

# An Analog Method to Study the Average Memory Access Time in a Computer System

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**Abstract** - This is an attempt to simulate the concept of average access time of the memory system by using some analog devices (operational amplifiers) whose behaviour is similar to the mathematical operations e.g. summation, integration, differentiation, scaling etc. We can calculate the average access time with this analog method with high speed and high degree of versatility. This paper evaluates the three most common parameters of the Memory system i.e access time of the RAM, access time of Cache memory and the Cache hit ratio. Basically, the voltages in the high-gain dc amplifiers are equated to these three variables and the operational amplifiers can do the mathematical operations on the voltages, although the accuracy of measuring voltage is limited to certain point. The simulation has been done using CircuitMaker.

**Keywords** - Average Memory Access time, Cache Memory and OPAMPs

## I. INTRODUCTION

The Memory system consists of physical memory i.e. Random Access Memory (RAM) and Cache Memory. The average access time of the Memory system depends upon the access time of RAM, Access time of cache memory and the Hit Ratio of the Cache Memory. The basic reason for implementing the cache memory in the computer is to improve the system performance. Every time the CPU accesses memory system, it checks the cache. If the required data is available in the Cache, the CPU accesses data from the Cache, rather than the RAM and this is called as the Cache hit. If the data is not in the Cache, the CPU accesses the data from the RAM and it is referred as Cache miss. The hit ratio is the ratio of number of memory accesses served from the cache to the total number of references to the memory. The more the hit ratio, the more times the CPU accesses the relatively fast cache and the system performance is better. The hit ratio can be determined through system simulation or by manually monitoring system hardware while it is executing code[1]. The average memory access time,  $t_a$ , is the weighted average of the cache access time,  $t_c$ , and the access time for physical memory,  $t_m$ . The weighting factor is the hit ratio,  $h$ . Since the typical access time ratio between the cache and main memory is about 1 to 7[2], increasing the hit ratio reduces the average memory access time. Suppose the access time of the Cache memory (with any of the three organisations viz. Associative, Direct-mapped or Set-Associative) is 100ns and the access time of RAM, is 700ns and the hit ratio, of the cache memory being 0.9.

Thus average access time can be calculated as

$$t_a = (9*100+1*700)/10 = 160ns.$$

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We can rewrite the same calculation as

$$t_a = h*t_c + (1-h)*t_m \tag{1.1}$$

$$= 0.9*100 + (1-0.9)*700 = 160ns$$

The hit ratio varies with the three configurations for particular values of  $t_c$  and  $t_m$ . To illustrate the concept consider a computer system having RAM of 16 bytes (although real RAM's and Cache's are very large; it is just for illustration) and Cache memory of 4 bytes. The access time of RAM,  $t_m = 700ns$  and the access time of Cache,  $t_c = 100ns$ . RAM's address bus should be 4-bits long. Suppose RAM contents of locations 0 to 15 be as follows in Table I.

TABLE I  
CONTENTS OF RANDOM ACCESS MEMORY

Physical Address	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Data	20	40	10	20	30	30	80	40
Physical Address	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Data	20	10	90	20	10	12	14	20

Since the Associative Mapping[9] of Cache memory contains the complete physical address and data at that address in single location of cache, the Cache activity can be shown as in Table II where the first row in the table depicts the physical addresses referred by the CPU and the contents of columns below these referred addresses tell the contents of cache locations 0 to 3 after the address is referred. The last row specifies that Hit operation has happened or not.

TABLE II  
CONTENTS OF ASSOCIATIVE CACHE MEMORY

Physical Addresses	0	1	2	0	10	9	2	6
Cache memory addresses	0	20	20	20	20	20	10	10
	1		40	40	40	40	40	80
	2			10	10	10	10	10
	3					90	90	90
	Hit	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO	NO	YES

So, the hit ratio of Associative Cache = (Number of hits)/(Total Number of addresses referred) = 2/8 = 0.25. Thus, the average memory access time = 0.25\*100 + 0.75\*700 = 550ns.

The Direct-mapped cache memory contains the tag and data in its single location which is determined from the index part of the physical address being referred. This means that two physical locations with different tags and same index cannot be stored in the cache memory at the same time. In the given case, the physical address is 4-bits

long. The cache is having only four locations. So, the index part is 2-bits long(because  $\log_2 4 = 2$ ). So the data value 90 having physical location  $10=(1010)_2$  address ending with the bits 10 will be stored along with the tag part  $(10)_2$  only in cache location  $(10)_2$ . Thus as per the Table III,

The hit ratio of Direct-mapped cache memory =  $1/8 = 0.125$

The average memory access time =  $0.125*100 + 0.775*700 = 543.75\text{ns}$ .

TABLE III  
CONTENTS OF DIRECT CACHE MEMORY

Physical Addresses	0	1	2	0	10	9	2	6
Cache memory addresses	0	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
	1	40	40	40	40	40	10	10
	2		10	10	90	90	10	80
	3							
Hit	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO	NO	NO	NO

Similarly, in Two-way set associative cache two sets of tag and data can be stored in single location of cache. In this two different physical addresses with different tags and same index can be stored in the cache. Thus, as per the Table IV,

The hit ratio of Two-way set associative cache =  $2/8 = 0.25$  and

The average memory access time =  $0.25*100 + 0.75*700 = 550\text{ns}$

TABLE IV  
CONTENTS OF SET-ASSOCIATIVE CACHE MEMORY

Physical Addresses	0	1	2	0	10	9	2	6
Cache Memory addresses	0	20	20	20	90	90	90	90
	0		10	10	10	10	10	80
	1	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
	1					10	10	10
Hit	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO

II. OPERATIONAL AMPLIFIERS

An Operational amplifier (OPAMP as generally called) is the basic element of an analog circuit design. It is a high gain amplifier[4] which has so many applications. The amplifiers can be specified in the terms of gain, input impedance, output impedance, bandwidth, and offset characteristics. These are normally used in amplifier and analog signal processing circuits in frequency band 0 KHz to 100 KHz[3]. The OPAMPs which were first developed were vacuum tube circuits used in analog computers. Now OPAMPs are fabricated as ICs (Integrated chips) which are completely different from the earliest OPAMPs.

The Ideal OPAMP is a three-terminal circuit element that is modeled as voltage-controlled voltage source[7]. The OPAMP electronic circuit diagram and circuit symbol (or analog diagram) can be given as in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2. Its output voltage is a gain multiplied by its input voltage. The input voltage is the difference voltage between the two input terminals. The output voltage is measured w.r.t. the circuit ground node.

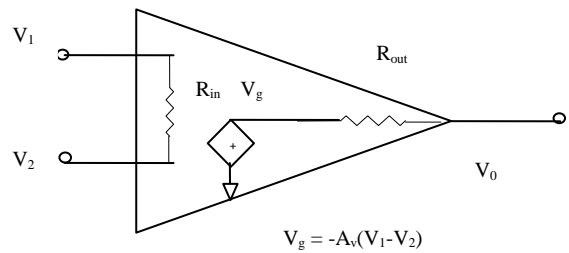


Fig. 1. Ideal Opamp

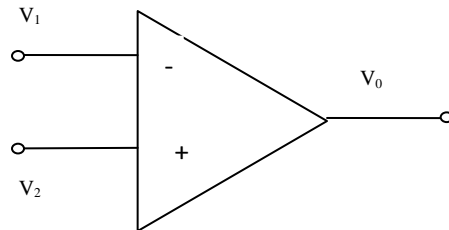


Fig. 2. Ideal Opamp Circuit Symbol

The equation for output voltage can be given as  $V_0=A_v(V_2- V_1)$ , where  $A_v$  is the voltage gain.  $V_2$  is the voltage at non-inverting input and  $V_1$  is the voltage at inverting input. The input terminals have four characteristics, which are

- i) There is no current in each input lead, which means that resistance in both input terminals is infinite.
- ii) The output voltage does not depend upon output current, which implies that voltage gain is independent of output current.
- iii) The voltage gain  $A_v$  doesnot depend on frequency, which infers bandwidth is infinite.
- iv) The voltage gain  $A_v$  is very large reaching infinity in limit, which implies that the difference voltage between two input terminals must approach zero if the output voltage is finite.

Inverting Operational Amplifier

The voltage gain is negative, so it is called as an inverting operational amplifier[6]. It implies that if the input voltage is positive, the output voltage will be negative and vice-versa. The input voltage is applied through the resistor  $R_1$  to inverting input terminal as shown in Fig. 3. The Resistor  $R_f$  is the feedback resistor which connects from the output to the inverting input.

The voltage gain in the inverting OPAMP is given by  $V_0=(-R_f/R_1)*V_1$  (1.2)

Summing Operational Amplifier

The summer circuit actually behaves like the mathematical sum operation[8]. The n-input summer circuit can be shown as Fig. 3. According to the Kirchhoff's current law at the junction B, the sum of all currents passing through the junction is zero.i.e

$I_1 + I_2 + \dots + I_n + I_f - I_B = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow I_1 + I_2 + \dots + I_n + I_f = I_B$  which can be further written as

$(V_1 - V_B)/R_1 + (V_2 - V_B)/R_2 + \dots + (V_n - V_B)/R_n + (V_0 - V_B)/R_f = V_B/R_{in}$

As  $V_g$  can be given as  $V_g = -A_v(V_1-V_n)$ , and also  $V_0 = -A_vV_B$ , so we get

$$V_1/R_1 + V_2/R_2 + \dots + V_n/R_n + V_0/R_f = -V_0/A_v R_p \quad (1.3)$$

where  $1/R_p = 1/R_1 + 1/R_2 + \dots + 1/R_f + 1/R_{in}$

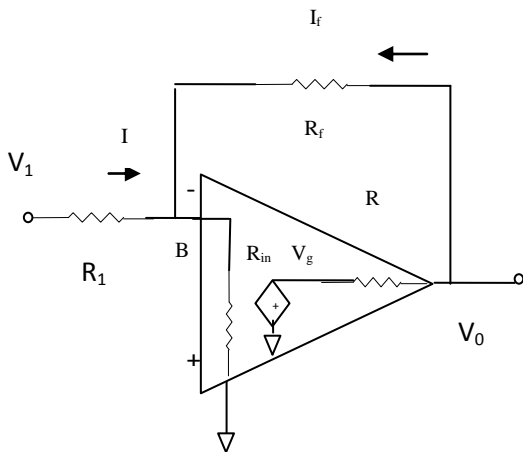


Fig. 3. Inverting Opamp

This operational amplifier has a high voltage gain, so we can consider  $A_v$  to be infinite. Then the equation (1.3) can be rewritten as

$$V_0 = -\alpha_1 V_1 - \alpha_2 V_2 - \alpha_3 V_3 - \dots - \alpha_n V_n \quad (1.4)$$

where  $\alpha_i = R_f/R_i$  and  $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$ .

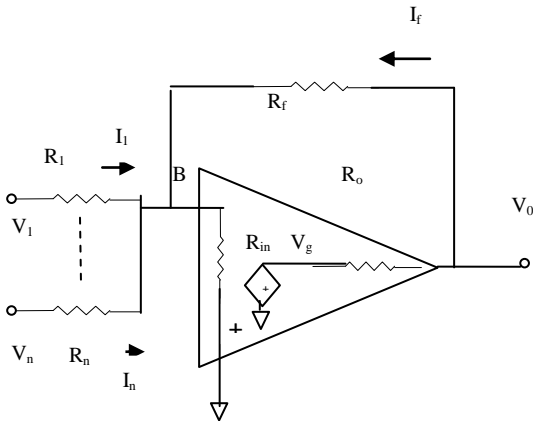


Fig. 4. Summer Circuit

The example of summation of three voltages is shown in Fig. 5. In this example three resistances ( $R_1, R_2, R_3$ ) of 10 kΩ each and  $R_f = 100k\Omega$  has been used. Thus,  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \alpha_3 = 10$ . So the summer in the Fig. 5 implements the equation (1.4) as,

$$V_0 = -10V_1 - 10V_2 - 10V_3$$

and the analog diagram can be given as

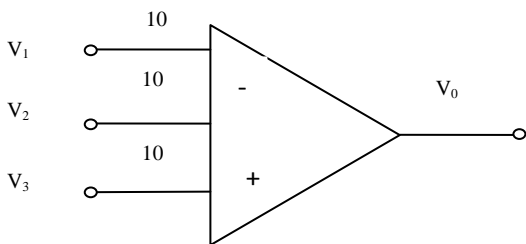


Fig. 5. Summer Circuit Symbol

### Multiplication of Reference voltage by a constant

To implement this the potentiometer is used which is basically a voltage divider and the input voltage is fractioned by a value determined by the amount of resistance chosen.

$$V_0 = KV_1$$

Fig. 6 and Fig. 7 shows the analog diagram and electrical circuit.

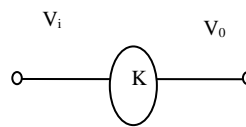


Fig. 6. Multiplier Circuit Symbol

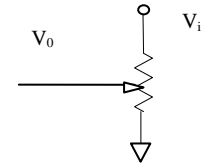


Fig. 7. Multiplier Circuit

### III. THEORETICAL DEVELOPEMENT

To simulate the mathematical equation (1.1), we can use an analog method by the use of operational amplifiers. An analog method can be applied to find solutions of a number of differential equations, linear equations etc[3]. The system which is to be simulated is first modelled by a mathematical equation and the analog diagram for the system (in this case the Memory system of any computer) can be given as in Fig. 8.

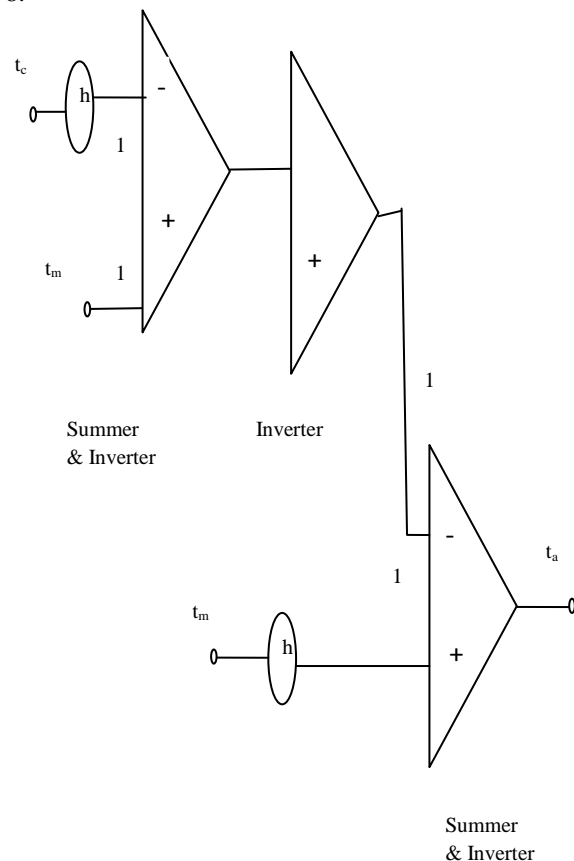


Fig. 8. Analog Diagram for (1.1).

The electronic circuit diagram for the mathematical equation (1.1) can be given as in Fig. 9. There are six Ideal OPAMPs (U1, U2, U3, U4, U5, U6) which have been used for implementation of (1.1). We have implemented six multimeters so that output of each OPAMP can be watched. The Vs1 and Vs2 represent the access times of the Cache Memory,  $t_c$  and access of the RAM,  $t_m$  respectively.

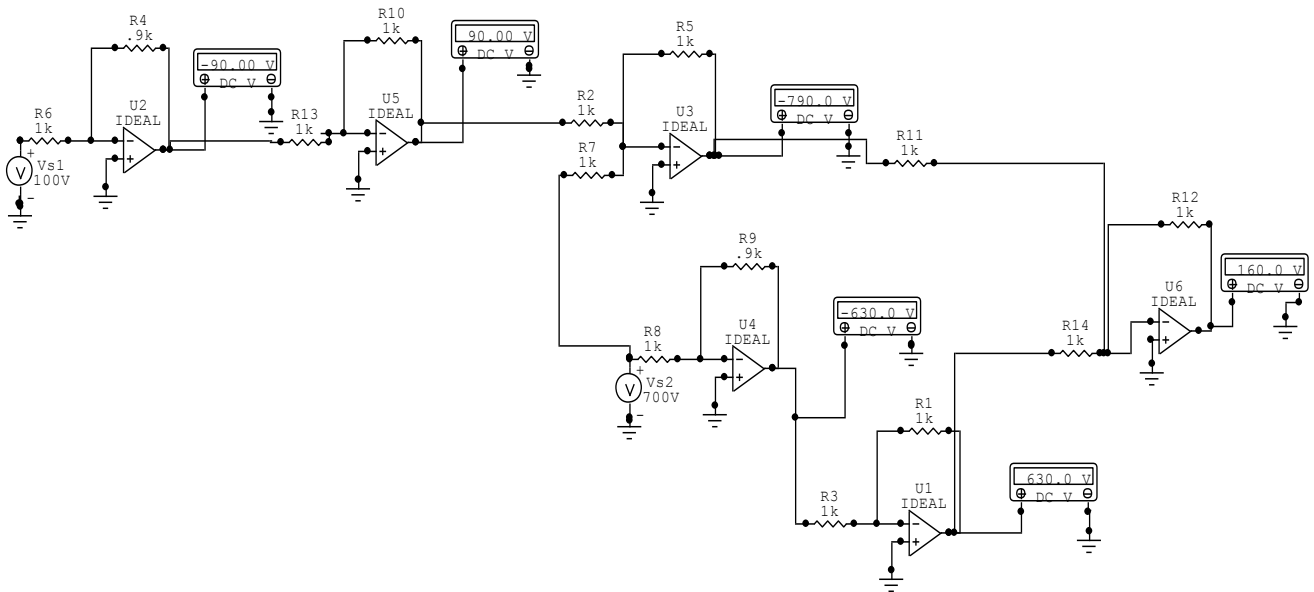


Fig. 9. Simulation of Equation (1.1) using Circuit Maker.

The above instance of the circuit shows  $V_{s1} = 100V$  that is  $t_c=100ns$  and  $V_{s2} = 700V$  that is,  $t_m=700ns$ (The access times are normally evaluated in the units of nanoseconds, we can represent the time unit of 1ns by 1V of the voltage supplies used in the Fig. 9). The hit ratio in the circuit is represented by the fractions as below

$$h = R4/R6 = R9/R8$$

and it can be varied by changing the values of the resistors  $R4, R6$  and  $R9, R8$  such that the ratios of these respectively should be same.

In the given circuit,  $h=0.9$ , as  $R4=0.9k\Omega$  and  $R6=10k\Omega$ . We just see the working of each OPAMP one by one.

The first ideal OPAMP U2 outputs the fraction  $h$  of Voltage  $V_{s1}$  but in negative. We can consider it like multiplication of  $V_{s1}$  with the constant  $R4/R6$ , that is,  $h$ . Thus, the output represents  $-h*t_c$ .

The second ideal OPAMP U5 outputs the negative of input Voltage. Thus, the output represents  $h*t_c$ .

The third ideal OPAMP U3 is a summer and inverter. It first sums the  $h$  fraction of  $V_{s1}$  with the  $V_{s2}$  and gives the output in negative voltage. Thus the output represents the value  $-(h*t_c + t_m)$ .

The fourth ideal OPAMP U4 outputs the fraction  $h$  of Voltage  $V_{s2}$  but in negative. We can consider it like multiplication of  $V_{s2}$  with the constant  $R9/R8$ , that is,  $h$ . Thus the output represents the the value  $-h*t_m$ .

The fifth ideal OPAMP U1 outputs the negative of the input Voltage. Thus, the output represents  $h*t_m$ .

The sixth ideal OPAMP U6 is a summer and inverter. This OPAMP sums the output of ideal OPAMP U3 and U1 and gives the output in negative. Thus the output represents the value  $-(-(h*t_c + t_m) + h*t_m)$  which can be rewritten as  $h*t_c + t_m - h*t_m = h*t_c + (1-h)*t_m$ .

Thus the output of OPAMP U6 represents  $t_a$ .

The circuit was used to study the change in the average memory access time,  $t_a$ , for different values of hit ratio with  $t_c = 100ns$  and  $t_m = 700ns$ .

The values for  $t_a$  shown by the multimeter attached at the output of U6 OPAMP for different values of  $h = R4/R6 = R9/R8$  are given in the Table V.

TABLE V  
VALUES OF  $t_a$  OBTAINED WITH DIFFERENT  $h$  AND CONSTANT  
 $t_c = 100ns$  AND  $t_m = 700ns$ .

$h$	$t_a$ in ns
0	700
0.1	640
0.2	580
0.3	520
0.4	460
0.5	400
0.6	340
0.7	280
0.8	220
0.9	160
1	100

#### IV. CONCLUSION

The possible drawback of any electronic analog computer simulation is so many assumptions in deriving the relationships for operational amplifiers[5]. It has the difficulty to carry accuracy of measuring a voltage beyond a certain limit. We also have to dedicate an analog computer to one problem. Although there is widespread availability of Digital Computers, many users prefer to use analog computers. The analog representation of a system is often more natural in the sense that it directly reflects the structure of the system ultimately simplifying the

implementation of simulation and understanding of the results. The use of analog computers is extended by developments in solid-logic electronic devices[6]. Under certain conditions, an analog computer is faster than a digital computer, because it can solve many mathematical equations in a true simultaneous manner.

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