

UNIT-VIII Testing

①

→ Tests fall into 3 main categories :-

① Functionality tests or Logic Verification :-

The first set of tests verify that the chip performs its intended function. These tests are run before tapeout to verify the functionality of the circuit.

② Silicon debug :-

The second set of ~~sets~~ tests are run on the first batch of chips that return from fabrication.
→ They can be much more extensive than the logic verification tests because the chip can be tested at full speed in a system.

For example, a new microprocessor can be placed in a prototype motherboard to try to boot the operating system.

→ This silicon debug requires creative detective work to locate the cause of failure because the designer has much less visibility into " " "

chip compared to during design verification.

3) manufacturing tests :-

These set of tests verify that every transistor, gate and storage element in the chip functions correctly. -

→ These tests are conducted on each manufactured chip before shipping to the customer to verify that the silicon is completely intact.

$$\text{Yield of an IC} = \frac{\text{no. of good die}}{\text{total number of die per wafer}}$$

→ Because of the complexity of the manufacturing process, not all die on the wafer function correctly.

→ Dust particles and small imperfections in starting material or photomasking can result in bridged connections or missing features.

→ These imperfections result in what is termed as a Fault.

→ The goal of the manufacturing test procedure is to determine which die are good and should be supplied to customers.

Testing a chip (die) can occur at different levels

- ① wafer level
- ② packaged chip level
- ③ board level
- ④ system level
- ⑤ Field level.

→ By detecting a malfunctioning chip early, the manufacturing cost can be kept low.

→ For instance, the approximate cost to a company of detecting a fault at various levels is

→ wafer	\$0.01 - \$0.10
packaged chip	\$0.10 - \$1
board	\$1 - \$10
system	\$10 - \$100
field	\$100 - \$1000

Need for testing :

From above example, it is clear that the manufacturing cost is kept low, if the faults are detected at wafer level

(bad devices more).

→ If yield high & package cost low (ie, plastic package) then part can be tested only after packaging.

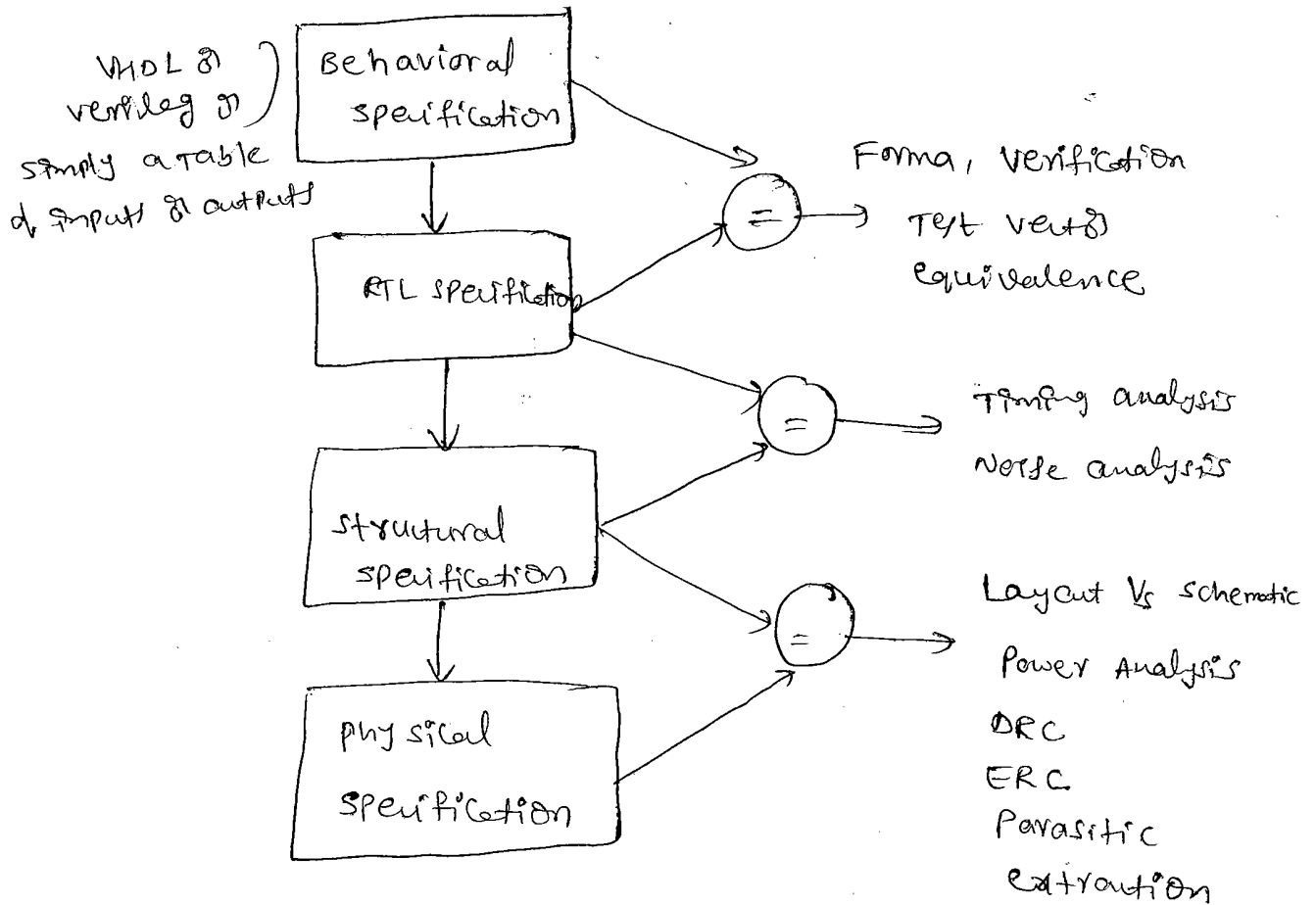
→ If wafer yield was lower and package cost high (ceramic package) it is better to screen bad dice at wafer level.

Logic & Functional Verification:-

→ verification tests are usually the first one a designer might construct as a part of the design process.

like adder adding or not,
counter counting or not.

→ In Functional Tests it is required to prove that a synthesized gate description was functionally equivalent to the source RTL.



(5)

→ Functional equivalence involves running a simulator at some level on the 2 descriptions of the chip (one at the gate level and one at functional level) and ensure that the outputs are equivalent at some convenient check points in time for all inputs applied. This is mostly convenient in HDL by employing a test bench.

→ We have to simulate as closely as possible the way in which the chip or system will be used in the real world.

Manufacturing Tests :-

~~These~~ These tests are used to verify that every gate operates as expected. The need to do this arises from a number of manufacturing defects that might occur during either chip fabrication or accelerated life testing (where the chip is stressed by over voltage or over temperature).

Typical defects include:

- Layer to Layer shorts (e.g. metal-to-metal)
- discontinuous wire (e.g. metal thins when crossing vertical topology jumps)
- missing or damaged vias
- shorts through the thin gate oxide to the substrate or well.

These cause circuit malady like,

- ① nodes shorted to Power or ground
- ② nodes shorted to each other
- ③ input floating / output disconnected.

Apart from the verification of internal gates, I/O integrity is also tested with the following tests being completed.

- ① I/O levels (ie. checking for noise margin for TTL, ECL & CMOS I/O pads).
- ② speed test.

→ In general, manufacturing test generation assumes the function of the circuit/chip is correct. It requires ways of exercising all gate inputs and monitoring all gate outputs.

Functional verification principles:-

- ① Test Benches and Harnesses.
- ② Regression testing
- ③ Version control
- ④ Bug Tracking.

① Test benches and Harnesses:-

a verification test bench or harness is a piece of HDL code that is placed as a wrapper around a core piece of HDL.

→ In test bench, inputs are applied to the module under test and at each cycle, the outputs are examined to determine

whether they comply with a predefined expected data set.

→ The data set can be derived from another model and available as a file or the value can be computed on the fly.

Regression Testing :-

(C, FORTRAN, Pascal & LISP)

High level language scripts are frequently used when running large test benches, especially for "regression testing".

→ Regression testing involves performing a suite of simulations to automatically verify that no functionality has inadvertently changed in a module or set of modules.

Version Control

Combined with regression testing is the use of versioning, i.e., the orderly management of different design iterations.

Unix / Linux tools such as CVS (circuit vs schematic) are useful for this.

Bug Tracking

Important tool to use during verification is a "bug-tracking" system.

→ Bug tracking systems such as Unix / Linux based GNATS allow

the management of a wide variety of bugs.

→ Each bug is entered & noted the location, nature and severity of the bug.

Manufacturing test principle :-

① observability :-

→ The observability of a particular circuit node is the degree to which you can observe that node at the outputs of an integrated circuit (i.e., the pins).

→ This metric is relevant when you want to measure the output of a gate within a larger circuit to check that it operates correctly.

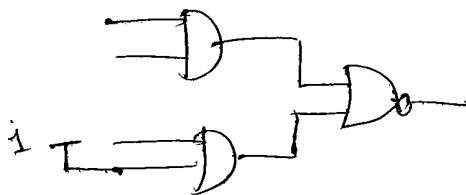
② Fault model :-

This is a model for how faults occur and their impact on circuits. The most popular model is called "stuck-at" model.

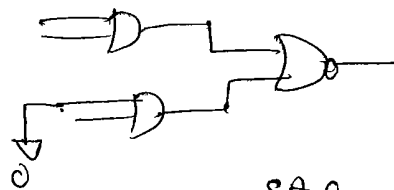
→ The short circuit / open circuit model can be closer fit to reality, but is harder to incorporate into logic simulation tools.

⇒ Stuck-At faults :-

In this model, a faulty gate input is modeled by a stuck at zero (stuck-at-0, S-A-0) or stuck at one (S-A-1).

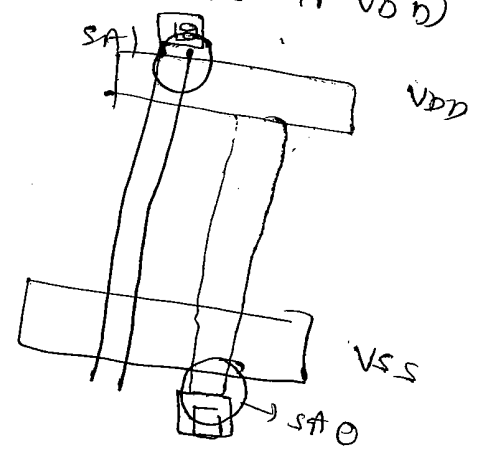


Stuck At 1

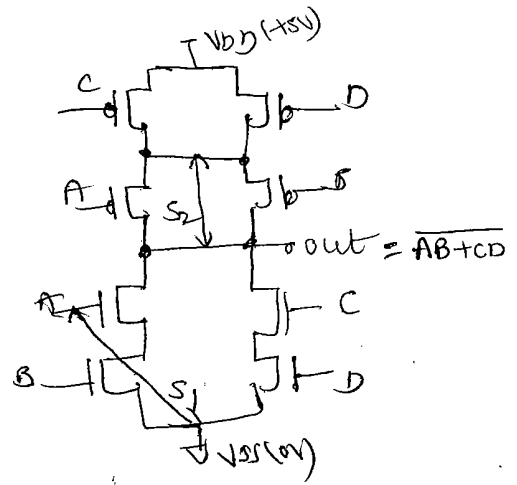


SA 0
Stuck At 0

These faults most frequently occur due to gate oxide shorts (nmos gate to GND, Pmos gate to VDD) or metal-metal shorts.



⇒ short circuit and open-circuit faults:-

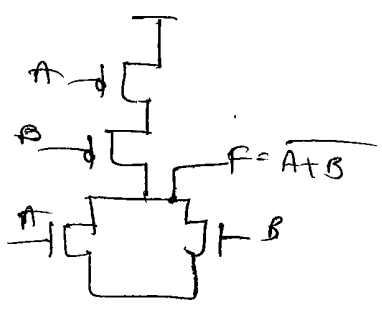


S_1 → modeled by an SA0 fault at input A, while short S_2 modifies the function of the gate.

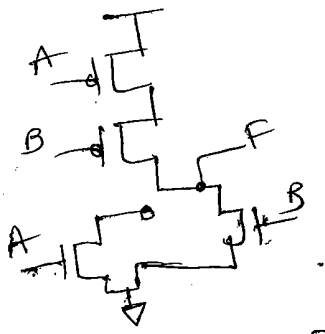
S_2 modifies function of gate

→ A problem that arises with CMOS is that it is possible for a fault to convert a combinational circuit into a sequential circuit.

Consider 2-input NOR gate



Normal circuit



0	0	1
0	1	0
1	1	0
1	0	0 (Fn)

$$F = (\overline{A+B}) + A \cdot \overline{B} \cdot F_n$$

→ F_n is the previous state of the gate.

1) If B ~~is~~ n-transistor drain connection is missing
the function is,

$$F = (\overline{A+B}) + A \cdot B \cdot F_n$$

Controllability :-

The controllability of an internal circuit node within a chip is a measure of the ease of setting the node to a 0 or 1 state.

→ An easily controllable node would be directly settable via an input pad.

EX: global reset to ~~one~~ ^{get} initial positions of all inputs.

Fault Coverage :-

A measure of goodness of a test program is the amount of fault coverage it achieves.

i.e., for the vectors applied, what percentage of the chip's internal nodes were checked.

→ Each circuit node is taken in sequence and held to SAO, and the circuit is simulated, comparing the chip outputs with a known "good machine".

a	b	Good machine	SAO-a	SAO-b	SAI-a	SAI-b
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	1	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	0	0	1	1

Diagram of a circuit with inputs a and b, and outputs y. The circuit includes a NOT gate and an AND gate. The output y is the result of (a AND b) XOR a.

a	b	y	SAO-a	SAO-b	SAI-a	SAI-b
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	1	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	0	0	1	1

11, 01, 10 Test vectors.

→ The total number of nodes that, when set to 0 or 1, do result in the detection of fault, divided by the total number of nodes in the circuit is called "Percentage fault coverage".

Fault-sampling :-

An Approach to Fault analysis is "Fault-sampling".

This is used in circuits where it is impossible to fault every node in the circuit.

→ nodes are randomly selected and faulted.

→ The resulting fault-detection rate may be statistically inferred from the no. of faults that are detected in the fault set and the size of the set.

Statistical Fault Analysis :-

→ This method of fault analysis relies on estimating the probability that a fault will be detected.

→ Extra statistics are gathered by a modified simulator on a per-input vector basis.

① Zero counter - The 0 count on each gate input when a 1→0 change of output is detected.

② One-counter - The 1 count on each gate input when a 0→1 change of output is detected.

③ sensitization counter - incremented if the input change causes the output to be sensitized.

④ Loop-counter - used to detect & deal with feedback.

The one-controllability of line l is given by,

$$C_1(l) = \text{one-count} / n;$$

n → no. of vectors.

Zero-controllability

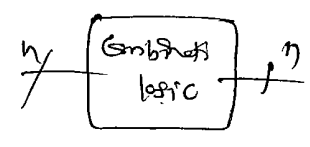
$$C_0(l) = \text{zero-count} / n;$$

One-level sensitization probability is.

Manufacturing Test Principle:

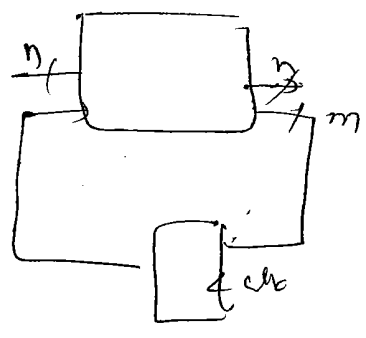
Consider a combinational circuit with n inputs.

→ To test this circuit exhaustively, a sequence of 2^n inputs (test vectors) must be applied & observed to fully exercise the circuit.



$n=10 \Rightarrow 2^{10} = 1024$ test vectors.

→ The combinational circuit is converted to sequential circuit with additional m storage elements (resistors).



→ The state of the circuit is determined by the inputs & previous state. A minimum of 2^{n+m} test vectors must be applied to exhaustively test the circuit.

Ex: A n/w with $n=25, m=50$

$$2^{25+50} = 2^{75} \text{ test vectors}$$
$$\approx 3.8 \times 10^{22}$$

If 1 us per pattern, then total test time would be over a billion years (10^9).

```
library IEEE;
```

```
use IEEE.STD_LOGIC_1164.ALL;
```

```
entity and1 is
```

```
port (a: in std_logic;
```

```
      b: in std_logic;
```

```
      y: out std_logic);
```

```
end and1;
```

```
architecture and1_d of and1 is
```

```
begin
```

```
y <= a and b;
```

```
  process (a, b)
```

```
  begin
```

```
    c1 = a and b;
```

```
  end process;
```

```
end and1_d;
```

```
Test bench:
```

```
library IEEE;
```

```
use
```

```
entity and1_tb is
```

```
end and1_tb;
```

```
architecture and1_tb_d of and1_tb is
```

```
  signal a_s, b_s;
```

```
  begin
```

```
    component and1 is
```

```
      port port (a: in std_logic;
```

```
                b: in std_logic;
```

```
                y: out std_logic);
```

```
    end component;
```

```
    begin
```

```
      U1: component and1 portmap (a => a_s,
```

$aL = 0;$

$aL = 0;$

wait for 1 ns;

$aL = 1;$

$bL = 0;$

wait for 1 ns;

$aL = 0$

$bL = 1$

wait for 1 ns;

$aL = 1$

$bL = 1$

wait;

end and1-tb;

2/10/09

1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 9, 10, 13, 16, 19, 20, 22, 23, 31, 35, 38

11, 12, 14, 15, 17, 18, 21, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 32, 33, 34, 36, 37, 39, 40

Chip-level Test Technique:-

In this we will examine practical methods of incorporating test requirements into a design. This discussion is structured around the main types of circuit structure that will be encountered in a digital CMOS chip.

- 1) Regular Logic Arrays
- 2) memories
- 3) Random Logic

Regular Logic Arrays:-

Partial ^{serial} scan or parallel scan is probably the best approach for structures such as datapaths.

One approach that has been used in a Lisp microprocessor is,

serial/parallel registers

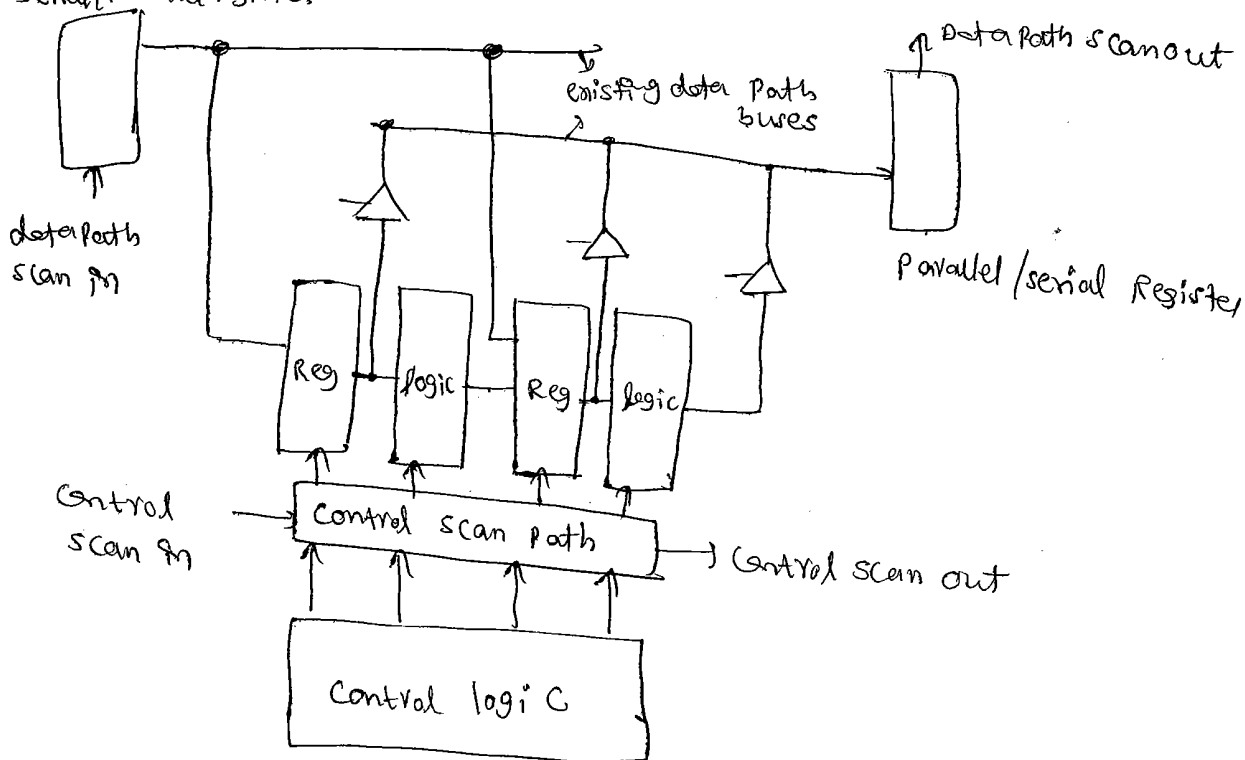


Fig. 10.10.1

→ The input buses may be driven by a serially loaded register.

→ They in turn may be used to load internal data path registers.

→ The data path registers may be sourced onto a bus & this bus may be loaded into a register that may be serially accessed. All of the control signals to the datapath are also made scannable.

Memory :-

memory may use the self-testing techniques by embedding self test circuits for memory in higher-speed circuits.

→ Another way, the provision of multiplexers on data inputs and addresses and convenient external access to data outputs enables the testing of embedded memory.

→ It is a mistake to have memory indirectly accessible i.e. data is written by passing through logic.

data is observed after passing through logic.

addresses cannot be conveniently sequenced.

→ Because memory have to be tested exhaustively,

any overhead on writing and reading the memory can

substantially increase the test time.

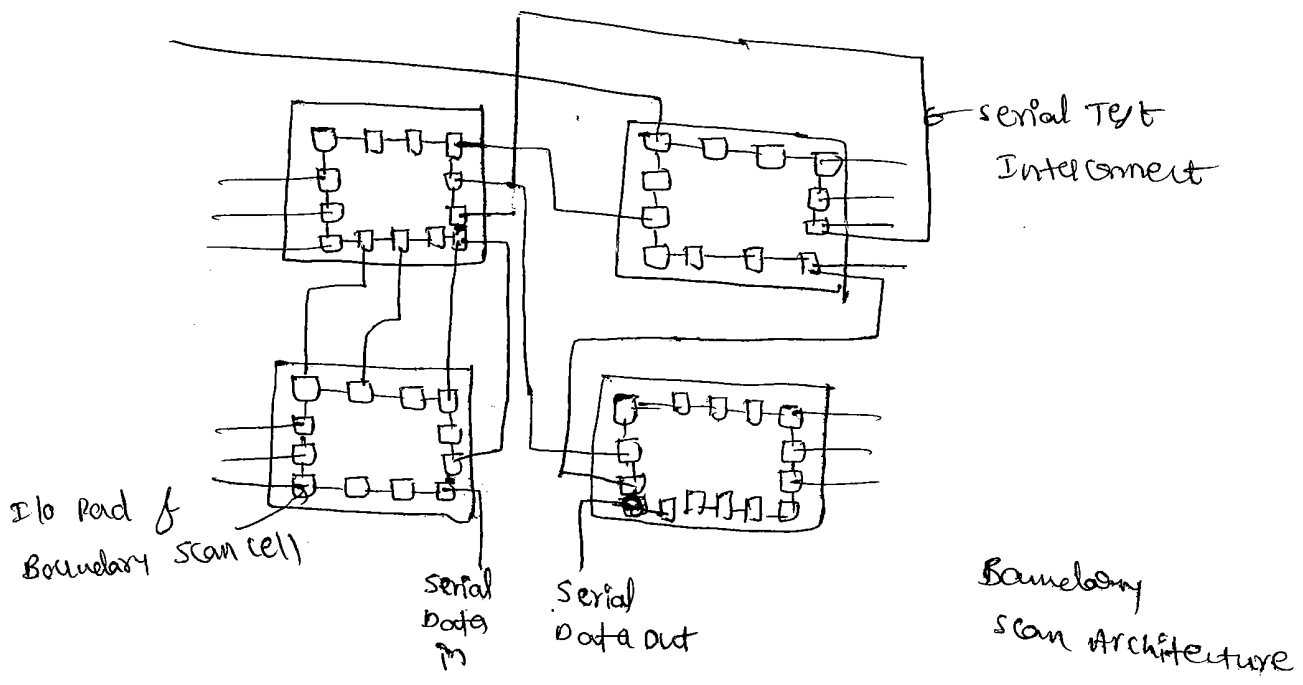
Random logic :-

Random logic is probably best tested via full serial scan &

System level test techniques:-

The increasing complexity of boards and the movement to different technologies like MCM (multi chip module) resulted in system designers agreeing on a unified scan-based methodology for testing chips at the board and system level. This is called "Boundary Scan".

Boundary scan:-



→ It provides a standardized serial scan path through the I/O pins of an IC.

TAP: (Test Access Port)

The TAP is a definition of the interface that needs to be included in an IC to make it capable of being scanned.

In a Boundary-scan architecture.

→ The port has 4 or 5 single bit connections.

- ① TCK (Test clock input) - used to clock tests into & out of chips.
- ② TMS (Test mode select) - used to control test operations.
- ③ TDI (The test data input) - used to input test data to a chip
- ④ TDO (Test data output) - used to output test data from a chip.

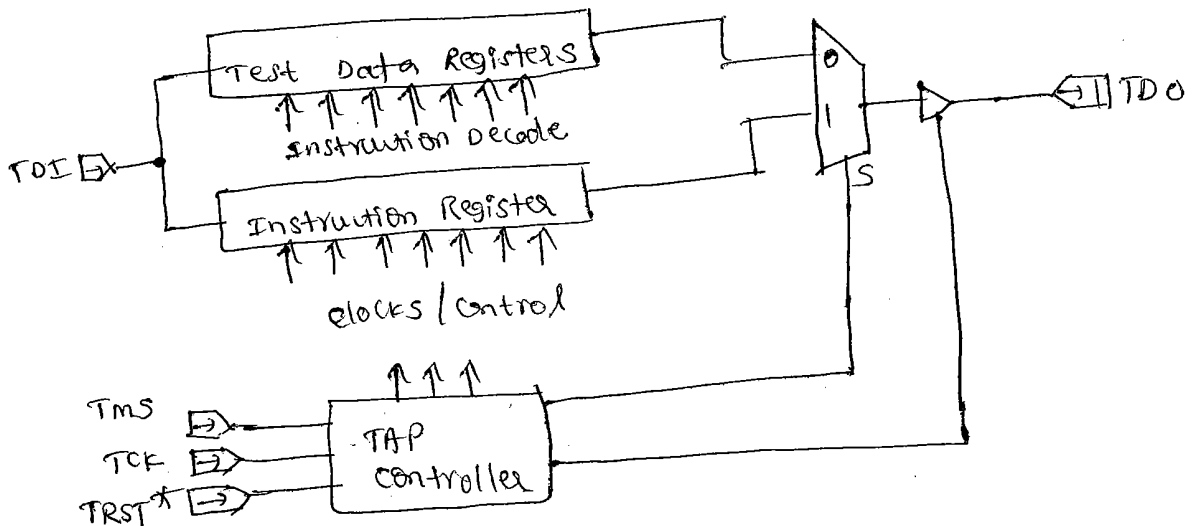
Optional pin:

* TRST (Test Reset signal) used to asynchronously reset the TAP controller.

The test Architecture:-

It consists of

- ① The TAP Interface pins
- ② Set of test-data registers to collect data from chip.
- ③ an instruction register to enable test inputs to be applied to the chip.
- ④ A TAP controller, which interprets test instructions & control the flow of data into & out of the TAP.



The TAP controller is a 16-state FSM that proceeds from state to state based on the TCK and TMS signals. It provides signals that control the test data registers, and Instruction Register. These include serial-shift clocks & update clocks.

The Instruction Register (IR):

The IR has to be at least 2 bits long & logic detecting the state of the IR has to decode at least 3 instructions. They are,

① BYPASS — This instruction is represented by an IR having all zero's in it.

→ It is used to bypass any serial-data registers in a chip with a 1-bit register.

② EXTEST — This allows for the testing of off-chip circuitry and is represented by all ones in the IR.

③ SAMPLE/PRELOAD — This places the boundary scan registers (ie at chip's I/O pins) in the DR chain & sample or preload the chip's I/O's.

Test Data Registers (DRs):

They are used to set the inputs of modules to be tested and to collect the results of running tests.

→ The simplest data-register configuration would be a boundary scan register and a bypass register (1-bit long).

→ A multiplexer under the control of ~~IR~~ TAP controller selects which particular data register is routed to the TDO pin.

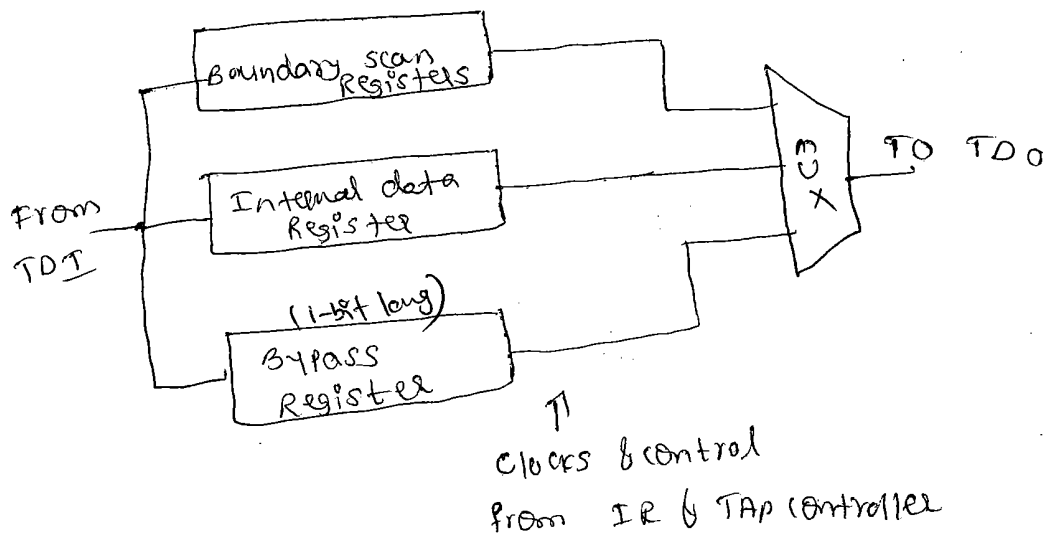


Fig: TAP data Register.

Boundary scan Registers :-

This is a special case of data Register. It allows circuit-board interconnections to be tested, external components tested & the state of the chip digital I/O to be sampled.

→ It consists of 2 multiplexers & 2 edge-triggered registers.

Design strategy for test :-

Design For Testability :-

The 3 main approaches to what is commonly called "Design for Testability". They may be categorized as

- ① Ad-hoc testing
- ② scan-based approach
- ③ self-test & built-in testing

Ad-Hoc Testing :-

Ad-hoc Test Techniques are collections of ideas aimed at reducing the combinational explosion of testing. Common Techniques involve:

- ① partitioning large sequential circuits.
- ② adding Test points.
- ③ adding multiplexers
- ④ providing for easy state reset.

Ex: - Long Counters.

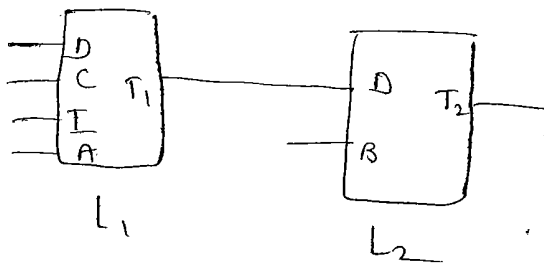
Scan-based Test Techniques :-

① Level sensitive scan design (LSSD)

LSSD is based on 2 tenets.

- ① The circuit is level sensitive
- ② Each register may be converted to a serial shift register.

The basic building block of LSSD is shift Register Latch (SRL).



SRL

SRL consists of 2 latches L_1 & L_2 .

L_1 has a serial data port I ,
enable A
data port D
enable C .

when A is high \Rightarrow value of $L_1(T_1)$ is set by value of I .

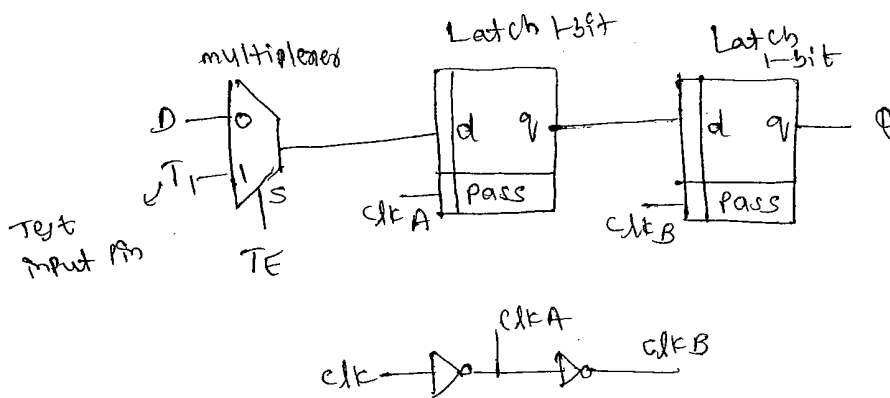
when C is high \Rightarrow value of $L_1(T_1)$ is set by D .

A & C can not be simultaneously high.

\rightarrow when signal B in L_2 is high \Rightarrow ~~T_2~~
 $T_2 \leftarrow T_1$ (T_1 passed to T_2).

Serial scan:

Schematic for a CMOS edge-sensitive scan-registered is



\rightarrow A MUX is added before the master latch in a conventional D-Register.

\rightarrow TE is test enable pin, T_1 is test input pin

When TE enabled \Rightarrow T_1 is clocked into Register by rising edge of clk.

Partial serial scan :-

In Dataflow section of the chip, pipeline registers removed. In this case only input & output registers need be made scannable. This technique of testing is known as "Partial scan", & depends on the designer making decisions about which registers need to be made scannable.

- In full scan test, all registers would have to be scannable.
- The part of the circuit that is being tested and monitored by the scan registers known as "kernel".

Parallel scan :-

- serial scan chains can become quite long & loading, unloading sequence can dominate test time. An extension of serial scan is called "Random access parallel scan".
- In parallel scan,
 - each register in the design is arranged on an imaginary or real grid where registers on common rows receive common data lines
 - registers in common columns receive common Read/Write control signals.

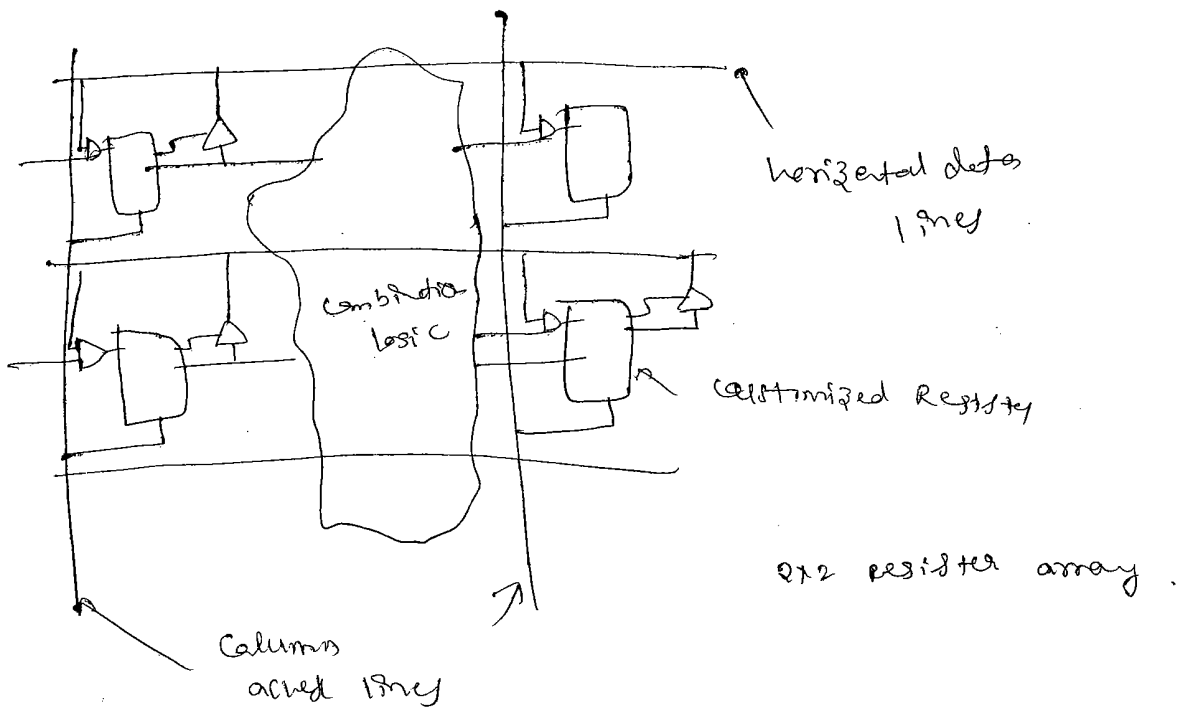


fig: Parallel Scan-based structure

- Any register output may be observed by enabling the appropriate column read line & setting the appropriate address on an output data multiplexer.
- similarly, data may be written to any Register.

Layout Design for Improved Testability :-

- In order to predict layout styles that improve testability, a designer has to have some idea of nature and frequency of defects for a particular process.
- The types of defects divided into
 - ① shorts circuits
 - ② open circuits.
- shorts occurs in all layers used for connections i.e., diffusion, polysilicon, metal1, metal2 & oxide short to substrate or source or drain.
- All conducting layers might have open circuits. In addition ... in ... on badly ... lead to interlayer

Memory self-Test

Embedding self-test circuits for memories in higher speed circuits not only may be the way of testing the structures at speed but can save on the number of external test vectors that have to be run.

EX: 4-Mbit RAM with self-test.

The self-test consists of 256K cycles that input a checkboard pattern to test for cell to cell interference.

→ This is followed by 256K cycles in which the data is readout. Then a complemented checkboard is written and read.

→ A total of 1 million cycles provide a test sufficient for system maintenance.

→ The advantage of self-test methods is that "testing may be completed, when the part is in the field."

→ We can perform self-test even during normal system operation with care.

Iterative Logic Array Testing: (ILA Testing)

→ Arrays of logic present is the problem to the test architect because the replication can be used to advantage in reducing number of tests.

→ An ILA is a collection of identical logic modules (EX: n-bit adder).

→ An ILA is C-Testable if it can be tested with a constant

An ILA is I-testable if a particular fault that occurs in any module as a result of an applied input vector is identical for all modules in ILA.

IDDQ Testing :-

Popular method of testing for bridging faults is called "IDDQ" (V_{DD} supply current Quiescent) or current-supply monitoring.

→ When CMOS logic gates not switching it draws no DC current (except for leakage).

→ When bridging fault occurs, for some combination of inputs a measurable DC IDD will flow.

→ Applying normal vectors, allowing signals to settle & then measuring IDD. This is IDDQ testing.

→ Because current measuring is slow, test must be run slower than normal, so increasing test time.

→ But gives a form of indirect native observability at little circuit overhead.