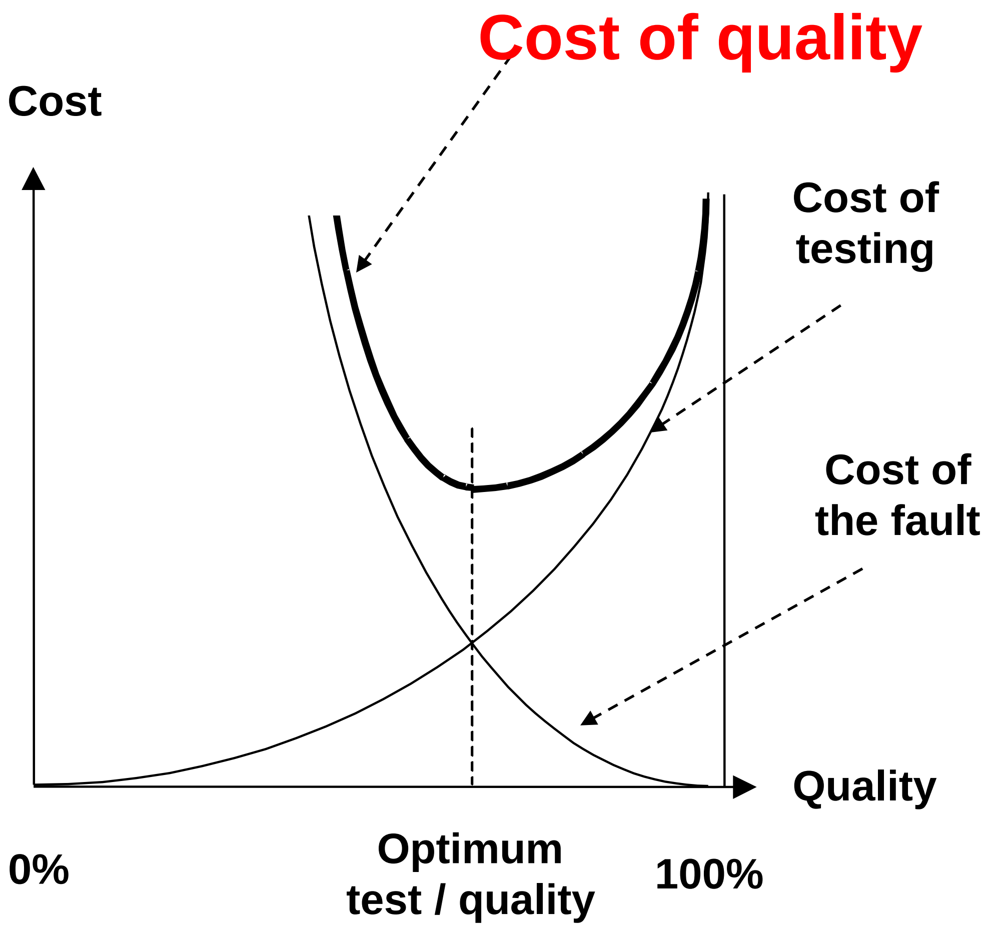
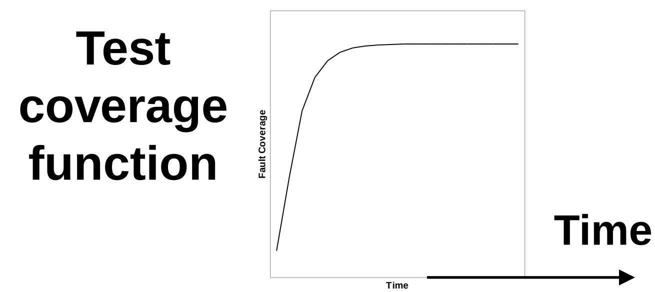
Introduction: The Problem is Money?



How to succeed?
Try too hard!
How to fail?
Try too hard!
(From American Wisdom)



Conclusion:

"The problem of testing can only be contained not solved"

T.Williams

Design for Testability

The problem is - QUALITY:

$$DL = \frac{P_a}{(1-P)^n + P_a} = 1-(1-P)^{n-m} = 1-Y^{\frac{n-m}{n}} = 1-Y^{(1-\frac{m}{n})} = 1-Y^{(1-T)}$$

$$P_a = (1-P)^m - (1-P)^n$$

$$Y = (1-P)^n$$

n **- number of defects**
m **- number of faults tested**
P **- probability of a defect**
P_a **- probability of accepting a bad product**
T **- test coverage**

Testability of Design Types

General important relationships:

- **T (Sequential logic) < T (Combinational logic)**

  Solutions: **Scan-Path design strategy**

- **T (Control logic) < T (Data path)**

  Solutions: **Data-Flow design, Scan-Path design strategies**

- **T (Random logic) < T (Structured logic)**

  Solutions: **Bus-oriented design, Core-oriented design**

- **T (Asynchronous design) < T (Synchronous design)**

Testability Estimation Rules of Thumb

Circuits less controllable

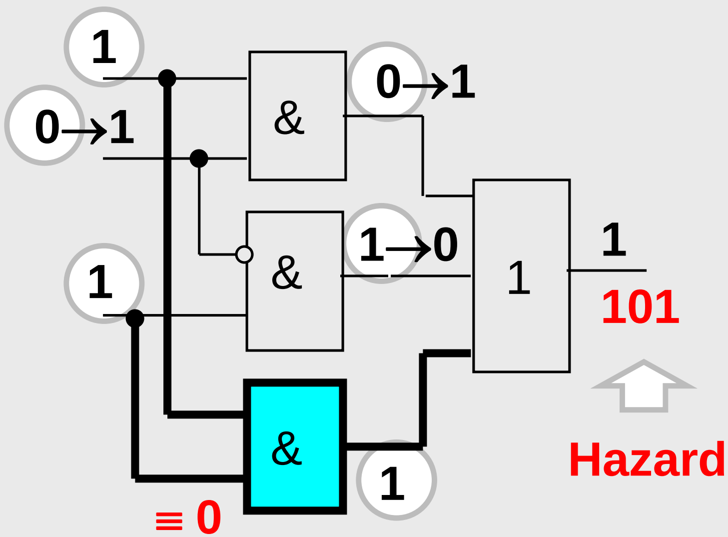
- Decoders
- Circuits with feedback
- Counters
- Clock generators
- Oscillators
- Self-timing circuits
- Self-resetting circuits

Circuits less observable

- Circuits with feedback
- Embedded
  - RAMs
  - ROMs
  - PLAs
- Error-checking circuits
- Circuits with redundant nodes

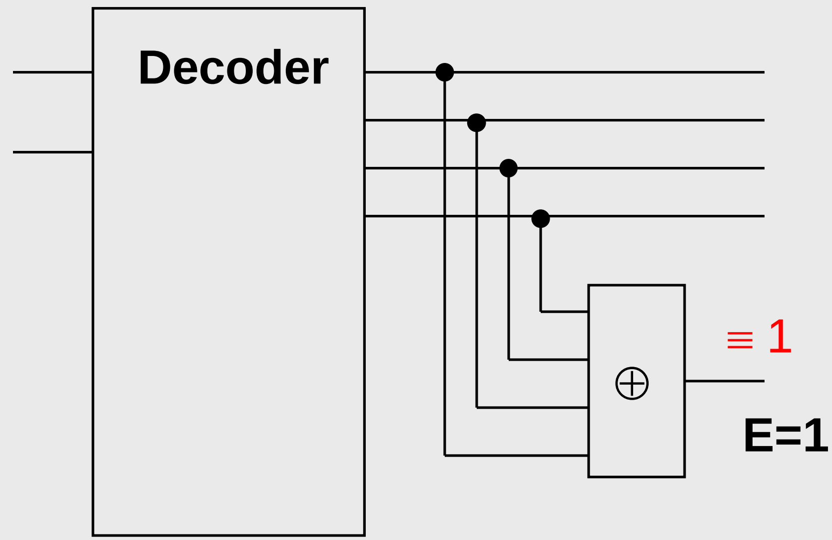
Fault Redundancy

Hazard control circuit:



Redundant AND-gate
Fault ≡ 0 is not testable

Error control circuitry:

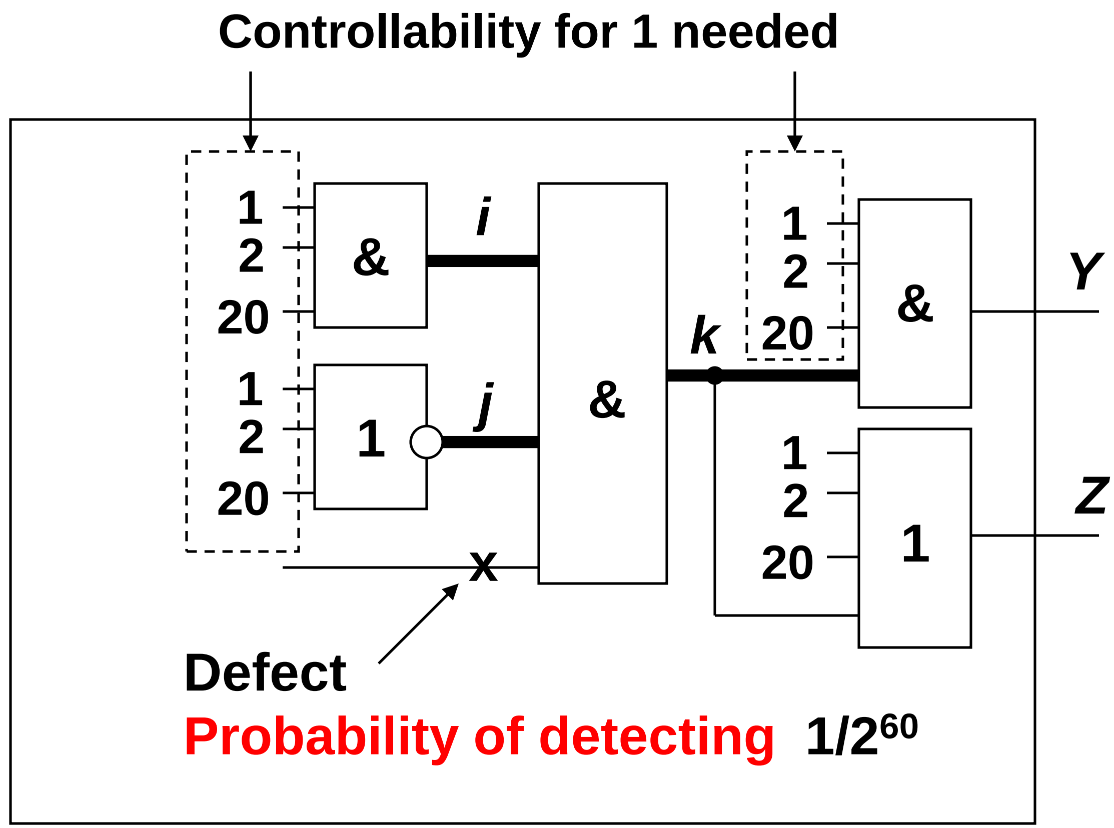


E = 1 if decoder is fault-free
Fault ≡ 1 is not testable

Hard to Test Faults

Evaluation of testability:

- Controllability
  - C_0 (*i*)
  - C_1 (*j*)
- Observability
  - O_Y (*k*)
  - O_Z (*k*)
- Testability



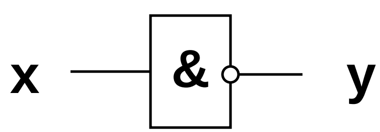
Probabilistic Testability Measures

Controllability calculation:

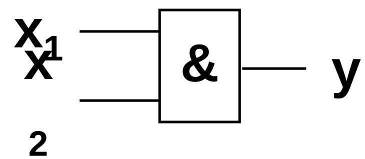
Value: minimum number of nodes that must be set in order to produce 0 or 1

For inputs: $C_0(i) = p(x_i=0)$ $C_1(i) = p(x_i=1) = 1 - p(x_i=0)$

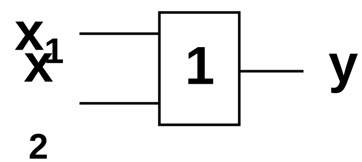
For other signals: recursive calculation rules:



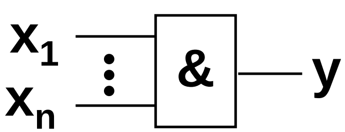
$p_y = 1 - p_x$



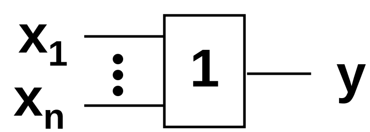
$p_y = p_{x1}\, p_{x2}$



$p_y = 1 - (1 - p_{x1})(1 - p_{x2})$



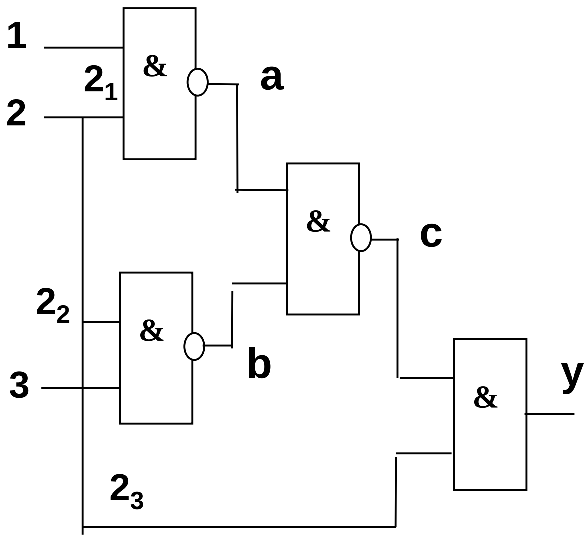
$$p_y = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_{xi}$$



$$p_y = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{n} (1 - p_{xi})$$

Calculation of Signal Probabilities

Straightforward methods:



For all inputs: $p_k = 1/2$

Calculation gate by gate:

$$p_a = 1 – p_1p_2 = 0{,}75,$$

$$p_b = 0{,}75,\ p_c = 0{,}4375,\ p_y = 0{,}22$$

Parker - McCluskey algorithm:

$$p_y = p_cp_2 = (1- p_ap_b)\ p_2 =$$

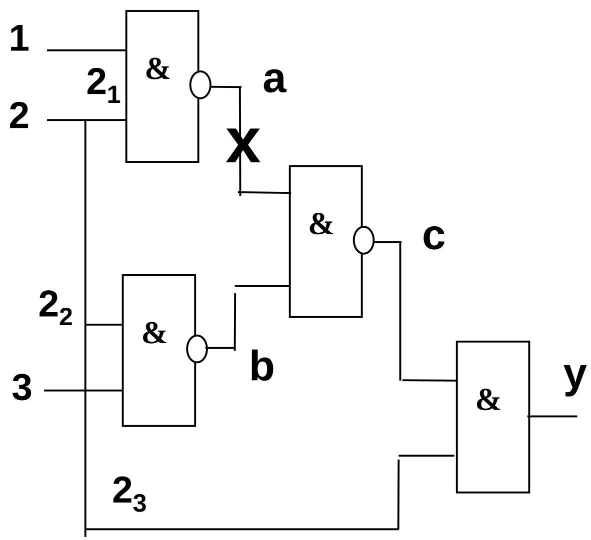
$$= (1 – (1- p_1p_2)\ (1- p_2p_3))\ p_2 =$$

$$= p_1p_2^{\ 2} + p_2^{\ 2}p_3 - p_1p_2^{\ 3}p_3 =$$

$$= p_1p_2 + p_2 p_3 - p_1p_2p_3 = 0{,}38$$

Probabilistic Testability Measures

Parker-McCluskey:



For all inputs: $p_k = 1/2$

Observability:

$$p(\partial y/\partial a = 1) = p_b\, p_2 =$$

$$= (1 - p_2 p_3)\, p_2 = p_2 - p_2^2 p_3$$

$$= p_2 - p_2 p_3 = 0{,}25$$

Testability:

$$p(a \equiv 1) = p(\partial y/\partial a = 1)\,(1 - p_a) =$$

$$= (p_2 - p_2 p_3)(p_1 p_2) =$$

$$= p_1 p_2^2 - p_1 p_2^2 p_3 =$$

$$= p_1 p_2 - p_1 p_2 p_3 = 0{,}125$$

Calculation of Signal Probabilities

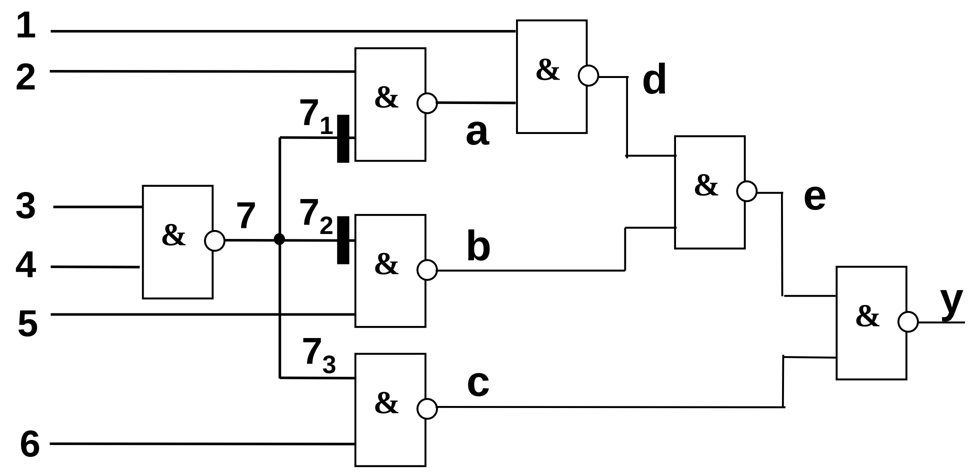
Cutting method

Idea:

- **Complexity of exact calculation is reduced by using lower and higher bounds of probabilities**

Technique:

- **Reconvergent fan-outs are cut except of one**
- **Probability range of [0,1] is assigned to all the cut lines**
- **The bounds are propagated by straightforward calculation**

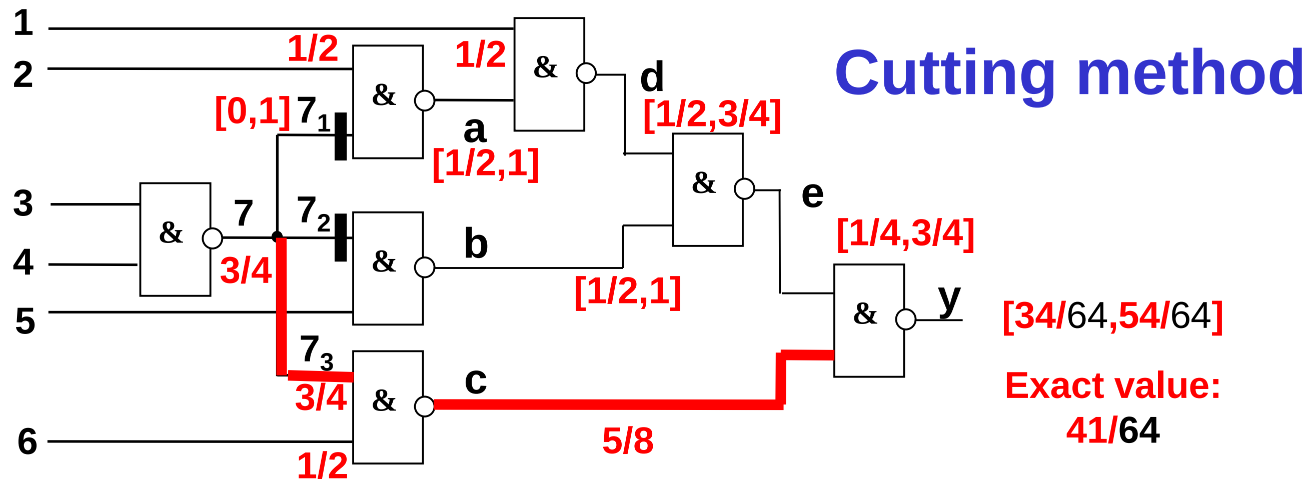


Lower and higher bounds for the probabilities of the cut lines:

p_{71} := (0;1), p_{72} := (0;1), p_{73} := 0,75

Calculation of Signal Probabilities

- For all inputs: $p_k = 0,5$
- Reconvergent fan-outs are cut except of one – 7_1 and 7_2
- Probability range of [0,1] is assigned to all the cut lines - 7_1 and 7_2
- The bounds are propagated by straightforward calculation

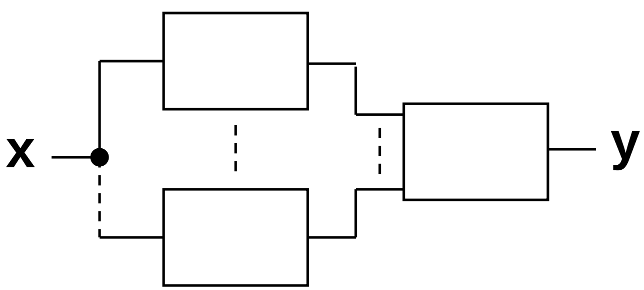


Calculation steps:

p_k	$[p_{LB}, p_{HB})$	Exact p_k	p_k	$[p_{LB}, p_{HB})$	Exact p_k
p_7	3/4	3/4	p_b	[1/2, 1]	5/8
p_{71}	[0, 1]	3/4	p_c	5/8	5/8
p_{72}	[0, 1]	3/4	p_d	[1/2, 3/4]	11/16
p_{73}	3/4	3/4	p_e	[1/4, 3/4]	19/32
p_a	[1/2, 1]	5/8	p_y	[34/64, 54/64]	41/64

Calculation of Signal Probabilities

Method of conditional probabilities



P(y) = p(y/x=0) p(x=0) + p(y/x=1) p(x=1)

Probabilitiy for – *y*

Conditions – *x* ∈ set of conditions

$$p(y) = \sum_{i \in (0,1)} p(y/(x=i))\, p(x=i)$$

Conditional probabilitiy

Idea of the method:

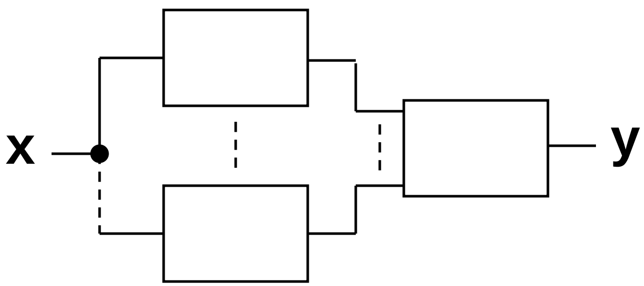
Two conditional probabilities are calculated along the paths (NB! not bounds as in the case of the cutting method)

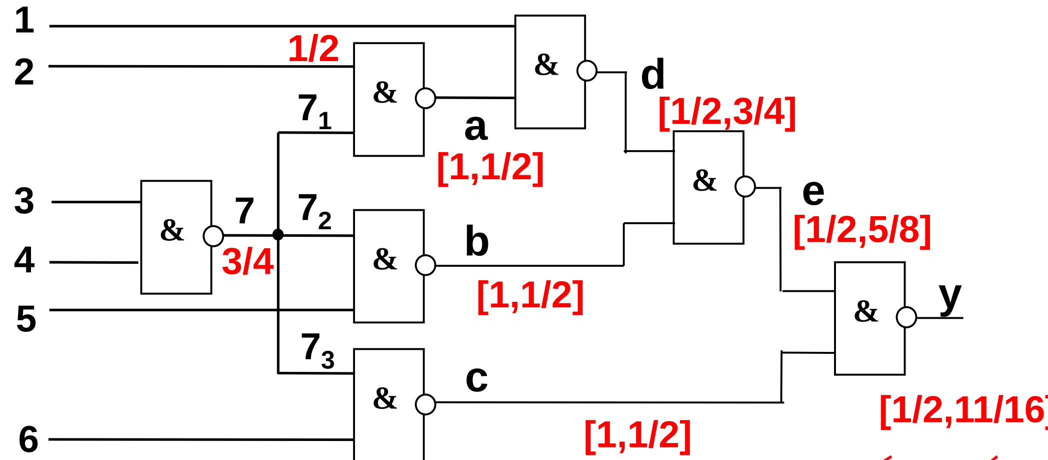
Since no reconvergent fanouts are on the paths, no danger for signal correlations

Calculation of Signal Probabilities

Method of conditional probabilities

$$p(y) = \sum_{i \in (0,1)} p(y/(x=i)\, p(x=i)$$





NB! Probabilities

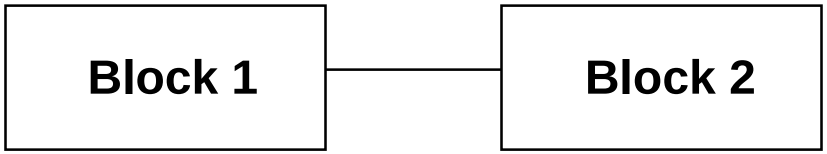
$P_k = [P_k^* = p(x_k/x_7=0),\ P_k^{**} = p(x_k/x_7=1)]$
are propagated, not bounds
as in the cutting method.
For all inputs: $p_k = 1/2$

P_k	$[P_k^*, P_k^{**}]$	P_k	$[P_k^*, P_k^{**}]$
P_7		P_b	[1, 1/2]
P_{71}		P_c	[1, 1/2]
P_{72}		P_d	[1/2, 3/4]
P_{73}		P_e	[1/2, 5/8]
P_a	[1, 1/2]	P_y	[1/2, 11/16]

$$p_y = p(y/x_7=0)(1 - p_7) + p(y/x_7=1)p_7 = (1/2 \times 1/4) + (11/16 \times 3/4) = 41/64$$

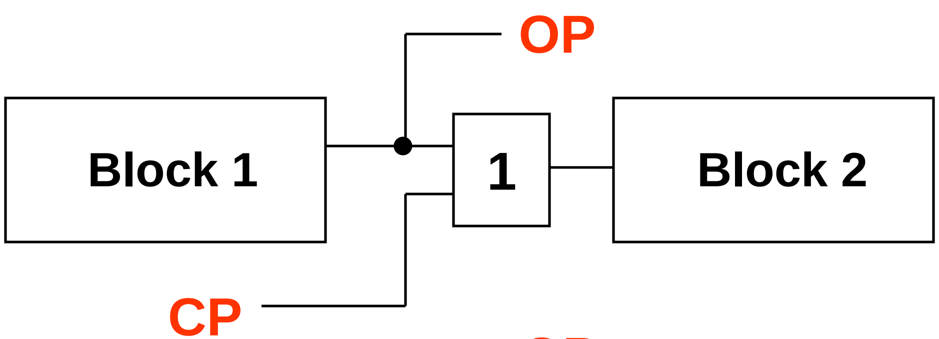
Ad Hoc Design for Testability Techniques

Method of Test Points:

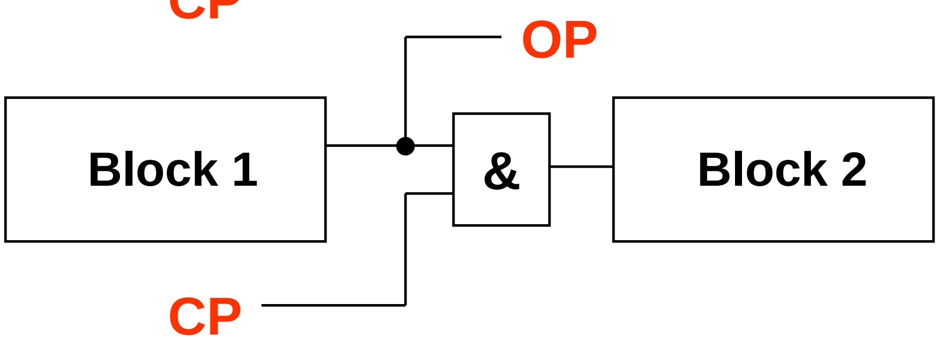


Block 1 is not observable,
Block 2 is not controllable

Improving controllability and observability:



1- controllability:
CP = 0 - normal working mode
CP = 1 - controlling Block 2 with signal 1



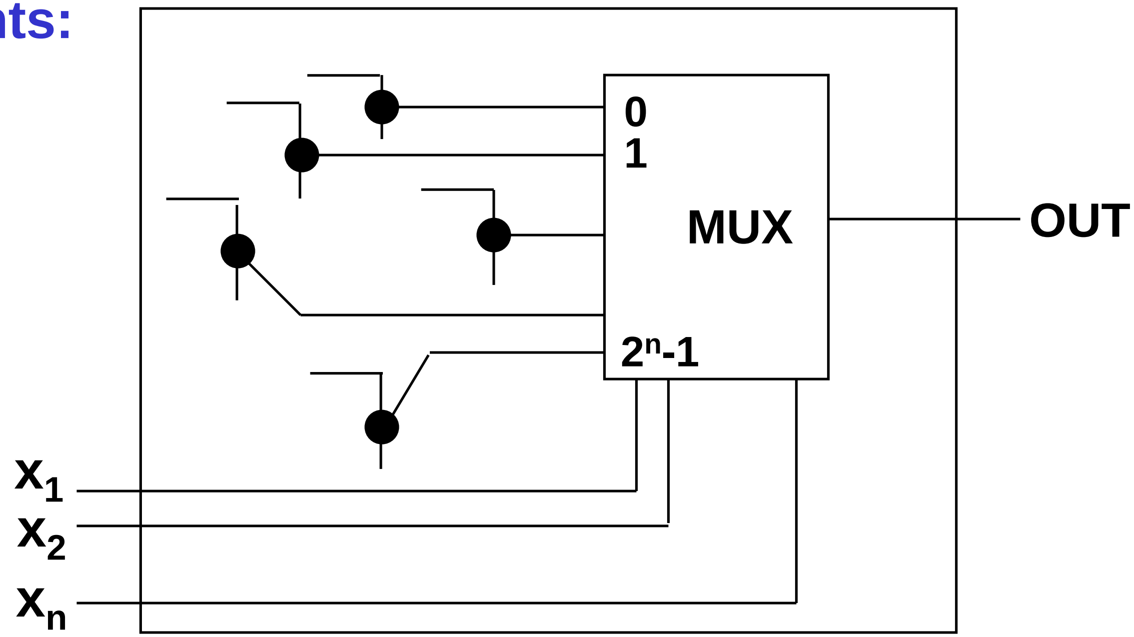
0- controllability:
CP = 1 - normal working mode
CP = 0 - controlling Block 2 with signal 0

Ad Hoc Design for Testability Techniques

Multiplexing monitor points:

To reduce the number of output pins for observing monitor points, multiplexer can be used:

2^n observation points are replaced by a single output and n inputs to address a selected observation point



Disadvantage:

Only one observation point can be observed at a time

Number of additional pins: (n + 1)
Number of observable points: [2^n]

Advantage: $(n + 1) << 2^n$

Ad Hoc Design for Testability Techniques

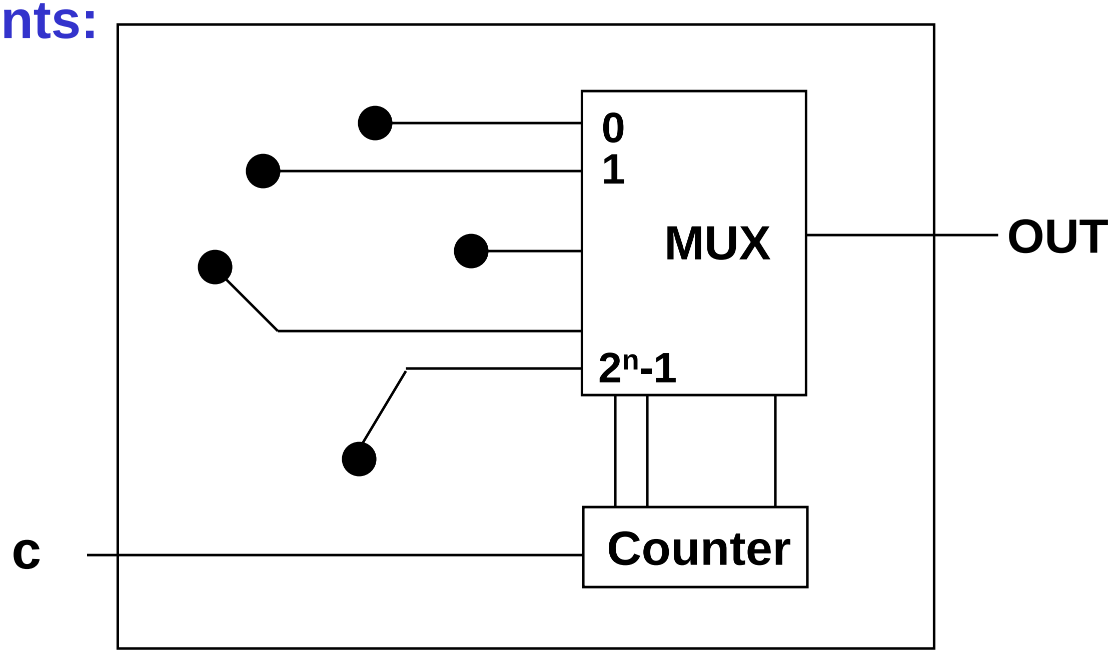
Multiplexing monitor points:

To reduce the number of output pins for observing monitor points, multiplexer can be used:

To reduce the number of inputs, a counter (or a shift register) can be used to drive the address lines of the multiplexer

Disadvantage:

Only one observation point can be observed at a time

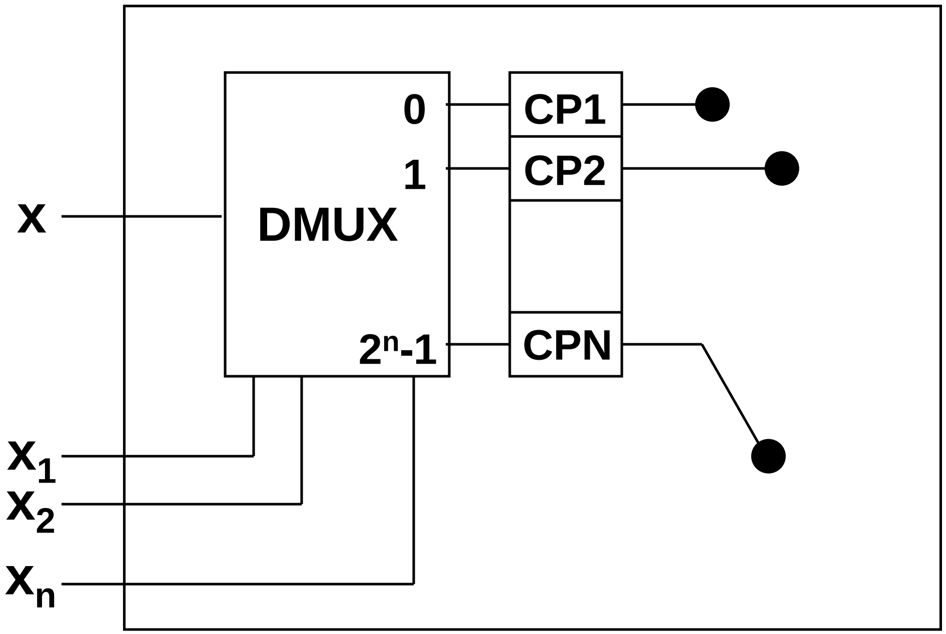


Number of additional pins: 2
Nmber of observable points: [2^n]

Advantage: $2 << 2^n$

Ad Hoc Design for Testability Techniques

Demultiplexer for implementing control points:



To reduce the number of input pins for controlling testpoints, demultiplexer and a latch register can be used.

Disadvantage:

N clock times are required between test vectors to set up the proper control values

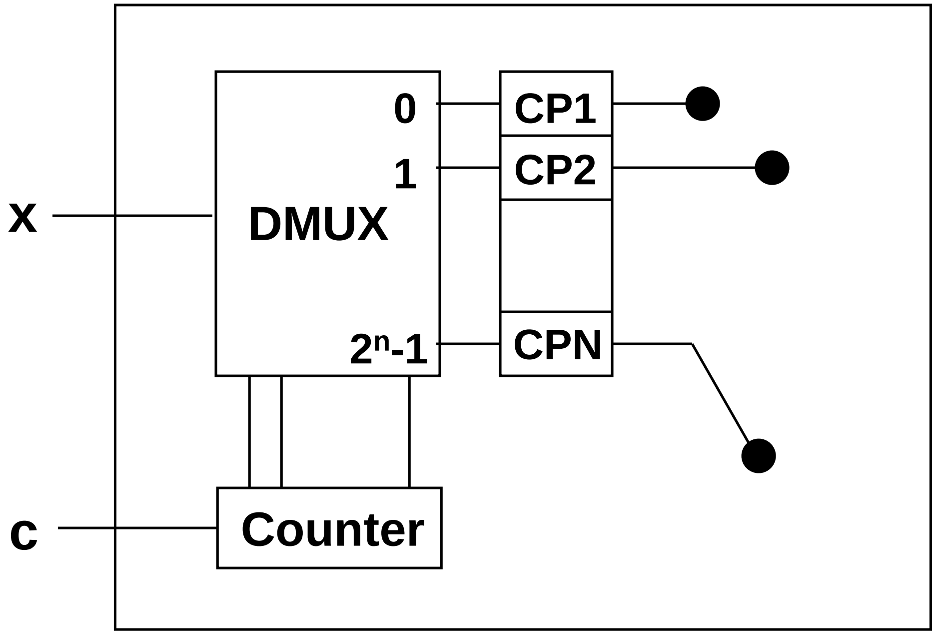
Number of additional pins: $(n + 1)$

Number of control points: $2^{n-1} < N \leq 2^n$

Advantage: $(n + 1) << N$

Ad Hoc Design for Testability Techniques

Demultiplexer for implementing control points:



Number of additional pins: 2
Number of control points: N

Advantage: 2 << N

To reduce the number of input pins for controlling testpoints, demultiplexer and a latch register can be used.

To reduce the number of inputs for addressing, a counter (or a shift register) can be used to drive the address lines of the demultiplexer

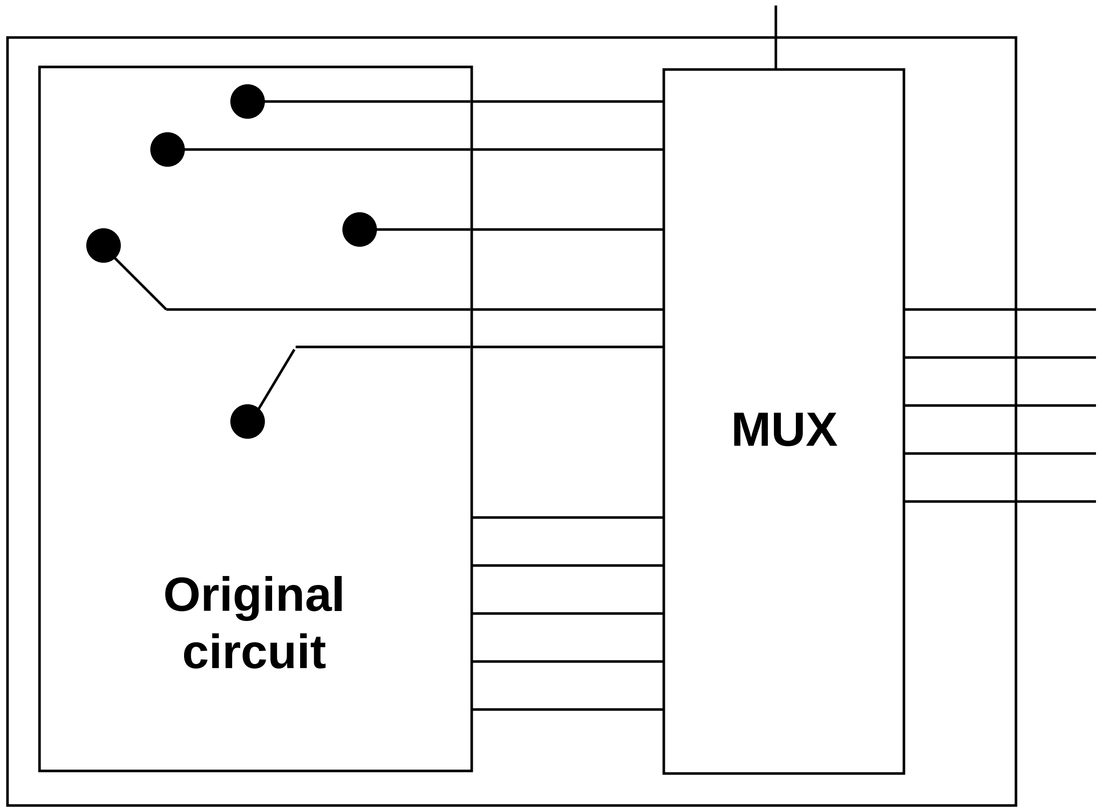
Disadvantage:

N clock times are required between test vectors to set up the proper control values

Time-sharing of outputs for monitoring

To reduce the number of output pins for observing monitor points, time-sharing of working outputs can be introduced: no additional outputs are needed

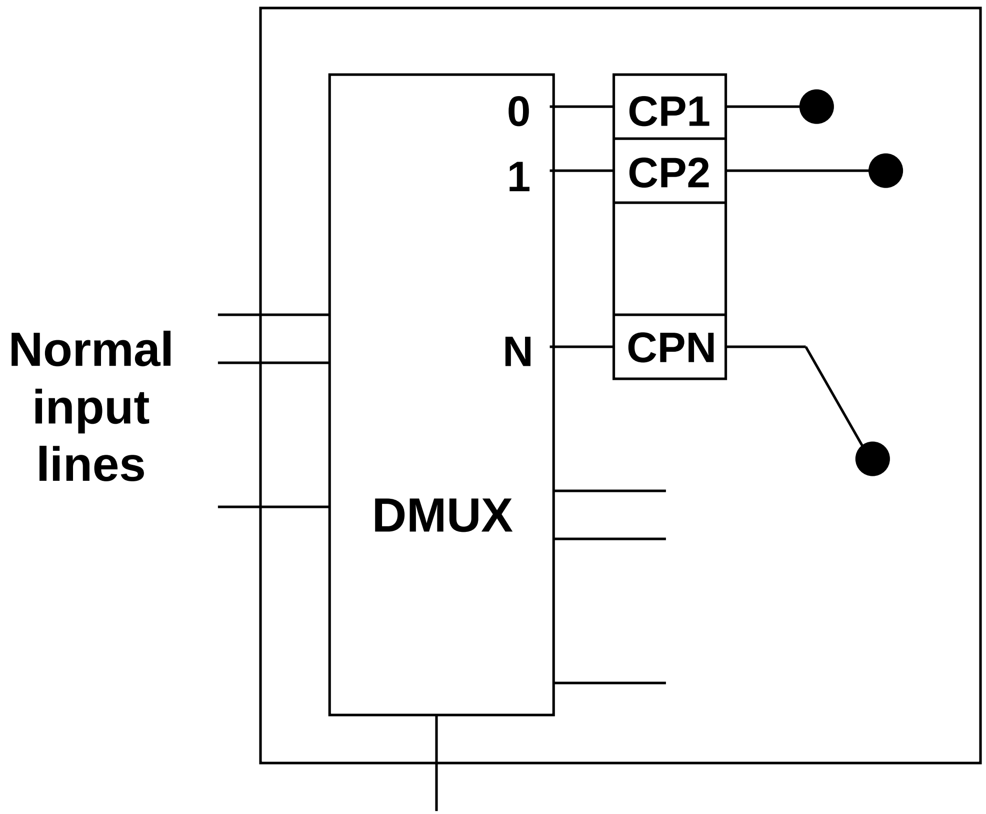
To reduce the number of inputs, again counter or shift register can be used if needed



Number of additional pins: 1
Number of control points: N

Advantage: 1 << N

Time-sharing of inputs for controlling



Number of additional pins: 1
Number of control points: N

To reduce the number of input pins for controlling test points, time-sharing of working inputs can be introduced.

To reduce the number of inputs for driving the address lines of demultiplexer, counter or shift register can be used if needed

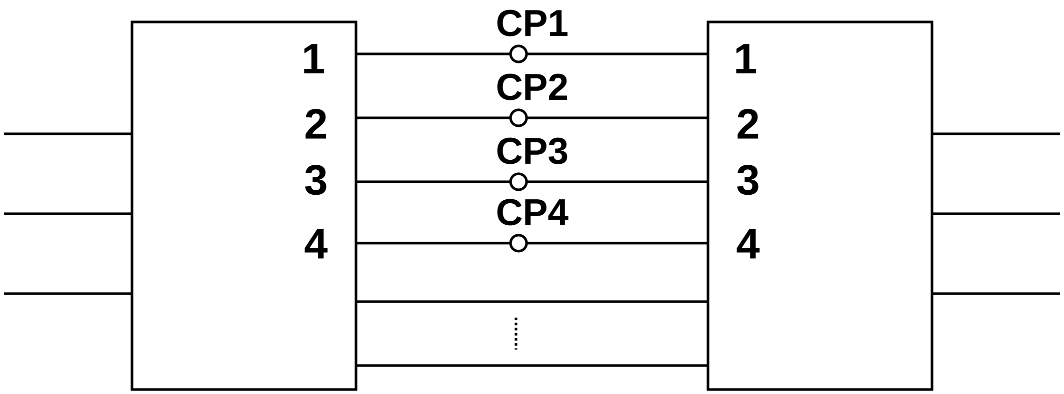
Advantage: 1 << N

Example: DFT with MUX-s and DMUX-s

Given a circuit:

- CP1 and CP2 are not controllable
- CP3 and CP4 are not observable

DFT task: Improve the testability by using a single control input, no additional inputs/outputs allowed



Example: DFT with MUX-s and DMUX-s

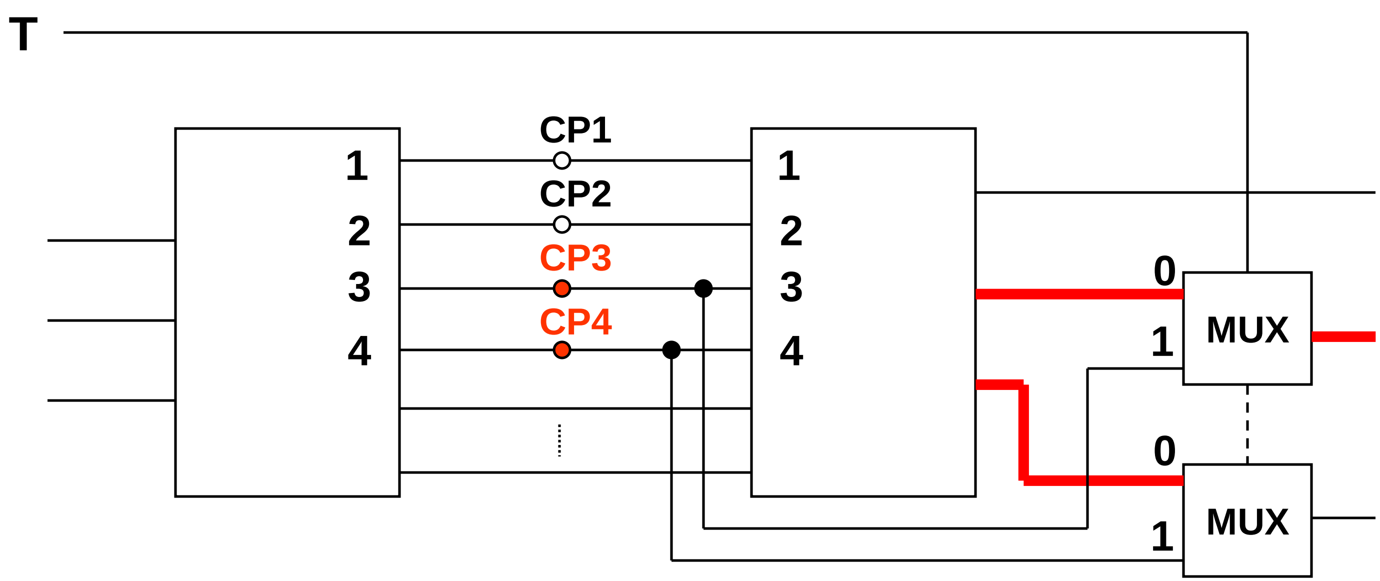
Given a circuit:

CP3 and CP4 are not observable

→ Improving the observability

Coding:

T	Mode	MUX
0	Norm.	0
1	Test	1



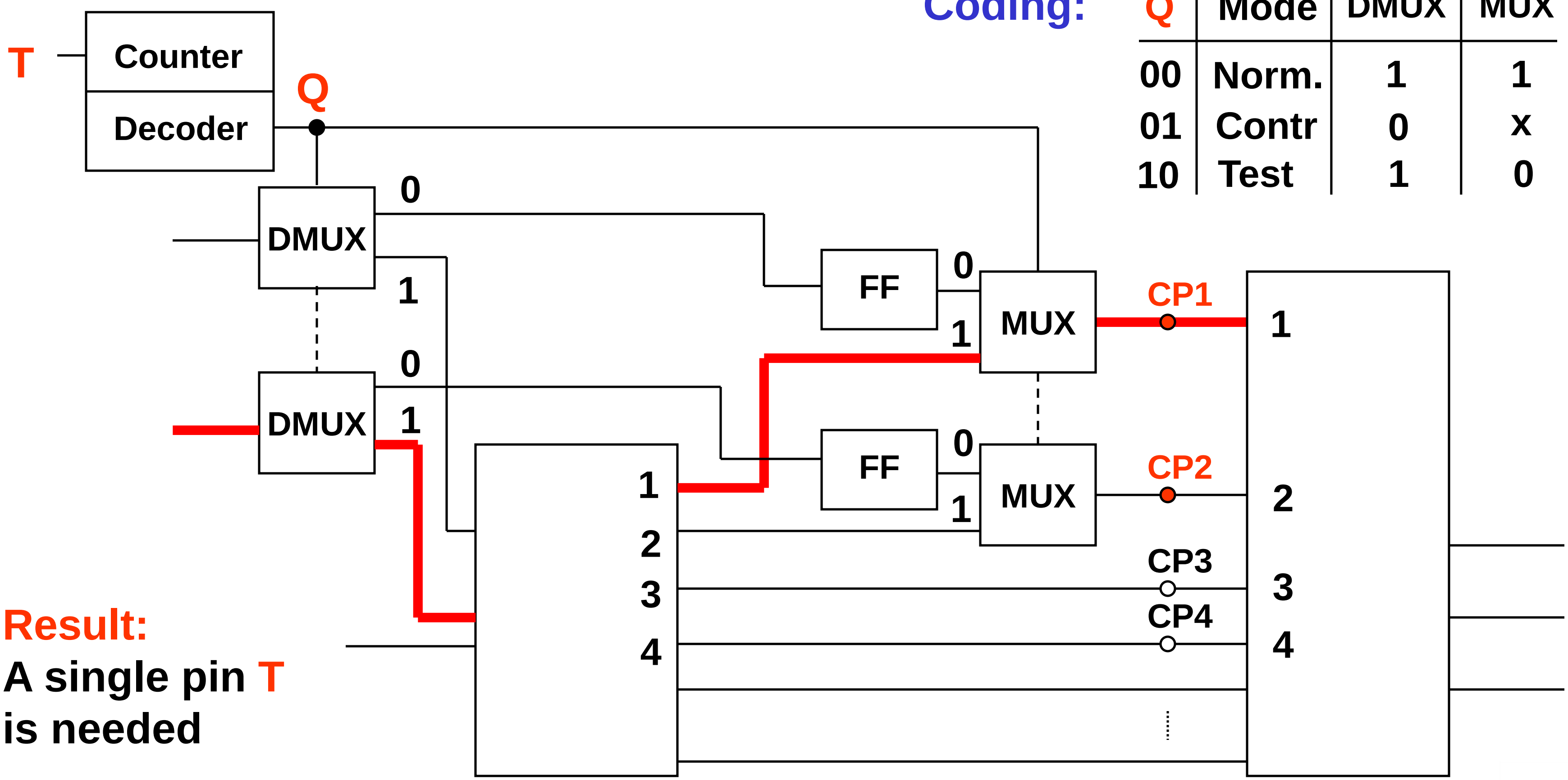
Result: **A single pin T is needed**

Example: DFT with MUX-s and DMUX-s

Given a circuit: CP1 and CP2 are not controllable → Improving the controllability

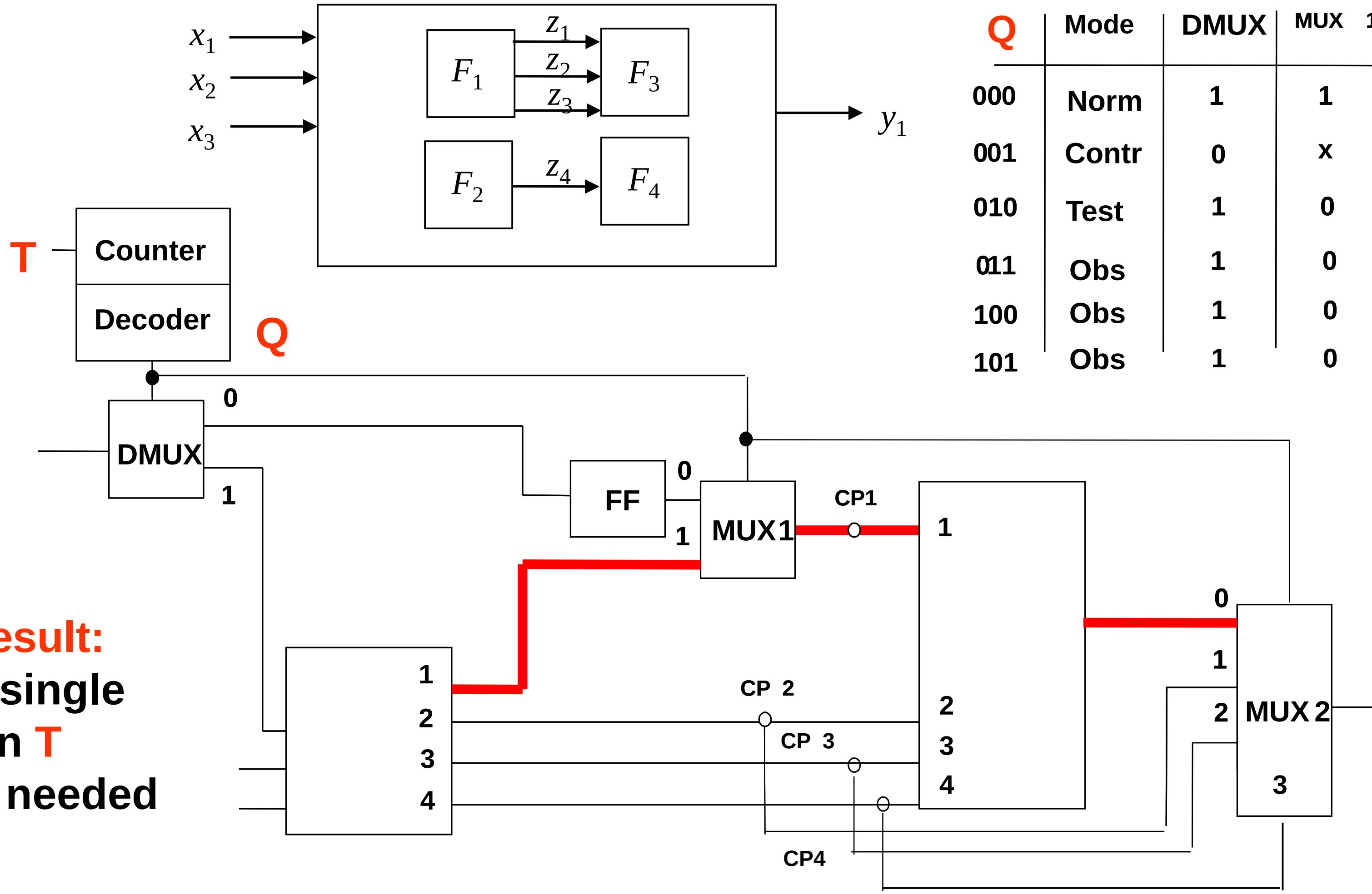
Coding:

Q	Mode	DMUX	MUX
00	Norm.	1	1
01	Contr	0	x
10	Test	1	0



Result:
A single pin T is needed

Example: DFT with MUX-s and DMUX-s



Q	Mode	DMUX	MUX 1	MUX 2
000	Norm	1	1	0
001	Contr	0	x	x
010	Test	1	0	0
011	Obs	1	0	1
100	Obs	1	0	2
101	Obs	1	0	3

Result:
A single pin **T** is needed

Ad Hoc Design for Testability Techniques

Logical redundancy:

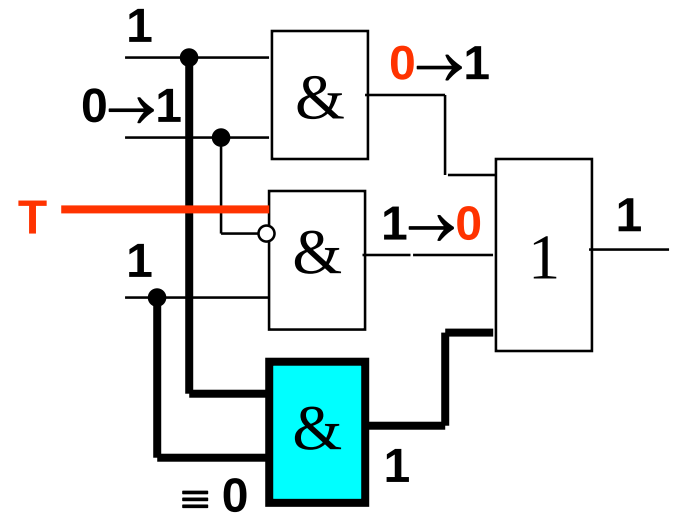
Redundancy should be avoided:

- If a redundant fault occurs, it may invalidate some test for nonredundant faults
- Redundant faults cause difficulty in calculating fault coverage
- Much test generation time can be spent in trying to generate a test for a redundant fault

Redundancy intentionally added:

- To eliminate hazards in combinational circuits
- To achieve high reliability (using error detecting circuits)

Hazard control circuitry:



Redundant AND-gate
Fault ≡ 0 not testable

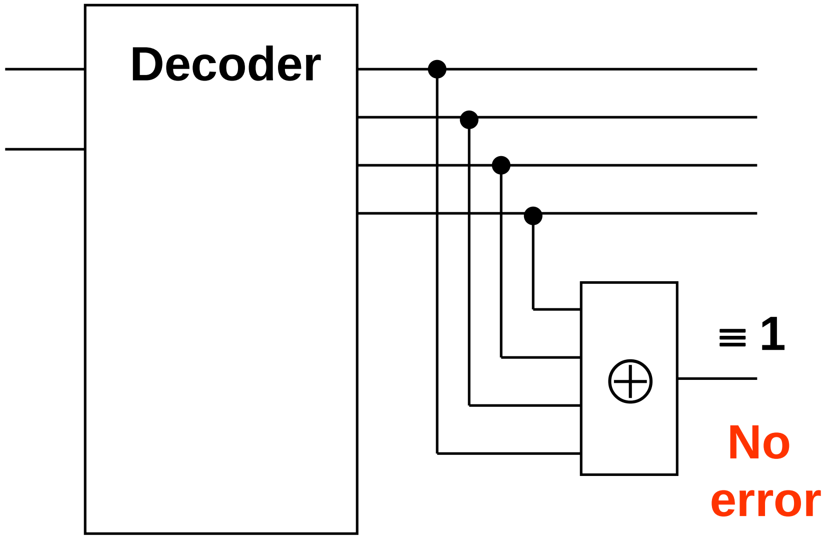
Additional control input added:
T = 1 - normal working mode
T = 0 - testing mode

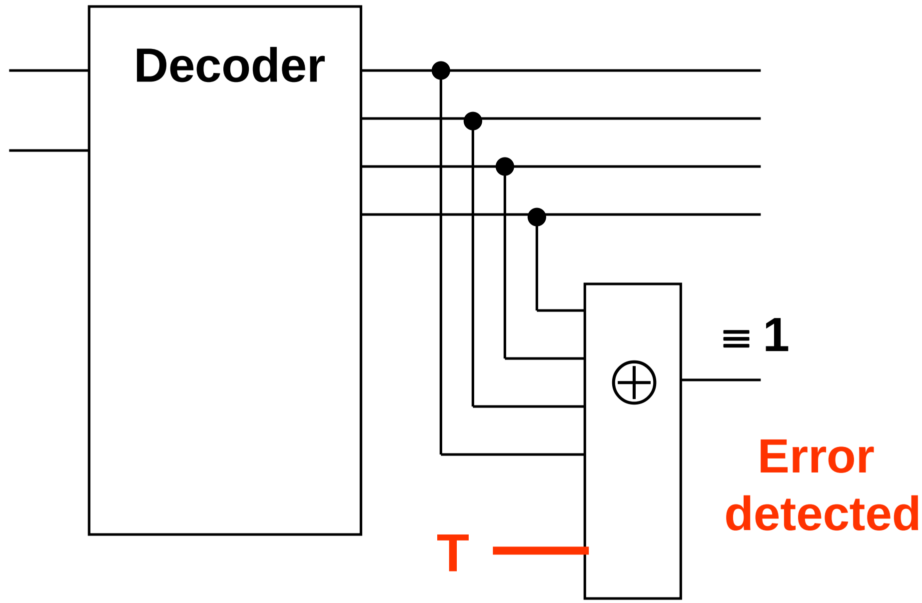
Ad Hoc Design for Testability Techniques

Fault redundancy:

Testable error control circuitry:

Error control circuitry:

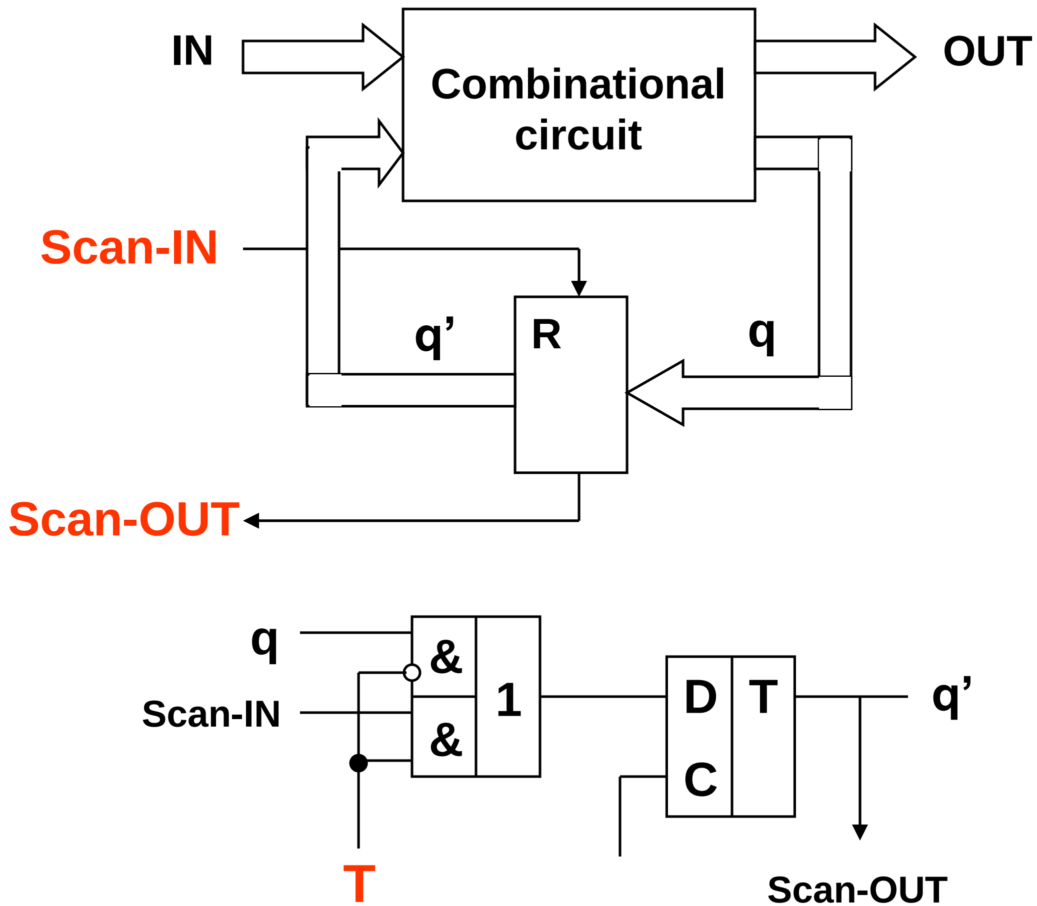




E = 1 if decoder is fault-free
Fault ≡ 1 not testable

Additional control input added:
T ≡ 0 - normal working mode
T = 1 - testing mode

Scan-Path Design



The complexity of testing is a function of the number of feedback loops and their length

The longer a feedback loop, the more clock cycles are needed to initialize and sensitize patterns

Scan-register is a aregister with both shift and parallel-load capability

T = 0 - normal working mode

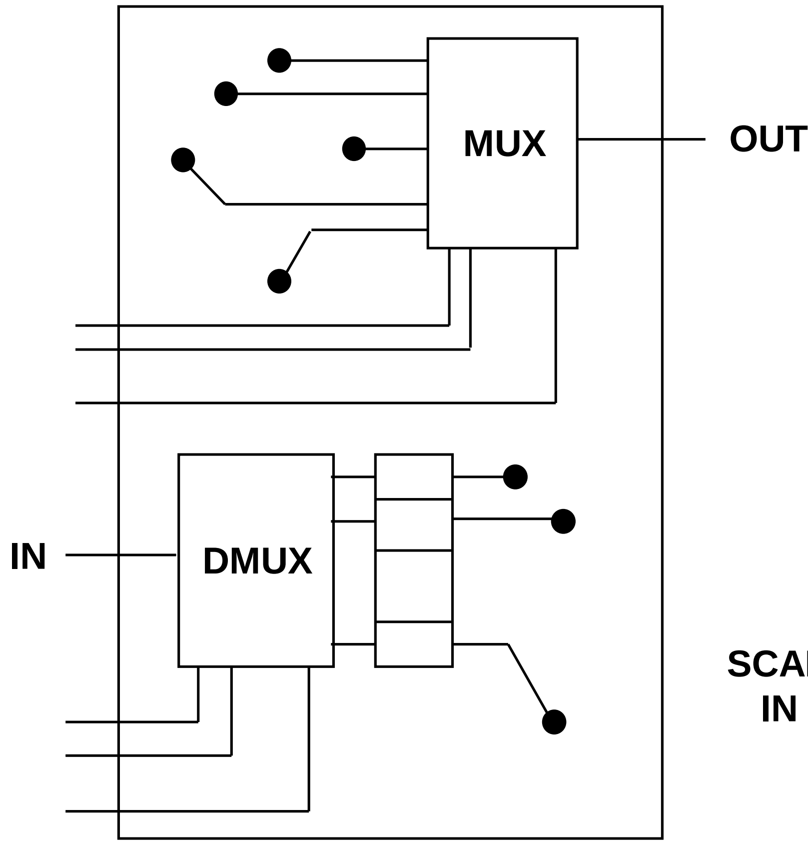
T = 1 - scan mode

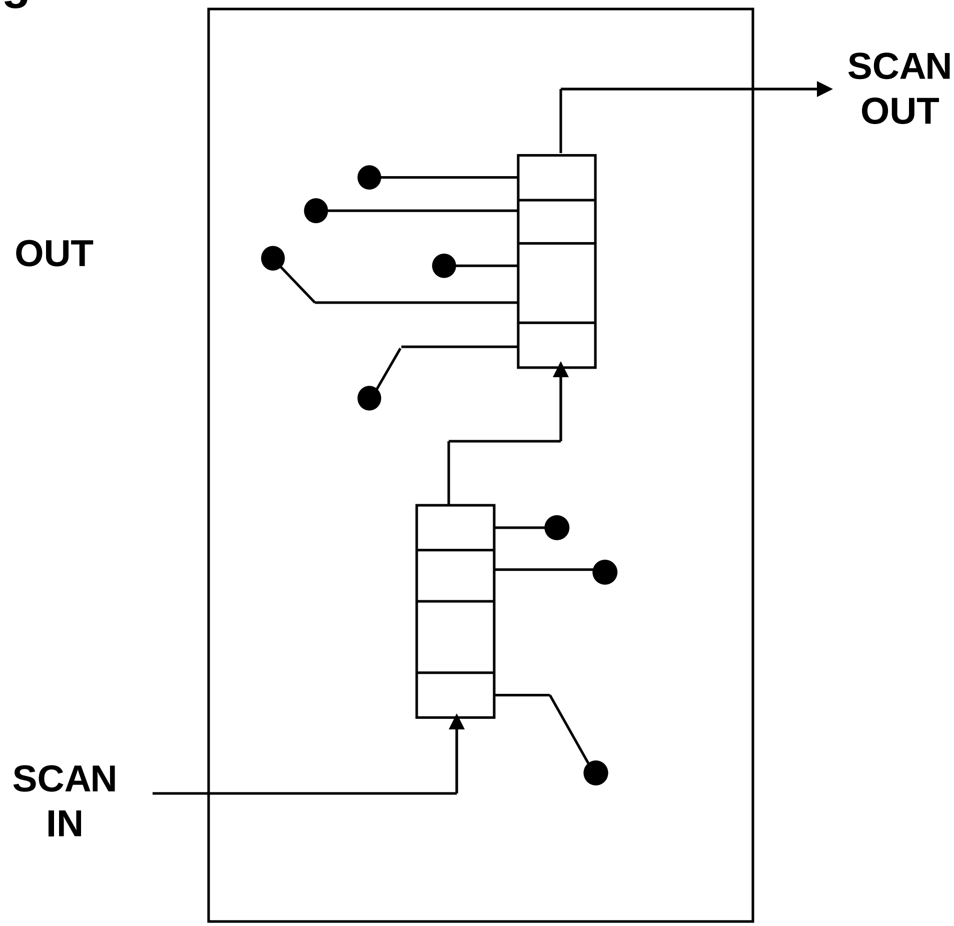
Normal mode : flip-flops are connected to the combinational circuit

Test mode: flip-flops are disconnected from the combinational circuit and connected to each other to form a shift register

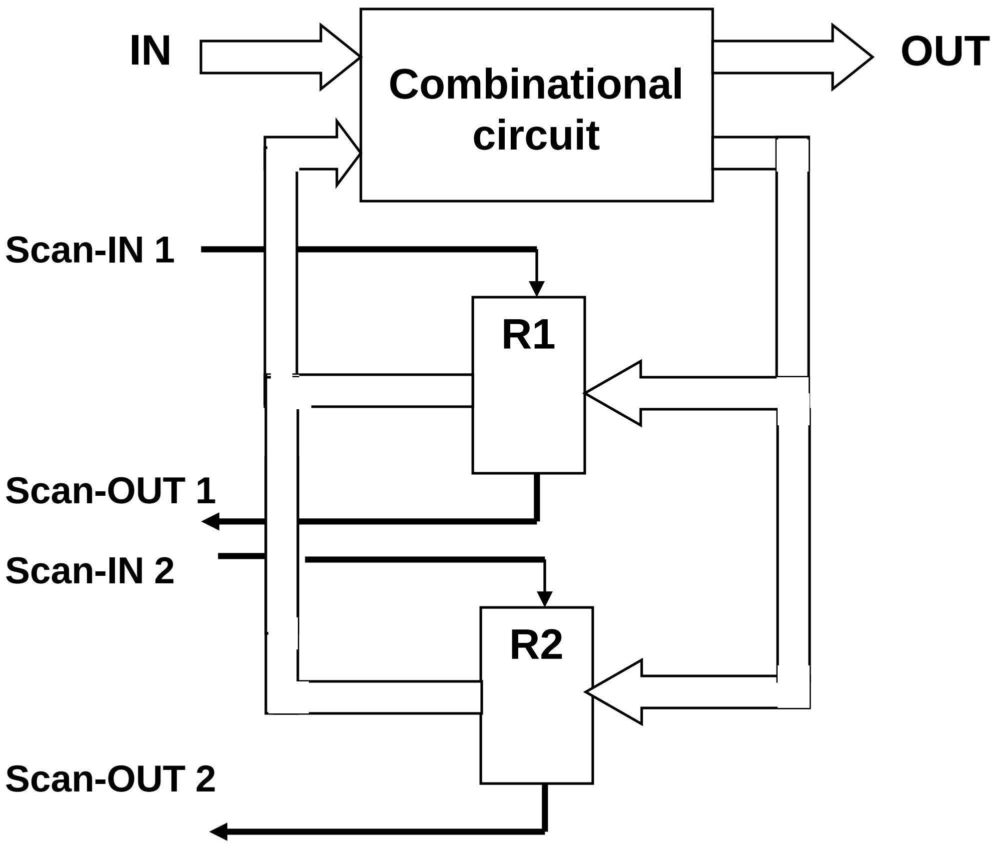
Scan-Path Design and Testability

Two possibilities for improving controllability/observability





Parallel Scan-Path

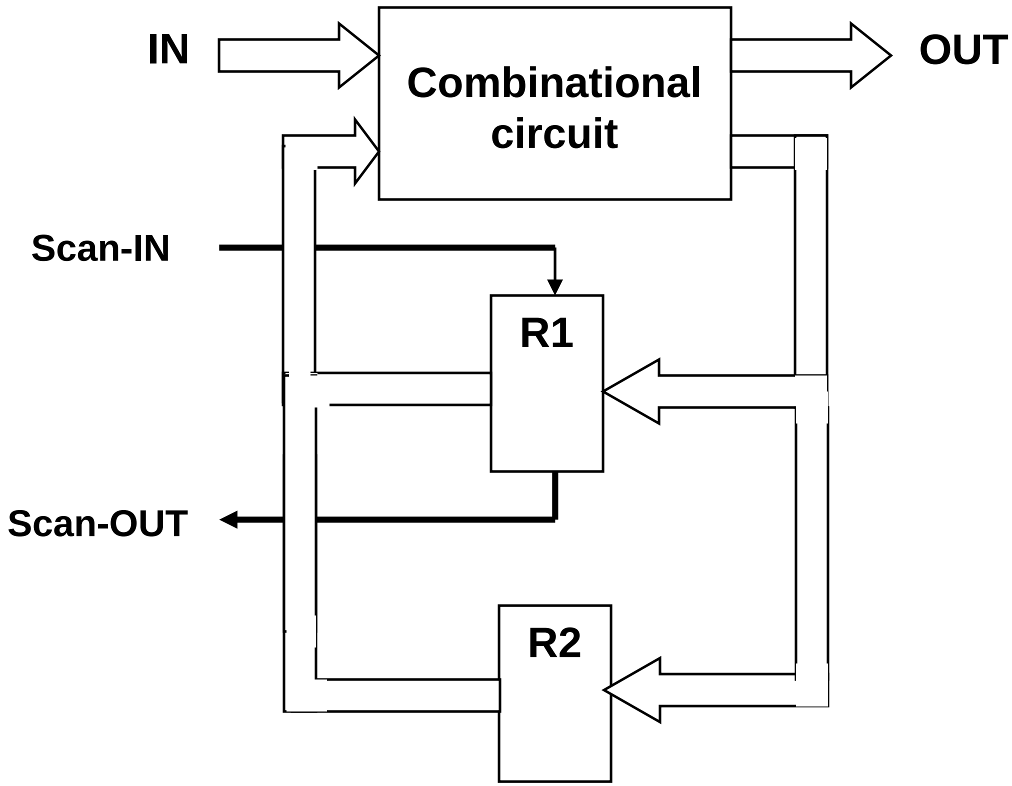


In parallel scan path flip-flops can be organized in more than one scan chain

Advantage: time ↓

Disadvantage: # pins ↑

Partial Scan-Path

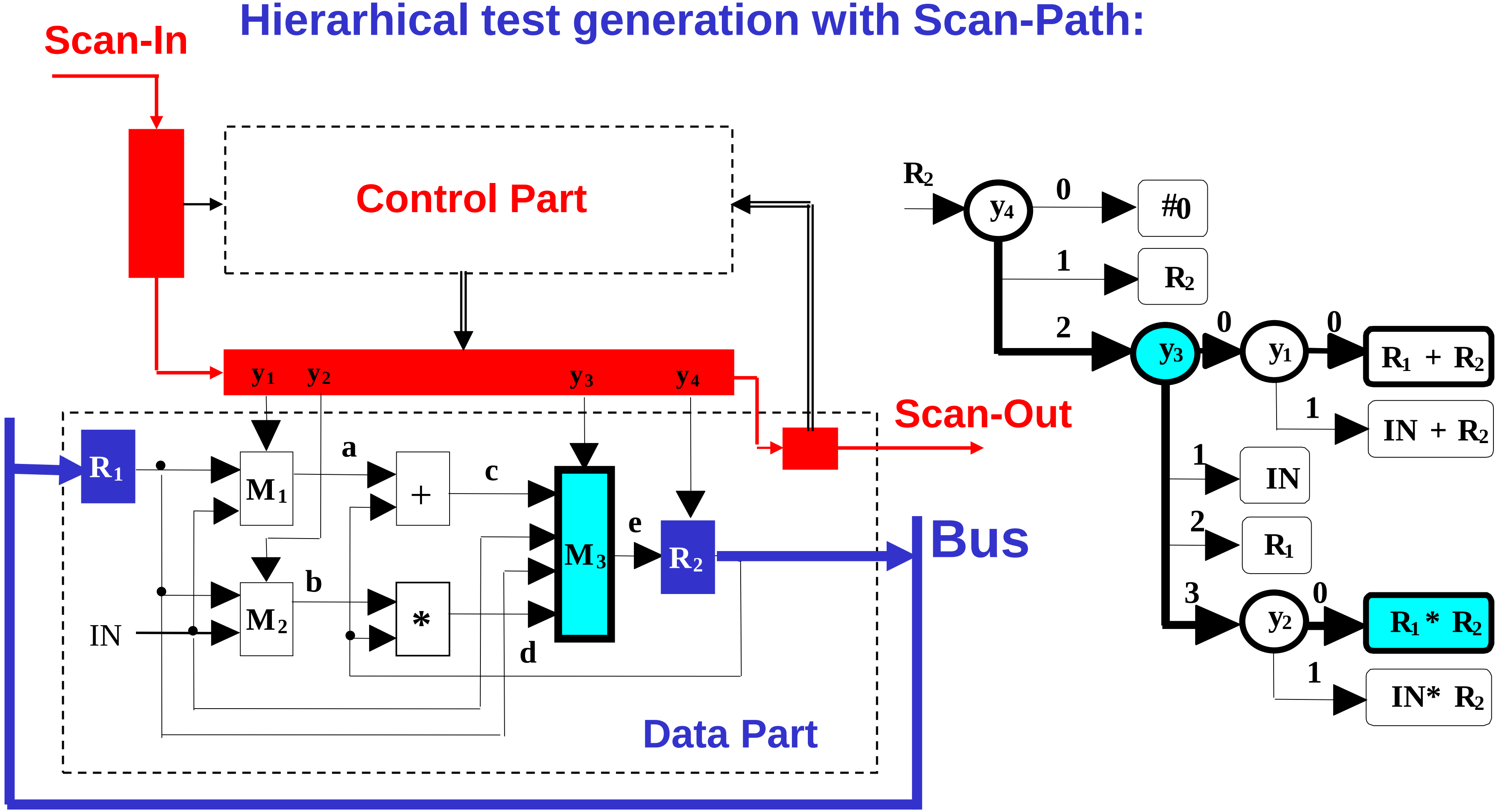


In partial scan instead of full-scan, it may be advantageous to scan only some of the flip-flops

Example:
counter – even bits joined in the scan-register

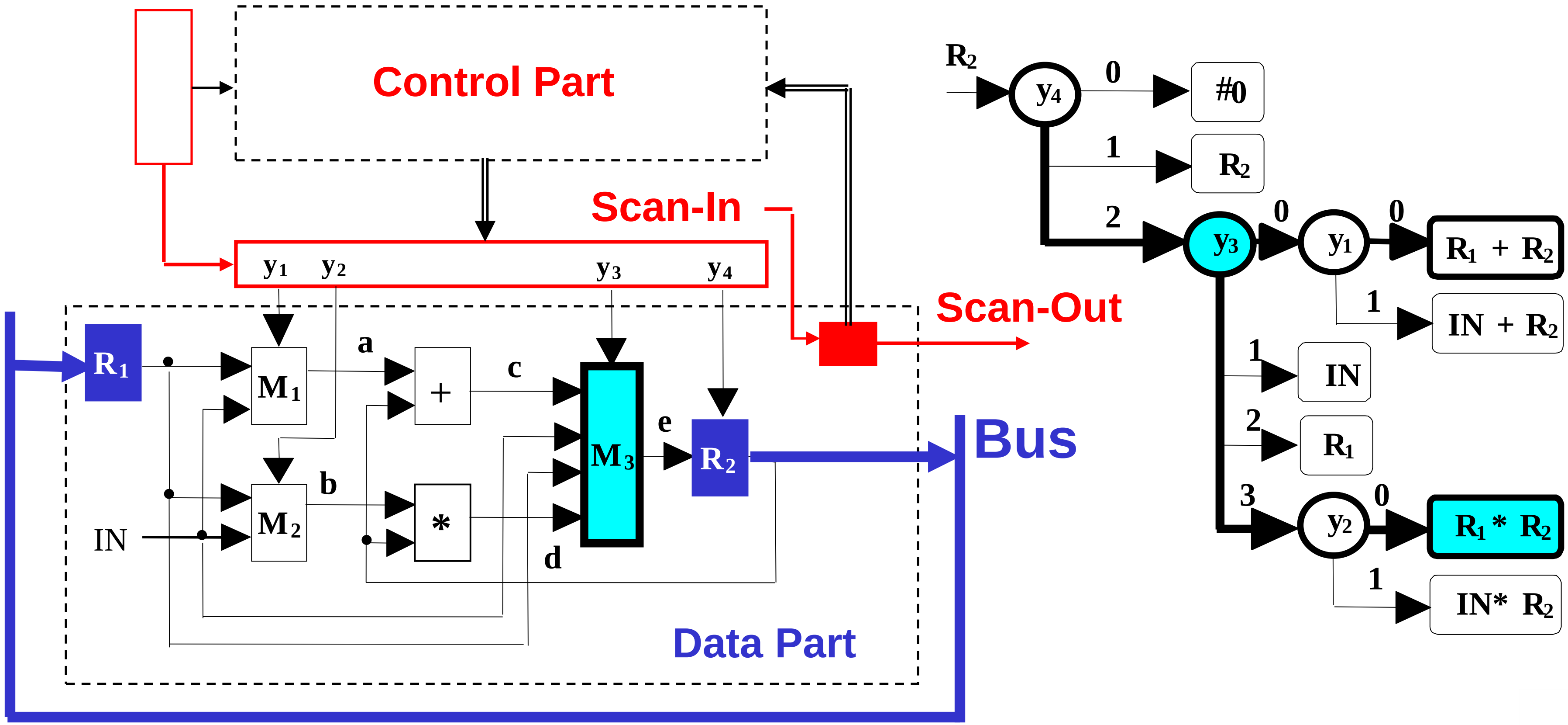
Partial Scan Path

Hierarchical test generation with Scan-Path:

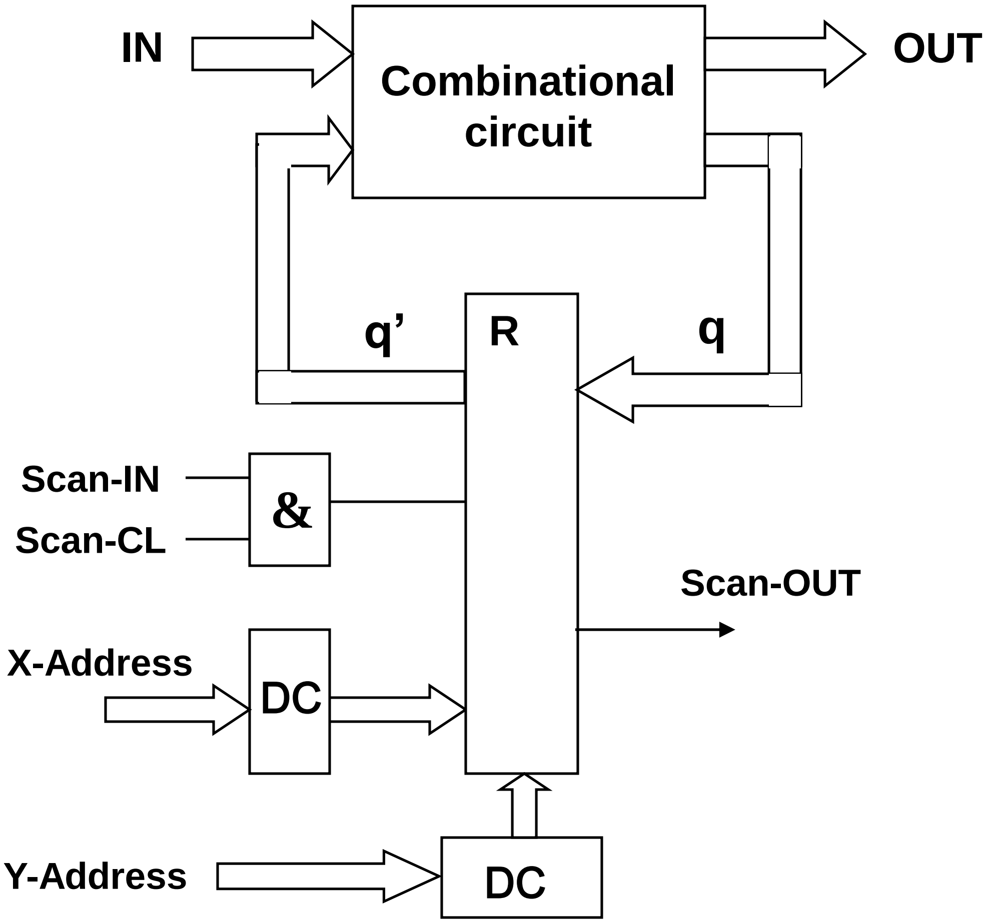


Testing with Minimal DFT

Hierarhical test generation with Scan-Path:



Random Access Scan



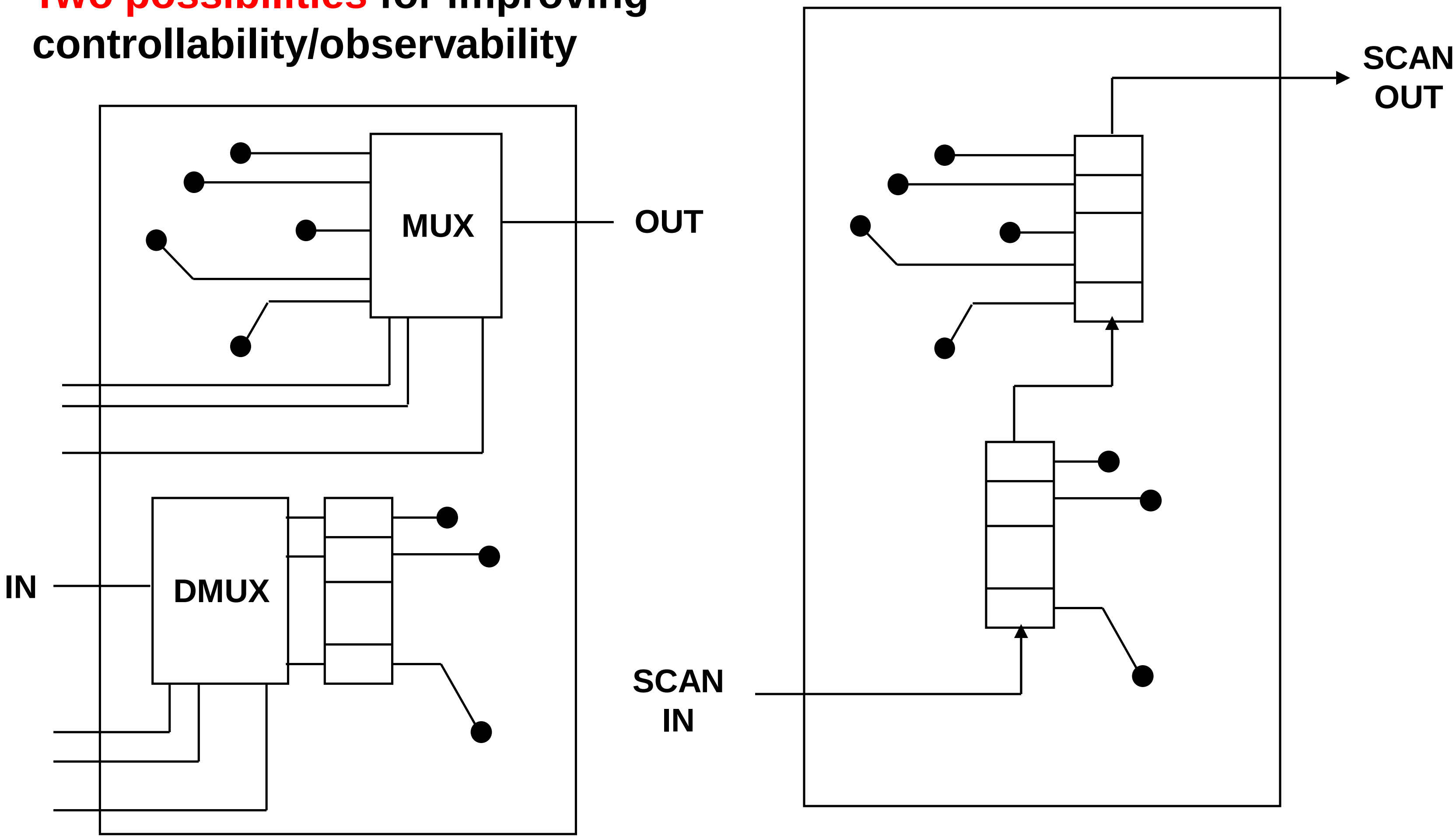
In random access scan each flip-flop in a logic network is selected individually by an address for control and observation of its state

Example:

Delay fault testing

Improving Testability by Inserting CPs

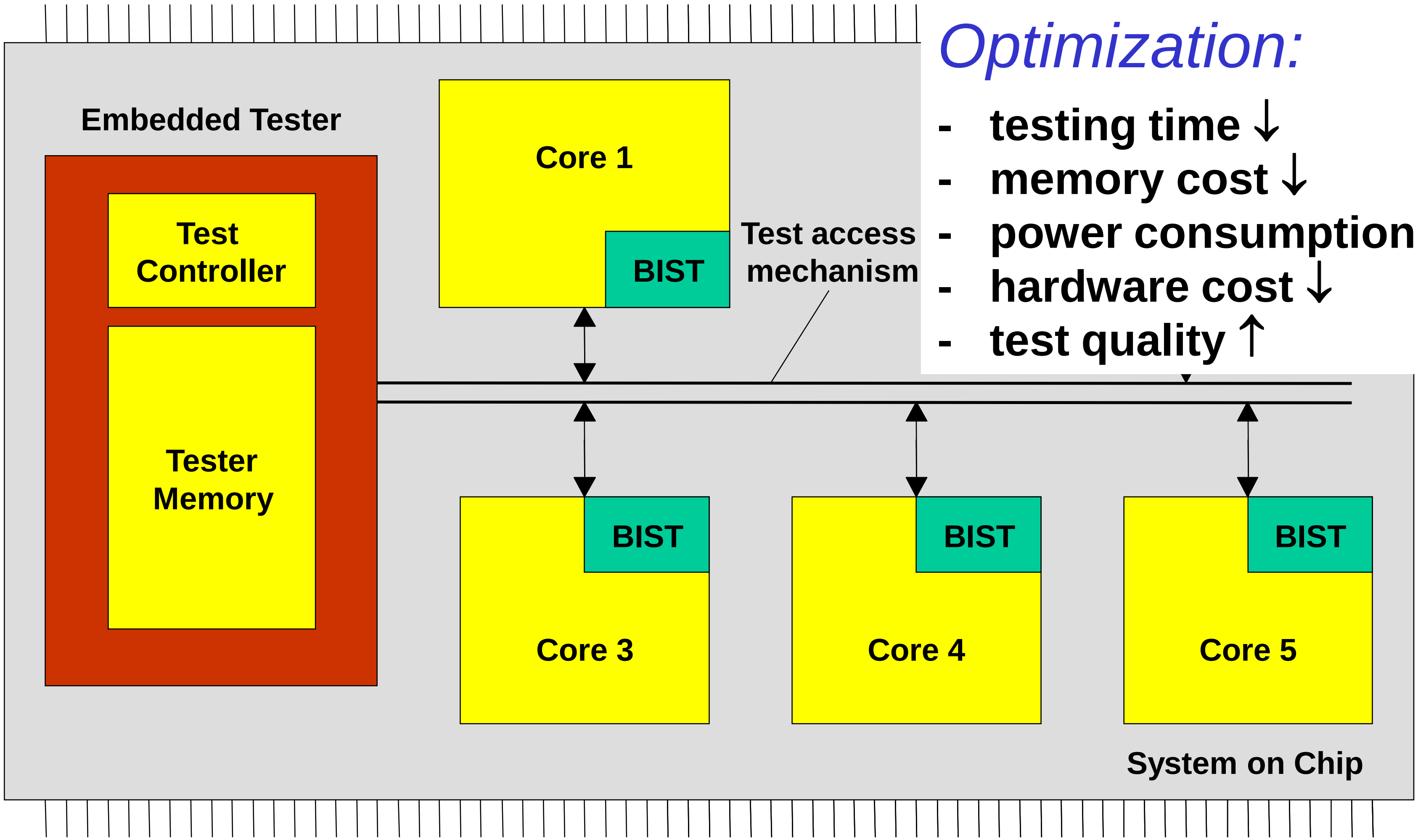
Two possibilities for improving controllability/observability



Built-In Self-Test

- **Motivations for BIST:**
  - Need for a cost-efficient testing (general motivation)
  - Doubts about the stuck-at fault model
  - Increasing difficulties with TPG (Test Pattern Generation)
  - Growing volume of test pattern data
  - Cost of ATE (Automatic Test Equipment)
  - Test application time
  - Gap between tester and UUT (Unit Under Test) speeds
- **Drawbacks of BIST:**
  - Additional pins and silicon area needed
  - Decreased reliability due to increased silicon area
  - Performance impact due to additional circuitry
  - Additional design time and cost

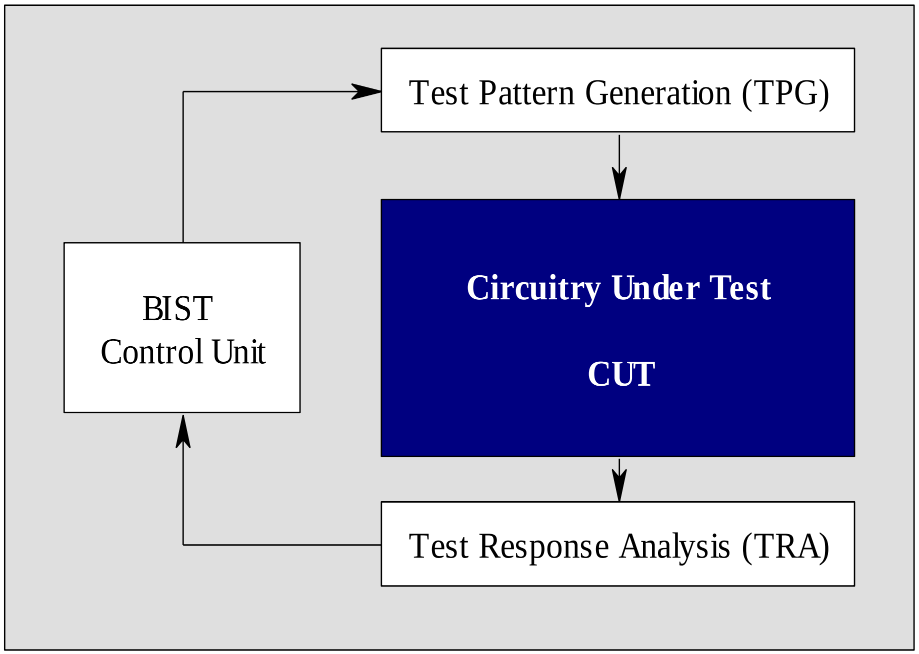
SoC BIST



Optimization:

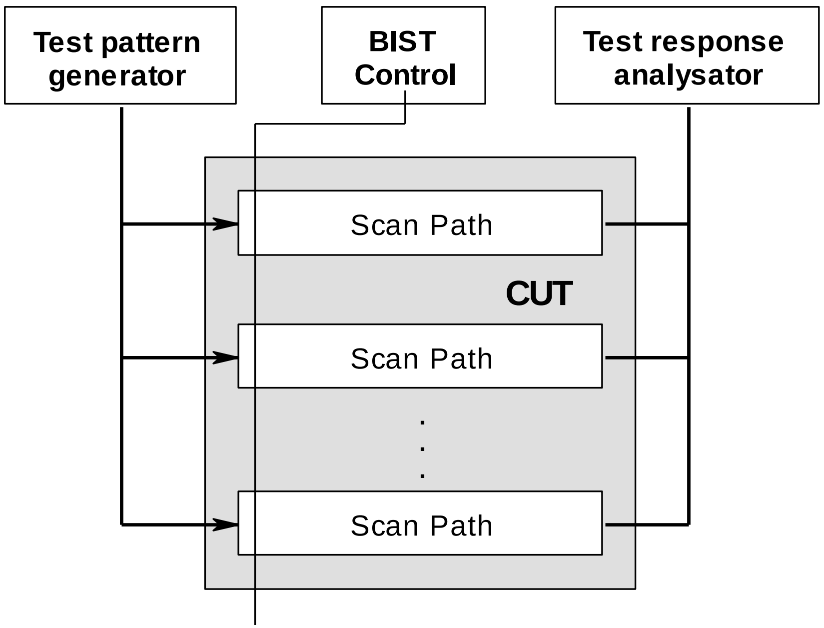
- testing time ↓
- memory cost ↓
- power consumption ↓
- hardware cost ↓
- test quality ↑

General Architecture of BIST



- BIST components:
  - Test pattern generator (TPG)
  - Test response analyzer (TRA)
- TPG & TRA are usually implemented as linear feedback shift registers (LFSR)
- Two widespread schemes:
  - test-per-scan
  - test-per-clock

Built-In Self-Test



- **Assumes existing scan architecture**
- **Drawback:**
  - **Long test application time**

Test per Scan:

Initial test set:

T1: 1100
T2: 1010
T3: 0101
T4: 1001

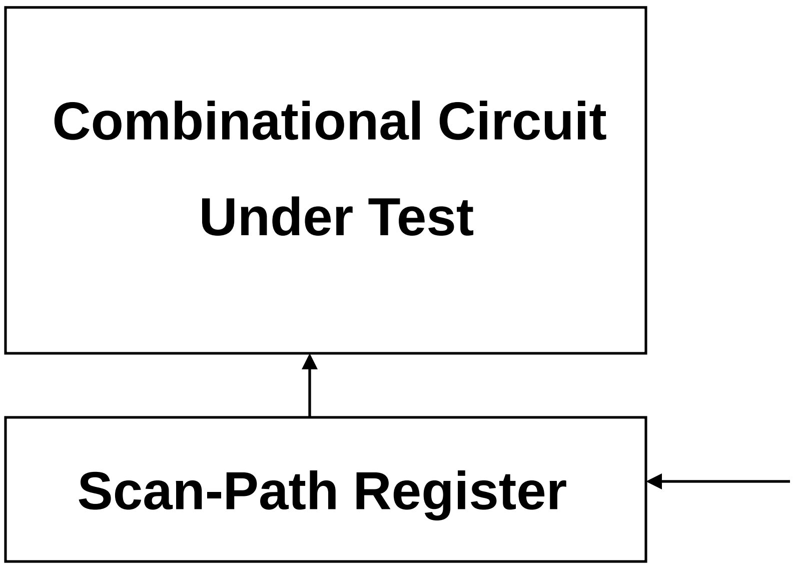
Test application:

1100 T 1010 T 0101T 1001 T

Number of clocks = (4 x 4) + 4 = 20

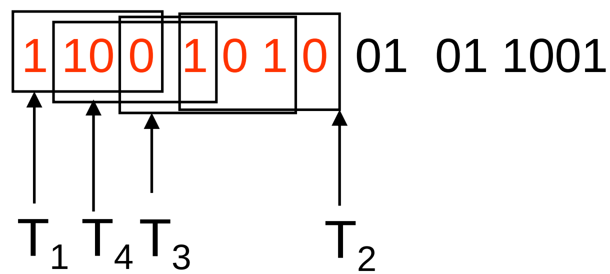
Built-In Self-Test

Test per Clock:



- **Initial test set:**
- T1: 1100
- T2: 1010
- T3: 0101
- T4: 1001

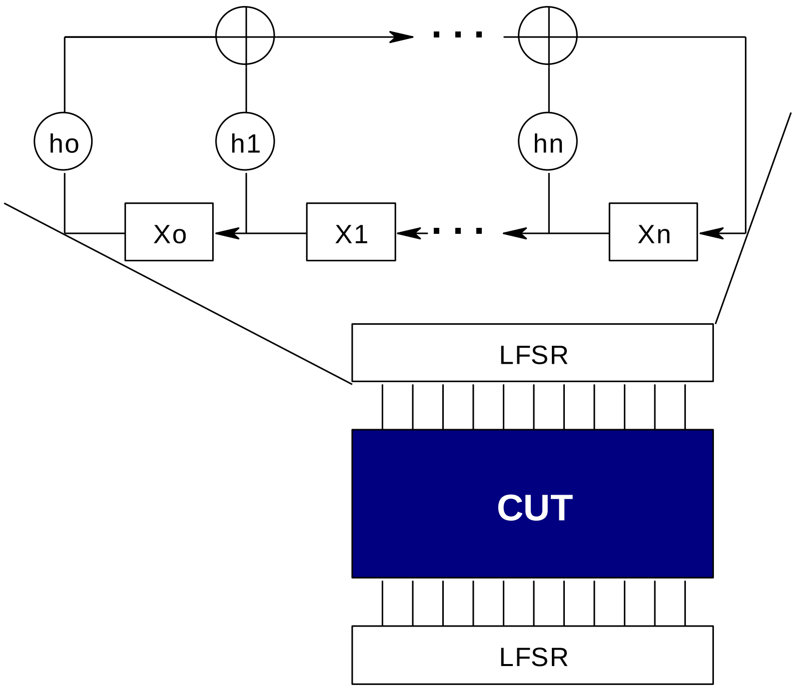
- **Test application:**



- Number of clocks = 8 < 20

Pattern Generation

Pseudorandom test generation by LFSR:

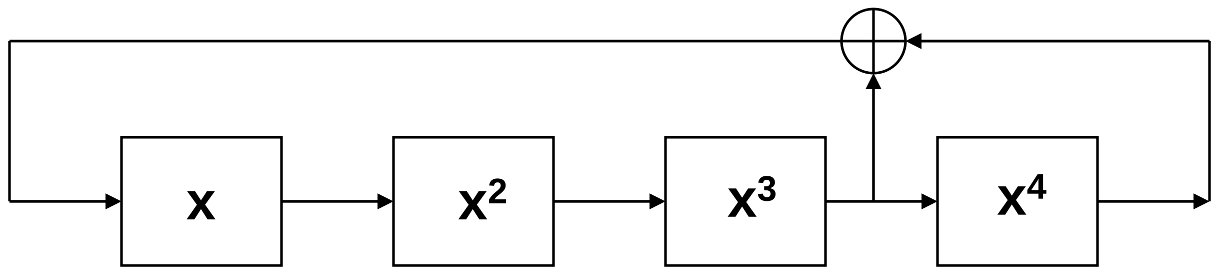


- **Using special LFSR registers**
  - Test pattern generator
  - Signature analyzer
- **Several proposals:**
  - BILBO
  - CSTP
- **Main characteristics of LFSR:**
  - polynomial
  - initial state
  - test length

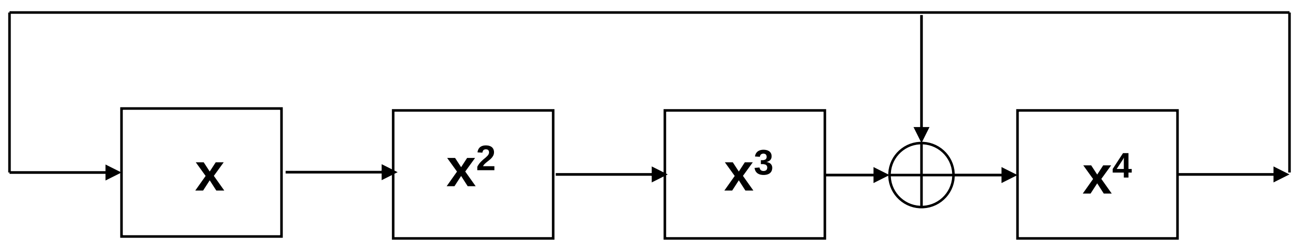
Pseudorandom Test Generation

LFSR – Linear Feedback Shift Register:

Standard LFSR



Modular LFSR

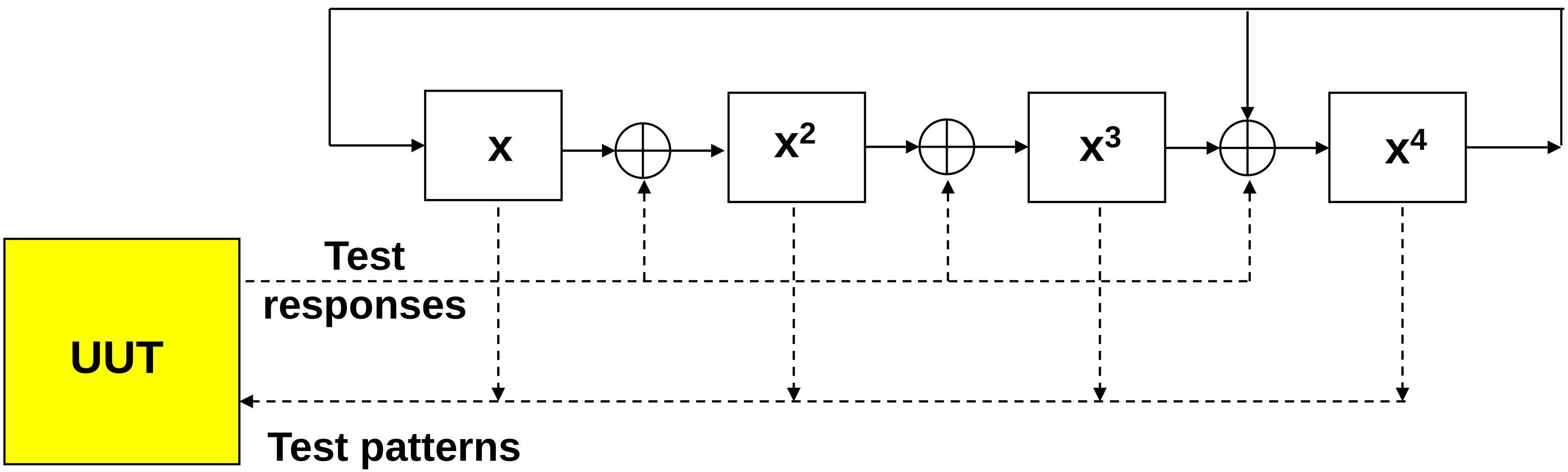


Polynomial: $P(x) = x^4 + x^3 + 1$

Pseudorandom Test Generation

LFSR – Linear Feedback Shift Register:

Why modular LFSR is useful for BIST?



Polynomial: $P(x) = x^4 + x^3 + 1$

BILBO BIST Architecture

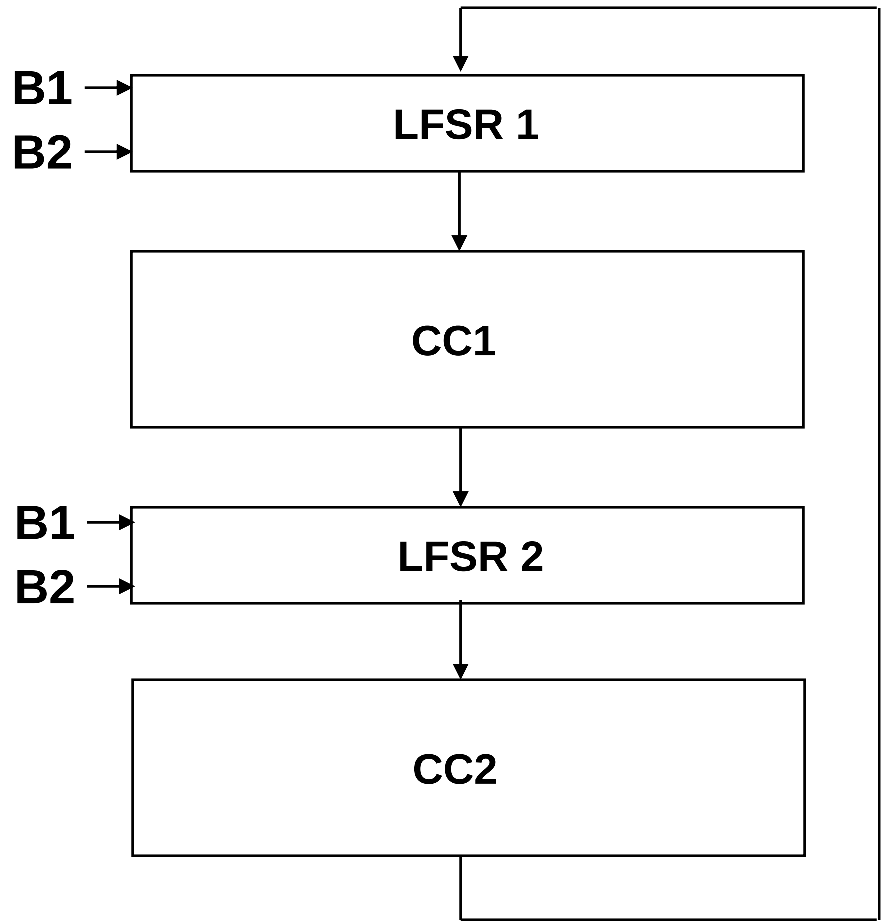
Working modes:

B1 B2

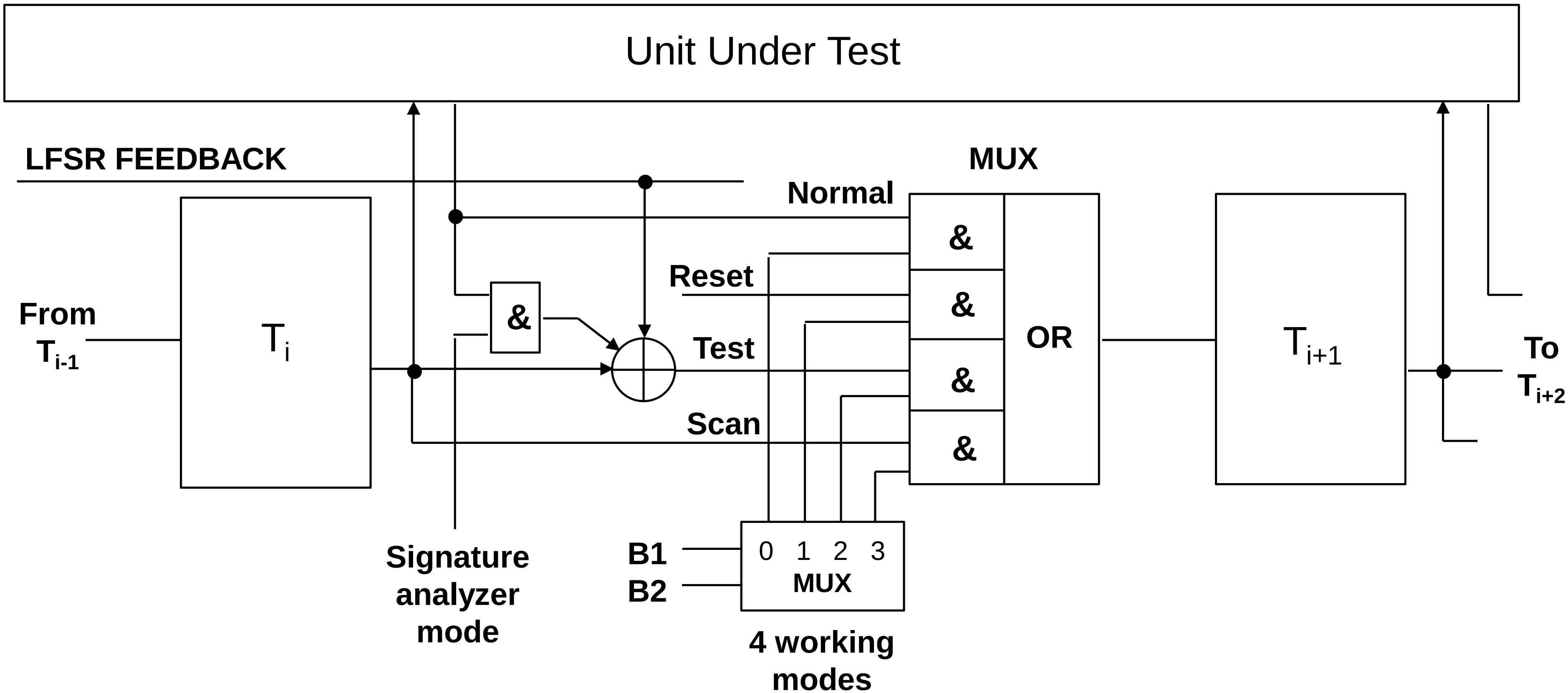
B1	B2	
0	0	Normal mode
0	1	Reset
1	0	Test mode
1	1	Scan mode

Testing modes:

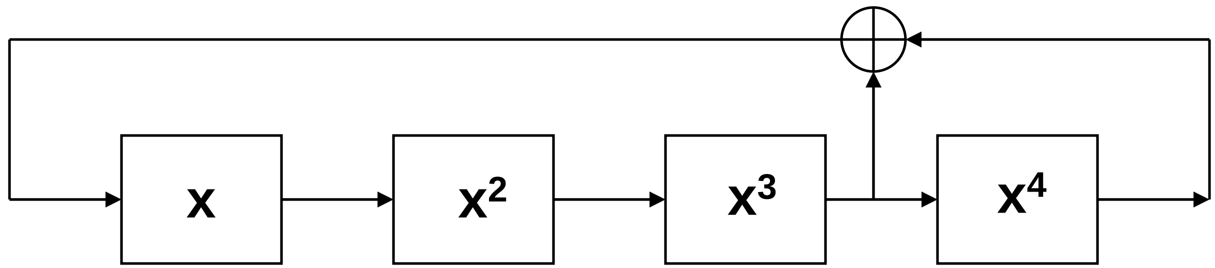
CC1:	LFSR 1	-	TPG
	LFSR 2	-	SA
CC2:	LFSR 2	-	TPG
	LFSR 1	-	SA



Reconfiguration of the LFSR



Pseudorandom Test Generation



Polynomial: $P(x) = x^4 + x^3 + 1$

$$\begin{pmatrix} X_4(t+1) \\ X_3(t+1) \\ X_2(t+1) \\ X_1(t+1) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & h_3 & h_2 & h_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X_4(t) \\ X_3(t) \\ X_2(t) \\ X_1(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

1 0 0

t	x	x^2	x^3	x^4	t	x	x^2	x^3	x^4
1	0	0	0	1	9	0	1	0	1
2	1	0	0	0	10	1	0	1	0
3	0	1	0	0	11	1	1	0	1
4	0	0	1	0	12	1	1	1	0
5	1	0	0	1	13	1	1	1	1
6	1	1	0	0	14	0	1	1	1
7	0	1	1	0	15	0	0	1	1
8	1	0	1	1	16	0	0	0	1

Theory of LFSR: Primitive Polynomials

Properties of Polynomials:

- ***Irreducible polynomial*** **–** cannot be factored, is divisible only by itself
- Irreducible polynomial of degree ***n*** is characterized by:
  - An odd number of terms including 1 term
  - Divisibility into $1 + x^k$, where $k = 2^n - 1$
- Any polynomial with all even exponents can be factored and hence is ***reducible***
- An irreducible polynomial of degree ***n*** is ***primitive*** if it divides the polynomial $1+x^k$ for $k = 2^n - 1$, **but not for any smaller** positive integer k

Theory of LFSR: Examples

Polynomials of degree n=3 (examples):

$$k = 2^n - 1 = 2^3 - 1 = 7$$

Primitive polynomials:

$$x^3 + x^2 + 1$$

$$x^3 + x + 1$$

The polynomials will divide evenly the polynomial $x^7 + 1$ but not any one of $k<7$, hence, they are primitive

They are also reciprocal: coefficients are 1011 and 1101

Reducible polynomials (non-primitive):

Primitive polynomial

$$x^3 + 1 = (x+1)(x^2 + x + 1)$$

$$x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 = (x+1)(x^2 + 1)$$

The polynomials don't divide evenly the polynomial $x^7 + 1$

Theory of LFSR: Examples

Is $x^4 + x^2 + 1$ **a primitive polynomial?**

Irreducible polynomial of degree *n* is characterized by:

- An odd number of terms including 1 term?

Yes, it includes 3 terms

- Divisibility into $1 + x^k$, where $k = 2^n - 1$

No, there is remainder

$x^4 + x^2 + 1$ **is non-primitive?**

Divisibility check:

Dividend: $x^{15} + 1$; divisor: $x^4 + x^2 + 1$; quotient: $x^{11} + x^9 + x^5 + x^3$

$$x^{15} + 1$$
$$x^{15} + x^{13} + x^{11}$$
$$x^{13} + x^{11} + 1$$
$$x^{13} + x^{11} + x^9$$
$$x^9 + 1$$
$$x^9 + x^7 + x^5$$
$$x^7 + x^5 + 1$$
$$x^7 + x^5 + x^3$$
$$x^3 + 1$$

Theory of LFSR: Examples

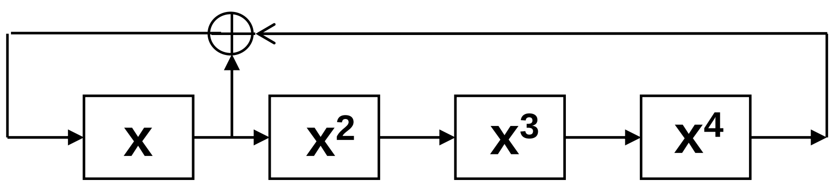
Comparison of test sequences generated:

Primitive polynomials		Non-primitive polynomials	
x^3+x+1	x^3+x^2+1	x^3+1	x^3+x^2+x+1
100	100	100	100
110	010	010	110
111	101	001	011
011	110	100	001
101	111	010	100
010	011	001	110
001	001	100	011
100	100	010	001

Theory of LFSR: Examples

Primitive polynomial

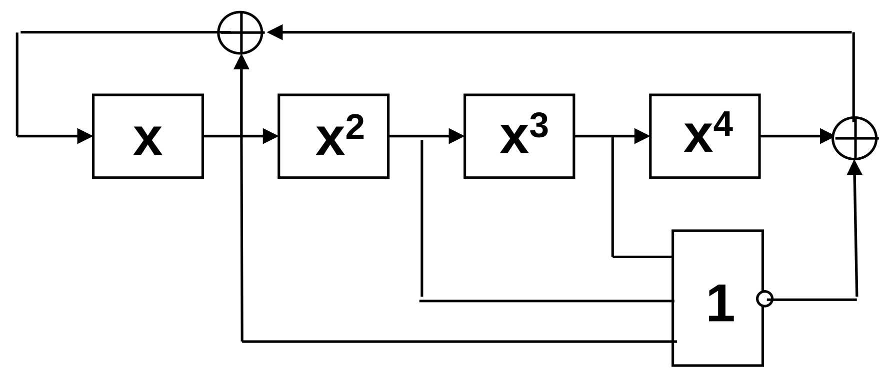
$x^4 + x + 1$



0001	1011	1001
1000	0101	0100
1100	1010	0010
1110	1101	0001
1111	0110	
0111	0011	

The code 0000 is missing

Zero generation:

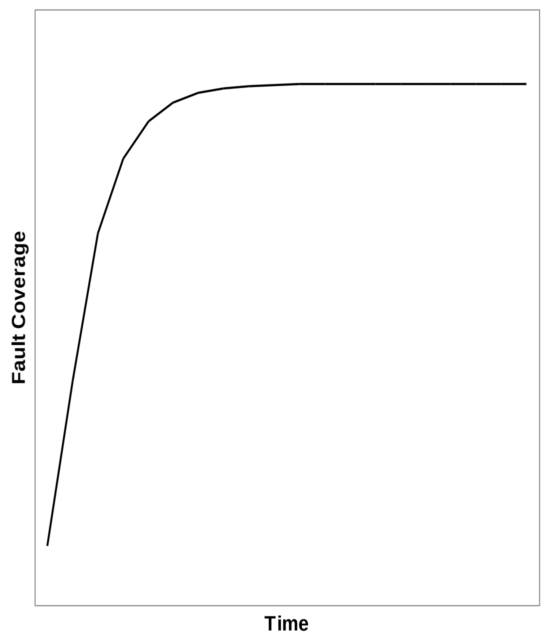


0000		
1000	1011	1001
1100	0101	0100
1110	1010	0010
1111	1101	0001
0111	0110	0000
	0011	

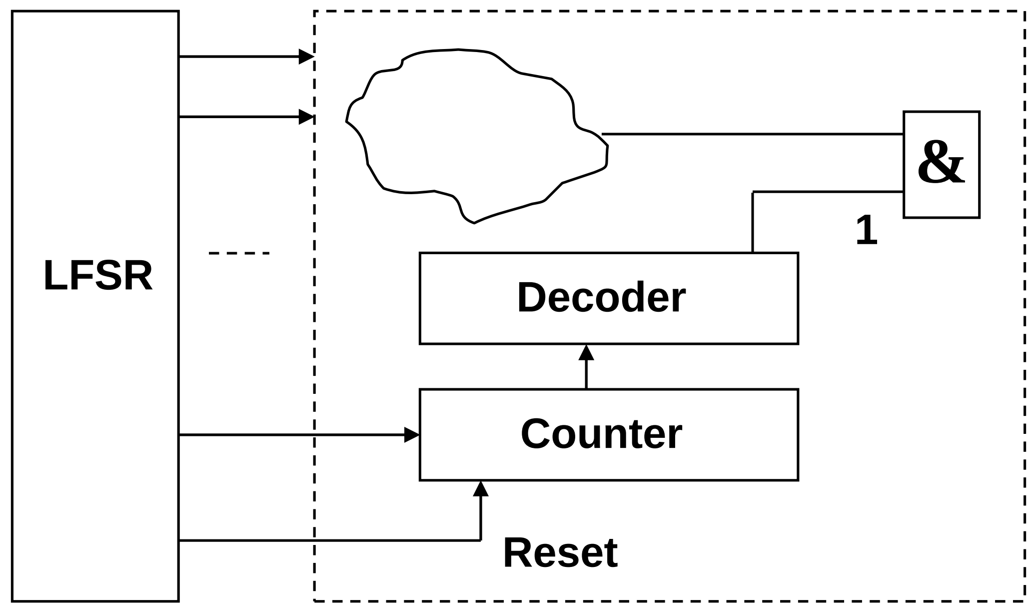
Other Problems with Pseudorandom Test

The main motivations of using random patterns are:

- **low generation cost**
- **high initial efeciency**



Problem: **low fault coverage**

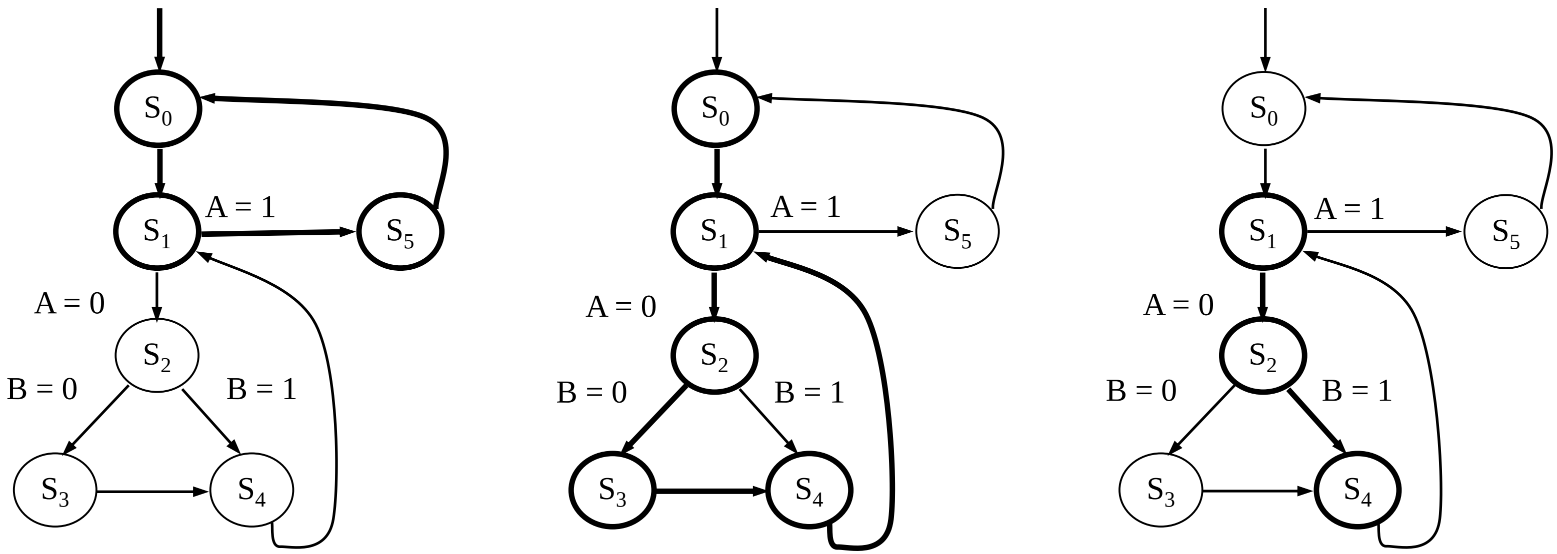


If Reset = 1 signal has probability 0,5 then counter will not work and 1 for AND gate may never be produced

Sequential BIST

A DFT technique of BIST for sequential circuits is proposed

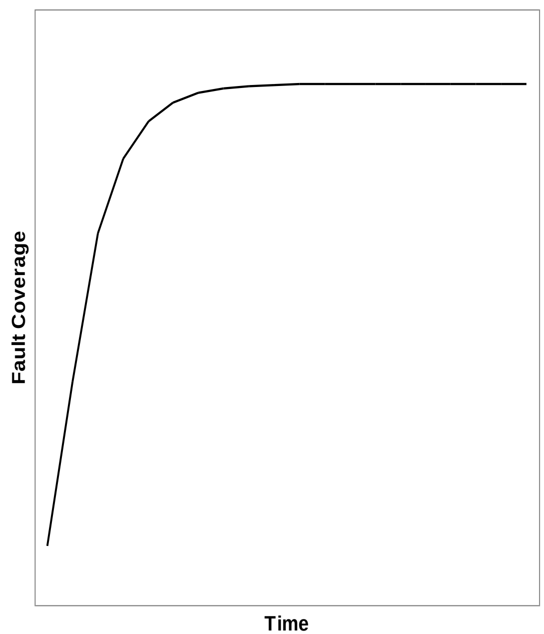
The approach proposed is based on all-branches coverage metrics which is known to be more powerful than all-statement coverage



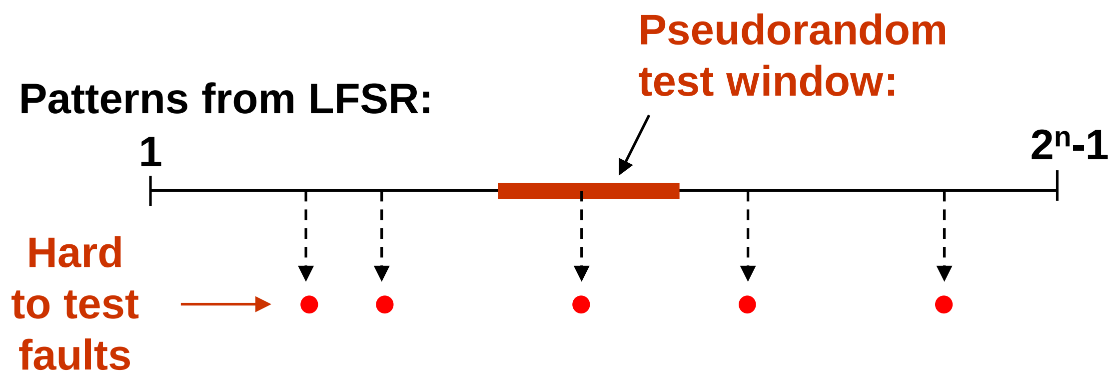
Problems with BIST: Hard to Test Faults

The main motivations of using random patterns are:

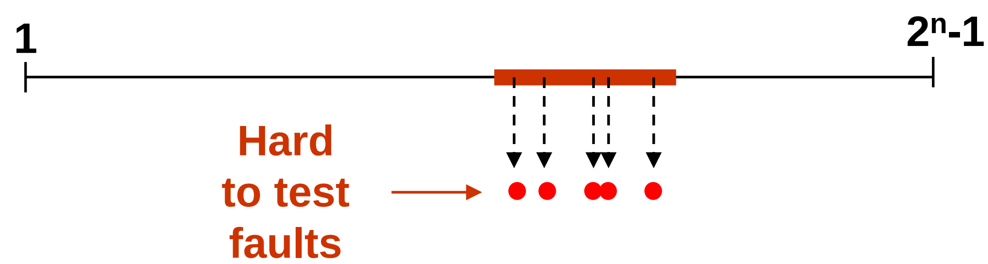
- low generation cost
- high initial efeciency



Problem: Low fault coverage

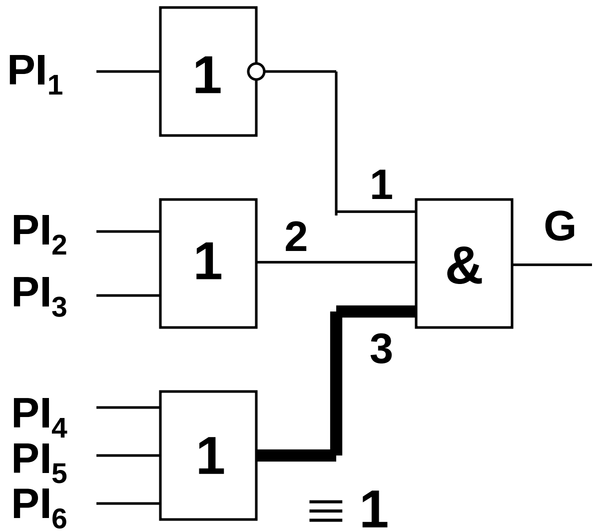


Dream solution: Find LFSR such that:



BIST: Weighted pseudorandom test

Calculation of signal probabilities:



For PI_1 **:** **P = 0.15**

For PI_2 *and* PI_3 **:** **P = 0.6**

For PI_4 - PI_6 **:** **P = 0.4**

Probability of detecting the fault ≡1 at the input 3 of the gate G:

1) equal probabilities (p = 0.5):

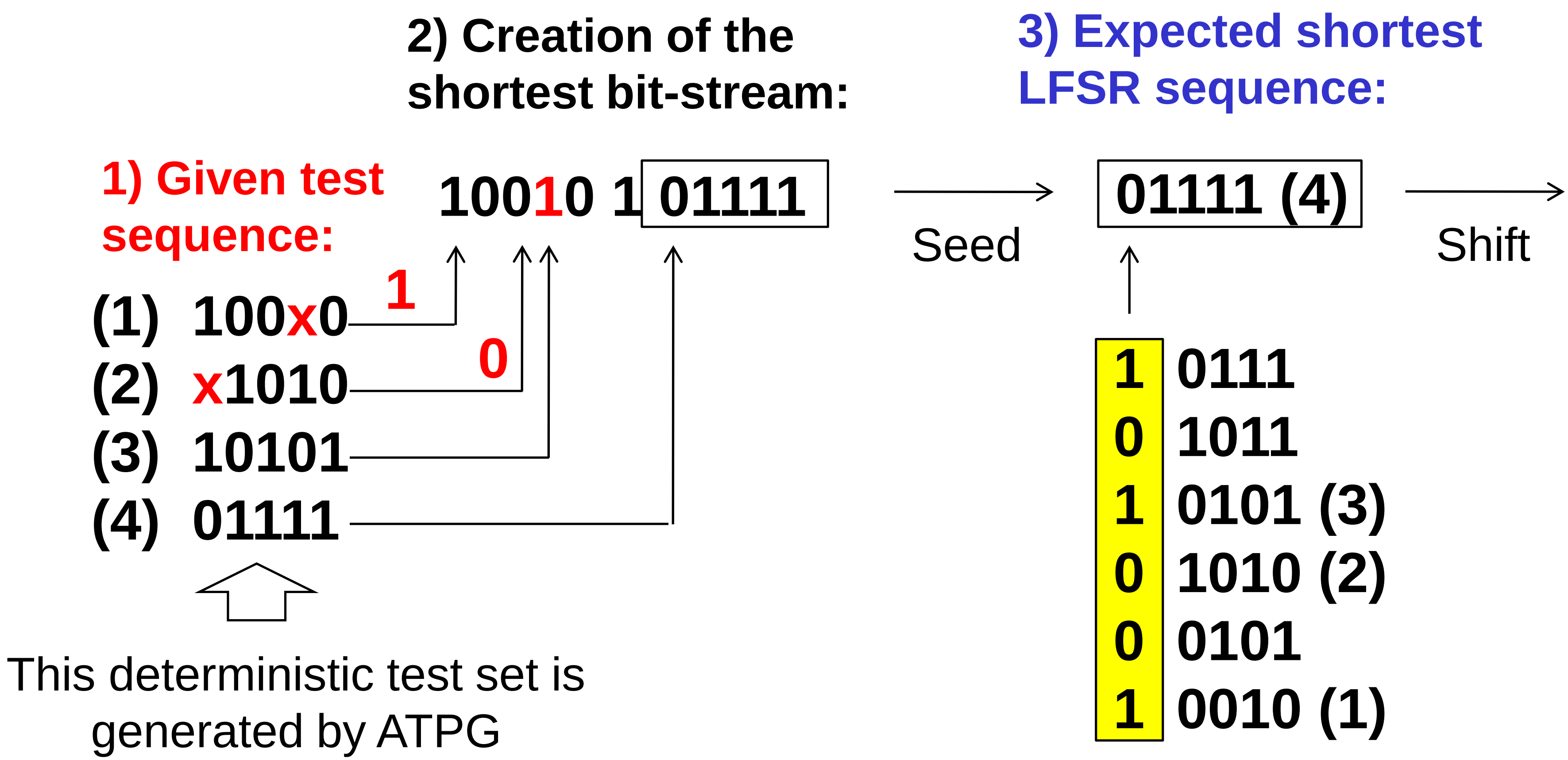
$$P = 0.5 * (0.25 + 0.25 + 0.25) * 0.5^3 =$$
$$= 0.5 * 0.75 * 0.125 =$$
$$= 0.046$$

2) weighted probabilities:

$$P = 0.85 *$$
$$* (0.6 * 0.4 + 0.4 * 0.6 + 0.6^2) *$$
$$* 0.6^3 =$$
$$= 0.85 * 0.84 * 0.22 =$$
$$= 0.16$$

Deterministic Synthesis of LFSR

Generation of the polynomial and seed for the given test sequence



Deterministic Synthesis of LFSR

Generation of the polynomial and seed for the given test sequence

Expected shortest LFSR sequence:

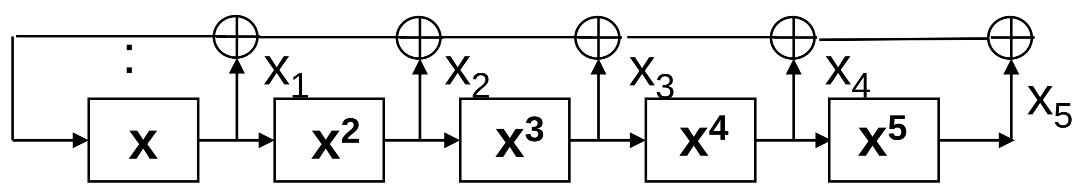
01111 (4)

1 0111
0 1011
1 0101 (3)
0 1010 (2)
0 0101
1 0010 (1)

System of linear equations: $ax_1 \oplus bx_2 \oplus cx_3 \oplus dx_4 \oplus ex_5 = f$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 01111 \\ 10111 \\ 01011 \\ 10101 \\ 01010 \\ 00101 \end{vmatrix} \times \begin{vmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

We are looking for the values of x_i



Deterministic Synthesis of LFSR

Generation of the polynomial and seed for the given test sequence

System of linear equations:

$$
\begin{array}{c} 1\\2\\3\\4\\5\\6 \end{array}
\begin{vmatrix} 01111 \\ 10111 \\ 01011 \\ 10101 \\ 01010 \\ 00101 \end{vmatrix}
\times
\begin{vmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{vmatrix}
=
\begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{vmatrix}
$$

Solving the equation by Gaussian elimination with swapping of rows

Rows:

- 1,2,4,6
- 4,6
- 1,3
- 2,4
- 1,3,6

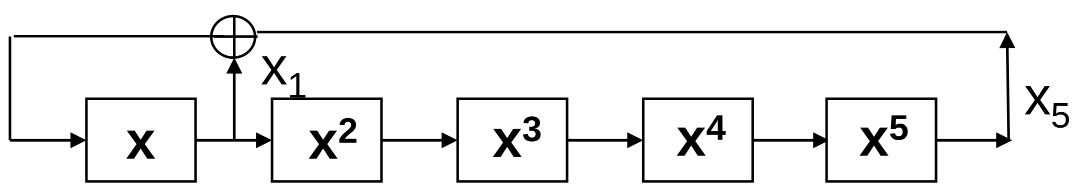
Results:

$$
\begin{vmatrix} 01000 \\ 10000 \\ 00100 \\ 00010 \\ 00001 \\ 00001 \end{vmatrix}
\times
\begin{vmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{vmatrix}
=
\begin{vmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{vmatrix}
$$

Polynomial: $x^5 + x + 1$ Seed: 01111

4) Solution:

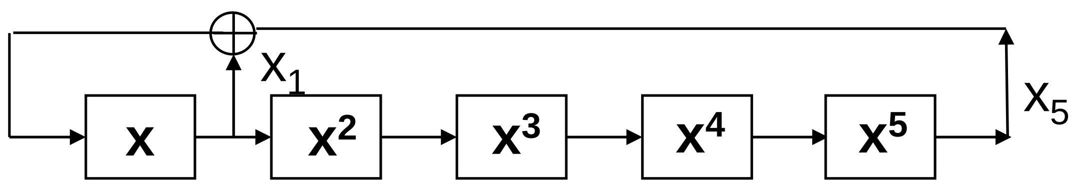
x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5
1	0	0	0	1



Deterministic Synthesis of LFSR

Embedding deterministic test patterns into LFSR sequence:

5) Polynomial: $x^5 + x + 1$ Seed: **01111**



LFSR sequence:

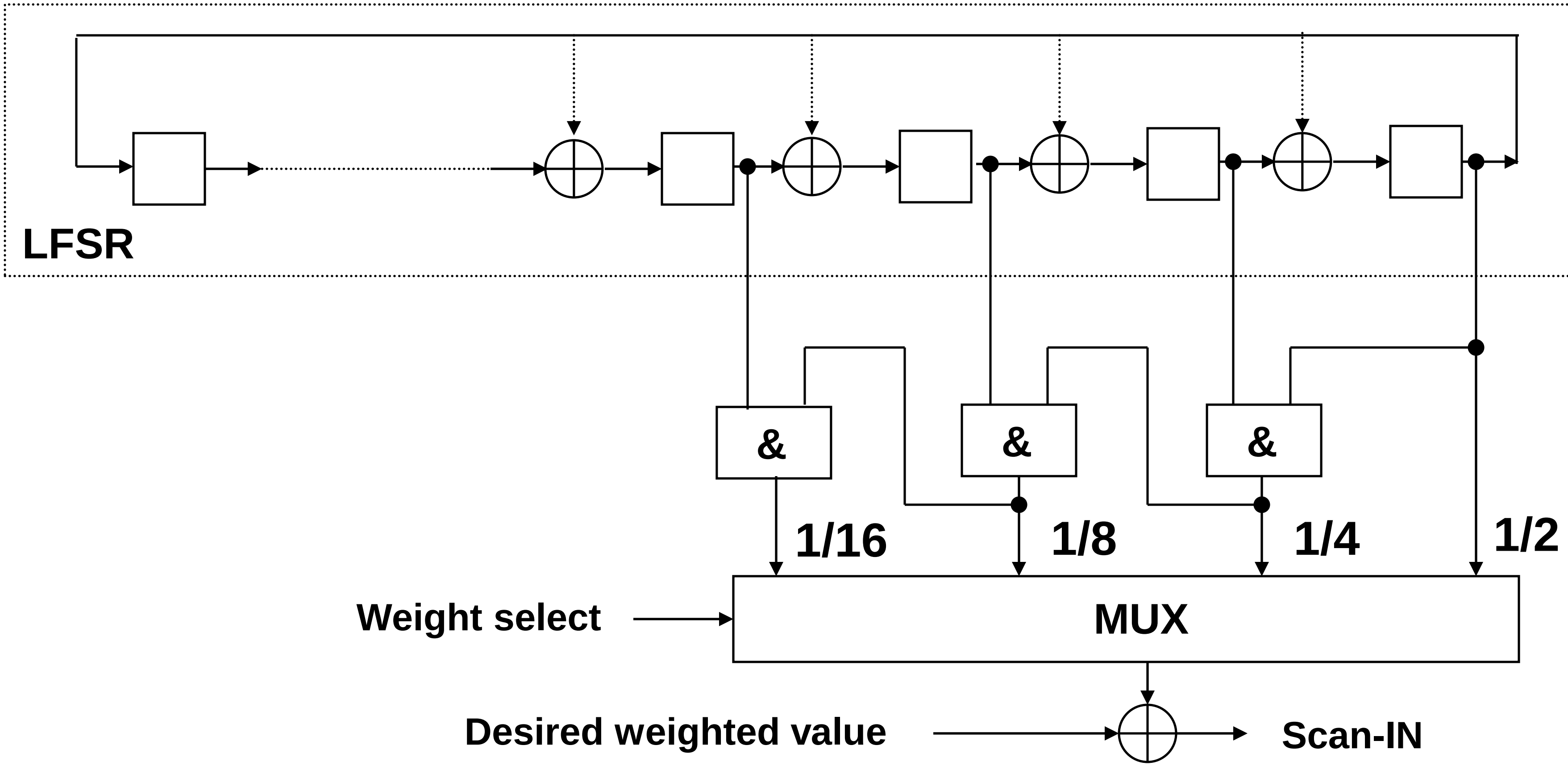
- **(1) 01111 (4)**
- **(2) 10111**
- **(3) 01011**
- **(4) 10101 (3)**
- **(5) 01010 (2)**
- **(6) 00101**
- **(7) 10010 (1)**

Given deterministic test sequence:

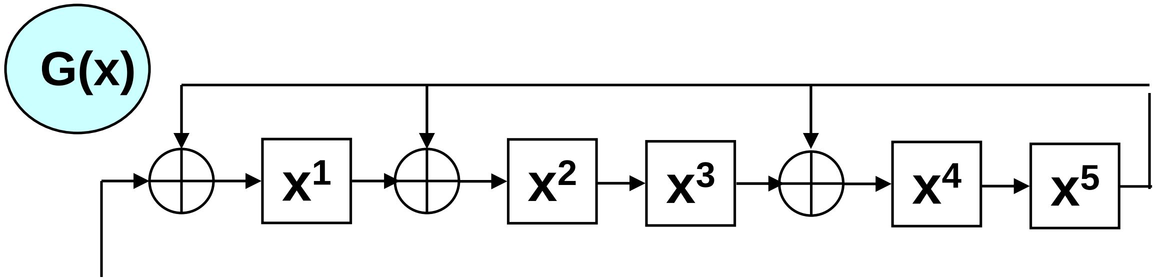
- **(1) 100x0**
- **(2) x1010**
- **(3) 10101**
- **(4) 01111**

BIST: Weighted pseudorandom test

Hardware implementation of weight generator



BIST: Signature Analysis



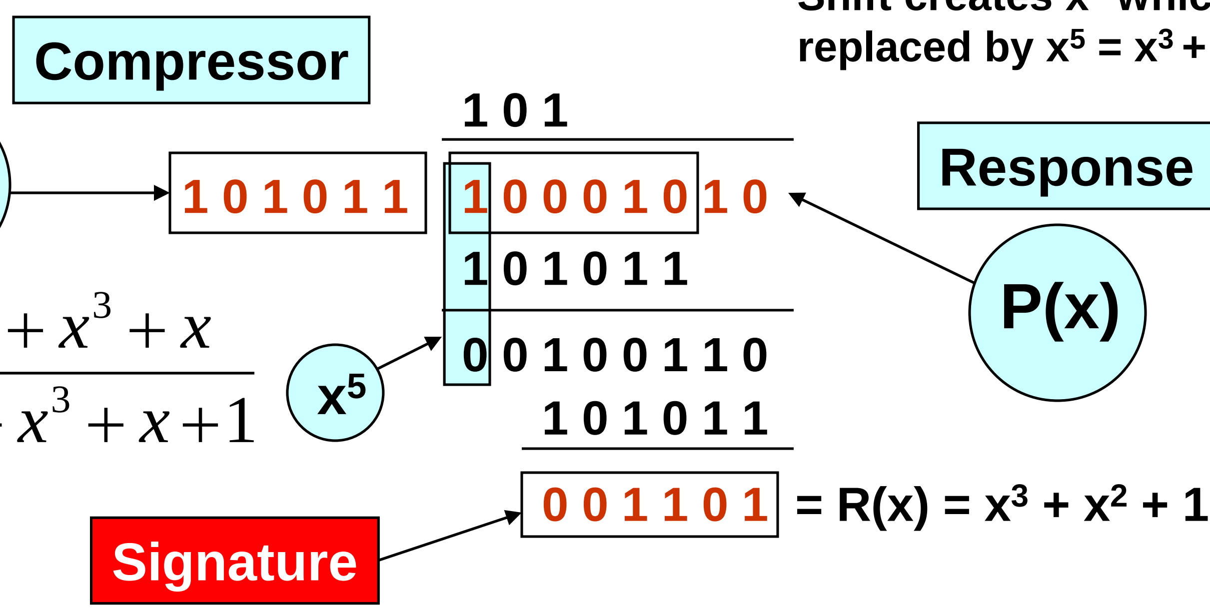
IN: 01 010001 → Shifted into LFSR

P(x)

The division process can be mechanized using LFSR

The divisor polynomial G(x) is defined by the feedback connections

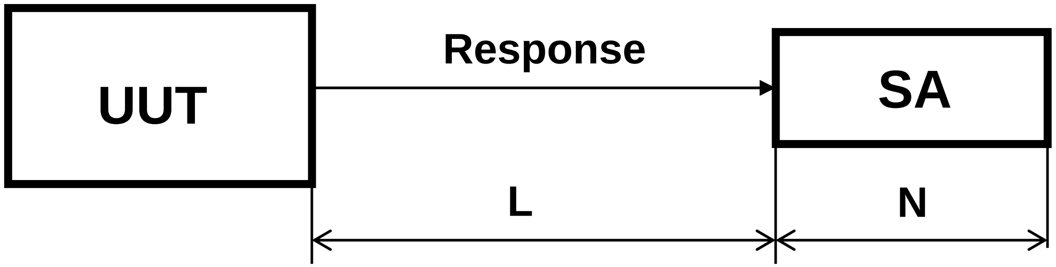
Shift creates x^5 which is replaced by $x^5 = x^3 + x + 1$



$$\frac{P(x)}{G(x)} = \frac{x^7 + x^3 + x}{x^5 + x^3 + x + 1}$$

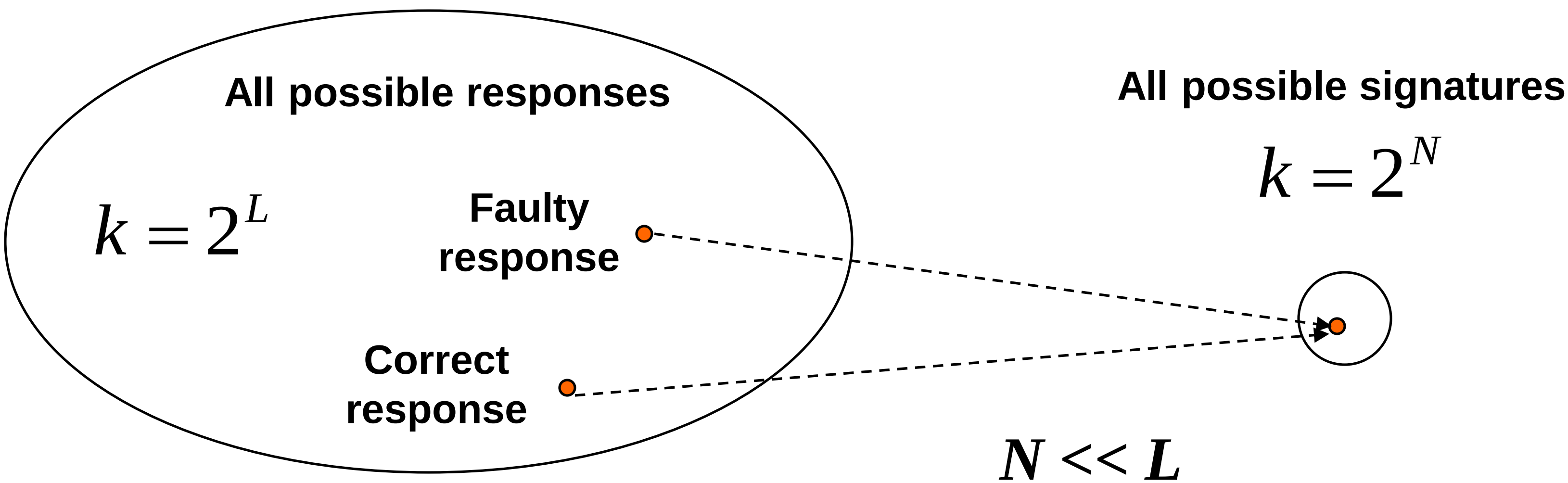
BIST: Signature Analysis

Aliasing:



L - test length

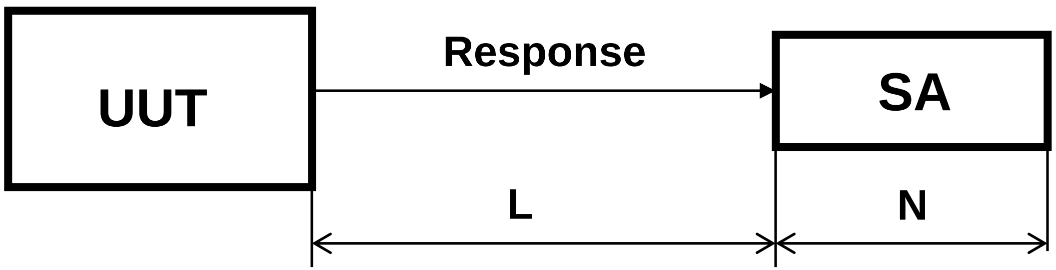
N - number of stages in Signature Analyzer



$N << L$

BIST: Signature Analysis

Aliasing:



L - test length

N - number of stages in Signature Analyzer

$$k = 2^L$$ - **number of different possible responses**

No aliasing is possible for those strings with *L - N* leading zeros since they are represented by polynomials of degree *N - 1* that are not divisible by characteristic polynomial of LFSR

000000000000000 ... 00000 XXXXX

L **N**

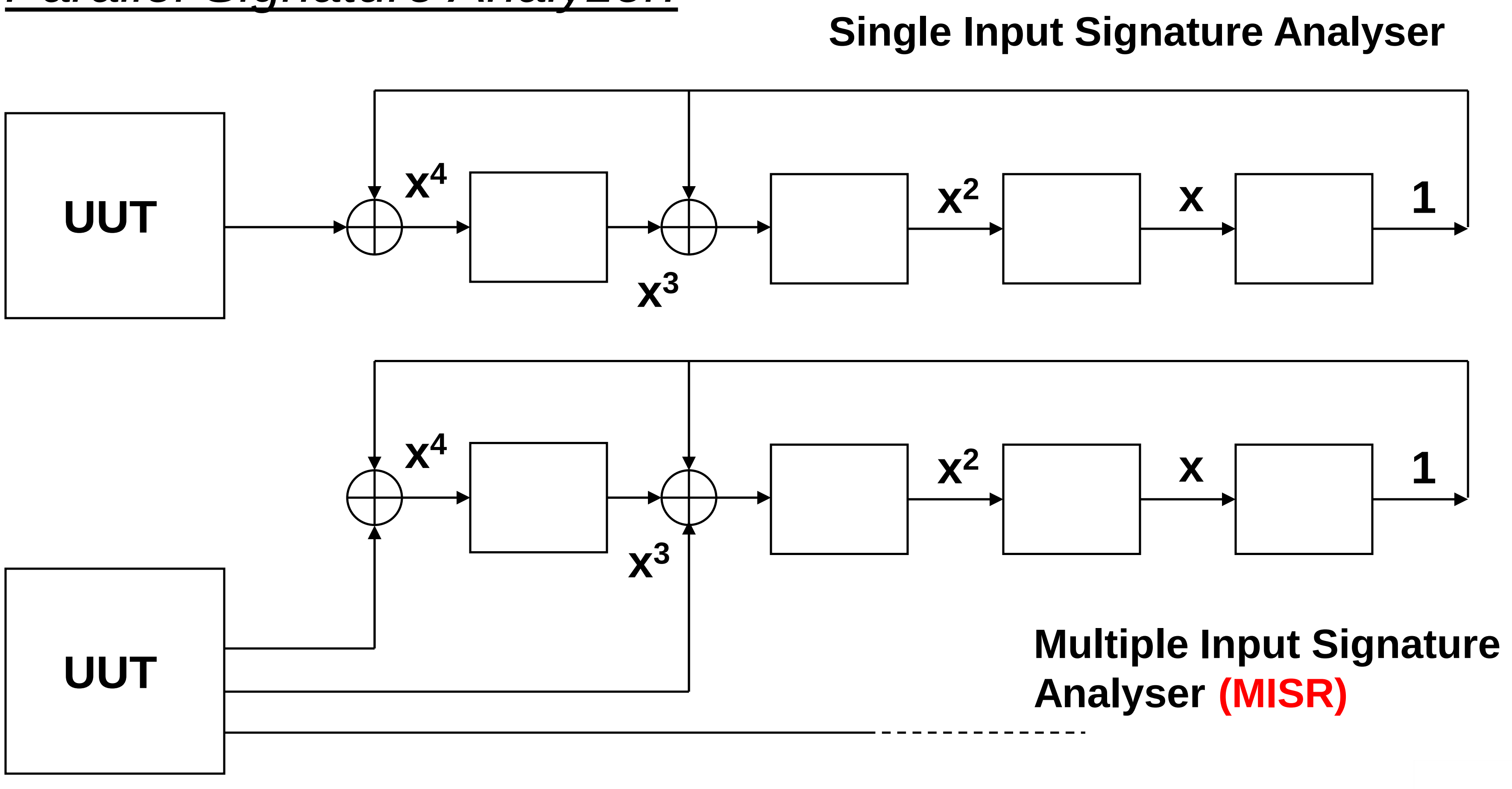
$$2^{L-N} - 1$$ - **aliasing is possible**

Probability of aliasing:

$$P = \frac{2^{L-N} - 1}{2^L - 1} \xrightarrow{L >> 1} P = \frac{1}{2^N}$$

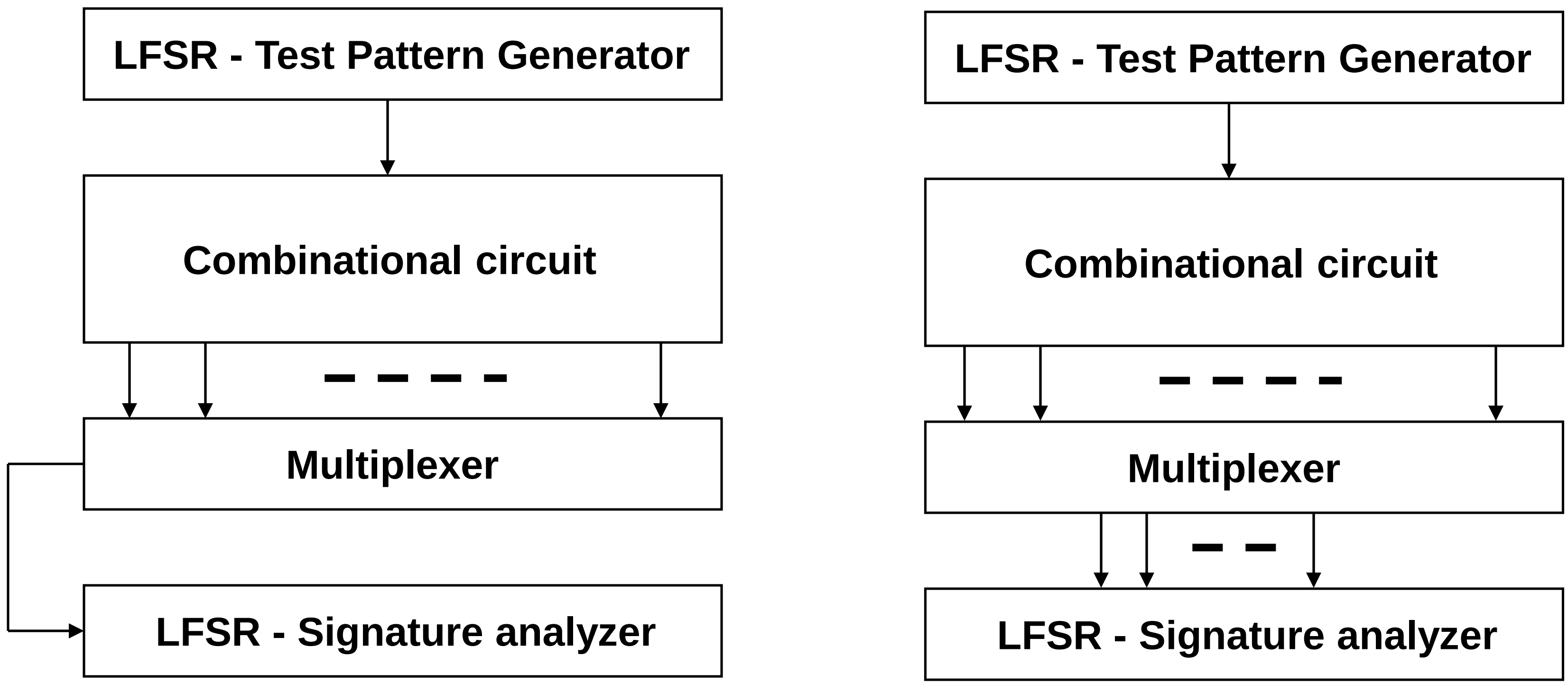
BIST: Signature Analysis

Parallel Signature Analyzer:

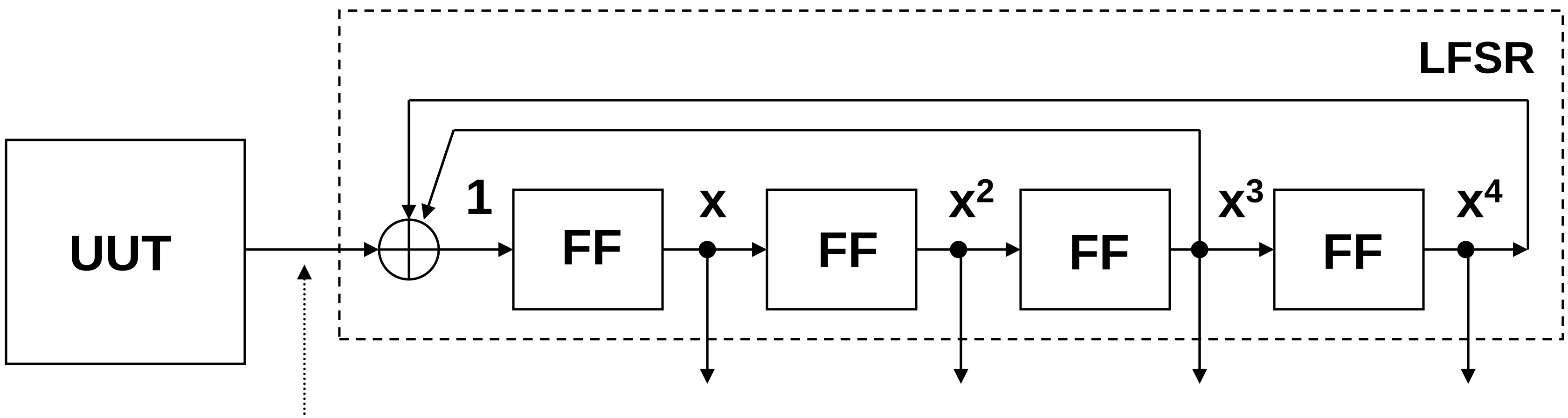


BIST: Signature Analysis

<u>*Signature calculating for multiple outputs:*</u>



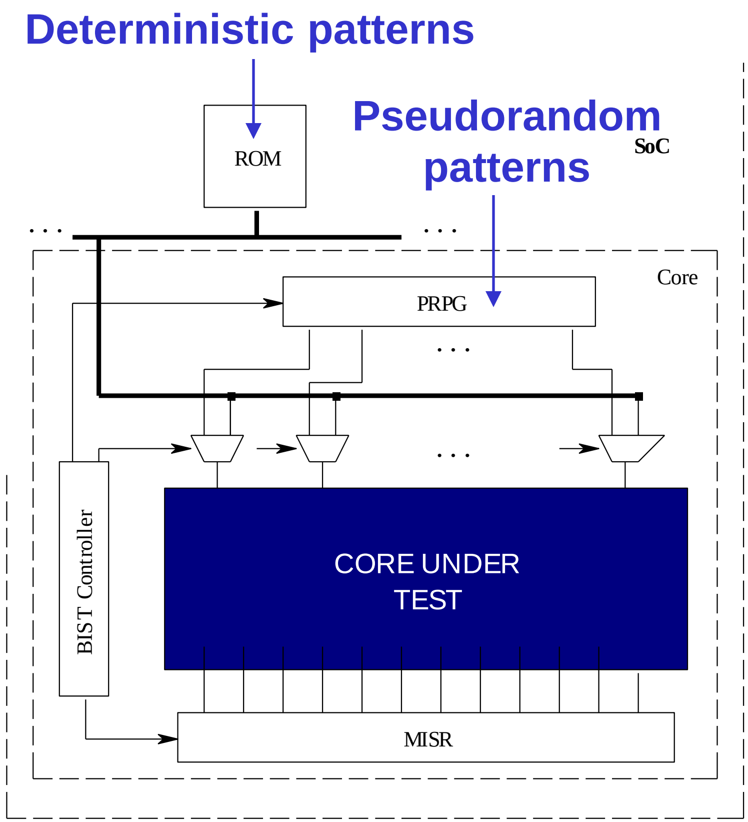
BIST: Joining TPG and SA



Response string for
Signature Analysis

Test Pattern (when generating tests)
Signature (when analyzing test responses)

Hybrid Built-In Self-Test

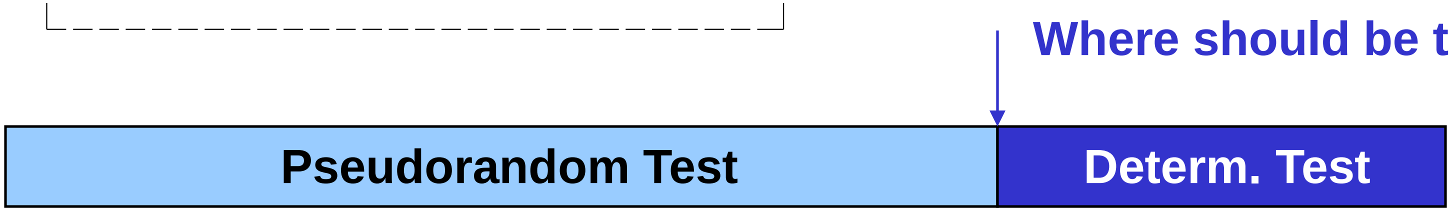


Hybrid test set contains pseudorandom and deterministic vectors

Pseudorandom test is improved by a stored test set which is specially generated to target the random resistant faults

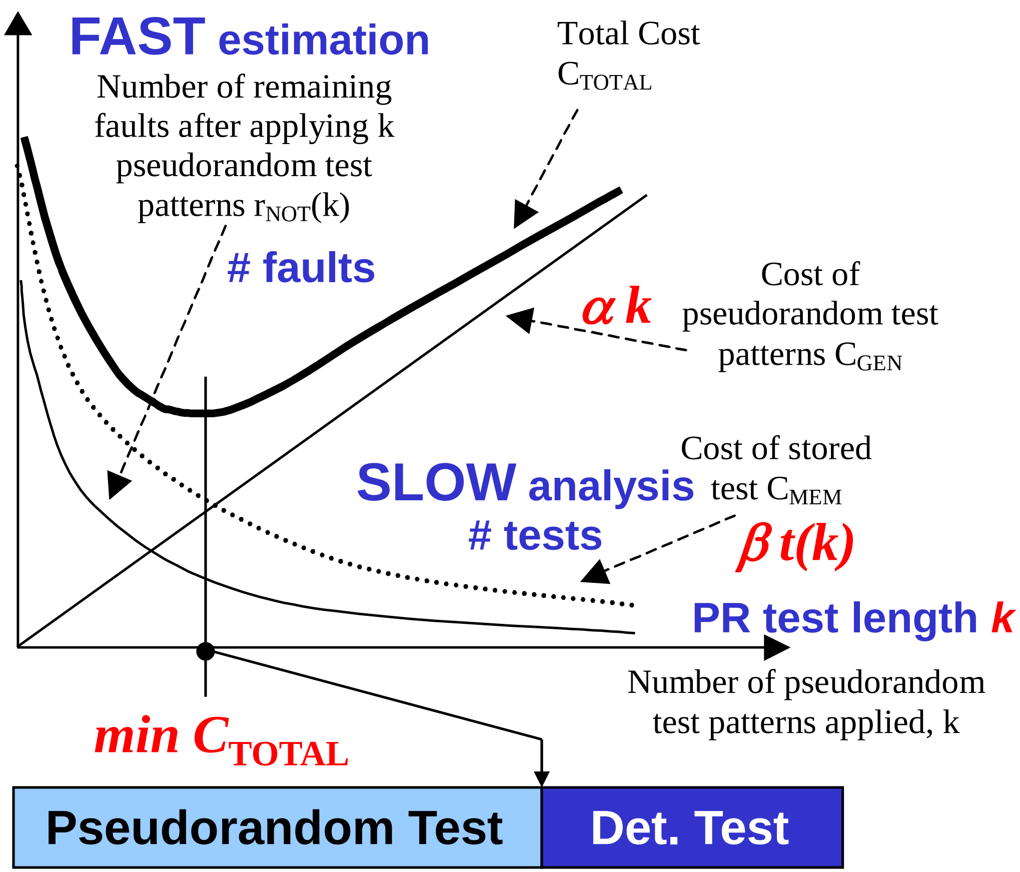
Optimization problem:

Where should be this breakpoint?



Optimization of Hybrid BIST

Cost of BIST: $C_{TOTAL} = \alpha k + \beta t(k)$



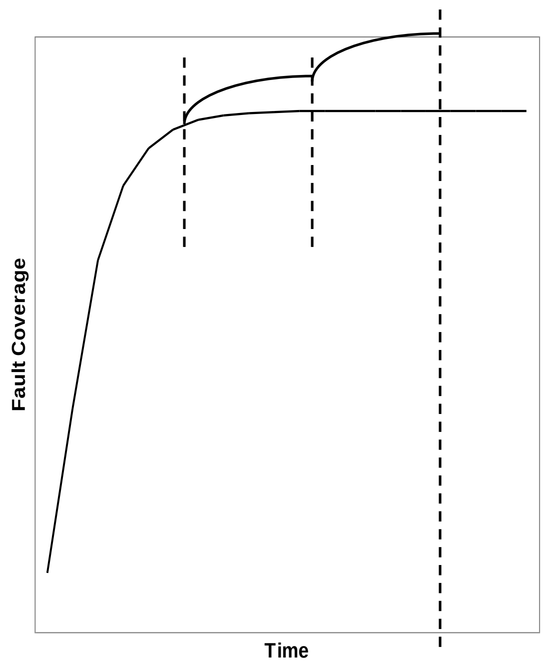
PR test length — # faults not detected (fast analysis) — # tests needed (slow analysis)

k	$r_{DET}(k)$	$r_{NOT}(k)$	$FC(k)$	$t(k)$
1	155	839	15.6%	104
2	76	763	23.2%	104
3	65	698	29.8%	100
4	90	608	38.8%	101
5	44	564	43.3%	99
10	104	421	57.6%	95
20	44	311	68.7%	87
50	51	218	78.1%	74
100	16	145	85.4%	52
200	18	114	88.5%	41
411	31	70	93.0%	26
954	18	28	97.2%	12
1560	8	16	98.4%	7
2153	11	5	99.5%	3
3449	2	3	99.7%	2
4519	2	1	99.9%	1
4520	1	0	100.0%	0

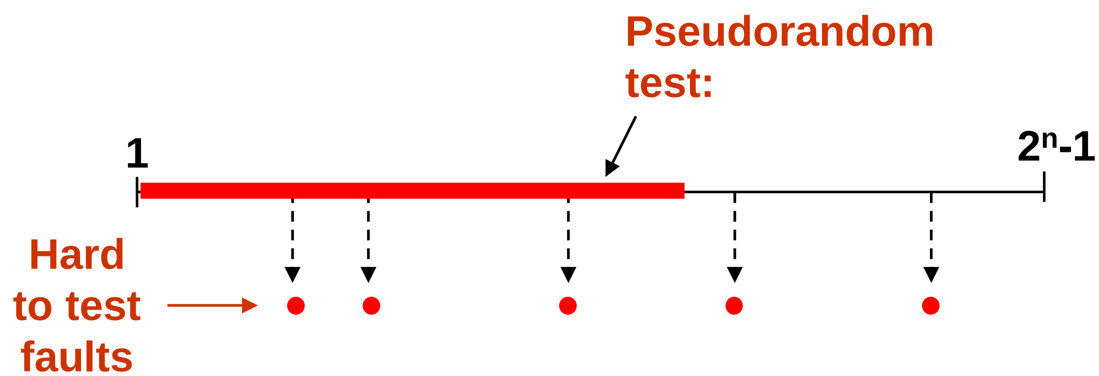
Hybrid BIST with Reseeding

The motivation of using random patterns is:

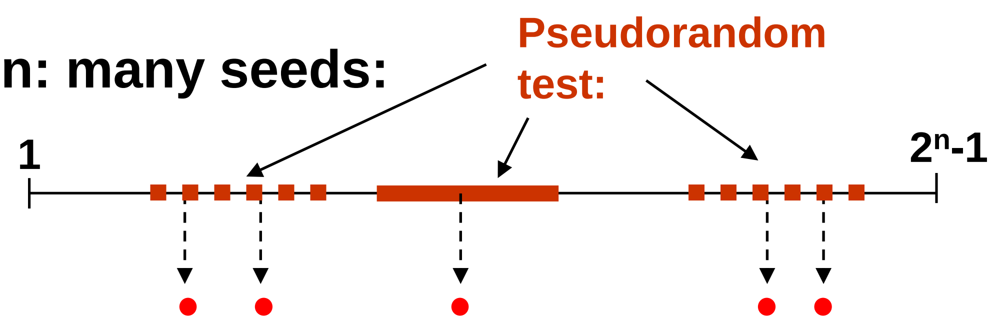
- low generation cost
- high initial efeciency



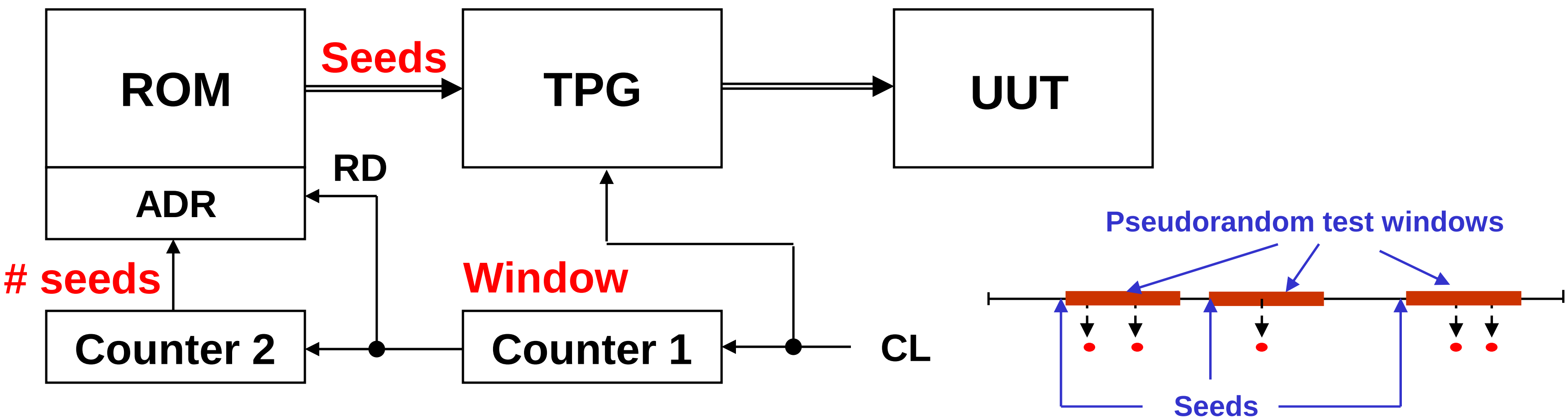
Problem: low fault coverage → long PR test



Solution: many seeds:

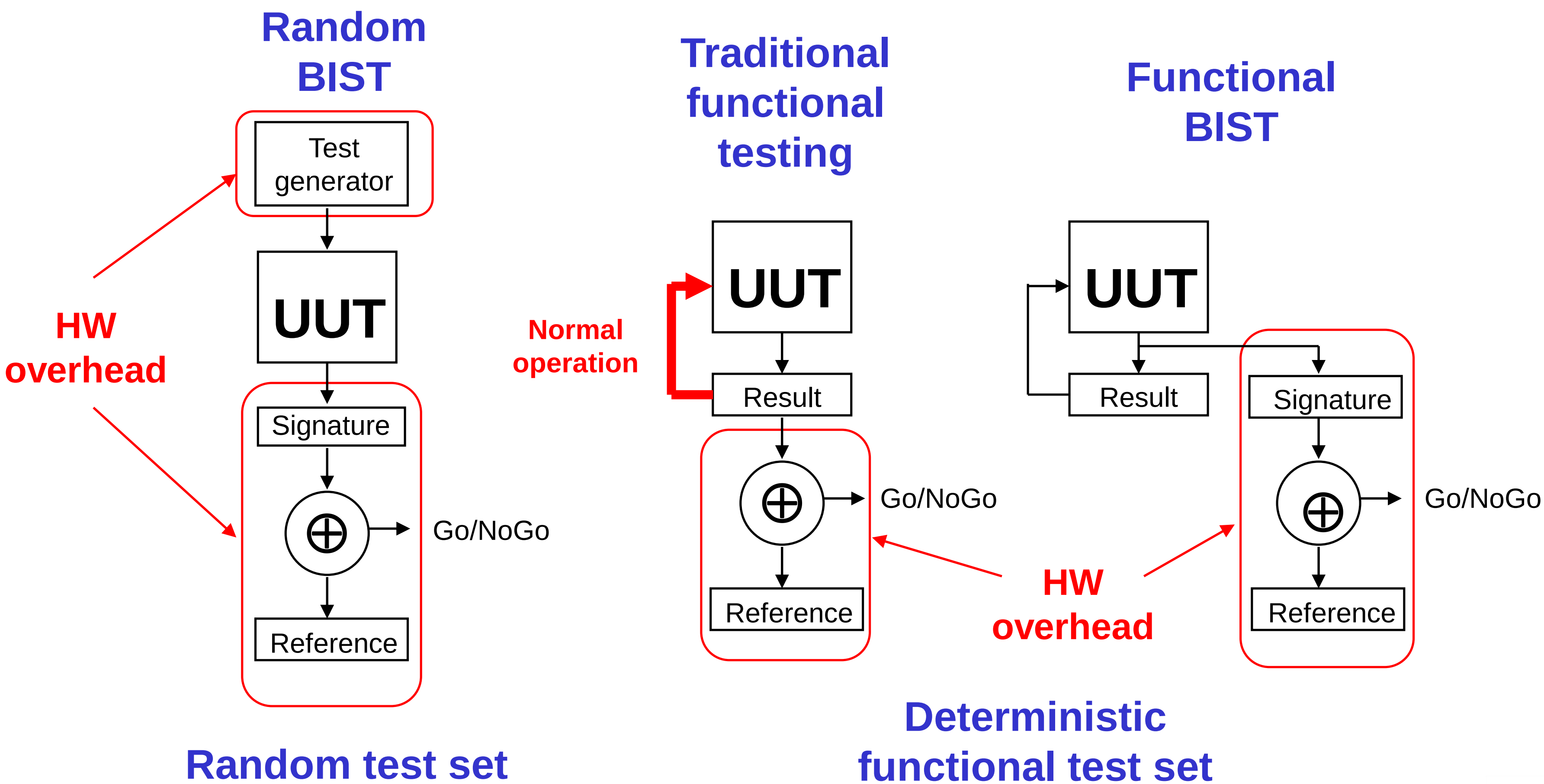


Store-and-Generate Test Architecture



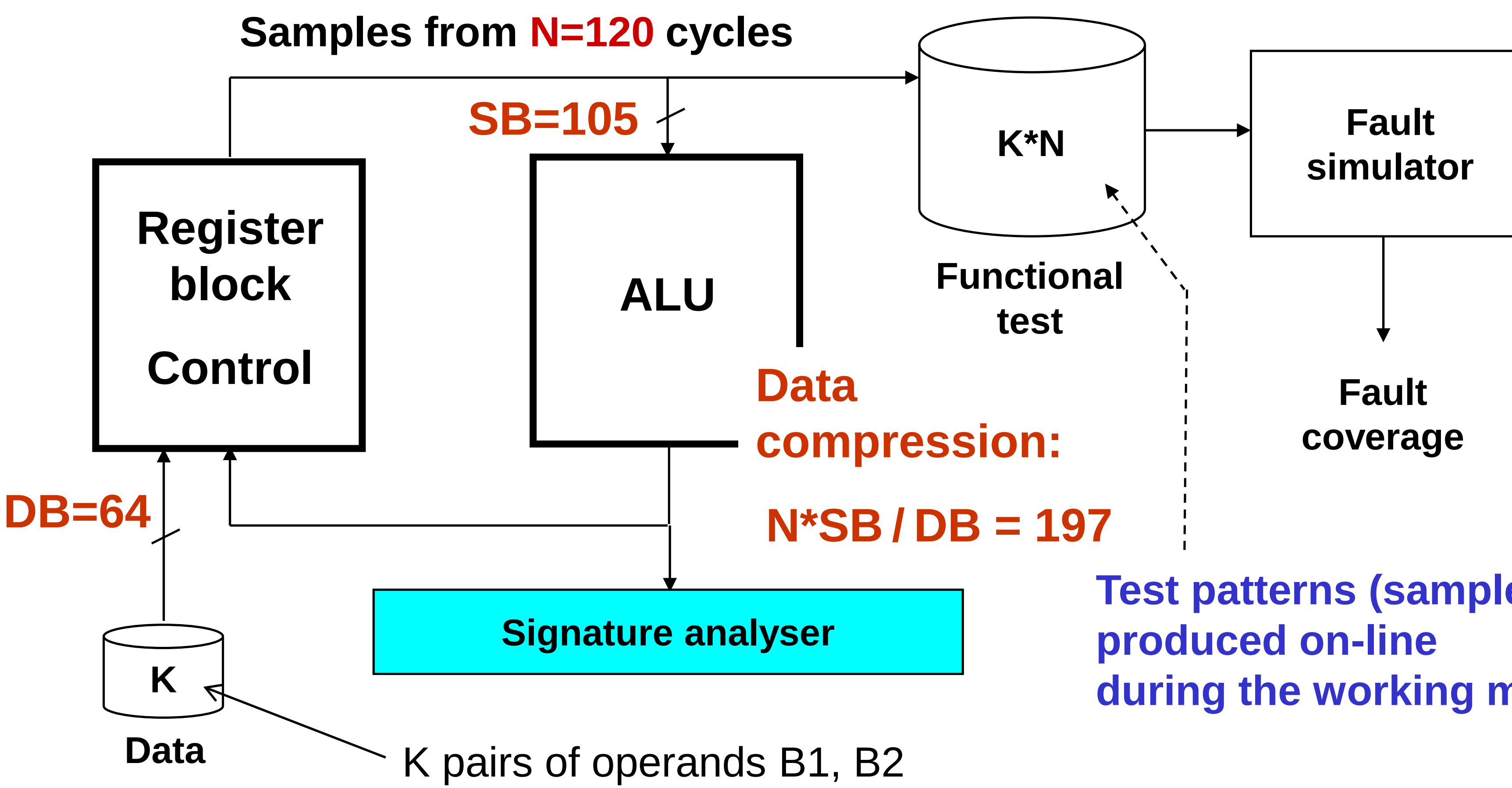
- ROM contains test patterns for hard-to-test faults
- Each pattern P_k in ROM serves as an initial state of the LFSR for test pattern generation (TPG) - **seeds**
- Counter 1 counts the number of pseudorandom patterns generated starting from P_k - **width of the windows**
- After finishing the cycle for Counter 2 is incremented for reading the next pattern P_{k+1} – **beginning of the new window**

Random BIST vs Functional BIST



Example: Functional BIST for Divider

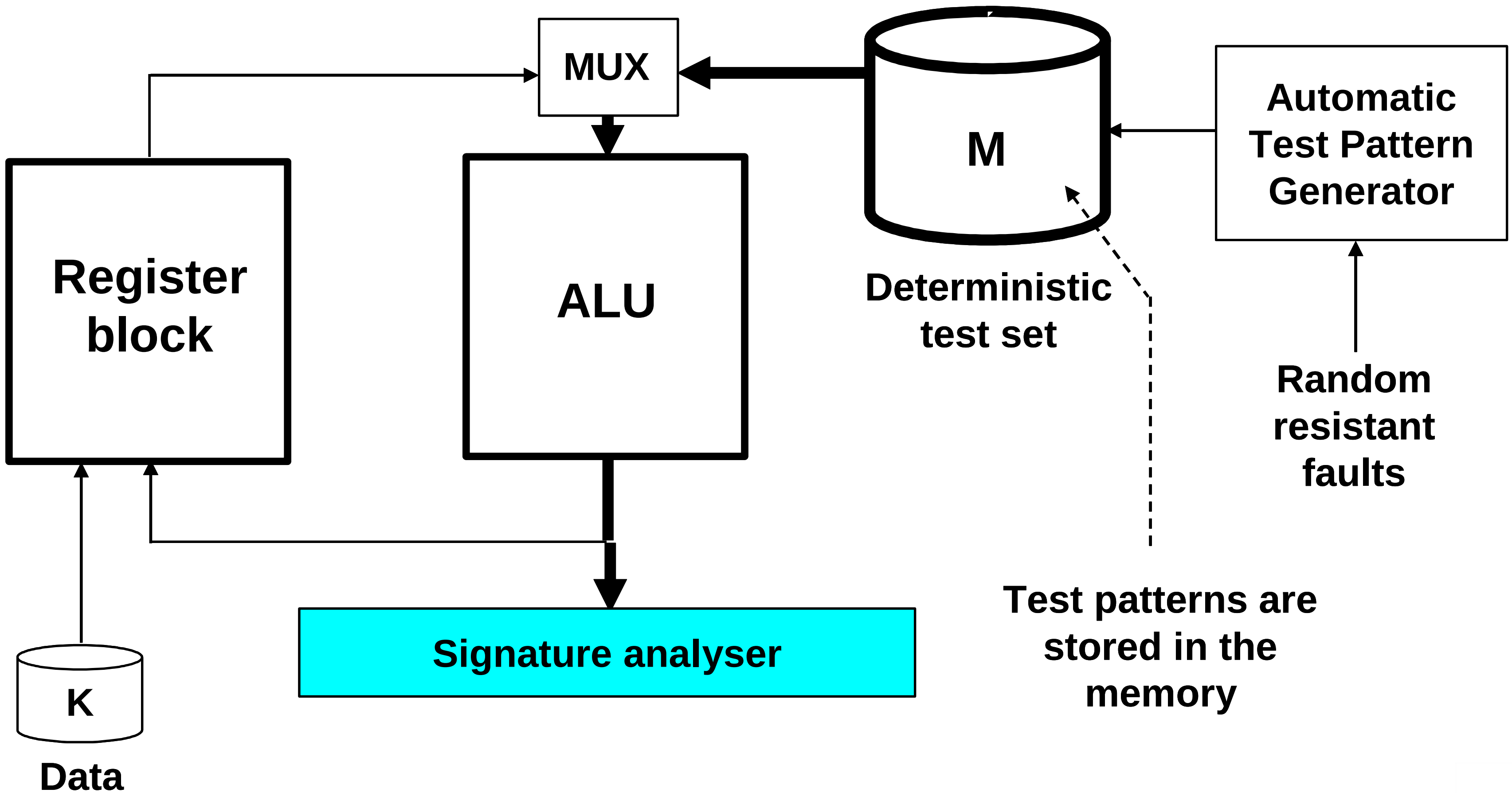
Functional BIST quality analysis for



Test patterns (samples) are produced on-line during the working mode

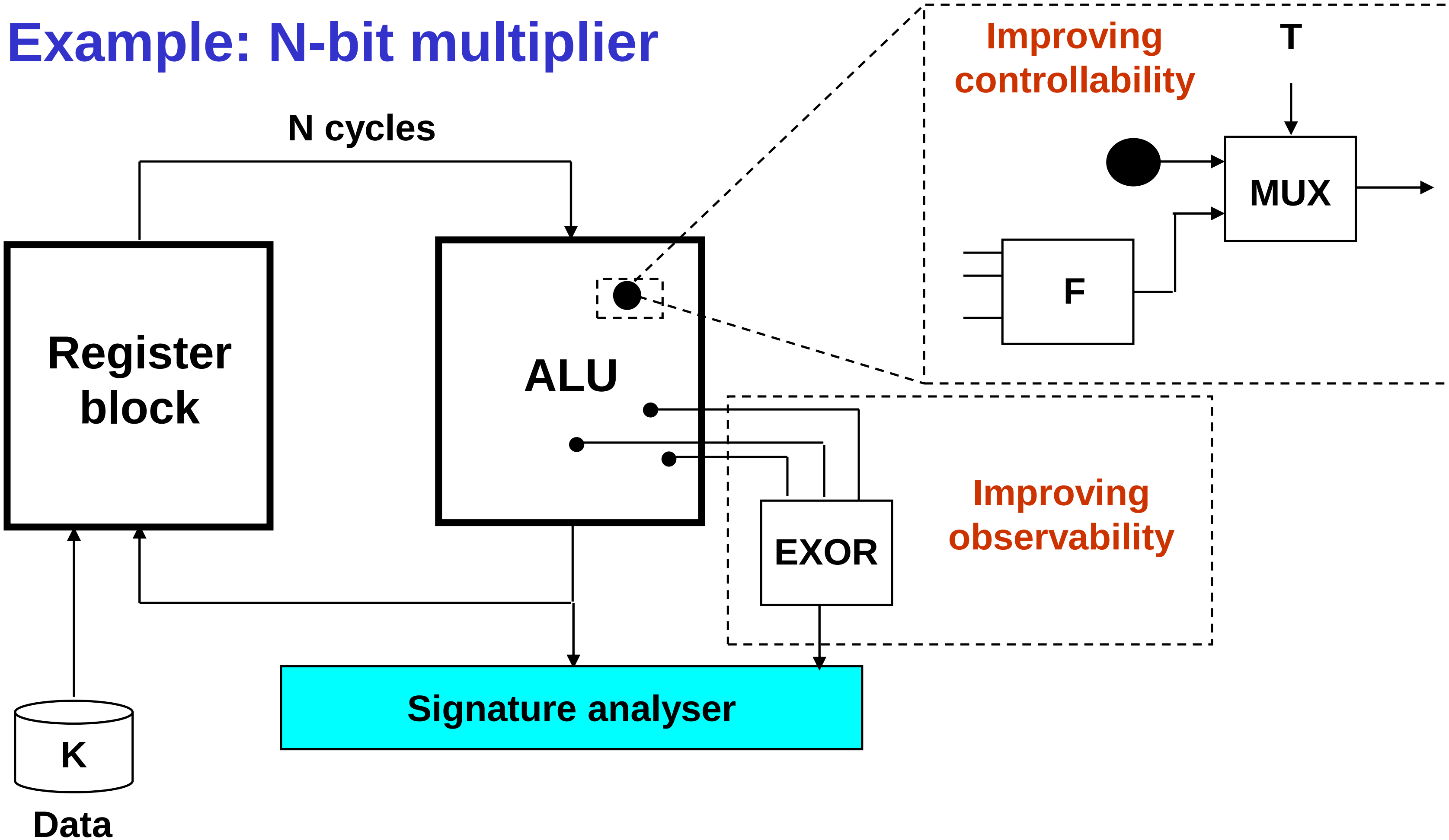
Hybrid Functional BIST for Divider

Functional BIST implementation



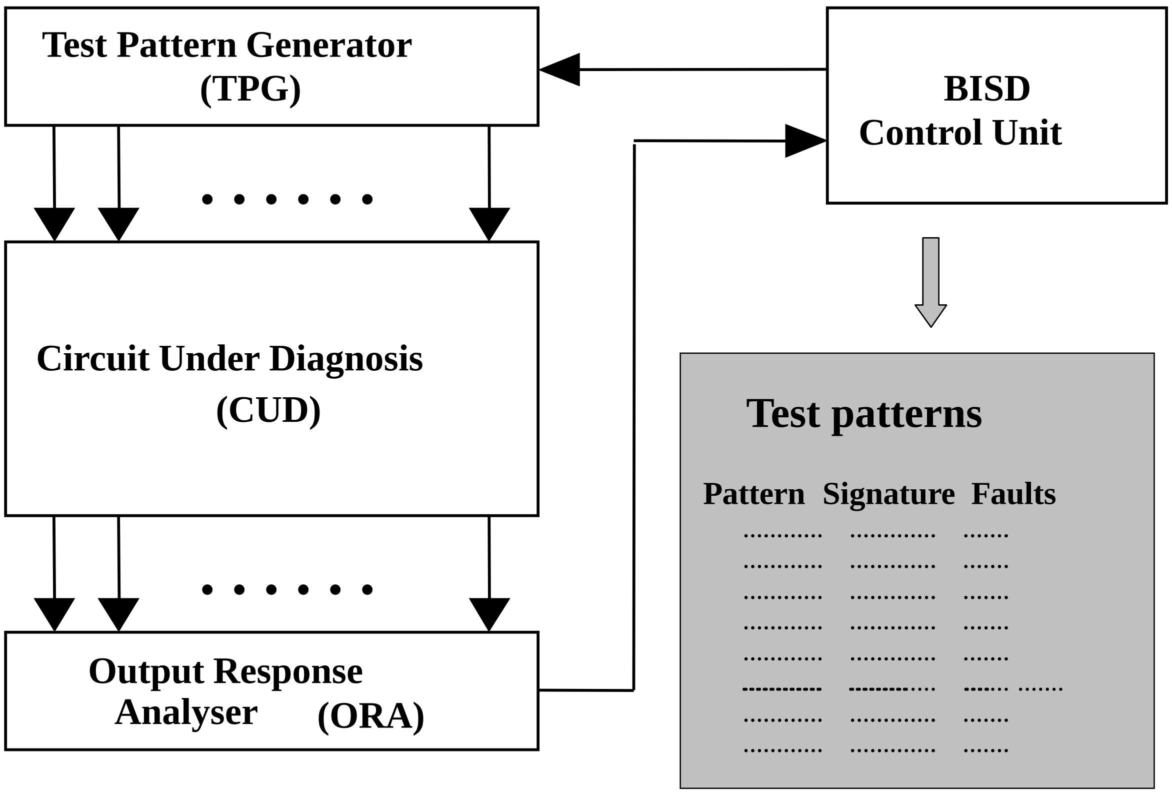
Functional Self-Test with DFT

Example: N-bit multiplier

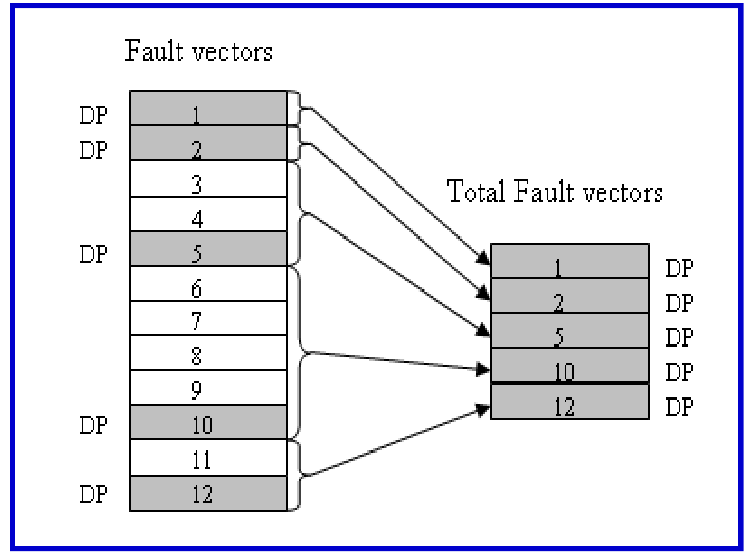


Embedded BIST Based Fault Diagnosis

BISD scheme:



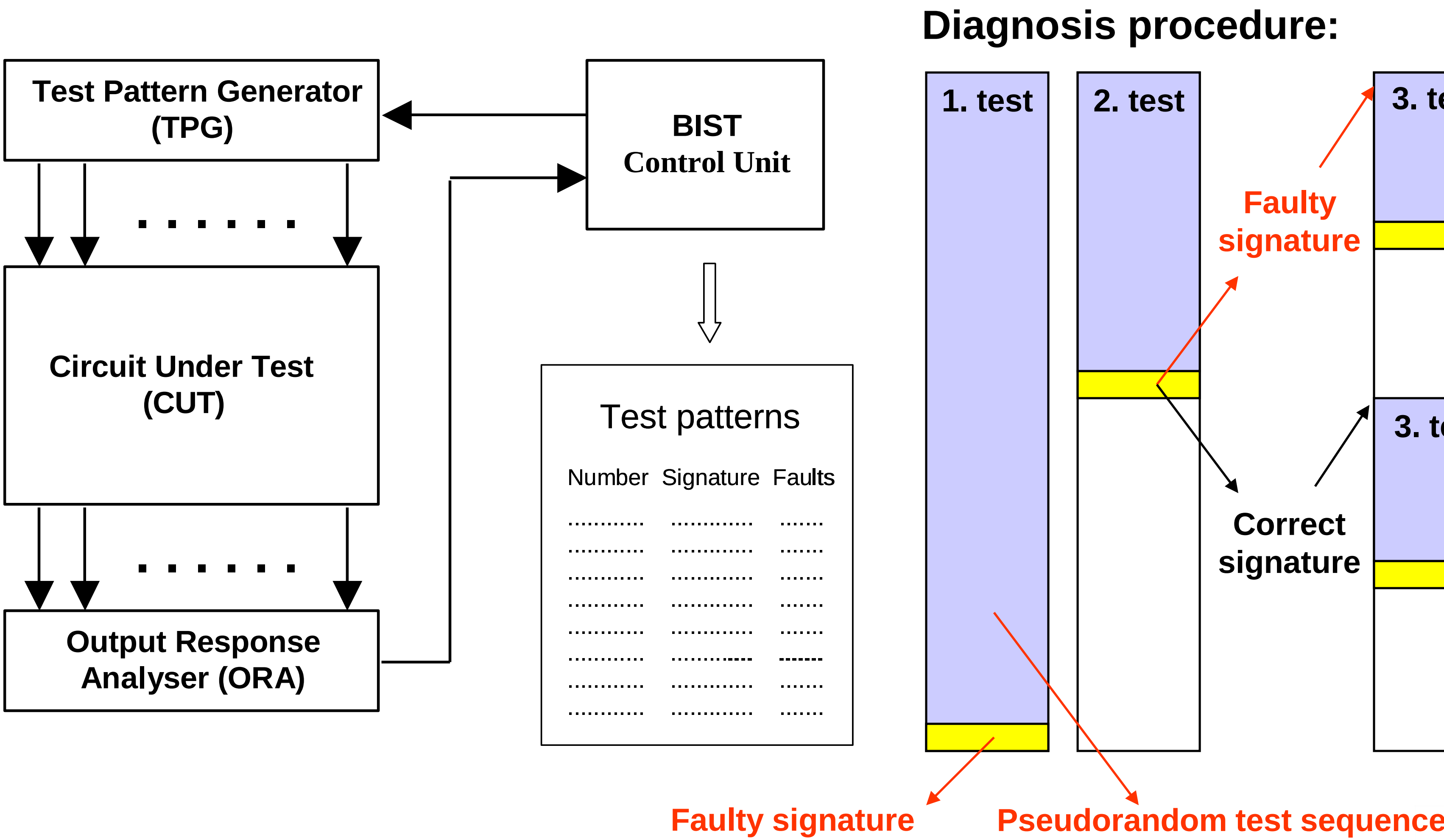
Pseudorandom test sequence:



Diagnostic Points (DPs) – patterns that detect new faults

Further minimization of DPs – as a tradeoff with diagnostic resolution

Built-In Fault Diagnosis



Built-In Fault Diagnosis

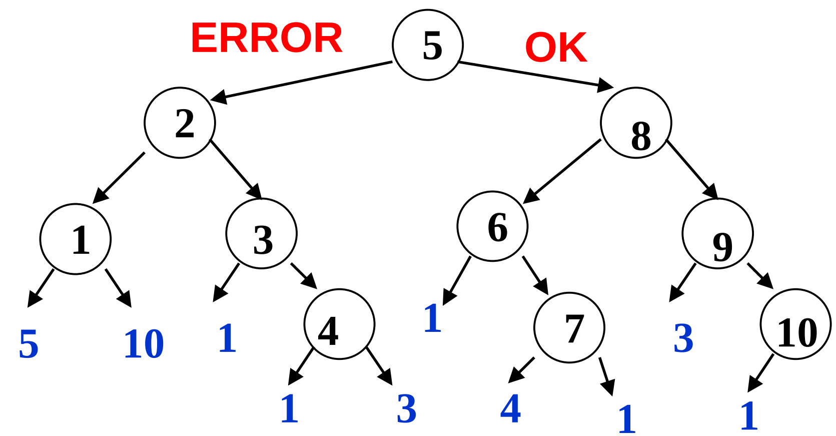
Measuring of information we get from the test:

$$I = -\, p \log_2 p - (1-p) \log_2 (1-p)$$

Pseudorandom test fault simulation (detected faults)

№	All faults	New faults	Coverage
1	5	5	16.67%
2	15	10	50.00%
3	16	1	53.33%
4	17	1	56.67%
5	20	3	66.67%
6	21	1	70.00%
7	25	4	83.33%
8	26	1	86.67%
9	29	3	96.67%
10	30	1	100.00%

Binary search with bisectioning of test patterns



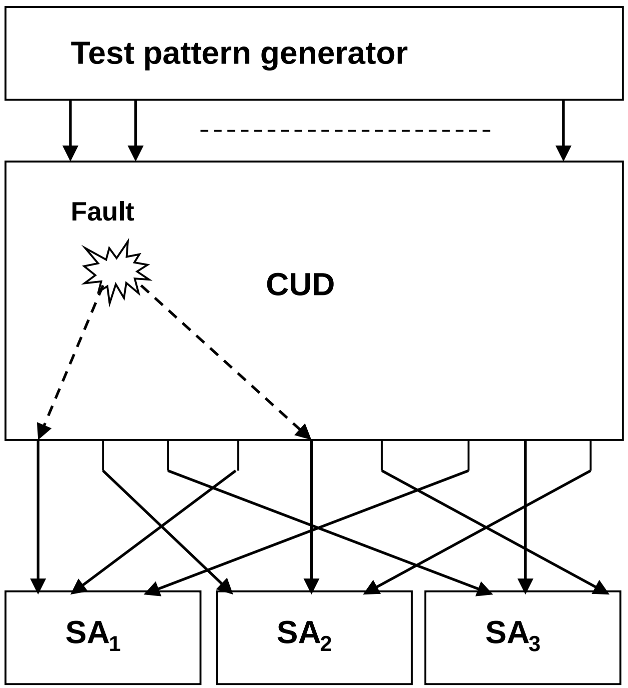
Average number of test sessions: 3,3

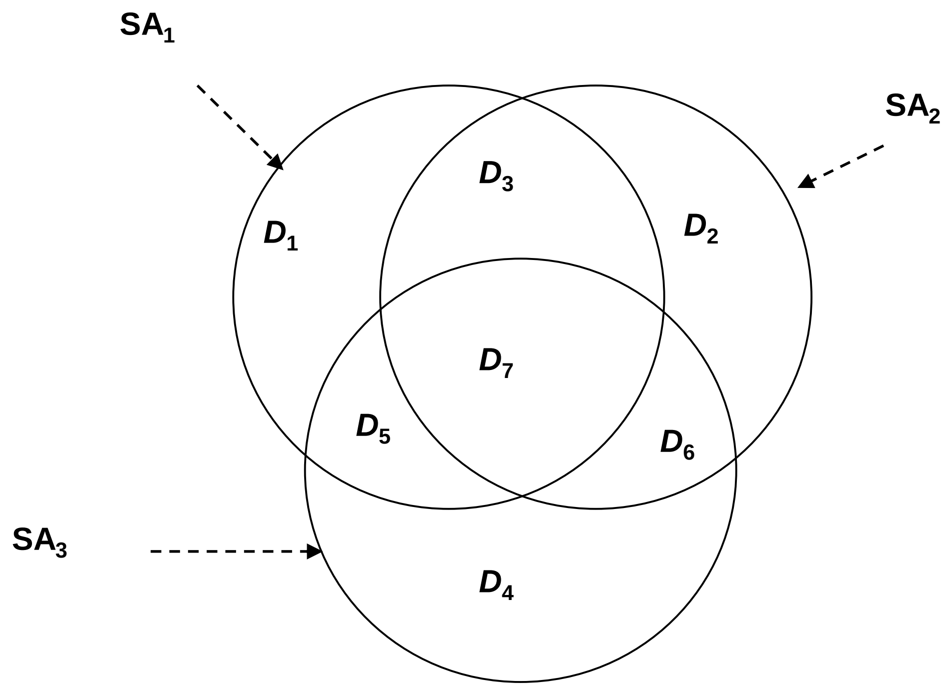
Average number of clocks: 8,67

Built-In Fault Diagnosis

Diagnosis with multiple signatures

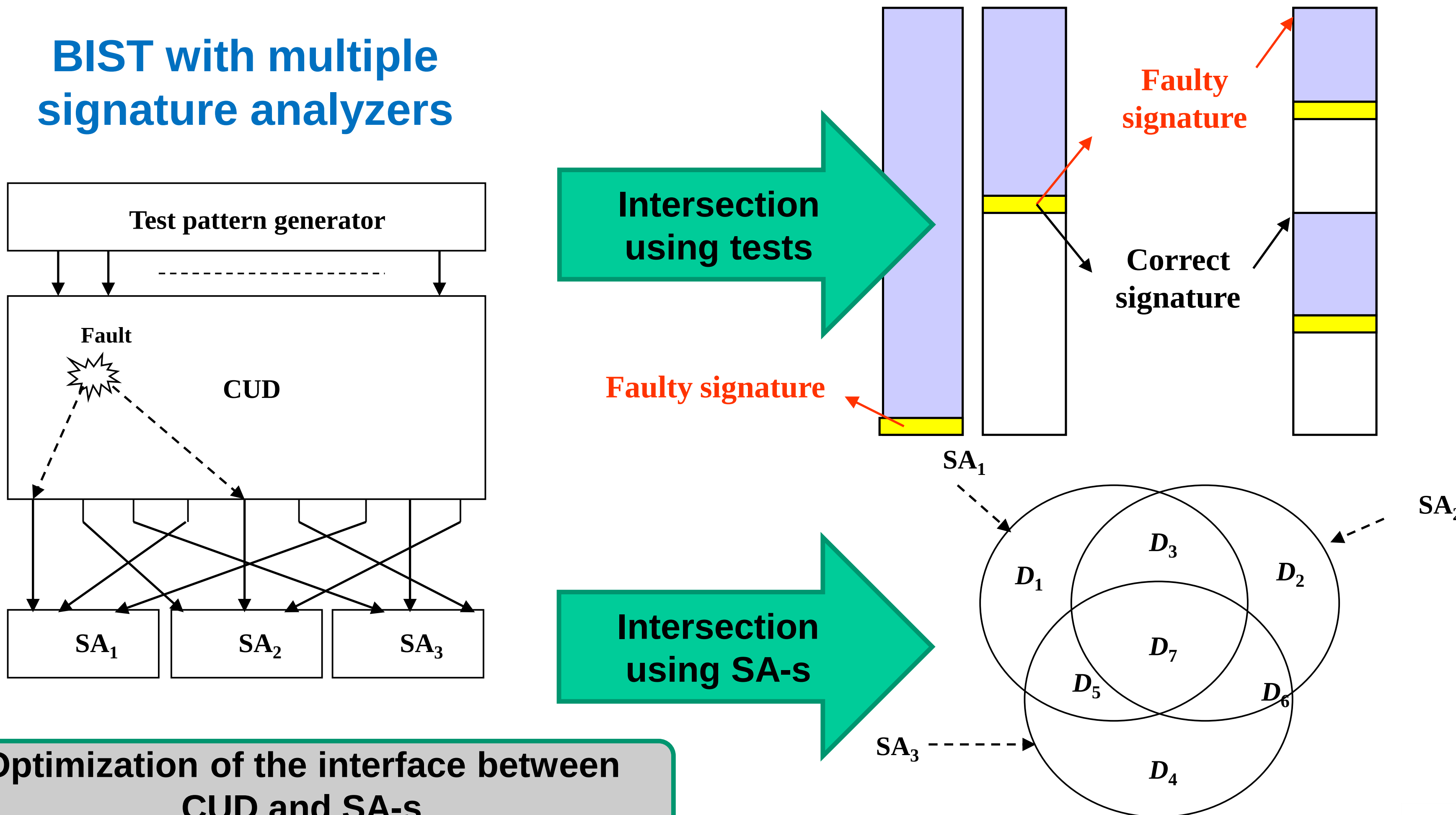
(based on reasoning of spacial information):





Built-In Fault Diagnosis

BIST with multiple signature analyzers



Optimization of the interface between CUD and SA-s

Exam Tasks - 1

Testability measures: probability calculation

1. Calculation of the probability of a signal (7,8)
2. Comparison of probability calculation with Parker McCluskey and linear methods (7,8)
3. Calculation of the probabilistic testability of a fault (7,9)
4. Calculation of the length of pseudorandom test for detecting a fault (7,9)
5. Calculating of signal probabilities with Cutting Method (10,11)
6. Calculating of signal probabilities with the method of Conditional Probabilities (12,13)

Exam Tasks - 2

Design for testability:

1. Comparison of test lengths for detecting a fault with and without of DFT (test point insertion) (7,9,14,25)
2. Calculation of test lengths (number of LFSR clocks) for different ad hoc designs: multiplexing of observers, de-multiplexing of control, time sharing (15-20)
3. Comparison of test lengths (number of LFSR clocks) for ad hoc and scan-based DFT solutions (15-20, 28)

Exam Tasks - 3

Built-in Self-Test:

1. Calculation of the test sequence for a given LFSR polynomials (45,49)
2. Design of LFSR reconfiguration logic for given functions (43,44)
3. Determination if the LFSR polynomial is primitive or not (46,47,48)
4. Design a LFSR for a weighted pseudorandom testing with given probabilities (54,55)