Designing for Test

Testing of Digital Systems

Boundary Scan

Board-Level Testing

- Each chip used in a PCB is pretested by the chip's vendor and declared fault-free
- Testing at board level focuses on
 - —Inter-chip interconnect faults
 - Opens
 - + Caused when chip pins do not bond properly to board
 - + That occur in PCB traces due to defects during PCB manufacturing
 - Shorts caused when extra solder flows between pins or PCB traces
 - —Faults internal to chips
 - Faults induced due to improper handling, e.g., excessive heat or shock during PCB assembly
 - Faulty behaviors that become apparent only when a chip is integrated into a PCB, e.g., the ability to drive a large load
- Since repair possible, diagnosis also important

Board-Level Testing (cont.)

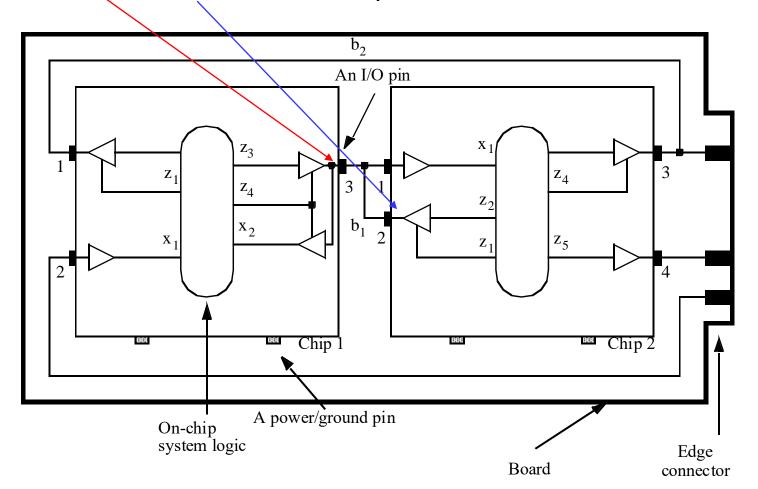
- Possible approaches for board testing
 - Consider the entire board as one circuit and generate tests: Not possible because
 - The circuit too large for ATPG tools
 - Net-list of most chips unavailable
 - —In-circuit testing
 - Probes were used to access input/output pins of chips
 - Care had to be taken to ensure probes driving values did not damage output pins
 - No longer used because
 - + Pins are too small and too close to be reliably probed
 - + Pins at bottoms of chips cannot be probed in multi-layered PCBs
 - —Boundary scan

Boundary Scan Structure

- Boundary scan incorporates DFT circuitry that allows direct access to chip input and output pins via scan chains
- A board contains chips from multiple manufacturers
- Boundary scan circuits must interoperate to achieve above objectives
- Hence, a standard, namely IEEE Std 1149.1, defined

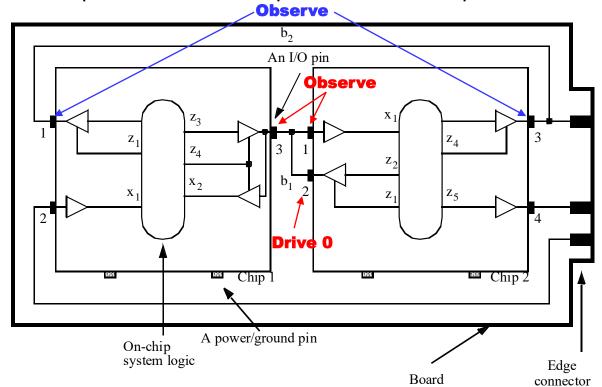
Example: A Board Without Boundary Scan

- Consider an example board. Especially note
 - Bi-directional driver/receiver Pin 3 of Chip 1
 - Tri-state driver Pin 2 of Chip 2



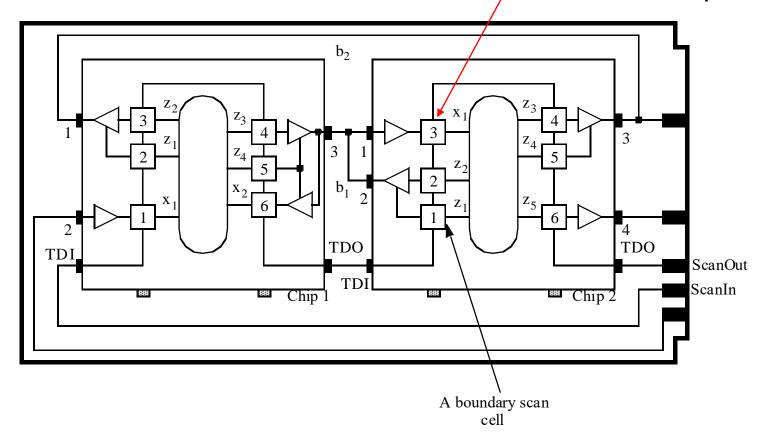
Example: Testing Without Boundary Scan (cont.)

- Assume that
 - A receiver disconnected from its drivers due to opens interprets the input as a value 1
 - A control value 1 enables a tri-state/bi-directional driver
- To test for an open at net b1
 - Use a probe to apply 0 at Pin 2 of Chip 2
 - Use another probe to observe the value at Pin 3 of Chip 1 and Pin 1 of Chip 2
- To test for an short between b1 and b2
 - Probe above pins and Pin 1 of Chip 1 and Pin 3 of Chip 2



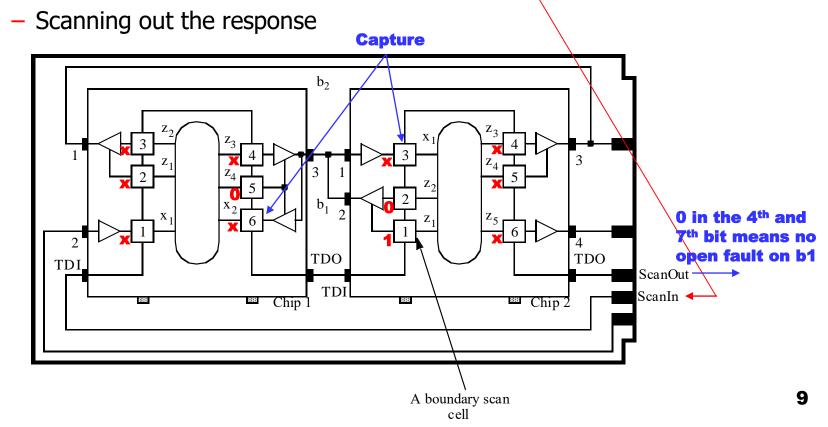
Example: A Board With Boundary Scan

- Boundary scan register (BSR)
 - —Formed using boundary scan cells (BSCs)
 - At each input and output pin
 - As well as at control cells of tri-state and bi-directional pins



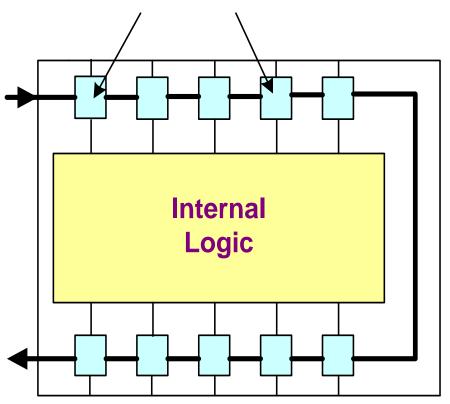
Example: Testing With Boundary Scan (cont.)

- Probing no longer necessary
 - E.g., an open at the simple receiver of net b1 tested by
 - Scanning in (x, x, x, x, 0, 1, x, 0, x, x, x, x) into BSCs
 - Applying the values scanned in BSCs to corresponding pins
 - Capturing the response from the input pins into corresponding BSCs

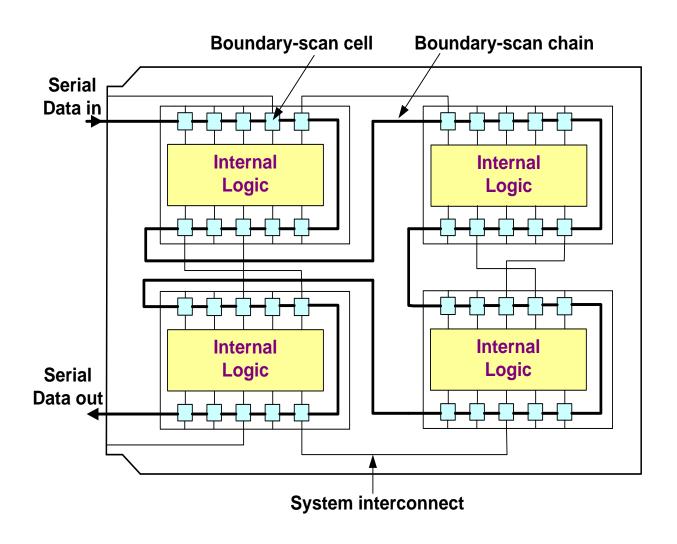


Basic Idea of Boundary Scan

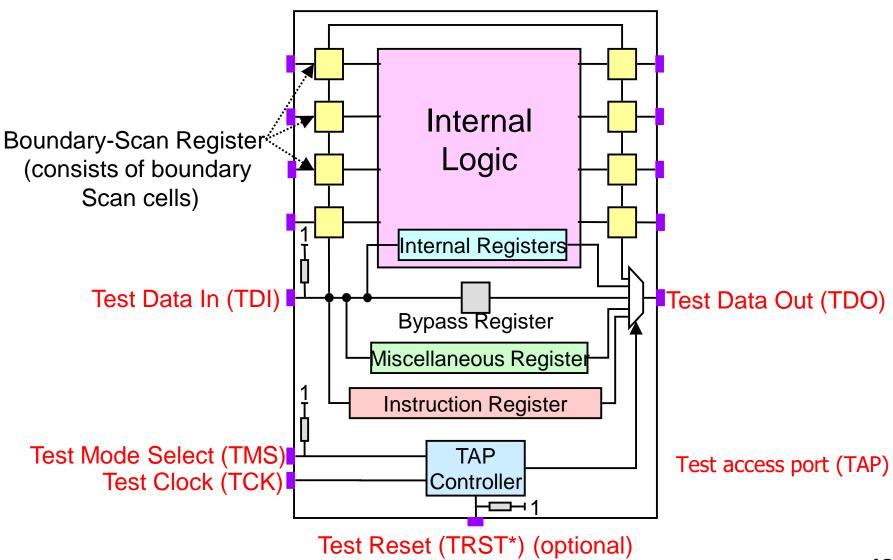
Boundary-scan cell



A Board Containing 4 IC's with Boundary Scan



JTAG IEEE 1149.1 Boundary-Scan Architecture



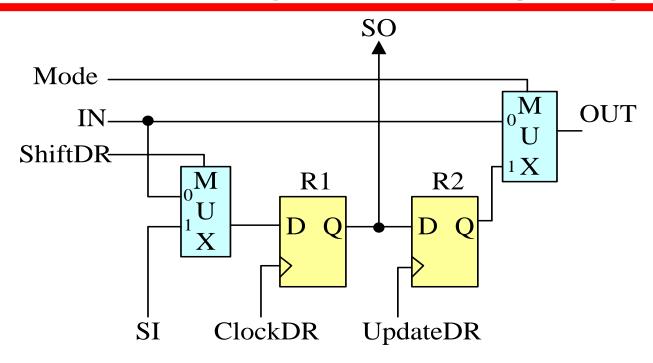
Hardware Components of 1149.1 (JTAG)

- Joint Test Action Group (1990)
- A test access port (TAP) consisting of :
 - —4 mandatory pins: Test data in (TDI), Test data out (TDO), Test mode select (TMS), Test clock (TCK), and
 - —1 optional pin: Test reset (TRST*)
- A test access port controller (TAPC)
- An instruction register (IR)
- Several test data registers
 - A boundary scan register (BSR) consisting of boundary scan cells (BSCs)
 - —A bypass register (BR)
 - —Some optional registers (Device-ID register, designspecified registers such as scan registers, LFSRs for BIST, etc.)

Basic Operations

- Instruction sent (serially) through TDI into instruction register.
- 2. Selected test circuitry configured to respond to the instruction.
- Test pattern shifted into selected data register and applied to logic to be tested
- 4. Test response captured into some data register
- 5. Captured response shifted out; new test pattern shifted in simultaneously
- 6. Steps 3-5 repeated until all test patterns are applied.

A Typical Boundary-Scan Cell (BSC)

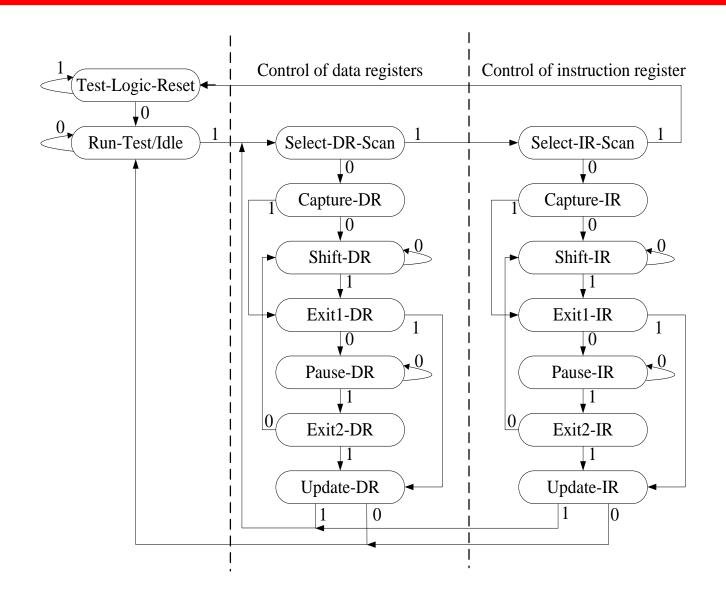


- Four main operation modes
 - 1. Normal: IN \rightarrow OUT (Mode = 0)
 - 2. Shift: SI $\rightarrow ... \rightarrow$ IN \rightarrow OUT $\rightarrow ... \rightarrow$ SO (ShiftDR = 1, ClockDR)
 - 3. Capture: IN \rightarrow R1, OUT driven by IN or R2 (ShiftDR = 0, ClockDR)
 - 4. Update: $R1 \rightarrow OUT$ (Mode = 1, UpdateDR)

TAP Controller

- Interprets the control inputs applied serially at TMS input (sampled at each rising edge of TCK)
- A finite state machine with 16 states
- Input: TCK, TMS
- Output: 9 or 10 signals, i.e. ClockDR, UpdateDR, ShiftDR, ClockIR, UpdateIR, ShiftIR, Select, Enable, TCK and TRST* (optional).

State Diagram of TAP Controller



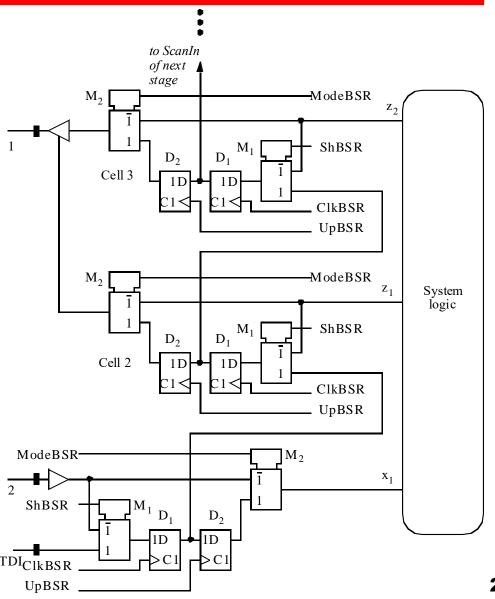
Main Functions of TAP Controller

- Providing control signals to
 - —Reset BS circuitry
 - —Load instructions into instruction register
 - —Perform test capture operation
 - —Perform test update operation
 - —Shift test data in and out

Examples of Mode of Operations

Example Configuration

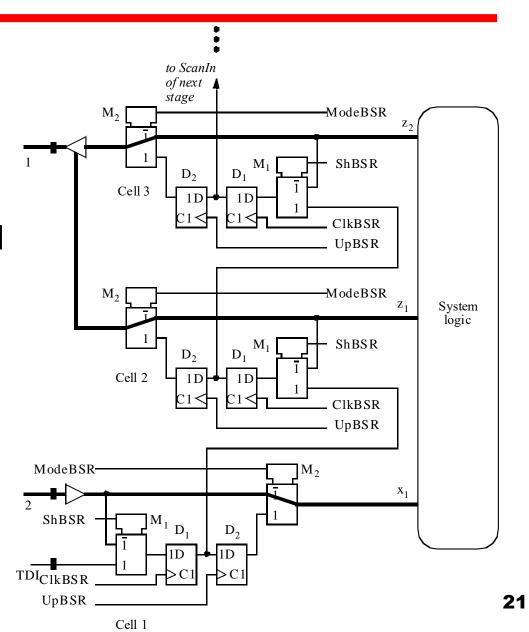
- Input: x1
- Output: z1 and z2
- Number of boundary scan cells: 3



Cell 1

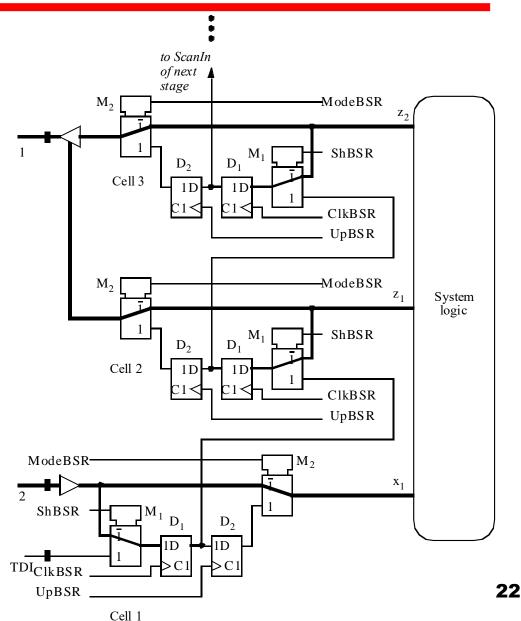
Normal Mode

- 0 applied at ModeBSR
 - The value at *NormalIn* appears at *NormalOut*
 - That is, the system logic operates in normal mode
- Gated clocks ClkBSR and UpBSR disabled
- The value at ShBSR does not affect operation



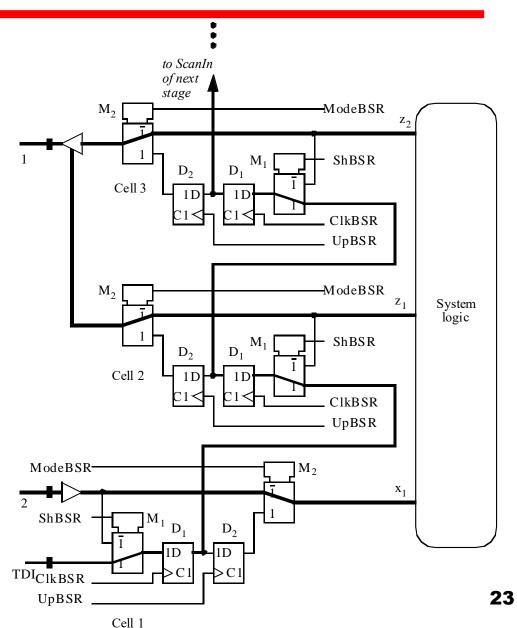
Normal-Sample Mode

- 0 applied at ModeBSR
 - The value at NormalIn appears at NormalOut
 - That is, the system logic operates in normal mode
- Gated clock *UpBSR* disabled
- 0 applied at ShBSR
- One clock pulse applied to ClkBSR to capture the values at NormalIn into the corresponding D₁ FFs
 - This clock synchronized with system clock that controls data at *NormalIn* inputs
 - This occurs only when TAP controller in Capture-DR state



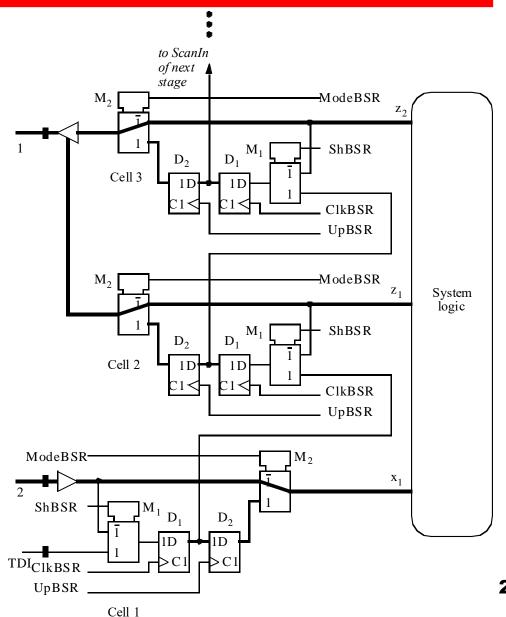
Normal-Scan Mode

- 0 applied at ModeBSR
 - The value at NormalIn appears at NormalOut
 - That is, the system logic operates in normal mode
- Gated clock *UpBSR* disabled
- 1 applied at *ShBSR*
- A sequence of clock pulses applied to ClkBSR to
 - Scan out any response previously captured in D_1 FFs
 - Scan in appropriate values into D_1 FFs from TDI
 - This occurs only when TAP controller in Shift-DR state



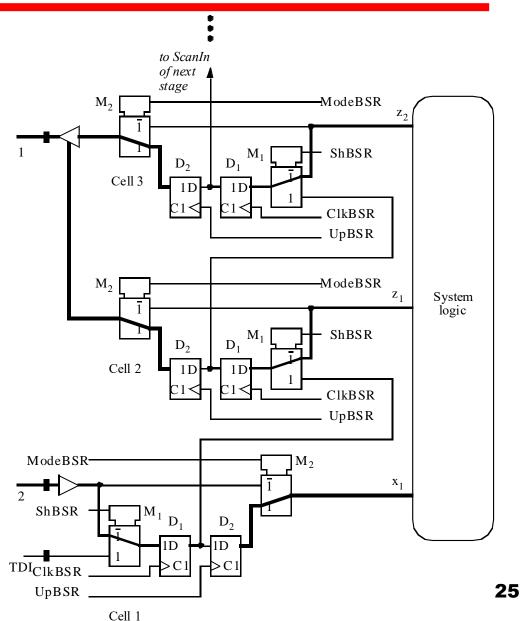
Normal-Preload Mode

- 0 applied at ModeBSR
 - The value at *NormalIn* appears at *NormalOut*
 - That is, the system logic operates in normal mode
- ClkBSR held inactive, ShBSR unimportant
- One clock pulse applied at *UpBSR*
 - To load the data currently held in D_1 FFs into corresponding D_2 FFs
 - This occurs only when
 TAP controller in *Update-DR* state



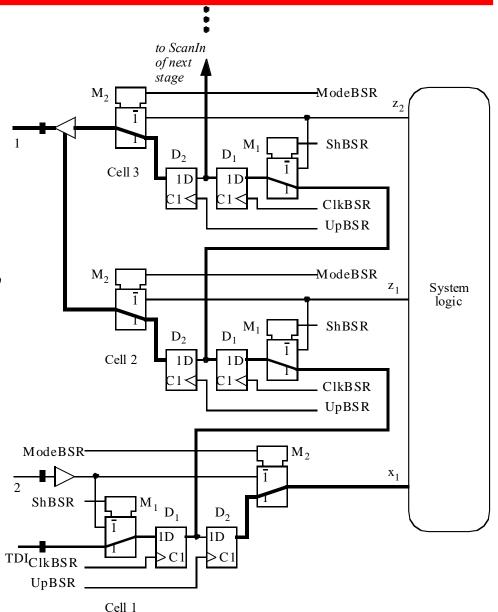
Test-Capture Mode

- 1 applied at ModeBSR
 - Values at D₂ FFs appear
 at NormalOut
 - That is, the system logic operates in test mode
- Gated clock *UpBSR* disabled
- 0 applied at ShBSR
- One clock pulse applied to ClkBSR to capture the values at NormalIn into the corresponding D₁
 FFs
 - This occurs only when
 TAP controller in Capture-DR state



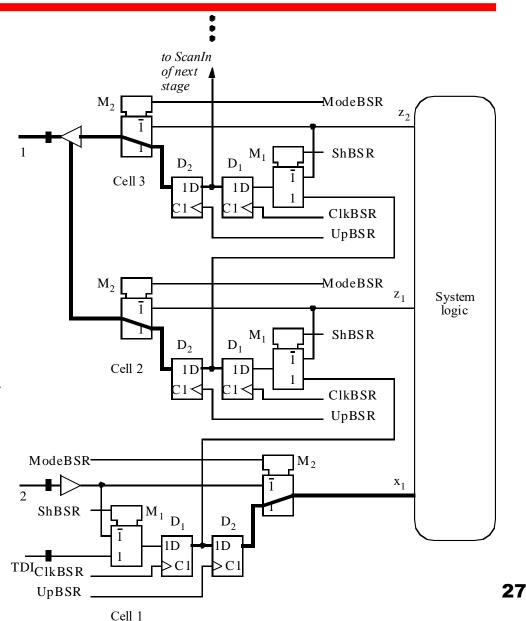
Test-Scan Mode

- 1 applied at ModeBSR
 - Values at D₂ FFs appear at NormalOut
 - That is, the system logic operates in test mode
- UpBSR held inactive
- 1 applied at ShBSR
- A sequence of clock pulses applied to ClkBSR to
 - Scan out any response previously captured in D_1 FFs
 - Scan in appropriate values into D₁ FFs from TDI
 - This occurs only when TAP controller in Shift-DR state



Test-Update Mode

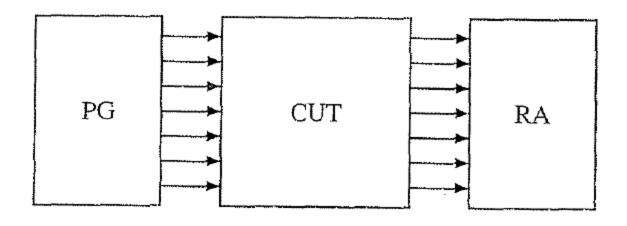
- 1 applied at ModeBSR
 - Values at D₂ FFs appear
 at NormalOut
 - That is, the system logic operates in test mode
- ClkBSR held inactive, ShBSR unimportant
- One clock pulse applied at *UpBSR*
 - To load the data currently held in D_1 FFs into corresponding D_2 FFs
 - This occurs only when
 TAP controller in *Update-DR* state



Built-In Self-Test (BIST)

BIST Concept

- Built-in self-test refers to techniques and circuit configurations that enable a chip to test itself
- In this methodology, test patterns are generated and test responses are analyzed onchip.
- The simplest of BIST designs has a pattern generator (PG) and a response analyzer (RA)



BIST Advantages

- BIST offers several advantages over testing using automatic test equipment (ATE)
 - 1. In BIST the test circuitry is incorporated on-chip and no external tester is required (especially attractive for high-speed circuits).
 - 2. Self-test can be performed at the circuit's normal clock rate.
 - 3. Self-testable chip has the ability to perform self-test even after it is incorporated into a system (either for periodic testing or to diagnose system failures).

Definitions

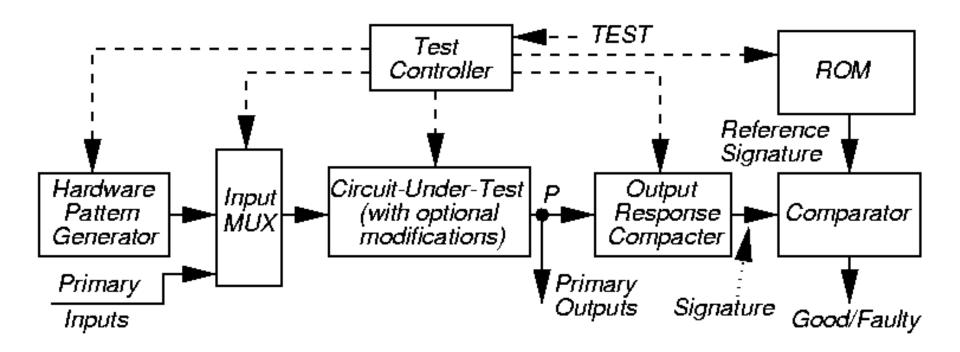
- **LFSR** *Linear feedback shift register,* hardware that generates pseudo-random pattern sequence
- BILBO Built-in logic block observer, extra hardware added to flip-flops so they can be reconfigured as an LFSR pattern generator or response compacter, a scan chain, or as flip-flops
- Concurrent testing Testing process that detects faults during normal system operation
- **CUT** *Circuit-under-test*
- Exhaustive testing Apply all possible 2ⁿ patterns to a circuit with n inputs

Definitions (cont.)

- Primitive polynomial Boolean polynomial p (x) that can be used to compute increasing powers n of xⁿ modulo p (x) to obtain all possible non-zero polynomials of degree less than p (x)
- Pseudo-random testing Algorithmic pattern generator that produces a subset of all possible tests with most of the properties of randomly-generated patterns
- Signature Any statistical circuit property distinguishing between bad and good circuits
- TPG Hardware test pattern generator

BIST Architecture

- BIST cannot test all wires and transistors
 - —From PI pins to Input MUX
 - —From POs to output pins

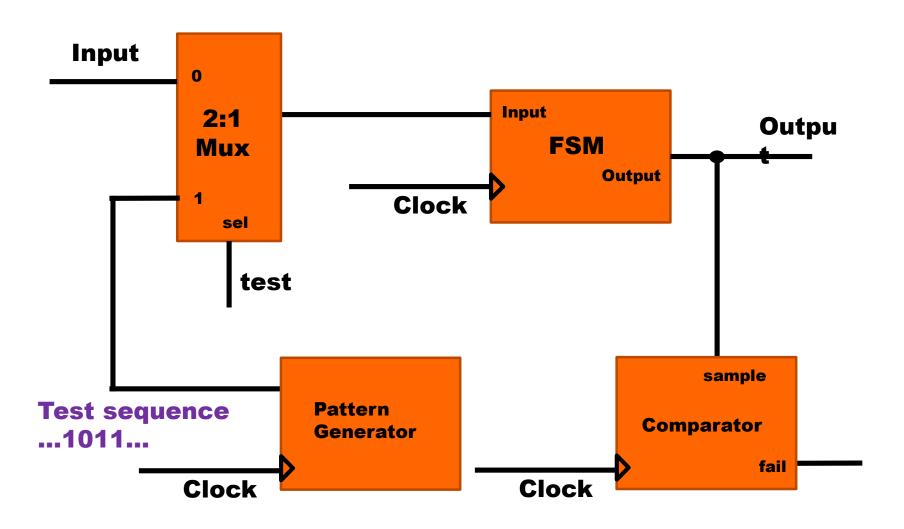


Built-in Self-test



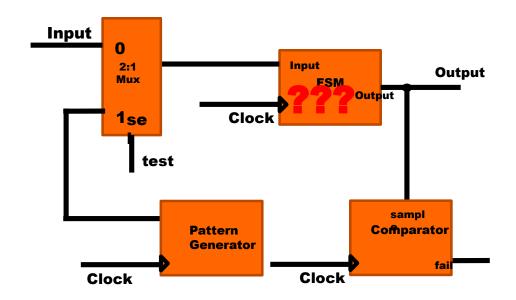
Normal Use of Circuit

Built-in Self-test

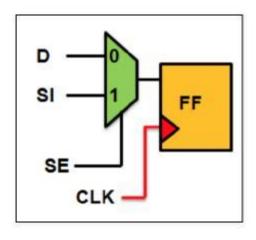


State Sequence Testing

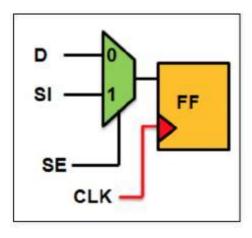
Testing a sequence in a FSM is difficult How to initialize the internal state?



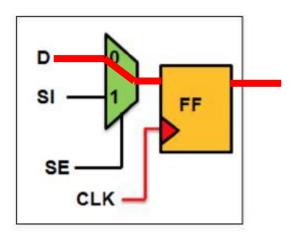
Augment Flip-Flop with a 2:1 Mux



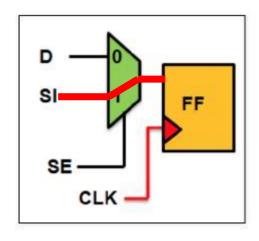
Two modes: Normal and Test



Normal Mode Select Mux (SE) set to zero

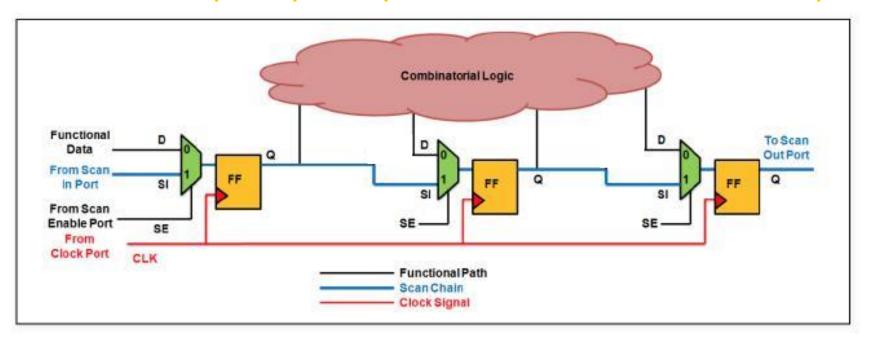


Test or Scan In Mode Select Mux (SE) set to one Scan in path is enabled to load state of FF

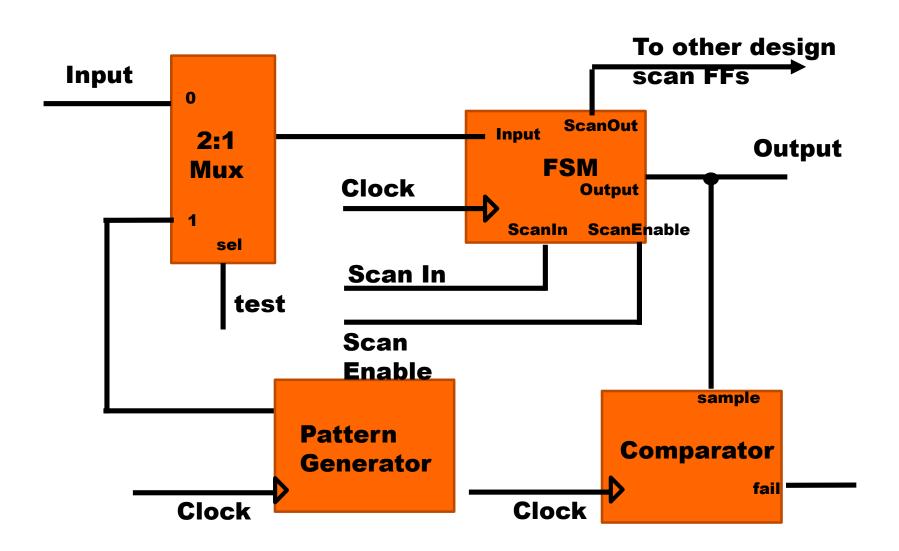


Scan Chain to Load States

Form chain by connecting all FF_{Q_i} to $FF_{SI_{i+1}}$ Select Mux (SE) set to one N Flip-flops may be initialized in N clock cycles



Built-in Self Test with scan chain



Pattern Generation in BIST

Mechanisms for Pattern Generation

- Store in ROM too expensive
- Exhaustive
- Pseudo-exhaustive
- Pseudo-random (LFSR) Preferred method
- Binary counters use more hardware than LFSR
- Modified counters
- Test pattern augmentation
 - —LFSR combined with a few patterns in ROM
 - —Hardware diffracter generates pattern cluster in neighborhood of pattern stored in ROM

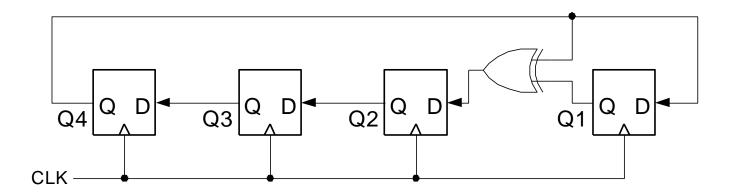
Linear Feedback Shift Register (LFSR)

- Used to generate pseudo-random patterns
- Produces patterns algorithmically repeatable
 - Has most of desirable random # properties
 - Near-exhaustive (maximal length) LFSR
 - Cycles through $2^n 1$ states (excluding all-0)
- Need not cover all 2ⁿ input combinations
- Long sequences needed for good fault coverage
- Two types of LFSR
 - Internal XOR (standard LFSR)
 - External XOR (modular LFSR)
- Every LFSR is described by its feedback (characteristic) polynomial represented as: $φ(x) = φ_n x^n + ... + φ_1 x + φ_0$

Linear Feedback Shift Register Background

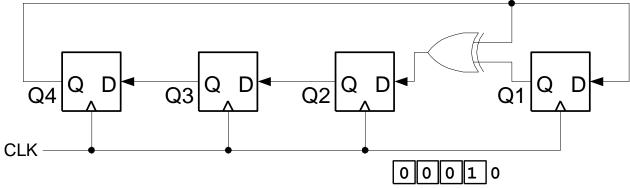
Linear Feedback Shift Registers (LFSRs)

- These are n-bit counters exhibiting pseudo-random behavior.
- Built from simple shift-registers with a small number of xor gates.
- Used for:
 - random number generation
 - counters
 - error checking and correction
- Advantages:
 - very little hardware
 - high speed operation
- Example 4-bit LFSR:



4-bit LFSR

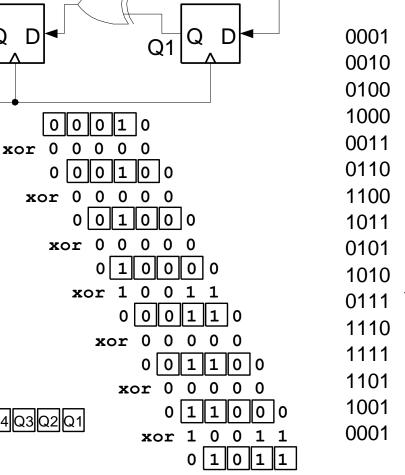
Λ



• Circuit counts through 2^4 -1 different non-zero bit patterns.

 Left most bit determines shiftl or more complex operation

- Can build a similar circuit with any number of FFs, may need more xor gates.
- In general, with n flip-flops, $2^{n}-1$ different non-zero bit patterns.
- (Intuitively, this is a counter that wraps around many times and in a strange way.)



Galois Fields - the theory behind LFSRs

- LFSR circuits performs multiplication on a *field*.
- A field is defined as a set with the following:
 - two operations defined on it:
 - "addition" and "multiplication"
 - closed under these operations
 - associative and distributive laws hold
 - additive and multiplicative identity elements
 - additive inverse for every element
 - multiplicative inverse for every nonzero element

- Example fields:
 - set of rational numbers
 - set of real numbers
 - set of integers is *not* a field (why?)
- <u>Finite</u> fields are called *Galois* fields.
- Example:
 - Binary numbers 0,1 with XOR as "addition" and AND as "multiplication".
 - Called GF(2).

$$-0+1=1$$

$$-1+1=0$$

$$-0-1=?$$

$$-1-1=?$$

Galois Fields - The theory behind LFSRs

- Consider polynomials whose coefficients come from GF(2).
- Each term of the form x^n is either present or absent.
- Examples: 0, 1, x, x^2 , and $x^7 + x^6 + 1$ = $1 \cdot x^7 + 1 \cdot x^6 + 0 \cdot x^5 + 0 \cdot x^4 + 0 \cdot x^3 + 0 \cdot x^2 + 0 \cdot x^1 + 1 \cdot x^0$
- With addition and multiplication these form a field:
- "Add": XOR each element individually with no carry:

"Multiply": multiplying by xⁿ is like shifting to the left.

$$x^{2} + x + 1$$

$$\times \qquad \qquad x + 1$$

$$x^{2} + x + 1$$

$$x^{3} + x^{2} + x$$

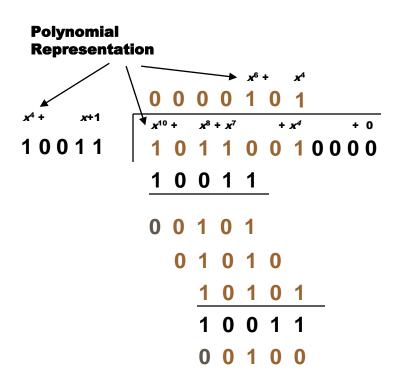
$$x^{3} + 1$$

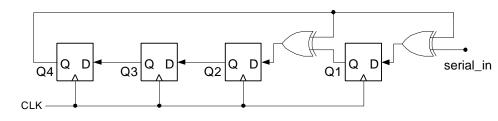
So what about division (mod)

$$\frac{X^4 + X^2}{x} = x^3 + x \text{ with remainder 0}$$

$$\frac{X^4 + X^2 + 1}{X + 1} = x^3 + x^2 \text{ with remainder 1}$$

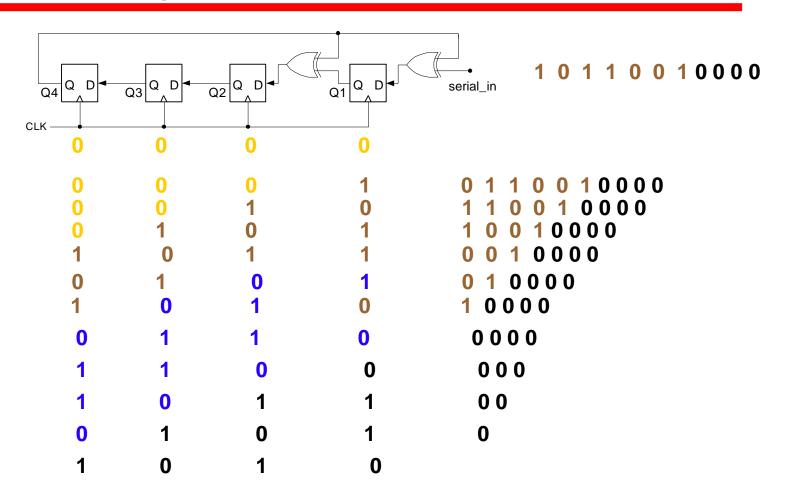
Polynomial division





- When MSB is zero, just shift left, bringing in next bit
- When MSB is 1, XOR with divisor and shiftl

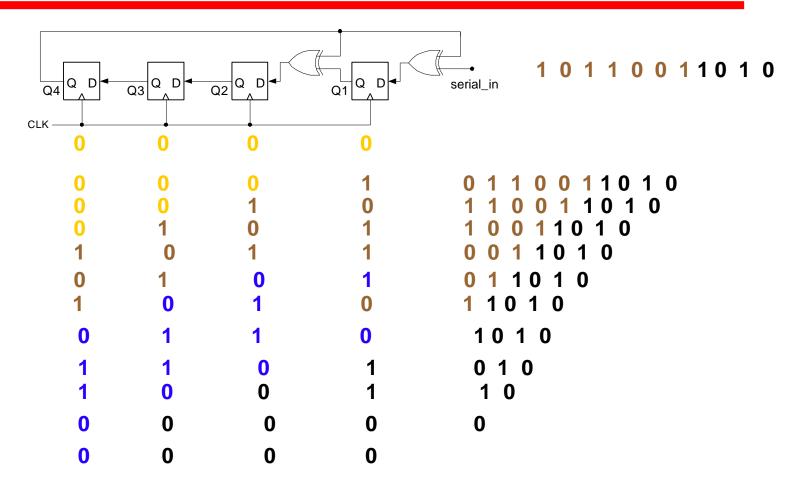
CRC encoding



Message sent:

1 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0

CRC decoding



Galois Fields - The theory behind LFSRs

- These polynomials form a *Galois* (*finite*) field if we take the results of this multiplication modulo a prime polynomial p(x).
 - A prime polynomial is one that cannot be written as the product of two non-trivial polynomials q(x)r(x)
 - Perform modulo operation by subtracting a (polynomial) multiple of p(x) from the result. If the multiple is 1, this corresponds to XOR-ing the result with p(x).
- For any degree, there exists at least one prime polynomial.
- With it we can form $GF(2^n)$

- Additionally, ...
- Every Galois field has a primitive element, α , such that all non-zero elements of the field can be expressed as a power of α . By raising α to powers (modulo p(x)), all non-zero field elements can be formed.
- Certain choices of p(x) make the simple polynomial x the primitive element. These polynomials are called *primitive*, and one exists for every degree.
- For example, $x^4 + x + 1$ is primitive. So $\alpha = x$ is a primitive element and successive powers of α will generate all non-zero elements of GF(16). *Example on next slide.*

Galois Fields – Primitives

$$\alpha^{0} = x \\
\alpha^{1} = x \\
\alpha^{2} = x^{2} \\
\alpha^{3} = x^{3} \\
\alpha^{4} = x + 1 \\
\alpha^{5} = x^{2} + x \\
\alpha^{6} = x^{3} + x^{2} \\
\alpha^{7} = x^{3} + x + 1 \\
\alpha^{8} = x^{2} + 1 \\
\alpha^{9} = x^{3} + x + 1 \\
\alpha^{10} = x^{2} + x + 1 \\
\alpha^{11} = x^{3} + x^{2} + x + 1 \\
\alpha^{12} = x^{3} + x^{2} + x + 1 \\
\alpha^{13} = x^{3} + x^{2} + x + 1 \\
\alpha^{14} = x^{3} + x^{2} + 1 \\
\alpha^{15} = 1$$

 Note this pattern of coefficients matches the bits from our 4-bit LFSR example.

$$\alpha^4 = x^4 \mod x^4 + x + 1$$
$$= x^4 x or x^4 + x + 1$$
$$= x + 1$$

 In general finding primitive polynomials is difficult. Most people just look them up in a table, such as:

Primitive Polynomials

$$x^{2} + x + 1$$

$$x^{3} + x + 1$$

$$x^{4} + x + 1$$

$$x^{5} + x^{2} + 1$$

$$x^{6} + x + 1$$

$$x^{7} + x^{3} + 1$$

$$x^{8} + x^{4} + x^{3} + x^{2} + 1$$

$$x^{9} + x^{4} + 1$$

$$x^{10} + x^{3} + 1$$

$$x^{11} + x^{2} + 1$$

Multiplication by x

$$x^{12} + x^{6} + x^{4} + x + 1$$

$$x^{13} + x^{4} + x^{3} + x + 1$$

$$x^{14} + x^{10} + x^{6} + x + 1$$

$$x^{15} + x + 1$$

$$x^{16} + x^{12} + x^{3} + x + 1$$

$$x^{17} + x^{3} + 1$$

$$x^{18} + x^{7} + 1$$

$$x^{19} + x^{5} + x^{2} + x + 1$$

$$x^{20} + x^{3} + 1$$

$$x^{21} + x^{2} + 1$$

$$x^{22} + x + 1$$

$$x^{23} + x^{5} + 1$$

$$x^{24} + x^{7} + x^{2} + x + 1$$

$$x^{25} + x^{3} + 1$$

$$x^{26} + x^{6} + x^{2} + x + 1$$

$$x^{27} + x^{5} + x^{2} + x + 1$$

$$x^{28} + x^{3} + 1$$

$$x^{29} + x + 1$$

$$x^{30} + x^{6} + x^{4} + x + 1$$

$$x^{31} + x^{3} + 1$$

$$x^{32} + x^{7} + x^{6} + x^{2} + 1$$

⇔ shift left

Hardware

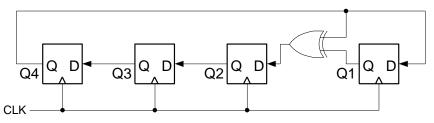
Taking the result mod $p(x) \Leftrightarrow XOR$ -ing with the coefficients of p(x) when the most significant coefficient is 1.

Obtaining all $2^{n}-1$ non-zero \Leftrightarrow Shifting and XOR-ing $2^{n}-1$ times. elements by evaluating x^{k}

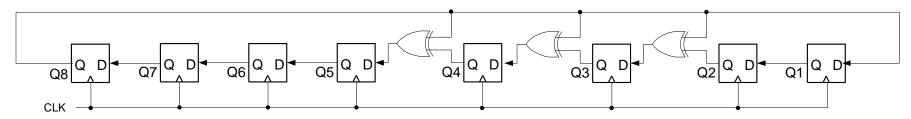
for
$$k = 1, ..., 2^n-1$$

Building an LFSR from a Primitive Poly

- For *k-bit* LFSR number the flip-flops with FF1 on the right.
- The feedback path comes from the Q output of the leftmost FF.
- Find the primitive polynomial of the form $x^k + ... + 1$.
- The $x^0 = 1$ term corresponds to connecting the feedback directly to the D input of FF 1.
- Each term of the form x^n corresponds to connecting an xor between FF n and n+1.
- 4-bit example, uses $x^4 + x + 1$
 - x^4 ⇔ FF4's Q output
 - $-x \Leftrightarrow xor between FF1 and FF2$
 - 1 ⇔ FF1's D input



• To build an 8-bit LFSR, use the primitive polynomial $x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + 1$ and connect xors between FF2 and FF3, FF3 and FF4, and FF4 and FF5.



Generating Polynomials

- CRC-16: $G(x) = x^{16} + x^{15} + x^2 + 1$
 - detects single and double bit errors
 - All errors with an odd number of bits
 - Burst errors of length 16 or less
 - Most errors for longer bursts
- CRC-32: $G(x) = x^{32} + x^{26} + x^{23} + x^{22} + x^{16} + x^{12} + x^{11} + x^{10} + x^{8} + x^{7} + x^{5} + x^{4} + x^{2} + x + 1$
 - Used in ethernet
 - Also 32 bits of 1 added on front of the message
 - Initialize the LFSR to all 1s

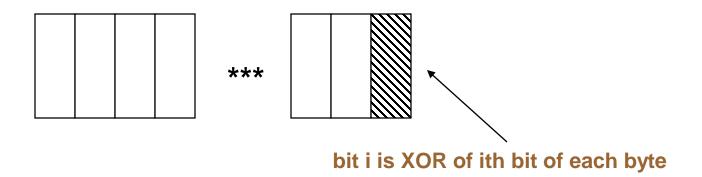
Applications of LFSRs

- Performance:
 - In general, xors are only ever 2-input and never connect in series.
 - Therefore the minimum clock period for these circuits is:
 - $T > T_{2-input-xor} + clock overhead$
 - Very little latency, and independent of n!
- This can be used as a <u>fast counter</u>, if the particular sequence of count values is not important.
 - Example: micro-code micro-pc

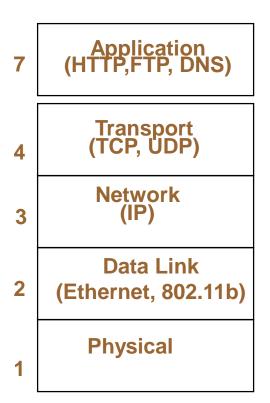
- Can be used as a <u>random</u> <u>number generator</u>.
 - Sequence is a pseudo-random sequence:
 - numbers appear in a random sequence
 - repeats every 2ⁿ-1 patterns
 - Random numbers useful in:
 - computer graphics
 - cryptography
 - automatic testing
- Used for error detection and correction
 - CRC (cyclic redundancy codes)
 - ethernet uses them

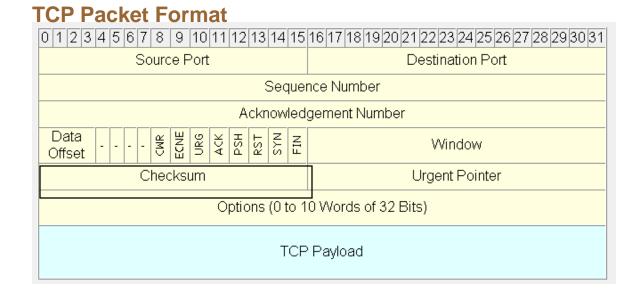
Concept: Redundant Check

- Send a message M and a "check" word C
- Simple function on <M,C> to determine if both received correctly (with high probability)
- Example: XOR all the bytes in M and append the "checksum" byte, C, at the end
 - Receiver XORs <M,C>
 - What should result be?
 - What errors are caught?



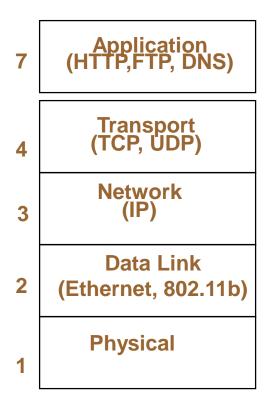
Example: TCP Checksum

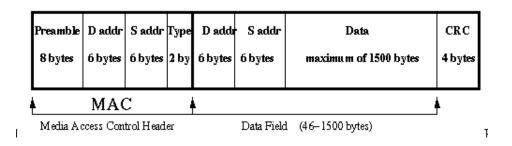


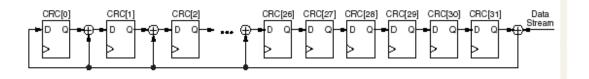


- TCP Checksum a 16-bit <u>checksum</u>, consisting of the <u>one's complement</u> of the <u>one's complement sum</u> of the contents of the TCP segment header and data, is computed by a sender, and included in a segment transmission. (note end-around carry)
- Summing all the words, including the checksum word, should yield zero

Example: Ethernet CRC-32







CRC concept

- I have a msg polynomial M(x) of degree m
- We both have a generator poly G(x) of degree m
- Let $r(x) = remainder of M(x) x^n / G(x)$
 - $M(x) x^n = G(x)p(x) + r(x)$
 - r(x) is of degree n
- What is $(M(x) x^n r(x)) / G(x)$?

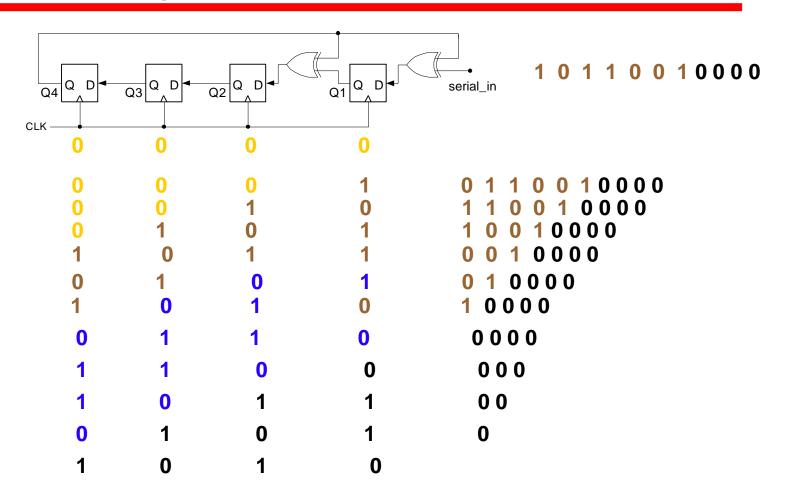
n bits of zero at the end

- So I send you M(x) xⁿ r(x)
 - m+n degree polynomial

tack on n bits of remainder Instead of the zeros

- You divide by G(x) to check
- M(x) is just the m most signficant coefficients, r(x) the lower m
- n-bit Message is viewed as coefficients of ndegree polynomial over binary numbers

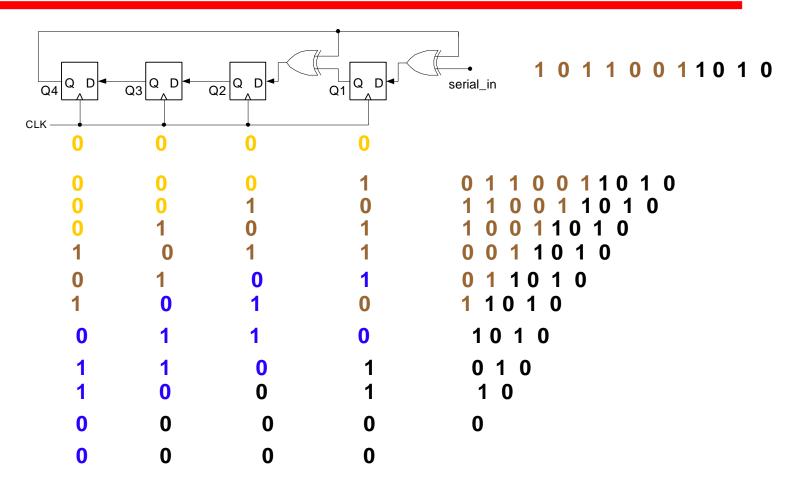
CRC encoding



Message sent:

1 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0

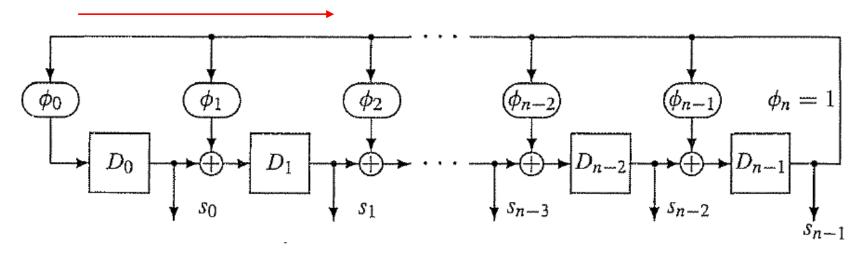
CRC decoding



LFSR with Internal XOR

- The polynomial $\varphi(x) = \varphi_n x^n + ... + \varphi_1 x + \varphi_0$
- The state transition relationship: s(t+1)=A*s(t), where * is matrix multiplication using modulo-2 arithmetic and A is an nxn matrix:

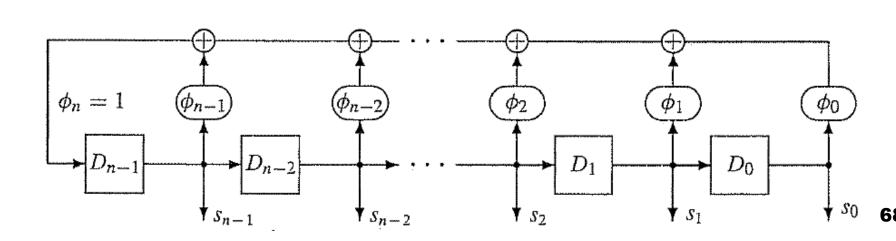
Note the order of φ_i 's



LFSR with External XOR

- The polynomial $\varphi(x) = \varphi_n x^n + ... + \varphi_1 x + \varphi_0$
- The state transition relationship: s(t+1)=A*s(t), where * is matrix multiplication/ using modulo-2 arithmetic and A is an nxn matrix:

Note the order of φ_i 's

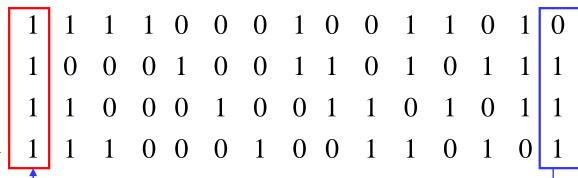


LFSR Example – Internal XOR

- The polynomial: $\varphi(x) = x^4 + x + 1$
- The transition matrix/relation:

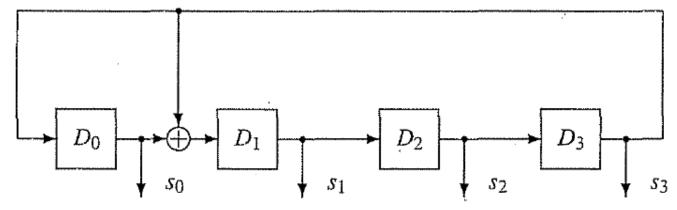
$$\begin{bmatrix} s_0(t+1) \\ s_1(t+1) \\ s_2(t+1) \\ s_3(t+1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} s_0(t) \\ s_1(t) \\ s_2(t) \\ s_3(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

The sequence:



Initial Value

Cyclic Repetition

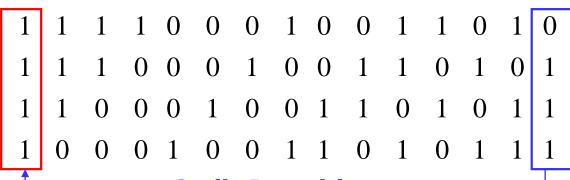


LFSR Example – External XOR

- The polynomial: $\varphi(x) = x^4 + x + 1$
- The transition matrix:

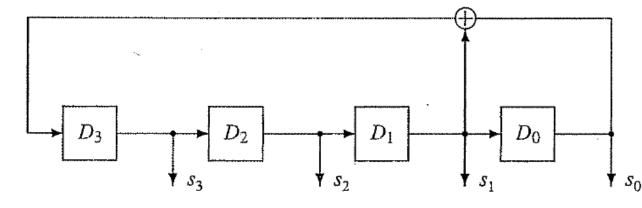
$$\begin{bmatrix} s_0(t+1) \\ s_1(t+1) \\ s_2(t+1) \\ s_3(t+1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} s_0(t) \\ s_1(t) \\ s_2(t) \\ s_3(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

• The sequence:



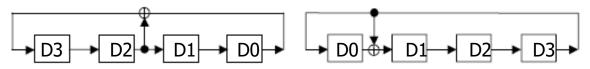
Initial Value

Cyclic Repetition



Primitive vs. Non-Primitive Polynomial

- (a) uses a non-primitive polynomial $\varphi(x) = x^4 + x^2 + 1$
- (b) uses a primitive polynomial $\varphi(x) = x^4 + x + 1$



(a) A 4-stage standard LFSR

(b) A 4-stage modular LFSR

0001
1000
0100
1010
0 1 0 1
0010
0001
1000
0100
1010
0 1 0 1
0010
0001
1000
0 1 0 0
1010

	0	0	0	1	
	1	1	0	0	
	0	1	1	0	
	0	0	1	1	
	1	1	0	1	
	1	0	1	0	
	0	1	0	1	
	1	1	1	0	
	0	1	1	1	
	1	1	1	1	
	1	0	1	1	
	1	0	0	1	
	1	0	0	0	
	0	1	0	0	
	0	0	1	0	
ſ	0	0	0	1	

Response Compaction

Motivation for Test Data Compaction

- Huge amount of data in CUT response to LFSR patterns – example:
 - Generate 5 million random patterns
 - CUT has 200 outputs
 - Leads to: 5 million x 200 = 1 billion bits response
- Uneconomical to store and check all of these responses on chip
- Responses must be compacted

Definitions

- Aliasing Due to information loss, signatures of good and some bad machines match
- Compaction Drastically reduce # bits in original circuit response lose information
- Compression Reduce # bits in original circuit response – no information loss – fully invertible (can get back original response)
- Signature analysis Compact good machine response into good machine signature. Actual signature generated during testing, and compared with good machine signature
- Transition Count Response Compaction Count # transitions from 0→1 and 1→0 as a signature

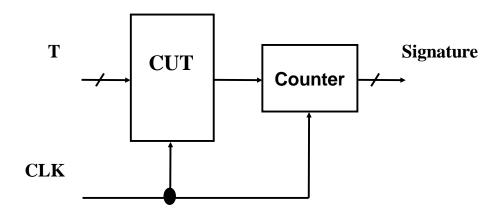
Response Compaction

Response Analysis Mechanisms

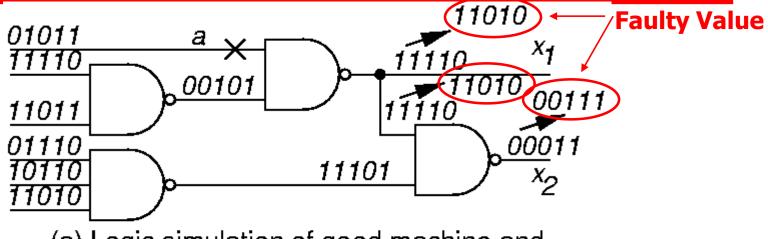
- Ones count testing
- Transition count testing
- Signature analysis
 - —Serial
 - —parallel

Ones Counting

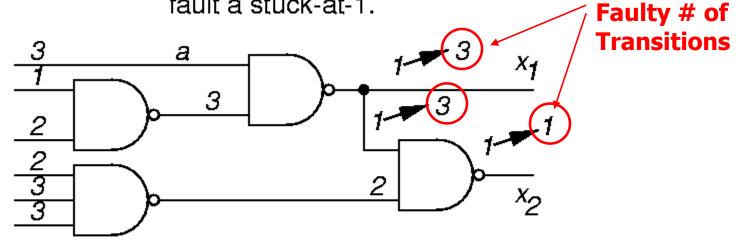
 Ones count testing will need a counter to count the number of 1s in the bit stream.



Transition Counting



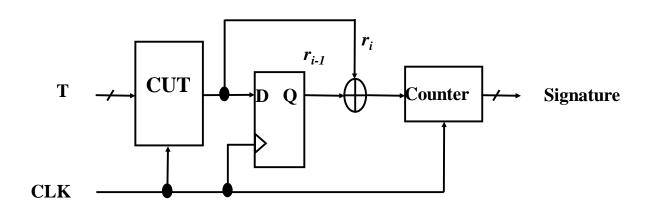
(a) Logic simulation of good machine and fault a stuck-at-1.



(b) Transition counts of good and failing machines.

Transition Counting Details

- Transition count when L bit test sequence is applied to CUT: $C(R) = \sum_{i=1 \text{ to L-1}} (r_i \oplus r_{i-1})$
- To maximize fault coverage:
 - —Make $C(R_{fault-free})$ good machine transition count as large or as small as possible



Problems with OC and TC Methods

- The aliasing probability in both OC and TC methods depends on the fault-free response
- The aliasing probability is minimum (or maximum) when the fault-free response is in its minimum (or maximum) value of its respective parameter

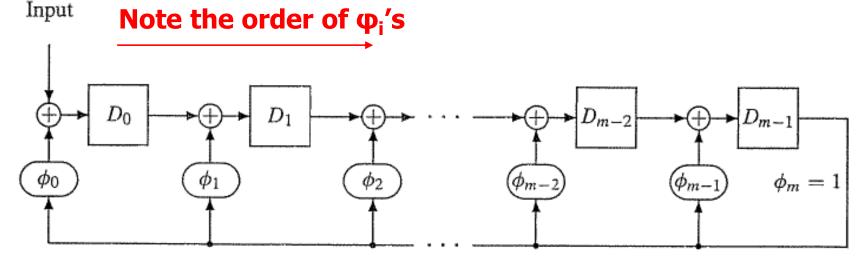
LFSR for Response Compaction

- Use cyclic redundancy check code (CRCC) generator (LFSR) for response compacter
- Treat data bits from circuit POs to be compacted as a decreasing order coefficient polynomial
- CRCC divides the PO polynomial by its characteristic polynomial
 - Leaves remainder of division in LFSR
 - Must initialize LFSR to seed value (usually 0) before testing
- After testing compare signature in LFSR to known good machine signature
- Critical: Must compute good machine signature

Serial LFSR Compaction

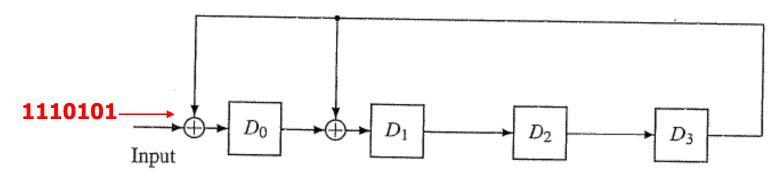
Serial LFSR Compactor

- The polynomial $\varphi(x) = \varphi_m x^m + ... + \varphi_1 x + \varphi_0$
- The polynomial relationship
 - L-bit sequence coming to compactor: $m_0 m_1 m_2 ... m_{L-1} (m_{L-1})$ is the first bit arriving at compactor)
 - The input polynomial: $M(x)=m_0+m_1x+m_2x^2+...+m_{L-1}x^{L-1}$
 - $M(x)=q(x) \varphi(x)+r(x)$ where r(x) the polynomial remainder of $M(x)/\varphi(x)$ will be the final compactor's response



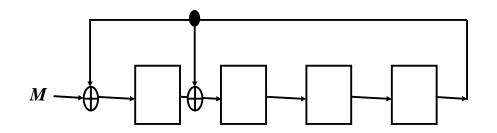
LFSR Compactor Example I

- The polynomial: $\varphi(x) = x^4 + x + 1$
- The sequence: 1110101 that is $M(x)=1+x+x^2+x^4+x^6$
- Initial state: 0000



				lime	Input	LFSR state		Output			
$x^2 + 1$	← Quot	ient		_	_	0	0	0	0	_	Minne
$x^4 + x + 1 x^6 +$	x^4+	x^2	+ x + 1	0	$r_1 = 1$	1	0	0	0	0	
x ⁶ +	x	$^{3}+x^{2}$		1	$r_2 = 0$	0	1	0	0	o	
	x^4+x^3	3+	x+ 1	2	$r_3 = 1$	I	0	1	0	0	
	x^4+		x+1	3	$r_4 = 0$	0	1	Ò	1	0	
Signature -	→ x ²	3		4	$r_5 = 1$	0	1	1	0	1	
				5	$r_6 = 1$	1	0	1	1	0	
Final signature (remainder)			6	r 1	Ω	Λ	Λ	1		8	

LFSR Compactor Example I (cont.)



M	r_0	r_I	r_2	r_3
1	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	1
0	1	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0
R	1	0	1	1

```
r_0 r_1 r_2 r_3
            detected
```

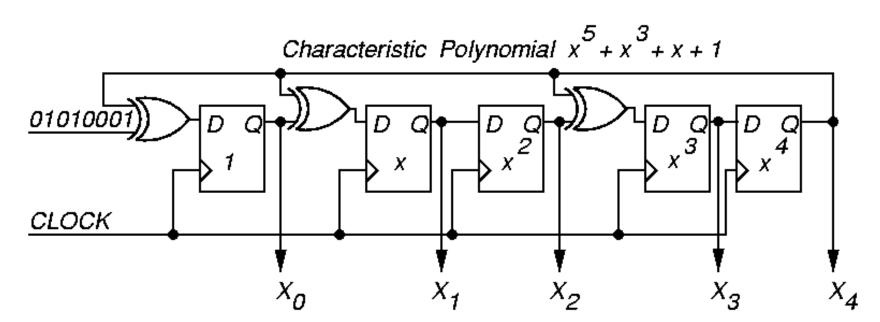
- (a) Fault-free signature
- (b) Signature for fault f_1 (c) Signature for fault f_2

Cannot be

detected

LFSR Compactor Example II

- LFSR seed value is "00000"
- Input sequence: 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1
- Symbolic polynomial: $0x^0 + 1x^1 + 0x^2 + 1x^3 + 0x^4 + 0x^5 + 0x^6 + 1x^7$
- Logic simulation: Remainder = $1 + x^2 + x^3$ (i.e. 10110)



LFSR Compactor Example II (cont.)

	Inputs	<i>x</i> ⁰	<i>X</i> ¹	<i>X</i> ²	<i>X</i> ³	х ⁴
In Logic Simulation:	Initial State	0	0	0	0	0
	1	1	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	0	0
	n: 0	0	0	0	1	0
	1	1	0	0	0	1
	0	1	0	0	1	0
	1	1	1	0	0	1
	0	1	0	1	1	0

Logic simulation: Remainder = $1 + x^2 + x^3$

Parallel LFSR Compaction (MISR)

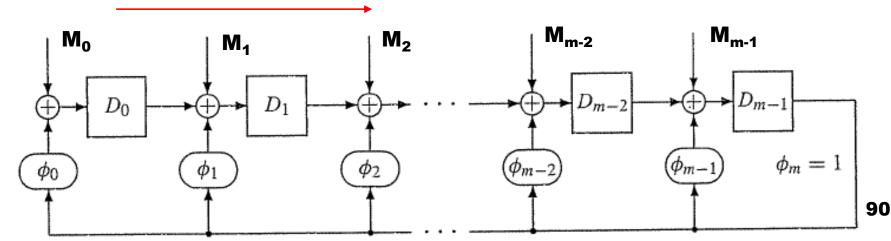
Multiple-Input Signature Register (MISR)

- Problem with ordinary LFSR response compacter:
 - Too much hardware if one of these is put on each primary output (PO)
- Solution: MISR compacts all outputs into one LFSR
 - Works because LFSR is linear obeys superposition principle
 - Superimpose all responses in one LFSR final remainder is XOR sum of remainders of polynomial divisions of each PO by the characteristic polynomial

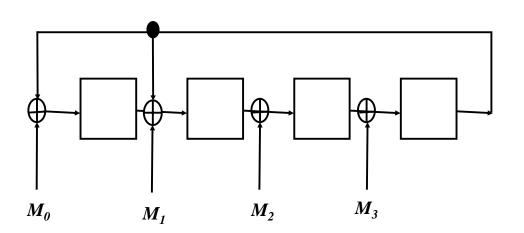
MISR Structure

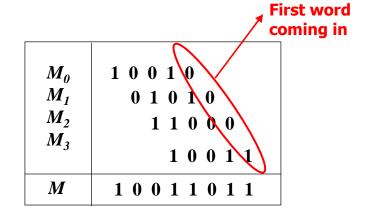
- The polynomial $\varphi(x) = \varphi_m x^m + ... + \varphi_1 x + \varphi_0$
- The polynomial relationship
 - Up to m number of L-bit sequences coming to each input of MISR
 - The effective input polynomial will be c combination of all input polynomials: $M(x)=M_0(x)+x M_1(x)+x^2 M_2(x)+...+x^m M_m(x)$
 - $M(x)=q(x)*\phi(x)+r(x)$ where r(x) the polynomial remainder of $M(x)/\phi(x)$ will be the final compactor's response

Note the order of ϕ_i 's



A 4-Stage MISR Example





• The equivalent sequence will be: $1x^0+0x^1+0x^2+1x^3+1x^4+0x^5+1x^6+1x^7$

MISR Matrix Equation

- The polynomial: $\varphi(x) = x^4 + x + 1$
- M_i(t): Input streams of MISR at time t xor Transition
- The transition matrix/relation:

Internal XOR
$$0 1 0 \cdots 0 \phi_1$$
 $0 1 0 \cdots 0 \phi_2$ $0 0 1 \cdots 0 \phi_3$ $0 0 0 \cdots 0 \phi_3$ $0 0 0 \cdots 0 \phi_{n-1}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} s_0(t+1) \\ s_1(t+1) \\ s_2(t+1) \\ s_3(t+1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_0(t) \\ s_1(t) \\ s_2(t) \\ s_3(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} M_0(t) \\ M_1(t) \\ M_2(t) \\ M_3(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

Example (note that * is AND and + is XOR)

