Chapter 16: Design for Testability

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Objectives

After completing this chapter, you will be able to:

- Describe various fault models
- Understand the fundamentals of fault detection
- Understand the difficulties of sequential circuit tests
- Understand the basic principles of test vector generation
- Describe the basic principles of testable circuit design
- Understand the principle of boundary scan standard (IEEE1149.1)

Terminology Definition

- A defect means the unintended difference between the implemented hardware and its design.
 - Process defects
 - Material defects
 - Age defects
 - Package defects
- An error is the wrong output signal produced by a defective circuit.
- A fault is a representation of a defect at an abstracted function level.

Fault Models --- Stuck-at/Bridge Faults

- The most common fault models used today:
 - A stuck-at-0 fault is modeled by assigning a fixed value of 0 to a signal line or net in the circuit.
 - A stuck-at-1 fault is modeled by assigning a fixed value of 1 to a signal line or net in the circuit.
 - A bridge fault is a shorting between any set of lines (nets).





Fault Models --- Stuck-Open/Closed Faults

- A stuck-open fault is modeled as a switch being permanently in open state.
- A stuck-closed (stuck-on) fault is modeled as a switch being permanently in shorted state.
- The effect of stuck-open fault is to produce a floating state at the output of the faulty logic circuit.
- The effect of stuck-closed fault is produce a power supply to ground conducting path.



Fault Equivalence/Collapse/Coverage

- Fault equivalence means two faults of a logic circuit transform the circuit such that two faulty circuits have the same output functions.
- Fault collapse means the process to select one fault from each equivalence set.

Collapse ratio = |set of collapsed faults| / |set of faults|

To achieve a world-class quality level, the fault coverage of a circuit has in excess of 98.5%.

Fault coverage = number of detected faults / total number of faults

Defect level



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Fault Detection --- A Basic Model of CUT

- The controllability of a particular node in a logic circuit is a measure of the ease of setting the node to a 1 or a 0 from the inputs.
- The observability of a particular node in a logic circuit is the degree to which you can observe the node at the outputs.



Fault Detection --- Detectable and Undetectable Faults

- A testable fault means that at least one input assignments can be found to make the outputs different between the fault-free and faulty circuits.
- An untestable fault means a fault for which no test can be found.
 - A redundant gate will cause some nets associated with it to be untestable. $x = \frac{x}{y}$



Fault Detection --- An Example of Complete Test Set



✤ With test vectors of {(0,1), (1,0), (1,1), all stuck-at faults can be tested.

Difficulty of Sequential Circuit Test

Verification of state table

- Transfer the machine into a known state: a homing sequence
- Test all transitions form that state
- Verify each transition by first taking the machine to a specific initial state, applying the input to perform the transition and then verifying the final state.

Homing Sequence

- A homing sequence is an input sequence that produces an output response that uniquely indicates the state of a machine after the homing sequence has been applied.
- A preset homing sequence is a homing sequence that does not employ the output response to determine subsequent inputs in the sequence.

Example

DC	NS, z							
PS		1						
A	<i>B</i> ,0	A, 1						
В	<i>B</i> ,0	<i>A</i> ,0						
С	<i>D</i> ,0	C , 1						
D	<i>B</i> ,0	<i>C</i> , 1						

Example: Homing Sequence

DC	NS, z							
PS	$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$	1						
A	<i>B</i> ,0	<i>A</i> ,1						
В	<i>B</i> ,0	<i>A</i> ,0						
С	<i>D</i> ,0	<i>C</i> ,1						
D	<i>B</i> ,0	<i>C</i> ,1						



Initial	Input sequence											
state	0	0	0	1	11							
A	00	В	00	A	11	A						
В	00	В	00	A	01	A						
С	00	В	01	С	11	С						
D	00	В	00	A	10	С						

Difficulty of Sequential Circuit Test

חכ	NS	5, <i>z</i>
PS	$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$	1
A	<i>B</i> ,0	<i>A</i> ,1
В	<i>B</i> ,0	<i>A</i> ,0
С	<i>D</i> ,0	<i>C</i> ,1
D	<i>B</i> ,0	<i>C</i> ,1



Initial	Input sequence											
state	0	0	0	1	11							
A	00	В	00	A	11	A						
B	00	В	00	A	01	A						
C	00	В	01	С	11	С						
D	00	B	00	A	10	С						

Difficulty of Sequential Circuit Test

- A transfer sequence for state S_i and S_j of a sequential machine is the shortest input sequence that will take the machine from state S_i to S_j .
- A circuit is strongly connected if and only if there exists for each ordered pair of states (S_i, S_j) of the circuit an input sequence that will transfer the circuit from state S_i to S_j .
- So what are the difficulties of testing sequential circuits?

Sequential Circuit Test

For a strongly connected state diagram, a proper sequence can transfer the state diagram form one to another state.

- What if not strongly connected?
 - Difficult to test it

Adding extra circuit that directly sets the state of the circuit.

Test Vector Generation

Four basic test vector generation approaches:

- Fault tables
- Fault simulation
- Boolean differences
- Path sensitization

Fault Tables

A fault table is a table that displays a set of faults and a set of test inputs.



Fault Tables

- A fault detection table is a table that identifies which input combinations detect a certain faults.
 - It is formed by performing the XOR of each output column in fault table with the output of fault-free circuit.



Fault Tables

A reduced fault table is a fault table that combines equivalent faults and deletes the redundant rows in the fault detection table.

x	у	Z.	f	$\overset{\scriptscriptstyle \sqrt}{g}$	$\hat{x_1}$	\hat{y}_1	$\vec{z_0}$	\hat{h}	\hat{f}_1^{\prime}
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

* The test vectors are: $\{(0,0,1), (0,1,0), (1,0,0), (1,1,0)\}$.

- The basic concept of fault simulation approach to test pattern generation is to select a primary input combination and determine its fault detection capabilities by simulation. The process is repeated until:
 - All faults are covered,
 - At least an acceptable number of faults are covered, or
 - Some predefined stopping point is reached.



- Types of fault simulation:
 - The row method
 - The column method



* Test vectors = {(0,0,0), (0,0,1), (0,1,0), (1,0,0), (1,1,0)}.

(1,1,0).

The column method



	x	у	Z	f	f_{x0}	f_{x1}	f_{y0}	f_{y1}	f_{z0}	f_{z1}	f_{a0}	f_{a1}	f_{f0}	f_{f1}	Faults detected
	0	0	0	1	1	1	*	1	*	0-	1	0	▶0-	1	<i>z</i> 1, <i>a</i> 1, <i>f</i> 0
	0	0	1	0	0	0	*	0	*	*	0	*	*	1	f1
	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	*	*	1	*	*	*	<i>x</i> 1
	0	1	1	0	0	*	0	0	*	*	0	*	*	*	
	1	0	0	1	1	*	1	0	1	*	1	*	*	*	y1
	1	0	1	0	0	*	0	*	▶1	0	0	*	*	*	z0
	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	*	0	1	0	*	*	<i>x</i> 0, <i>y</i> 0, <i>a</i> 0
	1	1	1	0	*	₩0	*	₩0	*	0	*	₩0	*	*	
	Truth table * not simulated for this input patter												attern	l.	
* Te	Test vectors = { $(0,0,0), (0,0,1), (0,1,0), (1,0,0), (1,0,1), $														

Solean difference of a switching function $f(x_{n-1}, ..., x_1, x_0)$ is defined as:

$$\frac{df(X)}{dx} = f(x_{n-1}, \dots, x_{i+1}, 0, x_{i-1}, \dots, x_0) \oplus f(x_{n-1}, \dots, x_{i+1}, 1, x_{i-1}, \dots, x_0)$$
$$= f_i(0) \oplus f_i(1)$$

- Boolean difference sometimes is called Boolean partial derivative.
- Boolean difference is not an effective way to compute test patterns for large circuits.

***** Example: $f(X) = x_1x_2 + x_3$

$$\frac{df(X)}{dx_1} = (1 \cdot x_2 + x_3) \oplus (0 \cdot x_2 + x_3) = (x_2 + x_3) \oplus x_3$$
$$= (x_2 + x_3)' x_3 + (x_2 + x_3) x'_3 = x_2 x'_3$$

To test stuck-at-0 fault at net xi, it is required to compute:

$$x_i \frac{df(X)}{dx_i} = 1$$
 $x_i = 1$ 일 때 output이 다른 경우가 test vector

To test stuck-at-1 fault at net xi, it is required to compute:

$$x'_i \frac{df(X)}{dx_i} = 1$$

 $x_i=0$ 일 때 output이 다른 경우가 test vector



Stuck-at-0 fault at net α is

$$x_{3} \frac{df(X)}{dx_{3}} = 1 = x_{3} [f_{3}(0) \oplus f_{3}(1)]$$
$$= x'_{1} x'_{2} x_{3} x_{4} + x_{1} x_{3} x'_{4} + x_{2} x_{3} x'_{4}$$

* The test vector set is $\{(0, 0, 1, 1), (1, \phi, 1, 0), (\phi, 1, 1, 0)\}$.



***** Stuck-at-0 fault at net β is

$$y = x_1 + x_2$$

$$f(X, y) = yx'_3 + x_3x_4$$

$$y \cdot \frac{df(X, y)}{dy} = y[x_3x_4 \oplus (x'_3 + x_3x_4)] = yx'_3$$

$$= (x_1 + x_2)x'_3 = x_1x'_3 + x_2x'_3$$

The test vector set is $\{(1, \phi, 0, \phi), (\phi, 1, 0, \phi)\}$.

- Basic operations of path sensitization method:
 - Fault sensitization: A stuck-at fault is activated by forcing the signal driving it to an opposite value from the fault value.
 - Fault propagation: The fault effect is propagated through one or more paths to a primary output of the circuit.
 - Line justification (Consistency operation): The internal signal assignments previously made to sensitize a fault or propagate its effect are justified by setting primary inputs of the circuit.

Sensitized path is a path that can propagate the net value of the primary inputs with a consistency operation for a stuckat-fault

Otherwise, unsensitized path

Sensitized path



Unsensitized path





pdcf (primitive *D*-cube of fault) of the five most commonly used gates.

			x	У	Z	Fa	ults o	cover	ed			X	у	Z	Fa	ults	cove	red		
			0	0	D'	<i>z/</i> 1						0	0	D'	x/1,	y/1,	<i>z/</i> 1			
			0	1	D'	x/1,	<i>z/</i> 1					0	1	D	x/0,	<i>z/</i> 0				
			1	0	D'	y/1,	<i>z/</i> 1					1	0	D	y/0,	<i>z/</i> 0				
			1	1	D	x/0,	y/0,	<i>z/</i> 0				1	1	D	<i>z/</i> 0					
					(a) A	AND	gate	;		-				(b)	OR g	gate				
x	у	z.	Fa	ults	cove	red		x	у	z.	Fa	ults c	cove	red						
0	0	D	<i>z/</i> 0					0	0	D	x/1,	y/1,	<i>z/</i> 0							
0	1	D	x/1,	<i>z/</i> 0				0	1	D'	x/0,	<i>z/</i> 1					z	Fai	ults cover	ed
1	0	D	y/1,	<i>z/</i> 0				1	0	D'	y/0,	<i>z/</i> 1				0	D	x/1,	<i>z/</i> 0	
1	1	<i>D</i> ′	x/0,	y/0,	<i>z</i> /1			1	1	<i>D</i> ′	<i>z/</i> 1					1	<i>D</i> ′	x/0,	<i>z/</i> 1	
	(c) NAND gate									(d) N	JOR	gate					(e) NO	T gate	

pdc (propagation of D-cube): error propagation

AN	ND g	ate	0	R ga	te	NA	ND g	gate	e NOR gate			NOT	gate
x	у	z	x	у	z	x	у	z	x	у	z	x	z
D'	1	D'	D'	0	D'	D'	1	D	D	0	D'	D'	D
1	D'	D'	0	D'	D'	1	D'	D	0	D	D'		
D	1	D	D	0	D	D	1	D'	D	0	D'	D	D'
1	D	D	0	D	D	1	D	D'	0	D	D'		

sc (singular cover): fixed output

AN	VD g	ate	0	R ga	ite	NA	ND g	gate	ite NOR g		ate	NOT	NOT gate	
x	у	Z	x	у	z	x	у	z	x	у	z	x	z	
0	ϕ	0	1	ϕ	1	0	ϕ	1	1	ϕ	0	1	0	
ϕ	0	0	ϕ	1	1	ϕ	0	1	ϕ	1	0	0	1	
1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1			

- $\clubsuit \quad \text{A simplified } D \text{ algorithm}$
 - 1. Fault sensitization: Select a pdcf for the fault for which a test pattern is to be generated.
 - 2. *D*-drive: Use pdcs to propagate the *D* signal to at least one primary outputs of the circuit.
 - 3. Consistency operations: Use the sc of each logic module to perform the consistency operation.



Testable Circuit Design

- Testable circuit design is also called design for testability (DFT).
- Ad hoc testing
 - uses some means to increase both observability and controllability of the circuits.
- Scan-path methods
 - provide the observability and controllability at each register.
- Built-in self-test (BIST)
 - relies on augmenting circuits to allow them to perform operations so as to prove the correct operation of the circuit.

Ad hoc Testing

- Basic principles are to increase both the observability and controllability of circuits.
 - Providing more control and test points
 - Using multiplexers to increase the number of internal control and test points
 - Breaking feedback paths
 - Using state registers to reduce the additional of I/O pins required for testing signals.

Ad hoc Testing

- An example of exhaustive test: 8-but up/down counter with two 4-bit up/down counters
 - 256 cycles vs 16 cycles



Scan-Path Methods

✤ An example of scan-path method



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BIST Principles



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Automatic Test Pattern Generation (ATPG)(ALFSR)

PR-sequence generator



(a) Standard format



(b) Modular format

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Automous linear feedback shift register (ALFSR)

✤ A sample primitive polynomials for n from 1 to 60.

n	f(x)	n	f(x)	n	f(x)
1, 2, 3, 4, 6,	$1 + x + x^{h}$	24	$1 + x + x^2 + x^7 + x^n$	43	$1 + x + x^5 + x^6 + x^n$
7, 15, 22, 60	$1 + \lambda + \lambda$	26	$1 + x + x^2 + x^6 + x^n$	44, 50	$1 + x + x^{26} + x^{27} + x^n$
5, 11, 21, 29	$1 + x^2 + x^n$	30	$1 + x + x^2 + x^{23} + x^n$	45	$1 + x + x^3 + x^4 + x^n$
10, 17, 20, 25,	$1 + 2s^3 + 2s^n$	32	$1 + x + x^2 + x^{22} + x^n$	46	$1 + x + x^{20} + x^{21} + x^n$
28, 31, 41, 52	$1+x^{+}+x^{+}$	33	$1 + x^{13} + x^n$	48	$1 + x + x^{27} + x^{28} + x^n$
9	$1 + x^4 + x^n$	34	$1 + x + x^{14} + x^{15} + x^n$	49	$1 + x^9 + x^n$
23, 47	$1 + x^5 + x^n$	35	$1+x^2+x^n$	51, 53	$1 + x + x^{15} + x^{16} + x^n$
18	$1 + x^7 + x^n$	36	$1 + x^{11} + x^n$	54	$1 + x + x^{36} + x^{37} + x^n$
8	$1 + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^n$	37	$1 + x^2 + x^{10} + x^{12} + x^n$	55	$1 + x^{24} + x^n$
12	$1 + x + x^4 + x^6 + x^n$	38	$1 + x + x^5 + x^6 + x^n$	56,59	$1 + x + x^{21} + x^{22} + x^n$
13	$1 + x + x^3 + x^4 + x^n$	39	$1 + x^4 + x^n$	57	$1 + x^7 + x^n$
14, 16	$1+x^3+x^4+x^5+x^n$	40	$1+x^2+x^{19}+x^{21}+x^n$	58	$1+x^{19}+x^n$
19, 27	$1 + x + x^2 + x^5 + x^n$	42	$1 + x + x^{22} + x^{23} + x^n$		

Signature Generators

Serial input signature register Multiple input signature register



A Signature Application Example



(a) Logic diagram

	Input		Fault-free output	Fault	y output	t	
x	У	Z	f	$f_{\alpha/0}$ and $f_{\beta/0}$	$f_{\alpha/1}$	$f_{\beta/1}$	
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	
0	1	0	1	1	1	0	
1	0	0	1	1	0	0	
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	(1
			0101	0001	1100	0000	

(b) A numerical example of signature

Signature Capability

- For a particular fault-response, there are 2^{m-n} 1 erroneous bit streams that will produce the same signature.
- Theorem: For an input data stream of length *m*, if all possible error patterns are equally likely, then the probability that an *n*-bit signature generator will not detect an error is

$$P(M) = \frac{2^{m-n}}{2^m - 1}$$

where $2^m - 1$ is the total possible erroneous streams. For *m* >> *n*, *P*(*M*) will approach 2^{-n} .

A BILBO (built-in block observer) Example



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IEEE 1149.1 --- The Boundary Scan Standard

The goals of the boundary scan standard are to :

- provide a data transfer standard between ATE and the devices on a PCB,
- provide a method of interconnecting devices on a PCB,
- provide a way of using test bus standard or BIST hardware to find the faulty devices on a PCB.
- Functions of boundary scan standard:
 - interconnection test
 - normal operation data observation
 - each device test

IEEE 1149.1 --- An Application Example

A boundary scan architecture used to test the entire boardlevel module.



IEEE 1149.1 --- The Structure

The boundary scan standard mainly include five parts:

- test access port (TAP),
- data registers,
- TDO driver,
- instruction register and decoder
- TAP controller.

IEEE 1149.1 --- The TAP Structure

- TAP (test access port) consists of:
 - Test data registers (test DRs)
 - Instruction register and decoder
 - TAP controller
 - TDO driver



IEEE 1149.1 --- Control Signals

- Four control signals:
 - TCK (test clock, input) clocks tests into and out of the chip.
 - TDI (test data input, input) input test data into the chip.
 - TDO (test data output, output) output test data out of the chip.
 - TMS (test mode select, input) controls the test operations.
- One optional reset signal
 - TRST_n (test reset) is an optional active-low asynchronous reset signal, used to reset TAP controller externally.

IEEE 1149.1 --- Control Signals

- In the normal mode, TRST_n and TCK are held low and TMS is held high to disable boundary scan.
- To prevent race conditions, inputs are sampled on the positive edge of TCK and output toggle on the negative edge.

IEEE 1149.1 --- The State Machine



IEEE 1149.1 --- Instruction and Bypass Registers

- Instruction register cell
 - Shift register



IEEE 1149.1 --- A TDO Driver

TDO Driver

- TMS is sampled at the positive edge of TCK.
- TDO is sampled at the negative edge of TCK.



IEEE 1149.1 --- A Boundary Scan Cell

Operation modes of boundary scan cell (BSC):



IEEE 1149.1 --- A Boundary Scan Cell

Boundary scan input pad configuration



Boundary scan output pad configuration



IEEE 1149.1 --- A Boundary Scan Cell

Tristate Boundary scan BSC From previous cell **Bidirectional** bidirectional pad PAD From chip КЗ logic configuration BSC To chip logic BSC To next cell Boundary scan tri-state pad 4 configuration Control Tristate BSC From previous cell **Tristate PAD** From chip logic BSC To next cell 4 Control

IEEE 1149.1 --- A Complete Example

