

# A Scaling Trend of Variation-Tolerant SRAM Circuit Design in Deeper Nanometer Era

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**Abstract**—Evaluation results about area scaling capabilities of various SRAM margin-assist techniques for random  $V_T$  variability issues are described. Various efforts to address these issues by not only the cell topology changes from 6T to 8T and 10T but also incorporating multiple voltage-supply for the cell terminal biasing and timing sequence controls of read and write are comprehensively compared in light of an impact on the required area overhead for each design solution given by ever increasing  $V_T$  variation ( $\sigma_{VT}$ ). Two different scenarios which hinge upon the EOT (Effective Oxide Thickness) scaling trend of being pessimistic and optimistic, are assumed to compare the area scaling trends among various SRAM solutions for 32 nm process node and beyond. As a result, it has been shown that 6T SRAM will be allowed long reign even in 15 nm node if  $\sigma_{VT}$  can be suppressed to < 70 mV thanks to EOT scaling for LSTP (Low Standby Power) process.

**Index Terms**—SRAM scaling, SRAM design solution, SRAM scaling trend, SRAM margin assist, deeper nanometer

## I. INTRODUCTION

SRAM designers have recognized that increasing of random  $V_T$  variation ( $\sigma_{VT}$ ) heavily modulates the minimum SRAM operating voltage  $V_{DD\_MIN}$ , as shown in Fig. 1, thus SRAM scaling often hinges upon the future circuit and device technologies direction. Many techniques to

address this issue have attracted much attention in many conferences and papers so far [1-11] but no comprehensive evaluation reports about their scaling capabilities for 22 nm node and beyond have been presented. Thus, in this paper, various SRAM solutions proposed so far are analyzed in light of the impact on area scaling given by 1) overall device technology scaling, 2) cell topologies including 6T [1-5], 8T [6-10], and 10T [11], 3) multiple cell-terminal-biasing for read and write margin assists [12-15], and 4) read modify write sequence control for 8T that can avoid the half-select issue [8].

An introducing high- $\kappa$  metal-gate (MG) is the best example [7] for the device technology scaling solution that can scale the effective oxide thickness (EOT) while eliminating the depletion layer in the gate, resulting in suppressing the  $\sigma_{VT}$  of random variation. Conventionally, it was believed that the EOT scaling had reached the limit due to the increasing of gate-leakage and the  $\sigma_{VT}$  could not be easily scaled down.

However, such kind of high- $\kappa$  MG device innovation enables to extend the scaling limit of the MOSFET gate channel size defined by ( $L_g \times W_g$ ).

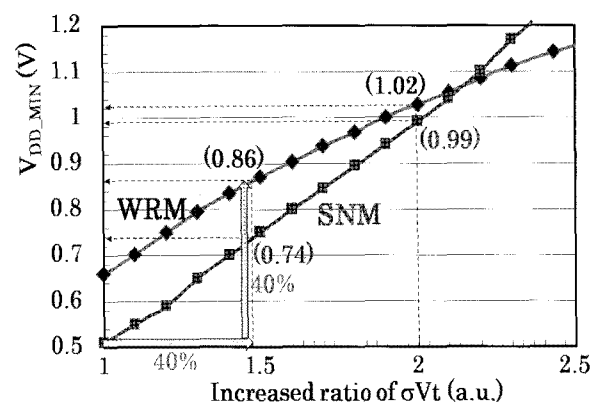


Fig. 1. Increasing  $V_{DD\_MIN}$  with increasing  $\sigma_{VT}$ .

Meanwhile, cell topology change from 6T to 8T was proposed to alleviate the impact of  $\sigma_{VT}$  increasing on the read and write stability issues. However, it has come to be well known that proposed 8T can't solve the column interleaving issue for write operation [8,16-18]. To address this issue, incorporating a special timing sequence of read modify write with 8T cell was proposed [8], which needs an extra time to write access but can alleviate column interleaving issue. 10T SRAM cell was also proposed to address this kind of column interleaving issue without any extra access time penalty at the expense cost of cell area due to the use of two more transistors, which are used to enable a cross-point access of selected row and column lines [11].

On the other hand, an industry's real trend for this issue looks like there are two trends for 65 nm and 45 nm generations and the both are similarly using 6T SRAM cell, as shown in Fig. 2 (a). One trend is using an SRAM supply voltage regulator like voltage down converter (VDC) to keep the SRAM supply voltage ( $V_{DD\_SRAM}$ ) higher than the minimum ( $V_{DD\_MIN}$ ) and lower than the maximum voltages ( $V_{DD\_MAX}$ ) [20].

The other is incorporating the offset biasing schemes for the read and write design solutions for 6T cell [4,13,15,19] without using VDC. Based on such trend, as shown in Fig. 2 (a), the 6T cell can be expected to be survived even in 32 nm and beyond depending on: 1) amount of  $\sigma_{VT}$ , 2) whether VDC can be incorporated, and 3) whether upsizing 6T cell to suppress  $\sigma_{VT}$  is still smaller than that for 8T or 10T. However, if  $\sigma_{VT}$  would become larger than a certain amount, 8T cell with read modify write sequence control could be better than 6T in terms of overall SRAM core area, as discussed in [8,16,17].

Fig. 2 (a) conceptually shows the possible options of using a different memory cell and its control scheme for 32 nm and beyond: 1) upsizing 6T with smaller  $\sigma_{VT}$  for each transistor, 2) 8T with read-modify-write (time-multiplexing) scheme [8], and 3) 10T with cross-point access [11]. However, if  $\sigma_{VT}$  would become larger than a certain amount and the required minimum operating voltage  $V_{DD\_MIN}$  becomes lower like [11], the 8T cell with read modify write sequence control or the 10T cell could be better than the upsizing 6T cell in terms of overall SRAM core area, as conceptually sketched in Fig. 2 (b).

When  $\sigma_{VT}$  is low enough to keep a sufficient read and write stability-margins for 6T SRAM even if not using

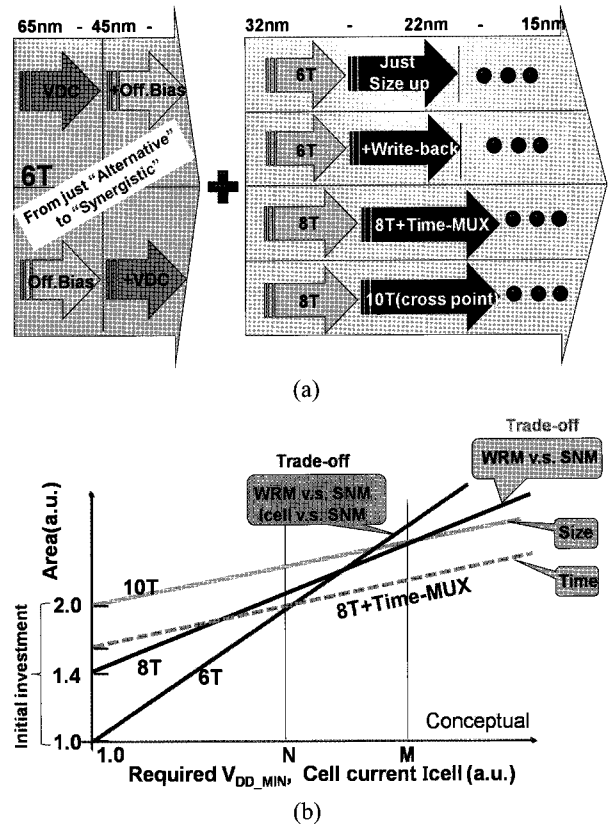


Fig. 2. (a) Various cell options for 32 nm and beyond and (b) Conceptual trend chart of cell area overhead.

any design solutions including the upsizing 6T, 8T and 10T become larger than 6T by 40% and 100%, respectively, as sketched out in Fig. 2 (b). Such kind of relationships hinge upon the amount of  $\sigma_{VT}$ , the required level of  $V_{DD\_MIN}$ , and the cell current (access speed). Thus, they are used for X-axis of Fig. 2 (b).

It is crucial for the SRAM designer to predict when such kind of crossover happens. Because an impact on SRAM margins given by the increasing  $\sigma_{VT}$  has become increasingly severe since 65 nm node, various SRAM design solutions have been proposed but no paper has compared their scaling limitations and discussed these kind of trends for 32 nm and beyond so far. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is for the first time to clarify which design solutions will be survived until when, if  $\sigma_{VT}$  will be ever increased. This paper puts primarily emphasis on discussions about 1) read and write stability design solution and its limitation in section II, 2) scaling impact of incorporating of new cell topologies and timing sequence of read modify write on scaling limit extend-ability in section III and IV, respectively, 3) an impact on margin assist capability given by ECC in section V, and 4) area

scaling trend comparisons among the design solutions in section VI, respectively, followed by conclusion in section VII.

## II. CELL STABILITY IMPROVEMENT AND ITS LIMITATION

The cell stability depends on the amount of  $V_T$  mismatch and the operation voltage  $V_{DD}$  as well as the cell ratios of  $\gamma$ -ratio for write and  $\beta$ -ratio for read. The primary reasons for reducing the read and write margins are due to the lost of balance of the cell transistor strengths which are referred to as  $\gamma$ -ratio and  $\beta$ -ratio caused by  $V_T$  random variations. Each of the  $\gamma$ -ratio and the  $\beta$ -ratio has to be considered as statistical distribution with a larger variation.

### 1. Read Margin Assist and Its Limitation

To increase read margin, the potential of the gate electrode of the pull-down NFET (PD\_R) can be made higher than that of the pass-gate NFET (PG\_R) so that  $\beta$ -ratio becomes larger, as shown in Fig. 3 (a). In order to implement such relationship, there are two techniques: 1) suppress the WL level [4,13] and 2) boost the CVDD level [14,23]. Fig. 3 (b) shows SNM improvements when using the suppressed WL by 10% of  $V_{DD}$  as a function of  $V_{DD}$ . It can be seen that SNM is increased by about 45 mV for 100 mV-suppressed WL at  $V_{DD}=1.0$  V.

Instead of suppressing WL, boosting CVDD also enables such potential relationship between WL and CVDD.

As described above, the intentional offset biasing between WL and CVDD can compensate the lost read margin due to  $V_T$  mismatch. However, the design solu

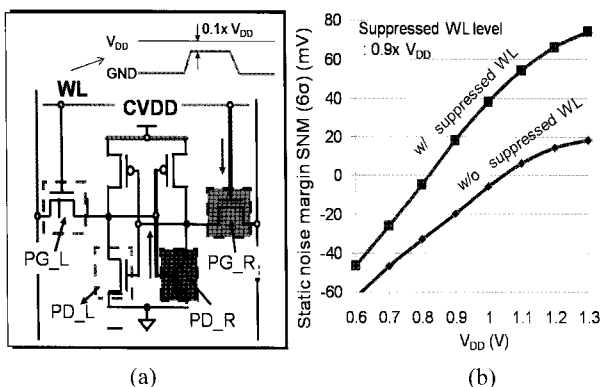


Fig. 3. (a) SNM assist basics for 6T SRAM and (b) SNM improvement by suppressed WL as a function of  $V_{DD}$ .

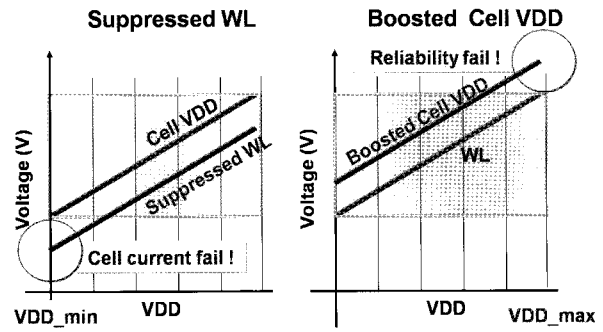


Fig. 4.  $V_{DD}$  window for suppressed WL and boosted Cell  $V_{DD}$  scheme.

tions for read margin improvement have the limitation of the operating voltage window as shown in Fig. 4.

In case of using suppressed WL scheme and boosted CVDD scheme, it can be seen that the cell current becomes too low to read at the lower  $V_{DD}$  boundary due to the suppressed WL level, as shown in Fig. 4.

Higher power supply for the array can also become too excessive to ensure device reliability at higher  $V_{DD}$  boundary due to the boosted CVDD level.

### 2. Write Margin Assist and Its Limitation

To increase write margin WRM, the potential of the gate electrode of the pull-up PFET (PU\_L) can be made lower than that of the pass-gate NFET (PG\_L) so that  $\gamma$ -ratio becomes smaller as shown in Fig. 5 (a) [12]. In order to implement such relationship, there are two techniques: 1) pull-down of CVDD [12] and 2) negative BL over-driving [15]. WRM improvements when using the pull-down of CVDD is proportional to the amount of CVDD pull-down voltage, as shown in Fig. 5 (b). For example, WRM is increased by 130 mV for the pull-down of CVDD by 10% of  $V_{DD}$  at  $V_{DD}=1.1$  V [12].

To ensure the potential of the connected node of PU and PG to be lowered than the trip point of the inverter, the negative BL over-driving scheme has been proposed [15].

Fig. 5 (c) shows that WRM improvements when using the negative BL scheme as a function of  $V_{DD}$ . It can be found that WRM is increased by about 280 mV at  $V_{DD}=1.0$  V. The WRM can be increased by the amount of negatively BL over-driving (-280 mV at  $V_{DD}=1.0$  V).

In the case of using pull-down CVDD scheme and negative BL scheme, as shown in Fig. 6, it can be seen that the cell data retention voltage becomes too low to retain the data at the lower  $V_{DD}$  boundary due to the pull-

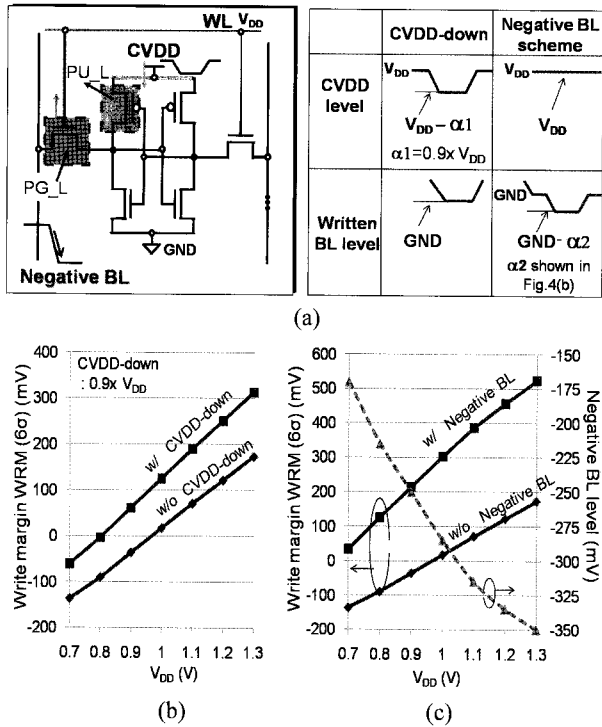


Fig. 5. (a) WRM assist basics, WRM improvements by (b) CVDD-down scheme and (c) negative BL scheme as a function of  $V_{DD}$ .

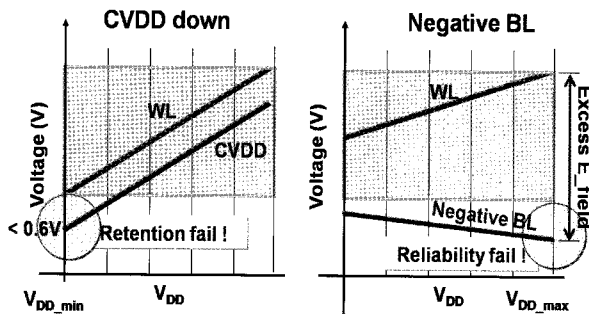


Fig. 6.  $V_{DD}$  window for CVDD-down and negative BL schemes.

down CVDD level and the applied the electric field becomes too excessive to ensure device reliability at higher  $V_{DD}$  boundary due to the negative BL level, respectively [15].

### 3. $V_T$ Random Variation Trend

The  $\sigma_{VT}$  of MOSFET  $V_T$  variation is proportional to  $A_{vt} / \sqrt{L_g \times W_g}$ , where  $A_{vt}$  is Pelgrom coefficient [21] and  $L_g$  and  $W_g$  are gate channel length and width, respectively [21,27,28]. Since  $A_{vt}$  is proportional to the effective oxide thickness EOT [21,27,28], it can be assumed that  $\sigma_{VT}$  is proportional to  $EOT / \sqrt{L_g \times W_g}$  as

well.

Fig. 7 (a) shows the gate leakage scaling for different EOT and gate materials ( $SiO_2$ ,  $SiON$ ,  $HfSiON$ , and other High- $\kappa$ ) [24-26]. The international technology roadmap for semiconductors 2007 (ITRS2007) [30] shows that an upper limit of the gate leakage density  $J_g$  is about  $1E-1 A/cm^2$  for low standby power (LSTP) process. The required EOT to meet this target depends on the gate material. It can be found that  $SiON$  for 1.9 nm,  $HfSiON$  for 1.6 nm, and the new High-k for  $< 1.4$  nm are needed to suppress the maximum gate leakage  $J_g$  ( $V_{fb}-1 V$ ) to  $< 2E-2 A/cm^2$  (5-times margin for the upper limit of  $J_g$  for LSTP process) [27,30].

Fig. 7 (b) shows the trend of EOT and  $\sigma_{VT}$  from 65 nm to 15 nm process node. The  $\sigma_{VT}$  could be suppressed to  $< 75 mV$  even when 15 nm process node if EOT could be successfully scaled down, otherwise, it could be increased up to 135 mV, as shown in Fig. 7 (b).

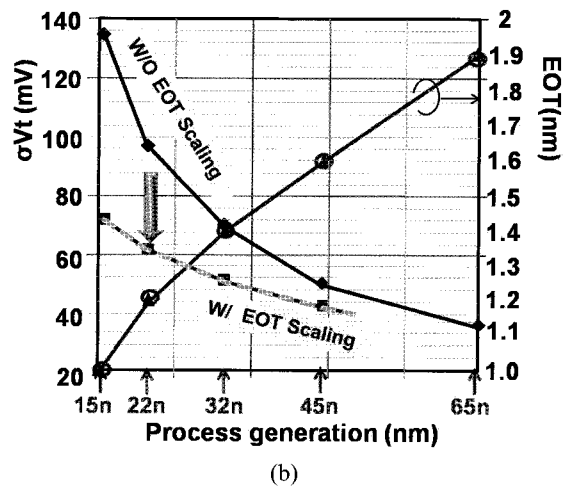
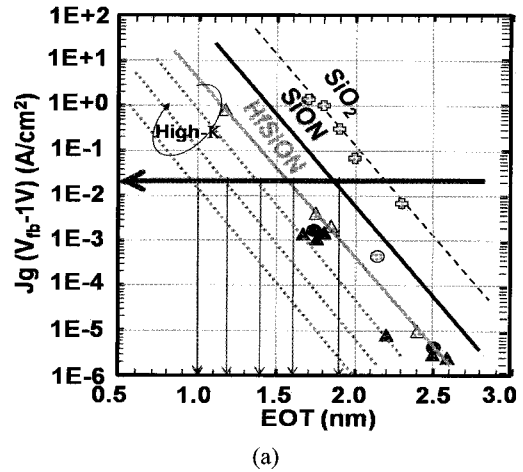


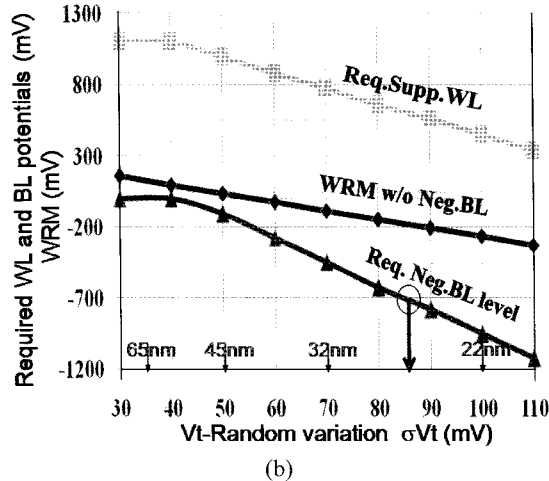
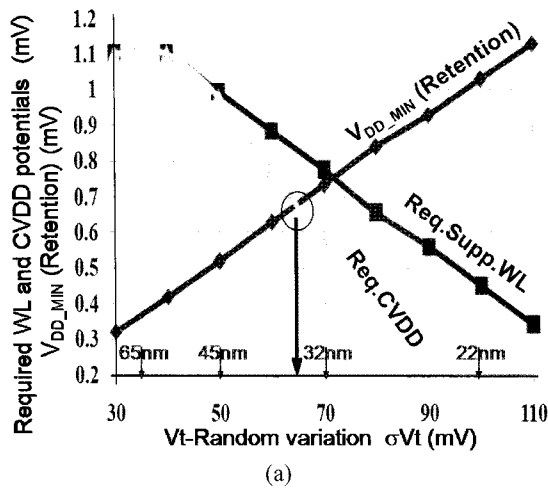
Fig. 7. (a) Gate leakage scaling with different dielectrics and EOT and (b)  $\sigma_{VT}$  scaling trend w/ and w/o EOT scaling.

**4. Various Assumptions to Study the Impact on Limitation of Assist Circuits Given by  $\sigma_{VT}$  Increasing**

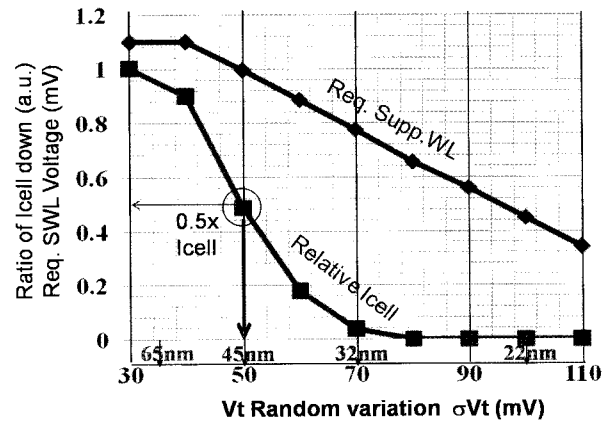
a)  $V_T$  variations are assumed as follows:

1)  $\sigma_{VT}$  of random  $V_T$  variation for PMOS minimum device in SRAM is assumed to be 0.76-times smaller than that for NMOS minimum device based on my experience in the industry. This trend is not so different from the other references [28,29], although it depends on the process technologies and its ratio of device sizes of NMOS and PMOS [28].

2) To show a trend of limitation of assist circuits caused by process scaling, random  $\sigma_{VT}$  is used as an X-axis instead of using a "process node" like 65 nm, 45 nm, and so on, as shown in Fig. 8 and 9. This is because a different type of process like high performance (HP) process and LSTP process bring about a different  $\sigma_{VT}$  [27,28,



**Fig. 8.** Limitations of control levels for a) CVDD-down and b) negative BL.



**Fig. 9.** Icell down impacts given by suppressed WL.

33-36] even if assuming the same process node. This is because the  $\sigma_{VT}$  itself depends on EOT,  $V_T$ , channel doping amount Na, gate work function and so on, besides gate channel dimensions of  $L_g$  and  $W_g$ [27,28,33-36].

Hence, the  $\sigma_{VT}$  versus area impact is more universal.

3) Increasing pace of random  $\sigma_{VT}$  every generation is assumed as the two cases with and without EOT scaling, respectively, as shown in Fig. 7 (b).

Indicators for process node being used in Fig. 9 and others, excluding Fig. 20 (b), are assumed that an increasing pace of  $\sigma_{VT}$  is only one case without EOT scaling for simplicity.

For example,  $\sigma_{VT}$  of 40 mV and 50 mV for 45 nm process node with the Hf-doped silicate gate [33] and without using High-k gate are referred to [33], respectively.

b) Test bench setup items used for simulation are as follows:

1) Static noise margin SNM and write margin WRM are measured by DC analysis.

2) Importance sampling technique for Monte Carlo (MC) simulation is used to accurately and efficiently take into account the distribution of SNM and WRM from  $\mu-6\sigma$  to  $\mu+6\sigma$  [37,38].

**5.  $\sigma_{VT}$  Increasing Impact on Limitation of Assist Circuits**

If  $\sigma_{VT}$  for NMOS minimum device of SRAM is increased from 30 mV to 110 mV, the minimum data retention  $V_{DD}$  ( $V_{DD\_MIN}$  (Retention)) is increased from 0.32 V to 1.14 V at  $Z=4$  point ( $Z$ : number of  $\sigma$  unit) based on the analysis by using a Monte Carlo simulation, as shown in

Fig. 8 (a).

In the similar way, it is found that the required pull-down cell- $V_{DD}$  (CVDD) is lowered with increasing of  $\sigma_{VT}$ , as shown in Fig. 8 (a).

CVDD-down assist scheme will come to end when the required CVDD level to make a WRM ( $6\sigma$ ) larger than zero at  $V_{DD}=1.1$  V crosses over that for data retention  $V_{DD\_MIN}$ , as marked by circle in Fig. 8 (a). This is because further column-based CVDD-down causes data retention failure in the selected column. Fig. 8 (a) also shows the required suppressed-WL level to make a SNM ( $6\sigma$ ) larger than zero at  $V_{DD}=1.1$  V as a function of  $\sigma_{VT}$ .

It can be seen that if  $\sigma_{VT}$  is increased to  $> 70$  mV, the required suppressed WL level has to be  $< 0.8$  V, resulting in a significant reduction of cell current (Icell).

Meanwhile, the required negative BL level to make a WRM ( $6\sigma$ ) larger than zero at  $V_{DD}=1.1$  V depends on the suppressed WL level, as shown in Fig. 8 (b). As a result, it can be seen that if  $\sigma_{VT}$  is increased to  $> 85$  mV, the required negative BL level has to be shallower than forward diode turn-on voltage (-0.7 V).

Moreover, the deeper suppressed WL level causes larger decrease of Icell, as shown in Fig. 9. It can be seen that if  $\sigma_{VT}$  is increased to  $> 50$  mV, Icell becomes less than half of that for without using suppressed WL.

### 6. Limit of Design Solutions with Increasing $\sigma_{VT}$

As explained above, the increase of  $\sigma_{VT}$  has led to the degradation in cell stability and write margins. Fig. 10 illustrates the design limits. It can be seen that the suppressed WL scheme for SNM assist could become non-

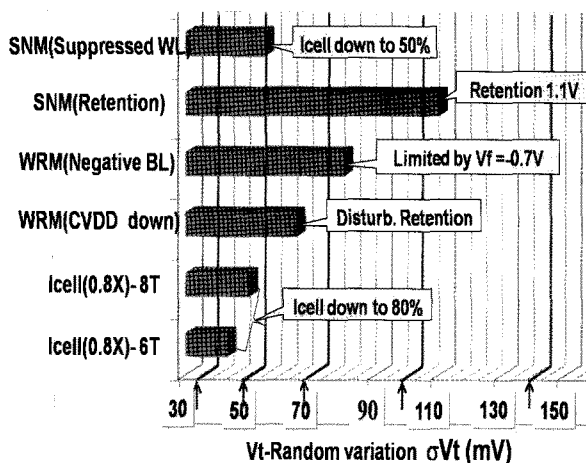


Fig. 10. Figure of merit for assist schemes.

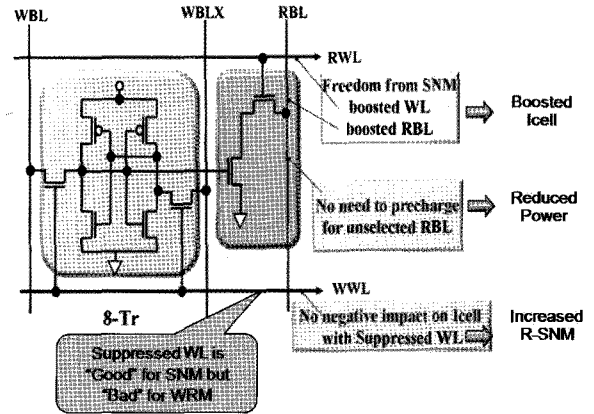


Fig. 11. Basics of margin trade-off in 8T SRAM.

practical if  $\sigma_{VT}$  becomes  $> 50$  mV due to the significant Icell reduction by  $> 50\%$ .

If  $\sigma_{VT}$  is larger than 105 mV, the minimum data retention voltage would reach 1.1 V. The negative BL scheme and the CVDD-down scheme for WRM assists becomes unable to be adopted any more if  $\sigma_{VT}$  will become  $> 75$  mV and  $> 60$  mV, respectively.

The most sensitive parameter to  $\sigma_{VT}$  is the cell current, Icell. If 20% reduction (0.8x Icell) is the limit, often true, allowable  $\sigma_{VT}$  can only be  $< 40$  mV and  $< 50$  mV for 6T-SRAM and 8T-SRAM, respectively.

## III. NEW CELL TOPOLOGY AND ITS IMPACT

### 1. 8T-SRAM

In order to eliminate the conflicting requirements between the cell current and the read stability in 6T SRAM cell design, two NFETs along with extra read-word-line (RWL) and read-bit-line (RBL) are added to provide designated read port SRAM, as shown in Fig. 11, which is often referred to as 8T-SRAM [6-10]. 8T-SRAM can improve the following aspects of the SRAM cell: 1) the cell current Icell, 2) the dynamic and leakage power, and 3) read stability. However, 8T-SRAM can not address the half-select issue [11,16,17] in write operation when requiring the column-interleaving operation. The trade-off between WRM and SNM has to be taken in account for the cell design, as shown in Fig. 11.

### 2. 10T-SRAM

In order to avoid the half-selected access issue, two more transistors can be added to enable a cross-point

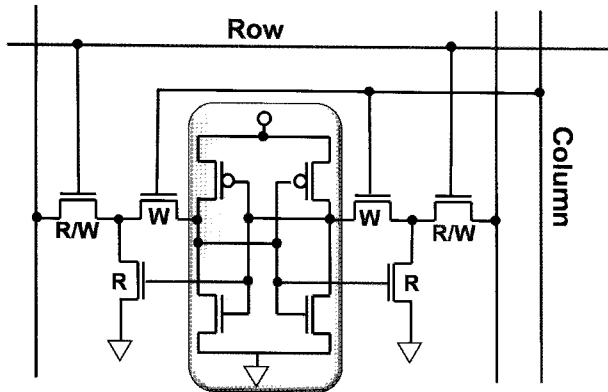


Fig. 12. 10T-SRAM.

access of selected row and column [11], as shown in Fig. 12. The pass-gate for write operation consists of the two NFETs connected in series between BL and the storage nodes, which are selected by row and column decoding, respectively, as shown in Fig. 12. Meanwhile, the pass-gate for read operation bypasses the column-decoded NFET which is connected to the storage node so that the read disturbance can be eliminated. As a result, the performances of read stability and the cell current drivability becomes the same as the read port of 8T-SRAM cell.

On the other hand, since the pass-gate for write operation consists of the two NFETs connected in series, the equivalent  $\gamma$ -ratio might be reduced compared with 8T. However, since the drivability of each of pass-gate NFETs can be increased without any concern for the  $\beta$ -ratio, the  $\gamma$ -ratio can be improved independently. This 10T-SRAM cell can completely eliminate the trade-off between the SNM, WRM, and the cell current at the expense cost of cell area due to the use of more transistors.

#### IV. READ AND WRITE MULTIPLEXING AND ITS IMPACT

As explained above, to have the designated ports for read and write by adding two or four NFETs is one of the effective ways to avoid the conflicting requirements from read and write stability issues. In this section, another alternative way of using read and write multiplexing is described.

##### 1. Time Division for Read with Suppressed WL and Write Operation

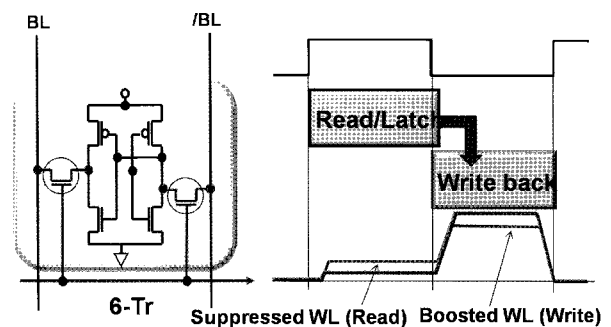
The limitations in using suppressed WL scheme stem

from the difficulty in finding a good balance between read and write requirements. In order to relax such constrain, the potential level of WL can also be modulated so that sufficient read stability can be maintained without any difficulties in writing.

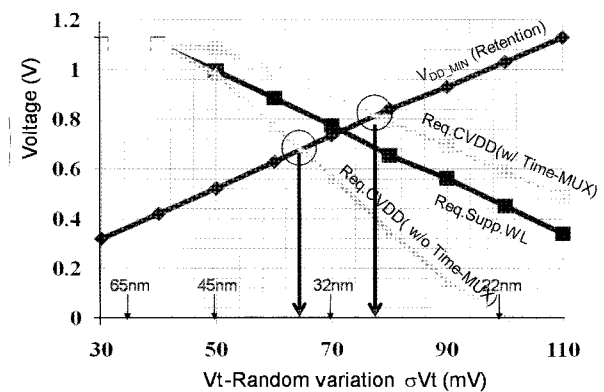
The potential levels of WL-on can be optimized separately for sequential read and write WL accesses so that its level becomes lower and higher for read and write operations, respectively, as shown in Fig. 13 (a). This scheme can shallow the required level of CVDD pull-down because of no need for the suppressed WL in write back period as shown in Figs. 13 (a) and (b). As a result, it can be seen that the cross-points of the required CVDD pull-down levels with the  $V_{DD\_MIN}$  for data retention level can be extended from  $\sigma_{VT}=65$  mV to 78mV by using the read and write time multiplexing, as shown in Fig. 13 (b).

In the same way, the required negative BL levels also can be relaxed from  $\sigma_{VT}=85$  mV to  $>110$  mV because of no need for the suppressed WL in write back period, as shown in Fig. 14 (a).

However, it can be found that the cell current improve



(a)



(b)

Fig. 13. (a) Time-division for read and write multiplexing for 6T-SRAM, (b) CVDD-down limit-point shifting impacts given by time multiplexing of read and write operation.

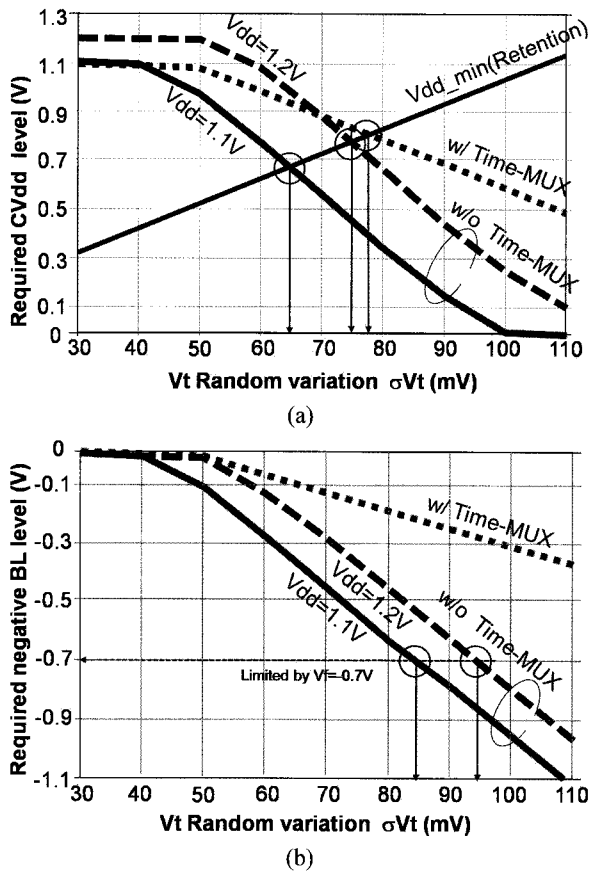


Fig. 14. Time multiplexing and raising Vdd impact on limit-points for (a) CVdd-down and (b) negative BL.

ment can't be expected at all even if using this kind of sequential control, as shown in Fig. 14 (b). It can be seen that the time-multiplexing scheme can shift the limit point for the CVDD pull-down and negative BL schemes more than that for increasing of  $V_{DD}$  from 1.1 V to 1.2 V, as shown in Fig. 14 (b).

However, since the Icell improvement can't be expected at all by only using the time-multiplexing scheme, raising  $V_{DD}$  (keeping Vdd as higher as possible) is also needed to meet the three functional margins for SNM, WRM, and Icell.

## 2. Time Division for Read with De-coupled Read Port and Write Operation

In order to solve the remaining issues discussed above, decoupled read port from the write port is introduced to eliminate the requirements of suppressed WL for read operation [8] as shown in Fig. 15. As a result, the decoupled read port of 8T-SRAM avoids the slowdown in the read access speed due to the suppressing WL, as

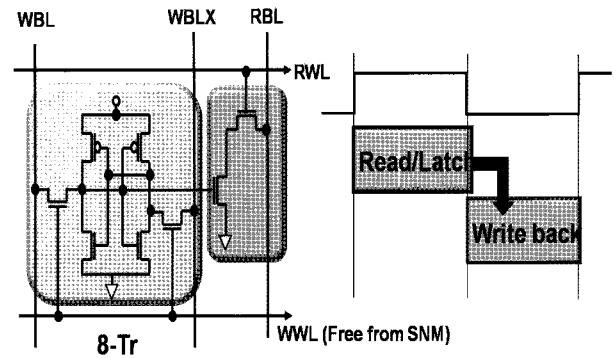


Fig. 15. Time-division for read and write multiplexing for 8T-SRAM.

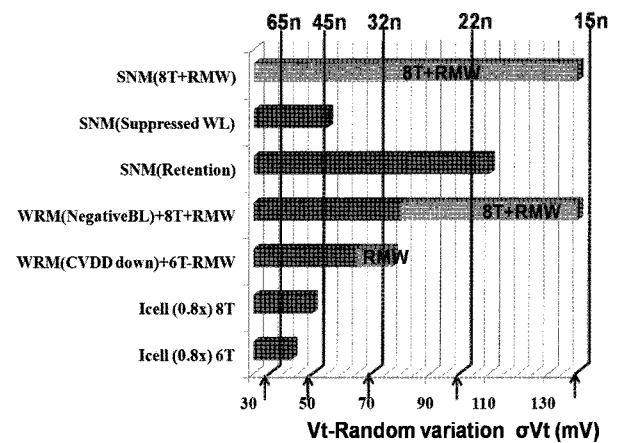


Fig. 16. Impacts on each design solution's availability given by read-modify write with decoupled R/W port.

shown in Fig. 13 (a). This scheme can completely eliminate the trade-off between the SNM, WRM, and the cell current at the expense of two-more NFETs area and sequential timing slot of read-modify-write, as shown in Fig. 15.

Fig. 16 shows how each scheme can play the key role for extending the limit of design solution as a function of  $\sigma_{VT}$ . It can be seen that read modify write operation with decoupled read port referred to as 8T+RMW can extend the timing of assist failure for SNM and WRM so that it can't be limited even if  $\sigma_{VT}$  becomes  $> 135$  mV.

## V. ECC SCHEME FOR REDUNDANCY

### 1. ECC Scheme for Yield Improvement

Error-checking and correcting (ECC) scheme is well known that it can reduce the failure rate, resulting in an increase of yield. Table 1 defines the meanings of several parameters which are used in the expressions of (1), (2)



**Table 1.** Definition of meaning of several parameters.

| Parameter | Definition  | Number       |
|-----------|---|--------------|
| N         | Total number of bits for each ECC word, $N = N_0 + N_p$                             | 136          |
| $N_0$     | The number of data bits   | 128          |
| $N_p$     | The number of parity bits   | 8            |
| r         | Bit error rate of each bit  | $Z=3.4-5.4$  |
| W         | The number of ECC words excluding redundant words                                   | 1024         |
| R         | The number of redundant ECC words   | $R=0-4$      |
| q         | The number of bits out of ECC-words of W that have uncorrectable error of 2 or more | $q=0 \sim W$ |

and (3) for estimating the yield improvement of SRAM when using the ECC words as shown below. ECC word includes N bits consisting of  $N_0$  data bits and  $N_p$  parity bits (e.g.,  $N_0=128$ ,  $N_p=8$  and  $N=136$ ), which can correct only one defect cell in the word [2]. Meanwhile, the ECC word with two or more defective cells can be replaced by adding redundant ECC words of R. The yield improvement of SRAM using both of ECC words of W and ECC redundancy words of R can be estimated as follows.

If the bit-error rate is r, the probability (p) of an ECC word having two or more defective cells is expressed as:

$$p = 1 - (1-r)^N - N \times r \times (1-r)^{(N-1)} \quad (1)$$

The probability that q out of ECC-words of W has uncorrectable error of 2 or more is expressed as:

$$P_q = W C_q \times p^q \times (1-p)^{(W-q)} \quad (2)$$

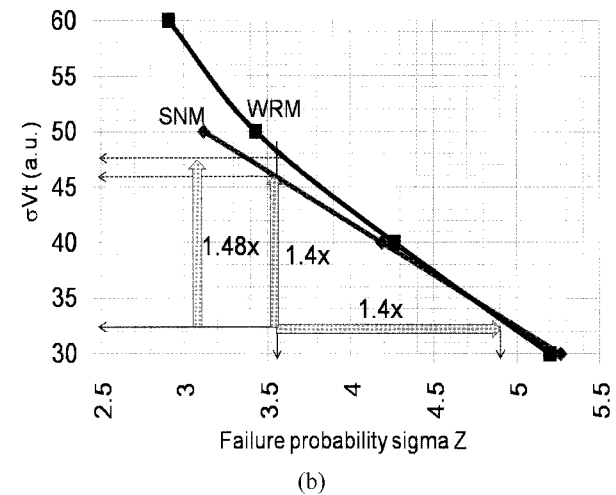
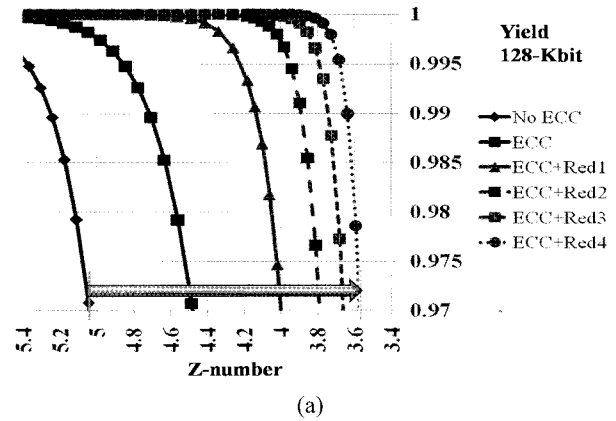
As a result, the yield can be expressed as:

$$Y = \sum_{q=0}^R P_q \quad (3)$$

, where the probability for defects of redundant ECC words of R is neglected for simplicity [22].

Based on the above equation, ECC impact on yield improvement as a function of the bit-error rate r (which is represented by the number of Z) is calculated as shown in Fig. 17 (a), where each parameter is assumed as shown in Table-1.

It can be seen that ECC plus its redundancy can significantly improve the bit-error tolerance. If  $R=4$ , failure



**Fig. 17.** (a) ECC Impacts on yield improvement and (b) relationship between failure probability sigma Z and  $\sigma_{VT}$ .

probability sigma Z can be reduced from 5 to 3.6. This means that even if the  $\sigma_{VT}$  is increased by 1.4-times ( $=5/3.6$ ) due to device scaling to the half (which corresponds to about one process generation), the similar yield can be maintained in the similar range of Z if the relationship between the failure probability (due to SNM and WRM) and  $\sigma_{VT}$  is a linear relation. Based on the reference [31], the relationships between the failure probability (due to SNM and WRM) and  $\sigma_{VT}$  can be known as a roughly linear in the range of Z (failure probability sigma) from 5 to 3.6, as shown in Fig. 17 (b). This implies that ECC combined with its redundancy can extend the limit of SRAM scaling by roughly one process generation even if  $\sigma_{VT}$  is increased by 1.4-times ( $=5/3.6$ ) due to device scaling to the half without EOT scaling.

**2. SRAM Scaling Impact Given by ECC**

Fig. 18 shows how each of 1) read-modify write with

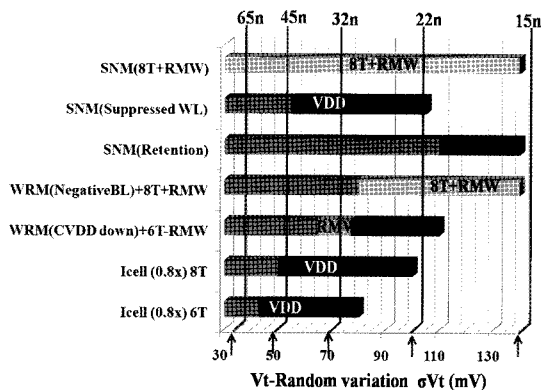


Fig. 18. Comparisons of SRAM scaling impacts given by each solution.

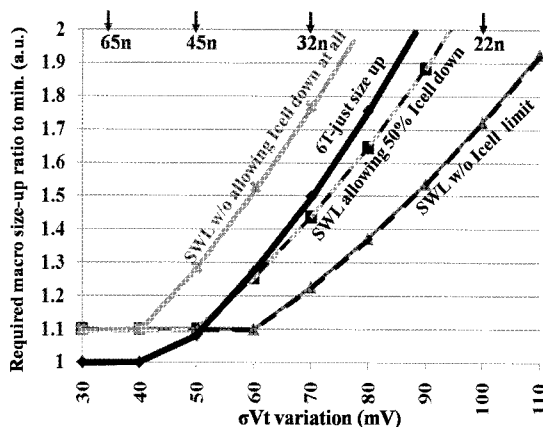


Fig. 19. Required macro up-sizing comparisons between suppressed WL and cell size-up.

8T-SRAM, 2)  $V_{DD}$  regularity and 3) ECC can relax the limitations of each design solutions as a function of  $\sigma_{VT}$ .

## VI. AREA SCALING TREND COMPARISONS

The design solutions for margin assists including 8T and 10T-SRAM cells are realized at the cost of additional area penalties caused by adding two or four MOSFETs and required associated peripheral circuits. Meanwhile, up-sizing 6T can reduce  $\sigma_{VT}$  and improve the functional margins at the expense of additional cell area due to larger channel width  $W_g$ . In that sense, the area comparisons of SRAM macro as a function of  $\sigma_{VT}$  is needed to discuss which design solution including up-sizing 6T becomes better solution for each request.

### 1. Area Comparisons of SNM and WRM Assists

As one of examples, up-sizing 6T compares with the

suppressed WL depending on how much Icell down can be allowed, as shown in Fig. 19, which shows the normalized required up-sizing ratio comparisons as a function of  $\sigma_{VT}$  among 1) up-sizing 6T, 2) suppressed WL (SWL) without care of Icell down, 3) SWL with allowing 50% Icell down, and 4) SWL without allowing Icell down at all. It can be seen that if 50% Icell down could be allowed, suppressed WL would have greater area-advantage than just up-sizing 6T when  $\sigma_{VT}$  becomes  $> 60$  mV. Meanwhile, when  $\sigma_{VT}$  is less than 50 mV, up-sizing 6T is superior in terms of macro area saving than the suppressed WL due to no need of additional area overhead of peripheral circuits to generate suppressed WL level.

### 2. Area Comparisons of Various Design Solutions

Area benefits from the cells with more transistors depend on the following requirements and conditions: 1) increasing cell current, 2) lowering  $V_{DD}$  operation, and 3) increasing  $\sigma_{VT}$ . As a result, there are cross over points if areas of 6T, 8T, 8T with time-multiplexing and 10T are compared as a function of the above conditions, as shown in Fig. 20 (a) and (b).

At the initial point, the minimum macro sizes for 10T and 8T are about 2.0-times and 1.4-times larger than 6T, respectively. However, the required conditions like Icell or  $\sigma_{VT}$  becomes severer, the required area for 6T crosses over 8T first and then 10T, as shown in Fig. 20 (a). It can be seen that 8T-SRAM combined with time-multiplexing can be smallest at the end of the day if the time-multiplexing (read-modify-write operations) can be allowed. This is due to no need of trade-off among SNM, WRM, and Icell in 8T cell.

In order to highlight the trend of area advantage as a function of  $\sigma_{VT}$ , Fig. 20 (a) shows the normalized required up-sizing ratio comparisons as a function of  $\sigma_{VT}$  among 1) up-sizing 6T, 2) 6T combined with both of negative BL and suppressed WL, 3) 8T combined with negative BL and read-modify-write, 4) 8T combined with negative BL and suppressed WL, and 5) cross-point 10T.

It can be seen that simply up-sizing 6T crosses over the two 8Ts combined with negative BL for WRM and read-modify-write and suppressed WL for SNM when  $\sigma_{VT}$  becomes  $> 70$  mV and  $> 80$  mV, respectively.

6T combined with negative BL and suppressed WL crosses over 8T combined with negative BL and supp-

ressed WL when  $\sigma_{VT}$  becomes  $> 90$  mV. 10T crosses over 8T combined with negative BL and suppressed WL when  $\sigma_{VT}$  becomes  $> 110$  mV.

If  $\sigma_{VT}$  could be suppressed  $> 70$  mV thanks to EOT scaling even at a 15 nm CMOS generation, as shown in Fig. 6 (b), 6T cells would be allowed long reign, as shown in Fig. 20 (b).

Fig. 20 (b) shows how EOT-scaling can play a key role for SRAM scaling by comparing with the case of non EOT-scaling (shown in Fig. 20 (a)).

It can be seen that if EOT can be scaled down to 1.9 nm for 65 nm node  $\rightarrow$  1.6 nm for 45 nm node  $\rightarrow$  1.4 nm for 32 nm node  $\rightarrow$  1.2 nm for 25 nm node  $\rightarrow$  1.0 nm for 15 nm node as shown in Fig. 6 (b), 6T-SRAM can survive with  $V_{DD}=1.2$  V or ECC  $V_{DD}=1.1$  V without using a read modify write operation with 8T-SRAM.

### 3. Various Design Options

As discussed above, many design options have been

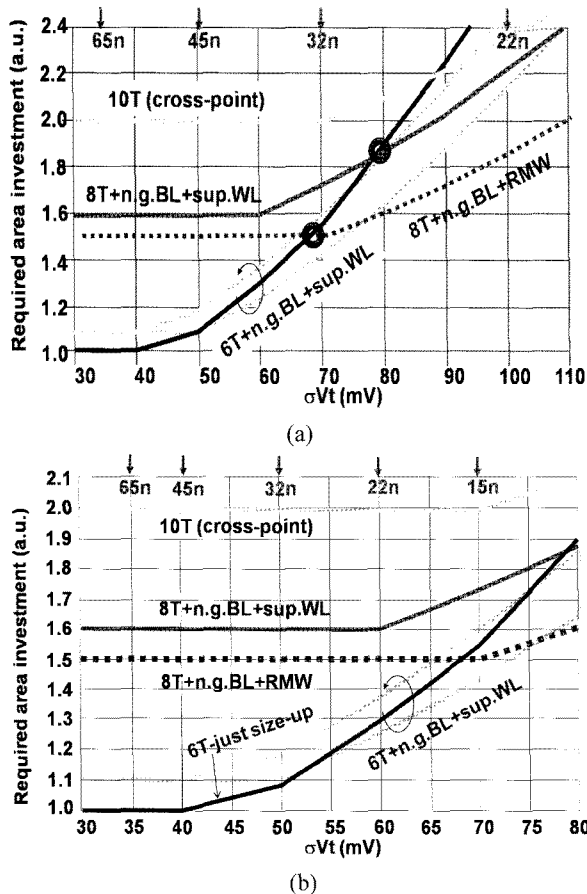


Fig. 20. Area comparisons of various SRAM cell options for the case of (a) optimistic  $\sigma_{VT}$  scaling (b) pessimistic  $\sigma_{VT}$  scaling.

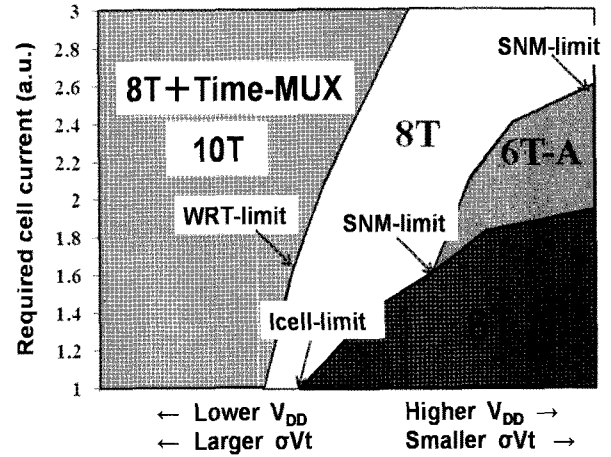


Fig. 21. Sketch for various design options.

proposed. However, it depends on the requirements and conditions that which can provide the best performance. Fig. 21 sketches out the concept for which option can become majority in each application. In Fig. 21, each application zone is roughly partitioned based on the required the cell current  $I_{cell}$  as Y-axis and  $V_{DD}$  range or the amount of  $\sigma_{VT}$  as X-axis.

If  $V_{DD}$  is excessively lowered and  $\sigma_{VT}$  becomes extremely larger for some applications, cross-point 10T-SRAM or 8T-SRAM combined with read-modify write would be more needed than upsizing 6T-SRAM, as shown in Fig. 21 and they would become majority in such region.

Meanwhile, if the required  $I_{cell}$  is extremely larger for higher-speed application for other applications, 8T-SRAM would become majority even if  $\sigma_{VT}$  is not extremely larger and  $V_{DD}$  is not excessively lowered, as sketched out in Fig. 21. 6T-A (Asymmetrical 6T-SRAM) also was proposed [12] targeting for around this region, as shown in Fig. 21.

### VII. CONCLUSIONS

The comparisons of area scaling trend of various SRAM margin-assist solutions for  $V_T$  variability issues have been discussed for the first time. It is found that if the optimistic and pessimistic scenarios for increasing pace of  $\sigma_{VT}$  are assumed that  $\sigma_{VT}$  gets  $< 70$  mV and  $> 130$  mV at 15 nm node, respectively, 6T SRAM would be allowed long reign even in 15 nm if  $\sigma_{VT}$  could be suppressed to  $< 70$  mV thanks to EOT scaling for LSTP process, otherwise 10T and 8T with read modify write would be needed after  $\sigma_{VT}$  becomes  $> 85$  mV and 75 mV, respectively.

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