

Test

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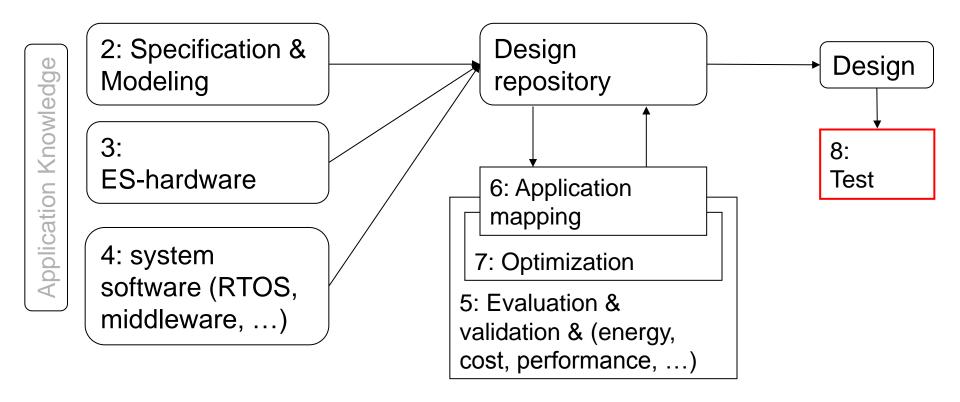


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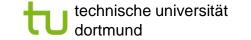
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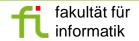
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Structure of this course



Numbers denote sequence of chapters





Test: Goals

1. Production test

- 2. Is there any way of using test patterns for production test already during the design?
- 3. Test for faults after delivery to customer

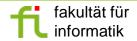


Why is testing of embedded systems difficult?

 Embedded/cyber-physical systems integrated into a physical environment may be safety-critical. As a result, expectations for the product quality are higher than for non-safety critical systems.



- Testing of timing-critical systems has to validate the correct timing behavior. This means that just testing the functional behavior is not sufficient.
- Testing embedded/cyber-physical systems in their real environment may be dangerous.



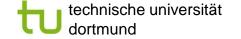
Scope

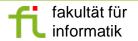
Testing includes

- the application of test patterns to the inputs of the device under test (DUT) and
- the observation of the results.

More precisely, testing requires the following steps:

- test pattern generation,
- test pattern application,
- response observation, and
- 4. result comparison.





Fault models and test pattern generation

Test pattern generation typically

considers certain fault models and



- generates patterns that enable a distinction between the faulty and the fault-free case.
- Examples:
 - Boolean differences
 - D-Algorithm
 - Self-test programs

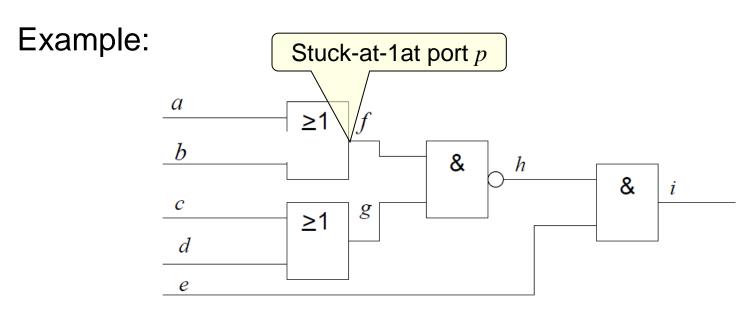


Stuck-at fault model

Hardware fault model:

Net permanently connected to ground or V_{dd}

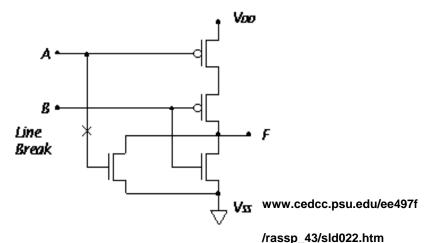
- Simplification of the real situation
- Nevertheless useful in many cases



Other Hardware fault models

Fault models include:

stuck-open faults: for CMOS, open transistors can behave like memories



- Break above results in a "memory-effect" in the behavior of the circuit
- · With AB=10, there is not path from either VDD or VSS to the output - F retains the previous value for some undetermined discharge time

delay faults: circuit is functionally correct, but the delay is not.

Fault models and test pattern generation

Test pattern generation typically

- considers certain fault models and
- generates patterns that enable a distinction between the faulty and the fault-free case.



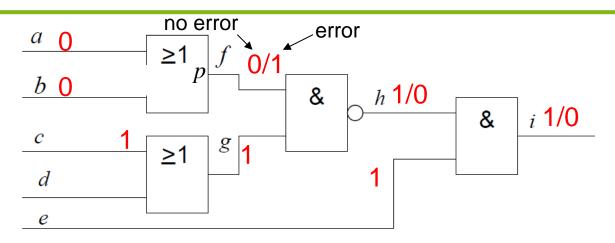
- Examples:
 - Boolean differences
 - *D*-Algorithm



Self-test programs



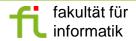
The D-algorithm: a simple example



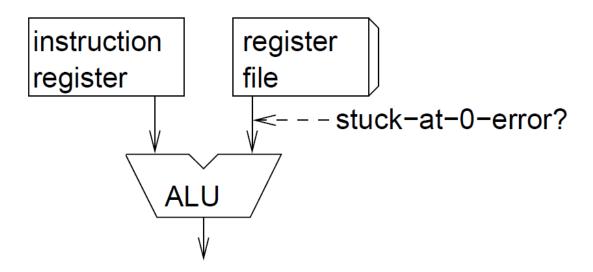
Could we check for a stuck at one error at port p (s-a-1(p)) ? Solution (just guessing):

- Signal f='1' if there is an error
- a=0', b=0' in order to have f=0' if there is no error
- g='1' in order to propagate error
- c='1' in order to have g='1' (or set d='1')
- e='1' in order to propagate error
- i='1' if there is no error & i='0' if there is

Symbolic values D and \overline{D} are assigned to signals f, h and i



Generation of Self-Test Program Generation - Key concept -

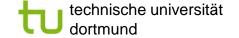


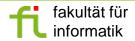
- 1. Store pattern of all '1's in the register file
- 2. Perform xor between register and constant "00..0";
- 3. Test if result contains '0' bit
- 4. If yes, report error;
- 5. Otherwise start test for next fault;



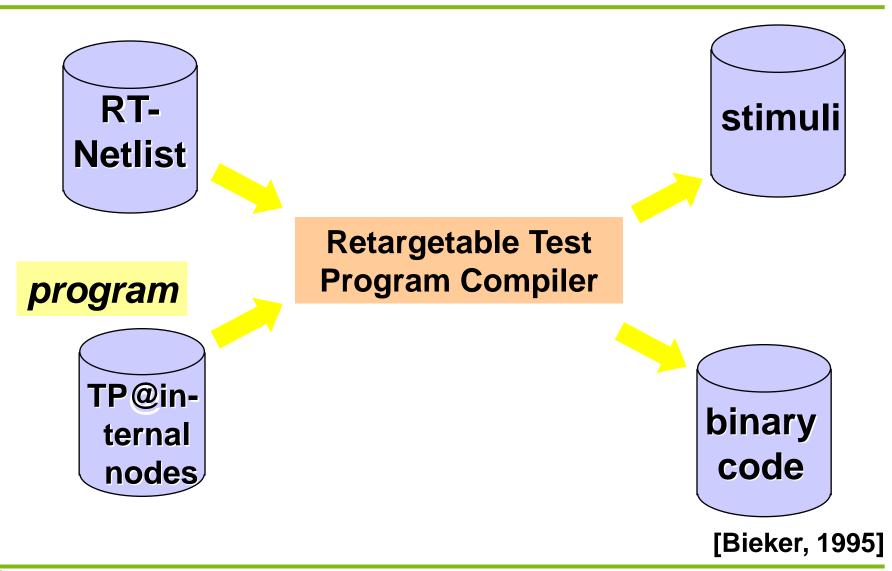
Test Program Generation (2)

- Programs running on the processors to be tested
- Well-known concept (diagnostics @ mainframes)
- Very poor tool support
- Mostly ad-hoc process:
 Initial ad-hoc program;
 Extended until sufficient coverage achieved;
 Extended if undetected errors are reported by field service





Self-Test Programs generated by Retargetable Test Compiler



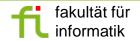
Evaluation of test pattern sets & system robustness: Fault coverage

A certain set of test patterns will not always detect all faults that are possible within a fault model

$$(Fault-)Coverage = \frac{\text{No.of detectable faults for a given test pattern set}}{\text{No.of faults possible} due to the fault model}$$

For actual designs, the fault coverage should be at least in the order of 98 to 99%.

Furthermore, non-faulty systems must be recognized as such (correctness coverage)



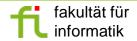
Fault simulation (1)

(Fault-) coverage can be computed with **fault simulation**:

■ ∀ faults ∈ fault model: check if distinction between faulty and the fault-free case can be made:

```
Simulate fault-free system;
∀ faults ∈ fault model DO
∀ test patterns DO
Simulate faulty system;
Can the fault be observed for ≥1 pattern?
Faults are called redundant if they do not affect the observable behavior of the system,
```

 Fault simulation checks whether mechanisms for improving fault tolerance actually help.



Fault simulation (2)

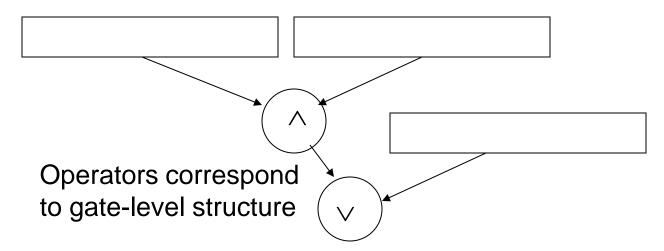
High computational requirements.

Parallel fault-simulation at the gate level:

Each bit in a word represents a different input pattern.

E.g.: 32 input patterns simulated at the same time.

Each bit corresponds to one test pattern



Fault injection

Fault simulation may be too time-consuming

If real systems are available, faults can be injected.



Two types of fault injection:

- 1. local faults within the system, and
- faults in the environment (behaviors which do not correspond to the specification).
 For example, we can check how the system behaves if it is operated outside the specified temperature or radiation ranges.



Physical fault injection

Hardware fault injection requires major effort, but generates precise information about the behavior of the real system. 3 techniques compared in the PDCS project on the MARS hardware [Kopetz]:

Injection Technique	Heavy-ion	Pin-level	EMI (
Controllability, space	Low	High	Low
Controllability, time	None	High/medium	Low
Flexibility	Low	Medium	High
Reproducibility	Medium	High	Low
Physical reachability	High	Medium	Medium
Timing measurement	Medium	high	Low

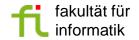
Software fault injection

Errors are injected into the memories.

Advantages:

- Predictability: it is possible to reproduce every injected fault in time and space.
- Reachability: possible to reach storage locations within chips instead of just pins.
- Less effort than physical fault injection: no modified hardware.

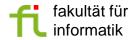
Same quality of results?



Design for testability

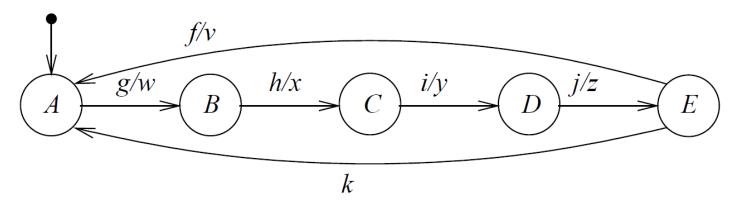
If testing comes in as an afterthought, testing may be very complicated and expensive

- Try to consider testing already during the design!
- Design for testability (DfT)
- Important for finite state machines (FSMs) and, hence, embedded systems.



Testing finite state machines

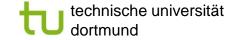
Difficult to check states and transitions.



For example, verifying the transition from C to D requires

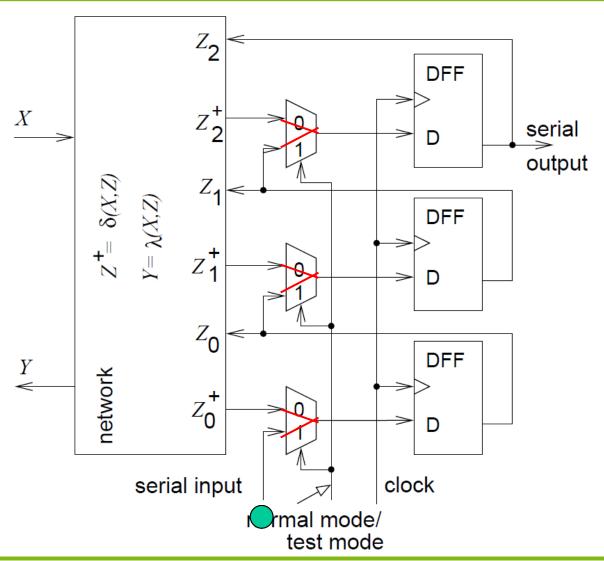
- Getting into state C
- Application of i
- Check if output is y
- Check if we have actually reached D

Simplified with scan design:

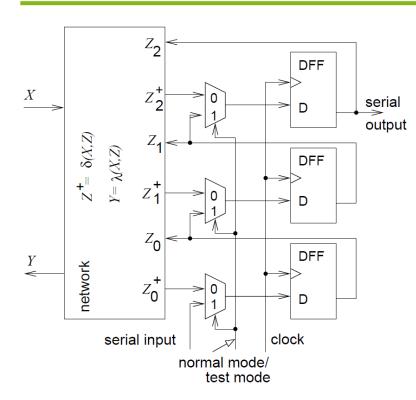




Scan design



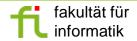
Scan design: usage



Verifying a transition requires

- Shifting-in the "old state"
- Application of the input pattern
- Checking if output is correct
- Shifting-out the new state and comparing it.

Essentially reduced to testing combinatorial logic



JTAG (Boundary scan) (1)

JTAG defines a 4..5-wire serial interface to access complex ICs ... Any compatible IC contains shift registers & FSM to execute the JTAG functions.

TDI: test data in; stored in instruction register or in one of the data registers.

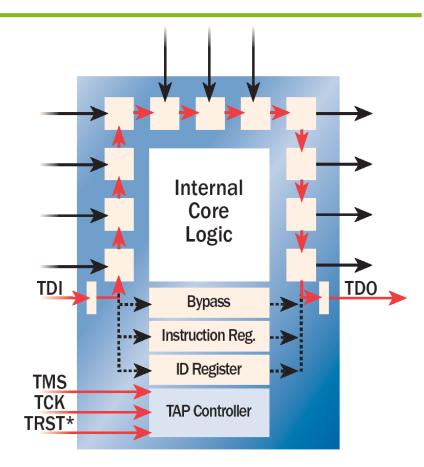
TDO: test data out

TCK: clock

TMS: controls the state of the

test access port (TAP).

Optional TRST* is reset signal.



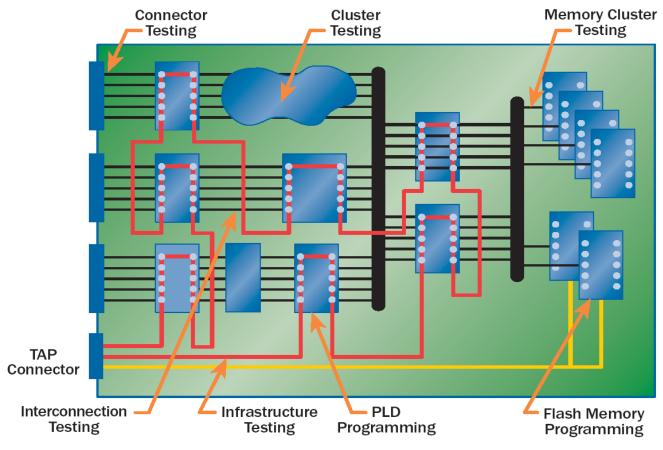
IEEE 1149.1 Device Architecture

Source: http://www.jtag.com/brochure.php



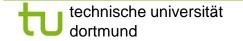
JTAG (Boundary scan) (2)

Defines method for setting up a scan chain on a PCB



Source: http://www.jtag.com/brochure.php

Applications of Boundary-Scan





Limitations of a single serial scan chain

For chips with a large number of flop-flops, serial shifts can take a quite long time.



Hence, it becomes necessary to provide several scan chains.

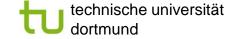
Trying to avoid serial shifts by generating test patterns internally and by also storing the results internally.



Compaction of circuit response in a signature.



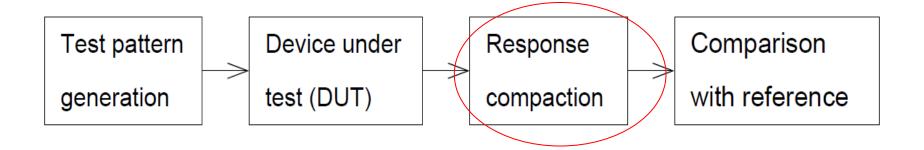
Shifting the entire result out becomes obsolete, we just shift out the signature.

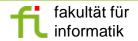




Signature analysis

Response of circuit to sequence of test patterns compacted in a signature. Only this signature is compared to the golden reference.



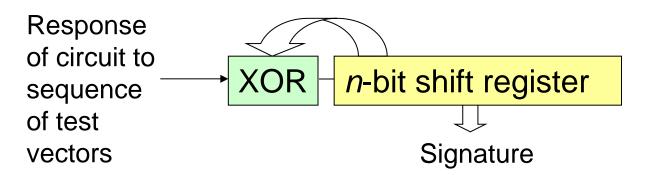


Signature analysis

Response of circuit to sequence of test patterns compacted in a signature. Only this signature is compared to the golden reference.

Exploit an n-bit signature register as well as possible:

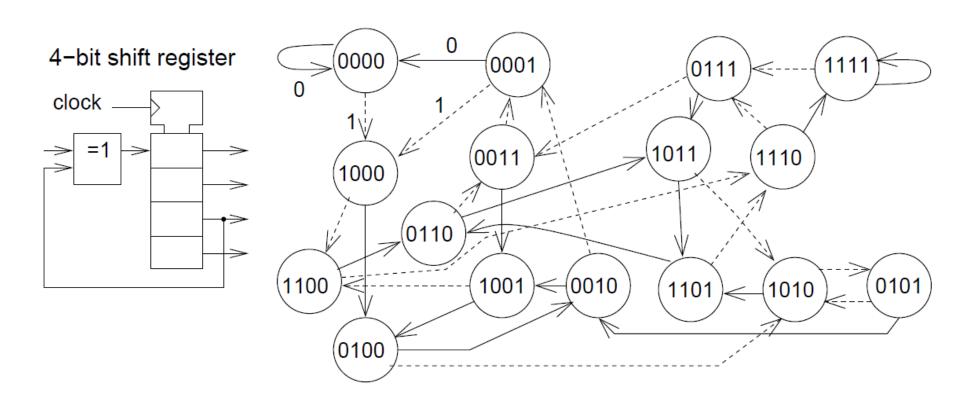
* try to use all values possible for that registers! In practice, we use shift-registers with linear feedback:



Using proper feedback bits, all values possible for the register can be generated.

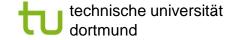


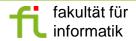
Example: 4-bit signature generator



All 16 possible signatures are generated!

Source: P.K.Lala: Fault tolerant & fault testable hardware design, Prentice Hall, 1985





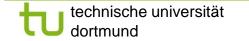
Aliasing for signatures

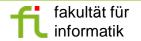
Consider aliasing for some current pattern

- An n-bit signature generator can generate 2^n signatures.
- For an m-bit input sequence, the best that we can get is to evenly map $2^{(m-n)}$ patterns to the same signature.
- Hence, there are $2^{(m-n)}$ -1 sequences that map to the same signature as the pattern currently considered.
- In total, there are 2^m -1 sequences different from the current one.

$$P = \text{Probability} \left(\frac{\text{other patterns map to same signature}}{\text{total number of other patterns}} \right) = \frac{2^{(m-n)} - 1}{2^m - 1}$$

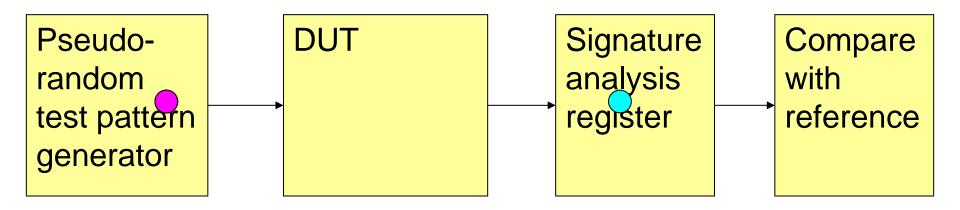
 $P \cong \frac{1}{2^n}$ for m >> n provided that we evenly mappatterns to signatures



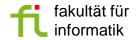


Replacing serially shifted test pattern by pseudo random test patterns

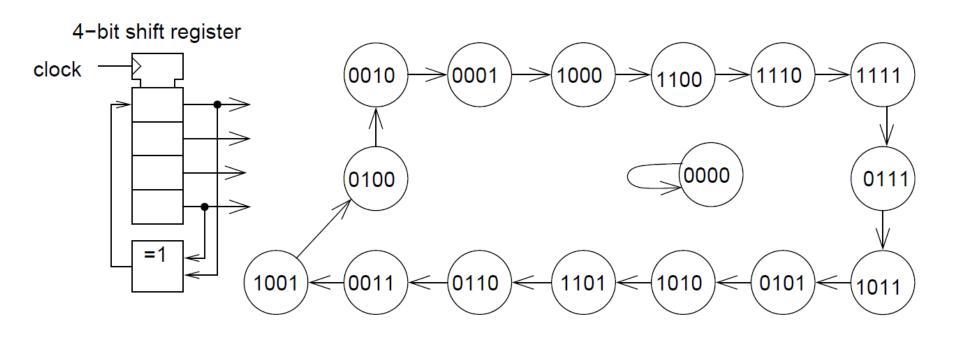
Shifting in test patterns can be avoided if we generate test patterns internally with a pseudo-random test pattern generator.



Effect of pseudo random numbers on coverage to be analyzed. Signature analysis register shifted-out at the end of the test.

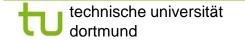


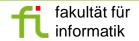
Pseudo random test pattern generation



2^n -1 patterns generated!

Superior to counters if not all patterns are used.

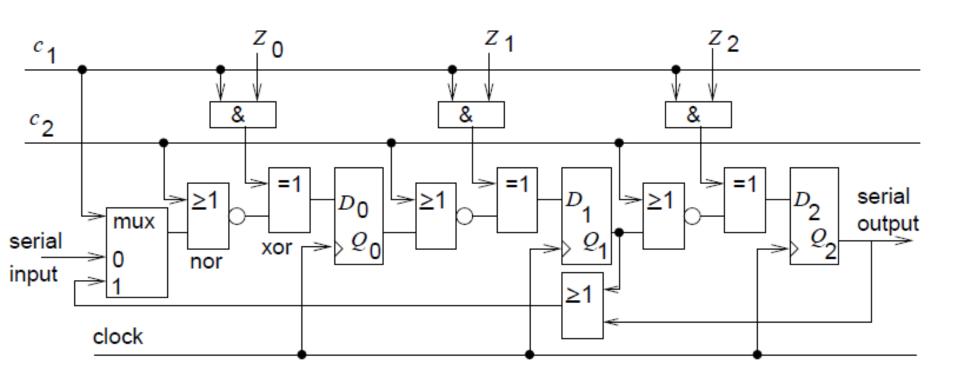




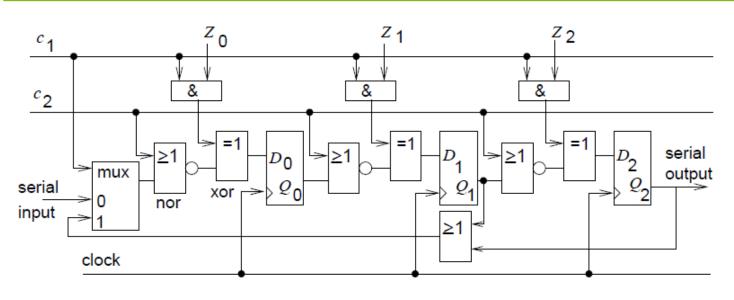
Combining signature analysis with pseudo-random test patterns: Built-in logic block observer (BILBO)

Könemann & Mucha

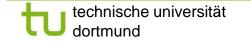
Uses parallel inputs to compress circuit response



Built-in logic block observer (BILBO) Modes of operation

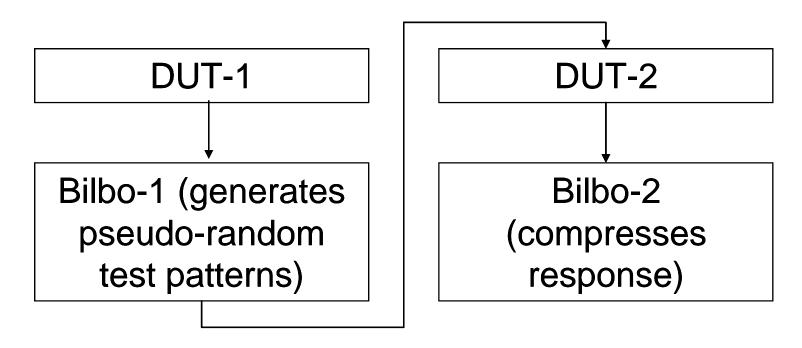


$\overline{c_1}$	c_2	D_i	
'0'	' 0'	$'0'\oplus \overline{Q_{i-1}}=\overline{Q_{i-1}}$	scan path mode
'0'	'1'	$'0' \oplus \overline{'1'} = '0'$	reset
'1'	'0'	$Z_i \oplus \overline{Q_{i-1}}$	LFSR mode
'1'	'1'	$Z_i \oplus \overline{'1'} = Z_i$	normal mode





Typical application



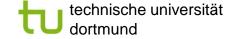
Compressed response shifted out of Bilbo-2 & compared to known "golden" reference response.

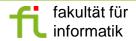
Roles of Bilbo-1 and 2 swapped for testing DUT-1



Summary

- Test
 - Fault model
 - TPG (..., generation of assembly programs, ..)
 - Application of test patterns
 - Checking the results
 - Fault coverage
 - Fault simulation for computing coverage
 - Fault injection
 - Testing FSMs
- Design for Test (DFT)
 - Scan path, Boundary scan
 - Signature analysis
 - Pseudo random patterns, BILBO





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