

ECE 254 / CPS 225
Fault Tolerant and Testable Computing Systems

Testing and Design for Test

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Duke University

Outline

- **Introduction and Terminology**
- **Test Generation for Single Stuck-At Faults**
- **Functional Testing**
- **Software Testing**
- **Design For Test (DFT)**
- **Built-In Self-Test (BIST)**

A Good Reference and a Caveat

- M. Abramovici, M. Breuer, and A. Friedman. "Digital Systems Testing and Testable Design", IEEE Press, 1990.
- This book is the basis for much of the material in this section of the course, but many other textbooks on this subject exist.
- **Caveat: ECE 254 is not a course on testing and testable systems. This course only has a small segment on these topics. If you're interested in pursuing this topic further, there are classes and research in ECE that you should explore.**
 - See Prof. Chakrabarty (ECE 269)

Testing

- **Testing: applying inputs to system and comparing outputs to expected outputs (for given inputs)**
 - Goal: detect hard faults in system
 - Example: you drive a used Toyota Corolla before buying it
- **(static, offline) Verification: checking the system design to make sure that it meets the specification**
 - Goal: detect design flaws
 - Example: Toyota ensures that Corolla design will get 45 mpg
- **Caveat: a verified design can be manufactured into a system that doesn't work correctly due to a flaw in manufacturing**
 - This is why we need testing!
 - Example: Toyota makes 2% of Corollas that get only 30 mpg

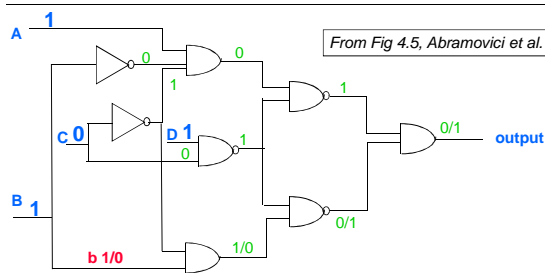
Aside on Dynamic Verification

- Normally, when we talk about verification, we are referring to static verification (as in previous slide)
- New terminology: **dynamic verification** = checking the behavior of a system as it is running
 - This is a form of error detection that operates at a higher level by checking higher level invariants of system behavior
 - E.g., DIVA is a dynamic verification scheme for microprocessor
 - Can detect operational faults
 - Can detect design faults
- Dynamic verification is known as **online testing** or **concurrent testing** in the testing research community

Testing Hardware and Software

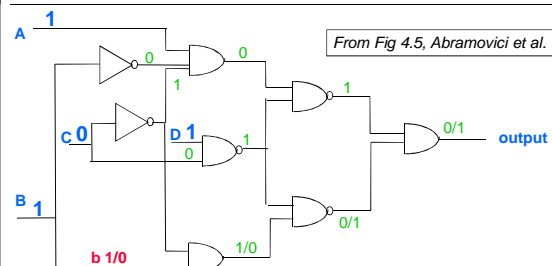
- Can test hardware and/or software
- Why test hardware?
 - Detect manufacturing faults
 - Can catch some design faults that were missed by verification
 - » Verification is not perfect for large complicated systems!
- Why test software?
 - Detect design faults (bugs) that were missed by verification
 - » Verification is very imperfect for real software
- For both, we apply inputs to the system and compare the outputs to what we expect for the given inputs
- For now, we focus on low-level hardware testing ... and we start with combinational logic only

Testing Example



- Test vector **ABCD=1101** detects fault **b stuck-at-0**
 - Question for later: do you see any other tests that detect this fault?
 - » Hint: does value of D matter?

Fault Activation



- This test (**ABCD=1101**) **activates** the fault **b stuck-at-0**
 - Generates an error at the site of the fault
 - Line **justification** problem: choosing a set of input values that puts a desired value on a given line in the circuit

Error Propagation

From Fig 4.5, Abramovici et al.

- This test **propagates** the error to a primary output
 - Makes all the lines along at least one path from fault site to output have different values in the presence of the fault

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Sensitization (yes, this is a word)

From Fig 4.5, Abramovici et al.

- During the test, all lines whose values change in the presence of the fault are **sensitized**
 - A path of sensitized lines is a **sensitized path**

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Detectability

- We want to choose inputs that test for all faults
 - Goal: smallest set of test vectors that **covers** all **detectable** faults
 - Do not necessarily need 2^N vectors for N-input circuit
- Some faults are undetectable
 - Due to redundancy in circuit, the faults are **masked**
 - So then why care about them? (Hint: single fault assumption)
- Simple example: TMR
 - How could you test for a fault in one replica?
 - Would have to add circuitry to be able to test them individually

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Why Undetectable Faults Are Bad

From Fig 4.5, Abramovici et al.

- Test vector **ABCD=1101** does **NOT** detect **b stuck-at-0** if undetectable fault **a stuck-at-1** is present

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Functional Equivalence of Faults

- Two faults are functionally equivalent if the output is the same in the presence of each
- Simple example: NOT gate
 - Input stuck-at-0 is equivalent to output stuck-at-1

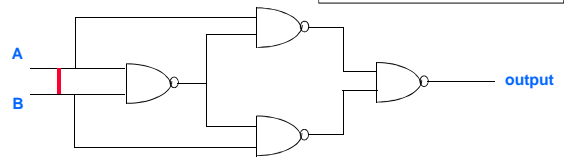
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Functional Equivalence Example

From Fig 4.11, Abramovici et al.



- Bridging fault between A and B is functionally equivalent to output stuck-at-0

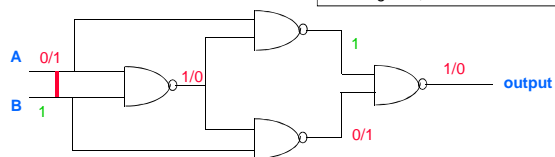
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Functional Equivalence Example

From Fig 4.11, Abramovici et al.



- Bridging fault between A and B is functionally equivalent to output stuck-at-0
 - Consider case where A would've been 0 but now stuck at 1

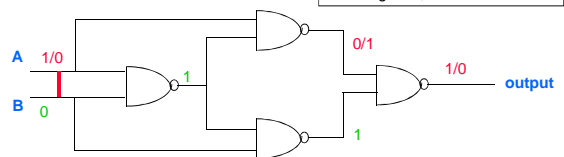
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Functional Equivalence Example

From Fig 4.11, Abramovici et al.



- Bridging fault between A and B is functionally equivalent to output stuck-at-0
 - Consider case where A would've been 1 but now stuck at 0

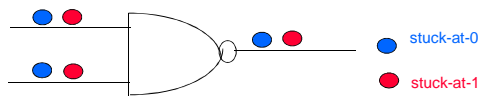
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Fault Collapsing

- If a set of faults is functionally equivalent, we only need to use one test to detect any single one of them
 - Reducing the set of faults to test for by using equivalence classes is called **fault collapsing**
- Note that a test that detects functionally equivalent faults cannot diagnose which fault is present
 - To test for fault location requires distinguishable faults
- Simple example: 2-input NAND gate



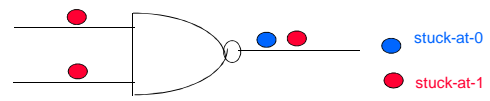
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- Note that a test that detects functionally equivalent faults cannot diagnose which fault is present
 - To test for fault location requires distinguishable faults
- Simple example: 2-input NAND
 - Input stuck-at-0 is equivalent to output stuck-at-1 → collapse!



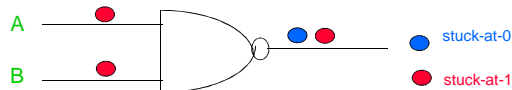
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Fault Dominance

- A fault **f dominates** a fault **g** if any test that detects **g** also detects **f** (on the same output)
 - We don't have to test for the dominating fault **f**, since any test for **g** will test for **f**
- Back to our simple NAND example (after collapsing equivalent faults)



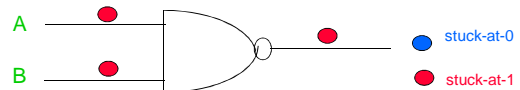
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Fault Dominance

- A fault **f dominates** a fault **g** if any test that detects **g** also detects **f** (on the same output)
 - We don't have to test for the dominating fault **f**, since any test for **g** will test for **f**
- Back to our simple NAND example (after collapsing equivalent faults)
 - Test input vector to detect input B stuck-at-1 is $AB=10$, which also detects if the output is stuck-at-0. Thus, output stuck-at-0 dominates B stuck-at-1 and we don't need to test for it.
 - This reduction is called **dominance fault collapsing**



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Test Generation for Single Stuck-Ats

- **Types of test generation (TG)**
 - Random
 - Deterministic
 - » Manual
 - » Automatic
 - Hybrids of random and deterministic
- **Goals**
 - Quick, low-complexity process for generating faults
 - High fault coverage
 - Small number of test vectors

Random Test Generation

- **Randomly produce test vectors**
- **Advantages**
 - Easy and fast generation of test vectors
 - Can easily detect lots of faults with random tests
- **Disadvantages**
 - May take a huge set of test vectors to cover the hard-to-detect faults (i.e., faults that are only activated by a small number of possible tests)

Deterministic Test Generation

- **Can develop test vectors to target specific faults**
 - Particularly useful for hard-to-detect faults
 - Manual test generation is not feasible for large circuits
- **Automatic test generation (ATG) uses algorithms to devise tests that:**
 - Activate each fault
 - Propagate the resulting error to an output
- **After generating a set of tests for every fault, then ATG collapses the test set as much as possible**
 - Functional equivalence
 - Fault dominance

Hybrid Testing

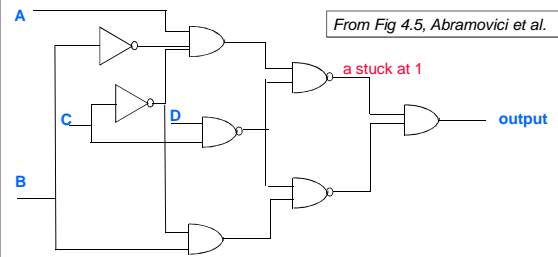
- **Goal: achieve best of both worlds**
 - Random: low cost, quick generation of test vectors
 - Deterministic: smaller test vector sets
- **Use random TG to quickly cover most faults**
- **Use deterministic ATG to cover the hard-to-detect faults**

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Example of Activation and Propagation



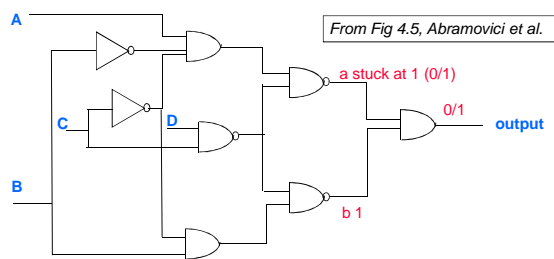
- **To test for a stuck-at-1, we must activate it and propagate it**

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Example of Activation and Propagation



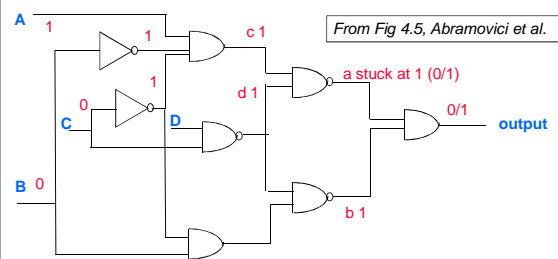
- **To propagate it, must set b to 1**
 - Otherwise, the output would always be 0
 - Output is now equal to a (i.e., output = 0/1)

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Example of Activation and Propagation



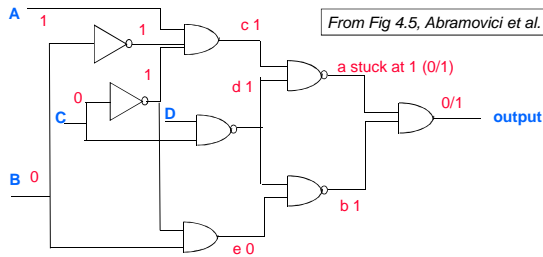
- **We must set a=0, and this implies that both of its inputs must be 1, which implies that A=1, B=0, and C=0**

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Example of Activation and Propagation



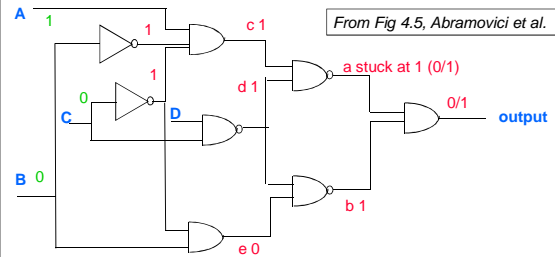
- B=0 implies that e=0, which implies that b=1 (whew!)
- Note that C=0 implies that d=1 (also good)

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Example of Activation and Propagation



- So now we've determined that our test is ABCD=100x
– The value of D doesn't matter for this test

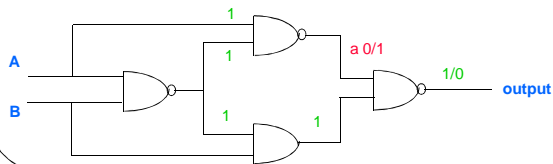
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Implication

- We lucked out in the previous example --- we never implied a value on a line that was incompatible with another implicated value for that line
- If that happened, we'd have to try to find another test
- Example below: a stuck-at-1
– Implicated values shown in green ... so far, so good



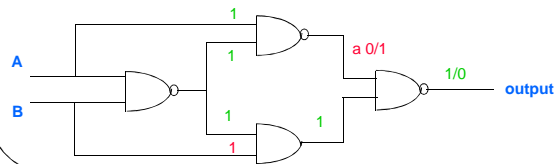
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Implication

- We lucked out in the previous example --- we never implied a value on a line that was incompatible with another implicated value for that line
- If that happened, we'd have to try to find another test
- Example below: a stuck-at-1
– We now have that A=1 and B=1, but A and B = 1 → backtrack!



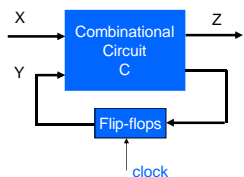
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ATG for Sequential Circuits

- So far, we've only looked at combinational logic
- How can we deal with sequential logic?
- One option: make it look more like combinational!
 - Make each cycle a new **frame** of a combinational circuit



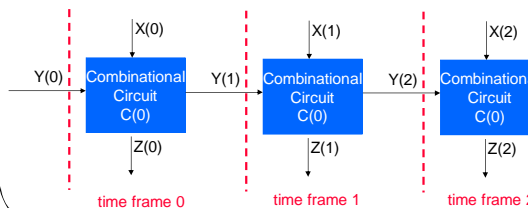
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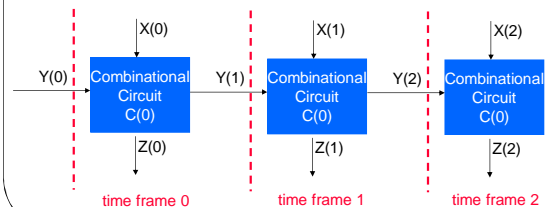
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ATG for Sequential Circuits

- Now, we want to be able to propagate an error to an output $Z(n)$, where smaller n is better (quicker!)
- The test sequence is $X(0), X(1), \dots, X(n)$
 - Remember that each $X(i)$ is a test vector of inputs (at cycle i)



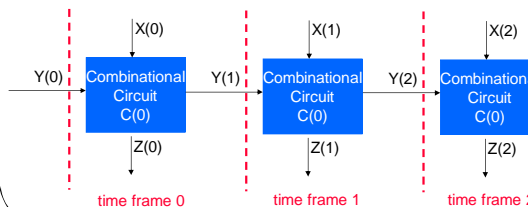
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ATG for Sequential Circuits

- Using time frames, we can create a combinational circuit and then just use ATG for combo circuits
- Catch: have to choose **when** to propagate fault, i.e., must choose n for $Z(n)$. If impossible, try larger n



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- **Functional Testing**
- Software Testing
- Design For Test (DFT)
- Built-In Self-Test (BIST)

Functional Testing

- **Testing a system at a higher level of abstraction**
 - If a system works at higher level, then you don't have to worry about the lower level
 - The user only sees the high level abstraction, not transistors
- **For example, instead of testing for every possible stuck-at in a Pentium4, test to see if it boots Windows**
 - If it boots Windows, you might believe that it is OK
- **Other examples?**

- **Functional testing can be done at many levels**
 - E.g., you could probably consider stuck-at testing to be functional if you were only worried about logic gate functionality

Why Use Anything BUT Functional Testing?

- If functional testing subsumes lower-level testing, why do we bother with low level testing for stuck-ats?
- **Reason #1: Devising functional tests with good fault coverage isn't easy**
- **Reason #2: Fault location and diagnosis --- during fabrication, if you notice that a lot of faults are in the same place, you might be able to adjust the fabrication process to make that place less of a problem**
- **Any other reasons?**

Validation in the Real World

"Validating the Pentium 4 Microprocessor," by Bob Bentley and Rand Gray (Intel), DSN 2001

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Software Testing

- **Goal: stress-test the software in order to find bugs more quickly than would occur for typical inputs**
- **This is a job that many entry-level software engineers start with**
 - Trying to break software forces engineer to better understand it
- **Software testing tends to be almost entirely functional testing**

When Do We Stop Testing?

- **Comprehensive software testing is impossible problem for almost all real software**
 - Must try to find as many bugs as possible, while realizing that it's impossible to find all of them
- **So when do we stop testing?**
 - When rate of bug detection decreases below threshold
- **Threshold depends on software**
 - People rely more on Microsoft Windows than they do on a small utility program → Microsoft *should* test more thoroughly
- **Key idea: if you're still finding lots of bugs, it's likely that there are still a bunch more that you haven't found yet**

Software Testing Techniques

- **Test software in parallel**
 - Get many people to test it for you → release a beta test version of cool software and people will test it for free
 - » This is how I helped to debug a simulator called Simics
- **Provide software with worst-case or unusual inputs**
 - Input a number when prompted for a string
 - Input a character when asked for a floating point number
 - When asked how many entries you'll need in a database, give it a huge number and see if that breaks it (e.g., because the database stupidly tries to allocate all that memory immediately)
 - When configuring a simulator, give it unusual parameters
 - Etc.

Testing Non-deterministic Software

- **Non-determinism**: if a program won't behave the same exact way each time it is run with the same inputs
- **With non-determinism, it is very hard to reproduce a bug, so a test that finds it once may not be able to find it again**
 - You may not be able to tell the programmers what to fix

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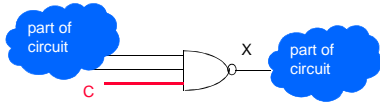
Design for Test (DFT)

- **How do we design a system so that it has good testability?**
- **We must improve the system's:**
 - **Controllability**: ability to control the value of lines in the circuit
 - » 1-controllability: ability to set line to 1
 - » 0-controllability: ability to set line to 0
 - **Observability**: ability to observe the values of lines in the circuit
- **We're going to cover two classes of approaches**
 - Ad hoc schemes
 - Systematic schemes that use scan registers

Ad Hoc Scheme 1: Test Points

- **We can add test points to the circuit**
 - Control points
 - Observation points
- **Control points are added inputs that we use to improve controllability**
- **Observation points are added outputs that we use to improve observability**

Control Point Example



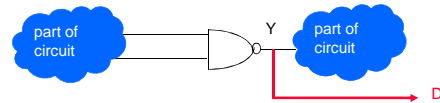
- Adding new input C enables us to better control line X
 - Can easily set X to 1 (by setting C to 0)

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Observation Point Example



- Adding new output D enables us to easily observe line Y

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Ad Hoc Scheme 2: Initialization

- For sequential circuits, it is important to be able to get the circuit into a known state
 - It's tough to test something that's in an unknown state

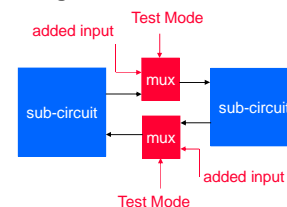
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Ad Hoc Scheme 3: Partitioning

- For large circuits or circuits with many states, it is easier to test them if we break them up into smaller sub-circuits
 - As functions of circuit size, testing time and complexity are greater than linear
- In general, we can partition circuits by adding multiplexor logic and new controllability inputs:



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Ad Hoc Scheme 4: Avoiding Redundancy

- Recall that redundancy in circuits can lead to undetectable faults
- Two types of redundancy
 - Intentional: used for fault tolerance (good!)
 - Unintentional: most circuits have redundancy unless they've been optimized specifically to eliminate it (not good)
- We'd like to get rid of unintentional redundancy
- We'd like to keep intentional redundancy, but this means that we'll need to add test points to make sure that we can detect faults in the redundant logic

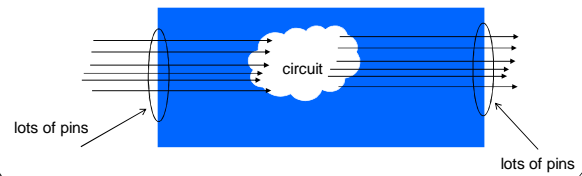
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Systematic DFT: Scan Registers

- Test points are great, but they add lots of pins to a chip (both for inputs and outputs)
 - Pins are an expensive, scarce resource



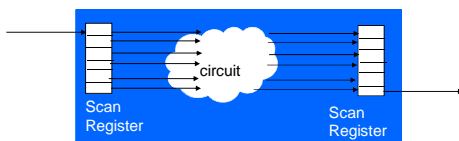
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Systematic DFT: Scan Registers

- One way to add test points without adding so many pins is to use **scan registers** (shift registers)
 - Sequentially scan test vector into scan register via a single pin, and then apply shift register contents to control points
 - Similarly, scan observation points into scan register and read out sequentially via a single pin



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Scan Registers

- **Advantage**
 - Fewer pins!
- **Disadvantages**
 - Need scan hardware
 - Sequential → slower!!
- **Commercial chips have scan registers**
 - JTAG and IEEE standards for scan register design
- **There are many, many different types of scan registers and scan design methodologies, but we will not cover these in this course**

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Goals of BIST

- Want system to be able to test itself
- Why?
 - Generation of test vectors within chip eliminates pins used for testing → cheaper and higher bandwidth
 - Enables in-field testing (after deployment)
 - » If hard fault detected, can notify user and/or reconfigure system to handle the fault

Off-line vs. Online BIST

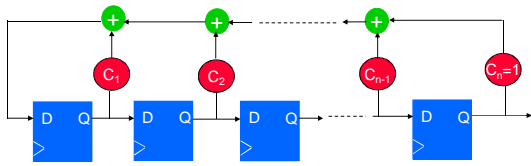
- Off-line
 - Testing while system is not performing its normal functions
- On-line or concurrent
 - Testing during operation
 - Also known as **dynamic verification**

A Paradox?

- If the system uses its own BIST hardware to test itself, how does it test this BIST hardware?
- Must be able to boot-strap based on assumption that a certain amount of the system (called the **hardcore**, for reasons I can't explain) is operational
 - Remember this concept from the Teramac paper??
- Examples of hardcore circuitry
 - Power and ground
 - Clock distribution
 - Test generation logic
- Probably need to do external testing to determine if hardcore is faulty

Hardware for Generating Pseudo-Random Tests

- **Linear feedback shift register (LFSR)**
 - Shift register with XOR-based feedback loop
 - C_i are feedback coefficients
 - $C_i=1$ implies that a connection exists
- Based on initial state and choice of C_i , LFSR can generate long pseudo-random sequences (up to 2^n-1 , where n is number of stages in LFSR)



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Flavors of BIST

- **Exhaustive**
 - Generate and apply all 2^n possible input combinations
- **Pseudo-random**
 - Similar to random ATG, but tests generated with LFSRs
- **Pseudo-exhaustive**
 - Partitions system and exhaustively tests these smaller sub-circuits

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