## POLYNOMIALLY COMPLETE FAULT DETECTION PROBLEMS

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# Polynomially Complete Fault Detection Problems

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Abstract—We look at several variations of the single fault detection problem for combinational logic circuits and show that deciding whether single faults are detectable by input—output (I/O) experiments is polynomially complete, i.e., there is a polynomial time algorithm to decide if these single faults are detectable if and only if there is a polynomial time algorithm for problems such as the traveling salesman problem, knapsack problem, etc.

Index Terms—Deterministic and nondeterministic computations, fault detection, irredundant circuit, polynomially complete, polynomial time algorithm, tautology problem, traveling salesman problem, Turing machines (TM's).

## I. INTRODUCTION

MUCH ATTENTION (see, e.g., [3] and [5]) has been focused on obtaining fast algorithms to obtain minimal test sets to detect all single stuck-at-zero (s-a-0) and stuck-at-one (s-a-1) faults in combinational logic circuits. The best algorithms known have an asymptotic computing time that is exponential in the number of input

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lines and gates. Hence these algorithms are computationally feasible only for very small circuits. In fact, it would appear that only algorithms with a computing time linear or at most a square of the number of input lines and gates would be feasible for large combinational circuits (e.g., large-scale integrated circuits). In this paper we show that several fault-detection problems are computationally related to problems such as traveling salesman, knapsack, maximal clique of a graph, multiprocessor job scheduling, intricate network flow problems, etc. Thus, these faultdetection problems can be solved in polynomial time if and only if (iff) the traveling salesman, knapsack problem, etc., can also be solved in polynomial time. Specifically, then, we show that several single fault-detection problems are polynomially complete (see [1], [4], [7], [9], and [10] for further examples of complete problems). Hence, it would appear very unlikely that the fault detection problems have a polynomial algorithm. This would tend to suggest that circuits be designed in some canonical form for which test sets are easily obtainable. The proof technique used in Lemmas 3.2 and 3.3 indicates that by increasing the number of gates it is possible to convert any circuit into an equivalent circuit for which the test set is easily obtainable. See [6] and [8] for some results on designing easily testable circuits.

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In Section II we introduce our notation and then in Section III we show that the following problems are polynomially complete:

Problem 1 (P1): Is the combinational circuit C irredundant (i.e., can all single faults be detected)?

Problem 2 (P2): Can a fault in a particular input line  $x_i$  be detected by input-output (I/O) experiments?

Problem 3 (P3): Can all single input faults be detected by I/O experiments?

Problem 4 (P4): Can faults in the output line be detected by I/O experiments.

Problem 5 (P5): Does the circuit C realize the Boolean function B (i.e., is  $f_C(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = B(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  for all binary inputs  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ , where  $f_C$  is the switching function realized by C)?

Problem 6 (P6): Find the minimal circuit (using AND, OR, and NOT gates) that realizes a Boolean function B.

### II. NOTATION

Let C be a combinational logic circuit (or simply circuit) with n input lines  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  and 1 output line z (see Fig. 1). We shall only focus our attention to detecting single faults which cause any wire to be s-a-0 or s-a-1. Let  $\mathcal{L}$  be the set of all possible single fault locations (i.e., all input lines, output line, and input wires to gates). An (n+3)-tuple  $(x_1=i_1, x_2=i_2, \dots, x_n=i_n, z=j, F(0), (F(1))$  is a fault detection test (or simply test) for C if it satisfies the following properties.

Property 1:  $i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n, j = 0$  or 1.

Property 2:  $F(0) \subseteq \mathcal{L}$ ,  $F(1) \subseteq \mathcal{L}$ ,  $F(0) \cap F(1) = \emptyset$ , and either F(0) or F(1) is nonempty.

Property 3: C with inputs  $x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n$  and output z = j implies a s-a-0 fault in one of the locations specified by F(0) or a s-a-1 fault in one of the locations specified by F(1).

Let  $L \subseteq \mathcal{L}$ ,  $L \neq \emptyset$ . A set T of tests is called a fault-detection test set (or simply test set) for L if:

Property 4: The union of all the F(0)'s of the tests in T is equal to L.

Property 5: The union of all the F(1)'s of the tests in T is equal to L. If  $L = \mathcal{L}$ , then we simply say that T is a test set of C. The size of a test set is the number of tests in it.

A circuit C is said to be *irredundant with respect to*  $L \subseteq \mathcal{L}$  if it has a test set for L. If  $L = \mathcal{L}$ , we simply say *irredundant*.

Example 1: The circuit of Fig. 2 is irredundant and has the following test set.

$$T = \{ (y_1 = 1, y_2 = 1, y_3 = 1, z = 0, \{z, y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4\}, \emptyset),$$

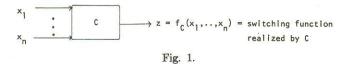
$$(y_1 = 0, y_2 = 1, y_3 = 1, z = 1, \emptyset, \{z, y_1, y_4\}),$$

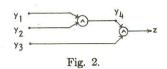
$$(y_1 = 1, y_2 = 0, y_3 = 1, z = 1, \emptyset, \{z, y_2, y_4\}),$$

$$(y_1 = 1, y_2 = 1, y_3 = 0, z = 1, \emptyset, \{z, y_3, y_4\}) \}.$$

Thus, if input  $y_1 = 1$ ,  $y_2 = 1$ ,  $y_3 = 1$  is applied at the input terminals and the output is z = 0, then a single s-a-0 fault must have occurred in one of the locations  $z, y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4$ .

Let P be the class of languages accepted by deterministic





Turing machines (DTM's) operating in polynomial time and NP the class of languages accepted by nondeterministic Turing machines (NDTM's) operating in polynomial time (see Hopcroft and Ullman [2] for a detailed discussion of these machines). The problem "Is P = NP?" is a longstanding open problem in complexity theory.

Definition 2.1: A problem  $P_1$  is said to be P-reducible to the problem  $P_2$  (written  $P_1 \alpha P_2$ ) iff the existence of a polynomial algorithm for  $P_2$  implies the existence of a polynomial algorithm for  $P_1$ .

Definition 2.2: Two problems,  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , are P-equivalent iff  $P_1 \alpha P_2$  and  $P_2 \alpha P_1$ .

Definition 2.3: P-Complete (PC) is the equivalence class of P-equivalent problems having a deterministic polynomial time algorithm iff P = NP.

In [1], Cook showed that P = NP iff there is a polynomial algorithm to determine if a disjunctive normal form (DNF) formula B having at most three literals per clause was a tautology (i.e., deciding if B has the truth value "True" or 1 for all possible assignments of truth values to its variables). In [7], it was shown that it is sufficient to consider only those DNF formulas with exactly three literals per clause (3-DNF).

Thus, 3-DNF is *P*-Complete. For further examples of *P*-Complete problems see [1], [4], [7], [9], and [10].

In the next section we show that the problems P1-P6 of Section I are P-Complete. In most cases the proof proceeds by showing 1) if P = NP then problem  $P_i$  has a polynomial algorithm and 2) 3-DNF tautology  $\alpha$  problem  $P_i$ . 2) together with the knowledge that 3-DNF tautology is P-complete and that  $\alpha$  is transitive implies that if  $P_i$  has a polynomial algorithm then P = NP.

## III. POLYNOMIALLY COMPLETE PROBLEMS

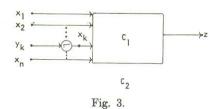
In this section, we show that problems P1-P6 together with other related problems are P-Complete.

We begin with the following lemma.

Lemma 3.1: Consider the circuit of Fig. 3. If  $C_1$  is irredundant with test set  $T_1$  of size m, then  $C_2$  is irredundant with test set  $T_2$  of size m.

*Proof:* We construct the test set  $T_2$  of  $C_2$  from  $T_1$  using the following rule.

If  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_k = i_k, \dots, x_n = i_n, z = j, F(0), F(1))$  is in  $T_1$ , let  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, y_k = \bar{\imath}_k, \dots, x_n = i_n, z = j, F'(0), F'(1))$  be in  $T_2$ , where  $\bar{\imath}_k$  is the complement of  $i_k$  and F'(0), F'(1) are defined as follows:



1) F'(0) = F(0) and  $F'(1) = F(1) \cup \{y_k\}$  if  $x_k$  is in

2) F'(1) = F(1) and  $F'(0) = F(0) \cup \{y_k\}$  if  $x_k$  is in F(1).

3) F'(0) = F(0) and F'(1) = F(1) if  $x_k$  is not in  $F(0) \cup F(1)$ .

It is obvious that  $T_2$  as constructed is a test set of  $C_2$  and that  $T_2$  is of size m = size of  $T_1$ .

Lemma 3.2: Consider the circuit of Fig. 4. If  $C_1$  is irredundant with test set  $T_1$  of size m, then  $C_2$  is irredundant with test set  $T_2$  of size m + 1.

*Proof:* Let  $T_1$  be the test set of  $C_1$ . The tests in  $T_2$  are obtained by noting that by setting y = 1, the test set for  $C_2$  can be used to test faults in  $C_1 \cup \{w\}$  and a s-a-0 fault at y. An extra test for a s-a-1 fault at y is constructed separately. Formally, construct the test set  $T_2$  of  $C_2$  as follows:

1) Let  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, z = 0, F(0), F(1))$  be in  $T_1$ . We consider two cases.

Case 1: z is not in F(0). Then let  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y = 1, w = 0, F(0), F(1))$  be in  $T_2$ .

Case 2: z is in F(0), i.e., the test  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, z = 0, F(0), F(1))$  detects a s-a-0 fault at z. Then let  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y = 1, w = 0, F(0) \cup \{y,w\}, F(1))$  be in  $T_2$ . Note that the case z in F(1) is impossible.

2) Now suppose  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, z = 1, F(0), F(1))$  is in  $T_1$ . Again consider two cases.

Case 1: z is not in F(1). Then let  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y = 1, w = 1, F(0), F(1))$  be in  $T_2$ .

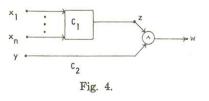
Case 2: z is in F(1). Then let  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y = 1, w = 1, F(0), F(1) \cup \{w\})$  be in  $T_2$ . We note again that z in F(0) cannot happen.

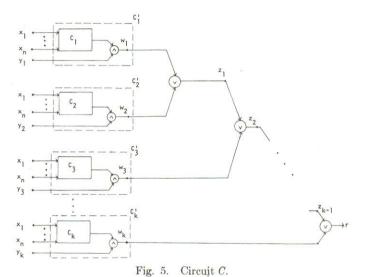
3) We need a test to detect a s-a-1 fault in y. So let  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, z = 0, F(0), F(1))$  be a test in  $T_1$  such that z is in F(0). Then let  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y = 0, w = 1, \emptyset, \{y\})$  be in  $T_2$ . Clearly, such a test detects a s-a-1 fault in y.

Lemma 3.3: Let  $C_1, C_2, C_3, \dots, C_k$  be irredundant circuits with test sets of size m. Then the circuit C shown in Fig. 5 is irredundant and has a test set T of size k(m+1).

*Proof:* Since  $C_1, C_2, C_3, \dots, C_k$  are irredundant with test sets of size m, the circuits  $C_1', C_2', C_3', \dots, C_k'$  are also irredundant and have test sets  $T_1, T_2, T_3, \dots, T_k$  (each of size m+1) by Lemma 3.2. Note that by setting  $y_2=0$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $y_k=0$  and using the test set for  $C_1'$  we can detect faults in  $C_1' \cup \{z_1, \dots, z_{k-1}, r\}$ . Similarly, one may obtain the tests for detecting faults at other points. Thus:

1) If  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y_1 = l, w_1 = 0, F(0), F(1))$  is a test in  $T_1$ , let  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y_1 = l, y_2 = 0, y_1 = l, y_2 = 0)$ 





 $y_3 = 0, \dots, y_k = 0, r = 0, F'(0), F(1))$  be a test in T, where F'(0) = F(0) if  $w_1$  is not in F(0) and  $F'(0) = F(0) \cup \{z_1, z_2, z_3, \dots, z_{k-1}, r\}$  if  $w_1$  is in F(0).

2) If  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y_1 = l, w_1 = 1, F(0), F(1))$  is a test in  $T_1$  let  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y_1 = l, y_2 = 0, y_3 = 0, \dots, y_k = 0, r = 1, F(0), F'(1))$  be in T, where F'(1) = F(1) if  $w_1$  is not in F(1) and  $F'(1) = F(1) \cup \{z_1, z_2, z_3, \dots, z_{k-1}, r\}$  if  $w_1$  is in F(1).

Repeat procedures (1) and (2) for  $T_2, T_3, \dots, T_k$ . It is straightforward to verify that the test set T constructed as described above is a test set for C. Moreover, the size of T is k(m+1) if each test set  $C_i$  is of size m.

The construction below is used in the proof of Lemma 3.4 which leads to the main result of this paper.

Construction: Consider the circuit Q of Fig. 6. It is composed of circuits C and C', where C is of the form shown in Fig. 5. We note the following.

- 1) The number of AND gates in C exclusive of those in  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k$  is k.
- 2) The number of on gates in C exclusive of those in  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k$  is k-1.
  - 3) The number of AND gates in C' is k-1.
- 4) The number of or gates in C' is (k-1) + (k-2) = 2k-3.
  - 5) The number of inverters in C' is 1.
- 6) There is one other or gate (leading to  $\alpha$ ) outside C and C'.

If each circuit  $C_i$  has exactly two and gates, no or gate, at most three inverters (i.e., not gates), then Q will have a total of k + k - 1 + 2k = 4k - 1 and gates, a total of (k - 1) + (2k - 3) + 1 = 3k - 3 or gates, and at

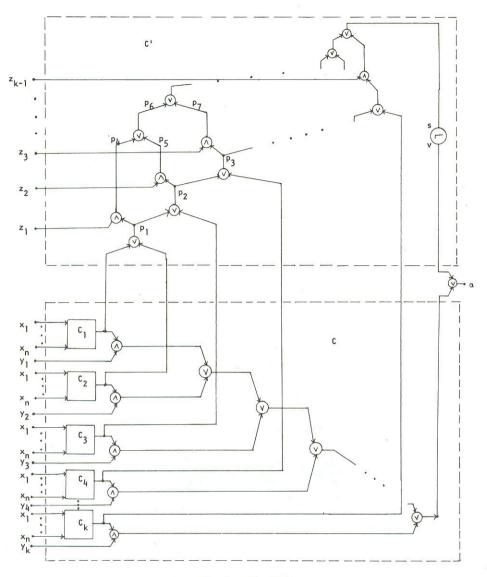


Fig. 6. Circuit Q.

most 3k + 1 inverters. Thus Q will have at most (4k - 1) + (3k - 3) + (3k + 1) = 10k - 3 gates.

7) The number of input lines of Q is n + k + k - 1 = n + 2k - 1.

Definition: Consider the circuit C of Fig. 5. Let T be its test set. T is called valid if for each test  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y_1 = l_1, y_2 = l_2, y_3 = l_3, \dots, y_k = l_k, r = j, F(0), F(1))$  in T, we have  $f_1(i_1, \dots, i_n) + f_2(i_1, \dots, i_n) + f_3(i_1, \dots, i_n) + \dots + f_k(i_1, \dots, i_n) \geq 1$ , where  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_k$  are the switching functions realized by circuits  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k$ .

We now prove the following lemma.

Lemma 3.4: Consider the circuit Q of Fig. 6. Let m be the size of the test sets of the  $C_i$ 's. Let T be a test set of C. If T is valid, then Q is irredundant (with test set TQ of size k(m+1)+2(k-1)+1) if and only if  $f_1(x_1,\dots,x_n)+f_2(x_1,\dots,x_n)+f_3(x_1,\dots,x_n)+\dots+f_k(x_1,\dots,x_n)=0$  for some  $x_1,\dots,x_n$ , where  $f_1,f_2,f_3,\dots,f_k$  are the switching functions realized by  $C_1,C_2,C_3,\dots,C_k$ .

*Proof:* For ease in exposition, we shall give the proof for the case k = 4. The technique is easily extended for

any k. For this purpose, we use Fig. 7. Suppose  $f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) + \dots + f_4(x_1, \dots, x_n) \geq 1$  for all  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . Then a s-a-1 fault at  $p_3$  (see Fig. 7) is not detectable. Thus, circuit Q is not irredundant.

Now suppose  $f_1(x_1,\dots,x_n)+\dots+f_4(x_1,\dots,x_n)=0$  for some  $x_1,\dots,x_n$ . We show that Q is irredundant by constructing its test set  $T_Q$ . (Note that the input lines of Q are  $x_1,\dots,x_n,\ y_1,\dots,y_4,z_1,z_2,z_3$ .)

We first derive tests for single faults in circuit C.

1) If  $(x = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y_1 = l_1, y_2 = l_2, y_3 = l_3, y_4 = l_4, r = j, F(0), F(1))$  is in T, then let  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y_1 = l_1, y_2 = l_2, y_3 = l_3, y_4 = l_4, z_1 = 1, z_2 = 1, z_3 = 1, \alpha = j, F'(0), F'(1))$  be in  $T_Q$ , where

$$F'(0) = \begin{cases} F(0) & \text{if } r \text{ is not in } F(0) \\ F(0) \cup \{\alpha\} & \text{if } r \text{ is in } F(0) \end{cases}$$

$$F'(1) = \begin{cases} F(1) & \text{if } r \text{ is not in } F(1) \\ F(1) \cup \{\alpha\} & \text{if } r \text{ is in } F(1). \end{cases}$$

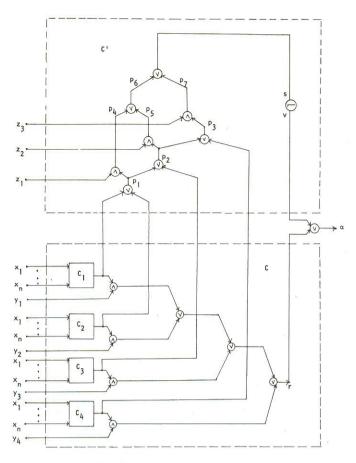


Fig. 7. Circuit Q (with k = 4).

The test works since by assumption, T is valid and test  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n, = i_n, y_1 = l_1, y_2 = l_2, y_3 = l_3, y_4 = l_4, z_1 = 1, z_2 = 1, z_3 = 1, r = j, F'(0), F'(1))$  gives a "1" output at s, and hence a "0" output at v.

There remains to show that we can find tests for single faults at  $z_1, z_2, z_3, s, v, p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4, p_5, p_6$  and  $p_7$ .

2) Since  $f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) + \dots + f_4(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0$  for some  $x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n$ , the following test detects a single s-a-0 fault at v or a s-a-1 fault at  $s, p_1, p_2, \dots, p_7$ :  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y_1 = 0, y_2 = 0, y_3 = 0, y_4 = 0, z_1 = 1, z_2 = 1, z_3 = 1, \alpha = 0, F(0), F(1))$ , where  $F(0) = \{v\}$ ,  $F(1) = \{s, p_1, \dots, p_7\}$ .

We construct the s-a-0 fault tests by setting all but one of the  $z_i$ 's to zero while the s-a-1 tests are obtained by setting them all to zero. Thus,

3) To detect a s-a-0 fault at  $s, p_1, p_4, p_6, z_1$  or s-a-1 fault at v, choose  $i_1, \dots, i_n$  such that  $f_1(i_1, \dots, i_n) = 1$ . Then the test is  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y_1 = 0, y_2 = 0, y_3 = 0, y_4 = 0, z_1 = 1, z_2 = 0, z_3 = 0, \alpha = 1, \{s, p_1, p_4, p_6, z_1\}, \{v\})$ . Include also the test  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y_1 = 0, y_2 = 0, y_3 = 0, y_4 = 0, z_1 = 0, z_2 = 0, z_3 = 0, \alpha = 0, \emptyset, \{z_1\})$  which detects a s-a-1 fault at  $z_1$ .

4) To detect a s-a-0 fault at  $s, p_3, p_7, z_3$  or s-a-1 fault at v, choose  $i_1, \dots, i_n$  such that  $f_4(i_1, \dots, i_n) = 1$ . Then the test is  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y_1 = 0, y_2 = 0, y_3 = 0, y_4 = 0, z_1 = 0, z_2 = 0, z_3 = 1, \alpha = 1, \{s, p_3, p_7, z_3\}, \{v\})$ . Include also the test  $(x_1 = i_n, \dots, x_n = i_n, y_1 = 0, y_2 = 0, y_3 = 0, y_4 = 0, y_5 = 0)$ 

 $y_4 = 0, z_1 = 0, z_2 = 0, z_3 = 0, \alpha = 0, \emptyset, \{z_3\}$ ) which detects a s-a-1 fault at  $z_3$ .

5) To detect a s-a-0 fault at  $s, p_2, p_5, p_6, z_2$  or s-a-1 fault at v, choose  $i_1, \dots, i_n$  such that  $f_3(i_1, \dots, i_n) = 1$ . Then the test is  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y_1 = 0, y_2 = 0, y_3 = 0, y_4 = 0, z_1 = 0, z_2 = 1, z_3 = 0, \alpha = 1, \{s, p_2, p_5, p_6, z_2\}, \{v\})$ . Include also the test  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, y_1 = 0, y_2 = 0, y_3 = 0, y_4 = 0, z_1 = 0, z_2 = 0, z_3 = 0, \alpha = 0, \emptyset, \{z_2\})$  which detects a s-a-1 fault at  $z_2$ .

There are 4(m+1) tests in (1), one test in (2), two tests in (3), two tests in (4), and two tests in (5). It follows that  $(T_Q)$  is of size (4(m+1)+2(4-1)+1).

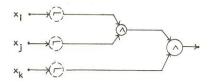
In general, if there are k circuits  $C_1, \dots, C_k$  each with test set of size m, then  $T_Q$  is of size k(m+1) + 2(k-1) + 1.

We are now ready to prove the main result of this section.

Theorem 3.1:

#### $P1 \in PC$ .

*Proof:* First we show that  $P1 \in NP$ , i.e., if languages accepted by NDTM's operating in polynomial time are also accepted by DTM's operating in polynomial time then there is polynomial time algorithm for P1. (Here, polynomial algorithm means polynomial in the number of gates and input lines.) Construct a NDTM that systematically generates (one at a time) all circuits  $C_i$  arising from a single fault in circuit  $C_i$ , and checks each one for non-



is a possible presence of an inverter  $1 \le i < j < k \le n$ 

Fig. 8.

equivalence with C. (Note that there are at most 6m such circuits.) To check whether  $C_i$  is not equivalent to C, the NDTM nondeterministically chooses an input combination and determines whether or not C and  $C_i$  give the same output. If C and  $C_i$  give the same output, the NDTM halts. Then NDTM accepts if every  $C_i$  is not equivalent to C. Clearly, if NP = P, then a polynomial algorithm for P1 exists.

To complete the proof it is sufficient to show that a polynomial algorithm for P1 implies a polynomial algorithm for the tautology problem, i.e., tautology  $\alpha$  P1. So assume that we have a polynomial algorithm for P1. We describe a polynomial algorithm for tautology. (Here polynomial algorithm means polynomial in the number of clauses and variables.)

Given any formula B in 3-DNF with k clauses  $B_1$ ,  $B_2, \dots, B_k$  and variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , perform the following steps:

Step 1: Construct circuits  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k$  from  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k$ . Since each  $B_i$  contains exactly three literals, each  $C_i$  will be of the form shown in Fig. 8.

From Example 1 and Lemma 3.1, each  $C_i$  is irredundant and has test set of size m = 4.

Step 2: Using Lemmas 3.2 and 3.3, construct the circuit of Fig. 5. The circuit will have k(m+1) = 5k tests in its test set T.

Step 3: Determine if T is valid. (There are only 5k tests in T. Thus this step can be done easily.) If T is not valid then B is not a tautology, in this case stop. Otherwise, perform Step 4.

Step 4: Construct the circuit Q of Fig. 6.

Step 5: Use the polynomial algorithm for P1 to decide whether or not Q is irredundant. B is not a tautology if and only if Q is irredundant (by Lemma 3.4).

Now, Q has at most 10k-3 gates and (n+2k-1) input terminals. If the algorithm for P1 is polynomial in N=(10k-3)+(n+2k-1)=12k+n-4, it follows that the algorithm we have just described is polynomial in (k+n).

Lemma 3.5: If  $B(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is a formula from the propositional calculus whose truth value is independent of the truth value of its variables taken one at a time (i.e.,  $B(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n) = B(x_1, \dots, \bar{x}_i, \dots, x_n)$  for all  $x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \cdot, x_n$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ), then either 1)  $B(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ 

 $(x_n) = 0$  for all  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  or 2)  $B(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 1$  for all  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ .

Proof: Obvious.

Theorem 3.2:

 $P2 \in PC$ .

Proof: 1)  $P2 \in NP$ :

A fault in line  $x_i$  is detectable iff there is an input  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n)$  such that  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n) \neq f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n)$ . We construct a NDTM, T, that guesses an input combination  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and verifies that  $f(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n) \neq f(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n)$  for the given circuit. The verification can be done in polynomial time. T, then, accepts the circuit description iff line  $x_i$  faults are detecable

2) Tautology \alpha P2:

Given any formula B in 3-DNF and with variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  and clauses  $B_1, \dots, B_k$  we construct the circuit C with inputs  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  such that  $B(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f_C(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ . This construction can be carried out in an obvious manner in an amount of time linear in n and k. A fault in line  $x_i$  is detectable iff  $f_C(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n) \neq f_C(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n)$  for some  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ .

Hence 1) if a fault in line  $x_i$  is detectable then B is not a tautology. 2) If it is not detectable then  $f_C$  and hence the value of B does not depend on  $x_i$ .

The following algorithm shows how one can solve the tautology problem in polynomial time if P2 is polynomial solvable.

Algorithm T2

Step 1: For B a 3-DNF formula construct a AND/OR/NOT circuit C realizing it.

Step 2: (Check if input faults of C are detectable.) Using the polynomial algorithm for P2 determine if input faults in line  $x_i$  are detectable by I/O experiments. Do this step for  $1 \le i \le n$ . If faults in any of the input lines are detectable then B is not a tautology, stop. Otherwise, from the lemma it follows that B is a tautology iff  $B(1, \dots, 1) = 1$ . So compute  $B(1, \dots, 1)$  and decide the status of B.

Clearly if P2 can be solved in polynomial time, then

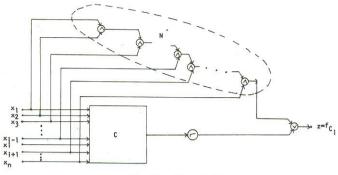


Fig. 9. Circuit Ci.

using Algorithm T2 would result in a polynomial solution to the tautology problem. Hence tautology  $\alpha P2$ .

Theorem 3.3:

$$P3 \in PC$$
.

Proof: 1)  $P3 \in NP$ :

If all single input faults are detectable by I/O experiments then there is a test set of size  $\leq 2n$  where n is the number of input lines. We can construct a NDTM, T, that guesses a test set of size  $\leq 2n$  and then using the circuit diagram for C verifies that this test set does indeed detect all single input faults. Clearly T can be constructed so as to operate in nondeterministic polynomial time.

2) Tautology a P3:

Given a 3-DNF formula  $B(x_i, \dots, x_n)$  construct in polynomial time an AND/OR/NOT circuit,  $C(x_i, \dots, x_n)$ , realizing B. From C obtain the circuit  $C_i$  as in Fig. 9.

Note that in Fig. 9 the set of AND gates N does not connect with the input line  $x_i$  (for some i) of C but connects with every other input line.

Algorithm T3, below, shows how to decide in polynomial time if B is a tautology or not, using the construction outlined above, the tests  $t_0, \dots, t_n$  below, and a polynomial algorithm for P3.

1) 
$$t_0 = (x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1, \dots, x_n = 1, z = 0, \{x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n\}, \emptyset).$$

2) 
$$t_k = (x_1 = 1, \dots, x_{k-1} = 1, x_k = 0, x_{k+1} = 1, \dots, x_n = 1, z = 1, \emptyset, \{x_k\})$$
 for  $1 \le k \le n$ .

Algorithm T3

Step 1: Verify that for the inputs corresponding to the n+1 tests  $t_m(0 \le m \le n)$  the formula B is true. If this is not the case, stop as B is not a tautology. Obtain the realization C, of B.

Step 2: For  $i=1,2,\cdots,n$  construct  $C_i$  from C as described above. Using the polynomial algorithm for P3 decide if all single input faults of  $C_i$  are detectable by I/O experiments. If for some i, they are then B is not a tautology. Otherwise, by Lemma 3.5, B computes a constant which must be 1 (because of Step 1). Hence B is a tautology. [Now, for  $C_i$ , it should be clear that the tests  $t_m$  ( $0 \le m \le n$ ) and  $m \ne i$  detect all single input faults except those in line i. For inputs other than those corres-

ponding to  $t_0$  the output at the end of the AND set N is 0 (assuming that the single fault is in the input line  $x_i$ ). Hence  $f_{C_i}$  is essentially  $\bar{B}$  for  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \neq (1, \dots, 1)$ . Hence a fault in line i is detectable iff there is an input  $(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n)$  such that  $\bar{B}(x_1, \dots, \bar{x}_i, \dots, x_n) \neq \bar{B}(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n)$ . So, if all input faults in  $C_i$  are detectable, then B is not a tautology. If all are not detectable then it is the line i fault that is not detectable and so B is independent of  $x_i$ .

Clearly, then, if P3 is polynomial solvable so then also is the tautology problem, i.e., tauthology  $\alpha P3$ .

Theorem 3.4:

- 1)  $P4 \in PC$
- 2)  $P5 \in PC$
- 3)  $P6 \in PC$ .

*Proof:* Statement 1) follows from the fact that an output fault is detectable iff there are two inputs  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  and  $y_1, \dots, y_n$  such that  $f_C(x_1, \dots, x_n) \neq f_C(y_1, \dots, y_n)$ , i.e., iff B is not a tautology.

The proof for 2) proceeds by showing  $P5 \in NP$  and tautology  $\alpha P5$  (i.e., given a formula B obtain its circuit realization C and then determine if C realizes the switching function 1).

The proof for 3) is very similar to the proof of Theorem B1 of [7] which shows that obtaining the minimal equivalent Boolean form of a formula B is P-complete.

Finally, we consider the following problem. Let L be a set of fault locations. Suppose we know that a circuit C is irredundant with respect to L and we wish to know how long it will take to find a test set for L. The following theorem shows that this problem is complete for several cases of L.

Theorem 3.5: The problem of finding for an arbitrary circuit C, irredundant with respect to L, a test set for L is complete for each of the following cases.

Case 1: L = set of all fault locations.

Case 2:  $L = \{x\}$ , x is an arbitrary input line.

Case 3:  $L = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}, x_i$ 's are input lines.

Case 4:  $L = \{z\}$ , z is the output line.

*Proof:* It is easy to show (using a technique similar to that of Theorem 3.1) that NP = P implies a polynomial

time algorithm for all the cases above. We now show that a polynomial algorithm for finding a test set for L assuming C is irreducible with respect to L can be used to develop a polynomial time algorithm for deciding for an arbitrary circuit C' whether or not C' is irredundant with respect to L. The polynomial completeness of Cases 1-4 will then follow from Theorems 3.1-3.4.

Assume that we have a polynomial time Algorithm A that finds for an arbitrary circuit C, irredundant with respect to L, a test set for L. The following polynomial time algorithm decides for an arbitrary circuit C' whether or not C' is irredundant with respect to L.  $[p(\cdot)]$  is the polynomial time bound of A.]

## Algorithm B

Step 1: Apply Algorithm A to C'.

Step 2: If A does not halt on C' after  $p(\cdot)$  steps, C' cannot be irredundant with respect to L.

Step 3: If A halts on C' in less than or equal to  $p(\cdot)$ steps, consider two cases.

Case 1: A halts with no output or halts with outputs that do not satisfy the definition of tests. In this case, C'must not be irredundant with respect to L.

Case 2: A halts with tests  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k$ . For each such test  $(x_1 = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n, z = j, F(0), F(1))$ , check that if C with input  $x = i_1, \dots, x_n = i_n$  gives output z = j then the locations in F(0) and F(1) are really s-a-0 and s-a-1 detectable faults. If every test checks out, the union of F(0)'s = L and the union of the F(1)'s = L, then C' must be irredundant with respect to L; otherwise C' is not irredundant with respect to L.

Clearly, Algorithm B works in polynomial time if A does and B decides whether or not circuit C is irredundant with respect to L.

Hence it follows that Cases 1-4 are P-Complete.

#### IV. CONCLUSIONS

We have linked the single fault detection problem to the P = NP problem of complexity theory. As a result of this it is clear that finding a polynomial algorithm for the fault-detection problem is as hard as finding similar algorithms for several combinatorial problems (traveling salesman, knapsack, etc.). In view of this, it would appear that no polynomial algorithm for single fault detection exists.

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