## 國立交通大學

# 電信工程研究所

## 碩士論文

應用參數化閉合型式並考慮時序相關性的 統計型靜態時序分析於軟性錯誤率分析 Applying Parameterized Closed-Form SSTA Considering Timing Correlation to Soft Error Rate Analysis

研究生:張家慶

指導教授:溫宏斌

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研究生:張家慶

指导教授:温宏斌

Student : Chia-Ching Chang Advisor : Hung-Pin Wen



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學生:張家慶

#### 指導教授:溫宏斌

#### 國立交通大學電信工程研究所碩士班

#### 摘 要

對於屬於次微米世代的 CMOS 設計,由於製程變異,軟性錯誤的統計特性變得 更為複雜。製程變異使得軟性錯誤的行為有極大的不確定性,因此要精準地估計 電路的軟性錯誤,統計的方法是不可或缺的。然而,不論現有用於軟性錯誤架構 的方法是什麼,這些方法通常需要在效率與準確度之間作取捨。因此在這篇論 文,我們提出以一次標準式為基礎的邏輯閘單元模型,以降低時間耗損。在假設 所有製程變異的參數皆為常態分佈的前提下,這些被推導成閉合形式的單元模型 是精準的。根據這些模型,可以用類似區塊基準統計性時序分析法去分析統計性 軟性錯誤。實驗結果展示了提出的模型只有很小的誤差並且證明了我們的方法可 以極具效率地估計電路上的統計性軟性錯誤,而且對比 SPICE 模擬出的結果是足 夠準確的。

#### Applying Parameterized Closed-Form SSTA Considering Timing Correlation to Soft Error Rate Analysis

student : Chia-Ching Chang

Advisors : Dr. Hung-Pin Wen

Institute of Communication Engineering National Chiao Tung University

#### ABSTRACT

For CMOS designs in the deep submicron era, statistical methods are essential to accurately estimate circuit SER under process variations, which lead to significant uncertainty in behavior of soft errors. Due to process variations, a number of statistical natures of soft errors become more sophisticated than their static one. However, regardless of the methods used in current statistical SER (SSER) frameworks are, they usually require the tradeoff of accuracy and efficiency. In this work, we present accurate cell models based on a first-order-canonical form to reduce timing cost, and upon which, SSERs can be analyzed similarly to block-based SSTA. These cell models are derived in closed-form and precise under the assumption of normal distribution of process parameters. Experimental results show that the errors of proposed models are small and our approach is highly efficient for estimating circuit SSERs with reasonable accuracy when compared to SPICE simulation.

能夠順利完成這篇碩士論文,首先要感謝的就是我的指導教授溫宏彬老 師。在碩士的兩年,老師不僅在課業與研究上給我許多寶貴的意見與幫助, 在做人處事上,無論是人與人之間的相處之道,或者是處理事情的態度與方 法,更是使我獲益良多。而實驗室的氣氛也因為老師對待學生就像是朋友一 般,因此非常的歡樂與團結。真的很慶幸可以成為老師的學生,讓我在面對 充滿不確定性的未來有足夠的自信心,不管是遇到任何困難也能夠以更具健 全的心理去面對。

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# Chapter 1

# Introduction



Due to increasingly CMOS technology scaling, the reliability issues become more and more important. When only concerned in memory, soft errors are one of the major failure mechanisms for logic circuits [1]. Compared to the typical failure rate for reliability mechanisms, the soft error rate (SER) is much higher and has become an unavoidable problem since the circuit speed increases rapidly, which makes occurrence of soft errors more frequent [2]. Radiation-induced transient faults result in such errors, which are latched by state-holding elements, and make data state of the elements corrupted without permanently damaging the elements.

The behavioral analysis of soft errors depends on three masking effects [3]: logical, electrical and timing masking. As shown in Figure 1.1, logical masking occurs when the transient faults are blocked during propagation by a controlling value on the side-input of one gate along the propagation path. Due to electrical properties of gates, electrical masking leads to the attenuation or the amplification of transient faults, depending on the input values of gates [23]. Timing masking happens when the transient faults arrive a state-holding element outside or smaller than its clock transition window (setup time + hold time).



Figure 1.1: Three masking mechanisms for soft errors

Traditional methods to evaluate static soft error for combinational logic were proposed. FASER [5] and MARS-C [24] apply symbolic techniques to both logical and electrical maskings and scale the error probability according to the specified clock period. SERA methodology in [6] computes SER by evaluating error-latching probability and the electrical-masking effect without considering logical masking. Krishnaswamy et al. [13] propose a static analysis for timing masking by backwards computing the propagation starting from the error latching windows. SEAT-LA [25] and Rao et al. [26] obtain good SER estimation compared to the result of SPICE simulation by simultaneously characterize cells, flip-flops and propagation of transient faults. The work in [12] propagates and electrically evaluates the change of transient faults through one gate according to the logic function and analytical models, which are incorporated with nonlinear transistor current. Consequently, SER has become a key metric for circuit reliability and been extensively investigated.

In recent years, process variations have been gradually concerned and brought a new challenge for accurately estimating the SER. The authors in [15] [16] first analyze the impact of the variation sources on SER and find that the traditional static approaches will underestimate circuit SER in presence of process variation. Using 45nm technology, the impact of process variations on SER is illustrated in Figure 1.2, where SERs are measured on a sample circuit under different process variations ( $\sigma_{proc}$ 's). According to Figure 1.2, the simulation result of SERs by static SPICE is underestimated compared to statistical results. Peng el al. in [23] apply state-of-art statistical learning algorithm to tackle the variation-induced uncertainty and build SVM models for transient faults. Kuo et al. in [14] propose quality table-based cell models to estimate SSER and customize the use of quasi-random sequences to shorten runtime. However, regardless of what approaches used in current SSER frameworks are, they usually need to sacrifice either the efficiency for the accuracy or the accuracy for efficiency.



Figure 1.2: SER differences between static and Monte-Carlo SPICE simulation w.r.t. different process variation

In this work, we propose a new idea that a transient fault is considered as two transitions, one is a rising edge and the other is a falling edge. Two edges are analyzed separately using analytical approach of statistical static timing analysis [19], which is based on the concept of a first-order canonical form [20]. Since a transient fault is analyzed by a closed-form

statistical timing method, not only a large portion of timing cost can be reduced but the timing information can be preserved, which is helpful to analyze the interactive behavior of transient faults. Moreover, the correlations are the main concerns when applying the SSTA approach to estimate the SSER. From experiment results, we know that the correlation between transition signal and corresponding gate delay should be considered but the correlation between transition signals can be ignored instead since the SER difference is smaller than 1%. Thus, we employ the correlation-aware parameterized SSTA to obtain more accurate SER. From the experimental results, our SSER framework is capable of obtaining reasonable results with much better speed compared to previous works.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: In Chapter 2, SSTA-related and SSERrelated works are reviewed. In Chapter 3, we propose the flow of parameterized closedform framework for SSER analysis. Parameterized First-order canonical form of transient faults is detailed in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 illustrates the experimental results, including the accuracy of our models, the SSERs as well as the runtime over a variety of ISCAS benchmarks and a series of multipliers. Chapter 6 concludes this paper and describes the

future works.



# Chapter 2

# Preliminary



In this section, we review the first order canonical form for statistical timing analysis and the frameworks of statistical soft error rate analysis in section 2.1 and section 2.2, respectively.

#### 2.1 Statistical static timing analysis



Figure 2.1: Flow of close-form parameterized block-based SSTA

Visweswariah et al. [20] propose a canonical first order delay model which considers both correlated and independent randomness. By expressing timing quantities in the canonical form, the arrival times and required arrival times can be propagated through timing graph using a linear time block-based statistical timing algorithm. Moreover, the local and global criticality probabilities can be computed with a very small timing cost. In a standard or canonical first order form, a timing quantity such as gate or wire delay can be expressed as follows:

$$t \triangleq a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \Delta X_i + a_{n+1} \Delta V_a$$

where  $a_0$  is the nominal value of delay,  $\Delta X_i$  represents the variation of n global sources  $X_i$  from their nominal value,  $a_i$  is the sensitivity of each of global sources of variation, and  $\forall i \in [1, n]$ .  $\Delta V_a$  means the variation of an independent random variable  $V_a$  from its nominal value and  $a_{n+1}$  is the sensitivity of the timing quantity to  $V_a$ .

Then, to apply canonical first order form to statistical timing analysis, the operations of *sum* and *max* are required. The procedure of the *sum* operation of two distributed-jointly random variables is described as follows: Let t' = t + d, where t' is the resultant by *summing up two mutually-correlated random variables t and d. The mean and variance of* t' can be derived as:

$$\mu_{t'} = E(t') = E(t+d) = E(t) + E(d) = \mu_t + \mu_d$$
(2.1)

$$\sigma_{t'}^{2} = E((t' - E(t'))^{2})$$

$$= E(t'^{2}) - (E(t'))^{2}$$

$$= E((t + d)^{2}) - (E(t + d))^{2}$$

$$= E(t^{2}) + 2E(td) + E(d^{2})$$

$$-(E(t))^{2} - 2E(t)E(d) - (E(d))^{2}$$

$$= E(t^{2}) - (E(t))^{2} + E(d^{2}) - (E(d))^{2}$$

$$+2E(td) - 2E(t)E(d)$$

$$= \sigma_{t}^{2} + \sigma_{d}^{2} + 2\rho_{td}\sigma_{t}\sigma_{d}$$
(2.2)

where  $\rho_{td}$  denotes the correlation coefficient of t and d. On the other hand, Visweswariah et al. [20] use the concept of tightness probability to deduce the result of max operation of two timing quantities in canonical form. To describe the max operation, we denote Z = max(X, Y), where Z is the responsive random variable obtained by taking max operation between random variables X and Y. The moment of Z can be derived as:

$$\mu_{Z} = E(Z) = E(max(X,Y))$$

$$= \mu_{X}T_{x} + \mu_{Y}(1 - T_{X}) + \theta_{\phi}(\frac{\mu_{X} + \mu_{Y}}{\theta})$$

$$\sigma_{Z}^{2} = \mu_{2}(Z) = \mu_{2}(max(X,Y))$$

$$= (\sigma_{X}^{2} + \mu_{X}^{2})T_{X} + (\sigma_{Y}^{2} + \mu_{Y}^{2})(1 - T_{X})$$

$$+ (\mu_{X} + \mu_{Y})\theta_{\phi}(\frac{\mu_{X} - \mu_{Y}}{\theta}) - \mu_{Z}^{2}$$

where the definition of tightness probability  $T_X$  is the probability of random variable X

larger than random variable Y. More details can be referred to [17] [18].

In the proposed framework, a transient fault is split into two transition signals, which are timing quantities and can be expressed in canonical form so they also can be efficiently analyzed by a parameterized block-based SSTA. The difference between SSER and SSTA is that the prior one only cares about the pulse-width change of a transient fault rather than the timing with maximum delay.

#### 2.2 Statistical soft error rate analysis

Due to process variation, the behavior of a transient fault becomes unpredictable and can be no longer estimated accurately by static approaches. Both learning-based and simulation-based methods for statistical soft error analysis are studied in the literaure.

Peng el al. [23] re-examine the soft error behaviors caused by radiation-induced particles under process variation and find that transient faults are no longer monotonically diminishing after propagation. In other words, both the upgrade and degradation of transient faults are possible. Moreover, they conclude that the traditional static methods will underestimate the soft error rate due to the weak charge-induced soft errors are ignored. Thus, they propose a statistically learning-based framework to cope with these complex and sophisticated issues. The major idea for prediction of the behavior of soft errors is to analyze three masking effects through the start-of-the-art learning theory. Although using learning-based approach to analyze SER can achieve good efficiency, the accuracy of SER results is not good enough.

In their framework [23], the elements of SSER problem can formulated into

- 1. signal-probability computation
- 2. electrical-probability computation

where the electrical probability computation includes two effects, timing masking effect and electrical masking effect. And the signal probability computation corresponds to the logical masking effect. Details of the framework will be described in section 3.

Since quality statistical model is the bottleneck of all previous SSER frameworks, satisfactory accuracy of SSER results have not yet been achieved. For this reason, the authors in [14] present accurate table-based cell models for transient fault distributions according to which a Monte Carlo SSER analysis framework is built. By looking up the precharacterized table cells, both the sample points of strike and propagation transient faults can be obtained in each iteration, and then the new distributions of strike and propagation models are computed from these points. To shorten the runtime, Kuo et al. [14] further deploys a heuristic to customize the use of quasi-random sequences, which successfully speed up the convergence of simulation error. Although the accurate SSER results are gotten in this work, the lengthy simulation time is still unsolved and make this simulation-based method inapplicable to industrial circuits.

The two works described above differ from the methods to derive the distributions of transient faults arriving any primary output or flip flop, which is related to electrical probability computation. In this work, the goal is also to efficiently and accurately compute the final distributions of transient faults, which is a procedure of linear form formulation shown in Figure 3.1. After acquiring the distribution of transient faults, the occurrence of soft errors on the flip-flops can be determined by checking whether these transient faults fall outside or are smaller than the error latching window of the flip flops or not. If a transient fault is wide enough to cover the latching window, a soft error is generated; otherwise, it is masked.

## **Chapter 3**

# **Full-Chip Estimation of Statistical Soft Error Rate (SSER)**





In this chapter, we first review the analysis of soft error rate at full-chip level considering the process-variation impact beyond the deep submicron era [23], which is shown in Figure 3.1. The overall analysis mainly consists of three components: (1) Logic-Probability Computation, (2) Electrical-Pulse Propagation, and (3) Soft-Error Accumulation, and the overall flow of full-chip SSER is shown in Figure 3.1. The following sections are dedicated to these components in detail and the global view of the linear form formulation, respectively.

#### 3.1 Soft-Error Accumulation

From the full-chip perspective, the overall SER can be defined by accumulating soft errors  $(SE(\cdot))$  resulting from particle strikes at each individual gate  $(c_i)$  in the chip. That is,

$$\operatorname{SER}_{full-chip} = \sum_{i=1}^{\#_{gate}} \operatorname{SE}(c_i)$$

where  $\#_{gate}$  denotes the total number of gates which are possible to be struck by radiative particles in the chip. Note that the transient fault caused by a particle strike may be propagated and received by different memory-holding elements, and results in numerous soft errors.

Each  $SE(c_i)$  can be further formulated by integrating the products of *particle-hit rate* and the error probability over the range of charge strength from  $q_{min}$  to  $q_{max}$  as follows:

$$\mathbf{SE}(c_i) = \int_{q=q_{min}}^{q_{max}} \mathbf{R}_{PH}(q) \times \mathbf{Pr}_{err}(c_i, q) \, \mathrm{d}q \tag{3.1}$$

where  $Pr_{err}(c_i, q)$  denotes the error probability that a transient fault originated from a collection charge with strength q at node  $c_i$  can be latched by any flip-flop.

Here  $R_{PH}(q)$ , the particle-hit rate, is the effective *frequency* that a particle with strength q hit at the circuit in unit time and in [3] [6], it is defined as

$$\mathbf{R}_{PH}(q) = F \times K \times A(c_i) \times \frac{1}{q_s} \times \exp(\frac{-q}{q_s})$$

where F, K, A() and  $q_s$  denote the constants for neutron flux (> 10MeV), the technologyindependent fitting parameter, the susceptible area in  $cm^2$  and the slope of charge collection, respectively.

One key point that can be observed from the definition is that smaller charge collection occurs much more frequently than large charge collection and accounts for the difference between static SER and statistical SER in [23]. Moreover, for a practical SER analysis framework, the above continuous integration in Equation 3.1 is often simplified by discretization. That is,

$$SE(c_i) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} R_{PH}(q_k) \times Pr_{err}(c_i, q_k)$$
(3.2)

where  $q_k = k \times (q_{max} - q_{min})/n$  and according to [5] and [23], empirically, n = 3 or n = 4 suffices to reach a satisfactory accuracy of SER.

The error probability  $Pr_{err}(c_i, q)$  depends on all three masking effects illustrated in Figure 1.1 and can be further decomposed into

$$\operatorname{Pr}_{err}(c_i, q) = \sum_{j=1}^{\#_{FF}} \operatorname{Pr}_{logc}(c_i, d_j) \times \operatorname{Pr}_{elec}(c_i, d_j, q)$$
(3.3)

where  $\#_{FF}$ ,  $Pr_{logc}$ ,  $Pr_{elec}$ , respectively, denote the total number of flip-flops in the circuit, the logic-masking probability and the electrical probability related to electrical-masking and timing-masking effects. The corresponding details are elaborated into the following sections.

#### **3.2 Logic-Probability Computation**

 $Pr_{logc}(c_i, d_j)$  represents the overall logic probability of successfully propagating the transient faults through all paths from gate  $c_i$  to flip-flop  $d_j$ . A  $Pr_{logc}(c_i, d_j)$  can be computed by multiplying the signal probabilities of non-controlling value of all gates on paths and shown as:

$$\Pr_{logc}(c_i, d_j) = \Pr_{sig}(c_i^*) \times \prod_{c_k \in c_i \rightsquigarrow d_j} \Pr_{sig}(c_k)$$

where  $\Pr_{sig}(c_i^*)$  is the probability of logic-0 (logic-1) when a positive (negative) transient fault is generated at  $c_i$ , and  $c_k$ , neither  $c_i$  nor  $d_j$ , is another gate along the path  $(c_i \rightsquigarrow d_j)$ .  $\Pr_{sig}(c_k)$  represents the signal probability for a non-controlling side-input that does not forbid a transient fault propagating through gate  $c_k$ .

Take Figure 3.2 for example to comput  $Pr_{sig}$ . Assume the probability of being 1 on input *a* is  $P_a$ , and so is  $P_b$ . The signal requirement for propagating a positive transient fault is both a = 0 and b = 0 as shown in Figure 3.2(a). Hence, the probability of passing such an event is  $Pr_{sig} = (1 - P_a) \times (1 - P_b)$ . To propagate a negative transient fault as shown in Figure 3.2(b), the necessary condition is a = 1 and b = 0, so the corresponding probability is  $Pr_{sig} = P_a \times (1 - P_b)$ . Other gate types can be derived similarly.

When computing signal probabilities, it is essential to handle the reconvergent fanout nodes (RFONs) because ignoring RFONs may lead to considerable computation error [21]. However, true signal probabilities may not be always available especially when the number of design inputs exceeds certain bound. Therefore, a linear-time heuristic is typically



Figure 3.2: Signal probability for one OR gate

employed to handle the RFONs. In this paper, we choose *dynamic weighted averaging algorithm (DWAA)* and more details of DWAA can be found in [21].

#### **3.3 Electrical-Pulse Propagation**

 $Pr_{elec}(c_i, d_j, q)$  in Equation (3.3) reflects the electrical-masking and timing-masking effects on the transient fault induced by charge q along the path  $(c_i \rightsquigarrow d_j)$  and can be further decomposed into

$$Pr_{elec}(c_i, d_j, q) = Pr_{t-mask}(pw_j, w_j)$$
$$= Pr_{t-mask}(f_{e-mask}(c_i, d_j, q), w_j)$$

where  $Pr_{t-mask}()$  and  $f_{e-mask}()$  accounts for the timing-masking and electrical-masking effects, respectively.

Timing-masking probability,  $Pr_{t-mask}()$ , assumes that the pulse width of an arrival transient fault and the latching window  $(t_{setup} + t_{hold})$  of a flip-flop with a clock period are all random variables and denoted as pw, w, and  $t_{clk}$ , respectively. A new random variable vcan be defined as v = pw - w where  $\mu_v$  and  $\sigma_v$  are its mean and standard deviation. Then,

$$\Pr_{t\text{-}mask}(pw,w) = \frac{1}{t_{clk}} \int_0^{\mu_v + 3\sigma_v} v \times P(v > 0) \mathrm{d}v$$

On the other side, *electrical-masking function*,  $f_{e-mask}()$ , reflects the pulse-width change of transient faults through a gate and can be defined as:

Given the node  $c_i$  where the charge with strength q strikes and causes a transient fault, and the flip-flop  $d_j$  at which the transient fault finally ends, assume that the transient fault propagates along the path  $c_i \rightsquigarrow d_j$  through node  $v_0, v_1, \cdots, v_n, v_{n+1}$  where  $v_0$  and  $v_{n+1}$  denote the hit gate  $c_i$  and flip-flop  $d_j$ , respectively.

$$f_{e-mask}(c_i, d_j, q) = \underbrace{\lambda_{prop}(\cdots (\lambda_{prop}(\lambda_{prop}(\mu_0, 1), 2), \cdots), n)}_{n \text{ times}} (3.4)$$

where  $pw_0 = \lambda_{hit}(c_i, q)$  is the initial pulse width induced by a particle with charge q strikes at gate  $c_i$  and  $\forall k \in [0, n)$ ,  $pw_{k+1} = \lambda_{prop}(pw_k, k+1)$  represents the resulting pulse width after propagating through  $v_{k+1}$ .

 $\lambda_{hit}$  and  $\lambda_{prop}$  in Equation (3.4), respectively, represent the *first-hit* and *propagation* distribution functions, which can reflect the behavior of transient faults during their generations and propagations. Both functions are non-deterministic and can only be approximated in a SER analysis framework. Accordingly, efficient and accurate models,  $\psi_{hit}$  and  $\psi_{prop}$ , become the most critical since integrating the process-variation impacts on soft error is difficult . In this work, both  $\psi_{hit}$  and  $\psi_{prop}$  are derived as *first-order canonical forms* so that deduction over  $\psi_{hit}$  and  $\psi_{prop}$  can be done by the method of moment estimation (MME) [22]. So, the estimated electrical-masking function in Equation (3.4) can be modified into

$$f_{e\text{-mask}}(c_i, d_j, q) \approx \underbrace{\psi_{prop}(\cdots(\psi_{prop}(\psi_{prop}(\widehat{pw}_0, 1), 2), \cdots), n)}_{n \text{ times}}$$

where  $\widehat{pw}_0 = \psi_{hit}(c_i, q)$  and  $\forall k \in [0, n)$ , each  $\widehat{pw}_{k+1} = \lambda_{prop}(\widehat{pw}_k, k+1)$  is an estimator for the pulse width after propagating through  $v_{k+1}$  along the path  $(c_i \rightsquigarrow d_j)$ .

#### **3.4** Algorithm of SEU propagation

Since it is possible that a single event upset (SEU) happens at one of the gates on the circuit under test (CUT), all gates on the CUT are the candidates of hit gate. After the

hit gate  $c_i$  is determined, the transient fault induced by a particle strike at output of  $c_i$  can be analyzed in the generation stage and propagation stage by first-hit model  $\psi_{hit}$  and propagation model  $\psi_{prop}$ , respectively. The pseudocode of the algorithm for electrical-pulse propagation in Figure 3.1 is described as:

#### **Algorithm 1** SEU\_at (hitGate $c_i$ )

- 1: markPropagationTree $(c_i)$
- 2: sortPropagationTreeByLevel
- 3: repeat
- 4: Node Z = output of next gate  $c_j$  in  $G_{prop}$
- 5:  $D = \text{Get}_{Moment}(c_j)$
- 6: RFON = CheckRFON(Z)
- 7: **if** RFON is false **then**
- 8: X =on-path input of  $c_i$
- 9:  $t_x = \text{Get\_moment}(X)$
- 10:  $T_z = sum(D, t_x)$
- 11: **end if**
- 12: **if** RFON is true **then**
- 13:  $(X,Y) = \text{inputs of } c_j$
- 14:  $t_x = \text{Get\_moment}(X)$
- 15:  $t_y = \text{Get\_moment}(Y)$

16: 
$$t'_x = sum(D, t_x)$$

17: 
$$t'_y = sum(D, t_y)$$

- 18:  $T_z = merge(t'_x, t'_y)$
- 19: **end if**
- 20: until Visit all nodes in propagation tree

21: return moments of transient faults arriving any flip-flop or PO;

In the generation stage, the first-hit model  $\psi_{hit}$  is used to deduce the distribution of the particle-induced transient fault on the output of the hit gate  $c_i$ . Then, the initial transient fault is split into a rising-transition signal and a falling-transition signal, denoted as  $t_r^0$  and

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 $t_f^0$ , and their moments can be deduced by  $\psi_{hit}$ , too. The propagation stage is succeeding to the generation stage and can be described in three steps.

Firstly, to acquire the propagation tree  $G_{prop}$  of the transient fault starting from  $c_i$  and terminating at any pseudo primary output (PPO) or any primary output (PO), the breath-first search is employed to trace all the gates on  $G_{prop}$ . Once a gate is visited, it will be added into  $G_{prop}$  and the flag is set as *VISITED* so that any gate on the reconvergent nodes won't be tranced again. After  $G_{prop}$  is built, all gates in  $G_{prop}$  are ranked by their topological orders and then analyzed using parameterized closed-form SSTA in order.

In the next step, the initial transition signals  $t_r^0$  and  $t_f^0$  are propagated along  $G_{prop}$  by the propagation model  $\psi_{prop}$  in a block-based way. During propagation, two conditions are handled in different ways. For the case that a reconvergent fanout node (RFON) is on the output pin of the current gate  $c_j$ , sum and merge operations are deployed to deal with the issue of convolution of transient faults. For the opposite case, only sum operation is required during propagation.

In the final step, the transient faults arriving at any PPO or any PO are reconstructed by merging  $t_r$  and  $t_f$  and the combined pulse-width distributions are used to compute SER, accordingly. More details of  $\psi_{hit}$  and  $\psi_{prop}$  are described in the next chapter.



## **Chapter 4**

## **Parameterized First-Order Canonical**

Forms for  $\psi_{hit}$  and  $\psi_{prop}$ 



Traditional Monte-Carlo methods for SSER analysis are known to suffer from long simulation time to derive pulse-width distributions for particle strikes and transient-fault propagation. Instead, in this paper, we employ a parameterized first-order canonical form to derive the two distributions. We simply divide a transient-fault into two transition signals (rising and falling), and each signal can be analyzed by *statistical static timing analysis* (SSTA). Accordingly, the rising and falling transitions are modeled as two normally distributed random variables,  $t_r$  and  $t_f$ . Moreover, the *first-hit* and *propagation* distribution functions,  $\psi_{hit}$  and  $\psi_{prop}$ , can be expressed into the form as follows,

$$\psi: \vec{x} \to \vec{y}$$

where  $\vec{x}$  denotes a vector of input variables and  $\vec{y}$  denotes a vector of target values.  $\vec{x}$  provides guidance to find the target  $\vec{y}$  in the models and includes several relationships of electrical and physical properties between cells and transient faults.

For example, the width of a transient pulse hitting at one output of a cell decreases as the capacitance of the output loads of the cell increases (because the charging/discharging time of capacitors increases). Another example is that the hitting charge with greater strength causes the wider transient pulse. Hence, for *first-hit* model  $\psi_{hit}$ ,  $\vec{x}$  includes the charge strength, the type of driving gate and output loads;  $\vec{y}$  contains mean and variance of initial pulse-width, correlation coefficient and slopes of the two transitions. Similarly, for  $\psi_{prop}$ ,  $\vec{x}$  consists of the same components as  $\vec{x}$  in  $\psi_{hit}$  with an additional component-the slope of the transition signal;  $\vec{y}$  contains the transition slope, mean and variance of gate delay, correlation between transition signal and the corresponding gate delay, and between transition signals.

From the proposed idea, a random variable pw denoting the width of a particle-induced transient pulse can be decomposed into two jointly normally distributed random variables: the rising transition  $t_r$  and the falling transition  $t_f$ , and can be computed as:

$$pw = \begin{cases} t_f - t_r & \text{if the pulse is positive} \\ t_r - t_f & \text{if the pulse is negative} \end{cases}$$
(4.1)

Based on  $\psi_{hit}$  and  $\psi_{prop}$ , both  $t_r$  and  $t_f$  are then analyzed by a parameterized SSTA approach where the approximated distribution of pw can be derived by replacing statistical

variable  $\mu_{pw}$  and  $\sigma_{pw}$  with the estimators  $\hat{\mu}_{pw}$  and  $\hat{\sigma}_{pw}$ .

The overall analysis flow is outlined as follows:

- 1. Transient-fault generation and decomposition: At first, *first-hit* model  $\psi_{hit}()$  is used to estimate the distribution of the initial pulse width  $pw_0$ . Then the estimated pulse width  $\widehat{pw}_0$  is factorized into two initial transitions  $t_r^0$  and  $t_f^0$  according to the ratio of their slopes.
- 2. Block-based propagation: The two timing signals keep updated by  $\psi_{prop}()$  once being propagated through one gate to reflect the gate delay. The step repeats until both the rising and falling signals arrives at any PO or PPO.
- 3. Pulse-width reconstruction: Once both signals reach any PO or PPO, they are merged to reconstruct a new transient pulse to determine whether a soft error occurs. The reconstruction step exercises the proposed idea as Equation (4.1).

To take Figure 4.1 for example, the original transient pulse generated by a particle strike at G0 is split into two transition signals, and then the two signals start their propagation individually. Finally, both two signals end at G2 and are merged to reconstruct the transient pulse.



Figure 4.1: SSTA-based method w/o considering correlation between transition signals

Details of each step are organized as: After introducing the first-hit model and propagation model in section 4.1, the distributions of width of a transient fault is estimated by MME in section 4.2. Then the issues of reconvergence and correlations are discussed in section 4.4 and 4.3, respectively.

#### 4.1 Construct linear timing models

In the first step,  $\psi_{hit}()$  is responsible for approximating the means and variances of  $t_r^0$  and  $t_f^0$  and the corresponding computations can be enumerated as:

where the superscript is the corresponding topology order originated from the hit cell G0,  $\tau_{r/f}^0$  means the slope ratio defined as the slope of the rising signal to that of the falling signal, and  $\rho_{t_r^0 t_f^0}$  is the correlation coefficient of  $t_r^0$  and  $t_f^0$  and pre-characterized into a table. After obtaining the distributions of the two initial transition signals, the linear timing model  $\psi_{prop}()$  is deployed to propagate both signals to primary outputs.

The derivation of the linear timing model  $\psi_{prop}()$  computed by a typical statistical static timing analysis is given as: a transition signal t arrives at an input of a gate with delay d, and t and d can be expressed in the linear closed-form as

$$t = t_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \Delta X_i + a_{n+1} \Delta V_a$$

and

$$d = d_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \Delta X_i + b_{n+1} \Delta V_b$$

Here  $t_0$  and  $d_0$  are the nominal values for t and d, respectively.  $\Delta X_i$  is the variation of n global sources from its nominal value;  $a_i$  and  $b_i$ , respectively, represent the sensitivities of the transition signal and gate delay to each of  $\Delta X_i$ . Both  $\Delta V_a$  and  $\Delta V_b$  are variations of the independent random variable  $V_a$  and  $V_b$  from their mean value, and their timing sensitivities are denoted as  $a_{n+1}$  and  $b_{n+1}$ , respectively.

After the timing signal t passes through the gate, the output timing signal t' is updated as t + d, and thus we can deduce t' by a sum operation of two jointly normally distributed random variables, which is described in 2.1. Hence, a rising signal  $t_r^{in}$  and falling signal  $t_f^{in}$  at a gate input can be propagated to the gate output and modeled by the linear timing model  $\psi_{prop}$ . Then the output timing signals become

$$t_r^{out} = t_r^{in} + d_r \tag{4.2}$$

$$t_f^{out} = t_f^{in} + d_f \tag{4.3}$$

where subscripts r and f represent *rising* and *falling*, respectively, and the superscript (*input* or *output*) represent the pin locations.

Since we have deduced the *first-hit* model  $\psi_{hit}()$  and the *propagation* model  $\psi_{prop}()$ , the pulse width of a transient fault can be approximated by Equation (4.1). The details are provided in the following section.

# 4.2 Parameter estimation

Given the *first-hit* model  $\psi_{hit}()$  and the *propagation* model  $\psi_{prop}()$ , the final distribution of  $\widehat{pw}$  in Figure 4.1 can be further expended according to Equation (4.1). That is,

$$\widehat{pw} = t_f^2 - t_r^2 
= (t_f^1 + d_f^2) - (t_r^1 + d_r^2) 
= (t_f^0 + \sum_{i=1}^2 d_f^i) - (t_r^0 + \sum_{i=1}^2 d_r^i)$$
(4.4)

where the superscript is the corresponding topological order originated from the hit node.

So, the mean and variance of  $\widehat{pw}$  can be calculated by performing a series of sum operations over transition signals and corresponding gate delays. To derive the general form of a transient pulse, which is generated at one hit cell at *m*th level and propagated to one flip-flop at *n*th level, we generalize Equation (4.4) and rewrite it into:

$$\widehat{pw} = t_f^{n-m} - t_r^{n-m} = (t_f^0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-m} d_f^i) - (t_r^0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-m} d_r^i)$$
(4.5)

#### 4.3 Correlation issue

Correlation is a major concern when using the first-order canonical-form based SSTA to approximate the behavior of transient pulse. It is because the pair of transition signals  $t_r$  and  $t_f$  are mutually dependent instead of completely uncorrelated. Intuitively, the solution for the issue is to iteratively split and merge the transient faults during propagation. As illustration in Figure 4.2, a transient pulse is reconstructed by merging  $t_r$  and  $t_f$  once both the transitions pass through a cell, and then split again in order to be propagated towards successive cells.



However, we find that this procedure can be skipped since the impacts of the correlation between transition signals on the results of SSER is small. According to Table 4.1, it is seen that the discrepancy between the results derived by the two methods is negligible, demonstrating our opinion.

Diff.(%)	SSER <sub>recon.</sub> (b)	SSER <sub>ssta</sub> (a)	circuit
$\left(\frac{b-a}{a}\right)$	$(\mu \text{FIT})$	$(\mu FIT)$	
1.78E-02	5.628E02	5.627E02	c17
-1.82E-03	2.2814E05	2.2818E05	c432

8.003E04

8.095E07

6.62E-04

-9.31E-08

8.003E04

8.095E07

c2670

c6288

Table 4.1: Comparison of SER w/ and w/o considering correlation between transition signals

#### 4.4 **Re-convergence Handling**

The number of transient faults are doubled if there is a reconvergent structure along propagation path in the circuit, resulting in the complexity of the SSER analysis increases exponentially. As shown in Figure 4.3, a particle hits the output of G0 and induces a transient pulse. Then, the transient faults propagate along the paths in a block-based way and finally reconverge at the inputs of U0 and U1. Consequently, two positive transient faults appear on the output of U0, and two transient faults with different directions appear on the output of U1.



To resolve this reconvergence problem, we propose a two-stage approach. At the first stage, these transient faults are classified into two groups according to their orientations. Then the outcomes of the pulse width and the logic probability of these convoluted transient faults are derived at the second stage. In the second stage, the pulse-width distribution of convoluted transient faults is derived by two newly defined *merge* operations and the logic probability is updated as the union of the ones associated with these transient faults.

#### 4.4.1 Derive Width of Re-Convergent transient faults

The motivation to define new *merge* operations for two timing signals is that the pulsewidth result of transient faults will be underestimated if we adopt traditional one (*max*) to deduce the result of these convoluted timing signals and the reason is discussed later. The idea for merging multiple positive transient faults can be defined as:

$$merge(pw_1, pw_2, \cdots, pw_n) =$$

$$merge(t_{f1}, \cdots, t_{fn}) + merge(t_{r1}, \cdots, t_{rn})$$
(4.6)

The *merge* operation with multiple (>2) operands like Equation (4.6) is computed by taking the 2-operand *merge* iteratively. Let  $t' = merge(t_1, t_2)$ ,  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  follow normal distribution, and the result t' does, too.

$$merge(t_1, \cdots, t_k) = merge(merge(t_1, t_2), \cdots, merge(t_k, t_{k+1}))$$
$$= merge(t_{1, \lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor}, t_{\lceil \frac{k}{2} \rceil, k})$$
$$= t_{1,k}$$
(4.7)

The 2-operand *merge* can be further classified into two types to deduce convoluted pulses with the same orientations and with opposite directions.

To derive the pulse width of reconvergent transient faults with the same orientation, we define the *same-orientation merge* operation as a worst-case operation that the new pulse is composed of the latest transition signal and the earliest transition signal among these reconvergent transient faults. Take Figure 4.4(a) for example. We denote the later transient fault and earlier transient fault as P<sub>1</sub> and P<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The result of *same-orientation merge* operation performed on P<sub>1</sub> and P<sub>2</sub> should be the latest transition and the earliest transition among them, respectively denoted as  $t_{r1}$  and  $t_{f2}$ . However, the result derived by traditional *max* operation will be  $t_{r2}$  and  $t_{f2}$ , leading to an underestimation for the pulse-width result of the reconvergent transient faults. Same conclusion is also obtained in Figure 4.4(b).

Before performing *same-orientation merge* operation over two reconvergent transient faults, the existence of overlapping should be checked. As shown in figure 4.4(a), if overlapping happens, the earliest edge and the latest edge will be chosen to form the a pulse; otherwise, the width of the new transient fault is the sum of the two convoluted transient faults, as displayed in figure 4.4(b).

On the other hand, for the reconvergent transient faults with opposite orientations, the result of pulse width is determined by the interactive behavior of them. Take Figure 4.5



Figure 4.4: Illustration of same orientation merge operation

for example. if the positive transient fault appearing at one input of a AND gate does not overlap the negative transient fault appearing at the other input of the AND gate, the pulse-width result is just the width of the positive transient fault pw since the negative transient fault is forbidden by the controlling value on the side-input. If the overlapping occurs, the result is computed as the width of positive transient fault pw minus the overlapping part among positive and negative transient faults d due to the negative transient fault masks the part of positive transient fault. Other gate types can be derived similarly.

It is worthy to notice that due to the timing informations of transition signals are preserved, the issue of reconvergence can be analyzed in such way which is unavailable for in traditional SSER methods [23] [14].



Figure 4.5: Opposite orientation merge operation at a AND/OR gate

#### 4.4.2 Update Logic Probability

The logic probability at reconvergence fanout nodes should be updated to reflect the reconvergence phenomenon. For convoluted transient faults, the result of logic probability is the union of the ones of these transient faults since this condition is equivalent to that all these transient faults can pass through the reconvergent node. The same result is obtained for the transient faults with the opposite orientation.



# **Chapter 5**

# **Experimental Results**



We implement the proposed framework in C/C++ and exercise on a Linux machine with Intel(R) Core(TM) i7 processor and 16G RAM. To extract the delay characteristics of each gate type, we perform Monte-Carlo SPICE simulation on 4 small benchmark circuits from [23] with a 45nm Nandgate Open Cell Library [36] as the 45 nm cell library.

The method for training these delay data of each gate type can be summarized in three steps: in step 1, all the gates along the propagation path are randomly selected after the path is generated; in step 2, the number of loadings composed of randomly selected gates is arbitrarily chosen for each gate on the propagation path; and in the final step, the characteristics of the transient faults induced by radiation particles with various charge strength are extracted by performing Monte-Carlo SPICE simulation. After obtaining these simulation results, we group them according to the charge strength of radiation particle, the transition slope, and the output loadings.

Model errors of a AND gate and a OR gate are summarized in Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2, respectively, and the average model errors of each gate type are shown in Table 5.1. All the results of overall SSER of circuits are built on ISCAS85 benchmarks and a series of multipliers. Considering the extremely long runtime of Monte Carlo SPICE simulation (w / 100 runs), we can only afford to perform tests on small circuits with the largest one containing 26 gates, 31 striking nodes and 5 inputs.

#### 5.1 Accuracy of Model

Figure 5.1 and 5.2 compare the PDF results of transient faults induced by four particles with different charge strength of proposed models and the ones of Monte-Carlo SPICE for one AND gate and one OR gate, respectively. In Figure 5.1, it can be seen that all the comparison of PDF results exist small mean differences except for Figure 5.1(b) which has little larger mean error. All the comparison of PDF results shown in Figure 5.2 present the very small mean discrepancies except for Figure 5.2(a) which has a little larger mean error. The variances of the PDF result derived by the proposed method in both figures are not close to the ones derived by Monte-Carlo SPICE. The reason is discussed later.

Table 5.1 summarizes the accuracy for the first-hit model and propagation model. The



Figure 5.2: Model accuracy of OR

first column lists the cell libraries, and the following four columns denote mean and variance errors of first-hit model and propagation model, respectively. The average mean and variance errors of our first-hit model are all less than 2%, and so are the average mean error of propagation models.

error(%)									
$M^{\sigma}_{prop}$		$M^{\mu}_{prop}$	$M_{hit}^{\sigma}$	$M^{\mu}_{hit}$	cell				
4.76	-4	0.15	-1.29	-0.42	INV				
6.98	-6	1.96	-0.96	-0.37	AND				
8.55	-8	1.85	-3.46	-0.52	OR				
6.76	-6	1.32	-1.90	-0.43	Average				
1	 	1.85	-3.46	-0.52	Average				

Table 5.1: Summary of model error

The reason why the variance errors of propagation model is worse is that the shape of hitting pulse is changed during propagating and become hardly predictable. As shown in Figure 5.3, the sinusoidal shape of a hitting pulse will be transformed into trapezoid, and the variance of flat part of trapezoid shape can not be properly described by the proposed idea, leading to little larger variance errors.



Figure 5.3: Explanation of model error

The following section demonstrates the effectiveness of the proposed idea by comparing the results derived by our approach and the ones obtained from Monte-Carlo SPICE simulation.

#### 5.2 Measurement of Full-Chip SSER

Information of all benchmark circuits is listed at Table 5.2. The name of each circuit is shown in column 1, containing 3 circuits from [23], ISCAS85 benchmarks and a series of multipliers with various bits. The following four columns denote the number of gates, the number of primary inputs (PI), the number of primary outputs, and the max topological level, respectively. For all circuits, each node under every input pattern combination is injected with four levels of electrical charges:  $Q_0 = 34fC$ ,  $Q_1 = 66fC$ ,  $Q_2 = 99fC$ ,  $Q_3 = 132fC$ , where  $Q_0$  is the weakest charge capable of generating a transient fault under the settings in the experiments.

We compare the results of Monte-Carlo SPICE simulation with the results of proposed framework on t1, t2, t3, c17, and  $Adder_{2bit}$ , and the comparisons of the measured values of SSER and the required runtime are shown in the next four columns. All errors of t1, t2, t3, c17, and  $Adder_{2bit}$  are all less than 3%, demonstrating that the proposed idea can achieve reasonable accuracy with very low timing costs. Besides, the result of  $Adder_{2bit}$  is accurate even if it contains many RFONs, demonstrating our reconvergence handling is effective.

More results of SSER analysis on a variety of circuits are also shown in Table 5.2. The runtime remains small even if the circuit size becomes big. Moreover, because the proposed idea is built upon a parameterized closed-form blocked-based SSTA, the longer logic depth will induce longer runtime. c6288 and all multipliers (mul\_16 to mul\_32) consume slightly more time due to such reason.

		SPICE <sub>MC</sub>		our					
Circovit	$\#_{gate}  \#_{PI}  \#_{PO}$	4	щ	т	SSER	time	SSER	time	error
Circuit		$O  L_{max}$	$(\mu FIT)$	(sec)	$(\mu FIT)$	(sec)	(%)		
t1	4	1	1	4	57.77	80	56.28	<1	-2.58
t2	6	2	2	3	110.83	390	111.52	<1	0.62
t3	12	5	2	5	190.85	11935	189.62	<1	-0.64
c17	12	5	2	5	177.27	12323	180.92	<1	2.06
Adder <sub>2bit</sub>	31	5	3	9	682.6	71589	692.47	<1	1.45
c432	233	36	7	- 30	-	-	2.28E+05	<1	-
c499	638	41	32	28		-	5.97E+05	1.05	-
c880	433	60	26	<b>E</b> 33	A -	-	7.30E+04	<1	-
c1355	629	41	33	30	8	-	7.26E+05	1.08	-
c1908	425	33	25	- 39		-	2.63E+05	<1	-
c2670	872	157	-64	38		-	8.00E+04	<1	-
c3540	901	50	22	52	-	-	2.98E+06	<1	-
c5315	1833	178	123	41	-	-	1.76E+05	<1	-
c6288	2788	32	32	122	-	-	8.09E+07	15.88	-
c7552	2171	207	108	60	-	-	1.56E+06	2.45	-
mul_4	158	8	8	23	-	-	5.56E+04	<1	-
mul_8	728	16	16	50	-	-	2.60E+06	1.3	-
mul_16	3156	32	32	105	-	-	5.92E+07	16.8	-
mul_24	7234	48	48	155	-	-	1.01E+07	84.8	-
mul_32	13017	64	64	194	-	-	2.08E+07	275.6	-

Table 5.2: SSER measurement of various benchmark circuits

# **Chapter 6**

# Conclusion



Due to process variation beyond deep submicron era, the traditional static approaches are not effective for analyzing soft error rates. It is because the soft errors originated by particle strikes with small charges can easily escape from traditional static analysis, resulting in an underestimation of SER's compared to Monte-Carlo SPICE simulation. In recent years, numerous statistical soft error frameworks are proposed. But simulation-based methods still suffer from the extremely large time costs even if accurate SSER results can be achieved. On the other hand, learning-based theories overcome the problems of time costs while losing accuracy of SSER.

To consider both efficiency and accuracy simultaneously, a novel idea for SSER analysis where a transient pulse is partitioned into two transition signals (one is rising transition and the other is falling transition) is proposed. Since the two signals are expressed as timing quantities in closed-form, they can be analyzed by a parameterized block-based SSTA method with the consideration of timing correlation. According to the experimental results, our runtime of analysis is small and SSER differences are within 3% when compared to Monte-Carlo SPICE simulation. Moreover, the timing cost of proposed idea is also much smaller than previous SSER frameworks.

Statistical soft error rate (SSER) is an emerging problem in advanced CMOS technologies and expected to be worse in more advanced CMOS designs. The future works for SSER analysis include in the following directions: (1) deriving more accurate cell models for  $M_{prop}^{\sigma}$ , (2) developing a better handling of reconvergent fanout nodes, and (3) including spatial correlations over gates.

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