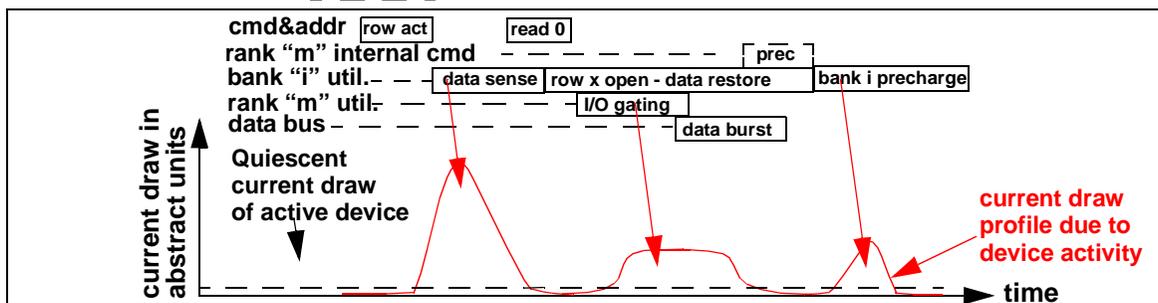


Fig. 13: Current Profile of a DRAM Read Cycle

profile of a DRAM read cycle. Figure 13 shows that an active DRAM device draws a relatively constant current level. The DRAM device then draws additional current for each activity on the DRAM device. The total current draw of the DRAM device is simply the summation of the quiescent current draw and the current draw of each activity on the DRAM device.

### H. $t_{RRD}$ : ROW (ACTIVATION) TO ROW (ACTIVATION) DELAY

In DDR2 SDRAM devices, the timing parameter  $t_{RRD}$  has been defined to specify the minimum time period between row activations on the same DRAM device. In the present context, the acronym RRD stands for row-to-row activation delay. The timing parameter  $t_{RRD}$  is specified in terms of nanoseconds, and figure 14 shows that by

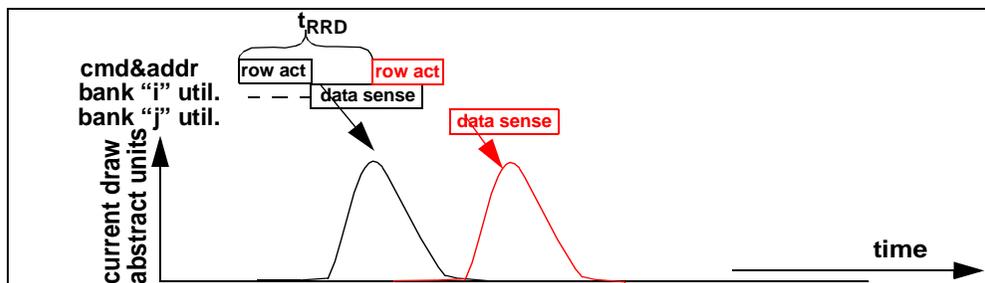


Fig. 14: Row to Row Activation Limited by  $t_{RRD}$

specifying  $t_{RRD}$  in terms of nanoseconds instead of number of cycles, a minimum spacing between row activation is maintained regardless of operating datarates. For memory systems that implement the close page row buffer management policy,  $t_{RRD}$  effectively limits the maximum sustainable bandwidth of a memory system with a single rank of memory<sup>1</sup>.

### I. $t_{FAW}$ : FOUR BANK ACTIVATION WINDOW

In DDR2 SDRAM devices, the timing parameter  $t_{FAW}$  has been defined to specify a rolling time frame in which a maximum of four row activations on the same DRAM device may be engaged concurrently. The acronym FAW stands for Four bank Activation Window. Figure 15 shows a sequence of row activation requests to different banks on the same

1. In a memory system with 2 or more ranks of memory, consecutive row activation commands may be directed to different ranks.

DDR2 SDRAM device that respects both  $t_{RRD}$  as well as  $t_{FAW}$ . Figure 15 shows that the row activation requests are spaced at least  $t_{RRD}$  apart from each other, and that the fifth row activation to a different bank is deferred until at least  $t_{FAW}$  time period has passed since the first row activation was initiated. For memory systems that implement the close page row buffer management system,  $t_{FAW}$  places additional constraint on the maximum sustainable bandwidth of a memory system with a single rank of memory regardless of operating datarates.

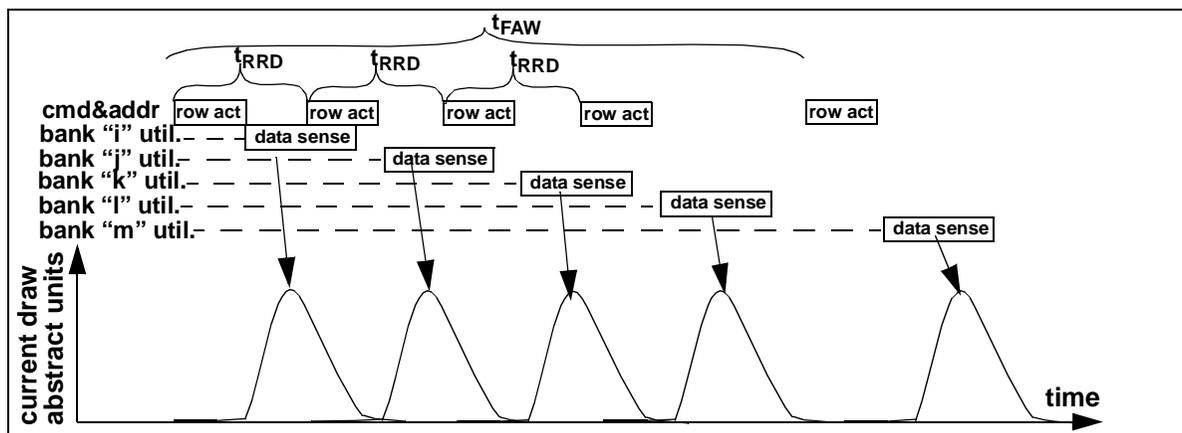


Fig. 15: Maximum of Four Row Activations in any  $t_{FAW}$  time frame

### J. DRAM COMMAND CHAIN

In a DRAM based memory system, each memory transaction is translated into one or more DRAM commands. In this simulation framework, this sequence of DRAM commands is referred to as the DRAM command chain. The difficulty associated with the translation process from a transaction to a DRAM command chain is that the sequence of DRAM commands in the command chain depends on the row buffer management policy as well as on the state of the DRAM memory system. In an open page memory system, a memory transaction may be translated into: a single column access command if the row is already open, a precharge command, a row access command and a column access command if there is a bank conflict, or just a row access command and a column access command if the bank is currently idle.

In a close page memory system, all of the memory transactions translate to a sequence of three DRAM commands that completes a read cycle. Figure 16 illustrates a read cycle in a close-page DDRx SDRAM memory system.

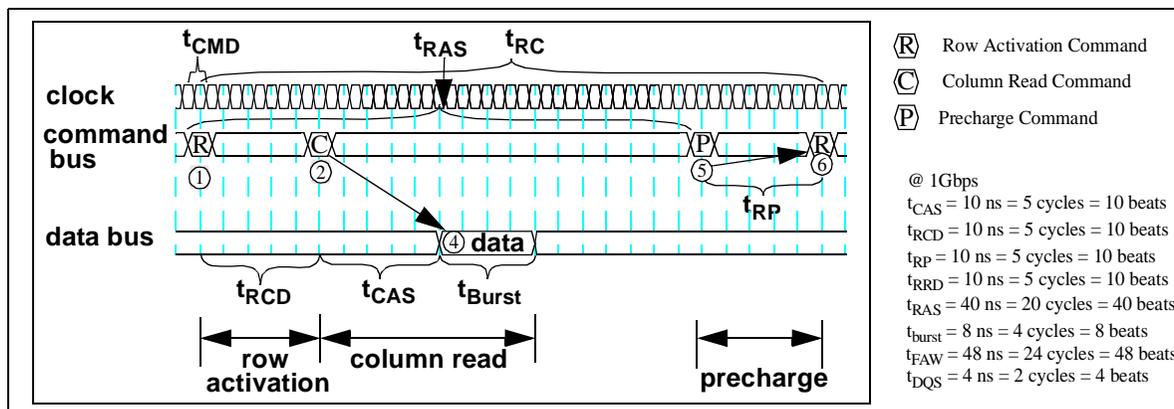


Fig. 16: A Complete "Read Cycle" in DDRx SDRAM Memory System (@ 1 Gbit)

## MASE DRAM User's Guide: DRAM Related Options

This section has been included to provide a summary of available options that is related to the DRAM system enhancement of MASE.

### **-biu:transaction\_ordering\_policy** ?*transaction\_ordering\_policy* ?

*transaction\_ordering\_policy* specifies the ordering policy for selecting and prioritizing memory transactions in moving them from the BIU into the transaction queue. Currently supported transaction ordering policies are First Come First Serve (FCFS), Read or Instruction Fetch First (RIFF) and Bank Round Robin (BRR).

### **-cpu:frequency** ?*cpu\_frequency*?

*cpu\_frequency* specifies the frequency of the CPU core. Since everything is relative, we need to know the frequency of the CPU core so the memory system can have a reference ratio to interact with it. The unit is assumed to be "MHz". A default setting of 2000 MHz is assumed if no options are specified.

### **-dram:type** ?*dram\_type*?

*dram\_type* specifies the type of dram system to be used. "sdram", "ddrsdram", and "drdram" are currently supported options. Future enhancements such as "ddr2" and "ddrfcram" are planned but not yet implemented. A default of "sdram" is assumed if no options are specified.

### **-dram:frequency** ?*dram\_frequency*?

*dram\_frequency* specifies the operating frequency of the memory system. The unit is assumed to be in "MHz". A default setting of 100 MHz is assumed if no options are specified. A PC800 RDRAM memory system should have this option set to 800, and a PC1600 DDR SDRAM memory system should have this option set to 200.

### **-dram:channel\_count** ?*channel\_count*?

*channel\_count* specifies the number of logical channels of DRAM in the memory system. The current implementation of DRAM enhancement for MASE supports one, two, or four logical channel of memory system. The default setting of 1 physical channel is assumed if no options are selected.

### **-dram:channel\_width** ?*channel\_width*?

*channel\_width* specifies the width of the data channel in the memory system on a per channel basis. The units are assumed to be in bytes. To simulate a dual RDRAM channel system with a single memory controller (as in Intel i850), the *channel\_count* switch above should be set to 1 (channel), and the *channel\_width* setting should be set to 32 (bytes).

**-dram:refresh** ?*auto\_refresh\_time\_period*?

*auto\_refresh\_time\_period* specifies the time period which the memory controller will cycle through and refresh all of the rows in a DRAM based memory system. The unit is in milliseconds. The default is set to 0, which is a special case that specifies no refresh simulated. An auto refresh time setting of 10 milliseconds should reduce available bandwidth by about 1 to 5%, depending on the memory system and refresh scheme.

**-dram:row\_buffer\_management\_policy** ?*row\_buffer\_management\_policy*?

*row\_buffer\_management\_policy* specifies the row buffer management policy. Currently available options are “open\_page”, “close\_page”, “perfect\_page”. The default is set to “open\_page”. The open page policy keeps an accessed page open for as long as possible, until a row refresh closes it, or until another row access to the same bank forces that page to be closed. The close page policy closes each page immediately after the column access. The perfect page policy dispenses with row buffer management, and assumes that no refresh or bank conflict conditions will occur. There is an auto page policy that is essentially a delayed close page policy. That policy will have to be set differently with the *auto\_precharge* option.

**-dram:auto\_precharge** ?*auto\_precharge\_clock\_delay*?

*auto\_precharge\_clock\_delay* sets the number of clock cycle that a memory controller will hold a page open until the counter expires. The *auto\_precharge* switch overrides the *row\_buffer\_management\_policy* setting. We recommend a counter setting that is a power of 2.

**-dram:address\_mapping\_policy** ?*address\_mapping\_policy*?

The address mapping policy determines how an address will be broken down to addresses in the memory system by rank, bank, row, and column. Currently supported options are “sdram\_base\_map”, “intel845g\_map”, and “burger\_base\_map”. *sdram\_base\_map* and *intel845g\_map* are to be used for SDRAM and DDRSDRAM memory systems while *burger\_base\_map* is to be used for RDRAM memory systems. The default is “sdram\_base\_map”. simulations with RDRAM should change the mapping policy as well.

**-dram:chipset\_delay** ?*chipset\_delay\_value*?

To simulate the minimum latency through the system controller and memory controller, we implemented *chipset\_delay* in our simulator. The units are in number of DRAM cycles. Since DRDRAM based systems are clocked might higher, please set this delay to a higher value. DDR SDRAM based memory systems should also have this value set to twice that of SDRAM based systems for “equivalent” latency in terms of nanoseconds through the system controller.

**-dram:spd\_input ?input\_filename?**

Since it gets tedious to specify 20 different parameters to specify a memory system, the preferred way to do it with a configuration file. Numerous timing parameters and DRAM system configurations can be specified with a .spd file. A sample .spd file is shown below. Comments are allowed after //  
Sample .spd files are defined under the subdirectory of /mem\_system\_def/

```
// DDR3 1000 memory system.
// Composed of 1 Gbit chips. 2 ranks, each rank has 8 (x8) 1 Gbit chips.
// Total is 2 GB
// Peak Bandwidth is 8 GB/s
//
type          ddr3
datarate      1000
channel_count 1 // Logical channel
channel_width 8 // Byte width
PA_mapping_policy sdram_hiperf_map // Comments are allowed here
rank_count    2
bank_count    8 // 8 banks per chip
row_count     16384
col_count     1048
t_cas         10 // 10ns
t_cmd         2
t_cwd         8
t_dqs         4
t_faw         48
t_ras         40
t_rc          50
t_rcd         10
t_rrd         10
t_rp          10
t_wr          10
posted_cas    FALSE
t_al          8
auto_refresh  FALSE
auto_refresh_policy refresh_one_chan_all_rank_all_bank
refresh_time  64000 //specified in us.
```

**Fig. 17: Sample DRAM Configuration File for 1 Gbit DDR3 SDRAM**

**-debug:biu**

This switch turns on the bus interface debugging feature, and dumps out to stderr for each bus interface unit slot acquisition and release.

**-debug:transaction**

This switch turns on the transaction interface debugging feature, and dumps out to stderr each time a transaction enters into a queue, gets broken down into command sequences or retires.

**-debug:dram**

This switch turns on the memory system debugging feature, and dumps out to stderr each time a command enters into a new phase.

**-debug:all**

This switch turns on biu, transaction and dram memory system debugging all at the same time.

**-debug:wave**

This switch turns on a simple ASCII text based DRAM memory system waveform display.

**-stat:biu *?filename?***

The bus interface unit (BIU) stats file collects latency information for each and every memory transaction. The final result is placed in this file in order. The file output will show one column that represents the number of cpu cycles that it took for a memory access to complete, and the second column represents the number of accesses that incurs the latency.

**-stat:dram:bank\_hit *?output\_filename?***

The bank hit stats file collects information for the number of dram cycles that occur between accesses that hit an open bank.

**-stat:dram:bank\_conflict *?output\_filename?***

The bank conflict stats file collects information for the number of dram cycles that occur between accesses that conflicts on an open bank.

**-stat:dram:cas\_per\_ras *?output\_filename?***

The cas per ras stats file collects data on the number of column read or write commands that gets issued for each row access open bank/page command.