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EECS151 : Introduction to Digital Design and ICs

Lecture 23 – SRAM

Bora Nikolić



Intel's Process Roadmap to 2025: with 4nm, 3nm, 20A and 18A?
Ian Cutress, Anandtech, July 2021

2020, Intel 10nm SuperFin (10SF). Current generation technology in use with Tiger Lake and Intel's Xe-LP discrete graphics solutions (SG1, DG1). The name stays the same.

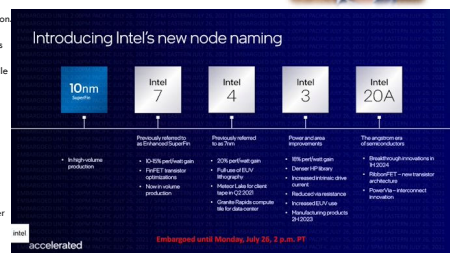
2021 H2, Intel 7: Previously known as 10nm Enhanced Super Fin or 10E5F. Alder Lake and Sapphire Rapids will now be known as Intel 7nm products, showcasing a 10-15% performance per watt gain over 10SF due to transistor optimizations. Alder Lake is currently in volume production.

2022 H2, Intel 4: Previously known as Intel 7nm. Intel earlier this year stated that its Meteor Lake processor will use a compute tile based on this process node technology, and the silicon is now back in the lab being tested. Intel expects a 20% performance per watt gain over the previous generation, and the technology uses more EUV, mostly in the BEOL. Intel's next Xeon Scalable product, Granite Rapids, will also use a compute tile based on Intel 4.

2023 H2, Intel 3: Previously known as Intel 7+. Increased use of EUV and new high density libraries. This is where Intel's strategy becomes more modular – Intel 3 will share some features of Intel 4, but enough will be new enough to describe this a new full node, in particular new high performance libraries.

2024, Intel 20A: Previously known as Intel 5nm. Moving to double digit naming, with the A standing for Ångström, or 10A is equal to 1nm. Few details, but this is where Intel will move from FinFETs to its version of Gate-All-Around (GAA) transistors called RibbonFETs.

2025, Intel 18A: Not listed on the diagram above, but Intel is expecting to have an 18A process in 2025. 18A will be using ASML's latest EUV machines, known as High-NA machines, which are capable of more accurate photolithography. Intel has stated to us that it is ASML's lead partner when it comes to High-NA, and is set to receive the first production model of a High-NA machine.



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Review

- Latches are based on positive feedback
- Clk-Q delay calculated similarly to combinational logic
- Setup, hold defined as D-Clk times that correspond to Clk-Q delay increases
- Flip-flop is typically a latch pair

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SRAM

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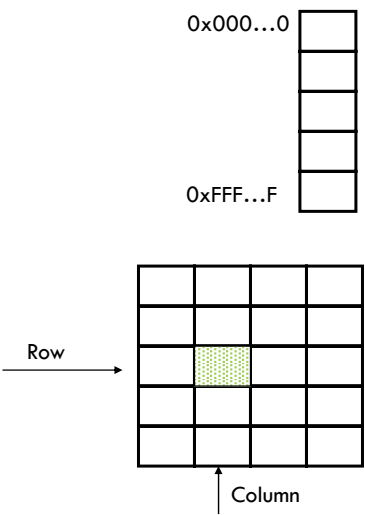
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Random Access Memory Architecture

- Conceptual: Linear array of addresses
 - Each box holds some data
 - Not practical to physically realize
 - millions of 32b/64b words
- Create a 2-D array
 - Decode Row and Column address to get data



0x000...0

0xFFF...F

Row

Column

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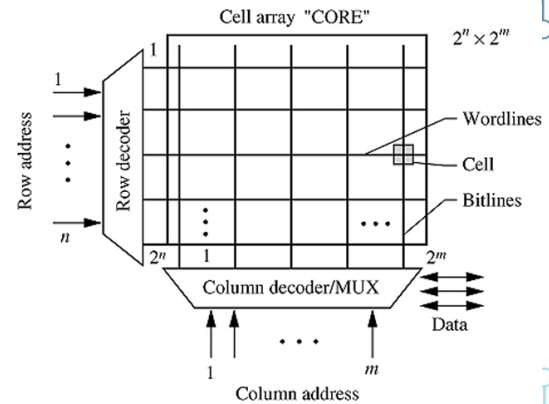
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Basic Memory Array

- Core
 - Wordlines to access rows
 - Bitlines to access columns
 - Data multiplexed onto columns
- Decoders
 - Addresses are binary
 - Row/column MUXes are 'one-hot' - only one is active at a time



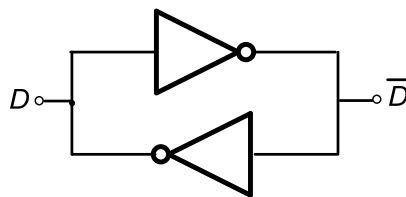
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Basic Static Memory Element



- If D is high, \overline{D} will be driven low
 - Which makes D stay high
- Positive feedback
- Same principle as in latches

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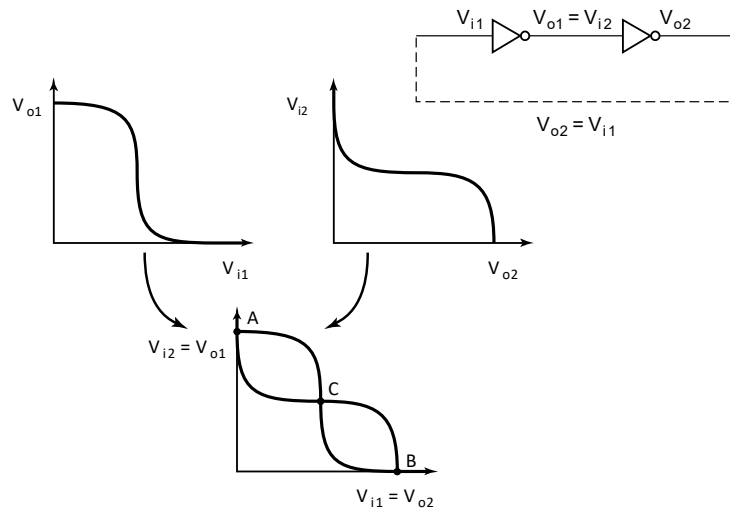
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Positive Feedback: Bi-Stability

- As in latches

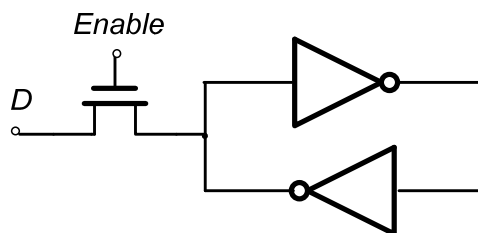


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Writing into a Cross-Coupled Pair



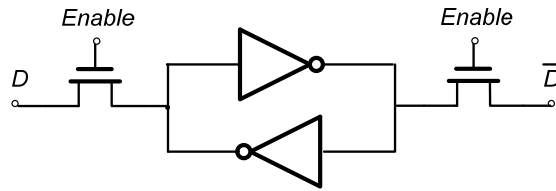
- This is a 5T SRAM cell
 - Access transistor must be able to overpower the feedback; therefore must be large
 - Easier to write a 0, harder to write 1
- Can implement as a transmission gate as well; single-ended 6T cell
- There is a better solution...

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SRAM Cell



Since it is easier to write a 0 through NMOS, write only 0s, but on opposite sides!
When reading, measure the difference

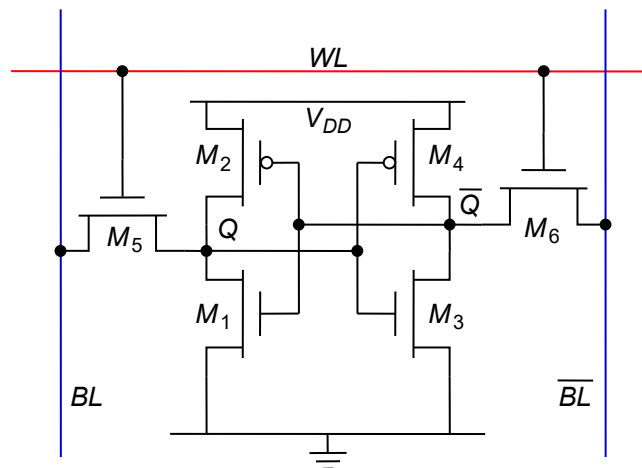
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6-transistor CMOS SRAM Cell



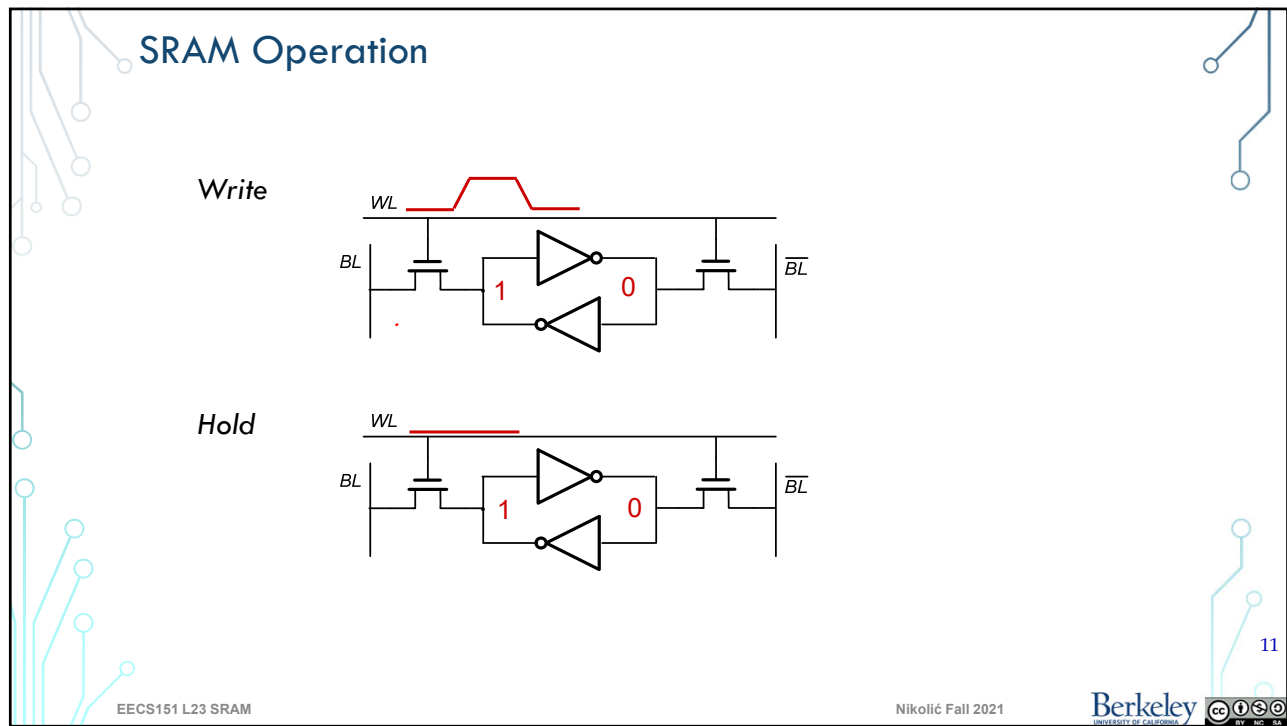
- Wordline (WL) enables read/write access for a row
- Data is written/read differentially through shared BL, \overline{BL}

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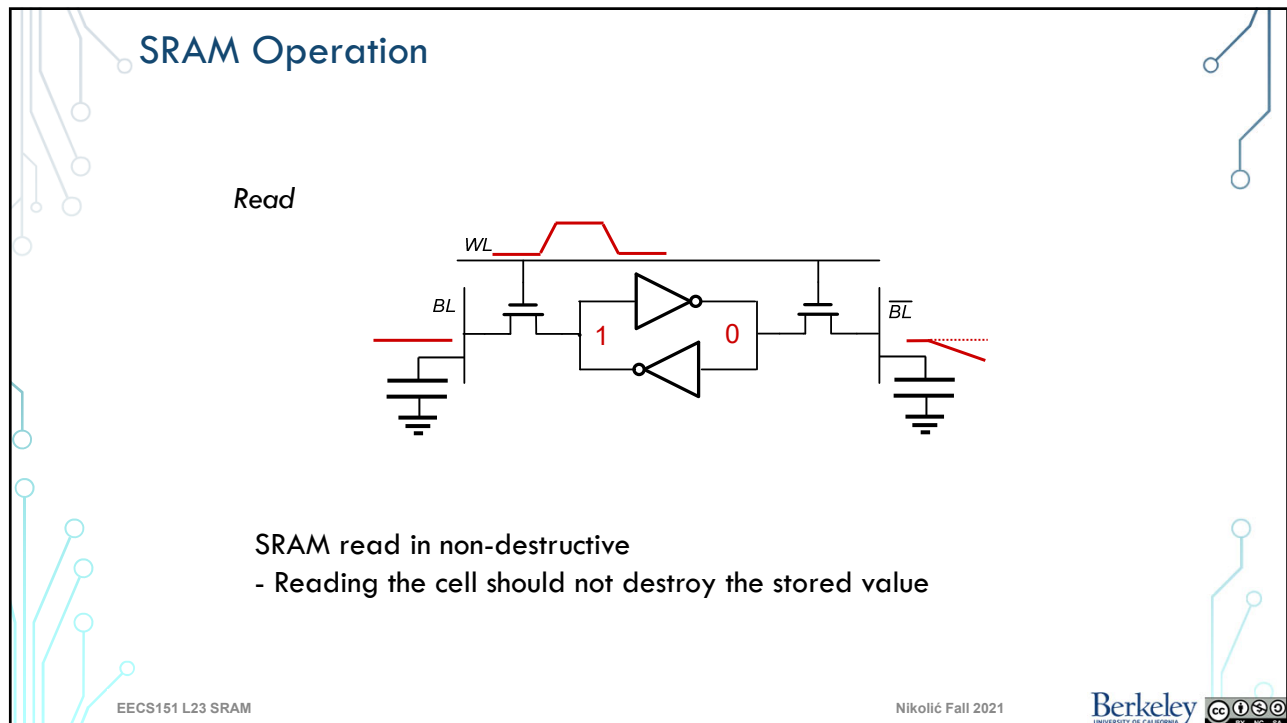
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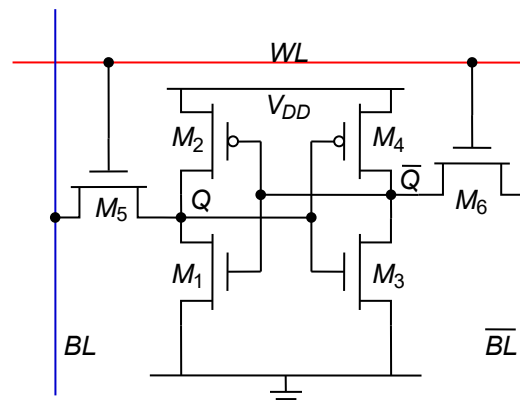
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Sizing SRAM Cell

- Read stability: Cell should not change value during read
 - $Q = 0$: M_5, M_1 both on
 - Voltage divider between M_5, M_1
 - V_Q should stay low, not to flip M_4 - M_3 inverter
 - $(W/L)_1 > (W/L)_5$
- Typically $(W/L)_1 = 1.5 (W/L)_5$
 - In finFETs: $(W/L)_1 = 2(W/L)_5$
- Read speed: Both M_5 and M_1



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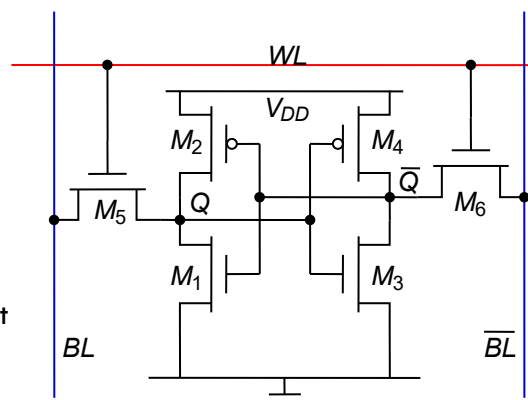
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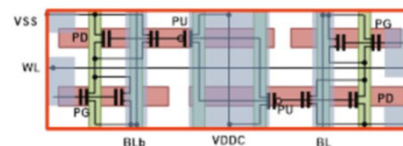
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Sizing SRAM Cell

- Writeability: Cell should be writable by pulling BL low
 - $Q = 1$, M_5, M_2 both on
 - Voltage divider between M_5, M_2
 - V_Q should pull below the switching point of M_4 - M_3 inverter
 - $(W/L)_5 > (W/L)_2$
- Typically $(W/L)_5 = (W/L)_2$ in planar
 - In finFETs: $(W/L)_5 = 2(W/L)_2$
 - 1:2:2 and 1:2:3 sizing



6T High-Current (HC) bitcell
0.049 μm^2 (1:2:2)



Song, ISSCC'16

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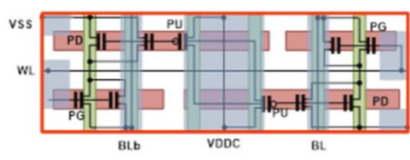
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SRAM Array Layout



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Administrivia

- Homework 10 posted on Friday, due 11/22
 - No homework during Thanksgiving
- Project checkpoints #3 this week

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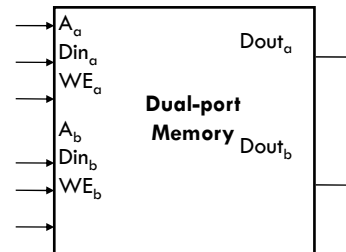
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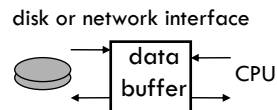
Multi-Ported Memory

- Motivation:

- Consider CPU core register file:
 - 1 read or write per cycle limits processor performance.
 - Complicates pipelining. Difficult for different instructions to simultaneously read or write regfile.
 - Single-issue pipelined CPUs usually needs 2 read ports and 1 write port (2R/1W).
 - Superscalar processors have more (e.g. 6R/3W)



- I/O data buffering:



- dual-porting allows both sides to simultaneously access memory at full bandwidth.

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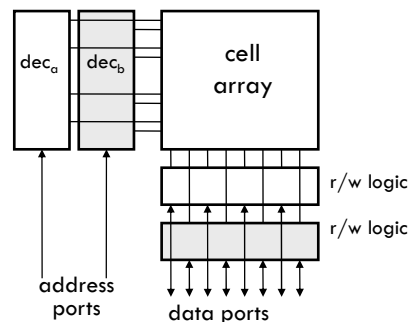
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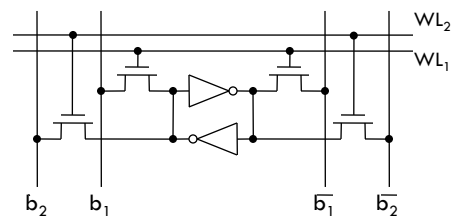
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Dual-Ported Memory Internals

- Add decoder, another set of read/write logic, bits lines, word lines:



- Example cell: SRAM



- Repeat everything but cross-coupled inverters.
- This scheme extends up to a couple more ports, then need to add additional transistors.

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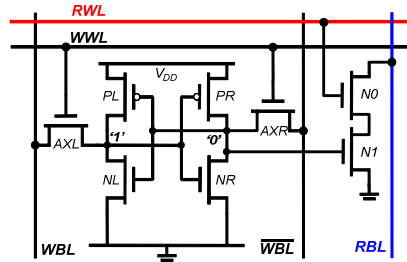
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1R/1W 8T SRAM

8-T SRAM



- Dual-port read/write capability
- Single-cycle read and write, timed appropriately
- Often found in register files, first level (L1) of cache

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True or False

www.yellkey.com/pull

1	F	F	F
2	F	F	T
3	F	T	F
4	F	T	T
5	T	F	F
6	T	F	T
7	T	T	F
8	T	T	T

1. Transistor leakage doesn't affect SRAM read speed
2. One should write into an SRAM cell by pulling BL high
3. One can only write into some cells of a selected WL

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Memory Decoders

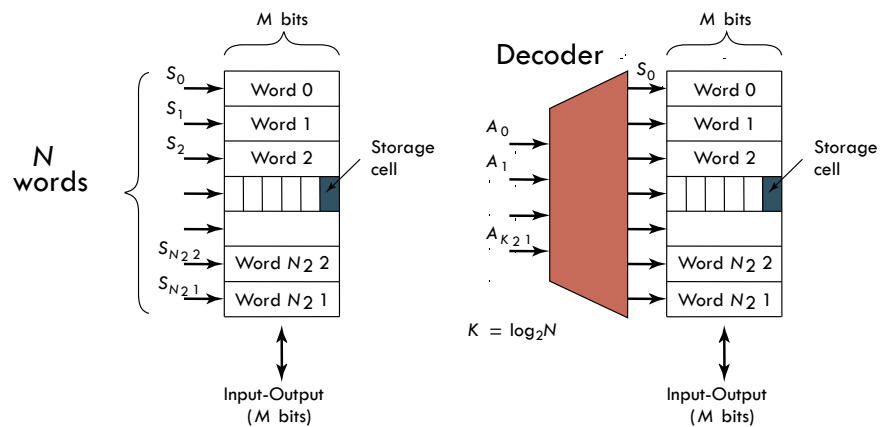
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Decoders



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Row Decoders

Collection of 2^M complex logic gates
Organized in regular and dense fashion

(N)AND Decoder

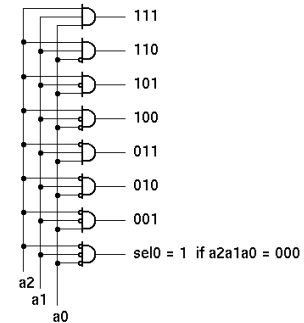
$$WL_0 = \overline{A_0} \overline{A_1} \overline{A_2} \overline{A_3} \overline{A_4} \overline{A_5} \overline{A_6} \overline{A_7} \overline{A_8} \overline{A_9}$$

$$WL_{511} = A_0 A_1 A_2 A_3 A_4 A_5 A_6 A_7 A_8 A_9$$

NOR Decoder

$$WL_0 = \overline{A_0 + A_1 + A_2 + A_3 + A_4 + A_5 + A_6 + A_7 + A_8 + A_9}$$

$$WL_{511} = \overline{\overline{A_0} + \overline{A_1} + \overline{A_2} + \overline{A_3} + \overline{A_4} + \overline{A_5} + \overline{A_6} + \overline{A_7} + \overline{A_8} + \overline{A_9}}$$



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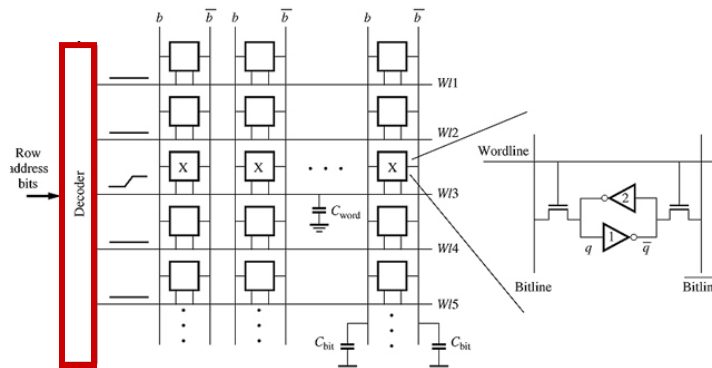
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Decoder Design Example

- Look at decoder for 256x256 memory block (8KBytes)



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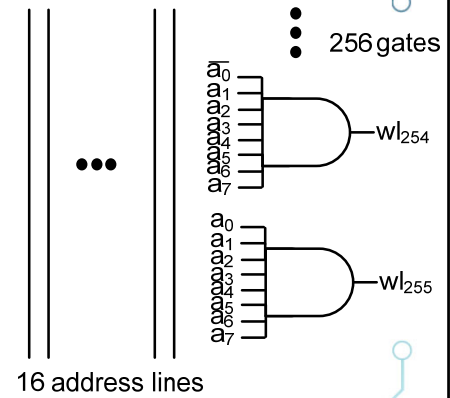
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Possible Decoder

- 256 8-input AND gates
 - Each built out of a tree of NAND gates and inverters
- Need to drive a lot of capacitance (SRAM cells)
 - What's the best way to do this?



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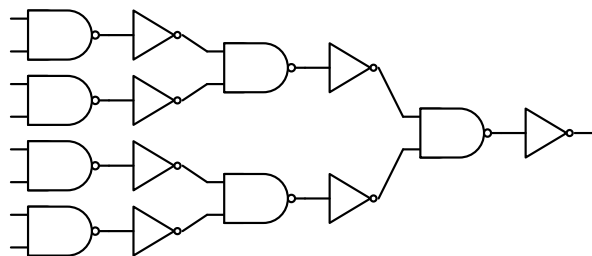
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Possible AND8

- Build 8-input NAND gate using 2-input gates and inverters
- Is this the best we can do?
- Is this better than using fewer NAND4 gates?



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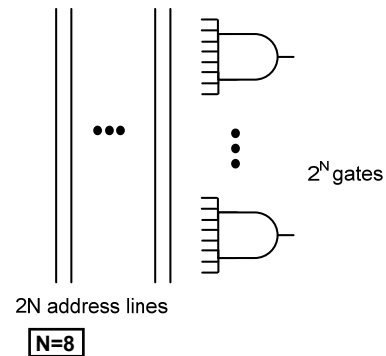
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Problem Setup

- Goal: Build fastest possible decoder with static CMOS logic
- What we know
 - Basically need 256 AND gates, each one of them drives one word line



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Problem Setup (1)

- Each wordline has 256 cells connected to it
- $C_{WL} = 256 * C_{cell} + C_{wire}$
 - Ignore wire for now
- Assume that decoder input capacitance is $C_{address} = 4 * C_{cell}$

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Problem Setup (2)

- Each address bit drives $2^8/2$ AND gates
 - A0 drives $1/2$ of the gates, A0_b the other $1/2$ of the gates
- Total fanout on each address wire is:

$$F = \Pi B \frac{C_{load}}{C_{in}} = 128 \frac{(256 C_{cell})}{4 C_{cell}} = 2^7 \frac{(2^8 C_{cell})}{2^2 C_{cell}} = 2^{13}$$

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Decoder Fan-Out

- F of 2^{13} means that we will want to use more than $\log_4(2^{13}) = 6.5$ stages to implement the AND8
- Need many stages anyways
 - So what is the best way to implement the AND gate?
 - Will see next that it's the one with the most stages and least complicated gates

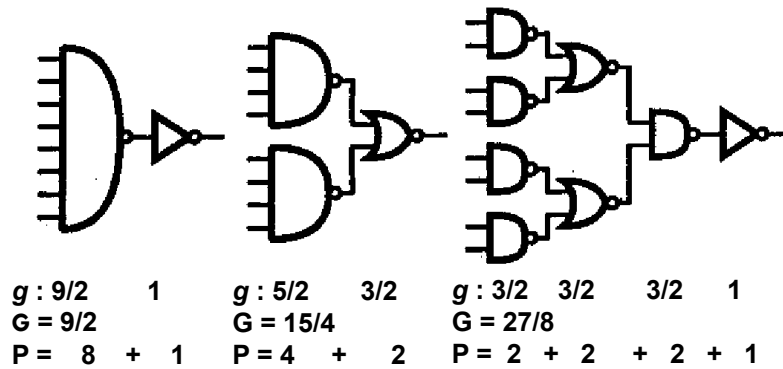
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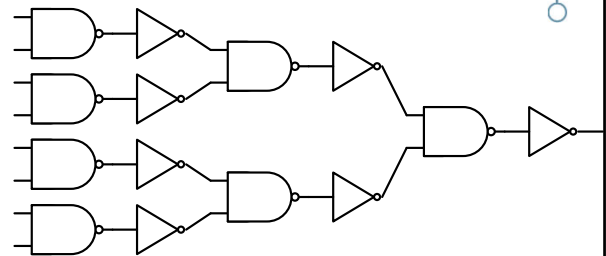
8-Input AND



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8-Input AND

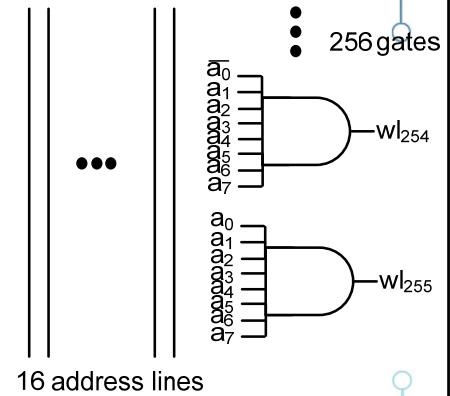
- Using 2-input NAND gates
 - 8-input gate takes 6 stages
- Total G is $(3/2)^3 \approx 3.4$
- So H is $3.4 * 2^{13}$ – optimal N of ~ 7.4



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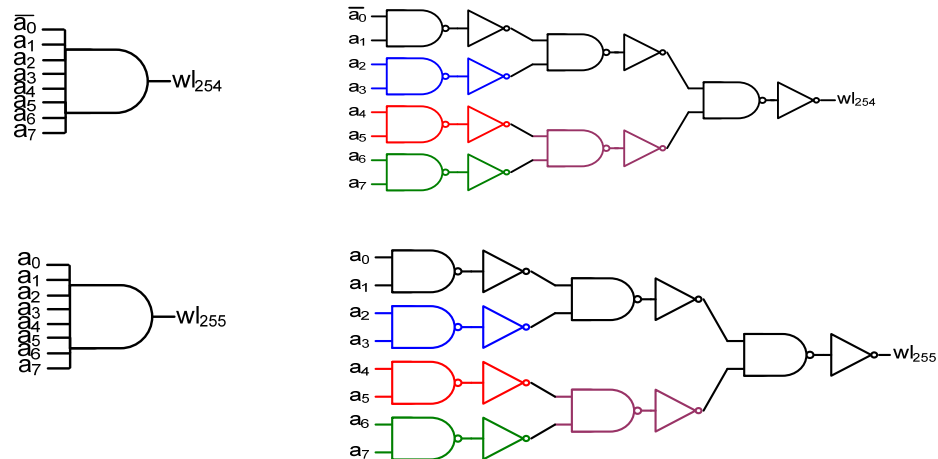
Decoder So Far

- 256 8-input AND gates
 - Each built out of tree of NAND gates and inverters
- Issue:
 - Every address line has to drive 128 gates (and wire) right away
 - Forces us to add buffers just to drive address inputs



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Look Inside Each AND8 Gate



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Predecoders

- Use a single gate for each of the shared terms
 - E.g., from $A_0, \overline{A_0}, A_1, \text{ and } \overline{A_1}$, generate four signals: $A_0A_1, \overline{A_0}A_1, A_0\overline{A_1}, \overline{A_0}\overline{A_1}$
- In other words, we are decoding smaller groups of address bits first
 - And using the “predecoded” outputs to do the rest of the decoding

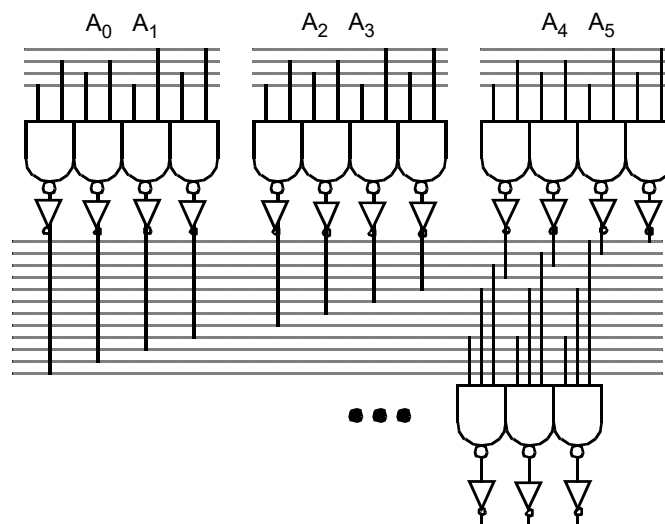
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Predecoder and Decoder



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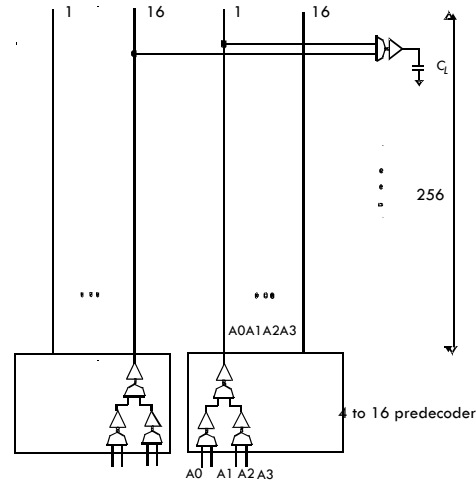
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Predecode Options

- Larger predecode usually better:
 - More stages before the long wires
 - Decreases their effect on the circuit
 - Fewer number of long wires switches
 - Lower power
- Easier to fit 2-input gate into cell pitch



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Building Larger Arrays

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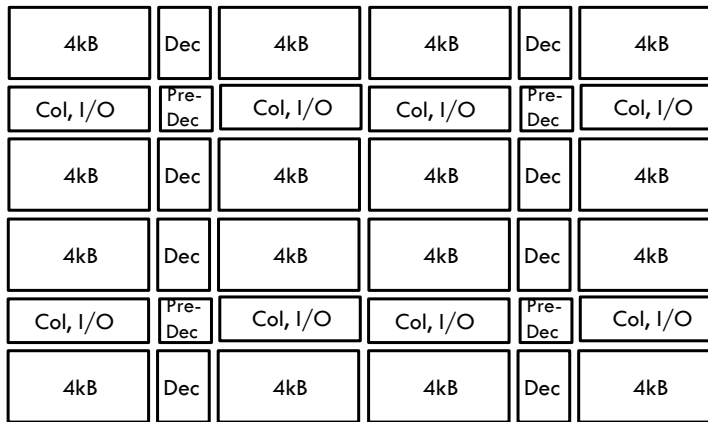
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Building Larger Custom Arrays



- Each subarray is 2-8kB
- Hierarchical decoding
- Peripheral overhead is 30-50%
- Delay is wire dominated
- Scratchpads, caches, TLBs

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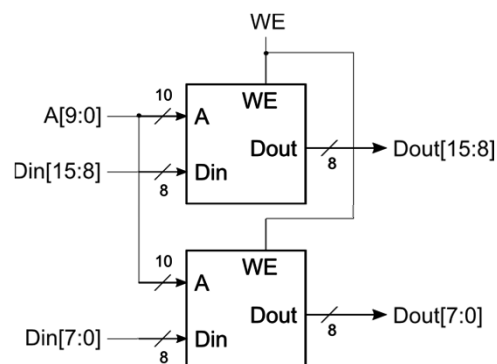


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Cascading Memory-Blocks

How to make larger memory blocks out of smaller ones.

Increasing the width. Example: given 1Kx8, want 1Kx16



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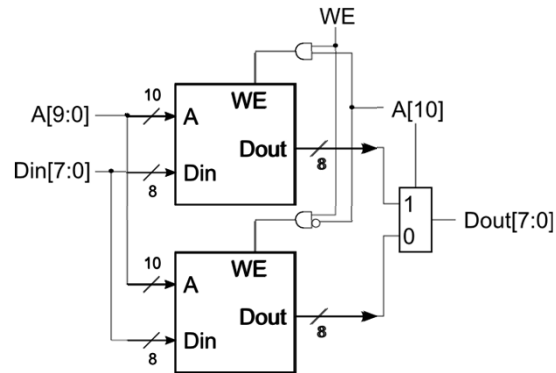


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Cascading Memory-Blocks

How to make larger memory blocks out of smaller ones.

Increasing the depth. Example: given 1Kx8, want 2Kx8



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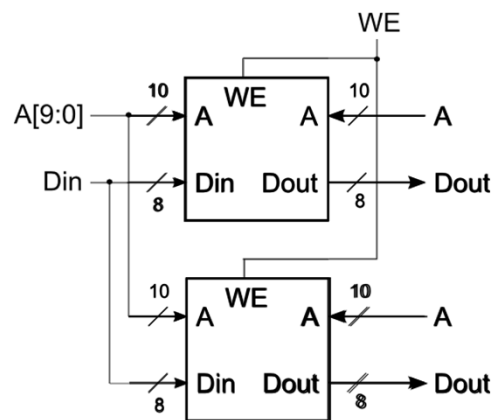
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Adding Ports to Primitive Memory Blocks

Adding a read port to a simple dual port (SDP) memory.

Example: given 1Kx8 SDP, want 1 write & 2 read ports.



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