# Fast Identification of Untestable Delay Faults Using Implications<sup>\*</sup>

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### Abstract

We propose a novel algorithm to rapidly identify untestable delay faults using pre-computed static logic implications. Our fault-independent analysis identifies large sets of untestable faults, if any, without enumerating them. The cardinalities of these sets are obtained by using a counting algorithm that has quadratic complexity in the number of lines. Since our method is based on an incomplete set of logic implications, it gives only a lower bound on the number of untestable faults. A postprocessing step can list the untestable faults, if desired. Targeting untestable delay faults for test generation by an automatic test pattern generation (ATPG) tool can be avoided. The method works for the segment delay fault model and its special case, the path delay fault model. and identifies robustly untestable. non-robustly untestable, and functionally unsensitizable delay faults. Results on benchmark circuits show that many delay faults are identified as untestable in a very short time. For the benchmark circuit c6288, our algorithm identified  $1.978 \times 10^{20}$  functionally unsensitizable path faults in 3 CPU seconds.

### 1 Introduction

Physical defects that cause timing violations are modeled by delay faults at the logic level. Path delay faults [1, 2] model defects that cause cumulative propagation delays along paths to exceed specified limits. Segment delay faults [3, 4] model defects on segments, whose length L can be as small as 1 or as large as the maximum logic depth.

It is known that ATPG algorithms spend most of their time in generating tests for hard-to-detect faults or in trying to prove that a fault is untestable. This makes it very attractive to explore techniques that identify untestable faults quickly so that they need not be targeted by an ATPG tool. An estimate of the number of untestable faults can be used during the design phase to obtain a quick and approximate idea of the testability of a circuit. A lot of research has been done in the area of identifying untestable stuck-at-faults. While most of the algorithms are ATPG-based [5, 6], some use fault-independent techniques [7, 8], based on logic implications [9, 10], to identify untestable faults. Previous algorithms for identifying untestable path delay faults are ATPG-based and they involve identifying unsensitizable segments [11, 12]. Explicit enumeration of all path faults that pass through arbitrary unsensitizable segments is prohibitively complex for circuits with a large number of delay faults [11]. The runtime becomes lower when specific segments are used [12].

We propose a novel algorithm to identify untestable delay faults using pre-computed static logic implications. Using logic implications of both value assignments (0 and 1), at each line g, we perform a faultindependent analysis to identify a set of lines S, such that every fault passing through g and  $\{m : m \in S\}$  is untestable with respect to some combination of signal values. Information about stuck-fault redundancies and constant logic values, generated from static logic implications, can also be used in our analysis. We propose a non-enumerative counting technique, based on previously published algorithms [13, 3], that uses information gathered from our implication analysis and computes a lower bound on the number of untestable delay faults. The counting procedure has a quadratic complexity in the number of lines.

Our algorithm is applicable to the segment delay fault model and its special case, the path delay fault model. In this paper, we only illustrate our algorithm for identifying untestable path delay faults. Results are presented for both models and they include robustly untestable [1, 2], non-robustly untestable [14] and functionally unsensitizable [11] delay faults.

### 2 Notation and Definitions

The following discussion is limited to combinational circuits composed of simple gates (AND, OR, NOT,

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NAND, and NOR). Let *line* denote an interconnection between two gates, gt(l) denote the gate for which line l is an input, and in(g) denote the set of inputs of gate g. Let n(V) represent the stable signal value of n under a vector V, where n is either a gate or a line.

A physical path P is a sequence  $(g_0, l_0, ..., l_{n-1}, g_n)$ , where  $(g_1, ..., g_{n-1})$  are gates,  $(l_0, ..., l_{n-1})$  are lines,  $g_0$  is a primary input (PI), and  $g_n$  is a primary output (PO). Lines  $(l_0, ..., l_{n-1})$  are called *on-path inputs* of P. An input  $\{i : i \in in(g_k), i \neq l_{k-1}, 1 < k < n\}$  is called a *side-input* of P. There are two *logical paths*,  $P^1$  and  $P^0$ , associated with P, corresponding to a rising and a falling transition respectively on  $g_0$ . A faulty logical path is called a *path delay fault*. In this paper, we use the terms *path delay faults*, *path faults* and *logical paths* interchangeably. A test for a path delay fault consists of a vector pair  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$ .

**Definition 2.1 ([11])** A vector pair  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$  is said to functionally sensitize a path fault  $P^{\psi} = (g_0, l_0, ..., g_n)$ , where  $\psi \in \{0, 1\}$ , iff:

(1)  $g_0(V_1) = \overline{\psi}, g_0(V_2) = \psi, and$ 

(2) if an on-path input of  $P^{\psi}$  has a non-controlling value under  $V_2$ , the corresponding side-inputs have non-controlling values under  $V_2$ .

**Definition 2.2 ([14])** A vector pair  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$  is said to be a non-robust test for a path delay fault  $P^{\psi} = (g_0, l_0, ..., g_n)$ , where  $\psi \in \{0, 1\}$ , iff:

(1)  $g_0(V_1) = \overline{\psi}, \ g_0(V_2) = \psi, \ and$ 

(2) all side-inputs of  $P^{\psi}$  have non-controlling values under  $V_2$ .

**Definition 2.3 ([1, 2])** A vector pair  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$  is said to be a robust test for a path delay fault  $P^{\psi} = (g_0, l_0, ..., g_n)$ , where  $\psi \in \{0, 1\}$ , if it guarantees detection of the fault irrespective of the delays of all other signals in the circuit. This condition is satisfied iff: (1)  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$  is a non-robust test for  $P^{\psi}$ , and

(2) if an on-path input of  $P^{\psi}$  has a controlling value under  $V_2$ , the corresponding side-inputs have steady non-controlling values on both vectors.

**Remark 2.1** The existence of a vector  $V_1$ , that satisfies the requirement on it given by Definitions 2.1 and 2.2, can be guaranteed for a circuit without any restrictions on its input values.

**Remark 2.2** The set of functionally sensitizable path faults is a superset of the set of non-robustly testable path faults, which in turn is a superset of the set of robustly testable path faults.

**Remark 2.3** Only the robustness criterion imposes the requirement  $\forall_{1 < k < n} \{g_k(V_1) \neq g_k(V_2)\}$  which in turn implies  $\forall_{1 < k < n-1} \{l_k(V_1) \neq l_k(V_2)\}$ 

We say that a path fault  $P^{\psi}$  is *sensitized* on a vector pair  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$  iff  $P^{\psi}$  is either functionally sensitized, robustly tested, or non-robustly tested by  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$ .

**Lemma 2.1** If a path fault  $P^{\psi} = (g_0, l_0, ..., g_n)$ , where  $\psi \in \{0, 1\}$ , is sensitized on a vector pair  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$ ,  $\forall_{0 < k < n} \{g_k(V_2) = \psi \text{ if the number of inversions between } g_0 \text{ and the output of } g_k \text{ is even; } g_k(V_2) = \overline{\psi} \text{ otherwise} \}.$ 

**Proof:** We will prove the lemma by induction.

Induction Basis: Since  $P^{\psi}$  is sensitized by  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$ , from the above definitions, we know that  $g_0(V_2) = \psi$ . Induction Hypothesis: Suppose the claim is true for  $\{g_m: 0 < m < n\}$ .

Induction Step: Let  $g_m(V_2) = \xi$  and  $g_{m+1}$  be noninverting. Since  $g_{m+1}$  is non-inverting, the number of inversions between  $g_0$  and the output of  $g_m$  is equal to the number of inversions between  $g_0$  and the output of  $g_{m+1}$ . If  $\xi$  is the controlling value of  $g_{m+1}$ ,  $g_{m+1}(V_2) = \xi$ . If  $\xi$  is the non-controlling value of  $g_{m+1}$ , by the above definitions, the side-inputs corresponding to  $g_{m+1}$  have to be non-controlling for  $P^{\psi}$  to be sensitized and hence,  $g_{m+1}(V_2) = \xi$ . Since  $g_m(V_2) = g_{m+1}(V_2)$  and the number of inversions remains unchanged, by the induction hypothesis, the claim holds for  $g_{m+1}$ . A similar argument can be made for the case when  $g_{m+1}$  is inverting.  $\Box$ 

#### 3 Implication-based Analysis

We assume that logic implications of both value assignments (0 and 1) for every line in the circuit are available. We present lemmas that use logic implications on a line g to help identify a set of lines S, such that every path fault passing through g and  $\{m : m \in S\}$ is untestable with respect to some combination of signal values. Let  $S_P(x^{\alpha}, y^{\beta})$ , where  $\alpha, \beta \in \{0, 1\}$ , denote the set of path faults passing through lines x and ysuch that for every path fault  $\{P^{\psi} : P^{\psi} \in S_P(x^{\alpha}, y^{\beta})\},$  $[x(V_2) = \alpha]$  and  $[y(V_2) = \beta]$  are necessary conditions for  $P^{\psi}$  to be sensitized on a vector pair  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$  (refer to Lemma 2.1).

#### 3.1 Robust Untestability Analysis

We say that  $[S_P(x^{\alpha}, y^{\beta}) = RU]$  if all path faults in the set  $S_P(x^{\alpha}, y^{\beta})$  are robustly untestable.

**Lemma 3.1** For lines x and y, if  $(x = \alpha) \Rightarrow (y = \beta)$ , where  $\alpha, \beta \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $\beta$  is the controlling value of g = gt(y), then  $\forall_{z \in in(g), z \neq y} \forall_{\xi \in \{0, 1\}} [S_P(x^{\alpha}, z^{\xi}) = RU]$ .

**Proof:** Consider a path fault  $\{P^{\psi}: P^{\psi} \in S_P(x^{\alpha}, z^{\xi})\},\$ where  $\psi \in \{0, 1\}$ . Line y is a side-input of  $P^{\psi}$ . For a vector pair  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$  to be a robust test for  $P^{\psi}$ , the following conditions are necessary: (1)  $x(V_2) = \alpha$  since  $P^{\psi} \in S_P(x^{\alpha}, z^{\xi}),\$  and (2)  $y(V_2) = \overline{\beta},\$  the non-controlling value of g (by Definition 2.3). However, since  $(x = \alpha) \Rightarrow$  $(y = \beta),\$  a vector  $V_2$  that satisfies conditions (1) and (2) cannot exist and hence,  $P^{\psi}$  is robustly untestable.  $\Box$  **Lemma 3.2** For lines x and y, if  $(x = \alpha) \Rightarrow (y = \beta)$ , where  $\alpha$  is the non-controlling value of f = gt(x), and  $\beta$  is the controlling value of g = gt(y), then  $\forall_{a \in in(f), a \neq x} \forall_{b \in in(g), b \neq y} \forall_{\zeta \in \{0,1\}} \forall_{\xi \in \{0,1\}} [S_P(a^{\zeta}, b^{\xi}) = RU]$ 

**Proof:** Consider a path fault  $\{P^{\psi} : P^{\psi} \in P\}$ , where  $\psi \in \{0, 1\}$  and P is the set of all path faults that pass though  $\{a : a \in in(f), a \neq x\}$  and  $\{b : b \in in(g), b \neq y\}$ . Lines x and y are side-inputs of  $P^{\psi}$ . By Definition 2.3, for a vector pair  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$  to be a robust test for  $P^{\psi}$ , the following conditions are necessary: (1)  $x(V_2) = \alpha$ , the non-controlling value of f, and (2)  $y(V_2) = \beta$ , the non-controlling value of g. However, since  $(x = \alpha) \Rightarrow (y = \beta)$ , a vector  $V_2$  that satisfies conditions (1) and (2) cannot exist and hence,  $P^{\psi}$  is robustly untestable.  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 3.3** For lines x and y, if  $(x = \alpha) \Rightarrow (y = \beta)$ , where  $\alpha, \beta \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $\beta$  is the controlling value of g = gt(y), then  $\forall_{z \in in(g), z \neq y} [S_P(x^{\overline{\alpha}}, z^{\beta}) = RU]$ .

**Proof:** Consider a path fault  $\{P^{\psi}: P^{\psi} \in S_P(x^{\overline{\alpha}}, z^{\beta})\}$ , where  $\psi \in \{0, 1\}$ . Line y is a side-input of  $P^{\psi}$ . For a vector pair  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$  to be a robust test for  $P^{\psi}$ , the following conditions are necessary: (1)  $x(V_2) = \overline{\alpha}$  since  $P^{\psi} \in S_P(x^{\overline{\alpha}}, z^{\beta})$  and hence  $x(V_1) = \alpha$  (by Remark 2.3), and (2)  $y(V_1) = \overline{\beta}$ , the non-controlling value of g (by Definition 2.3(2)). However, since  $(x = \alpha) \Rightarrow (y = \beta)$ , a vector  $V_1$  that satisfies conditions (1) and (2) cannot exist and hence,  $P^{\psi}$  is robustly untestable.  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 3.4** For lines x and y, if  $(x = \alpha) \Rightarrow (y = \beta)$ , where  $\alpha, \beta \in \{0, 1\}$ , then  $[S_P(x^{\overline{\alpha}}, y^{\beta}) = RU]$  and  $[S_P(x^{\alpha}, y^{\overline{\beta}}) = RU]$ .

**Proof:** By definition, to sensitize a path fault  $\{P^{\psi} : P^{\psi} \in S_P(x^{\overline{\alpha}}, y^{\beta})\}$  on a vector pair  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$ ,  $[x(V_2) = \overline{\alpha}]$ and  $[y(V_2) = \beta]$  are necessary conditions. Hence, by Remark 2.3, for  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$  to be a robust test for  $P^{\psi}$ , the following conditions are necessary: (1)  $[x(V_1) = \alpha]$ , and (2)  $[y(V_1) = \overline{\beta}]$ . However, since  $(x = \alpha) \Rightarrow (y = \beta)$ , a vector  $V_1$  that satisfies conditions (1) and (2) cannot exist and hence,  $P^{\psi}$  is robustly untestable. Similarly, to robustly test a path fault  $\{P^{\psi} : P^{\psi} \in S_P(x^{\alpha}, y^{\overline{\beta}})\},$ (1)  $[x(V_2) = \alpha]$ , and (2)  $[y(V_2) = \overline{\beta}]$  are necessary conditions. Since a vector  $V_2$  that satisfies conditions (1) and (2) cannot exist,  $P^{\psi}$  is robustly untestable.  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 3.5** If a line x is identified as having a constant value assignment  $\{\alpha : \alpha \in \{0,1\}\}$ , then  $\forall_{\zeta \in \{0,1\}}[S_P(x^{\zeta}, x^{\zeta}) = RU].$ 

**Proof:** Since a vector pair  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$  that satisfies  $\{x(V_1) \neq x(V_2)\}$  cannot exist, by Remark 2.3, all path faults that pass through x are robustly untestable.  $\Box$ 

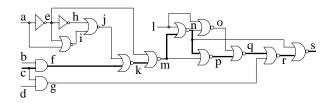


Figure 1: Portion of ISCAS-85 benchmark c6288

#### **3.2** Functional Unsensitizability Analysis

Functionally unsensitizable path faults can be ignored during delay fault testing and timing analysis [11]. We say that  $[S_P(x^{\alpha}, y^{\beta}) = FU]$  if all path faults in the set  $S_P(x^{\alpha}, y^{\beta})$  are functionally unsensitizable.

**Lemma 3.6** For lines x and y, if  $(x = \alpha) \Rightarrow (y = \beta)$ , where  $\alpha, \beta \in \{0, 1\}$ , then  $[S_P(x^{\alpha}, y^{\overline{\beta}}) = FU]$ .

**Proof:** Similar to the proof of Lemma 3.4.

**Lemma 3.7** If a line x is identified as having a constant value assignment  $\{\alpha : \alpha \in \{0,1\}, then [S_P(x^{\overline{\alpha}}, x^{\overline{\alpha}}) = FU].$ 

**Proof:** Similar to the proof of Lemma 3.5.  $\Box$ 

Other lemmas similar to those presented in Section 3.1 can be derived for identifying functionally unsensitizable path faults. However, in our experiments, we found that they do not help identify any additional functionally unsensitizable path faults.

Figure 1 illustrates an example of identifying a functionally unsensitizable path fault using Lemma 3.6. Consider the path fault  $P^0 = (c, f, k, m, n, p, q, r, s)$ . We make two observations:

• For a vector pair  $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$  to functionally sensitize  $P^0$ , the following conditions are necessary: (1)  $[c(V_2) = 0]$  (from Definition 2.1), and (2)  $[s(V_2) = 1]$  since the number of inversions between c and s is seven (from Lemma 2.1). Hence  $[P^0 \in S_P(c^0, s^1)]$ .

•  $(c=0) \Rightarrow (s=0)$  from static implication learning [10].

From Lemma 3.6, we can conclude that  $P^0$ is functionally unsensitizable. Similarly  $Q^0 = (c, f, k, m, n, o, q, r, s)$  is functionally unsensitizable. We explicitly enumerate untestable path faults in this example only for illustration. Our algorithm obtains the number of untestable path faults without enumerating them.

#### 3.3 Non-robust Untestability Analysis

We say that  $[S_P(x^{\alpha}, y^{\beta}) = NU]$  if all path faults in the set  $S_P(x^{\alpha}, y^{\beta})$  are non-robustly untestable. To identify non-robustly untestable path faults, Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2 can be used by replacing RU by NU in them and Lemmas 3.6 and 3.7 can be used by replacing FU by NU in them.

### 4 Using Pre-computed Implications

We assume that some set of implications of both value assignments for every line in the circuit are available.

## 4.1 Maintaining Untestability Information

Using our fault-independent implication analysis at each line g, we construct four sets of lines associated with g:  $O^1E^1(g)$ ,  $O^1E^0(g)$ ,  $O^0E^1(g)$ , and  $O^0E^0(g)$ .

**Definition 4.1** A set  $O^{\alpha}E^{\beta}(g)$  associated with a line g, where  $\alpha, \beta \in \{0, 1\}$ , consists of lines  $\{x : [S_P(g^{\alpha}, x^{\beta}) = Untestable]\}$ 

Depending on the specific testability criterion used, rules that help construct the OE sets can be derived from the lemmas presented in Section 3. For conciseness, we only present an example involving the functional sensitization criterion. If we know that  $(x=\alpha) \Rightarrow$  $(y=\beta)$ , where  $\alpha, \beta \in \{0,1\}$ , and y is in the fanout cone of x, from Lemma 3.6, y is added to  $O^{\alpha} E^{\overline{\beta}}(x)$ .

## 4.2 Counting Untestable Path Faults

Pomeranz and Reddy propose a linear-time counting algorithm [13] that can compute the number of paths in a single pass from POs to PIs. Based on their idea, we propose a counting algorithm that uses the OE sets on every line to compute a lower bound on the number of untestable path faults.

A partial path fault is a path fault without the restriction that its origin should be a PI. In this section, we use the terms path faults and partial path faults interchangeably. Consider a circuit with T lines. Let B(x)denote the set of all branches of a fanout stem x. For a line y that is not a stem, let  $S^y$  denote the output of gt(y). We associate a few variables with each line m:

•  $N_1^m$   $(N_0^m)$ : number of testable path faults, as determined by our procedure, that originate at m and require a value of 1 (0) on m to be *sensitized* 

- $T^m_{\alpha}$ : temporary values of  $N^m_{\alpha}$  on a specific iteration
- $eval^m$ : indicates whether  $T_1^m$  and  $T_0^m$  have been computed on a specific iteration
- P(m): set of all immediate predecessor lines of m

•  $red_{\alpha}^{m}$ : indicates if  $\{S_{P}(m^{\alpha}, m^{\alpha}) = Untestable\},\$ where  $\alpha \in \{0, 1\}$ , on a specific iteration

To avoid reseting flags such as  $eval^m$  and  $red^m_{\alpha}$ , we use unique identifiers on each iteration. With no implications available, all path faults originating at a line  $\{m : m \in \text{fanout cone of line } a\}$  contribute towards the computation of  $N^a$ . Suppose  $O^0E^1(a) = \{m\}$ . By definition,  $N_1^m$  can now be ignored when computing  $N_0^a$ . However, it is possible that  $N_1^m$  may contribute towards the computation of N values for other lines in the fanin cone of m. Assuming that the OE sets associated with every line are available, Algorithm 4.1 processes lines in a reverse topological order (POs to PIs) to compute a lower bound on the number of untestable path faults. Algorithm 4.1

#### testable-path-count() {

```
\begin{aligned} \forall_{1 < m < T} \{ eval^m = red_1^m = red_0^m = 0 \} \\ \forall_{1 < m < T} \{ N_0^m = N_1^m = \infty \} \\ \text{for } x = T \text{ to } 1 \quad // \text{ reverse topological order} \\ \text{foreach}(a \in O^1 E^1(x)) \{ \\ \text{ insert}(a); \quad red_1^a = x \} \\ \text{foreach}(a \in O^1 E^0(x)) \{ \\ \text{ insert}(a); \quad red_0^a = x \} \\ \text{label}(x, x) \\ N_1^x = T_1^x \\ \text{foreach}(a \in O^0 E^1(x)) \{ \\ \text{ insert}(a); \quad red_1^a = x + T \} \\ \text{foreach}(a \in O^0 E^0(x)) \{ \\ \text{ insert}(a); \quad red_0^a = x + T \} \\ \text{label}(x, x + T) \\ N_0^x = T_0^x \\ \# \text{ of testable faults } (T_P) = \sum_{i \text{ is } a \text{ PI}} \{ N_1^i + N_0^i \} \\ \# \text{ of untestable faults} = \text{Total } \# \text{ of path faults - } T_P \end{aligned}
```

 $\hat{\mathbf{label}}(x, id)$  {

insert(x)while(n = dequeue()) $eval^n = id; T_0^n = T_1^n = 0$  $\mathbf{if}(red_1^n \neq id)$  $if(n \text{ is connected to a PO}){T_1^n = 1}$  else 
$$\begin{split} \mathbf{if}(n \text{ is a stem}) T_1^n = &\sum_{b \in B(n)} \mathrm{choose}(N_1^b, T_1^b, b, id) \\ \mathbf{else} \ \{T_1^n = \mathrm{choose}(N_\alpha^{S^n}, T_\alpha^{S^n}, S^n, id) \end{split}$$
 $//\alpha = 1$  if gt(n) is non-inverting; 0 otherwise  $T_1^n = \text{lesser}(T_1^n, N_1^n) // \text{lesser of the two values}$  $\mathbf{if}(red_0^n \neq id)$  $if(n \text{ is connected to a PO}){T_0^n = 1}$  else if  $(n \text{ is a stem})T_0^n = \sum_{b \in B(n)} \text{choose}(N_0^b, T_0^b, b, id)$ else { $T_0^n = \text{choose}(N_\alpha^{S^n}, T_\alpha^{S^n}, S^n, id)$ //  $\alpha = 0$  if gt(n) is non-inverting; 1 otherwise  $T_0^n = \operatorname{lesser}(T_0^n, N_0^n)$  $\mathbf{if}(T_1^n \neq N_1^n)$  or  $\mathbf{if}(T_0^n \neq N_0^n)$  $\forall_{a \in P(n)} \{ (\text{if } a \text{ is closer to a PO than } x) \text{ insert}(a) \}$ 

} choose(x, y, n, id) {

 $if(eval^n \neq id) \{return(x)\} else \{return(y)\} \}$ insert(x) {insert x into an event list EL} dequeue() {

if EL is non-empty, dequeue and return element of EL that is closest to a PO; return 0 otherwise }

#### 4.3 Counting Untestable Segment Faults

The discussion in Sections 3 and 4.1 is also applicable to the segment delay fault model. We modify the segment counting algorithm presented in the literature [3] to use implications to determine a lower bound on the number of untestable segment faults.

Ckt.	Segment faults			Path faults								
Name	Robustly untestable			Robustly			Non-robustly		Functionally			
	L=3		$L\!=\!5$		untestable			untestable		unsensitizable		
	#	%	#	%	#	%	cpu(s)	#	%	#	%	cpu(s)
c880	0	0.0	0	0.0	326	1.9	0	163	0.9	163	0.9	0
c1355	576	8.8	$7,\!840$	33.9	8,005,696	95.9	2	$7,\!150,\!240$	85.7	6,745,120	80.8	1
c1908	8	0.1	1,260	6.0	1,070,307	73.4	4	1,067,159	73.2	442,048	30.3	1
c2670	253	2.6	1,307	6.7	1,321,906	97.2	2	$1,\!317,\!795$	96.9	1,314,962	96.7	1
c3540	673	4.7	4,129	12.7	$53,\!610,\!698$	93.5	18	$52,\!488,\!315$	91.5	34,300,319	59.8	6
c5315	238	1.1	1,486	3.6	2,013,498	75.1	14	$1,\!865,\!548$	69.5	1,129,995	42.1	4
c6288	2,442	8.1	$23,\!577$	26.1	$1.978 \times 10^{20}$	99.9	3	$1.978 \times 10^{20}$	99.9	$1.978 \times 10^{20}$	99.9	3
c7552	563	1.5	3,709	4.1	981,720	67.6	24	$910,\!926$	62.7	$555,\!050$	38.2	7
s5378	284	1.8	815	3.0	6,396	23.6	9	4,869	18.0	3,718	13.7	4
s9234	1,225	4.3	4,275	8.7	$442,\!526$	90.4	58	413,785	84.5	282,149	57.6	21
s13207	1,817	5.0	5,091	8.8	$2,\!300,\!812$	85.5	50	$1,\!870,\!582$	69.5	1,722,492	64.0	24
s15850	3,349	7.1	12,321	15.3	$322,\!581,\!591$	97.9	101	$303,\!523,\!949$	92.1	$274,\!843,\!560$	83.4	40
s35932	11,866	12.5	35,372	27.4	354,324	89.9	519	265,863	67.4	248,567	63.0	241
s38417	3,229	2.9	$15,\!149$	7.6	$1,\!675,\!008$	60.2	86	$1,\!377,\!425$	49.5	796,701	28.6	42
s38584	1,608	1.3	6,938	3.6	$1,\!623,\!570$	75.1	26	1,169,090	54.1	1,123,814	52.0	15

Table 1: A lower bound on the number of untestable delay faults

<sup>†</sup>Only a subset of direct implications was available for s38584

## 5 Results

We implemented our algorithm in C++ and ran experiments using a HP 9000/735 workstation with 256MB of memory. We use the implications generated by Zhao et. al. [10] for our work. Direct implications, determined by forward and backward propagation starting at the node under consideration, and indirect implications, found by applying the contrapositive law [9], transitive law and backward implications [10] were available for most circuits. Only a subset of direct implications was available for s38584. Information on constant value assignments that is generated as a by-product of their implication procedure is also used. For all the ISCAS-85 circuits, their program took less than 150 seconds to generate the relevant information [10]. Times taken by their program for the ISCAS-89 circuits were not available.

Table 1 shows results of the algorithm for a subset of all values that segment length L, an input parameter to the program, can take. For path delay faults, we consider the robust, non-robust and functional sensitization criteria. For segment faults with (L = 3) and (L = 5), we only consider the robust testability criteria. Columns with the heading # show the number of untestable faults determined by our procedure. Columns with the heading % indicate the percentage of untestable faults with respect to the total number of faults. The runtimes in CPU seconds are shown only for identifying robustly untestable and functionally unsensitizable path faults. Runtimes for identifying robustly untestable segment faults and non-robustly untestable path faults were similar to those for identifying robustly untestable path faults. However, there is a marginal increase in the runtimes as L is increased. In all cases, the runtime of our method is very small and is independent of the number of faults. While our method identifies more untestable path faults in some circuits, previously published methods [11, 12] do better for some circuits.

Since we identify only a subset of all untestable

Table 2: Our results versus ATPG results

Ckt.	Non-robustly untestable path faults					
Name	Exact $[15]$	Our procedure				
s5378	19.0%	18.0%				
s9234	87.8%	84.5%				
s13207	82.3%	69.5%				
s15850	96.7%	92.1%				
s35932	85.2%	67.4%				
s38417	59.1%	49.5%				
s38584	84.5%	54.1%				

faults, firm conclusions cannot be drawn. However, for circuits such as c1908, it appears that many nonrobustly untestable path faults do not belong to the set of functionally unsensitizable faults. Such path faults are testable only as a multiple fault [16]. Dealing with multiple path faults may be computationally intractable for large circuits. In such cases, using the segment delay fault model, with a small value of L, may be a feasible alternative. For circuits like c2670, most of the path faults are functionally unsensitizable. These path faults can be ignored for the purposes of delay testing and the

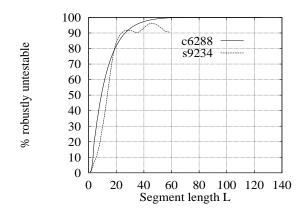


Figure 2: % of untestable faults versus segment length

path fault model may be practical in such cases.

Table 2 compares our results with the exact results obtained from a test generator [15] for the ISCAS-89 circuits. The exact number of untestable faults is unknown for many of the ISCAS-85 circuits. Our method gives only a lower bound on the number of untestable faults since it is based on an incomplete set of implications. During an ATPG run, a lower bound on the number of untestable faults may be useful as a stopping criterion if the required fault efficiency is reached.

In our experiments, the percentage of untestable faults increases monotonically with L and then decreases as L approaches the maximum logic depth. Figure 2 shows this trend for robustly untestable faults in c6288 (maximum logic depth: 125) and s9234 (maximum logic depth: 59). For c6288, we identified  $1.9788271 \times 10^{20}$  robustly untestable path faults, of which  $1.9778345 \times 10^{20}$  were also functionally unsensitizable.

## 6 Concluding Remarks

Our algorithm uses static logic implications and rapidly computes a lower bound on the number of robustly untestable, non-robustly untestable, and functionally unsensitizable delay faults by using a nonenumerative counting procedure. Untestable faults can also be listed if desired and targeting them for test generation by an ATPG tool can be avoided. One of the main features of the algorithm is that its complexity of computation does not grow with the number of delay faults. This is especially important when considering the path delay fault model since circuits typically have a large number of path faults. The implication analysis presented in this paper considers one implication at a time. It may be possible to obtain better results by considering multiple implications simultaneously.

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