

# Lifetime Reliability Trojan based on Exploring Malicious Aging

Tien-Hung Tseng and Kai-Chiang Wu

Department of Computer Science

National Chiao Tung University, Hsinchu, Taiwan

E-mail: {eric830303.cs05g@g2.nctu.edu.tw and kcw@cs.nctu.edu.tw}

**Abstract**—Due to escalating complexity of hardware design and manufacturing, not only are integrated circuits (ICs) designed and fabricated in multiple nations, but also software tools may be supplied worldwide. It makes hardware security become more subject to various kinds of tampering in the supply chain. Hardware Trojan horses (HTHs) can be implanted to facilitate the leakage of confidential information or cause the failure of a system. Reliability Trojan is one of the main categories of HTH attacks because its behavior is progressive and is thus not trivial to be detected, or not considered malicious. In this work, we propose to insert reliability Trojan into a circuit which can finely control the circuit lifetime as specified by attackers (or even designers), based on manipulating BTI-induced aging behavior in a statistical manner. Experimental results show that, given a specified lifetime target and under the influence of process variations, the circuit is highly likely to fail within a desired lifetime interval. Instead, in a typical design considering pessimistic corners, the resulting lifetime is usually far longer than the target.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Due to escalating complexity of hardware design and manufacturing [1], integrated circuits (ICs) are usually designed and fabricated in multiple locations worldwide. Moreover, some design tools are also supplied from different units. With the utilization of third-party IP components and off-shore IC manufacturing, the overall cost and time-to-market are significantly reduced. However, hardware security becomes more subject to various kinds of tampering in the supply chain [2][3]. Typically, a hardware system does no more than its requirements. Doing more than required, hardware Trojan horses (HTHs) can be implanted to facilitate the leakage of confidential information or cause the failure of a system [4]-[5]. Outsourcing (e.g., third-party IP components, design tools and off-shore IC manufacturing) makes malicious HTH attacks possible. In order to introduce the motivation of deploying HTH attacks, here we make some scenario from various aspects, i.e., attackers. Manufacturers: Given a design house A with its competitor B, in order to interfere B's commercial development, A paid B's ICs manufacturer M such that M tampered B's layout, making B's product(s) malfunction earlier than expected. Design-tool suppliers: Given a country C with its imaginary enemy D, and we assume that D's design houses utilize at least one design tool supplied from C's software corporation S. For the purpose of obstructing D's high-tech military weapon development, C forced S to embed malicious mechanisms in its software merchandise. Therefore,

no matter what kinds of military equipment D produces, they are stealthily put HTH in the inner ICs. After the insertion of HTHs, it is difficult to prove their existence since they are pervasive and inappreciable. In this sense, the proposed research provides new primitives for aforementioned hardware security threats, by exploring the feasibility of different HTH attacks and associated detection/prevention countermeasures. Reliability Trojan is one of the main categories of HTH attacks because its behavior is progressive and is thus not trivial to be detected, or not considered malicious. Time-dependent dielectric breakdown (TDDB), bias temperature instability (BTI), and electromigration (EM) are some of the critical failure mechanisms affecting lifetime reliability. With the continuous shrinking of transistor and interconnect dimensions, the rate of such progressive wear-out failures is getting higher. In addition, due to the increasing transistor density without proportional downscaling of supply voltage, the power density and thus the operating temperature will rise significantly, which further accelerates the failure mechanisms because they are all exponentially dependent on temperature. In this work, we propose to insert reliability Trojan into a circuit which can finely controls the circuit lifetime as specified by attackers (or even designers), based on manipulating BTI-induced aging behavior in a statistical manner.

## II. RELATED WORK

Studies about reliability Trojan have been proposed since last few years. Authors of [6] detail BTI and HCI effects which induce aging failures, and accelerates the effects by aggravating the most influential parameters of BTI and HCI. In [7], a few Trojan designs are proposed to accelerate EM, BTI and TDDB effects by stressing/modifying specific interconnects and gates. Some studies also try to control the lifetime of a circuit by counters or timers. In [8], authors present a Trojan which controls lifetime by analog mechanism. It siphons charge from target wire and stores to a capacitor until voltage on the capacitor rises above the threshold and sets its output flip-flop to a desired value. The work [9] presents an unmodified Trojan by analyzing the netlist of a circuit to identify its critical paths; then they generate patterns/instructions for stressing those paths. These patterns can be fed by external programs or embedded devices to accelerate the aging and decrease the circuit performance and lifetime. The studies [8] and [9] focus on the logic blocks

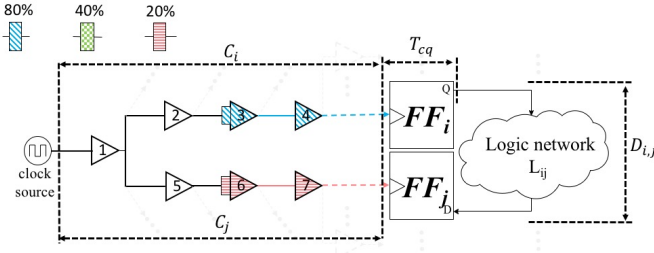


Figure 1. Example of DCC insertion

which highly depend on users' operational modes. However, authors of [6] does not estimate circuit lifetime in detail and the work of [7] has relatively high cost based on using counters to control lifetime. To predict circuit lifetime with Trojans, a few mathematical models are proposed in [10] to estimate circuit reliability, but it only tries on tiny circuit C17 and does not consider aging. In addition, authors of [11] propose an idea using aging effects to induce a circuit into its redundant states (i.e., operational modes) and thereafter execute malicious function. This paper proposes a method of hardware Trojan insertion to control the lifetime of a circuit based on manipulating the rate of circuit aging. We consider (i) the aging of both clock trees and combinational logical paths, and (ii) the correlation of aging rates between critical paths. These considerations ensure the effect of our proposed Trojan to be manifested on time under all possible workloads due to various users' operational conditions. More clearly, we present a methodology that deploys duty-cycle converters (DCCs) into a clock tree to accelerate the aging of predesignated clock buffers/inverters associated with critical paths. Those paths will fail around the time we set regardless of operational conditions.

### III. MOTIVATING EXAMPLE

#### A. Duty-Cycle Converter (DCC)

Duty cycle is the percentage of one period in which a signal is high (i.e., logic 1). The aging of logic gates highly depends on the stress time [8]. For a clock buffer on the clock tree, its stress time is proportional to the clock duty cycle. Therefore, by adjusting the clock duty cycle, we can manipulate the aging of clock buffers and then control the effective degradation of logic paths. The unit we use to change the clock duty cycle is duty-cycle converter (DCC), which is introduced in [cite our paper]. It converts the duty cycle of a clock signal to a smaller/larger one (e.g., 50%  $\rightarrow$  20% or 50%  $\rightarrow$  80%). Once a DCC is inserted into the clock tree, the downstream sub-tree of the DCC insertion point will receive a clock signal whose duty cycle is no longer 50%. This way, aging rate manipulation of downstream clock buffers can be achieved.

#### B. DCCs against a Critical Path

We use an illustrative example to explain our idea of shortening the lifespan of designs, by manipulating the aging rates of clock buffers. Consider the circuit in Figure 1, where

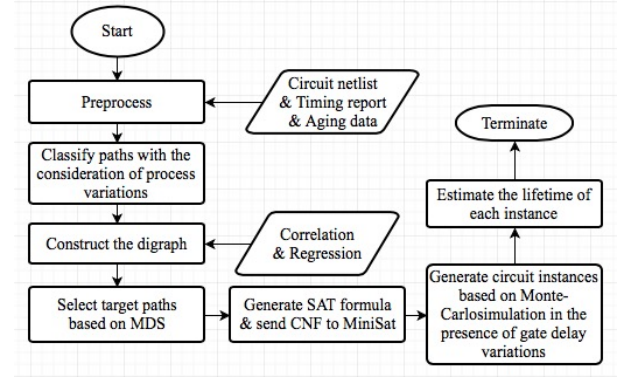


Figure 2. DCC insertion flow



Figure 3. Classification of critical paths

$FF_i$  and  $FF_j$  are edge-triggered flip-flops and there exist seven buffers in the associated clock network. If the design needs work normally, the following setup-time constraint must be satisfied:

$$C_i + T_{cq} + D_{ij} + T_{su} < C_j + T_c \quad (1)$$

where  $C_i$  is the clock latency from clock source to  $FF_i$ ,  $C_j$  is the counterpart from clock source to  $FF_j$ ,  $T_{su}$  is setup time,  $T_c$  is clock period,  $T_{cq}$  is clock-to-output delay, and  $D_{ij}$  is the largest path delay of logic network  $L_{ij}$ . The constraint is equivalent to the following constraint:

$$Slack = (C_j + T_c) - (C_i + T_{cq} + D_{ij} + T_{su}) > 0 \quad (2)$$

which indicates the timing slack must be greater than zero; otherwise, the design can not work normally. Suppose that, the attacker inserts a 20% DCC and an 80% DCC at the inputs of buffer 6 and buffer 3, respectively. Over a period,  $C_i$  will gain greater than  $C_j$  does. This way, the timing slack decreases, such that setup-time violations are likely to occur on this critical path, causing the failure of the design circuit.

### IV. DEFINITION AND DCC INSERTION FLOW

Our proposed flow of DCC insertion is shown in Figure 2. First, we read the data (e.g. circuit netlist, timing report, aging prediction parameters) and perform preprocessing. The detail about preprocessing will be described later. Then we construct a graph according to the correlation and regression between critical paths. In the graph, a vertex represents a critical path, and an edge between two vertices (i.e., a pair of critical paths) represents the correlation/regression between them. Afterwards, we choose some paths as our targets and transform our problem of DCC insertion based on

SAT (Boolean Satisfiability), which can be solved by existing SAT solvers such as miniSat. Finally, we estimate the circuit lifetime after DCC insertion to evaluate the quality of our HTH attack.

### Definition

- $n$ : Expected circuit lifetime under the proposed HTH attack based on DCC insertion. The unit is year.
- $\varepsilon$ : Maximum tolerable error. The unit is year.
- *Desired lifetime interval*: A desired interval of path/circuit lifetime under workload variations and statistical considerations of aging behavior among critical paths. Given  $n$  and  $\varepsilon$ , the desired lifetime interval is  $[n - \varepsilon, n + \varepsilon]$ .

### Terminology

- *Premature failure* denotes that a path leads to timing violations earlier than  $n - \varepsilon$  years.
- *Postmature failure* denotes that a path leads to timing violations later than  $n + \varepsilon$  years.
- *Proper failure* denotes that a path leads to timing violations within desired lifetime interval.

### Classification of DCC Placements

- *Prematurely-failing DCC placement*: A kind of DCC placement which leads the critical path to premature failure.
- *Properly-failing DCC placement*: A kind of DCC placement which leads the critical path to proper failure.
- *Postmaturely-failing DCC placement*: A kind of DCC placement which leads the critical path to postmature failure.
- *Illegal DCC placement (insertion)*: At most one DCC is allowed along a clock path from the clock source to a flip-flop. Placing more than one DCC along the same clock path is called illegal DCC placement.

### Classification of Critical Paths

- *Candidate*: A critical path is defined as a candidate if there exists one properly-failing DCC placement.
- *Shortlist*: A shortlist is a subset of candidates which are selected as target paths to be attacked. Attacking such paths involves placing DCCs on their associated clock paths.
- *Mine*: A path is called a victim if one or more DCCs exist on its associated clock paths, as a result of attack on *shortlist*.
- *Effective victim*: A path is called an effective victim if it is a victim and the existing DCC(s) will lead the path to *proper failure*.

Figure 3 illustrates the relationship among those classification of critical paths. First, there is no intersection between candidate and mine. Second, the intersection between candidate and victim is effective victim. Third, shortlist is a subset of candidate; effective victim is a superset of shortlist, and so is victim. Moreover, victim and mine are likely to intersect because some paths in victim may belong to mine, and we have to ensure that these paths will not fail prematurely.

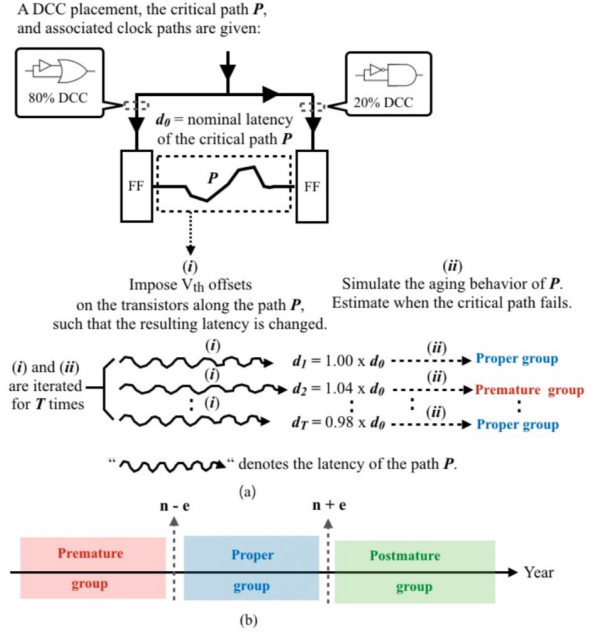


Figure 4. Classification DCC placements considering process variation

### A. Classification of DCC Placements Considering Process Variations

Note that the classification of DCC placements introduced earlier is deterministic, i.e., unaware of process-induced timing variability when referring to timing violations. In this subsection, we include the influence of process variation (PV) when classifying DCC placements, such that the resulting attack is PV-aware. The PV-aware method is depicted in Figure 4(a). Given a DCC placement on the clock path associated with one critical path, we classify the DCC placement based on Monte-Carlo simulation with the following two procedures: (i) Impose extra positive/negative  $V_{th}$  offsets on the transistors along the critical path. Note that, the  $V_{th}$  offsets follow a normal distribution, with the standard deviation of a specified value, which is usually set to 30mV. That is, 68% of  $V_{th}$  offsets of transistors reside between positive and negative 30mV. (ii) Then, a model, introduced in Section VI, is used to simulate the aging behavior of the critical path, such that we can estimate when the timing violation will occur. Note that, the model not only converts the  $V_{th}$  offset to the delay shift of the transistor, but also considers the correlation of PV and BTI. The model will be explained in Section VI. Then, as illustrated in Fig. 6(a), the steps of (i) and (ii) are iterated for  $T$  times. Each iteration results in a time point, at which the critical path fails (i.e., timing violation occurs). Then, as shown in Figure 4(b), the time points are categorized into 3 groups: premature group, proper group, and postmature group. Finally, we count the size of each group (i.e., the number of time points in the group). If the size of proper group is larger than a threshold, said  $H$ , the placement is classified as a properly-failing DCC placement. Otherwise, the sizes of the other two groups are compared. The larger one determines the

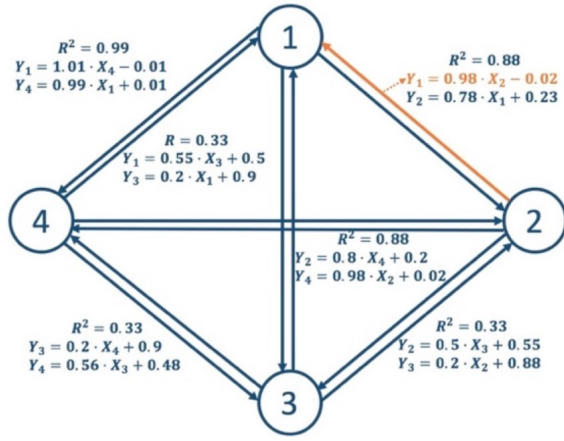


Figure 5. Example of graph used in choosing targets

classification of the DCC placement. For instance, if the size of proper group is smaller than the threshold  $H$ , the sizes of premature group and postmature group are compared. Without the loss of generality, assume the size of postmature group is larger; then, the DCC placement is finally classified as postmaturely-failing one.

#### B. Selection of Target Paths (Shortlist) to be Attacked

If an attacked critical path always ages as estimated (i.e., under worst-case aging), a successful attack can be obtained just by inserting DCCs on its associated clock paths. However, uncertainty of user-dependent operational modes (e.g., watching video, playing games) can influence/vary the aging behavior. Therefore, we must ensure that the attack will succeed under any operational mode. We make the following assumption, which will be used in Section [Undefined]:

*“Every operational mode causes at least one candidate path to undergo worst-case aging.”*

An operational mode, which causes one path to undergo worst-case aging, is called ‘critical operational mode’ of the path. Further, the union of critical operational modes of all candidate paths is equivalent to the universe of operational modes. Based on the assumption, attacking all candidates is a naive method to guarantee successful attack. Nevertheless, it is very costly and may be impossible.

Therefore, after observing the relationship among aging of paths, we find that the aging behaviors of many paths are highly correlated. If several paths are highly correlated in terms of aging behavior, one operational mode can lead all of them to age to a similar extent. Thus, we can simply attack one out of those highly correlated paths to cover multiple operational modes. For example, given two critical paths  $A$  and  $B$ . Their critical operational modes are  $O_A$  and  $O_B$ , respectively. Assume that  $A$  and  $B$  are highly correlated in terms of aging behavior. Because  $A$  and  $B$  age similarly/closely,  $O_A$  causes  $A$  to age in the worst-case and also causes  $B$  to age severely. Consequently, even if we simply attack path  $A$ , not only  $O_A$  but also  $O_B$  can

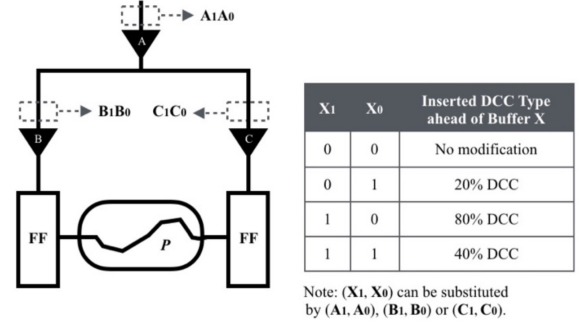


Figure 6. Introduction of SAT-formulation

make the attack successful (premature failure of path  $A$ ). This property helps reduce the number of targeted paths to be considered/formulated. To choose the attack targets (shortlist), we transform the relationship of paths to a directed graph (also known as digraph). In Figure 5, vertices represent candidates and arcs (i.e., directed edges) are correlation coefficients ( $R^2$ ) and linear regression equations between each pair of vertices. Each arc has a regression equation, whose coefficients are obtained by running functional simulation.  $X_i$  denotes the worst-case aging rate of path  $i$ , whose exact value will be introduced in Section [Undefined].  $Y_j$  denotes the aging rate of path  $j$  predicted based on the linear regression equation. Consider the orange equation in Figure 5:

$$Y_1 = 0.98 \cdot X_2 - 0.02$$

Given the worst-case aging rate of vertex/path 2,  $X_2$ , the aging rate of vertex/path 1,  $Y_1$ , can be predicted as 0.98 multiplied by  $X_2$  minus 0.02. Before the shortlist is determined by selecting a subset of candidates in the graph, we can simplify the graph by removing some arcs which indicate the relationships of weak aging correlation between pairs of paths.

The cost of our proposed HTHs is the count of inserted DCCs. In order to minimize the cost, we must select minimum-sized targets to cover all candidate paths, that is, to dominate all candidate paths in the digraph. This problem is similar to a classical digraph problem, **Minimum Dominating Set (MDS)**:

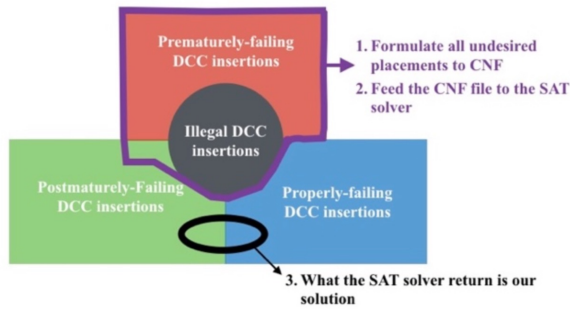
*On digraph  $G = (V, E)$ , find a minimum-sized set of vertices  $S \subseteq V$  such that  $\forall y \notin S, \exists x \in S$ , there exists an arc from  $x$  to  $y$ . And we say that  $y$  is dominated by  $x$ .*

#### C. Generation of SAT Formula

After the shortlist is determined, the problem is transformed into **Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)**. That is, it is formulated as a **Boolean satisfiability (SAT)** problem. First, as shown in Figure 6, each clock buffer is labeled by two Boolean variables to represent four types of DCCs (none, 20%, 40%, 80%) inserted ahead of it. Next, the proposed formulation is based on the classification of critical paths:

- 1) Paths in the shortlist (i.e., targets): On their associated clock paths, formulate all conditions of prematurely-





**Figure 7.** SAT-formulation and relationship among 3 groups of DCC insertions

failing DCC placements and postmaturely-failing DCC placements.

- 2) Other paths (paths not in the shortlist): On their associated clock paths, formulate all conditions of prematurely-failing DCC placements.
- 3) All paths: Formulate all conditions of illegal DCC placements.

Consider the example in Figure 6: assume that critical path P is in the shortlist. If the insertion of an 80% DCC ahead of buffer B will lead the path to premature failure, then the following clause will be added into CNF:

$$(A_1 \vee A_0 \vee \neg B_1 \vee B_0 \vee C_1 \vee C_0)$$

Then, if the insertion of a 20% DCC ahead of buffer C will lead the path to postmature failure, then the following clause will be added into CNF:

$$(A_1 \vee A_0 \vee B_1 \vee B_0 \vee C_1 \vee \neg C_0)$$

More explicitly, according to the above statements, we must avoid those conditions denoted by the red shape illustrated in Figure 7, and expect to find a feasible solution denoted by the green shape. After the formulation, our proposed problem based on DCC insertion is transformed into a CNF file. The CNF can be fed to a SAT solver and we can find the locations and types of inserted DCCs by decoding the output from the solver.

## V. LIFETIME ESTIMATION

After we obtain a solution from foregoing steps, we have to estimate the lifetime of the entire circuit. The detailed procedures are shown in Algorithm 1.

Before Algorithm 1, we first construct a digraph, which is similar to the previous one used in choosing targets (based on MDS). Here, the definition of an arc remains the same; however, vertices represent not only candidates but also mines. Then, we use the same measures to prune the digraph; it denotes that, arcs, which indicate the relationships of weak aging correlation between pairs of paths, will be deleted in the resulting digraph.

Furthermore, the previous assumption introduced in Section IV-B says that the union of critical operational modes of all candidate paths is equivalent to the universe of operational

### Algorithm 1: Lifetime Estimation

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**Input:** Digraph  $G = \{V, A\}$   
 Vertices Set  $V = \{Candidate, Mine\}$   
 Arcs Set  $A = \forall a \in A, R_a^2 > Threshold_{R^2}$

**Output:** Lower and Upper Bounds of Circuit Lifetime

```

1 begin
2   Vector Vtr
3   for  $\forall i \in Candidate$  do
4     for  $\forall p \in V, p \neq i, \exists a \in A, a$  is the arc from  $i$  to  $p$  do
5        $LT_p = \text{Estimate } p's \text{ lifetime based on binary search}$ 
6       if  $LT_p < Smallest$  then
7          $Smallest = LT_p$ 
8       end
9     end
10  end
11  Put  $Smallest$  into  $Vtr$ 
12 end
13 return  $Smallest$  value in  $Vtr$ , largest value in  $Vtr$ 
```

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### Algorithm 2: Lifetime Estimation

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**Input:** Modified netlist (after DCC insertion), critical path  $p$

**Output:** Lifetime

```

1 begin
2   Upper Bound  $U$ 
3   Lower Bound  $L$ 
4   Median  $M$ 
5   while  $U - L < 10^{-3}$  do
6      $M = \frac{U+L}{2}$ 
7     //Derive  $R_i$ , i.e.,  $X_i$  in the regression equation
8      $R_i = 0.0039 \times (0.5 \times 86400 \times 365 \times M)^{0.2}$ 
9     //Predict  $R_p$ , i.e.,  $Y_p$  in the regression equation
10     $R_p = \text{Predict } p's \text{ aging rate by the regression of } p \text{ on } i$ 
11     $S_p = \text{Estimate } p's \text{ slack considering an aging rate of } R_p$ 
12    if  $S_p > 0$  then
13       $L = M$ 
14    else
15       $U = M$ 
16    end
17  end
18  return  $U$ 
19 end
```

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modes. That is, after applying worst-case aging on each candidate path (Line 2 in Algorithm 1), all operational modes are considered during lifetime estimation in our methodology. Here, Line 2 in Algorithm 1, says that a candidate path  $i$  is assumed to age in the worst case. Then, in the inner for-loop (Lines 4-8), we iteratively estimate the lifetime of other paths based on prediction from the worst-case aging of  $i$ . For each path, say  $p$  (Line 4), the following steps are applied to estimate its lifetime: (Step 1, Line 6)  $p$ 's lifetime can be estimated based on a binary search, which will be depicted in Algorithm 2, and (Step 2, Line 7) the estimated lifetime is compared against the smallest one, since the smallest lifetime among all paths determines the circuit lifetime. In Algorithm 2, path  $p$ 's lifetime is estimated based on a binary search. The upper/lower bounds for the binary search are set in Lines 1-2, respectively. In Line 6,  $M$  is set as the median value of two bounds; and in Line 10,  $p$ 's aging rate  $R_p$  is predicted by the regression equation of  $p$  on  $i$ , where  $i$  is assumed to age under  $M$ -year worst-case condition and its aging rate value is obtained by

the following predictive model, which is presented in [12]:

$$A \cdot \alpha^n \cdot t^n \quad (3)$$

where  $A$  and  $n$  are fitted constants,  $\alpha$  denotes the stress duty cycle, and  $t$  denotes time (unit is second).  $\alpha$  is usually set to 0.5.  $A$  and  $n$  are fitted as 0.0039 and 0.2, respectively, after SPICE simulation.

Then, in Line 11,  $R_p$  is used to estimate  $p$ 's slack  $S_p$ , which is utilized to check whether the setup-time violations will occur on  $p$  under the aging rate  $R_p$  (Line 12). If the value of  $S_p$  is negative, it denotes that, setup-time violations will occur on  $p$  after  $M$  years at an aging rate of  $R_p$  (Line 14). Afterwards, according to result of the above timing check, the upper/lower bound for next iteration will be set in Line 13 or 15. While repeating the above steps (Lines 6-15), both bounds gradually converge. Eventually, the converged value of the upper bound is considered as  $p$ 's lifetime (Line 17), which will be returned to Algorithm1 as the value of  $LT_p$  (Line 6 in Algorithm 1).

The aforementioned procedure is repeated for each candidate path. We can derive a lifetime value by considering a specific candidate path. By considering all of the candidate paths, all operational modes can be considered and we can find a group of lifetime values, i.e.,  $V_{tr}$  in Algorithm 1. The smallest value and the largest one within  $V_{tr}$  are the resulting lifetime interval found based on this given attack.

## VI. CORRELATION BETWEEN PV AND AGING

### A. Impact of PV on BTI

In this section, we discuss the influence of process variation (PV) on BTI. Other works [13][14] do consider the PV effect while performing Monte-Carlo simulations, but ignore the correlation [13] between PV and BTI. The correlation is a long-term phenomenon that bridge the  $V_{th}$  differences among the transistors over a period. Further, a positive/negative  $V_{th}$  offset leads to a higher/lower fresh  $V_{th}$ , causing a lower/higher aging speed. Therefore, the gap between high and low  $V_{th}$  will be gradually converged, letting threshold voltages of transistors, whose fresh ones are different, reach a convergent value.

### B. Model of the Correlation

A model in [15] is proposed to estimate the correlation between fresh  $V_{th}$  offset and BTI effects:

$$\Delta V_{th\_nbt} = (1 - S_v \cdot \Delta V_{th\_pv}) \cdot A \cdot \alpha^n \cdot t^n \quad (4)$$

$$V_{th} = \Delta V_{th\_nbt} + \Delta V_{th\_pv} + V_{th\_design} \quad (5)$$

$\Delta V_{th\_pv}$  denotes the fresh  $V_{th}$  due to PV.  $\Delta V_{th\_nbt}$  denotes the BTI-induced  $V_{th}$  shift and  $V_{th\_design}$  denotes the nominal threshold voltage of the design.  $S_v$  depends on  $\Delta V_{th\_pv}$ , and can be derived by following procedures:

a) *Assume the value of  $V_{th}$  is convergent:* We assume threshold voltages of all transistors will be convergent after a long period, even if their fresh values are different. In other words,  $V_{th}$  is fixed regardless of various  $\Delta V_{th\_pv}$ , since the aforementioned correlation takes effect.

b) *Obtain the convergent value of  $V_{th}$ :* Since  $V_{th}$  is fixed regardless of various  $\Delta V_{th\_pv}$ , we set  $\Delta V_{th\_pv}$  to 0 in Equation (5) to derive the convergent value of  $V_{th}$ . This way, Equation (5) can be simplified as Equation (7), where the convergent value of  $V_{th}$  equals  $\Delta V_{th\_nbt}$  plus  $V_{th\_design}$ . Here,  $V_{th\_design}$  is given by technology and  $\Delta V_{th\_nbt}$  can be simplified as Equation (6) because  $V_{th\_pv}$  is set to 0. In Equation (7), since  $V_{th\_design}$  is known and  $\Delta V_{th\_nbt}$  can be derived without unknown  $S_v$ , the convergent value of  $V_{th}$  can be obtained.

$$\Delta V_{th\_nbt} = A \cdot \alpha^n \cdot t^n \quad (6)$$

$$V_{th} = \Delta V_{th\_nbt} + 0 + V_{th\_design} \quad (7)$$

c) *Obtain the value of  $S_v$  with specific  $\Delta V_{th\_pv}$ :* Given a specific value of  $\Delta V_{th\_pv}$ , our objective is to derive corresponding  $S_v$  value. Since the convergent  $V_{th}$  value is obtained in the last step and  $V_{th\_design}$  is known, we can derive the corresponding  $\Delta V_{th\_nbt}$  using Equation (5), such that the corresponding  $S_v$  can be obtained in Equation (4).

So far, the conversion from a given specific  $\Delta V_{th\_pv}$  to corresponding  $\Delta V_{th\_nbt}$  has been constructed. Then,  $\Delta V_{th\_nbt}$  must be transformed to aging-induced delay shift. In [12], the delay shift is linearly proportional to  $\Delta V_{th\_nbt}$ :

$$\Delta t_{p\_aged} = C \cdot \Delta V_{th\_nbt} \quad (8)$$

where  $\Delta t_{p\_aged}$  is BTI-induced delay shift, and  $C$  is a constant and fitted to 0.5 after SPICE simulation. Further, the Equation (8) is modified as following Equation (9) to account for the conversion from  $\Delta V_{th\_pv}$  to intrinsic delay shift.

$$\Delta t_{p\_intrinsic} = C \cdot \Delta V_{th\_pv} \quad (9)$$

where  $\Delta t_{p\_intrinsic}$  is the delay shift caused by  $\Delta V_{th\_pv}$ . Up to now, a model is built to convert a given specific  $\Delta V_{th\_pv}$  to corresponding  $\Delta t_{p\_aged}$  and  $\Delta t_{p\_intrinsic}$ . The model is involved in Section[] and Section[].

## VII. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

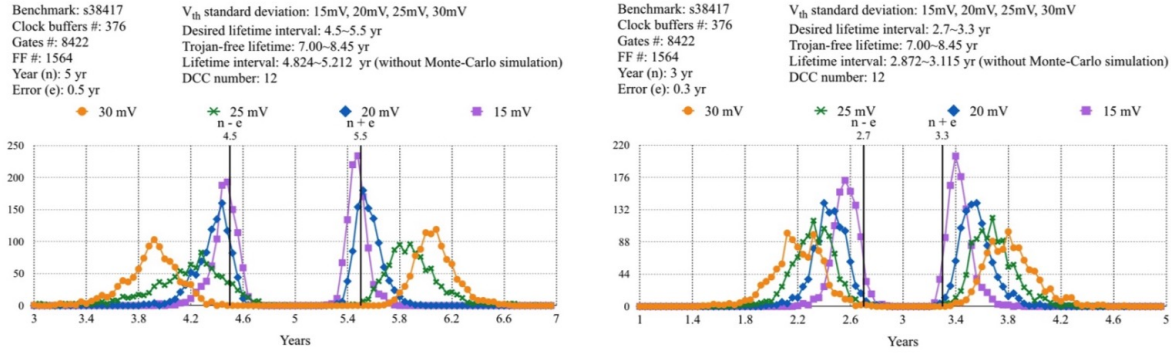
In this section, we demonstrate the experimental results of our proposed Trojan attack. The benchmarks in IWLS'05 and ISCAS'89 are used in the experiments. The utilized technology is TSMC 65nm GP standard cell series. The used SAT solver is MiniSAT 2.2.

### A. Clock Period Setting

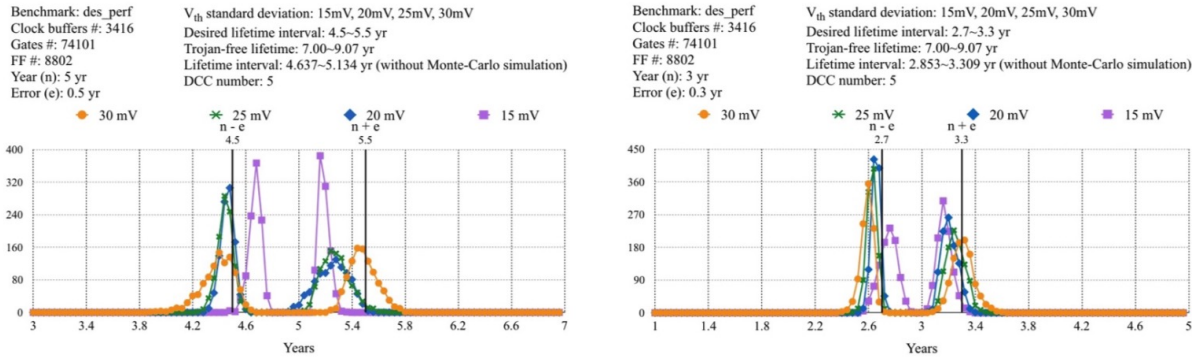
Figure 8 shows the lifetime intervals of original (i.e., Trojan-free) designs with clock periods which make the designs fail at a specified time (in our experiment, 7 years) under aging. The resulting clock period is both used in Trojan-free and Trojan-included (attacked) designs. In Figure 8, lower bounds are exactly 7 years because circuit clock periods (shown in column 4) are specifically set such that the most critical path, whose slack is smallest, fails at 7th year under the worst-case aging condition. The upper bound of each design differs significantly because, in the Trojan-free designs, only the most critical path is considered for determined the clock period while workload variations are disregarded.

Circuit	Flip-Flops	Gates	Clock Period (ps)	Original Lifetime
netcard	97831	561091	3898	7.00 ~ 7.06
leon3mp	108839	526297	3449	7.00 ~ 11.38
s38417	1564	8422	922	7.00 ~ 8.45
des_perf	8802	74101	976	7.00 ~ 9.07
vga_lcd	17079	101496	999	7.00 ~ 10.71

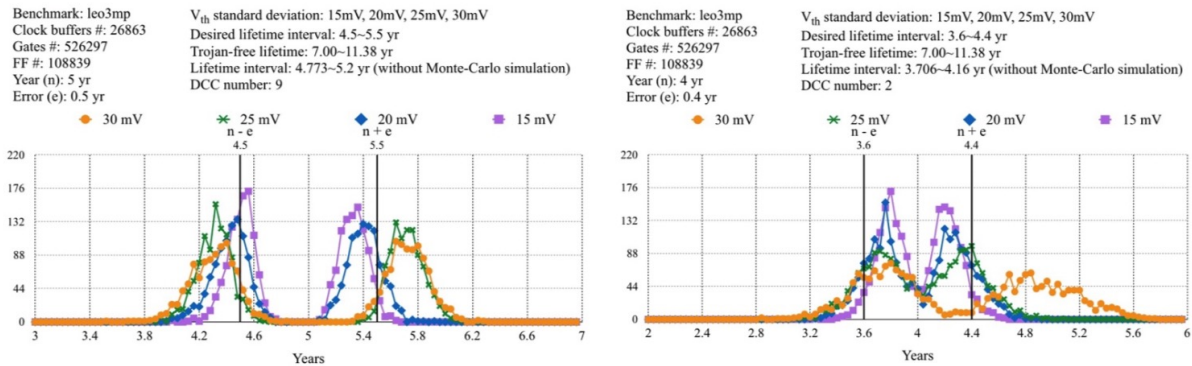
**Figure 8.** Circuit information and estimated lifetime without Trojan insertion



**Figure 9.** Lifetime distribution of s38417 instances when it is attacked to fail at 5 year and 3 year



**Figure 10.** Lifetime distribution of des\_perf instances when it is attacked to fail at 5 year and 3 year



**Figure 11.** Lifetime distribution of leo3mp instances when it is attacked to fail at 5 year and 3 year

### B. Monte-Carlo Instantiation of the Attacked Designs

After the locations of DCC insertions are determined, Monte-Carlo simulation is performed to demonstrate the influence of process variation (PV) on the proposed Trojan.

Given an attacked design, it is instantiated considering PV by imposing extra  $V_{th}$  offset (i.e.,  $\Delta V$ ) on each transistor. Note that, these offsets follow a normal distribution with the standard deviation of a given value, which usually ranges from 10mV to 30mV [19][20]. In other words, if the standard deviation is set to 20mV, it implies that 68% of  $V_{th}$  offsets reside between positive and negative 20mV. Up to present, a Monte-Carlo instance of an attacked design is built. Various instances of the attacked design are generated. Each instance (i.e., Monte-Carlo seed) can be considered as a die after the circuit is manufactured. In our experiment, each attacked design is instantiated for 1000 times with a specified standard deviation of  $V_{th}$ . Whenever an instance is generated, we use aforementioned algorithms to estimate its lifetime interval, which consists of a lower bound and an upper bound.

### C. Lifetime Estimation Considering the Correlation

Whenever an instance is generated, Algorithm 1 and Algorithm 2 are applied to estimate its lifetime. Note that, because PV is considered, the aging rates of transistors along a path will no longer be equal; in other words, because ??? of transistors along the same path are not fixed, their aging rates differ. Thus, at line 8 in Algorithm 2, aging rate of path  $i$  ( $R_i$ ) must consider the aging rate of individual transistor, instead of using the deterministic formula (1). It can be modified by following procedures: (i) Obtain the aging latency of a path by accumulating gate delays using the above mechanism in part B. (ii) Then, aging rate of the path equals the aging latency divided by fresh latency.

### D. Lifetime Distribution of Monte-Carlo Instances

Figure 9, Figure 10, and Figure 11 show the lifetime distributions of instances of the attacked three designs (s38417, des\_perf and leo3mp). The designs are attacked to fail at 3rd, 4th or 5th year. Note that, there exists no SAT solution while leo3mp is attacked to fail at 3rd year, whereas there exists SAT solution while it is attacked to fail at 4th year. In each left/right subfigure, there exist four distributions. The distributions of various colors differ in the standard deviations of  $V_{th}$  while generating instances. That is, each color corresponds to one distinct value of standard deviation of  $V_{th}$ . In our experiments, the deviations are set to 15mV, 20mV, 25 mV and 30 mV, respectively. Moreover, in each distribution, there exist two peaks. The left/right peak denotes the distribution of lower/upper bounds of lifetime intervals of instances. Note that, there exist two differences between Figure 8 and the three figures (Figure 9, Figure 10). First, the designs in Figure 8 are Trojan-free ones, instead of Trojan-included ones in the three figures. Second, because the lifetime intervals of the Trojan-free designs are not subject to the process variation, the original lifetime intervals (5th column in Figure 8) do not consider the effect of PV. Apparently, Figure 9, Figure 10, and

Figure 11 show that, as the standard deviation becomes larger, the interval between the left and right peaks becomes wider; that is, the larger standard deviation leads to a less accurate attack. Therefore, the lifetime accuracy of the proposed Trojan is impacted by the diversity of threshold voltages. However, even though the peaks of two bounds deviate from the desired lifetime interval, it does not mean that the attacked designs must not fail in that interval. As mentioned in Section V, the estimated lifetime interval of one instance consists of two bounds. One is lower bound; and the other is upper bound. The two bounds denote the earliest and the last time points, at which the instance will fail. But the exact time point, at which the instance fails, depends on the workload. Therefore, since the lifetime interval of each instance is overlapped with the desired lifetime interval, the proposed Trojan is still likely to control the design lifetime in that interval.

### E. Detectability

When it comes to the detectability of the proposed Trojan, side-channel analysis is often used to detect the existence of hardware Trojan. Nevertheless, the used DCC count is marginal compared with the total gate count. On average, DCC count is less than 0.2% of total gate count. That is, the area overhead is insignificant. Also, the power overhead due to DCCs can be regarded as the power variations caused by PV. Therefore, the proposed Trojan framework is difficult to be detected by conventional side-channel analysis. Some Trojan defenders can insert probes in the clock network to inspect the variation of clock duty cycle. The detection method is indeed able to prove the existence of the proposed Trojan. However, the method need to be supported by extra I/O pins/ports. Therefore, it is impractical, not only because the pin counts of ICs are limited, but also the area overhead of extra pins is costly.

## VIII. CONCLUSION

We proposed a methodology of hardware Trojan insertion to control the circuit lifetime with the consideration of aging behavior, correlation between pairs of critical paths and process variations. The influence of Trojan heavily reduce the lifetime of circuit instances. Even though the accuracy is impacted by PV, the lifetime of instances is still likely to fail within the desired lifetime interval  $[0.9 \times n, 1.1 \times n]$ . Also, the DCC count is less than 0.2% of total gate count, implying limited area and power overhead. Therefore, the proposed Trojan is difficult to be detected.

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