

Power-Aware Soft Error Hardening via Selective Voltage Scaling

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Abstract—Nanoscale integrated circuits are becoming increasingly sensitive to radiation-induced transient faults (soft errors) due to current technology scaling trends, such as shrinking feature sizes and reducing supply voltages. Soft errors, which have been a significant concern in memories, are now a main factor in reliability degradation of logic circuits. This paper presents a power-aware methodology using dual supply voltages for soft error hardening. Given a constraint on power overhead, our proposed framework can minimize the soft error rate (SER) of a circuit via selective voltage scaling. On average, circuit SER can be reduced by 33.45% for various sizes of transient glitches with only 11.74% energy increase. The overhead in normalized power-delay-area product per 1% SER reduction is 0.64%, 1.33X less than that of existing state-of-the-art approaches.

I. INTRODUCTION

With the emergence of the deep submicron design era, circuit reliability has become a critical challenge for achieving robust systems. Radiation-induced transient errors, hot carrier injection (HCI), and negative bias temperature instability (NBTI) are currently some of the main factors in reliability degradation. As technology scaling proceeds rapidly, digital designs are becoming more susceptible to radiation-induced particle hits resulting from radioactive decay and cosmic rays [1]. A low-energy particle that before had no effect on a circuit can now flip the output of a gate. Such a bit-flip is called a *single-event transient* (SET) or a glitch. A *single-event upset* (SEU) or a soft error occurs if the SET is large enough to be propagated and latched into a memory element.

Although memory elements have suffered from soft errors because of their regular and vulnerable structures, conventional error detecting and correcting codes successfully mitigate the damage caused by soft errors. However, in logic circuits, even if SETs can be masked via three mechanisms: (i) *logical masking*, (ii) *electrical masking*, and (iii) *latching-window masking*, soft errors are still expected to become more important with continuous scaling trends. Decreasing gate count and logic depth in super-pipeline stages reduce the impact of SET masking since a SET becomes easier to propagate to a latch. Lower supply voltages and node capacitances needed by low power designs not only decrease the critical charge for SETs, but also diminish the pulse attenuation due to electrical masking. Higher clock frequencies increase the number of latching windows per unit of time and thus facilitate SET latching.

As a result, soft errors in logic become as great of a concern as in memories. A recent study [2] has shown that soft errors would significantly degrade the robustness of

logic circuits, while the nominal SER of SRAMs tends to be nearly constant from 130nm to 65nm technologies. In addition, the SER of combinational circuits is predicted to be comparable to that of unprotected memory elements by 2011 [3]. The importance of soft error hardening for combinational logic was recently emphasized in [4]. As reported by the authors, because sequential circuits usually have more internal gates (combinational logic) than flip-flops (memory elements), the impact attributed to combinational logic is larger than the one attributed to memory elements, when assuming all gates and flop-flops are subject to particle hits proportionally to their respective silicon areas.

In the power optimization domain, *voltage scaling* is a well-known technique for reducing energy costs by applying lower supply voltages to those gates off critical paths. For SER reduction, voltage scaling is a possible technique which can mitigate SET generation. More specifically, the same amount of charge disturbance produces a smaller (less harmful) SET at gates with high supply voltage (V_{DD}^H) than at gates with low supply voltage (V_{DD}^L). *Level converters* (LCs), which impose delay and energy penalties, are needed on the connections from V_{DD}^L -gates to V_{DD}^H -gates for preventing short-circuit leakage current in V_{DD}^H -gates. To minimize the number of LCs, existing methods, whether focusing on power or SER optimization, do not allow any V_{DD}^L - V_{DD}^H connection in a circuit. In such a case, the optimized circuit is partitioned into two voltage islands: the one (closer to primary inputs) operating at V_{DD}^H and the other (closer to primary outputs) operating at V_{DD}^L . Nevertheless, as we will see later, restricting the use of V_{DD}^H only near primary inputs cannot prove advantageous for SER improvement in an energy-efficient manner.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: Section II gives an overview of related work and outlines the contribution of our paper. In Section III, the effects of voltage scaling on circuit SER are explained. In Section IV, we introduce several SER-associated metrics used in this paper. Section V formulates the SER reduction problem. In Section VI, the power-aware soft error hardening framework is presented. Section VII reports the experimental results for a set of standard benchmarks. Finally, we conclude our work in Section VIII.

II. RELATED WORK AND PAPER CONTRIBUTION

Triple modular redundancy (TMR), consisting of three identical copies of an original circuit feeding a majority voter, is the most well-known technique for realizing soft error tolerance. However, for transient errors, TMR induces

excessive (more than 200%) overhead in terms of area and power. Partial duplication [5] targets only nodes with high soft error susceptibility and ignores nodes with low soft error susceptibility. It still involves at least 50% area penalty over the specified requirement and additional delay overhead due to the use of a checker circuit. Gate resizing strategies [6] achieve SER improvement by modifying the W/L ratios of transistors in gates. Potentially large overheads in area, delay, and power are introduced for a significant reduction in SER. Another scheme [7] focuses on flip-flop selection from a given library. This scheme increases the probability of latching-window masking by lengthening latching-window intervals, but does not take into consideration logical masking and electrical masking, which are also dominant factors of circuit SER. A hybrid approach [8] combines gate resizing with flip-flop selection to obtain SER improvement.

A related method [9] uses optimal assignments of gate sizes, supply voltages, threshold voltages, and output loads to get better results with smaller area overhead. Nevertheless, their results show that, even though LC insertion is avoided, for **all** benchmarks, **all** subcircuits finally operate at the highest V_{DD} (1.2V), which dissipates unnecessary power. The algorithm described by Choudhury *et al.* [10] is another work that employs voltage assignment (dual- V_{DD}) for single-event upset robustness. No LC is needed under the constraint that only high- V_{DD} gates are allowed to drive low- V_{DD} gates, but not vice versa. This implies that soft-error-critical gates, which are of great importance to the soft error rate of a circuit and always close to primary outputs, may not operate at the high V_{DD} unless **all** gates in the fanin cones are scaled up. Therefore, the resulting voltage assignment is likely to induce unreasonable power penalty.

In this paper, we propose a *power-aware* SER reduction framework using dual supply voltages. A higher supply voltage (V_{DD}^H) is assigned to the gates that have large error impact and contribute most to the overall SER. Since the soft error rate may vary after each voltage assignment, we estimate the effects of V_{DD}^H assignments on circuit SER, and accept only those which significantly reduce SER. The end result of this approach is a net reduction in SER under prescribed power constraints. The proposed framework has several advantages over other existing techniques:

- First, the magnitude of gains (*i.e.*, decreases in SER) due to V_{DD}^H assignments grows monotonically from primary inputs to primary outputs. A gate which is closer to a primary output always has a larger gain. Such a gate is energy-expensive to be scaled up in the restricted approach [10], but it can be easily identified and assigned V_{DD}^H by our approach.
- Second, we develop a very efficient algorithm to minimize SER while keeping the power overhead below a specified limit. To this end, LCs are placed such that the number of up-scaled gates is bounded. It has been verified by our experiments that the appropriate use of LCs is beneficial for the objective of power-aware SER reduction.

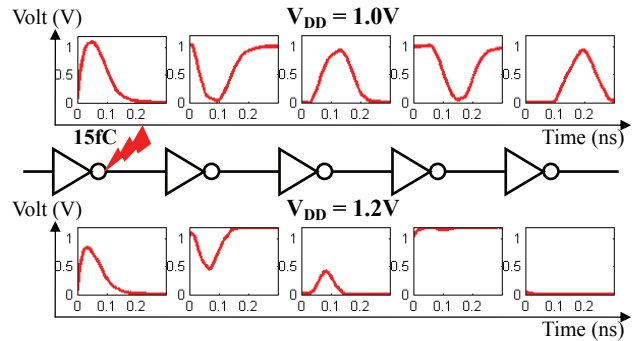


Fig. 1. SPICE simulation for glitch generation and propagation

- Finally, our framework relies on a symbolic reliability analyzer MARS-C [11], which provides a unified treatment of three masking mechanisms through decision diagrams. Hence, all masking mechanisms are **jointly** considered as criteria for SER reduction.

III. EFFECTS OF VOLTAGE SCALING

In this section, we explain the effects of voltage scaling in terms of *glitch generation* and *glitch propagation*. By changing the supply voltage (V_{DD}) of a gate, the critical charge for transient glitches and the propagation delay of the gate also change. The former, inversely corresponding to *glitch generation*, is proportional to V_{DD} ; the latter, inversely corresponding to *glitch propagation*, is proportional to $V_{DD}/(V_{DD}-V_{TH})^\alpha$ where α is the velocity saturation factor. When a gate is scaled up, the same amount of collected charge at its output load will generate a smaller glitch (*i.e.*, lower glitch generation) owing to increased critical charge. On the other hand, the glitches generated at its fanin neighbors may be propagated with less attenuation (*i.e.*, higher glitch propagation) owing to decreased propagation delay. A chain of FO4 inverters simulated by SPICE in 70nm technology indicates that the effect on glitch generation prevails over the one on glitch propagation.

In Fig. 1, we plot the generated and propagated glitches of a transient glitch occurring at the first inverter with 15fC injected charge. The plots on the top (bottom) are made when all inverters operate at V_{DD}^L (V_{DD}^H). As shown in the figure, after scaling up all inverters, glitch generation of the first inverter decreases and glitch propagation of the remaining inverters also decreases, even though these gates become faster. The principal reason for lower glitch propagation in this case is the decreasing glitch amplitude, which can enhance the effect of electrical masking (attenuation). In other words, electrical masking will be weakened **only if** the collected charge is large enough to produce a glitch with amplitude **at least** equal to the supply voltage (full swing). However, electrical masking will be ineffective once the glitch duration exceeds **2X** the gate delay. As a result, voltage scaling is certainly feasible for soft error hardening.

IV. SER-ASSOCIATED METRICS

Accurate and efficient SER analysis is a crucial step for SER reduction. Intensive research has been done recently in

the area of SER modeling and analysis. Among various modeling frameworks, we choose the symbolic one presented in [11] as the SER analysis engine. This symbolic SER analyzer enables us to quantify the *error impact* and the *masking impact* of each gate in a combinational circuit. As defined in the sequel, these two metrics are useful in deciding whether a gate is critical for being scaled up to the high V_{DD} during selective voltage scaling.

A. Mean Error Impact

For each internal gate G_i , initial duration d and initial amplitude a , *mean error impact* (MEI) [11] over all primary outputs F_j that are affected by a glitch occurring at the output of gate G_i is defined as:

$$\text{MEI}(G_i^{d,a}) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n_f} \sum_{j=1}^{n_G} \text{P}(F_j \text{ fails} | G_i \text{ fails} \cap \text{init_glitch} = (d, a))}{n_f \cdot n_G} \quad (1)$$

where n_f is the cardinality of set of primary outputs, $\{F_j\}$, and n_f is the cardinality of set of probability distributions.

The MEI of a gate quantifies the probability that at least one primary output is affected by a glitch originating at this gate. The larger MEI a gate has, the higher the probability that a glitch occurring at this gate will be latched.

B. Mean Masking Impact

D(G_i): the attenuated duration of a glitch at gate G_i ;
C(G_i): the set of gates in the fanin cone of gate G_i ;
F(G_i): the set of gates in the immediate fanin of gate G_i ;
p(G_j, G_i): the set of gates on the paths between G_j and G_i .

For each internal gate G_i , initial duration d and initial amplitude a , *mean masking impact on duration* (MMI_D) [12] is defined as:

$$\text{MMI}_D(G_i^{d,a}) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n_f} \sum_{j=1}^{n_G} \text{MI}_D(G_j^{d,a} \rightarrow G_i)}{n_G \cdot n_f \cdot d} \quad (2)$$

where n_G is the cardinality of $C(G_i)$, n_f is the cardinality of the set of probability distributions, $\{f_k\}$, and $\text{MI}_D(G_j^{d,a} \rightarrow G_i)$, *masking impact on duration* of gate G_i with respect to gate G_j , denotes the absolute duration attenuation contributed by gate G_i on a glitch with duration d and amplitude a originating at gate G_j . More formally, $\text{MI}_D(G_j^{d,a} \rightarrow G_i)$ can be defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{MI}_D(G_j^{d,a} \rightarrow G_i) \\ &= \sum_k \left(\text{P}(D(G_i) = D_k | G_j \text{ fails} \cap \text{init_glitch} = (d, a)) \cdot (d - D_k) \right) \\ & - \sum_{G_i \in \text{F}(G_j) \cup \text{p}(G_j, G_i)} \sum_k \left(\text{P}(D(G_i) = D_k | G_j \text{ fails} \cap \text{init_glitch} = (d, a)) \cdot (d - D_k) \right) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where $\{D_k\}$ is the set of possible values for glitch duration. The second summation represents the total weighted attenuation attributed to gate G_i 's immediate fanin gates on the paths between gates G_j and G_i , instead of just gate G_i itself. Intuitively, $\text{MI}_D(G_j^{d,a} \rightarrow G_i)$ quantifies how much attenuation can be contributed to gate G_i **only**, given the duration of glitches originating at gate G_j .

The MMI of a gate denotes the normalized expected attenuation on the duration (or amplitude) of all glitches passing through the gate. The larger MMI a gate has, the more capable of masking glitches this gate is.

V. PROBLEM FORMULATION

We use *mean error susceptibility* (MES) for evaluating the soft error rate of a circuit. For each primary output F_j , initial duration d and initial amplitude a , the authors of [11] define mean error susceptibility (MES) as the probability of output F_j failing due to errors at internal gates:

$$\text{MES}(F_j^{d,a}) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n_f} \sum_{i=1}^{n_G} \text{P}(F_j \text{ fails} | G_i \text{ fails} \cap \text{init_glitch} = (d, a))}{n_G \cdot n_f} \quad (4)$$

where n_G is the cardinality of set of internal gates, $\{G_i\}$, and n_f is the cardinality of set of probability distributions.

In [11], the authors calculate MES for all primary outputs in combinational circuits and with a discrete set of pairs (d, a) of initial glitch durations and amplitudes. Therefore, the probability of primary output F_j failing due to glitches with various durations and amplitudes at different gates is:

$$\text{P}(F_j) = \frac{\Delta d \cdot \Delta a}{(d_{\max} - d_{\min}) \cdot (a_{\max} - a_{\min})} \sum_n \sum_m \text{MES}(F_j^{d_n, a_n}) \quad (5)$$

where $d_m = d_{\min} + m \cdot \Delta d$ and $a_n = a_{\min} + n \cdot \Delta a$.

Finally, the soft error rate of output F_j can be derived as:

$$\text{SER}(F_j) = \text{P}(F_j) \cdot R_{\text{PH}} \cdot R_{\text{EFF}} \cdot A_{\text{CIRCUIT}} \quad (6)$$

where R_{PH} is the particle hit rate per unit of area, R_{EFF} is the fraction of particle hits that result in charge disturbance, and A_{CIRCUIT} is the total silicon area of the circuit.

By using (6), our SER reduction problem is formulated as:

$$\text{Minimize} \quad \sum_{F_j \in \text{POs}} \text{SER}(F_j) \quad (7)$$

Subject to $(\# \text{Gates}@V_{DD}^H) \leq f \cdot (\# \text{Gates})$

where f is allowable percentage of gates operating at V_{DD}^H .

Note that in the minimization problem in (7), SER is a joint function of three masking mechanisms, among which logical masking is pattern-dependent and non-deterministic. It may not be possible to solve this problem analytically and thereby a heuristic algorithm is required. The number of gates operating at V_{DD}^H is constrained by a fraction f of total gate count for bounded energy increase. In the next section, we propose a very efficient algorithm to minimize SER while keeping the numbers of V_{DD}^H -gates and required LCs sufficiently low. The basic principle of our approach is to quantify the *scaling criticality* (SC) of each gate and, under a given power constraint, scale up as many gates with maximum *cumulative scaling criticality* as possible.

VI. DUAL- V_{DD} SER REDUCTION FRAMEWORK

Before introducing our SER reduction framework, we

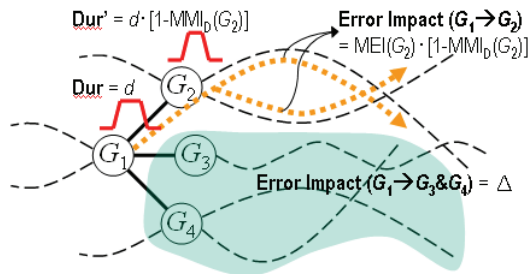


Fig. 2. Scaling criticality of a gate

first define *scaling criticality* (SC) for each internal gate. To simplify the following discussion, we omit the initial duration d and amplitude a from the notations of MEI and MMI, but keep in mind that they actually exist. In the circuit in Fig. 2 where all gates operate at V_{DD}^L , the MEI value of gate G_1 can be expressed as:

$$MEI^L(G_1) = \Delta + MEI^L(G_2) \cdot [1 - MMI_D^L(G_2)] \quad (8)$$

where $MEI^L(G_2)$ and $MMI_D^L(G_2)$ are the MEI and MMI values of gate G_2 when gate G_2 operates at V_{DD}^L , and Δ is the amount of gate G_1 's error impact propagated to primary outputs through its fanout gates except gate G_2 – gates G_3 and G_4 , in this example. If gate G_2 is scaled up to V_{DD}^H , the MEI value of gate G_1 , still operating at V_{DD}^L , becomes:

$$MEI^L(G_1) = \Delta + MEI^H(G_2) \cdot [1 - MMI_D^H(G_2)] \quad (9)$$

where $MEI^H(G_2)$ and $MMI_D^H(G_2)$ are the MEI and MMI values of gate G_2 when gate G_2 operates at V_{DD}^H . By subtracting (9) from (8), we have:

$$MEI^L(G_1) - MEI^H(G_1) = MEI^L(G_2) \cdot [1 - MMI_D^L(G_2)] - MEI^H(G_2) \cdot [1 - MMI_D^H(G_2)] \quad (10)$$

The difference between (8) and (9), as shown in (10), is the *scaling criticality* of gate G_2 . The larger the difference is, the more critical gate G_2 is for being scaled up to V_{DD}^H .

Definition 1: The *scaling criticality* of gate G is defined as:

$$SC(G) = MEI^L(G) \cdot [1 - MMI_D^L(G)] - MEI^H(G) \cdot [1 - MMI_D^H(G)] \quad (11)$$

MEI^L and MMI_D^L are obtained during the process of SER analysis for the standard voltage level, V_{DD}^L ($= 1.0V$ in our case). Every time the ADD computation and propagation for a gate operating at V_{DD}^L are completed, we change the voltage level from V_{DD}^L to V_{DD}^H ($= 1.2V$ in our case) and then calculate MEI^H and MMI_D^H . It is not necessary to rebuild the ADDs for V_{DD}^H since they are isomorphic to those for V_{DD}^L . What we need to do is only re-compute the attenuated duration and amplitude in terminal nodes of ADDs by applying the new voltage (V_{DD}^H) to the attenuation model.

The scaling criticality of gate G represents the decrease in MEI of gate G 's immediate fanin neighbors after gate G has been scaled up. Based on the definition of MEI, we know that the SER of a circuit greatly depends on the MEI values of its internal gates. This implies that gates with high SC are most critical to be scaled up for soft error robustness.

Definition 2: A gate is called *soft-error-critical* if its SC is within the highest $l\%$ of overall SC values where l is a specified lower bound.

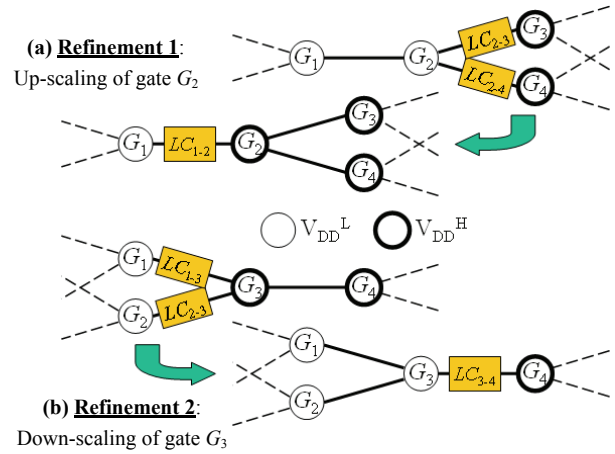


Fig. 3. Effects of two refinement techniques

Definition 3: A gate is called *soft-error-relevant* if its SC is within the next $l\%$ - $u\%$ of overall SC values where u is a specified upper bound and u is greater than l .

Our objective is to develop a framework which can scale up all soft-error-critical gates and as many soft-error-relevant gates as possible, while incurring the smallest number of LCs and lowest power overhead. The lower bound l for soft-error-critical gates guarantees a significant reduction in SER; the upper bound u for soft-error-relevant gates sets up a power constraint. The algorithm is described in the sequel.

First, we sort all gates (total number of gates being denoted by n) according to their SC values in decreasing order. For each soft-error-relevant gate in the sorted list, we calculate the number of required LCs assuming that gates between the first gate (a soft-error-critical gate) and the current gate (a soft-error-relevant gate) are scaled up. Next, we choose the i^{th} gate (a soft-error-relevant gate; $l \cdot n + 1 \leq i \leq u \cdot n$), which has the least required LCs when the 1^{st} gate to the i^{th} gate are scaled up. Finally, we assign V_{DD}^H to the first i gates and V_{DD}^L to the remaining gates.

Up to this point, all soft-error-critical gates and some soft-error-relevant gates are scaled up so that a significant amount of SER reduction is expected. Nevertheless, there may still be an undesirable number of LCs in the current circuit. Besides extra design costs, (i) soft error susceptibility and (ii) physical design issues will also arise if we do not carefully control the number and distribution of LCs. The following two refinement techniques are used to remove unnecessary LCs.

Refinement 1: Scale up some V_{DD}^L -gates which are not soft-error-critical to minimize the number of LCs.

Scaling up a V_{DD}^L -gate which is not soft-error-critical leads to little improvement in SER, but could reduce the number of LCs needed in the circuit. For example in Fig. 3(a), if we scale up gate G_2 , $LC_{1,2}$ needs to be inserted but $LC_{2,3}$ and $LC_{2,4}$ can be removed. The number of LCs decreases by one in this case. We try to remove as many LCs as possible using Refinement 1, because the power penalty resulting from a LC is larger than that from the up-scaling of a single gate. This was confirmed by a SPICE

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Dual-VDD SER reduction (circuit, n, l, u) {
  // n: gate count; l: lower bound; u: upper bound.
  Compute scaling criticality (SC) for each gate in circuit;
  sorted_gate_list ← Sort all gates by their SC values in decreasing order;
  // 1 ~ l*n: soft-error-critical gates; l*n+1 ~ u*n: soft-error-relevant gates.
  for (i = 1; i ≤ u*n; i = i+1) {
    Scale up the ith gate in sorted_gate_list;
    num_of_LCs[i] ← Calculate the number of LCs needed in circuit;
  }
  // Find the least required LCs.
  index ← Extract the index of minimum in num_of_LCs;
  for (i = index+1; i ≤ u*n; i = i+1) // Keep the first index gates up-scaled.
    Scale down the ith gate in sorted_gate_list;
  // Refinement 1
  for each (VDDL-gate G in circuit)
    if (scaling up gate G will not increase the number of required LCs)
      Scale up gate G;
  // Refinement 2
  for each (VDDH-gate G in circuit) {
    if (gate G is soft-error-critical) // Do not touch soft-error-critical gates.
      continue;
    if (scaling down gate G will not increase the number of required LCs)
      Scale down gate G;
  }
}

```

Fig. 4. The overall algorithm

simulation (70nm technology) during which we found that the power consumption of a LC [13] is **3.55X** the additional power from the up-scaling of a 3-input FO4 NAND gate.

Refinement 2: Scale down some V_{DD}^H -gates which are no longer soft-error-critical due to the up-scaling of other gates to further minimize the number of LCs.

A soft-error-critical gate may become non-soft-error-critical if one or more of its fanout neighbors are scaled up. For example, let gates G_3 and G_4 in Fig. 3(b) be soft-error-critical and assume that both have been scaled up. However, as a result of the fact that gate G_4 has been scaled up, gate G_3 may become non-soft-error-critical since its MEI and SC decrease and may not need to be scaled up. Thus, we can scale gate G_3 down back to V_{DD}^L and save one LC.

Refinement 1 may increase the percentage of V_{DD}^H -gates to exceed the upper bound u , which is specified for limiting the power overhead. Hence, the allowable percentage f of V_{DD}^H -gates in our problem formulation (7) should be slightly larger than the upper bound u . In the subsequent section, we will illustrate how the pair (l, u) is decided and how f varies with (l, u) . Our overall algorithm for SER reduction, which includes one efficient heuristic and two iterative refinements, is given in Fig. 4.

VII. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

We have implemented the dual- V_{DD} SER reduction framework in C++ and conducted experiments on a set of standard benchmarks from ISCAS'85 and MCNC'91 suites. The technology used is 70nm, Berkeley Predictive Technology Model (BPTM). The clock period (T_{clk}) used for probability computation is 250ps, and setup (t_{setup}) and hold (t_{hold}) times for output latches are both assumed to be 10ps. The low supply voltage (V_{DD}^L) and high supply voltage (V_{DD}^H) are set to be 1.0V and 1.2V, respectively. To calculate SER by (5) and (6), the allowed intervals of initial duration and amplitude are assumed to be $(d_{min}, d_{max}) = (60, 120)$ ps and $(a_{min}, a_{max}) = (0.8, 1.0)$ V, with the incremental steps $\Delta d = 20$ ps and $\Delta a = 0.1$ V, respectively.

Table 1
Mean error susceptibility (MES) improvements for various duration sizes and overall soft error rate (SER) reductions

Circuit	# (Pls, POs, Gates)	Dur. Size (ps)	# V _{DD} ^H -Gates	# Req. LCs	Ori. Avg. MES	Opt. Avg. MES	MES Imprv. (%)	Max. Imprv. (%)	SER Redctn. (%)
C432	(36, 7, 156)	60	31	12	0.00357	0.00205	42.50	62.02	35.28
		80	27	13	0.00676	0.00515	23.86	42.85	
		100	32	11	0.01343	0.00956	28.76	49.89	
		120	46	9	0.02955	0.01596	45.99	62.64	
C1908	(41, 32, 458)	60	90	25	0.00194	0.00126	35.14	56.23	31.26
		80	64	17	0.00413	0.00304	26.40	43.05	
		100	80	20	0.01229	0.00781	36.46	58.19	
		120	74	19	0.02117	0.01544	27.05	54.62	
alu2	(10, 6, 339)	60	45	23	0.00268	0.00158	41.02	75.29	33.86
		80	49	15	0.00780	0.00579	25.82	62.25	
		100	42	19	0.01707	0.01026	39.90	55.05	
		120	41	15	0.02736	0.01951	28.68	47.55	
alu4	(14, 8, 660)	60	57	40	0.00093	0.00049	46.73	53.18	33.66
		80	94	28	0.00297	0.00190	35.96	65.74	
		100	106	26	0.00870	0.00656	24.61	67.43	
		120	103	27	0.01464	0.01063	27.35	55.34	
fzg2	(16, 1, 566)	60	99	9	0.00062	0.00043	30.68	54.30	29.86
		80	120	9	0.00147	0.00103	29.54	46.01	
		100	130	8	0.00233	0.00163	29.99	31.64	
		120	125	9	0.00349	0.00247	29.25	30.45	
vda	(17, 39, 368)	60	56	27	0.00246	0.00144	41.35	67.00	43.09
		80	72	22	0.00837	0.00485	42.00	75.25	
		100	55	24	0.03180	0.01818	42.83	82.10	
		120	80	13	0.06552	0.03527	46.17	77.18	
x2	(10, 7, 36)	60	9	0	0.01433	0.00937	34.65	55.09	33.46
		80	11	0	0.02907	0.01819	37.41	50.78	
		100	15	0	0.04378	0.02909	33.55	33.72	
		120	9	0	0.06435	0.04618	28.24	30.77	
x4	(94, 71, 288)	60	64	5	0.00208	0.00146	29.73	56.88	27.12
		80	58	6	0.00377	0.00279	26.06	32.47	
		100	53	6	0.00589	0.00436	26.06	28.26	
		120	53	4	0.00872	0.00640	26.66	28.07	
Avg.			18.89%	3.86%					33.45%

Table 1 reports the experimental results of our proposed framework when the lower bound l is 8 and the upper bound u is 16. That is, we will certainly scale up the first 8% of internal gates (soft-error-critical gates) and minimize the overall SER and the number of required LCs by manipulating the next 8% (soft-error-relevant gates). The inserted LCs are also considered as potential sources of radiation-induced transient glitches. We list the numbers of V_{DD}^H -gates and required LCs in columns four and five. The average MES values over all primary outputs before and after selective voltage scaling are shown in columns six and seven. Columns eight and nine demonstrate the MES improvements and possible maximum improvements which are obtained by assigning V_{DD}^H to all gates in the circuit.

For instance, circuit C432 has 32 primary inputs, 7 primary outputs, and 156 internal gates. For soft error hardening against glitches with duration 60ps, the numbers of V_{DD}^H -gates and required LCs are 31 and 12, respectively. The average MES of the original circuit is 0.00357, while that of the radiation-hardened version is 0.00205. The MES improvement is 42.50%; the possible maximum improvement by scaling up all (156) gates in circuit C432 is 62.02%. When considering all possible glitch sizes, the overall SER reduction for circuit C432 is 35.28%. On average across all benchmarks, **33.45%** SER reduction can

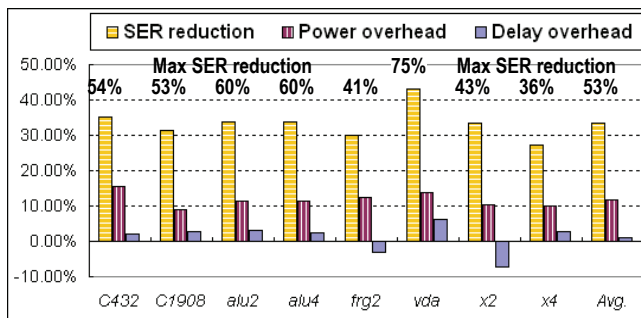


Fig. 5. Corresponding delay and power overheads

be achieved with **18.89%** (slightly larger than the upper bound u) of total gates scaled up and **3.86%** LCs inserted, as a fraction of the gate count.

In some cases, for example circuit $x4$, the SER reduction is 27.12%, below the average 33.45%. However, one can note that the MES improvements for 80-120ps duration sizes are very close to the possible maximum improvements. The results reveal that, by scaling up a small portion of internal gates in a circuit, we can reduce the overall SER either by a significant percentage or near the theoretical minimum. On average, more than three-fifths (33.45% out of 52.85%) of maximum SER reduction is accomplished with less than one-fifth (18.89%) of gates being scaled up.

The runtime of our algorithm is always within few minutes, given the MEI and MMI values of each gate. The corresponding delay and power overheads are shown in Fig. 5, where timing and power are measured by using Synopsys® PrimeTime PX. Input probability distributions used for the results in Table 1 are also applied for switching activity analysis in PrimeTime PX. Our framework adds an average of **11.74%** power dissipation, due to the 18.89% V_{DD}^H -gates and 3.86% LCs. Overall, the overhead in normalized power-delay-area product per 1% SER reduction is **0.64%**, while that of [9] is **0.85%**. Using MEI and MMI described in Sections IV.A and IV.B, we can easily characterize each gate and also apply these techniques, for example, gate sizing [11] for further SER reduction without much additional effort.

The goal of this methodology is to assign V_{DD}^H to gates with large scaling criticality. Therefore, after those gates are scaled up, the MEI values of internal gates will become smaller. In Fig. 6, the distributions of overall MEI values for circuit $x2$ are presented. Each point in the figure denotes the number of gates (y -axis) having MEI within the interval (x -axis). As can be seen, the MEI distribution after optimization shifts toward the left, which means the MEI values of internal gates become much smaller due to selective voltage scaling.

We also perform experiments with different lower and upper bounds. As shown in Fig. 7, the SER reductions when using (l, u) smaller than (8, 16) are not as significant as the case when (l, u) is (8, 16). On the other hand, using (l, u) greater than (8, 16) may induce more V_{DD}^H -gates and LCs. More V_{DD}^H -gates will result in higher power penalty; more LCs will lead not only to higher overhead in terms of area and power, but also to larger error impact since LCs are also vulnerable to particle hits.

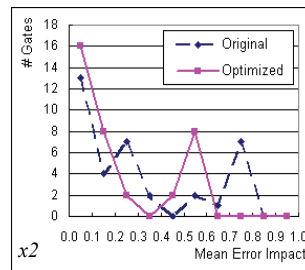


Fig. 6. Mean error impact (MEI) distributions

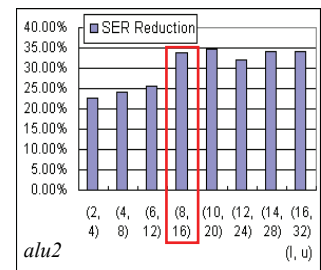


Fig. 7. SER reductions with different lower & upper bounds

VIII. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we propose a power-aware soft error hardening framework via selective voltage scaling using dual supply voltages for combinational logic. A novel metric, scaling criticality (SC), is used to estimate the effects of V_{DD}^H assignments on circuit SER. Based on the estimation through SC, we introduce an efficient heuristic and two refinement techniques for SER reduction while keeping the numbers of V_{DD}^H -gates and required LCs sufficiently low. Various experiments on a subset of standard benchmarks demonstrate that the proposed framework can effectively reduce the circuit susceptibility to radiation-induced transient errors.

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