

# Symbolic Analysis of Faulty Logic Circuits in the Presence of Correlated Gate Failures

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**Abstract** — In this paper we present a method for symbolic analysis of unreliable logic circuits in the presence of correlated and data-dependent gate failures, described by Markov chains. Presented probabilistic algorithm is used for the analysis of majority logic and XOR logic circuits.

**Keywords** — Combinatorial circuits, fault-tolerance, Markov chains, symbolic analysis.

## I. INTRODUCTION

THE signal probability estimation in digital circuits captures the likelihood of a particular signal being equal to ‘0’ or ‘1’. The signal probability values indicate how difficult is to control and test a signal [1]. The problem of signal probability estimation under reliable hardware is analyzed in details in [2]-[4].

Recently, probabilistic analysis gained an increased significance in analysis of unreliable hardware. According to new design paradigm for very large scale integration technologies, a fully reliable operation is not guaranteed [5]. As the trend of constant decrease of transistors size continues, fault tolerance is recognized as one of the top challenges in semiconductor technology [6]. Increased noise sensitivity is a major drawback of new nano-scale technologies and it is one of the main reasons for so-called transient logic faults. These faults have probabilistic behavior and thus can be described statistically.

Transient faults are usually modeled at logic gates level and its statistics is given by probability of an erroneous gate output. If the gate error probability is independent of gate inputs, the model is referred as *unconditional*. Some methods for unconditional model analysis are presented in [7]-[9]. On the other hand, conditional faults modeling assumes that gate error probability depends on gates input values, as described in [1] and [10]. The state-of-the-art conditional error models analyze only current input values

dependence.

In this paper we present a more general fault model that captures the influence of current and previous gate input values to output error probability. Also, based on this error model, a novel symbolic method for faulty gate analysis is described and its application to particular logic gates such as XOR and majority logic is presented.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section II the previous work related to this topic is presented, which includes the theoretical basis of the faulty gates analysis. In Section III, we present a novel a description of faulty gates using Markov chain modeling and a novel symbolic method for a gate analysis. Section IV presents the results of probabilistic analysis for some practically significant logic circuits. Finally, some concluding remarks and future research directions are given in Section V.

## II. PRIOR WORK

The fundamentals of probabilistic logic circuits analysis are given in [2], where a so-called Parker-McCluskey method for exact signal probabilities calculation was proposed. Based on this method, signal probabilities at the outputs of logic circuit can be determined using individual gates calculation rules. The probability calculation rules for  $n$ -input elementary binary logic gates, with inputs  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  and output  $z$ , are given in Table 1, where  $p(s)$  denotes the probability that signal  $s$  is equal to 1.

TABLE 1: SIGNAL PROBABILITY CALCULATION RULES FOR ELEMENTARY GATES WITH INDEPENDENT INPUTS.

Gate type	Probability calculation rule
NOT	$p(z) = p(x)$
AND	$p(z) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i)$
NAND	$p(z) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i)$
OR	$p(z) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - p(x_i))$
NOR	$p(z) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i)$

The Parker-McCluskey algorithm calculates the signal probabilities at the output of every individual logic gate  $g$  in  $m$ -input circuit  $C$  in terms of primary input signal probabilities of  $C$ . If the inputs of  $g$  are not independently controllable from the primary inputs of  $C$ , signal probability at the gate output cannot be determined using Table 1. Instead, the output signal probability  $p(z)$ , can be expressed in terms of  $p(x_1), p(x_2), \dots, p(x_m)$ , where  $x_i$ ,

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$1 \leq i \leq m$ , represents the  $i$ -th primary input. The method states that if we first express  $p(z)$ , the probability of the gate output signal assuming input independence,  $p(z)$  can be derived by suppressing all exponents  $(p(x_i))^j$ ,  $j > 1$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq m$ , in a given expression as follows

$$p(z) = p'(z) \Big|_{(p(x_i))^j = p(x_i), j > 1, 1 \leq i \leq m} \quad (1)$$

Although the presented algorithm originally considered only perfect gates, it can be easily expanded for faulty gate analysis if gate failures are modeled as unconditional.

The most common way for analyzing the faulty gates is so-called mutant modeling approach. According to this approach every 2-input gate in a circuit is substituted with its faulty “mutant”, a gate with equivalent Boolean function which output is sometimes incorrect.

The correct binary output value of a given gate,  $O_c(k)$  at discrete time  $k$ , ( $k > 0$ ), depends on the gate binary input values, denoted by  $I_1(k)$  and  $I_2(k)$ . This is illustrated in Fig. 1. Faults are inserted at the gate output by performing XOR operation between correct gate output sequence  $\{O_c(k)\}_{k > 0}$ , and the error sequence  $\{e(k)\}_{k > 0}$ , producing the actual output sequence  $\{O_e(k)\}_{k > 0}$ . The error sequence  $\{e(k)\}_{k > 0}$ , represents the binary time series which describes the statistics of faults. If the  $k$ -th value of error pattern is ‘1’, i.e.  $e(k) = 1$  ( $k > 0$ ), the output of a ‘mutant’ gate at time  $k$  will be faulty.

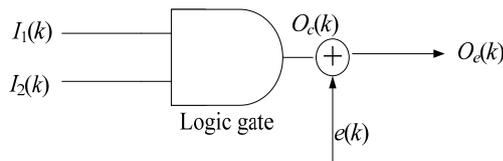


Fig. 1. Faulty gate modelling using “mutant” approach.

The assumption that probability of faulty output  $p(e)$  is independent of gate’s input values corresponds to unconditional error model. It is obvious that in this analysis an error pattern can be treated like a common primary input, with signal probability  $p(e)$ . Thus, Parker-McCluskey algorithm can be used for output signal probability calculation.

There are also several other algorithms that use independent fault modeling including Probabilistic Decision Diagrams (PDDs), Four-Event (FE) and Trigonometric Probability Calculation (TPC). The PDD algorithm uses directed acyclic graphs to describe the error probability of individual gate [7]. When all gates PDDs are formed, they are recursively merged from inputs to outputs. The FE method describes signal behavior using four different states: 1, 0,  $e$  and  $e'$ , where  $e$  and  $e'$  represent an erroneous value and its negation, respectively [8]. Algorithm calculates the probability that a faulty value, originating from a particular gate  $g$ , will be observed at a circuit output. According to TCP approach every signal distribution probability is represented as an angle and an error probability as its linear rotation [9]. By using trigonometric calculation output probability is determined.

More realistic fault models take into account existing data-dependence of gate error probability and are referred as *conditional*. The two well known representatives of this

class of methods use Bayesian network [10] and Probabilistic Transfer Matrix (PTM) approach [1], respectively. In both methods erroneous value appearance depends on the gate input values. However, both algorithms consider that only current input values influence the error occurrence. In the next section we present more general modeling approach which depicts influence of current and previous gate input values.

### III. SYMBOLIC ANALYSIS OF FAULTY LOGIC GATES

#### A. Fault modeling using Markov chains

In contrast to the state-of-the-art modeling of faulty gates that considers only the failure dependence on current input values, our model captures more accurately the correlation influence by using Markov chains.

Consider a 2-input binary logic gate. In the model the error value at  $k$ -th time point  $e(k)$  is formed based on a pair of current and  $M-1$  pairs of prior consecutive input values  $I_1(k)$ ,  $I_2(k)$ ,  $I_1(k-1)$ ,  $I_2(k-1)$ , ...,  $I_1(k-M+1)$ ,  $I_2(k-M+1)$ . Let  $S$  be a Markov source generating the error sequence composed of  $2^{2M}$  states  $s_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq 2^{2M}$ , i.e.

$S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_{2^{2M}}\}$ . Every state corresponds to one possible binary sequence of length  $2M$ ,  $s_i = [b_1 \ b_2 \ \dots \ b_M \ b_{M+1} \ b_{M+2} \ \dots \ b_{2M}]$ ,  $b_j \in \{0,1\}$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq 2M$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq 2^{2M}$ , where first  $M$  bits represent consecutive values of input  $I_1$  and second  $M$  bits represent values of  $I_2$ . Every state can capture the different data-dependent failures, expressed through different error probabilities  $P_e(s_i) = \Pr\{e(k) = 1 | s_i\}$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq 2^{2M}$ ,  $k > 0$ , where  $\Pr\{\cdot\}$  denotes probability.

The relations between error probabilities in different states depend on a specific gate. For example, at the output of NAND logic gate correct value ‘1’ appears only if both inputs are equal to ‘0’. Thus, if one input changes its value due to increased noise level, the gate output will be faulty. Consequently, the all-zero state has highest and the all-ones state has lowest error probability. For any other state we form a simple model in which the number of ones in the state binary representation (the state weight) determines the error probability. The last conclusion can be formulated as follows

$$P_e(s_i) = \Pr\{e = 1 | s_i\} = A_i \Pr\{e = 1 | s_0\}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq 2^{2M}, \quad (2)$$

where  $A_i$  represent the scaling coefficients, dependent of state  $s_i$ . From the discussion presented above it holds

$$A_i = 1/p^{w(i)}, \quad p \geq 1, \quad (3)$$

where  $w(i)$  denotes the weight of state  $s_i$ . The parameter  $p$  enables us to change easily the values of scaling coefficients and model different fault conditions. Similar analysis can be performed for any other elementary logic gate.

#### B. A novel approach for faulty gate analysis

We next present a novel symbolic algorithm for faulty gates analysis which combines Parker-McCluskey algorithm with the date-dependent failure model given in previous subsection.

The probability that signal value at the output of a 2-input faulty logic gate is equal to ‘1’ can be expressed as

$$P_{out} = \sum_{i=1}^N p_1^{w_1(i)} (1-p_1)^{M-w_1(i)} p_2^{w_2(i)} (1-p_2)^{M-w_2(i)} P_e(s_i) + \sum_{i=N+1}^{2^M} p_1^{w_1(i)} (1-p_1)^{M-w_1(i)} p_2^{w_2(i)} (1-p_2)^{M-w_2(i)} (1-P_e(s_i)), \quad (4)$$

where  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  denote probabilities that value ‘1’ appears at the gate inputs  $I_1$  and  $I_2$ , respectively, while  $w_1(i)$  and  $w_2(i)$  represent, respectively, the weight of the first and second  $M$  bits in a binary representation of state  $s_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq 2^M$ , and  $N$  denotes the number of states of Markov source  $S$  in which correct output value is equal to ‘0’.

The expression contains exponents of input probabilities which appear as a consequence of the multiple discrete times analysis. It is obvious that suppressing them, like stated in original Parker-McCluskey algorithm, does not lead to a correct result. To distinguish exponents originated from different time points from exponents that appear because of signal space correlation we present a variable substitution method. The variable  $p_k$  ( $k=1, 2$ ) from Eq. 4 is substituted with  $M$  variables  $p_{k,n}$ ,  $1 \leq n \leq M$ , and we have

$$P_{out} = \sum_{i=1}^N \prod_{j=1}^M p_{1,j}^{s_i(j)} (1-p_{1,j})^{\bar{s}_i(j)} \prod_{j=M+1}^{2M} p_{2,j}^{s_i(j)} (1-p_{2,j})^{\bar{s}_i(j)} P_e(s_i) + \sum_{i=N+1}^{2^M} \prod_{j=1}^M p_{1,j}^{s_i(j)} (1-p_{1,j})^{\bar{s}_i(j)} \prod_{j=M+1}^{2M} p_{2,j}^{s_i(j)} (1-p_{2,j})^{\bar{s}_i(j)} (1-P_e(s_i)), \quad (5)$$

where  $\bar{s}_i(j), 1 \leq j \leq 2M, 1 \leq i \leq 2^M$ , represents a complementary value of  $s_i(j)$ .

If substitution is carried out for every input probability, through every signal path in  $m$ -input circuit, all exponents in expression for circuit output signals probabilities result from signals space correlation. The variable substitution is performed by parent-children principle – at every level of substitution parent variable is substituted with  $M$  children variables, as illustrated in Fig. 2. Then Parker-McCluskey method can be applied for suppressing exponents. In the end all variables are turned back into starting variables  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m$  and the exact expressions for circuit output probabilities are derived.

It can be noticed that due to asymmetric paths in the circuit, the variables from different levels of substitution may appear in final expressions. A parent variable influences on each children variable (originated from that parent) when multiplied with the children variable, needs to be suppressed. For example, the factor  $p_i p_j p_{i,1} p_{i,11}$  reduces to  $p_i p_j$ .

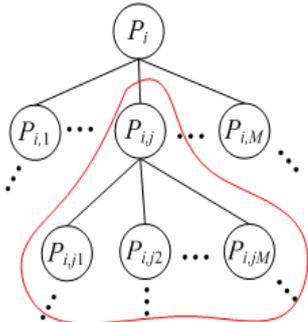


Fig. 2. Illustration of variables substitution method.

### C. Complexity analysis

We next present the complexity analysis in terms of number of variables needed for symbolic calculation. The number of variables depends on number of circuit inputs and length of paths that are affected by signal correlation. Let  $C$  be a logic circuit, with  $m$  inputs,  $k$  of which are spatially correlated ( $k < m$ ). The set of correlated input signal can be denoted as  $S_k = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k\}$ . The remaining  $m-k$  circuit inputs do not produce exponents in output probability expressions and there is no need substituting their probability variables.

Let  $N_i$  be the number of correlated signal paths with different length that involve the input  $x_i, 1 \leq i \leq k$ . Let  $D_i^{(j)}, 1 \leq j \leq N_i, 1 \leq i \leq k$ , represents the length of the  $j$ -th correlated path in which the input  $x_i$  is involved. Then, the total number of variables used can be expressed as follows

$$N_{tot} = m - k + \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} M^{D_i^{(j)}}. \quad (6)$$

It can be noted that even for a small number  $M$ , number of variable is be large as long as a long correlation paths exist in a circuit. Symbolic calculation with large number of variables can be time-consuming, which makes presented algorithm impractical for analysis of large logic circuits.

### IV. APPLICATION TO ML AND XOR CIRCUITS ANALYSIS

We next present the results for  $m$ -input majority logic (ML) and XOR gates analysis built only from faulty 2-input NAND logic gates. Faults are modeled by Markov chains and probabilities of erroneous circuits outputs are calculated using the presented algorithm.

All graphical results are obtained assuming that error occurrence at the output of faulty NAND gate depends on two consecutive input values, which corresponds to  $M=2$ . Also, for every  $m$ -input circuit the same statistics is assumed for every input and described by probability that input values  $I_i, 1 \leq i \leq m$ , are equal to ‘1’, denoted as  $P_1$ .

The output error probability of 3-input ML gate dependence of average component failures is presented in Fig 3, for several values of parameter  $p$  ( $=1, 2, 3$ ) and two input probabilities  $P_1 = 0.5$  and  $P_1 = 0.9$ . A majority logic gate output is equal to ‘1’, if half or more inputs are equal to ‘1’. Thus, when ones and zeros appear at the gate inputs with equal probabilities ( $P_1 = 0.5$ ) more gate output values will be faulty, compared to case when almost all inputs are ‘1’ ( $P_1 = 0.9$ ). When  $P_1 = 0.5$ , the parameter  $p$ , which describes presented Markov model, does not have any impact on the circuit performance, while the performances differ when  $P_1 = 0.9$ . The performance comparison of ML gates with different number of inputs is presented in Fig. 4, when  $p = 2$ . It can be noted that the 2-input majority logic gate has the lowest output error probability when  $P_1 = 0.5$ . However, when  $P_1 = 0.9$ , the gate with largest number of inputs (4-input gate) outperforms other logic gates.

The data-dependence does not influence greatly on the probability of error at the output of 3-input XOR gate, as illustrated in Fig. 5. This phenomenon is a consequence of the more symmetric circuit topology in which all error states are approximately equally likely.

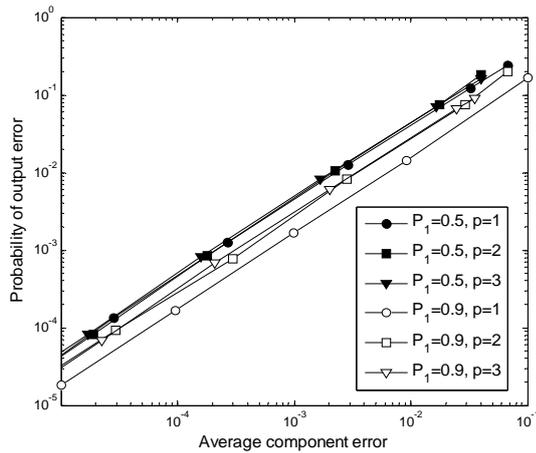


Fig. 3. Probability of error at the output of 3-input ML logic gate.

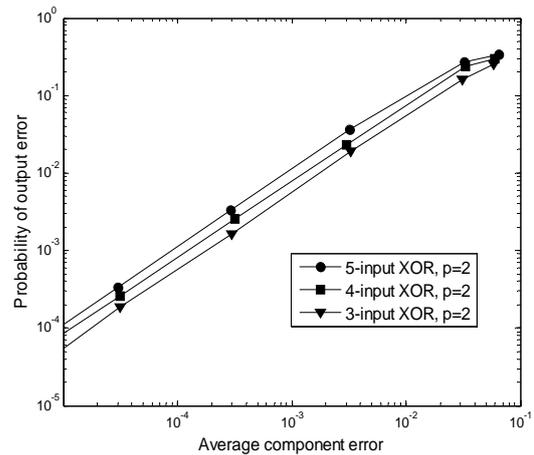


Fig. 6. Comparison of XOR logic gates with different number of inputs.

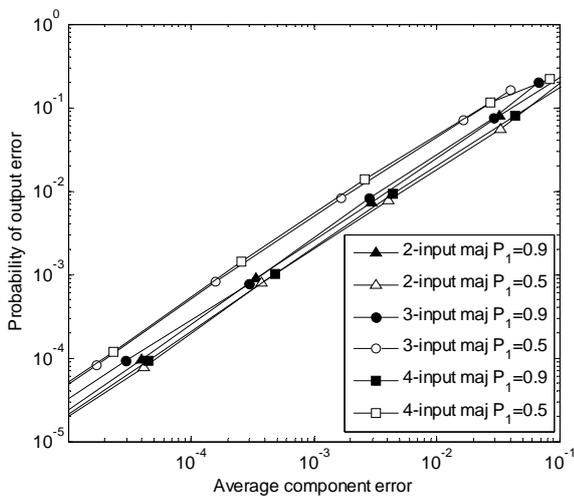


Fig. 4. Comparison of majority logic gates with different number of inputs for  $p=2$ .

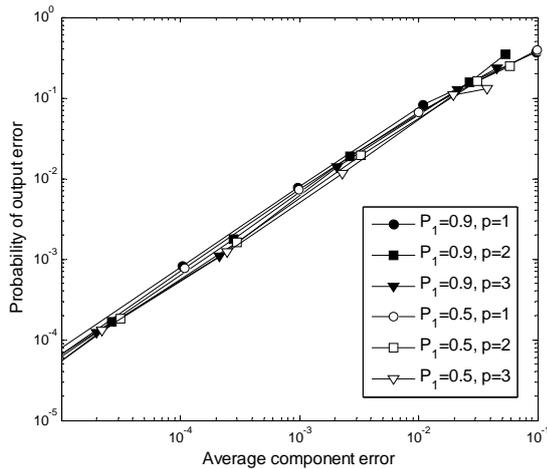


Fig. 5. Probability of error at the output of 3-input XOR logic gate.

Performance of XOR gates with 3, 4 and 5 inputs are presented in Fig 6. It can be noted that increasing the number of inputs causes higher output error probability. In XOR logic circuit with more inputs, there are more gate failure combinations that may generate an output error.

## V. CONCLUSION

In this paper we have presented a novel approach for transient faults modeling and analysis in combinatorial logic circuits. Using Markov chains, the error sequences at the output of a logic gate can be described in a more general way compared to the existing models. Our future research is directed to ensuring fault-tolerance in digital networks, built from unreliable components. We are especially investigating memory architectures that use low density parity check error correcting codes.

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