

Design Validation of RTL Circuits using Binary Particle Swarm Optimization and Symbolic Execution

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(ABSTRACT)

Over the last two decades, chip design has been conducted at the register transfer (RT) Level using Hardware Descriptive Languages (HDL), such as VHDL and Verilog. The modeling at the behavioral level not only allows for better representation and understanding of the design, but also allows for encapsulation of the sub-modules as well, thus increasing productivity. Despite these benefits, validating a RTL design is not necessarily easier. Today, design validation is considered one of the most time and resource consuming aspects of hardware design. The high costs associated with late detection of bugs can be enormous. Together with stringent time to market factors, the need to guarantee the correct functionality of the design is more critical than ever.

The work done in this thesis tackles the problem of RTL design validation and presents new frameworks for functional test generation. We use branch coverage as our metric to evaluate the quality of the generated test stimuli. The initial effort for test generation utilized simulation based techniques because of their scalability with design size and ease of use. However, simulation based methods work on input spaces rather than the DUT's state space and often fail to traverse very narrow search paths in large input spaces. To encounter this problem and enhance the ability of test generation framework, in the following work in this thesis, certain

design semantics are statically extracted and recurrence relationships between different variables are mined. Information such as relations among variables and loops can be extremely valuable from test generation point of view. The simulation based method is hybridized with Z3 based symbolic backward execution engine with feedback among different stages. The hybridized method performs loop abstraction and is able to traverse narrow design paths without performing costly circuit analysis or explicit loop unrolling. Also structural and functional unreachable branches are identified during the process of test generation. Experimental results show that the proposed techniques are able to achieve high branch coverage on several ITC'99 benchmark circuits and their modified variants, with significant speed up and reduction in the sequence length.

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Dedication

Dedicated to my family and friends for their continuous love, support and
blessings

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Chapter 1

Introduction

We are living in an era where we are surrounded by electronic devices all around us. These devices are tied to almost every aspect of our daily life. The scope of application for such devices is tremendous; ranging from small devices & wearables such as apple watches to critical applications such as medical and defense systems and large scale applications in the form of telecommunication networks, banking sector, hospitals, smart grids etc. These devices not only improve our standard of living but also save lives through warning systems and preventive measures. With such a high dependency on electronic devices, it becomes imperative to verify their correct functionality before using them.

Continuous growth in VLSI technology has led to better and smaller devices. We can now achieve the same or even better functionality while paying a lesser price. The overall development has led to the reduction in device size and net power consumed. However, with the

increasing device complexity and decreasing device size, the possibility of design errors grew exponentially. This has burdened the verification process to guarantee the correct device functionality. Researchers have estimated that the time needed for device verification is approximately 50% of total design cycle [1]. Combining the time needed for verification, along with the stringent time to market factor, the need for better verification methodologies is more than ever.

1.1 Problem Scope and Motivation

In the domain of Electronic Design Automation (EDA), functional verification refers to the task of verifying that the logic design meets the specifications. In last two decades, following Moore's law [2] the complexity of electronic designs has constantly increased, which in turn, incremented the number of transistors placed on the silicon die. The increase in design complexity led to the major developments in logic/circuit design, one of which is the ability to design the circuit/device at behavioral level instead of using the gate level. The advent of design at Register Transfer Level (RTL) headed to better synthesizable and readable designs. Hardware Descriptive languages such as VHDL and Verilog are used for designing Integrated Circuits (ICs) for last two decades. Using high level languages not only improved design activity but also benefitted the verification process, as the design verification can now be performed at a higher abstraction level of the design using the critical behavioral information available at higher design abstraction level.

To validate a design under test (DUT), it is simulated using input/test sequences. The output responses are recorded and compared with the expected responses. However, generating an effective suite of input stimuli is very challenging. Random test generation is the simplest method for generating test stimuli, however it misses design portions which need specific input sequences and thus are random resistant. Consequently, such random tests are combined with manually generated directed tests. Manual test generation is not only time consuming but also necessitates design expertise and is error prone. Another approach for design verification is formal verification. Formal verification refers to validating the behavior of the design by attempting to prove its mathematical properties. It is also used to assure that certain design behavior (such as deadlock) will not occur. Formal verification doesn't involve simulation of input sequences and might not be scalable to big designs. Exhaustive testing of design where all the possible input combinations are simulated could be another attempt for design verification. However, modern RTL designs have more than 100 inputs leading to trillions of possible input sequences which is practically infeasible to apply on the design and test it. Another step in the direction of design verification is in the form of semi-formal methods. Semi-formal methods typically combine concrete simulation based method with a formal method to limit individual weaknesses and enhance verification potentiality. However such methods involve analysis of DUT for many clock cycles/time frames, and are typically limited by the number of clock cycles for which such analysis can be performed. With the increasing design size and weaknesses in the current trends, the need to quickly generate small and intelligent test sequences is pressing.

Several metrics in the past have been proposed to quantify the potency of the input test stimuli. Such metrics include branch coverage, line coverage, path coverage, statement coverage etc [3]. Branch Coverage is a popular metric to evaluate the quality of input test sequences as it relates to number of valid control states of the design that have been exercised by the input stimuli. In the test generation frameworks proposed in this thesis, we have used branch coverage as our metric to evaluate the usefulness of the generated test sequences.

Over the last decade, several works based on RT level test generation have been proposed. The proposed methods employ either simulation based methods, formal techniques or a combination of the two [4-10]. Simulation based methods use heuristics to select a solution from a pool of available candidate solutions, whereas formal techniques are based on Bounded Model Checking (BMC) [10] and symbolic execution for generating effective test sequence/vector. In the ideal scenario, an effective test sequence should be of minimal length and offer maximum coverage as per any adopted metric.

1.2 Contributions

The first research contribution made in this thesis presents a simulation based functional test generation framework to quickly generate small and effective test vectors for RTL designs specified in Verilog HDL. The proposed method is based on a modern variant of Binary Particle Swarm Optimization (BPSO) and performs a controlled search on the graph extracted from the DUT to increase the branch coverage. The method is extremely effective

as it uses one way information sharing mechanism of BPSO resulting in faster convergence when compared to other meta-heuristics such as Genetic Algorithms (GA), Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) etc. Also several optimizations are dynamically performed to enhance exploration and penetration capability of the swarm. The optimizations performed help to reduce the size of the test set generated and overall computational complexity of the method. To simulate the candidate solutions we cross-compile the HDL design to a C++ base using an open source tool, Verilator. The compiled code is also instrumented which provides a one-to-one mapping between HDL source and C++ base; a database of counters related to branch activations is built. These database counters are used to determine the branch coverage of DUT. In the event of lower design coverage attained, the proposed method performs a controlled search for finding inputs by using control flow graph of the DUT. The overall technique is very effective on standard benchmarks generating test vectors which achieved equal or better branch coverage while reducing test length and execution time by 1 – 2 orders of magnitude when compared to the existing techniques.

In the second part of the thesis we address another problem related to functional test generation for RTL circuits. It is known that the traditional formal techniques such as Bounded Model Checking (BMC), symbolic execution etc. need to analyze/unroll the circuit for several cycles before they determine the necessary inputs to exercise a certain branch in DUT. These techniques become a core component of semi-formal methods proposed for design verification. Heavy computational costs associated with circuit unrolling and the presence of complex loops in DUT typically limit these methods. On the other hand, simulation based

methods do not perform any circuit unrolling but they work on input state space rather than DUT's state space. As a result they find it very challenging to traverse narrow paths in DUT especially when input space is very large. For example in case of data encryption, hashing etc. there is dependency on the inputs supplied from many cycles in the past to reach a particular circuit state. In such cases techniques based on simulation or traditional formal analysis will fail to reach the desired branches as input search space will be large and circuit analysis will be required for many cycles for determining the correct inputs.

To address the above issues, in the second part of this thesis, we extend our functional test generation method. The proposed method eliminates the need of both explicit unrolling of the control flow graph (CFG) and analysis of many cycles as necessitated by traditional Bounded Model Checking (BMC) or symbolic execution based methods. This is achieved by abstracting loops present in the design under test (DUT) and attempting to learn the recurrence relations among the variables that directly or indirectly affect the target branch condition. The proposed method uses the CFG and information statically extracted from the RTL design to bolster the stimuli generation process. A SMT solver is used to find correlations between the inputs and the target branches. This information is later fed back to Binary Particle Swarm to attempt to reach the uncovered branches. In addition, the swarm is now combined with a pattern search method (Hooke Jeeves) for faster convergence and higher solution quality. Finally, branches which are either structurally or functionally unreachable are also identified as a side product. The proposed frameworks in this thesis are evaluated on several ITC'99 benchmark circuits and their difficult variants. It is experimentally observed

that the proposed frameworks achieve at least equal or better branch coverage with significant improvement reduction in test sequence lengths and execution times over existing methods.

1.3 Publications

The accepted and submitted works related to this thesis are listed below:

- Prateek Puri, Michael S. Hsiao, Fast Stimuli Generation for Design Validation of RTL Circuits Using Binary Particle Swarm Optimization, Proceedings of IEEE Computer Society Annual Symposium on VLSI (ISVLSI), July 2015 [7]
- Prateek Puri, Michael S. Hsiao, SI-SMART: Functional Test Generation for RTL Circuits Using Loop Abstraction and Learning Recurrence Relationships, under review in ICCD 2015

1.4 Thesis Organization

The rest of the thesis is organized as follows:

- Chapter 2 covers necessary preliminaries for test vector generation frameworks proposed in chapter 3 and chapter 4.
- Chapter 3 presents the detailed model of the test generation technique using Particle

Swarm Optimization and controlled graphical search. This work will also be presented at ISVLSI 2015 [7].

- Chapter 4 describes details of static analysis implemented and hybridization of PSO with formal and pattern search methods. It discusses the static analysis implemented, loop abstraction, recurrence relation learning, backward symbolic execution on the extracted CFG, different data structures implemented and analysis of structurally and functionally unreachable branches. The branch coverage results for ITC'99 benchmarks and their variants are also presented. This work is submitted to ICCD 2015.
- Chapter 5 concludes this thesis and provides recommendations for future work.

Chapter 2

Background

In this chapter we will present the basics of several concepts such as Functional Verification at Register Transfer Level, Unrolling of sequential circuits, Particle Swarm Optimization, Pattern Search Method, Satisfiability Modulo Theory (SMT), Static Single Assignment (SSA), Static Analysis, Code Coverage Metrics which will be useful to comprehend the material presented in chapter 3 and chapter 4 of this thesis. We will also cover the functionality of tools like Z3 and Verilator used in proposed techniques.

2.1 Functional Verification at Register Transfer Level

Design Verification is an important step in the product development. The goal is to ensure that the design complies with the specified requirements and imposed conditions. Today design verification consumes 50% to 70% of the total effort invested in the design cycle

[1]. Thus design verification lies on the critical path in design flow and is proving to be the bottleneck of the overall design process. In functional verification we ascertain that the functionality of design conforms to given specification. Functional verification is only concerned about the functionality of the design without considering non-functional aspects of the design such as timing, layout and power.

Register transfer level (RTL) is an abstraction level and is employed to model digital circuits in the form of connections between hardware registers and operations performed on those registers. Such abstraction models are developed using Hardware Descriptive Languages (HDL) such as VHDL and Verilog. The behavioral specifications are translated into high level circuit representations using HDL. The high level representation is then synthesized to derive the gate level representation and connections between the gates. Over the last two decades, chip design has been conducted at the register transfer (RT) Level using Hardware Descriptive Languages (HDL), such as VHDL and Verilog. The modeling at the behavioral level not only allows for better representation and understanding of the design, but also allows for encapsulation of the sub-modules as well, thus increasing productivity. RTL descriptions of the given specifications are available very early in the design phase. As a result performing functional verification at RT level allows early detection of bugs thus saving valuable time.

2.2 Code Coverage Metrics

Functional Verification of RTL design is a hard problem because of the large number of input test cases that can be formed even for very basic designs. To quantify the quality of input test suite used for verification, several metrics based on code coverage have been proposed in the past [3]. Code coverage refers to the measure used to identify the degree to which the design is exercised by a particular test suite. Code coverage analysis refers to white box testing or structural testing whereas functional verification falls in the category of black box testing. In structural testing input stimuli is chosen to cause excitation of different paths throughout the structure of the program. Some of the coverage criteria frequently used for determining code coverage are as follows:

- **Statement Coverage:** This pertains to covering all the statements present in source code.
- **Branch Coverage:** Branch coverage refers to the execution of the edges present in control structure of the program.
- **Condition Coverage:** Condition coverage relates to the coverage of each sub Boolean expression present in the formulated condition with both true and false values.
- **Function Coverage:** Function coverage refers to the execution of all the subroutines present in the program.
- **Path Coverage:** Path coverage reports if all the possible paths in the program structure

have been covered where path is a unique sequence of branch from the entry point to the exit point.

In RTL design validation since the aim is to exercise different control states of the circuit, branch coverage becomes a popular choice. Path coverage might serve as an alternative and result in better testing. However path coverage suffers from explosion of number of paths as the number of branch increases. Also many paths present might be unfeasible because of data dependencies. In this thesis we select branch coverage as our metric to determine the utility of the test sequences.

2.3 Unrolling of Sequential Circuits

In digital logic, sequential circuits refer to those circuits whose outputs depend not only on the current inputs but also on the inputs supplied in previous cycles because of the presence of memory elements. This is unlike combinational circuits whose outputs depends only upon the current inputs. Sequential logic becomes the basis of Finite State Machine (FSM) which is a building block of all the digital circuitry used in practical designs. For testing combinational circuits, only one vector is sufficient to detect the target fault as the outputs depend only on the current inputs. However for sequential circuits one vector might not be sufficient as circuit states get saved in the memory elements present in sequential circuits. Consequently to detect a target fault a sequence of vectors has to be supplied across different time frames [11]. To understand the behavior of sequential circuits across

multiple time frames they are unrolled i.e. copies of same circuit are made representing the flow of signals across multiple time frames. This procedure is known as sequential circuit unrolling. Figure 1 shows an illustration of sequential circuit unrolling. The number of times the circuit is unrolled adds to the total computational cost of the method which ultimately limits the number of unrolling cycles.

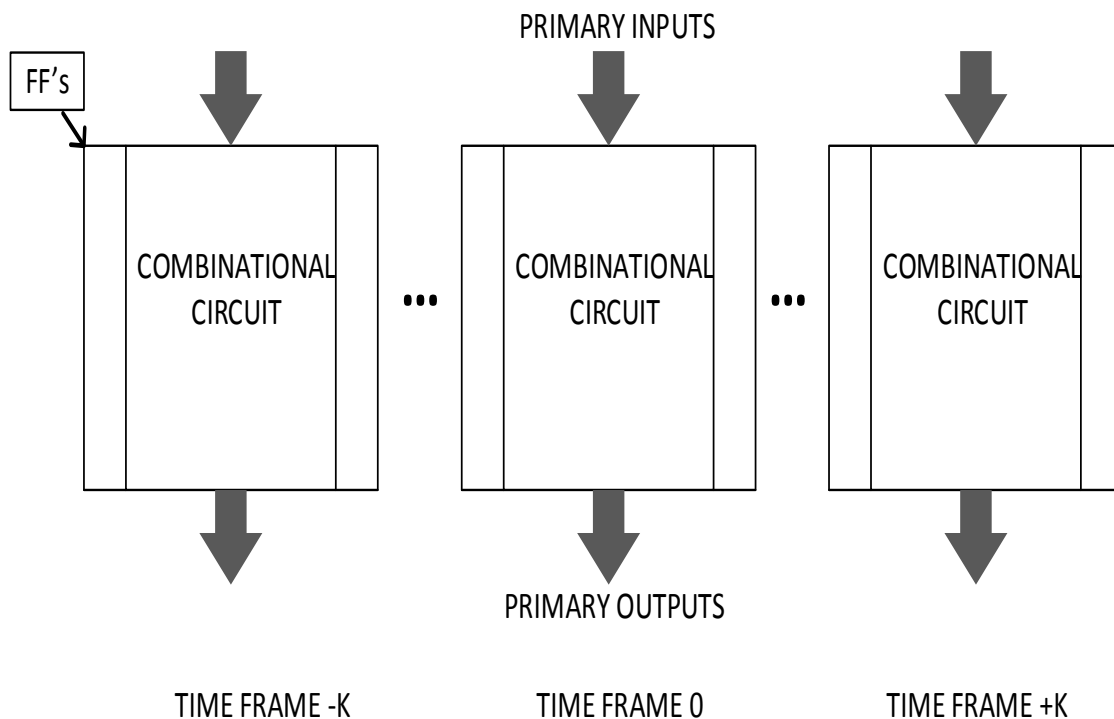


Figure 2.1: Unrolling of a sequential circuit for $2K+1$ time frames

In Figure 2.1, the same sequential circuit is unrolled/copied over for $2k + 1$ time frames. Time frame 0 represents the current frame or the frame under analysis. During unrolling, the FF's in the circuit are modelled as pseudo primary inputs (PPI) and pseudo primary outputs (PPO). Verifying a sequential circuit pertains to exercising all the possible FSM states in the design. As per nature of the design, some states are difficult to reach when

compared to other states. Such difficult states are resistant to the random input stimuli. To achieve high confidence in the design functionality, it is essential to verify/cover these hard to reach states. Also covering the hard to reach states may further unlock several other previously uncovered states.

To cover such hard to reach states, deterministic methods based on Satisfiability Modulo Theory (SMT) or Satisfiability (SAT) are often employed to generate required input stimuli. However these techniques unroll the sequential circuit and are therefore limited by the computational cost caused due to the number of such unrolling cycles. As a result the states which require a long and specific sequence of input vectors cannot be reached using SMT/SAT solvers. Another completely different approach involves usage of simulation based methods. In contrast to deterministic techniques, simulation based methods do not perform any sequential circuit unrolling. Such methods employ meta-heuristics such as Genetic Algorithms (GA), Ant Colony Optimization (ACO), Cultural Algorithms (CA) or other heuristics to generate useful test sequences. These metaheuristics are typically guided by some coverage metric in the form of fitness value. The candidate solutions evolves towards better fitness as the algorithms progresses. However the drawback associated with simulation based methods is that they perform search on input search space rather than DUT's state space. As these methods are probabilistic in nature, the performance of these metaheuristics degrades if the input search space is very big. Both the deterministic and stochastic techniques are detailed in the later sections.

2.4 Verilator

Verilator [12] is a free and open source software tool for converting a Verilog HDL based digital design into a cycle-accurate behavioral model in C++ or SystemC. Verilator not only execute a source to source transformation but also performs certain optimizations to generate an optimized model for fast simulation without altering design functionality in any respect. Moreover it instruments the HDL design and provides useful counters for estimating different coverage metrics such as branch coverage, toggle coverage etc.

Verilator, however is restricted to a synthesizable set of Verilog only and cannot process delay elements present in the design. The test generation methods proposed in this thesis use Verilator for transforming HDL code to a C++ base, for simulation and line instrumentation. During conversion, Verilator changes the conditional statements such as case, if, else-if, else present in original synthesizable Verilog design to nested if-else blocks in C++ representation also referred as Verilated C++. Figure 2.2 represents a sample Verilog code and corresponding Verilated C++ code.

Selecting branch instrumentation option during transformations places a unique instrumentation counter in each block of Verilated C++ code. This instrumentation counter is incremented every time the code block gets executed. Verilator also provides an interface to access this database of instrumentation counters along with all the signals present in the HDL design during simulation. In Figure 2.2 , as seen from the Verilated C++ code, the state machine in the HDL design is transformed into a nested if-else structure. The Verilated C++

```

if (reset === 1'b1)
    FSM_var = a;
else
    begin
        case (FSM_var)
        a:
            begin
                if ( line1 === 1'b1 & line2 === 1'b1 )
                    FSM_var = a;
                else
                    FSM_var = b;
            end
        b:
            begin
                if ( line1 === 1'b1 & line2 === 1'b1 ) {
                    FSM_var = a;
                }
                else
                    FSM_var = c;
            end
        c:
            begin
                if ( line1 === 1'b1 & line2 === 1'b1 ) }
                    FSM_var = b;
            end
        default:
            FSM_var = a;
        endcase
    end
end

if (vITOPp->reset)
{
    ++(vISymp->__Vcoverage[0]); vITOPp->v__DOT__FSM_var = 0U;
}
else
{
    ++(vISymp->__Vcoverage[11]);
    if ((0U == (IData)(vITOPp->v__DOT__FSM_var)))
    { ++(vISymp->__Vcoverage[3]);
        if (((IData)(vITOPp->line1) & (IData)(vITOPp->line2)))
        { ++(vISymp->__Vcoverage[1]); vITOPp->v__DOT__FSM_var = 0U;}
        else
            { ++(vISymp->__Vcoverage[2]); vITOPp->v__DOT__FSM_var = 1U; }
    }
    else
        if ((1U == (IData)(vITOPp->v__DOT__FSM_var)))
        {
            ++(vISymp->__Vcoverage[6]);
            if (((IData)(vITOPp->line1) & (IData)(vITOPp->line2)))
            { ++(vISymp->__Vcoverage[4]); vITOPp->v__DOT__FSM_var = 0U;}
            else
                { ++(vISymp->__Vcoverage[5]); vITOPp->v__DOT__FSM_var = 2U;}
        }
        else
            { if ((2U == (IData)(vITOPp->v__DOT__FSM_var)))
                { ++(vISymp->__Vcoverage[9]);
                    if (((IData)(vITOPp->line1) & (IData)(vITOPp->line2)))
                    { ++(vISymp->__Vcoverage[7]); vITOPp->v__DOT__FSM_var = 1U;}
                    else
                        { ++(vISymp->__Vcoverage[8]); vITOPp->v__DOT__FSM_var = 0U;}
                }
            }
            else
                { ++(vISymp->__Vcoverage[10]); vITOPp->v__DOT__FSM_var = 0U;}
        }
}
}
}

```

Figure 2.2: Sample Verilog code and corresponding Verilated C++ code

code is instrumented and a database of counters (`++(vlSymsp→_Vcoverage[xx])`) related to branch activation is provided for estimating the coverage of basic code blocks/branches. The value of such counters is initialized to zero and is incremented every time that particular code block is executed.

2.5 Particle Swarm Optimization

Evolutionary algorithms such as Genetic Algorithms (GA), Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), and Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) are nature-inspired stochastic algorithms used to find optimal or near-optimal solutions to large scale optimization problems. Such algorithms try to emulate either biological evolution and/or social interactions among species.

Since its inception in 1995 by Kennedy and Eberhart [13], PSO has attracted many researchers as a global optimization technique in the continuous domain because of its simplicity and ease of implementation. Similar to other nature inspired algorithms such as GA, ACO, etc., PSO contains a population of candidate solutions which are individually known as particles and collectively called as a swarm. PSO tries to imitate the social interactions among the members of a swarm and uses algebraic operators to improve the particles. In PSO, every particle is associated with a d-dimensional velocity and position vector. The position vector represents a feasible solution whereas the velocity vector controls its motion in the d-dimensional search space. The particles also have memory to remember their best experiences so far during the evolution process. Also the overall best experience of the swarm

is memorized and updated during evolution. Higher velocities promote exploration whereas lower velocities result in convergence. In a given iteration, every particle in the swarm tries to improve its position. The movement of particle in the search space is governed by its inertia, its own previous best learning and collective experience of the swarm.

From theoretical analysis of particle's trajectory in both continuous and discrete domains, Clerc & Kennedy [14] found that each particle converges quickly to a weighted mean of its own best position and the global best position. The reason for fast convergence was attributed to the one way information sharing mechanism in PSO as the global best particle is the only agent that supplies information to all other particles. When compared to PSO, GA and ACO are significantly different in the way of sharing information. While PSO possesses a direct global control, ACO is based on stigmergy. In other words, each ant in ACO examines goodness of all available paths from a node in the graph before choosing one which in turn slows down ACO. GA when compared to PSO exhibits a mutual information sharing process. For instance, the entire population in a GA moves relatively uniformly towards optimal region whereas PSO is heavily influenced by the best solution. Although problem specific, PSO typically outperforms both GA and ACO especially in terms of convergence speed [15]. Hassan et al. in [16] validate the computational efficiency of PSO over GA using formal hypothesis testing approach on standard benchmark functions. A detailed description of PSO is presented in [13, 14, 17–19].

The performance of PSO for continuous domain problems motivated researchers to develop modified versions to handle discrete optimization problems. In this regard, Kennedy [20]

proposed the discrete binary version of PSO (BPSO) algorithm. Later, different variants of discrete PSO were applied to solve combinatorial problems like Travelling Salesman, planar graph coloring, resource constrained job scheduling, financial ratio selection, etc. However, in the original version of BPSO, there were certain difficulties in the interpretation of continuous domain PSO to either the discrete or binary domain. Khanesar et al. in [21] address such issues and present a better interpretation of discrete/binary PSO. Another important component in the discrete PSO is the transfer function which is used for mapping the continuous domain velocity component into a discrete domain component known as bit changing or flipping probability. Traditional BPSO algorithms implemented an S-shaped transfer functions; however, in [22] it was found that using V-shaped transfer functions on standard benchmark functions improved performance of BPSO. The proposed test generation method in this paper uses a variant of binary PSO [21] with a V shaped transfer function. Here, each particle is associated with two velocities or bit flipping probabilities.

During generation (t), the following equations are used to govern the movement of particle (i) in dimension (j) of search space.

$$V_{ij}^1(t+1) = w * V_{ij}^1(t) + d_{ij,1}^1 + d_{ij,2}^1 \quad (2.1)$$

$$V_{ij}^0(t+1) = w * V_{ij}^0(t) + d_{ij,1}^0 + d_{ij,2}^0 \quad (2.2)$$

$$V_{ij}^c = \begin{cases} V_{ij}^1(t+1), & \text{if } x_{ij}(t) = 0 \\ V_{ij}^0(t+1), & \text{if } x_{ij}(t) = 1 \end{cases} \quad (2.3)$$

$$TF(x) = \left| \frac{2}{\pi} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x\pi}{2}\right) \right| \quad (2.4)$$

$$X_{ij} = \begin{cases} (X_{ij}(t))', & \text{if } rand() < V_{ij}^c \\ (X_{ij}(t)), & \text{if } rand() \geq V_{ij}^c \end{cases} \quad (2.5)$$

If $P_{ibest}^j = 1$ then $d_{ij,1}^1 = c_1 r_1$ & $d_{ij,1}^0 = -c_1 r_1$

If $P_{gbest}^j = 1$ then $d_{ij,2}^1 = c_2 r_2$ & $d_{ij,2}^0 = -c_2 r_2$

If $P_{ibest}^j = 0$ then $d_{ij,1}^1 = -c_1 r_1$ & $d_{ij,1}^0 = c_1 r_1$

If $P_{gbest}^j = 0$ then $d_{ij,2}^1 = -c_2 r_2$ & $d_{ij,2}^0 = c_2 r_2$

In the above equations, P_{ibest}^j , P_{gbest}^j represent the j^{th} dimensional bit value of personal best, global best particle in the swarm, $TF(x)$ is a V-shaped transfer function; w represents inertia weight, r_1 , r_2 , $rand()$ represents random number between $(0, 1)$ whereas c_1 , c_2 are fixed constants.

2.6 Hooke Jeeves Method

Pattern search methods belong to the class of numerical optimization methods that do not require the gradient of the problem to be optimized. Such methods are also known as black box methods. Hooke Jeeves algorithm [23] belongs to the class of heuristic pattern search methods. In comparison to the traditional gradient based methods, Hooke Jeeves is derivative free which makes it suitable for solving non-continuous, non-differentiable and multi-objective optimization problems. Hooke Jeeves starts with a base solution and explores the search space by using a set of exploratory and pattern search moves to improve the associated fitness function. While an exploratory move is a crude search for some gradient direction, a pattern search move refers to the larger moves in the direction of fitness improvement. Other similar techniques [24] include Simplex method, Powell algorithm etc. In the HJ method, for initial position vector X_k and a perturbation vector $\Delta_{ki} \in Q_+$, the method looks for a new position X_{k+1} in d -dimensional search space ω_k where

$$\omega_k = \{x = X | x = X_{ki} + \Delta_{ki}, i = \{1, 2, \dots, d\}\} \quad (2.6)$$

In case of failure of an exploratory move, the perturbation factor is reduced and the current position is not changed. Otherwise, a pattern move is applied in the direction of better fitness value and the current position is updated. The algorithm is terminated when the perturbation factor becomes less than the predefined limit. Figure 2.3 shows an example of exploratory search in Hooke Jeeves. Bigger steps in the form of pattern moves are taken in

the direction of successful exploratory moves.

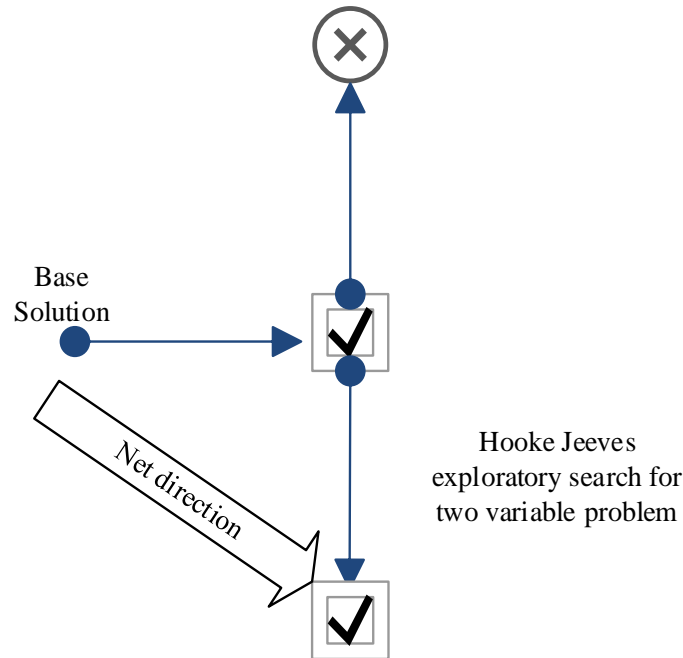


Figure 2.3: Exploratory move of Hooke Jeeves method for a problem with two variables

Figure 2.3 shows an exploratory move for an optimization problem using two unknown variables. This move is a crude search for a gradient towards better fitness. After exploring both x,y directions, a net direction for movement is found. Larger moves are then made in direction leading to better fitness.

2.7 Static Analysis and Control Flow Graph

Static analysis refers to the analysis of the program without executing it. This is in contrast to dynamic analysis which is performed during run time. Static analysis is typically performed on source code and sometimes on the object code. Static analysis is done to find

bugs in the program or to check if the design conforms to the design guidelines.

Compilers perform static analysis to complete the above mentioned tasks. In the current work we perform static analysis on the DUT to extract critical design information and to extract the program structure for RTL design verification. Static analysis has been previously used in RTL design verification problem [25], [26].

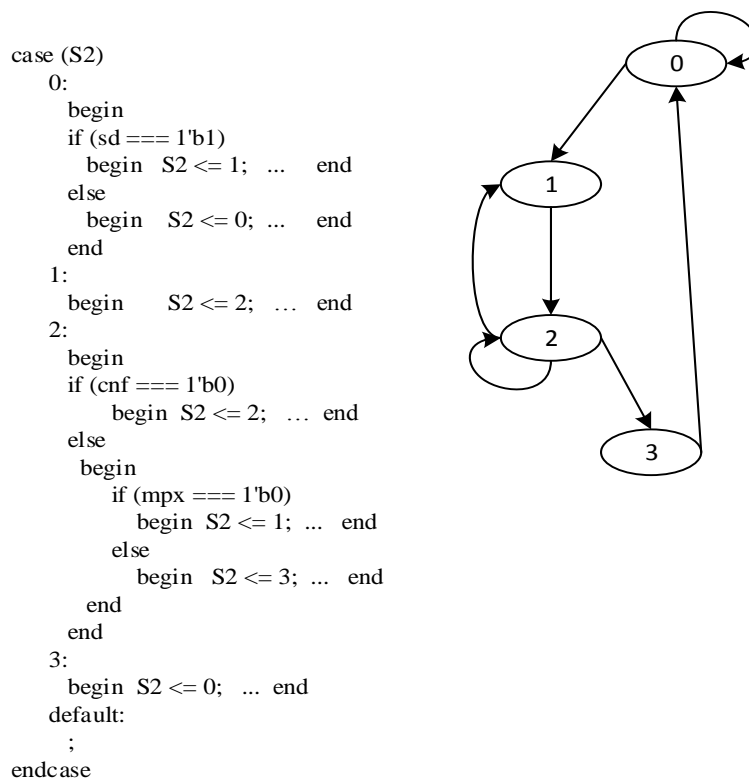


Figure 2.4: Sample RTL code and corresponding Control Flow Graph (CFG)

A control flow graph (CFG) [27] is a graphical representation to represent all the program paths that might be traversed during execution. These control flow graphs forms the basis of compilers and static analysis tools. Each node in the CFG is a basic block of code with

only one statement leading to execution of another basic block. The jumps in the CFG are represented by directed edges connecting the basic blocks of code. An example of a RTL program and its corresponding CFG is shown in Figure 2.4 .

2.8 Static Single Assignment

Static Single Assignment [28] is a form of program representation where variables are assigned exactly once in the program. New assignments to the same variable will result in the creation of different versions of that variable. This is particularly used by compilers to modify the program. The original program is rarely in the SSA form as same variables can be assigned multiple times throughout the program. SSA representation modifies the program such that every assignment to the same variable results in the creation of new version of that variable. The versions are differentiated from each other by changing variable subscripts. The implementation of SSA presents a clearer picture of the data flow in the program. Different versions of the same variable are distinguished by subscripting the variable name with its version number. Variables used in the right-hand side of expressions are renamed so that their version number matches with that of the most recent assignment.

$$A = B + C + A$$

$$B = C + A$$

$$C = C + B$$

For example, in the above code segment application of SSA will result in the modified code segment shown below:

$$A.1 = B + C + A$$

$$B.1 = C + A.1$$

$$C.2 = C.1 + B.1$$

As observed the variables are updated when they are assigned a new value. From test generation point of view, application of SSA helps to differentiate variables across multiple time frames and preserved the multi cycle nature of hardware design.

2.9 Satisfiability Modulo Theory (SMT)

Satisfiability is one of the fundamental problems in engineering design and refers to problem of finding an existing solution to a constrained mathematical formula with respect to a combination of background theories. It is applicable in many domains of engineering and sciences particularly in software and hardware verification, scheduling, graph problems, test generation etc. A first order mathematical formula is derived using variables, functions and predicate symbols. The formula is then solved using SMT solvers to find a solution model (if exists). Whereas Boolean SAT solvers work on logical formula derived from binary variables, the more recent SMT solvers can work at higher levels of design abstraction.

SMT solvers are used to check the satisfiability of the symbolic path constraints involving

integers, bitvectors, real numbers, etc [29]. To check the satisfiability of a given formula, each clause in the formula is added to an instance of the SMT solver in the form of assertions. If the formula is satisfiable, a model can be retrieved indicating the values of symbols/variables used in the assertions. In the past, SMT solvers have been used for generating test vectors for digital circuits [30,31]. Since we analyze the design at a higher level of abstraction (RTL), SMT solver is used instead of Boolean SAT solver for the proposed methods in this thesis.

2.10 Z3 SMT Solver & Symbolic Backward Execution

Z3 [32] is state of the art SMT solver developed at Microsoft Research and is available for free for academic research. Z3 is an efficient combination of a host of theory solvers and can be used to check the satisfiability of logical formulas. It is currently used in solving problems related to verification, test generation, software and hardware program analysis etc. and is available in Python and C++ programming languages. For the current work we used the Z3 solver available in Python. For solving the formula, different clauses in the formula are added as assertions to Z3 solver instance and the model is retrieved if the formula is found to be satisfiable.

In addition, all the variables involved in an assertion should be of the same form (integer, bit vector) etc.; Z3 provides functions for converting one variable form to another variable form. Moreover, the nature of variable assignment has to be preserved before adding it as an assertion to the solver instance. The following gives a few examples to demonstrate the

relevant cases:

Example 1: $\text{Var_A} = \text{Var_b}$

Example 2: $\text{BitVec_A} = \text{BitVec_b} + \text{Int_c}$

Example 3: $\text{Var_A} = \text{Var_A} - 2$

Before adding the above examples as assertions to a solver instance, they are converted to the following form.

Modified Example 1: $\text{Var_A} == \text{Var_b}$

Modified Example2: $\text{BitVec_A} == \text{BitVec_b} + \text{Int2BV}(\text{Int_c})$

Modified Example 3: $\text{Var_A} == \text{Var_A}.1 - 2$

Example 1 is converted from an assignment statement to a clause whereas in example 2, variable `Int_c` is converted to `BitVector` format for compatibility. In example 3, we use static single assignment (SSA) as example 3, in its native format will be always be returned as unsatisfiable by the SMT solver.

Symbolic execution [33] refers to execution of a single program path with symbolic input values. Symbolic backward execution refers to the program exploration in the backward direction starting from target. Since the graph is traversed backwards, only those paths that can lead to the target condition are explored. SBE is performed on concrete execution paths in the code, and the path constraints thus generated are solved using a SMT solver. Both

symbolic execution and SBE are extensively used especially in RTL design validation [6, 25] and software testing [34].

2.11 Chapter Summary

The chapter covers preliminaries which will be useful to understand the methods proposed in chapter 3 and chapter 4. Different concepts related to global optimization and satisfiability modulo theory along with basics of functional verification, coverage metrics and digital logic were discussed.

Chapter 3

Fast Stimuli Generation for Design Validation of RTL Circuits Using Binary Particle Swarm Optimization

Prateek Puri and Michael S. Hsiao

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3.1 Introduction

Using Hardware Descriptive Languages such as VHDL and Verilog for designing chips have become a common practice in the industry. Designing at a higher level of abstraction such as RTL results in comprehensible design and allows reusability of the sub modules. Despite several benefits of designing at higher abstraction level, validating a RTL design is challenging. Design validation has been recognized as a bottleneck in the design cycle before the final release can be made. Thus, design validation not only exacerbates the time to market factor but also consumes many resources. Previously, several coverage metrics such as state coverage, condition coverage, branch coverage, path coverage, etc. [3] have been proposed and used to evaluate the quality of the test stimuli. In the ideal scenario, a high quality test sequence should be of minimal length and offer maximum coverage as per any adopted metric. Random stimuli generally fail to achieve a high coverage as some branches may require a specific test sequence in order to be covered. Even though several advancements have been made in coverage-directed test generation, derivation of high quality test sequences remains an arduous task.

In recent years, several proposed techniques such as HYBRO [6] and BEACON [4] have shown great potential in the field of test generation at the RTL. HYBRO unrolls the circuit and then applies a Satisfiability Modulo Theory (SMT) solver to determine an input assignment corresponding to a target path. The computational cost of SMT solvers may limit both the length of paths and the number of branches that can be explored; thus, it may fail to cover

those branches that require long sequences of vectors. Existing simulation-based methods, on the other hand, can scale to larger designs. For example, BEACON targets hard-to-reach branches without resorting to deterministic engines such as symbolic execution in HYBRO. However, simulation-based methods require effective guidance, without which the resulting sequence can be long and may still require much execution time.

Nature-inspired population based stochastic optimization techniques such as Genetic Algorithm (GA), Ant Colony Optimization (ACO), Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), etc. are robust and computationally efficient optimization methods for solving large scale problems that contain several local optima. However, substantial computational effort is required in fine tuning the search. To improve convergence rate and solution quality, such global search methods are typically hybridized with local search techniques [35]. Local search starts by adopting a population member as its base solution. It then explores the local neighborhood around the base solution and feeds back the additional information gained to the global search. The hybrid global-local search algorithms are comparatively faster and generally produce better results. With the aim of developing simple, fast and effective stimuli generation techniques for a variety of RTL designs, we propose an alternative approach: Particle Swarm Optimization based Functional Test generator (PSOFT). PSOFT hybridizes Particle Swarm Optimization technique with a controlled graphical search method in which each particle represents a candidate test sequence. Compared to GA and ACO, the strengths of PSO are in its inherent simplicity and typically faster convergence rate through its one way information sharing mechanism.

In PSOFT, the search starts from targeting easy branches to covering hard to reach branches in later stages by altering the objective function and gradually growing the size of both the swarm and the particles. When compared to conventional hybrid evolutionary techniques, the controlled search feeds back information to the swarm to improve results, but starts from the reset state. Thus, the controlled search does not need to rely on an initial solution vector which is required by conventional local search techniques. In addition, in order to reduce computational effort, the controlled search is selectively activated. In comparison to previous methods, PSOFT either matches or surpasses branch coverage for all ITC'99 [36] benchmark circuits with significant improvements in execution time and test set sizes.

3.2 Related Work

In [37] Corno et al. introduced a suite of synthesizable RT level benchmarks and proposed ARTIST, a Genetic Algorithm (GA) based automatic test generator. ARTIST uses GA to analyze simulation traces in the instrumented code and then provides improved test sequences to a VHDL simulator. ARTIST demonstrated the feasibility of RT-Level test generator, thus improving the overall validation flow. In [38] Li et al. proposed ATCLUB for test generation. In ATCLUB, clusters of circuit states are formed which simplifies the finite state machine and makes test generation easier. ATCLUB reduces computation time and vector count by slightly compromising on coverage. Both ARTIST and ATCLUB failed to reach several hard targets.

In recent years, HYBRO [6] and BEACON [4] have been proposed as a branch coverage driven technique for RT level test generation. HYBRO analyzes the Control Flow Graph (CFG) of the RTL statically, extracts symbolic expressions and passes them to a SMT solver. HYBRO performs circuit unrolling, but for branches that require long specific sequences, unrolling over large number of cycles becomes impractical. Also, the usage of SMT solvers usually adds high computational complexity thus increasing the computation time of overall technique. BEACON combines the ant colony optimization (ACO) method with an evolutionary technique to improve its exploration capability. It covers hard to reach targets by removing more visited paths from the search space thus improving upon final coverage. However, BEACON uses a constructive meta-heuristic algorithm (ACO) where at each step ants have to look at an entire set of paths before selecting one. Thus, a significant portion of total computational effort is required to determine the utility of all available paths which inherently slows down its convergence rate and may result in long test sequences. Although long test sequences can be compacted subsequently, via test compaction techniques such [39, 40], such procedures can still be expensive. Hence, there is a need to generate shorter test sequences to save the additional computational effort.

Whereas HYBRO and BEACON use higher level of abstraction for design validation, population based stochastic techniques have been implemented to achieve gate level stuck-at coverage [41–43]. In [44] parallel genetic algorithms were proposed to achieve significant speed up over sequential GA for test generation. In [45] a new method for state justification was proposed to achieve very high fault coverage using state-transfer sequences and

Genetic Algorithms. However, during test generation at the gate level, these metaheuristics miss the chance of using information available at higher level descriptions such as branching conditions or control paths. Recently, Gent and Hsiao in [46] proposed a mixed level test generation technique which uses a feedback mechanism between RT level and gate level. The technique used dominators in circuit graph to identify critical nodes which can lead away from target node. These critical nodes were used as guiding points for test generation.

3.3 PSOFT Framework

This section presents the proposed test generation framework and heuristics used. Figure 3.1 illustrates a high level flow of the test generation process. The HDL is first cross-compiled to C++ using Verilator [12] for faster simulation when compared to other public domain Verilog simulators. The compiled code is also instrumented which provides a one-to-one mapping between HDL source and C++ base; a database of counters related to branch activations is built. These database counters are used in determination of fitness values of particles at run time. Furthermore, Verilator provides an interface to access the internal variables and registers of DUT. The control flow graph (CFG) of the code extracted by Verilator is later used in the second stage for a controlled graphical search technique embedded in our binary PSO.

Since every primary input is mapped to a separate dimension in the search space, the value of individual element in an input test vector becomes binary in nature, hence a binary variant

of PSO is implemented. The position of every particle represents a sequence of vectors with each vector mapped to a separate primary input and is initialized with random binary values for n clock cycles forming a d -dimensional candidate solution. To promote exploration during the initial stages, the d -dimensional velocity vector is randomly initialized to high values as a logarithmic function of particle's dimension. During the first initial runs of PSOFT, the goal is to cover as many branches as possible. Thus, the fitness of an individual particle is directly related to the branch coverage achieved by it. Later, the focus shifts to covering the remaining hard-to-reach branches by adjusting the objective function and allowing for controlled explosions in the swarm population which enhances its exploration capability.

Controlled explosion of the swarm in later stages is used to target hard branches. While adding more particles enhances the exploration capability, some branches may require longer test sequences to be reached. Thus, the size of particles (corresponding to the sequence length) can be dynamically increased to allow the swarm to penetrate deeper in the circuit covering those branches. Unlike deterministic methods that can only handle on the order of hundreds of cycles, we can allow the particles to represent tens of thousands of cycles. Moreover, the graphical controlled search is activated whenever the swarm fails to achieve the desired coverage despite increases in exploration and penetration capability. The controlled search specifically targets a given branch and feedbacks the structural information gained by it to the swarm. A set of valid and critical nodes is constructed to guide the search. It has been empirically observed that the uncovered branches in many cases are related. Thus, targeting a branch from the uncovered set of branches often leads to discovery of new states

which results in covering several other previously uncovered branches.

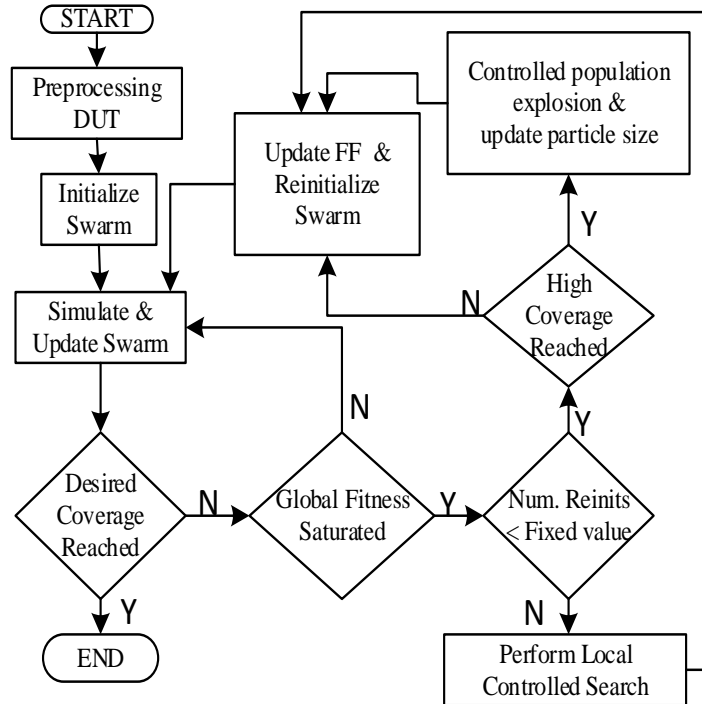


Figure 3.1: PSOFT Test Generation Framework

In PSO following equations are used to update the position of particle (i) in dimension (j)

during generation (t).

$$V_{ij}^1(t+1) = w * V_{ij}^1(t) + d_{ij,1}^1 + d_{ij,2}^1 \quad (3.1)$$

$$V_{ij}^0(t+1) = w * V_{ij}^0(t) + d_{ij,1}^0 + d_{ij,2}^0 \quad (3.2)$$

$$V_{ij}^c = \begin{cases} V_{ij}^1(t+1), & \text{if } x_{ij}(t) = 0 \\ V_{ij}^0(t+1), & \text{if } x_{ij}(t) = 1 \end{cases} \quad (3.3)$$

$$TF(x) = \left| \frac{2}{\pi} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x\pi}{2}\right) \right| \quad (3.4)$$

$$X_{ij} = \begin{cases} (X_{ij}(t))', & \text{if } rand() < V_{ij}^c \\ (X_{ij}(t)), & \text{if } rand() \geq V_{ij}^c \end{cases} \quad (3.5)$$

If $P_{ibest}^j = 1$ then $d_{ij,1}^1 = c_1 r_1$ & $d_{ij,1}^0 = -c_1 r_1$

If $P_{gbest}^j = 1$ then $d_{ij,2}^1 = c_2 r_2$ & $d_{ij,2}^0 = -c_2 r_2$

If $P_{ibest}^j = 0$ then $d_{ij,1}^1 = -c_1 r_1$ & $d_{ij,1}^0 = c_1 r_1$

If $P_{gbest}^j = 0$ then $d_{ij,2}^1 = -c_2 r_2$ & $d_{ij,2}^0 = c_2 r_2$

Where;

P_{ibest}^j : j^{th} dimensional bit value of personal best experience

P_{gbest}^j : j^{th} dimensional bit value of global best experience

$TF(x)$: V-shaped transfer function for converting continuous velocity to discrete probability

w : Inertia weight in Particle Swarm Optimization

$r_1, r_2, rand()$: Random number between (0, 1)

c_1, c_2 : Fixed constants used in BPSO

The presence of a central control allows the swarm to converge quickly but may sometimes lead to a premature convergence. In such cases, it is beneficial to reinitialize the swarm while removing the already covered branches from the target list. The updated target list is used for fitness determination in the reinitialized swarm, thus allowing the swarm to escape previously encountered local optima. A controlled graphical search is activated if the algorithm runs out of fixed number of re-initializations without reaching desired branch coverage. The information gained by this search is fed back to PSO for improved test generation. The details of the controlled graphical search algorithm is presented in Section [3.3.2](#).

3.3.1 Overcoming fitness oscillation

The position vector of the global best particle is added to the final test set while dropping the branches covered by it from the target list. In a scenario where personal best experience of particle conflicts with global best, the net force exerted on particle can make its velocity oscillate. To make an informed decision effect of second best particle in swarm is considered while updating velocity of particle in that particular dimension. This is done by adding

parameters $d_{ij,3}^1$ and $d_{ij,3}^0$ to Eq.3.1 and Eq.3.2 respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{If } P_{gbest}^j = P_{ibest}^j \text{ then } d_{ij,3}^1 = d_{ij,3}^0 = 0 \\ \text{else } & \begin{cases} \text{If } P_{sbest}^j = 1 \text{ then } d_{ij,3}^1 = c_3 r_3, d_{ij,3}^0 = -c_3 r_3 \\ \text{If } P_{sbest}^j = 0 \text{ then } d_{ij,3}^1 = -c_3 r_3, d_{ij,3}^0 = c_3 r_3 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Where;

P_{sbest}^j : j^{th} dimensional bit value of best experience second best particle in the swarm

r_3 : Random number between (0, 1)

c_3 : Fixed constant used in BPSO

Figure 3.2 represent one dimensional movement of particle due to attractive/repulsive forces applied on it.

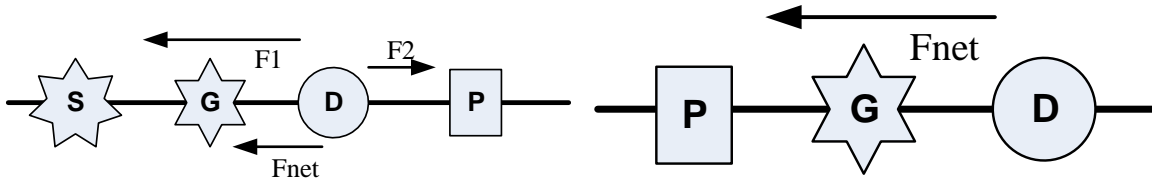


Figure 3.2: Net force on D^{th} dimension due to P_{ibest} , P_{gbest} & P_{sbest}

Figure 3.3 shows a d-dimensional position update for a particle in an iteration. It is highly probable that a few branches in DUT will require longer test sequences. To handle such cases, the particle's size is dynamically increased. The size of the swarm is also increased by

adding more particles. The larger swarm in later stages saves the computational effort when the target branch is reached in few initial runs. In addition, as the number of uncovered branches decrease, the fitness function is modified (Eq. 3.6) such that the particles covering the hard to reach branches are favored. This drives the swarm towards the unexplored regions of the search space.

$$FF(i) = \sum_{k; SW[k] \neq 0} \frac{P[k]}{SW[k]} \tag{3.6}$$

$FF(i)$ is used to calculate the fitness of i^{th} particle, where $P[k]$ and $SW[k]$ represent number of times k^{th} branch is covered by individual particle and swarm, respectively.

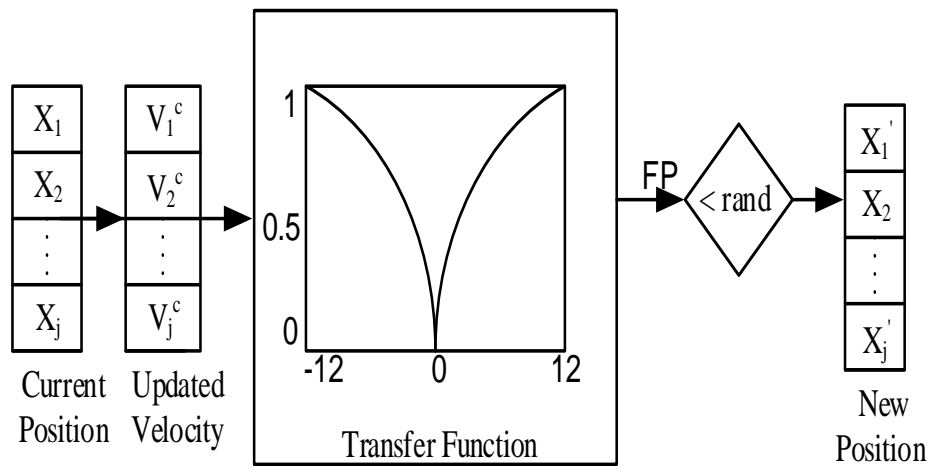


Figure 3.3: Position update by mapping velocity in bit flipping probability

3.3.2 Controlled Graphical Search Method

The graphical search is selectively activated as some branches may require very long and/or specific sequence of input vectors. Many of such uncovered branches are inter-related, and reaching any one of them can often lead to the discovery of several previously uncovered branches. The detail of the search is illustrated in Figure 3.4. The controlled search starts with a target node, a set of valid nodes and a fitness function for progress evaluation. The valid node set (VNS) represents those nodes which can lead to target node obtained from the CFG. Beginning from the start node, all the outgoing links are analyzed by expanding the child nodes in a depth-first fashion until either the target node or a leaf node is reached. Nodes leading to the target node are added to VNS. All parent nodes with at least one child present in VNS are immediately added to VNS. The branching condition leading to the target node serves as the fitness function for the search. The search terminates if no improvement is seen in the fitness value for a period of time. The graphical search is very effective especially in presence of complex looping structures in DUT.

The aim of the graphical search is to identify the critical nodes among the valid nodes. A critical node is the one which can lead the execution to a non-valid node during the current clock cycle. While the current implementation will only mark a node as critical if they lead to a non-valid node, the dominators based search in [46] will mark a valid node as a critical node if it can lead to either a non-valid node or a valid ancestral node, in case of loops. Hence, our approach does not require the critical node to be a dominator node. To reduce memory requirements, the control state of the circuit at a critical node is explored

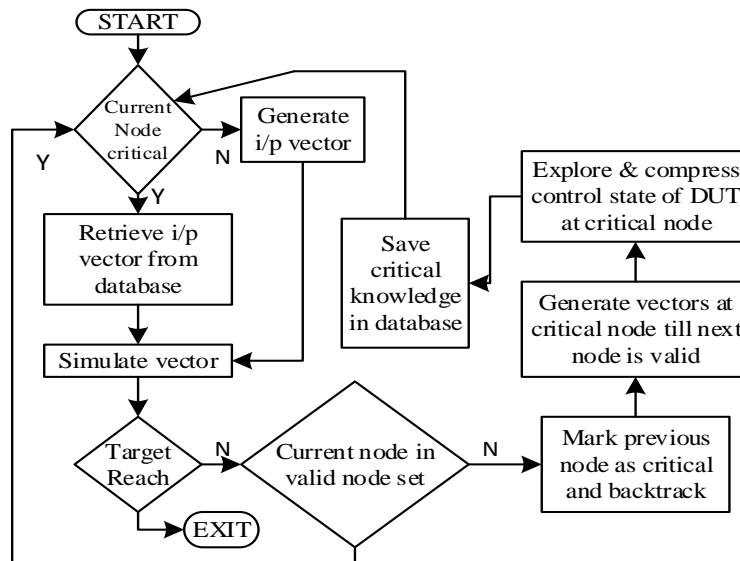


Figure 3.4: Controlled Graphical Search

by eliminating control registers that do not affect the branching condition. It is feasible that multiple input vectors may lead to the same valid node from a critical node. In such a case, bit relaxation at input side is done. For example, vectors 111 and 110 can be merged to form $11x$. The information obtained at critical nodes is stored in a database and is retrieved if the same circuit state is encountered in future. This can help generating the correct test vector at critical nodes.

To illustrate the process of the controlled graphical search, consider the b12 circuit which is a control intensive benchmark. B12 represents a Simon-says game in which the player has to guess a randomly generated sequence of numbers. A right guess will lead the player to node 63 (Figure 3.5) whereas a wrong guess will result in loss condition and termination of the game. To reach node 68 which represents the WIN state, the player has to correctly guess the number more than 500 consecutive times. Such stringent constraints demand a

very long and specific sequence of vectors, making it very difficult for stochastic methods to reach the WIN state. A subsection of CFG for b12 is shown in Figure 5 where each node represents a basic code block and edges represent the branching condition. To save space, we omit instrumented C++ code for b12 & only show a subsection of its CFG.

In this example, we target node 68 by guiding the generation of vectors using valid and critical nodes and use the corresponding branch condition in computing the fitness. As evident from the CFG, the presence of several looping structures involving critical nodes makes it very difficult to reach the WIN state. Nodes L1, L2, L3, L4, L5 represent losing states and therefore help in determination of critical nodes: 50, 58, 59, 60 & 62. The test generation process is guided by these determined valid and critical node sets. Proceeding from start node inputs vectors are generated and simulated while keeping track of the current and the last visited node. The node is marked critical if it can lead to a non-valid node (47, 49, 52, 54 & 56) during the search. The search backtracks and attempts to generate a useful input vector whenever the search does not advance towards a valid node from a critical node. The circuit state and useful input vector at critical nodes are saved in the database and retrieved during future encounters which saves test generation effort, especially in case of looping structures. It is seen that covering node 68 require a sequence of having more than 32,000 vectors & helped discover several previously uncovered nodes: 97, 98, 99, 100, 101 & 102.

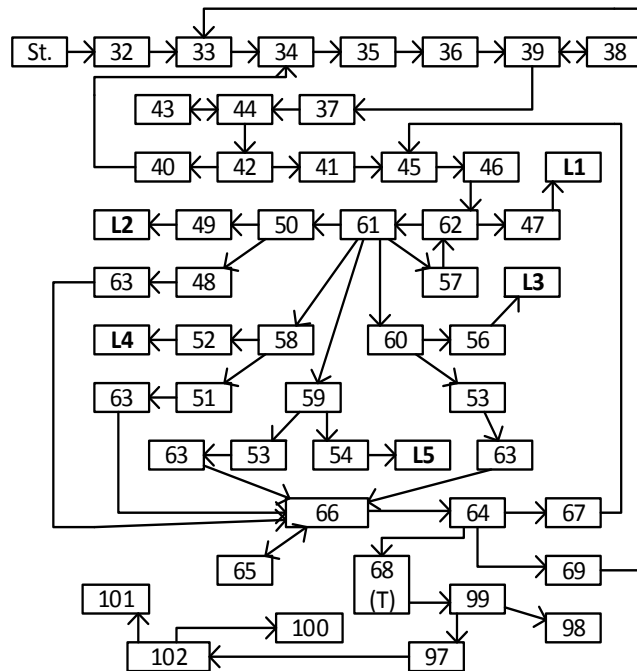


Figure 3.5: Subsection of CFG of b12 benchmark

3.4 Results

PSOFT is developed using C++ and evaluated on a 64 bit, 3.4 Ghz Intel Core i7 – 2600 CPU with 8GB memory running Ubuntu 12.04. Experiments were conducted on a set of ITC'99 [36] benchmark circuits using only one CPU core. The benchmark circuits used are control intensive & contain several hard to reach states which makes them good candidates for functional test generation. Table 3.1 lists the characteristics of the benchmarks used including number of lines of Verilog code, number of primary inputs and primary outputs, number of flip flops and number of branches. The results of the proposed algorithm is compared with HYBRO & BEACON.

Table 3.1: Benchmark Characteristics

Bench	#Line	#Branch	#PI	#PO	#FF
b01	110	26	2	2	5
b06	128	24	2	6	9
b07	92	19	1	1	49
b10	167	32	11	6	17
b11	118	32	7	6	31
b12	105	105	5	6	121
b13	379	63	10	10	53
b14	509	211	32	54	245

3.4.1 Algorithmic Settings

PSOFT based approach uses the following parameters: Initial swarm size is set to 20 with an increment of 5 particles during controlled population explosion. The number of generations for a particular initialization of swarm is typically set to 20 whereas the swarm reinitializes if no fitness improvement is seen for 6 consecutive generations. The size of particles is determined by circuits size and is set to a maximum of 3000 cycles whereas the dynamic expansion rate is set to 30% of current size. The maximum number of swarm re-initializations is set to 10. The size of the swarm and individual particles are expanded if swarm ends with zero fitness for 2 consecutive re-initializations.

3.4.2 Results

Table 3.2 compares the proposed approach with BEACON and HYBRO. For each circuit, the branch coverage, execution time, & test length are reported. For PSOFT, we also

Table 3.2: Branch Coverage and Comparison with Prior Work

Bench	PSOFT				BEACON			HYBRO		
	BC(%)	T(s)	Verilator(s)	Size	BC(%)	T(s)	Size	BC(%)	T(s)	Size
b01	100	0.015	0.06	20	100	0.0024	113	94.44	0.07	200
b06	95.83	0.055	0.07	22	95.83	0.0054	1731	94.12	0.1	NA
b07	90	0.093	0.07	53	90	0.37	759	NA	NA	NA
b10	96.87	0.384	0.08	58	93.75	11.40	3547	96.77	52.14	6450
b11	96.87	3.574	0.09	2566	96.87	11.95	1235	91.30	326.85	4530
b12	98.09	3.782	0.12	35128	98.09	111.42	37006	NA	NA	NA
b13	95.23	4.463	0.11	5765	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
b14	91.94	3.674	0.12	606	91.94	204.65	4381	83.50	301.69	NA

report the time used by Verilator. All PSOFT, BEACON and HYBRO were executed on comparable computing platforms so the difference in execution times can be attributed to the fundamental nature of underlying techniques. From the results, PSOFT achieves competitive branch coverages whereas dynamic adjustments in the particles size leads to shorter sequences. Fast convergence achieved by PSO results in significant speedup over BEACON. For example, in circuit b10, PSOFT achieves 96.77% branch coverage with just 58 vectors in 0.384 seconds, whereas BEACON achieved branch coverage of 93.75% with 3547 vectors in 11.40 seconds, & HYBRO achieves 96.77% branch coverage with 6450 vectors in 52.14 seconds. For b12, PSOFT achieves 98.09% branch coverage in only 3.782 seconds whereas BEACON takes 111.42 seconds to achieve same coverage. HYBRO did not report on this circuit. For b12, approximately 90% of the test sequence is generated using graphical search due to the difficulty of this circuit. The storage and retrieval of inputs from the feedback database saved significant test generation effort. In most circuits, our algorithm

matches or surpasses branch coverage achieved by existing methods with orders of magnitude improvement in run time and test set size.

3.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter focusses upon fast & effective stimuli generation for synthesizable RTL designs using Binary Particle Swarm Optimization (BPSO). Initially, a global search is conducted using BPSO which is later supported by a controlled graphical search method to reach target corner cases. The controlled search uses the CFG to provide hints at critical points in the state space to reach hard corner cases. The fast convergence of BPSO allows PSOFT to deliver high coverage while generating short test sequences. Substantial speedups over the state of the art methods have also been achieved for several ITC'99 benchmark circuits.

Chapter 4

SI-SMART: Functional Test

Generation for RTL Circuits Using

Loop Abstraction and Learning

Recurrence Relationships

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4.1 Introduction

Today, design validation is considered as one of the most time and resource consuming aspects of hardware design. The costs associated with late detection of bugs can be enormously high. Previously, several design coverage metrics such as line coverage, branch coverage, state coverage, etc [3] were proposed and used to evaluate the quality of the input sequences used for design validation. Random generation of such input sequences fail to achieve high design coverage as certain random resistant portions of the design are left uncovered. For achieving higher design coverage, these random input sequences are combined with manually generated directed test sequences. Manual test generation is not only time and resource consuming but also error prone. Together with stringent time to market factors, generating test sequences automatically that maximize design coverage still remains one of toughest challenges in design validation.

Design validation methodologies proposed in the last decade typically use higher levels of design abstractions such as the Register Transfer Level (RTL). Working at higher abstraction levels gives access to information critical for effective stimuli generation. Design validation techniques can be broadly classified into simulation and deterministic/formal methods. Industrial practices employ simulation based methods because of their scalability with design size and ease of use. However, simulation based methods might perform poorly when a specific sequence is needed to activate a target branch. On the other hand, formal methods offer completeness but cannot scale to larger designs. To offset these disadvantages, several

semi-formal methods [8, 9], [47] have been proposed in the past. Although semi-formal methods combine the merits of both simulation and deterministic approaches, they still face challenges when specific branching decisions depend on inputs supplied from hundreds or thousands of cycles ago. In such situations, existing semi-formal methods based on Bounded Model Checking (BMC) or symbolic execution will need to analyze and/or unroll the circuit for thousands of cycles before determining the needed input values to reach them. Although possible in theory, such approaches are practically infeasible due to the large computational costs involved.

Evolutionary algorithms such as Genetic Algorithms (GA), Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), and Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) are nature-inspired stochastic algorithms used to find optimal or near-optimal solutions to large scale optimization problems. Such algorithms try to emulate either biological evolution and/or social interactions among agents. Although these techniques have shown some success, their convergence rate can be slow, especially near the optimal point because of the stochastic behavior of the parameters involved. To accelerate convergence rate of these heuristics, they are often combined with the local search methods [48, 49]. The combination not only improves the convergence rate but also decreases the probability of getting stuck in local optima. In several previous works [50–52] such evolutionary techniques were effectively used for test generation.

What makes validation of today's designs difficult is the presence of complex loops in the DUT. For example, encryption, hashing, and other state-machines that rely on input values from many cycles in the past would make the validation process challenging. The presence of

loops in the DUT limits deterministic methods whereas simulation based methods are limited by large input spaces. In this paper, we propose SI-SMART to tackle these challenges. SI-SMART couples BPSO with an SMT-based symbolic engine to maximize branch coverage of the RTL design. Not only does SI-SMART combine the scalability of simulation and completeness of a formal method, it also eradicates the need of costly circuit analysis or explicit unrolling for many cycles by intelligently extracting useful information from the DUT. Information such as relations among variables and loops can be extremely valuable. SI-SMART thus provides a very effective guidance when the branching decisions directly or indirectly depend upon specific input values supplied many cycles earlier. In this regard, the feedback between the stochastic and deterministic engines in SI-SMART offers much more than merely the sum of individual methods.

4.2 Background

Several influential works based on abstraction-guided test generation have been proposed in the past. In [8] Shyam and Bertacco, built abstract models by using the modules that are closely related to the target condition. Abstract distances were used to guide simulation but the usage of random number generators along with the abstraction bias might force the method to get stuck in the local optimum points. In [9] and [47], efforts were made to refine the abstracted model, but each refinement added more complexity to the problem. Typically, a combination of random generator with some guidance is employed on the abstracted models

to generate test sequences.

In [50–53], random sequence generators are replaced by more sophisticated techniques such as GA, Cultural Algorithms (CA) and ACO. Such substitution improves performance; however, they may still get stuck in dead-end states. Moreover, methods in [50–53], utilize gate-level netlists for determining the abstract models. Working at lower level representations of the design makes it very difficult to mine complex relationships among circuit signals.

Liu and Vasudevan in [6] proposed HYBRO for functional test generation at RT level. HYBRO combines dynamic and static analysis of the RTL source code to generate validation vectors. HYBRO performs concrete simulation and passes the mutated guard in the execution trace to a SMT solver to generate new vectors. Although HYBRO can examine every path in theory, it can lead to path explosion which ultimately limits the number of unrolling cycles that can be considered. Consequently, branches that require long vector sequences are not reached. Recently in [5], Liu and Vasudevan proposed Enhanced Star method which builds on an explored symbolic state caching technique to handle path explosion problem. Enhanced Star achieves better coverage and is also computationally efficient when compared to HYBRO. To handle scalability issues in HYBRO, Li et al. [4] presented BEACON which is an ACO-based method combined with an evolutionary technique. BEACON unlike HYBRO does not resort to deterministic engines and can scale to larger designs. However, for circuits that have a larger input space, test generation techniques like BEACON might have difficulty generating the needed vectors.

4.3 Motivation

Consider the Hardware Descriptive Language (HDL) based finite state machine (FSM) as shown in Figure 1. Suppose we discover that the generated test sequences fail to reach branch 6. In order to reach branch 6, we need to supply the necessary input values when variable **SV** has the value **S1**, where S1, S2, ... ,S20 are user-defined macros. Manual derivation of such inputs is not only difficult, but also error-prone. As the input search space is large, it is highly unlikely that stochastic/simulation methods will reach target branch 6. Another approach could be using a semi-formal technique as proposed in Enhanced Star [5].

```

input [31:0] input; reg [31:0] var1;
reg [7:0] cnt, state;
Case(state):
  S1: Br[1]; var1 <= input; state<= S2;cnt <= 0;
  S2: Br[2];
      if (cnt < 100)
          var1 <= var1+10; state<= S2;
          cnt <= cnt + 1; Br[3];
      else
          Br[4]; state <= S3;
  S3: Br[5];
      if (var1 == 10000) state<= S4; Br[6];
      else Br[7]; state <= S20;

  S4: ..... Br[8];
      .
      .
  S20: Br[78]; state<= S1;
  default: state <= S1;

```

Figure 4.1: Example whose large loop (between branch 2 and 3 in S2) and large input search space (32 bit input) makes it difficult for techniques like HYBRO and BEACON to reach branch 6 (Br[6])

However, in order to derive the correct inputs, Enhanced Star has to unroll the above circuit for hundreds of cycles which is often impractical due to the high computational cost of SMT solvers. SI-SMART tries to cover target branch 6 without performing any loop unrolling while dealing with the large input search space.

SI-SMART involves stochastic and deterministic phases with feedback between them for test generation. While we rely on BPSO to maximize coverage, the objective of the formal phase of SI-SMART changes to that of the Symbolic Backward Execution (SBE). This allows us to better target specific regions of the DUT's state space. In the above example, instead of analyzing the circuit for 100 cycles, we use an SMT solver to directly solve the circuit for the 100th cycle using SBE. The initial state for the time-frame is unconstrained. For example, for the target branch 6 in Figure 4.1, the path condition is iteratively constructed as:

$$\mathbf{var1} == 10000 \Rightarrow \mathbf{var1} == 10000 \wedge \mathbf{cnt} == 100 \Rightarrow \mathbf{var1} == 10000 \wedge \mathbf{cnt} == 100$$

$$\wedge \mathbf{var1} == \mathbf{input}$$

During backward CFG traversal, the SMT solver is repeatedly called to check the feasibility of the path while adding new constraints. Backtracking is implemented to select a different route if the selected path becomes unsatisfiable at any stage of the graph traversal. Implementation of SSA and coupling the branch instrumentation points to values of the state variables ensures that the multi-cycle nature of the CFG is preserved during graph traversal. The values of real DUT inputs along with the state variables are captured while solving the constraints. In the above case the final information retrieved from the solver will be:

SV: S1; input = 10000

Consequently supplying an input equal to 10000 when SV becomes equal to S1 helps in reaching the target branch 6. However, it is observed that critical information can be lost due to the loop abstraction (Figure1). This loss in information generates false input values which will not allow BPSO to reach the targeted branch in the first iteration itself. Counteraction in the form of swarm effect on selective cycles/vectors (in this case when SV equals S1) in the sequence along with the pattern search method (Hooke Jeeves) is taken against such information loss in SI-SMART. We will further explain this concept in the following sections.

4.4 Test Generation Framework

The high level description of SI-SMART is as follows: Initially, the RTL design is cross compiled to a C++ code using Verilator [12] for faster simulation when compared to other public domain Verilog simulators. Verilator also instruments the DUT, thus building a database of counters corresponding to various branch activations. After cross compilation, the behavioral representation of the DUT provided in the HDL undergoes an automatic preprocessing stage. During this preprocessing stage, the HDL source code is also instrumented such that the branch instrumentation points are in-line with the Verilated C++ code. The instrumented HDL code is then statically analyzed to extract the corresponding CFG. Simple loops in the design along with branching structures are also statically extracted. Both RTL cross-compilation and preprocessing step incur a one-time cost. Next, a few runs of BPSO

are conducted with the aim of maximizing the branch coverage. In this phase, adjustment of the fitness function is made to drive the swarm from the frequently visited regions to the unexplored regions of the search space. Since BPSO works on the input space, there might be a few hard to reach branches left uncovered. These branches are then analyzed individually by a SMT solver whose initial time frame is unconstrained. The specified branches are targeted one by one with the goal of automatically finding the correct test inputs as well as the corresponding cycle in which those inputs should be supplied. To generate the needed values, the formal tool traverses the extracted CFG backwards starting from the target branch, while performing a static single assignment (SSA) to differentiate variables across different time frames. The code segments in various branches that do not affect the target conditions are dynamically trimmed off during graph traversal. The target branch is declared functionally unreachable if all the paths leading to the target branch are found to be unsatisfiable by the SMT solver. If any path is satisfiable, the critical inputs captured are then supplied to BPSO. The swarm action is now applied only to selective cycles as identified by the formal tool while attempting to reach the target. To accelerate the convergence speed of BPSO near the global optimum point, BPSO is now coupled with a pattern search method (Hooke Jeeves) which acts as a local search method. The application of BPSO along with the Hooke Jeeves method encounters the information loss, if any, due to loop abstraction as the variables governing the target condition might be influenced inside the abstracted loop. For example: in Figure 1 the register variable **var1** used in the branching condition for branch 6 is updated inside the loop formed between branch 2 and 3. However during graph

traversal (Figure 2), SI-SMART does not analyze or unroll the loop which results in loss of information regarding the variable modification.

Consequently the information regarding the variable modification is not captured during the formal phase. This information loss is later compensated by the combination of BPSO and HJ. The combination has a faster convergence rate and better search space exploitation capability when compared to BPSO. Algorithm 1 shows the pseudo-code of SI-SMART. We discuss different phases of SI-SMART in following sections:

4.4.1 Instrumenting HDL code and Static Analysis

In the first stage of SI-SMART, we statically extract certain semantics from the DUT. The HDL code is instrumented such that the location of instrumentation counters have a one-to-one mapping with that of the Verilated C++ code. These counters establish communication between the BPSO and the SBE engine. At the same time, the control flow graph of the HDL code is also extracted. Each node of the CFG corresponds to the basic code block executed in the branch whereas conditions to reach the branch are represented by the edges. Also other information such as the name, type (integer, bitvector etc), width, and functionality (regular variable/FSM control variable) for different signals present in the DUT are extracted. This information will be helpful to generate the path constraints during graph traversal. It is noted that the different instrumentation points enveloped inside the same value of the FSM variable correspond to the same cycle (Figure 4.2). This information is used while applying

Algorithm 1 SI-SMART

```

1: Instrument HDL code & perform static analysis
2: Mark structurally unreachable branches as covered
3: Initialize binary particle swarm
4: for all swarm_reinits re = 1 to Re do
5:   for all generations g = 1 to G do
6:     for all particles p = 1 to P do
7:       Simulate & update particle's position and velocity.
8:       Update  $P_{best}$ ,  $G_{best}$  &  $S_{best}$ 
9:     end for
10:   end for
11:   if enre = 1 then Reinitialize Swarm & goto 5
12:   end if
13: end for
14: for all uncovered_branches b = 1 to B do
15:   Traverse CFG, perform SBE and SSA
16:   if path_unfeasible then Backtrack
17:   else if All Path Unfeasible then
18:     Mark branch unreachable, goto 15
19:   else
20:     Extract Fitness Function (FF) from the target branch & feedback BPSO
21:   end if
22:   Reinitilaize BPSO with new information & do 6-8
23:   if target uncovered but fitness improved then
24:     Increase Particle Size & do 6-8
25:   else if target uncovered & fitness not improved then
26:     for all generations g = 1 to G do
27:       Perform 6-8, set  $G_{best}$  as the start point for HJ
28:       Perform local search using HJ
29:       if target covered then
30:         Mark all new branches found as covered
31:       end if
32:     end for

```

```

33:   else
34:     For new target, extract FF from target branch & feedback BPSO
35:   end if
36: end for

```

SSA on different variables during the CFG traversal. Figure 4.2 shows the extracted CFG and node information for each branch for the example given in Figure 4.1.

As seen from the CFG in Figure 4.2; branch 79 does not have any incoming edges. Hence this branch is declared as a structurally unreachable branch. Such branches typically correspond to the default statements which are deliberately added to FSMs in the HDL code to prevent the synthesis tools from inferring sequential logic and to protect the design behavior from soft errors. After static analysis, SI-SMART proceeds to the test generation phase using BPSO.

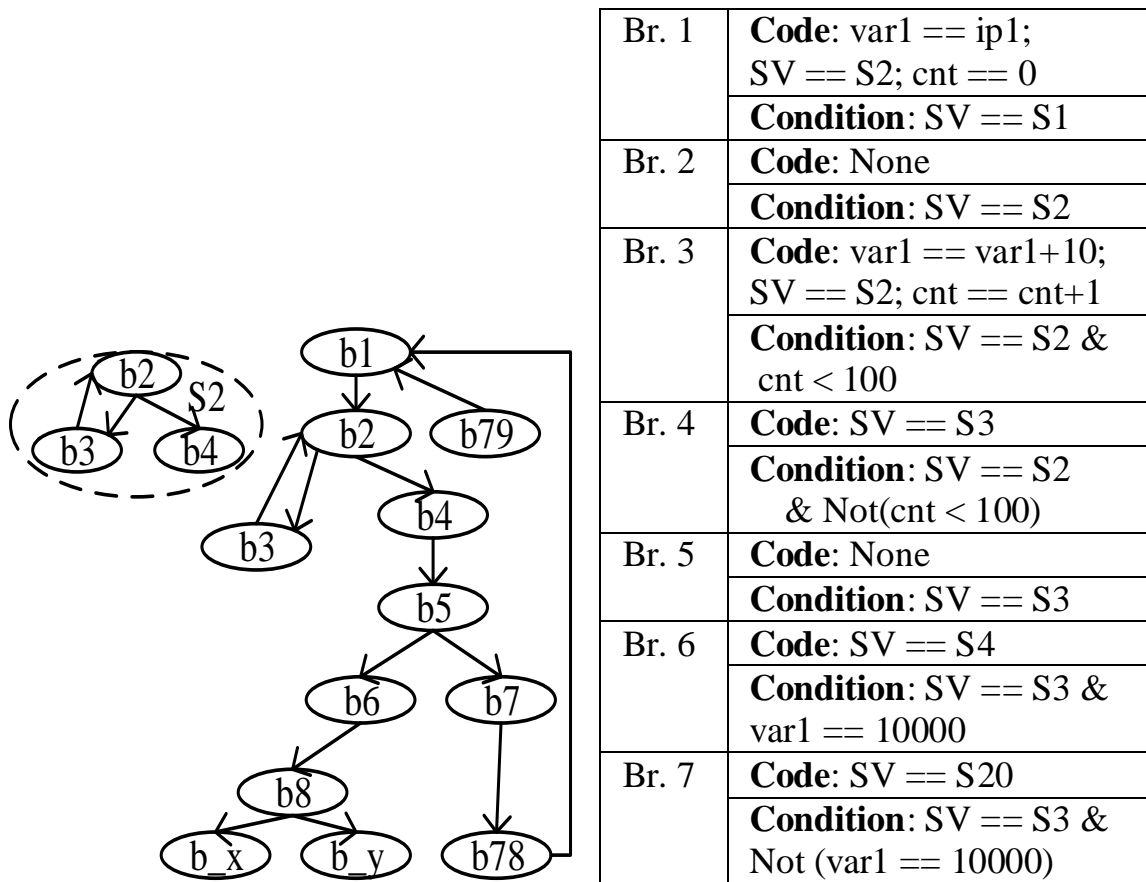


Figure 4.2: CFG and node information for the example shown in Fig.4.1

4.5 Test Generation using BPSO

To generate test stimuli using BPSO, each primary input present in the DUT is mapped to an individual dimension in the search space. The position vector of the particle is randomly initialized for N clock cycles resulting in a d-dimensional candidate solution of N vectors. The d-dimensional velocity vector is also randomly initialized to high values using a logarithmic function of the particle's dimension. High velocities promote exploration of the search space which is desired in earlier stages of swarm evolution. During the first few runs of the swarm, the goal is to cover as many branches as possible. Particle's fitness in these runs is directly proportional to the branch coverage achieved by it. However in later runs of BPSO, the focus shifts to cover the hard to reach states. Using a modified fitness function in latter stages allows the swarm to drive away from the frequently explored to less traveled regions of the search space. Particles that reach the least frequently visited regions get more weightage (Eq. 4.1).

$$FF(i) = \sum_{k; SW[k] \neq 0} \frac{P[k]}{SW[k]} \quad (4.1)$$

FF (i) is used to calculate the fitness of i^{th} particle, where P[k] and SW[k] represent number of times k^{th} branch is covered by individual particle and swarm, respectively. Certain hard to reach branches might necessitate longer input sequences. To reach such hard to reach branches, dynamic adjustments in the size of both the swarm and the particle is done. Such adjustments enhance search space exploration capability and allow deeper penetration in the

circuit. Also dynamically increasing the swarm size and the particle size can help reduce overall computational complexity as the desired branch coverage might be attained in earlier stages of BPSO.

The simulation-based nature of BPSO allows it to be scalable to larger designs as the individual particles can represent test sequences for tens of thousands of cycles. The fitness/quality of the particle depends upon the branch coverage it acquires. For determining fitness of individual particles, branch instrumentation counter database present in the Verilated C++ code is utilized.

The position and velocities of the particles are updated using Eq. 1 – 5 (Section 2.5). It is noted that each dimension in the particle's position is binary in nature, therefore Eq. 1 and Eq. 2 can have an oscillating effect on the particle's velocity in situations where the personal best experience of the particle conflicts with the global best experience of the swarm. In such situations, the personal experience of the second best particle in the swarm is considered while updating velocity of the particle in that particular dimension. This is done by adding parameters $d_{ij,3}^1$ and $d_{ij,3}^0$ to Eq.1 and Eq.2 (Section 2.5) respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{If } P_{gbest}^j = P_{ibest}^j \text{ then } d_{ij,3}^1 = d_{ij,3}^0 = 0 \\ \text{else } & \begin{cases} \text{If } P_{sbest}^j = 1 \text{ then } d_{ij,3}^1 = c_3 r_3, d_{ij,3}^0 = -c_3 r_3 \\ \text{If } P_{sbest}^j = 0 \text{ then } d_{ij,3}^1 = -c_3 r_3, d_{ij,3}^0 = c_3 r_3 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

In the above equation, P_{sbest}^j represent the j^{th} dimensional bit value of second best particle in the swarm; r_3 represents random number between $(0, 1)$ whereas c_3 is a fixed constant.

As noticed from Eq. 1 and Eq. 2, the global best particle has a direct effect on all the individual particles. This presence of a central control (G_{best}) and the one way information sharing mechanism allows BPSO to achieve a high convergence rate. But this may also result in a premature convergence, forcing the swarm to get trapped in a local optimal point. In such situations, the swarm is reinitialized while removing the branches covered by global best particle from the target list. SI-SMART proceeds to the formal phase of the algorithm, if BPSO runs out of the fixed number of re-initializations without achieving the desired branch coverage.

4.5.1 Symbolic Backward Execution using Z3

In the formal phase of SI-SMART, the SBE engine walks over the CFG extracted by the static analysis in the first phase of SI-SMART. The path constraint for the SMT solver is iteratively formed by performing a logical conjugation of code present inside the node and the incoming edge. An incident node with the smallest branch id is selected first, in case multiple nodes are incident on the current node. For example, if nodes 5 and 6 are inputs to node 7, then we will first select node 5 during graph traversal. Backtracking is also implemented to explore other incident nodes, in case path unsatisfiability is reported by the SMT solver. For example: Node 6 will be searched if SMT solver reports unsatisfiability after searching

node 5. The target branch is declared to be functionally unreachable if unsatisfiability is reported by the SMT solver for all the physical paths leading to the target branch in the CFG. In addition, the state variables are not used in generation of the path constraint as their values can be determined by the instrumentation counters (Figure 4.2). The concept of backtracking and functional unreachability is further explained by using a subsection of the ITC'99 b11 benchmark circuit with branch 20 (**st:6**) as the target branch as shown in Figure4.3.

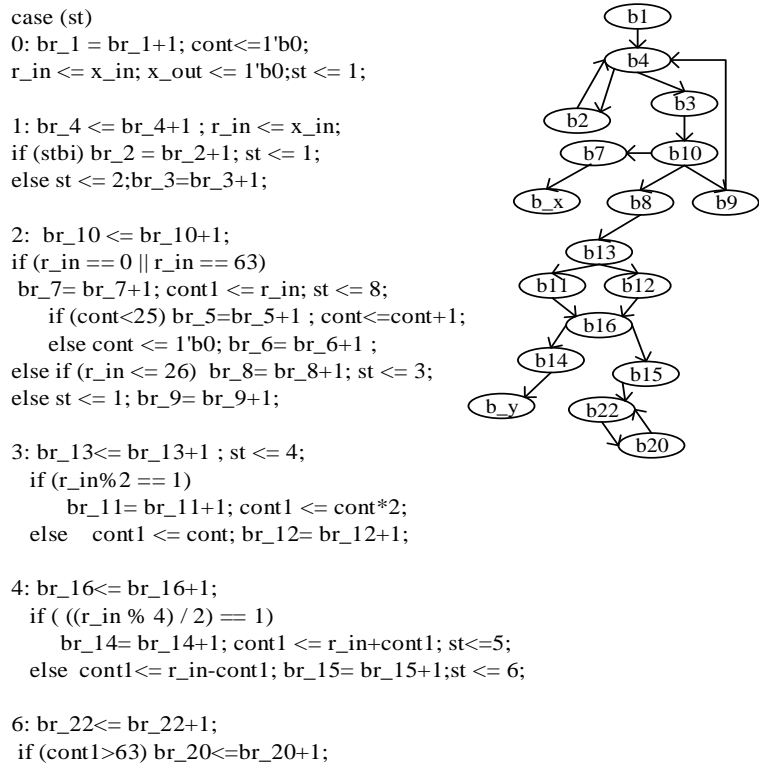


Figure 4.3: Unreachability analysis on subsection of ITC'99 b11 circuit

In Figure 4.3, we aim to reach branch 20 (br_20) which is reachable when $cont1 > 63$ and $st = 6$. In the above subsection of b11 circuit; x.in and stbi are inputs to the DUT, cont1 is an integer variable whereas r.in and cont are 6 bit unsigned registers i.e. the

minimum value for `r_in` and `cont` will be zero. All this information is added to the SMT solver instance. So starting from branch 20, the new constraints for the path (Figure 4.3) `20 → 22 → 15 → 16 → 11 → 13 → ..` that are iteratively added to solver instance are as follows:

`cont1 > 63 → no new constraint → cont1 == BV2Int(r_in) - cont1_1, Not ((r_in%4)/2 == 1) → cont1_1 == 2*cont, r_in%2 == 1`

The SMT solver gives an unsatisfiable flag when constraints for branch 11 are added to the path constraint. The SBE engine then backtracks and updates its path by taking branch 12 (Figure 4.3). The assertions and the new variables (SSA) related to branch 11 that were previously inserted are popped out of the stack corresponding to the Z3 solver instance. In this example the path `20 → 22 → 15 → 16 → 12 → 13 → ..` is also reported as unsatisfiable by SMT solver. Since there are no nodes left to backtrack to, branch 20 is declared as a functionally unreachable branch. However for the example shown in Figure4.1, the target branch 6 is functionally reachable. SMT solver helps to find the value of state variable along with the inputs to be supplied for satisfiable paths as discussed in Section 4.3. This information is now fed back to BPSO.

Also to evaluate the fitness of the particles in BPSO-HJ combination, fitness functions are extracted from the branching conditions of the target branch. Since the branching condition of the target branch might be a conjunction of bitwise or logical relations (AND/OR/NOT) between different variables, the extraction can result in the formation of multiple fitness functions. For example: targeting branch 5 in Figure 4.3 will result in following fitness

functions:

FF1: $\text{abs}(\text{r_in} - 0) + \text{abs}(\text{cont} - 25)$

FF2: $\text{abs}(\text{r_in} - 63) + \text{abs}(\text{cont} - 25)$

where **abs(parameter)** refers to the absolute value of the parameter. In case of occurrence of multiple fitness functions, the minimum value of all the fitness functions (FF1, FF2 etc) computed is taken as the desired fitness value. After determining the branch reachability and extraction of fitness functions, the useful information is fed back to BPSO to execute the final phase of SI-SMART.

4.5.2 Reattempting target branch with BPSO and Hooke Jeeves

After retrieving the desired information from the SMT solver, a re-attempt is made to reach the target branch using a combination of BPSO and Hooke Jeeves. We explain this concept using the example shown in Figure4.1. As discussed in Section 4.3, to reach the target branch 6 (Figure4.1), the SBE engine gives the input value to be supplied as:

SV: S1; input = 10000

And the fitness function extracted from branch condition for evaluating particle's fitness will be:

FF: abs (var1 - 10000)

Now during simulation of the particle, the FSM variable (**SV**) is tracked and the position vector of the particle is overwritten with the value supplied by the SMT solver when FSM

variable \mathbf{SV} equals S1. Since the target condition was updated inside the abstracted loop (between br_2 and br_3 in Fig. 4.1), the input value used for overwriting the position vectors does not allow the BPSO to reach the target branch 6. However, the fitness value of the particle is recorded whenever it hits the target FSM variable value (SV: S3 in the current example). Since some information was lost due to loop abstraction, the particle's fitness does not show any improvement. This is a cue to actually apply swarm action on the information supplied by the SMT solver. Equations (1 – 5) (Section 2.5) are now applied to selective cycles only (when $\mathbf{SV} = \mathbf{S1}$ in the present case). However slow convergence of global search forces the BPSO to consume a lot of functional evaluations. To encounter such undesirability, BPSO is coupled with the Hooke Jeeves (local search) method. Hooke Jeeves starts with the G_{best} position as its base solution. Similar to BPSO, HJ is also applied to selective cycles only (when $\mathbf{SV} = \mathbf{S1}$ in current example). HJ uses the branching condition of the target branch as the fitness function to determine the utility of the exploratory and pattern search moves. The couple achieves a better convergence rate and reduces the likelihood of the swarm getting trapped in local minima.

4.6 Experimental Results

SI-SMART is developed using C++ and Python programming languages and is evaluated on a 64 bit, 3.4Ghz Intel Core i7 – 2600 CPU with 8GB memory running Ubuntu 12.04. Only one CPU core is used for each benchmark tested. The communication between C++ and

Python modules was established using Python/C APIs. The formal phase of SI-SMART is implemented using a Python version of Z3 SMT solver. A set of ITC'99 benchmark circuits [36] is used for performance evaluation of SI-SMART. The benchmarks used are control intensive and contain several hard to reach states making them suitable candidates for functional test generation. In addition, we created a set of difficult variants of the original circuits for experimental evaluation. The variants were created by expanding the input width for b01, b06 and b11 benchmark circuits, whereas a separate process is added to the b13 benchmark circuit. The characteristics of benchmarks used including the number of lines of Verilog code, number of primary inputs, primary outputs, processes, flip flops and branches are presented in Table 4.1. The results of SI-SMART are compared with a basic BPSO, Enhanced Star and BEACON as shown in Table 4.2. Basic BPSO was run on the machine described above whereas BEACON was run on Intel Core i7–3770k CPU with 16GB memory running Ubuntu 14.04 using only one CPU core. The execution time for different phases of SI-SMART along with the branch unreachability analysis is presented in Table 4.3. Figure 4.4 presents the pictorial flow of SI-SMART.

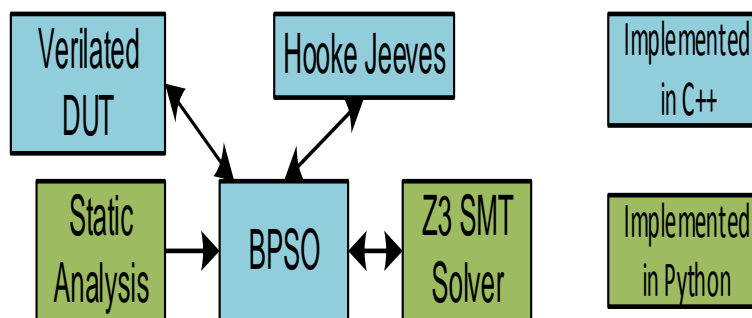


Figure 4.4: Pictorial Representation of Algorithmic Flow in SI-SMART

Table 4.1: Benchmark Characteristics

Bench	#Line	#Branch	#PI	#PO	#FF	#Process
b01	152	26	2	2	10	1
b01_m1	152	26	32	32	25	1
b06	154	24	2	6	13	1
b06_m1	154	24	32	6	13	1
b11	180	33	7	6	59	1
b11_m1	180	33	17	6	69	1
b11_m2	180	33	32	6	69	1
b13	422	64	10	10	66	5
b13_m1	504	80	20	10	66	6

4.6.1 Algorithmic Settings

SI-SMART uses the following parameters: Swarm size is initially set to 20 with increments of 5 particles to enhance exploration capability. The number of generations used for a particular swarm initialization is 20 whereas swarm re-initializes if no improvement is seen in the global best fitness for 5 consecutive generations. The size of an individual particle depends upon circuit size and is set to a maximum of 3000 cycles for original ITC'99 benchmarks whereas it is set to 6000 cycles for difficult variants of benchmarks to give BPSO enough chance to maximize its coverage for a fair comparison. The particle's expansion rate is set to 30% of current size. The maximum number of swarm re-initializations is set to 6. The size of the swarm and individual particles are expanded if the swarm ends with zero fitness for 2 consecutive re-initializations. The Python modules do not require any user inputs other than the HDL description of DUT and Verilated C++ code for branch instrumentation.

Table 4.2: Branch Coverage and Comparison with Prior Work

Bench	BPSO			Enhanced Star			BEACON			SI-SMART		
	BC(%)	T (s)	Size	BC(%)	T (s)	Size	BC(%)	T (s)	Size	BC(%)	T (s)	Size
b01	100	0.019	25	94.44	0.07	32	100	0.002	110	100	0.208	25
b01.m1	38.46	8.673	155	NA	NA	NA	38.46	161.78	923	100	11.199	259
b06	95.83	0.185	125	94.12	0.45	362	95.83	0.01	685	100	0.365	125
b06.m1	54.166	8.903	2105	NA	NA	NA	54.166	188.89	18256	100	10.538	2171
b11	93.93	2.03	3000	91.3	16.47	745	93.93	10.79	4148	100	2.381	3000
b11.m1	90.9	14.001	8956	NA	NA	NA	90.9	130.96	28414	100	14.538	9069
b11.m2	24.24	8.608	2102	NA	NA	NA	36.36	293.82	7015	96.96	12.861	2402
b13	93.75	0.941	2255	NA	NA	NA	93.75	13.51	5514	100	1.211	2255
b13.m1	86.25	16.585	2405	NA	NA	NA	86.25	316.01	8711	100	19.954	2483

4.6.2 Results

Table 4.2 compares SI-SMART with BPSO, BEACON and Enhanced Star. For each ITC'99 benchmark branch coverage, overall execution time, and final test length are reported in Table 4.2. However, it should be noted that achieving higher coverage is the top priority and for fair comparison other parameters should be considered only when comparable branch coverage is achieved.

From the results, it is seen that SI-SMART is able to achieve 100% branch coverage in almost all cases (Table 4.2), which is a significant improvement over existing methods. In addition, the unique information sharing mechanism and fast convergence in BPSO results in speed up over Enhanced Star and BEACON. For example, in a difficult variant of ITC'99 circuit, b11.m2; SI-SMART achieves 96.96% branch coverage in less than 13 seconds whereas the basic BPSO and BEACON achieve low coverages of 24.24% and 36.36%, respectively, consuming much more time as well.

The example shown in Fig. 4.1 forms a subsection of the new process added in the b13 benchmark circuit to form b13_m1 circuit. For b13_m1, both basic BPSO and BEACON fail to cover the target branch (in Fig. 4.1) thus resulting in lower design coverage when compared to SI-SMART. A similar performance gap is observed for several other circuits as well. Another difficult circuit available in ITC'99 benchmark suite is the b12 circuit. The b12 circuit represents a Simon-says game and is memory intensive in nature. We plan to handle memory based designs in future versions of SI-SMART.

Table 4.3: Execution Time & Unreachability Analysis

Bench	Execution time (sec) for different phases of SI-SMART				#Branch	
	Verilator	Static Analysis	BPSO	SBE	SU	FU
b01	0.067	0.189	0.019	0	0	0
b01_m1	0.068	0.183	8.673	2.342	0	0
b06	0.068	0.180	0.185	0	1	0
b06_m1	0.067	0.221	8.903	1.413	1	0
b11	0.072	0.184	2.03	0.167	1	1
b11_m1	0.068	0.189	14.001	0.347	1	1
b11_m2	0.070	0.182	8.608	4.071	1	1
b13	0.079	0.270	0.941	0	4	0
b13_m1	0.087	0.343	16.58	3.026	5	0

Note: ** includes the time for formal phase and BPSO-HJ stage. **SU** and **FU** represent the number of structurally and functionally unreachable branches.

Table 4.3 reflects the execution time for different phases of SI-SMART and the number of unreachable branches detected. In column 2, we report the time taken by Verilator for source-to-source transformation. Column 3 and 4 reports the time consumed for statically analyzing the DUT and runs of BPSO to maximize the branch coverage. Column 5 gives the total time consumed by SI-SMART during CFG traversal using SBE and BPSO-HJ stage, a zero in this column indicates that 100% branch coverage was achieved before reaching the formal

phase. Structurally and functionally unreachable (**SU & FU**) branches (in columns 6 and 7) detected by SI-SMART are marked as covered, thus increasing overall branch coverage.

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter focusses on tackling problems faced by techniques based on Bounded Model Checking, Symbolic Execution and Simulation based methods in general. The presence of loops typically limits the deterministic engines whereas large input space causes problems for simulation based methods. SI-SMART tackles all these problems by eliminating the need of both explicit unrolling of the control flow graph (CFG) and analysis of many cycles as necessitated by traditional methods. This is achieved by abstracting loops present in the design under test (DUT) and attempting to learn the recurrence relations among the variables that directly or indirectly affect the target branch condition. An SMT solver is used to find correlations between the inputs and the target branches. This learned knowledge is later fed back to a combination of Binary Particle Swarm Optimization (BPSO) and Hooke Jeeves method to attempt to reach the uncovered branches. SI-SMART is evaluated on several difficult variants of ITC'99 benchmark circuits with significant improvements in branch coverage, test sequence lengths and execution times over existing methods.

Chapter 5

Conclusion and Future Work

5.1 Conclusion

Test generation for RTL design validation is a challenging problem. In this thesis we have addressed some of the problems associated with effective test generation to quickly achieve high design coverage. In this regard, Particle Swarm Optimization based frameworks have been proposed in this thesis. PSO is combined with information extracted from the design to help generate input sequences for design validation. The two major contributions proposed in this thesis can be summarized as follows:

- In the first contribution, we propose Particle Swarm Optimization based test generation technique for RTL design validation. The proposed method builds upon the fast converging nature of the PSO swarm to quickly generate useful test sequences. To

aid the test generation process, a graphical search technique is embedded in PSO to provide important structural information of DUT. We have shown that our method is highly effective in exploring the control state space by achieving high branch coverage and offers significant advantage in terms of computational efficiency and test set size over existing methods.

- In the second contribution, we have addressed the problems associated with traditional Bounded Model Checking (BMC) and symbolic execution based semi-formal methods for test generation. Also the proposed technique overcomes the shortcomings of simulation based methods. In the proposed method, we hybridize Binary Particle Swarm and symbolic backward execution for RTL design validation. The proposed method combines the fast convergence and scalability of a stochastic search method and the completeness of a formal tool to generate test sequences. The main novelty of SI-SMART is to prevent the need for formal circuit analysis of many cycles by abstracting the loops and the ability to encounter information losses if any are due to the loop abstraction. We have shown that our method is highly effective in the exploration of control state space of the DUT and can achieve high coverage in very large input search space as well. In several of the difficult benchmark circuits, significant improvements were achieved.

Both the proposed methods have achieved better coverage in shorter times when compared to the existing methods. The second framework proposes enhances to the first framework and attempts to resolve branches which cannot be covered by PSO alone.

5.2 Future Work

While developing the proposed frameworks we can come across several ideas worth exploring as a part of future research work:

- Branch coverage is the metric used in both of the proposed frameworks. Although an attempt is made to differentiate hard and easy branches in latter stages of BPSO, the differentiation depends upon the performance of the particles in the swarm. Another approach could be classifying toughness of branches by performing a static analysis on DUT. The RTL design typically comprises of nested structures. Such nested structuring could be useful to classify the hardness of a branch to be covered. Also branching condition can be used to determine the probability of a branch to be covered. This could be further explored.
- Both the proposed frameworks use Verilator for simulating the DUT. However usage of Verilator doesn't allow for a generic test generation framework and wrappers have to be modified for simulating different DUTs. Verilator is faster than other public domain Verilog simulators. However, the overall test generation can be made faster if a FPGA based approach is taken for test generation. PSO is a simple algorithm and can be implemented on FPGA.
- Both the approaches use BPSO at their core. Since BPSO is a stochastic technique, the length of final test sequences is typically longer than ideal. Certain compaction strategies can be implemented to reduce the length of final test sequences.

- The static analysis proposed in SI-SMART can be further improved to increase the branch coverage for memory intensive circuits and pipelined circuits. Also, additional information can be extracted from DUT to encounter loss of information due to loop abstraction and help test generation.

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