

# A Low-Power SRAM for Viterbi Decoder in Wireless Communication

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**Abstract** — In a consumer electronic device, the embedded memories often consume a major portion of the total power. In this paper, we present a low-power SRAM design for a Viterbi decoder, featuring a quiet-bitline architecture with two techniques. Firstly, we use a one-side driving scheme for the write operation to prevent the excessive full-swing charging on the bitlines. Secondly, we use a precharge-free pulling scheme for the read operation so as to keep all bitlines at low voltages at all times. Silicon results shows that such architecture can lead to a significant 70% power reduction over a self-designed baseline low-power SRAM macro.

**Index Terms** — SRAM, embedded memory, low-power<sup>1</sup>

## I. INTRODUCTION

Static Random Access Memory (SRAM) has found its way into almost every IC as an embedded component. In a consumer electronic device, the embedded SRAM is often not operated to its maximum speed. As a result, it is very likely that one can sacrifice the memory's performance slightly without affecting the system's throughput, while saving significant power dissipation. This is the basic strategy of this work – by giving up 27% speed degradation we gain 76% power savings as compared to the state-of-the-art lower-power SRAM design.

For example, in a Viterbi decoder, which has been popularly used as the channel decoding scheme to guard the signal's integrity over a wireless channel from the disturbance of noise, the power consumption spent by the SRAM unit accounts for up to 70% of the total power [5]. As a result, minimizing the power consumption of the SRAM is a critical issue in a low-power Viterbi design.

Traditionally, an SRAM macro is mainly formed by an array of cells consisting of four or six transistors and a number of periphery circuits such as row decoder, column decoder, sense amplifier, write buffer, etc. Information access from/to this macro consume power in both dynamic and static ways. The dynamic power involving the switching of signals is consumed in operations such as wordline decoding, bitline charging/discharging, sense amplification, etc. The static power is consumed when there is a direct path from  $V_{DD}$  to ground during memory access.

The power consumption of the address decoders and the sense amplifiers can usually be tamed quite satisfactorily. In a

low-power SRAM design, the question is often how to minimize the excessive power due to the following sources: (1) wordline switching power, (2) bitline switching power, and (3) static power [7].

Divided wordline or divided bitline architecture [3][6][9] partitions the entire array into smaller pieces. The access of the memory is thereby confined to a smaller sub-array and the total capacitance that needs to be switched during a memory operation is thus reduced to save power. Nevertheless, divided architecture also requires significant area overhead for the extra decoding and controlling circuitry. Wordline pulse control [8] is an important scheme aimed at reducing the excessive static current flowing through the cells that are open for access. To achieve this goal, the wordline is only activated (i.e., raised to high voltage) for a minimal period of time. Also, current-mode access schemes [10] have reportedly achieved both high speed and low power consumption because of its instant read operation and low bitline swing nature. However, current-mode SRAM tends to be less reliable as compared to the conventional voltage-mode counterparts because of its higher sensitivity to the noise. For sub-90 nanometer technologies, the leakage power poses another threat since it sinks significant power in the standby mode, and thus affecting a device's battery lifetime. Numerous techniques like [1][4] have been proposed for this issue.

In this paper, we explore low-cost low-power architecture using *quiet bitlines*. By *quiet*, we mean that the voltages of the bitlines stay as low as possible at all times. The immediate reward is that all charging/discharging power associated with the bitlines can be eliminated dramatically. To achieve this goal, both the *write* and *read* operations need to be modified. For the *write* operation, a *one-side driving scheme* is devised in such a way that only a strong '0' signal is forced into the cell being accessed from one side, while leaving the other side floating. For the *read* operation, we use a *pulling scheme* that operates in four stages: bitline equalization, wordline activation, and bitline pulling, and finally sense amplification. Unlike conventional ways, we rely on low-power wide-input-range sense amplifier [2] to abandon the precharge operation to further minimize the energy loss on the bitlines. A 1k-bit SRAM macro fabricated in 0.18 $\mu$ m TSMC technology has validated that this scheme indeed has potential to save the power up to 70%.

## II. PRELIMINARIES

In this section, we review the basic structure and operations of a conventional 6-transistor SRAM.

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### A. Basic Column Structure

The structure of one column – including a representative cell, bitline conditioning circuitry, and write buffer – is shown in Fig. 1. Inside the cell, there are two inverters that form a cross-coupled latch for storing one-bit complementary information as  $Q$  and  $Q\text{-bar}$ . The two nMOS transistors of the inverter pair are called  $n\text{-drivers}$ , while the two pMOS transistors  $p\text{-drivers}$ . Also, it takes two nMOS transistors, called *access transistors*, to guard the passage of this latch to the bitline pair, *bitline* and *bitline-bar*.

In the bitline conditioning circuitry, it is common that there are two *precharge transistors* and an *equalizer transistor*, denoted as *EQ*. The precharge transistors connect the bitline and bitline-bar to  $V_{DD}$  at all times. While the memory macro is idle, these two transistors will set the bitline pair to their default voltage levels. Regarding the equalizer, it is mainly used to balance the voltage levels at bitline and bitline-bar and resolve any mismatched initial conditions before the read operation.

In the write buffer, a simple logic circuit takes as input the data bit and decides which strong *write drivers* (i.e., transistors with large sizes) should be turned on to force a complementary signal on the bitline pair. Here, the *write drivers* are multiple times stronger than the precharging transistors and thus will dominate the final voltage of the bitline if fighting exists.

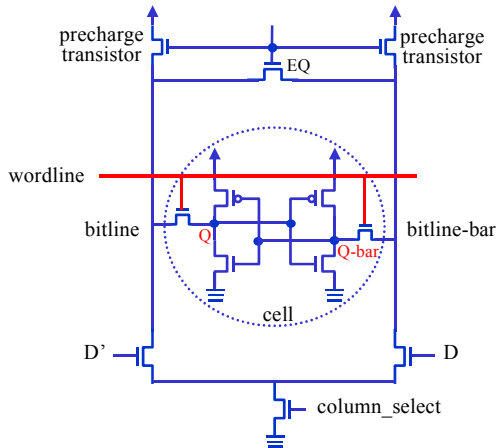


Fig. 1: Traditional 6-T SRAM column.

### B. Basic Read Operation

When a read operation is issued, the memory macro will go through the following steps:

- (1) Row decoding: The row address is decoded to activate a selected wordline. For low-power purpose, two-stage NAND type decoder is often desired at moderate sacrifice of speed.
- (2) Bitline driving: After the wordline has been turned on, the target cell connects to the bitline and bitline-bar. The so-called *cell current* through an  $n\text{-driver}$  of the target cell (as indicated in Fig. 2) will discharge the voltage of either bitline or bitline-bar progressively. The process is normally complete once 100~200 mV difference has been established between the bitline and bitline-bar. During this

bitline driving step, a direct current is formed from  $V_{DD}$  through a precharge transistor and the  $n\text{-driver}$  to the ground. Aggressive wordline pulse control will de-assert the wordline at the end of this step to suppress this static current.

- (3) Sensing: The sense amplifier is turned on to amplify the small difference voltage at the bitline pair into full-swing logic signals. There could be two stages of sense amplifiers performed in cascade to accelerate the process.
- (4) Precharging: At the end of the read operation, all bitline pairs will return to their normal default conditions through the precharge transistors and the equalizer and get ready for the next operation.

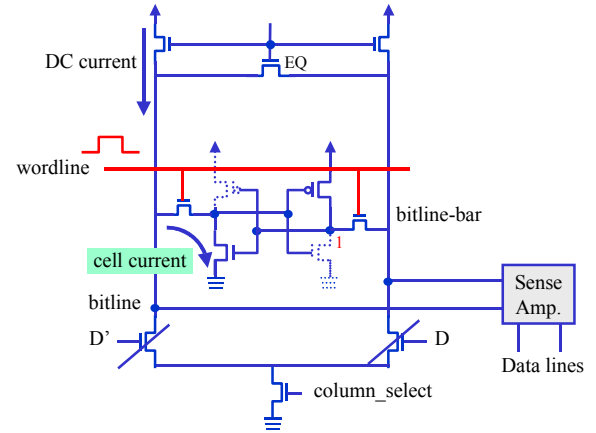


Fig. 2: Bitline discharging for the READ operation.

## III. BAD PIXEL DETECTION AND REPAIR

### A. Basic Write Operation

When a write operation is issued, the memory macro will go through the following steps:

- (1.1) Row decoding: Similar to the read operation, the row address decoding starts immediately to activate the selective wordline.
- (1.2) Bitline driving: For a write operation, this bitline driving conducts simultaneously with the row address decoding by turning on proper write buffer. After this step, the bitline pair will be forced into full-swing logic level.
- (2) Cell flipping: If the value of the stored bit in the target cell is the opposite to the value being written, then the cell flipping process will take place. Normally, the transistors in a cell are sized in a way that the cell only reacts to the '0' signal side of the bitline pair. For example, let us assume that the originally stored information in the target cell is  $\{Q=1, Q\text{-bar}=0\}$ . After the access transistors have turned on, the strong '0' signal on the bitline will overwhelm the stored  $Q$  bit '1' and make it become '0'. Once this over-writing is successful on one side, internal latch will take over to force the cell flipping and finally make  $Q\text{-bar}$  to change from '0' to '1' as well.
- (3) Precharging: At the end of the write operation, all bitline pairs return to their normal default conditions



On the average, we observed that such a one-side ‘0’-driving scheme reduces the bitline voltage swing to only 250mV – a 14% value of the power supply voltage 1.8V. Moreover, the power savings are beyond that. The extra direct current flowing through the precharge transistor, access transistor, and then to the *n-driver* has also been eliminated.

#### D. Worst-Case Scenarios

In our architecture, the read or write operations are both conducted with different initial conditions on the bitlines. Derivation of the worst-case scenarios is thus important in order to ensure the circuit’s functionality.

To gauge the worst-case scenario, we investigate how high the voltages of bitlines could become under a sequence of 15 consecutive write ‘1’ operations. The voltage waveforms of the bitline and bitline-bar are shown in Fig. 4. It can be seen that each write operation pumps certain charge into the floating bitline by the *p-driver* and cause its voltage to rise a few hundred mV. However, as the consecutive write operations proceed, the charge pumping strength gets weaker and weaker and finally the bitline voltage saturates at around 900 mV. This waveform indicates that the largest voltage a bitline or bitline-bar can get is around 900 mV. Under such a hostile situation, we apply a read and a write operation respectively to make sure that it can still function correctly. In the upper figure, we apply a read ‘0’ operation from another cell in the same column. In the lower figure, we apply a write ‘0’ operation. Both cases show correct response at the bitline pairs.

On the other hand, the read operation does not unilaterally increase charge on the floating bitline pair. A cell essentially pumps charges on one side of the bitline pair while discharges on the other. As a consequence, a sequence of consecutive read operation does not create hostile situation on the bitlines.

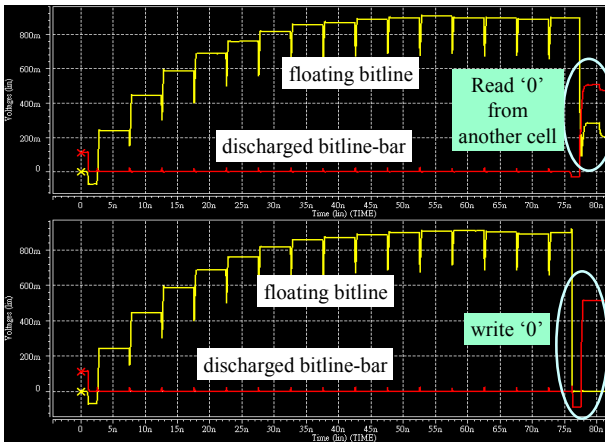


Fig. 4: Effects of 15 consecutive WRITE operations on bitlines.

### V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

To evaluate the effectiveness, we have implemented the proposed architecture as an SRAM macro with *1K bits*. This macro is required in our in-house low-power Viterbi decoder as

the so-called survivor path memory. This memory macro was taped out separately using *TSMC 1P6M 0.18μm CMOS process* for validating its power advantage. For comparison, we also implemented a conventional SRAM macro with the same configuration using the common low-power techniques, including a two-stage NAND-decoder, the wordline pulse control, and low-power sense amplifiers.

Table 1 lists the SPICE simulation results of these two versions. The simulation is performed under 1.8V supply voltage, 25°C temperature, and a 200MHz clock signal. The meaning of each column in Table 1 is as follows:

- Read power: The average power for performing a read operation.
- Write power: The average power for performing a write operation.
- Average power: calculated by (read power + write power) / 2.
- Access Time: The time required to complete a read or write operation.

It can be seen that our quiet-bitline architecture consumes only 2.4mW on the average, which is only 24% of the power consumption of the reference design. That is, we have achieved 76% reduction. It is also notable that our scheme reduces the power consumption of the write operation (-86%) more than that of the read power (-61%). The access time of our design is 3.02ns, which is indeed longer than that of the reference design, 2.38ns. However, this macro is used in our Viterbi decoder designed to operate at 200MHz. The access time of the new SRAM macro, 3.02ns, is still well below the clock cycle time requirement of 5ns. This implies that such an access time increase does not actually cause any system performance loss in our application.

Table 1: Post-layout simulation results.

Type	Read Power (mW) @200MHz	Write Power (mW) @200MHz	Average Power (mW) @200MHz	Access Time (ns)
Ref. Design	7.74	12.24	9.99	2.38
Our Design	3.04	1.75	2.40	3.02
Comparison	-61%	-86%	-76%	+27%

The test chip has been fabricated successfully with the die photo shown in Fig. 5. Due to the wiring effects across the load board and bounding wire, our chip can only be tested up to 50MHz in our test environment. Our chips function correctly. The waveform of the data output pin logged by our tester is shown in Fig. 6. It can be seen that the data output rises to high after a two-operation sequence - WRITE ‘1’ followed by READ ‘1’ from the same cell, and it correctly goes low after another two-operation sequence - WRITE ‘0’ followed by READ ‘0’.

We measure the average power dissipation of six fabricated chips operated at 50MHz under a common March test algorithm, going through the following stages:

- (1) WRITE every cell in the array to ‘0’.



- (2) READ every cell and check if all are '0'.
- (3) WRITE every cell in the array to '1'.
- (4) READ every cell and check if all are '1'.
- (5) Scanning the first cell towards the last cell in a row-major order. At each cell, we perform {READ(1), WRITE(0), READ(0)} operations.
- (6) Scanning backward from the last cell towards the first cell in a row-major order. At each cell, we perform {READ(0), WRITE(1), READ(1)}.

As shown in Table 2, the average of the measured power consumption over six fabricated chips is about 977  $\mu$ W, which is very close to the data obtained by post-layout simulation, 932  $\mu$ W. Since the power consumption of our reference design by post-layout simulation is 3456  $\mu$ W, we thus draw a conclusion that our chips achieve  $(3456 - 977) / 3456 * 100\% = 70.6\%$  power savings.

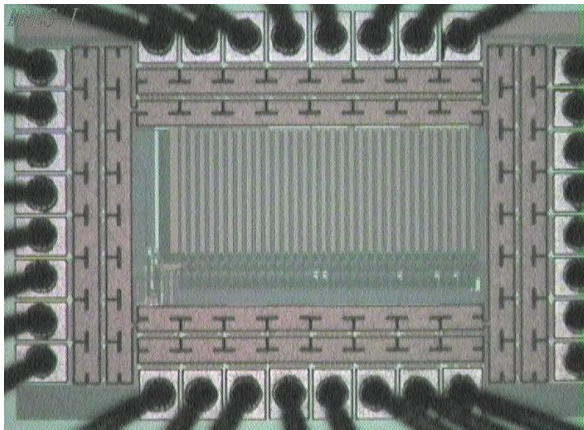


Fig. 5: Die photo of our test chip.

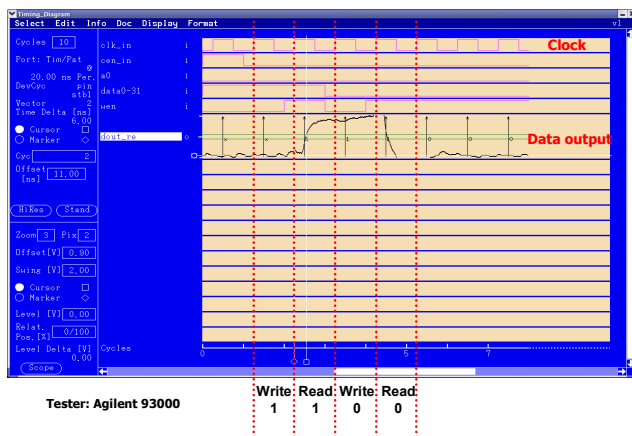


Fig. 6: Data output waveform observed by our tester.

## VI. CONCLUSION

We present in this paper a low-power SRAM macro of a Viterbi decoder. In this Viterbi decoder design, the SRAM macro is the power hungry part, but not the performance bottleneck and therefore a low-power technique that degrades the SRAM's speed slightly does not actually degrade the system's performance at all. Our low-power strategy aims to

keep bitlines at low voltages at all times. We achieved this goal by two schemes – the precharge-free pulling scheme for the read operation and the one-side driving scheme for the write operation. This strategy has been validated in silicon. The results show that up to 70% power reduction is indeed possible.

Table 2: Comparison of measured power and simulated power.

Chip or Design		Average Power ( $\mu$ W) @50MHz	Comparison
Reference Design		3456	100%
Our Quite-Bitline Design		932	27%
Fabricated Chips	Chip #1	1037	30.0%
	Chip #2	1051	30.4%
	Chip #3	1003	29.0%
	Chip #4	1040	30.1%
	Chip #5	1017	29.4%
	Chip #6	977	28.3%
	Average	1021	29.5%

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