

Introduction to Electronic Design Automation

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Testing

Testing

□ Recap

■ Design verification

- Is what I specified really what I wanted?
 - Property checking

■ Implementation verification

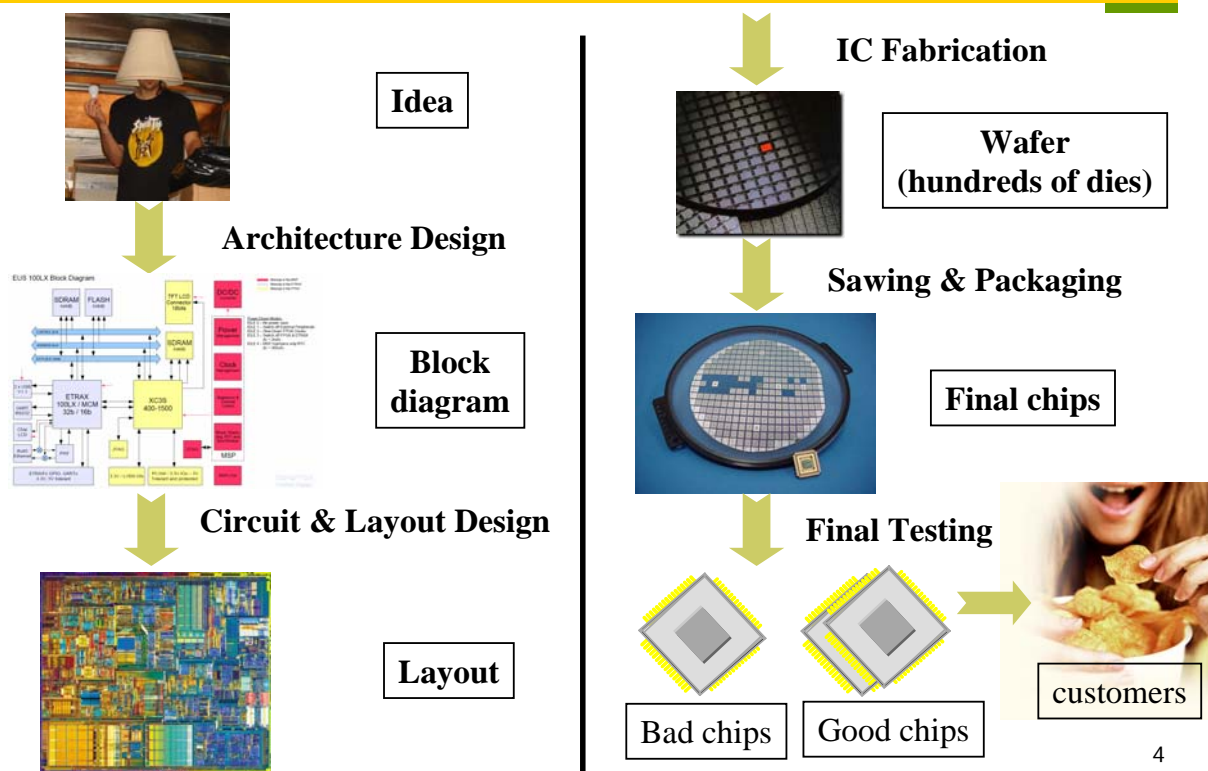
- Is what I implemented really what I specified?
 - Equivalence checking

■ Manufacture verification

- Is what I manufactured really what I implemented?
 - Testing; post manufacture verification
 - Quality control
 - Distinguish between good and bad chips

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Design Flow



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Manufacturing Defects

- ❑ Processing faults
 - missing contact windows
 - parasitic transistors
 - oxide breakdown
- ❑ Material defects
 - bulk defects (cracks, crystal imperfections)
 - surface impurities
- ❑ Time-dependent failures
 - dielectric breakdown
 - electro-migration
- ❑ Packaging failures
 - contact degradation
 - seal leaks

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Faults, Errors and Failures

- ❑ Faults
 - A physical defect within a circuit or a system
 - May or may not cause a system failure
- ❑ Errors
 - Manifestation of a fault that results in incorrect circuit (system) outputs or states
 - Caused by faults
- ❑ Failures
 - Deviation of a circuit or system from its specified behavior
 - Fail to do what is supposed to do
 - Caused by errors
- ❑ Faults cause errors; errors cause failures

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Testing and Diagnosis

□ Testing

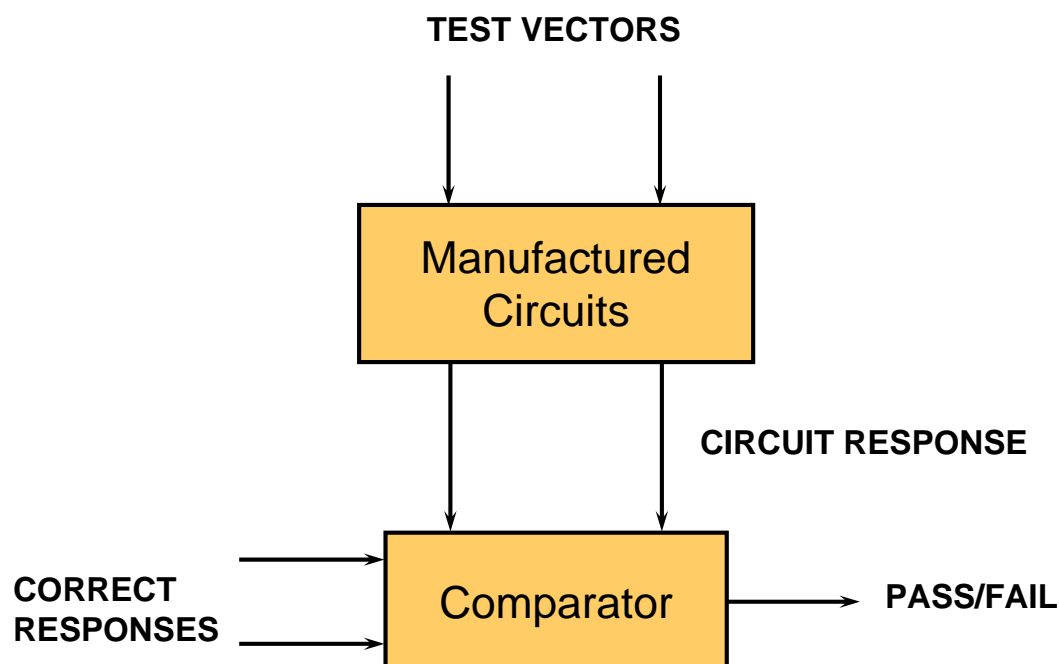
- Exercise a system and analyze the response to ensure whether it behaves correctly **after manufacturing**

□ Diagnosis

- Locate the **causes** of misbehavior after the incorrectness is detected

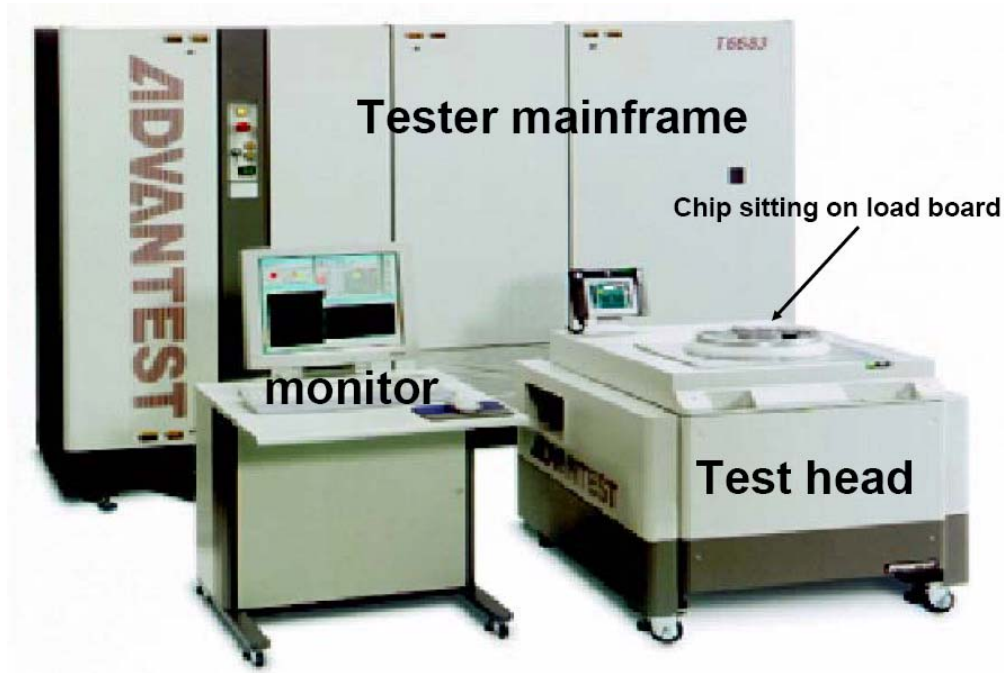
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Scenario of Manufacturing Test



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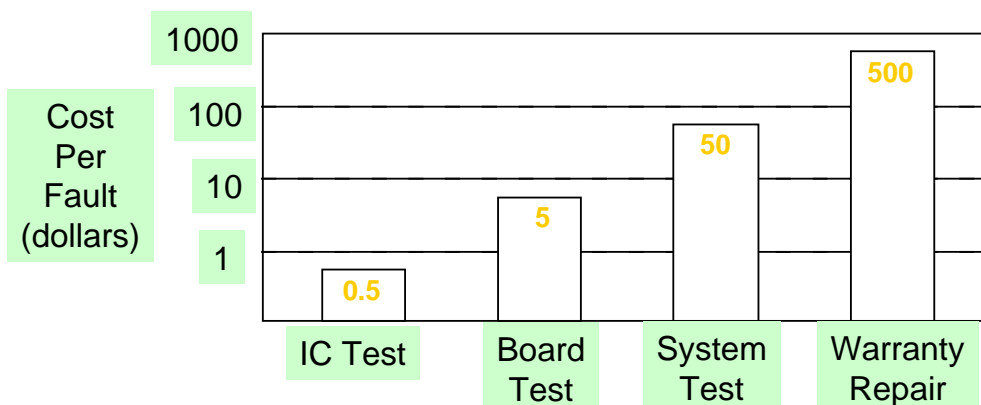
Test Systems



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Purpose of Testing

- ❑ Verify manufactured circuits
 - Improve system reliability
 - Reduce repair costs
 - ❑ Repair cost goes up by an order of magnitude each step away from the fab. line

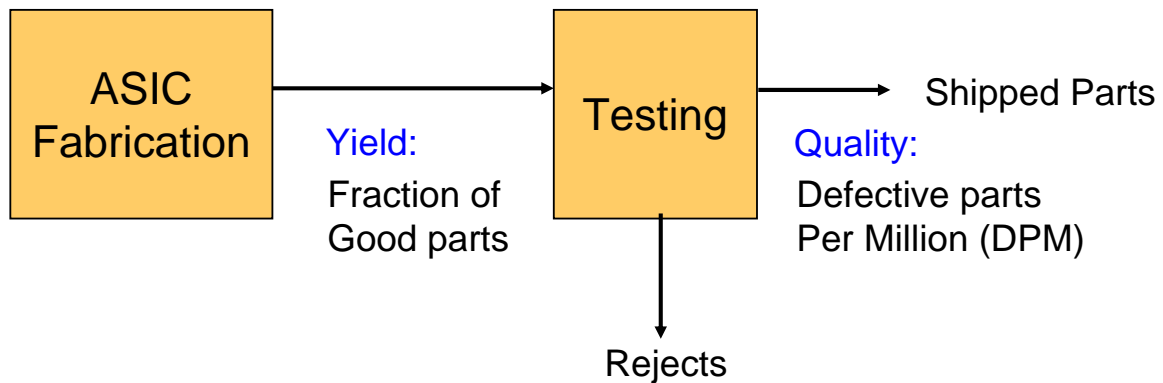


B. Davis, "The Economics of Automatic Testing" McGraw-Hill 1982

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Testing and Quality

- Quality of shipped part can be expressed as a function of the yield Y and test (fault) coverage T .



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Fault Coverage

- Fault coverage T
 - Measure of the ability of a test set to detect a given set of faults that may occur on the Design Under Test (DUT)

$$T = \frac{\text{\# detected faults}}{\text{\# all possible faults}}$$

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Defect Level

- A defect level is the fraction of the shipped parts that are defective

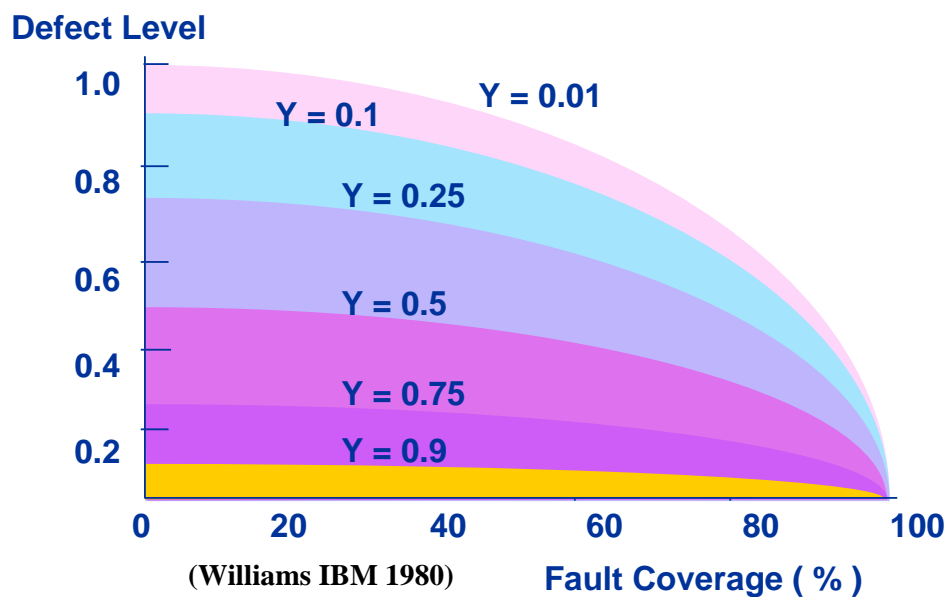
$$DL = 1 - Y^{(1-T)}$$

Y: yield

T: fault coverage

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Defect Level vs. Fault Coverage



High fault coverage → Low defect level

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DPM vs. Yield and Coverage

Yield	Fault Coverage	DPM
50%	90%	67,000
75%	90%	28,000
90%	90%	10,000
95%	90%	5,000
99%	90%	1,000
90%	90%	10,000
90%	95%	5,000
90%	99%	1,000
90%	99.9%	100

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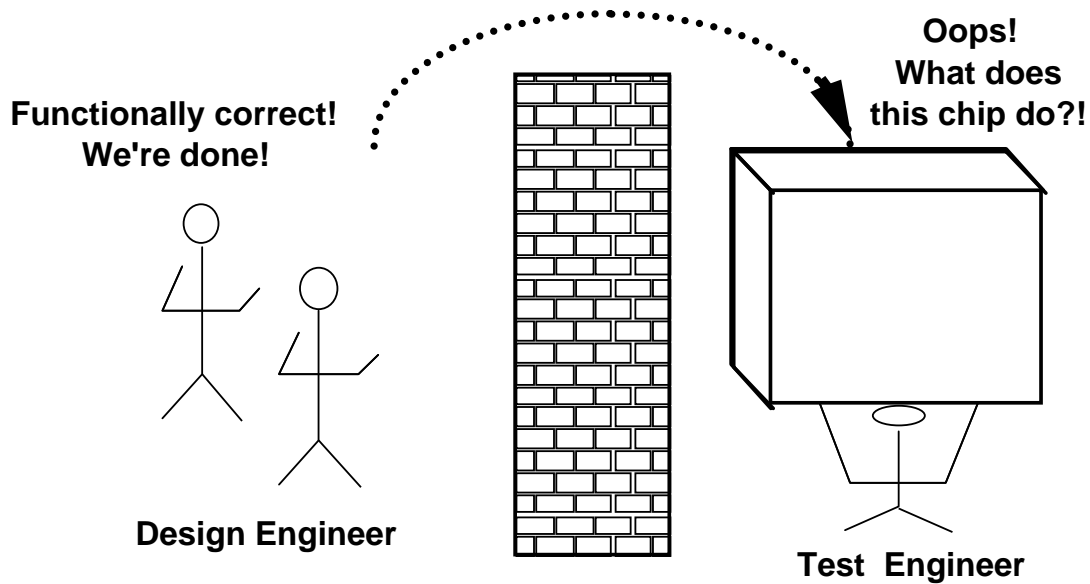
Why Testing Is Difficult ?

- Test time explodes exponentially in exhaustive testing of VLSI
 - For a combinational circuit with 50 inputs, need $2^{50} = 1.126 \times 10^{15}$ test patterns.
 - Assume one test per 10^{-7} sec, it takes 1.125×10^8 sec = 3.57years.
 - Test generation for **sequential circuits** are even more difficult due to the lack of **controllability** and **observability** at flip-flops (latches)
- Functional testing
 - may **NOT** be able to detect the physical faults

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The Infamous Design/Test Wall

30-years of experience proves that
test after design does not work!



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Outline

- ❑ Fault Modeling
- ❑ Fault Simulation
- ❑ Automatic Test Pattern Generation
- ❑ Design for Testability

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Functional vs. Structural Testing

- ❑ I/O functional testing is inadequate for manufacturing
 - Need fault models
- ❑ Exhaustive testing is daunting
 - Need abstraction and smart algorithms
 - Structural testing is more effective

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Why Fault Model ?

- ❑ Fault model identifies target faults
 - Model faults that are most likely to occur
- ❑ Fault model limits the scope of test generation
 - Create tests only for the modeled faults
- ❑ Fault model makes testing effective
 - Fault coverage can be computed for specific test patterns to measure its effectiveness
- ❑ Fault model makes analysis possible
 - Associate specific defects with specific test patterns

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Fault Modeling vs. Physical Defects

□ Fault modeling

- Model the effects of physical defects on the logic function and timing

□ Physical defects

- Silicon defects
- Photolithographic defects
- Mask contamination
- Process variation
- Defective oxides

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Fault Modeling vs. Physical Defects (cont'd)

□ Electrical effects

- Shorts (bridging faults)
- Opens
- Transistor stuck-on/open
- Resistive shorts/opens
- Change in threshold voltages

□ Logical effects

- Logical stuck-at-0/1
- Slower transition (delay faults)
- AND-bridging, OR-bridging

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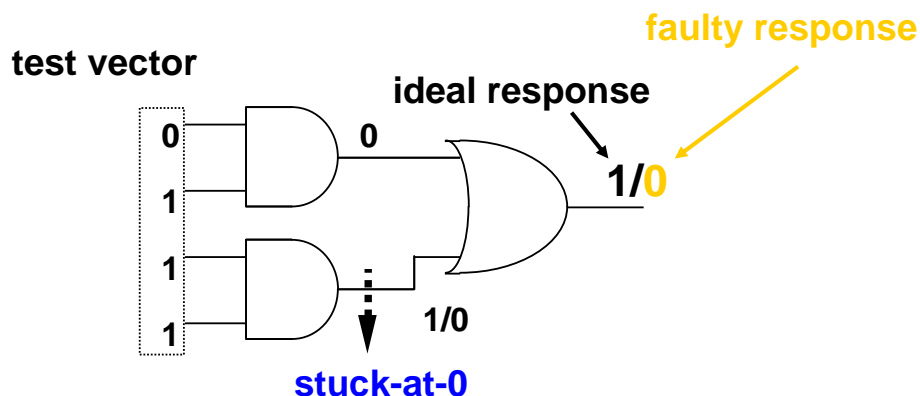
Typical Fault Types

- ❑ **Stuck-at faults**
- ❑ Bridging faults
- ❑ Transistor stuck-on/open faults
- ❑ Delay faults
- ❑ IDDQ faults
- ❑ State transition faults (for FSM)
- ❑ Memory faults
- ❑ PLA faults

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Single Stuck-At Fault

- ❑ Assumptions:
 - Only one wire is faulty
 - Fault can be at an input or output of a gate
 - Faulty wire permanently sticks at 0 or 1



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Multiple Stuck-At Faults

- ❑ Several stuck-at faults occur at the same time
 - Common in high density circuits
- ❑ For a circuit with k lines
 - There are $2k$ single stuck-at faults
 - There are $3^k - 1$ multiple stuck-at faults
 - ❑ A line could be stuck-at-0, stuck-at-1, or fault-free
 - ❑ One out of 3^k resulting circuits is fault-free

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Why Single Stuck-At Fault Model ?

- ❑ Complexity is greatly reduced
 - Many different physical defects may be modeled by the same logical single stuck-at fault
- ❑ Stuck-at fault is technology independent
 - Can be applied to TTL, ECL, CMOS, BiCMOS etc.
- ❑ Design style independent
 - Gate array, standard cell, custom design
- ❑ Detection capability of un-modeled defects
 - Empirically, many un-modeled defects can also be detected accidentally under the single stuck-at fault model
- ❑ Cover a large percentage of multiple stuck-at faults

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Why Logical Fault Modeling ?

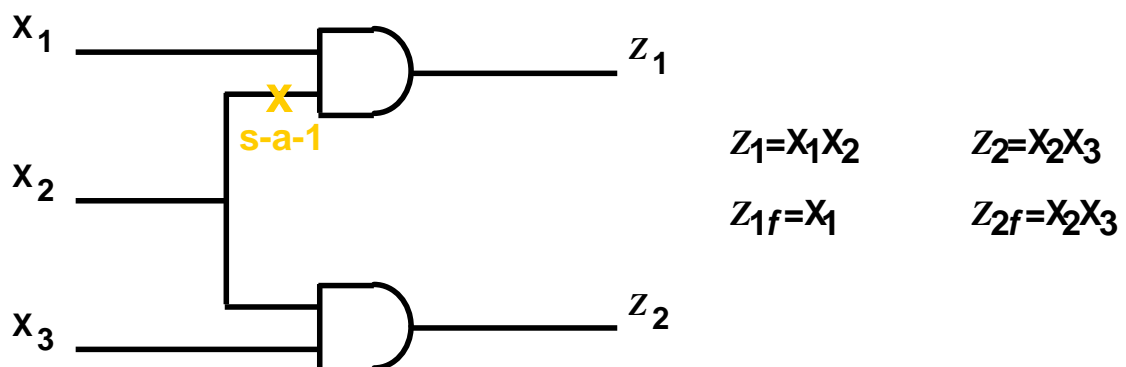
- ❑ Fault analysis on logic rather than physical problem
 - Complexity is reduced
- ❑ Technology independent
 - Same fault model is applicable to many technologies
 - Testing and diagnosis methods remain valid despite changes in technology
- ❑ Wide applications
 - The derived tests may be used for physical faults whose effect on circuit behavior is not completely understood or too complex to be analyzed
- ❑ Popularity
 - Stuck-at fault is the most popular logical fault model

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Definition of Fault Detection

- ❑ A test (vector) t detects a fault f iff
 t detects f (i.e. $z(t) \neq z_f(t)$)

Example



Test $(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (100)$ detects f because $z_1(100)=0$ and $z_{1f}(100)=1$

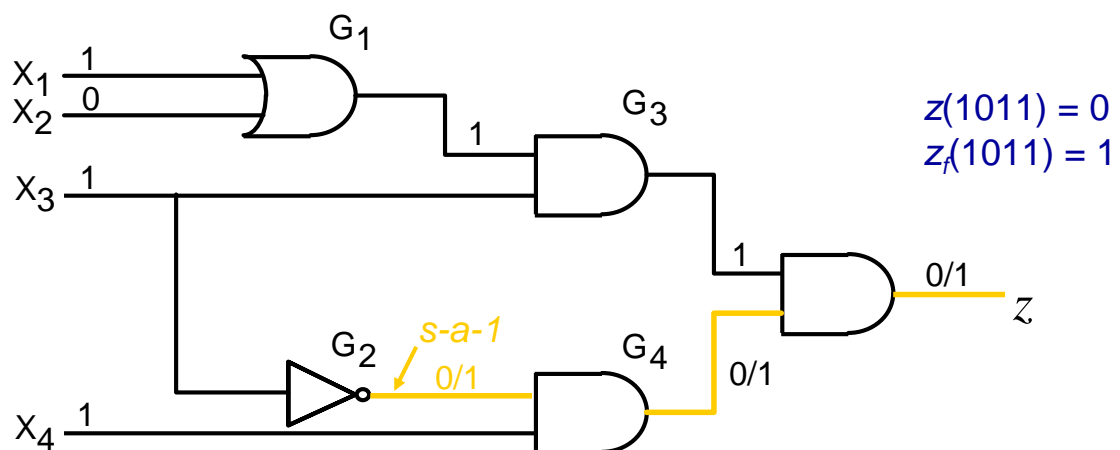
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Fault Detection Requirement

- A test t that detects a fault f
 - **activates** f (or generate a fault effect) by creating different v and v_f values at the site of the fault
 - **propagates** the error to a primary output z by making all the wires along at least one path between the fault site and z have different v and v_f values
- Sensitized wire
 - A wire whose value in response to the test changes in the presence of the fault f is said to be **sensitized by the test** in the faulty circuit
- Sensitized path
 - A path composed of sensitized wires is called a **sensitized path**

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Fault Sensitization



Input vector 1011 detects the fault f (G_2 stuck-at-1)

v/v_f : v = signal value in the fault free circuit

v_f = signal value in the faulty circuit

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Detectability

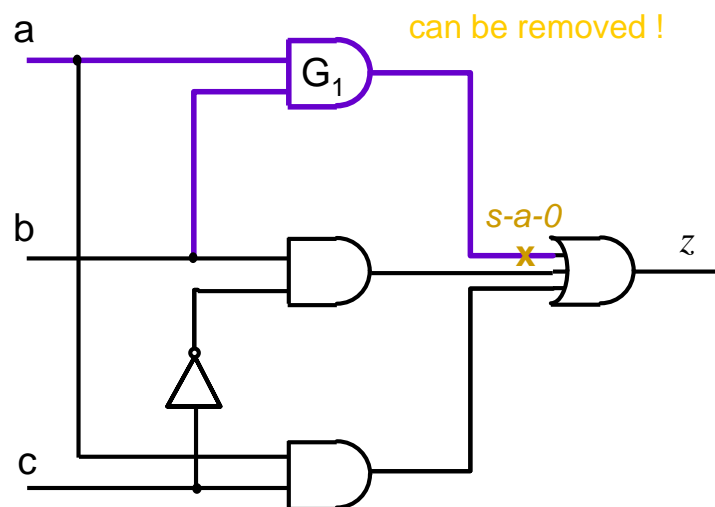
- A fault f is said to be detectable
 - if there exists a test t that detects f
 - otherwise, f is an undetectable fault

- For an undetectable fault f
 - no test can **simultaneously** activate f and create a sensitized path to some primary output

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Undetectable Fault

- The stuck-at-0 fault at G_1 output is undetectable
 - Undetectable faults do not change the function of the circuit
 - The related circuit can be deleted to simplify the circuit



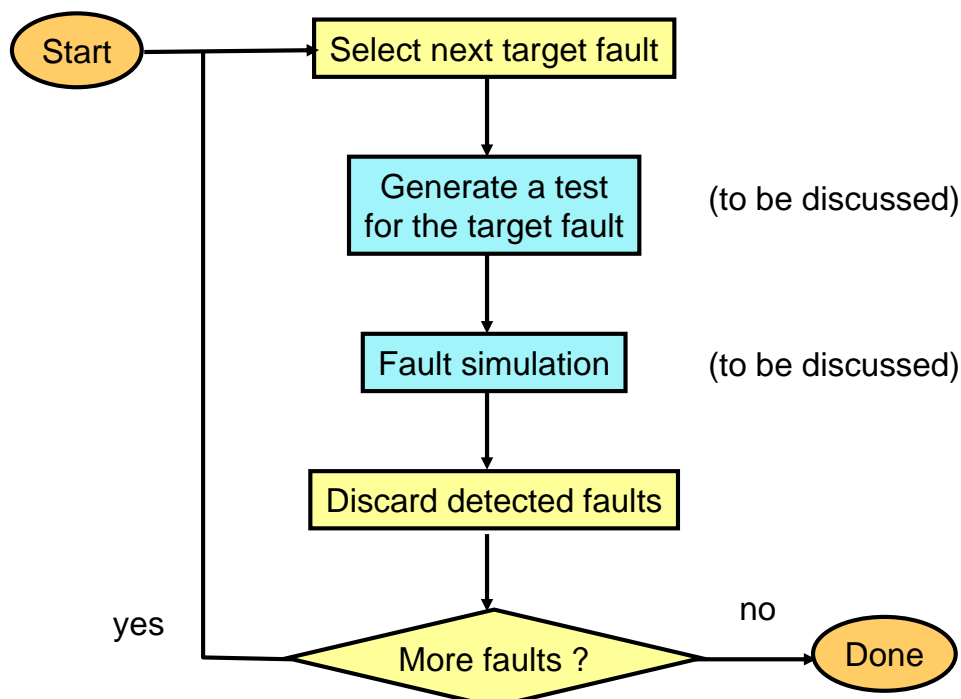
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Test Set

- ❑ Complete detection test set
 - A set of tests that detects any detectable fault in a designated set of faults
- ❑ Quality of a test set
 - is measured by fault coverage
- ❑ Fault coverage
 - Fraction of the faults detected by a test set
 - can be determined by [fault simulation](#)
 - >95% is typically required under the single stuck-at fault model
 - >99.9% required in the ICs manufactured by IBM

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Typical Test Generation Flow



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Fault Equivalence

□ Distinguishing test

- A test t distinguishes faults α and β if $z_\alpha(t) \neq z_\beta(t)$ for some PO function z

□ Equivalent faults

- Two faults α and β are said to be equivalent in a circuit iff the function under α is equal to the function under β for every input assignment (sequence) of the circuit.
- That is, no test can distinguish α and β , i.e., $\text{test-set}(\alpha) = \text{test-set}(\beta)$

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Fault Equivalence

□ AND gate:

- all $s-a-0$ faults are equivalent

□ OR gate:

- all $s-a-1$ faults are equivalent

□ NAND gate:

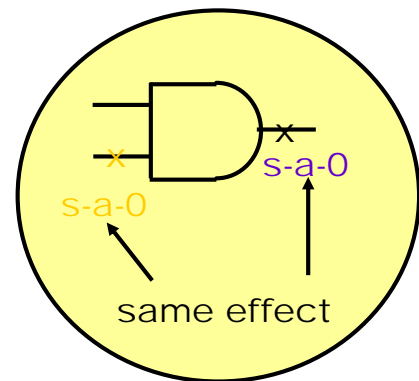
- all the input $s-a-0$ faults and the output $s-a-1$ faults are equivalent

□ NOR gate:

- all input $s-a-1$ faults and the output $s-a-0$ faults are equivalent

□ Inverter:

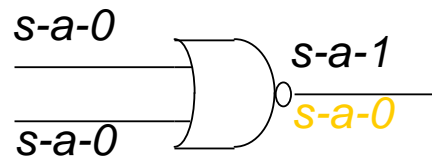
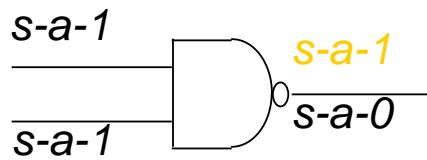
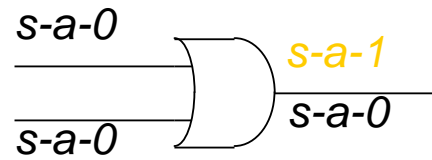
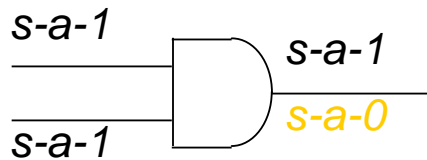
- input $s-a-1$ and output $s-a-0$ are equivalent
- input $s-a-0$ and output $s-a-1$ are equivalent



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Equivalence Fault Collapsing

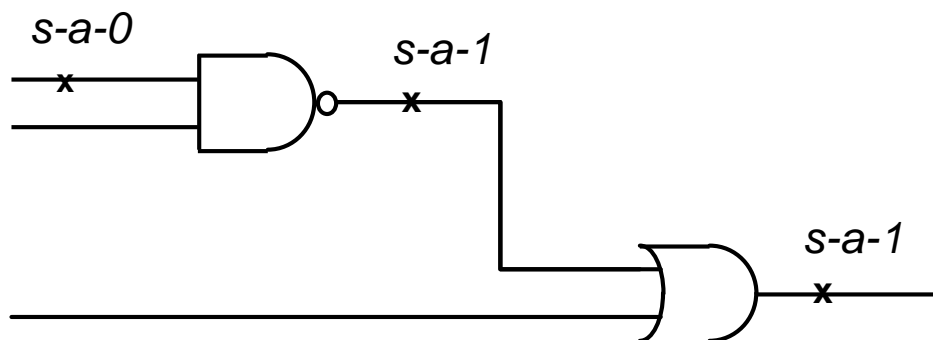
- $n+2$, instead of $2(n+1)$, single stuck-at faults need to be considered for n -input AND (or OR) gates



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Equivalent Fault Group

- In a combinational circuit
 - Many faults may form an equivalence group
 - These equivalent faults can be found in a reversed topological order from POs to PIs



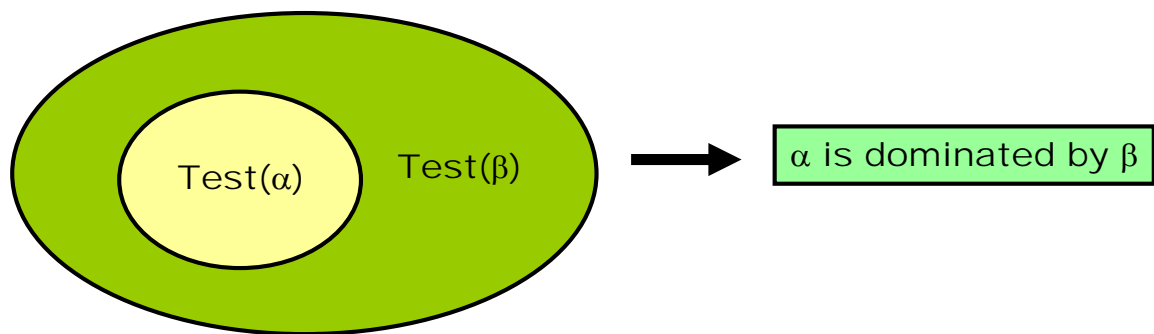
Three faults shown are equivalent !

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Fault Dominance

□ Dominance relation

- A fault β is said to *dominate* another fault α in an irredundant circuit iff every test (sequence) for α is also a test (sequence) for β .
- I.e., $\text{test-set}(\alpha) \subseteq \text{test-set}(\beta)$
- No need to consider fault β for fault detection



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Fault Dominance

□ AND gate

- Output $s-a-1$ dominates any input $s-a-1$

□ NAND gate

- Output $s-a-0$ dominates any input $s-a-1$

□ OR gate

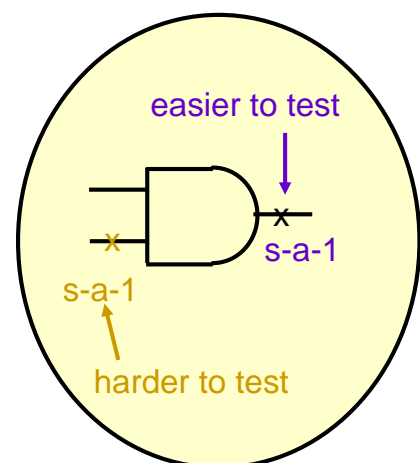
- Output $s-a-0$ dominates any input $s-a-0$

□ NOR gate

- Output $s-a-1$ dominates any input $s-a-0$

□ Dominance fault collapsing

- Reducing the set of faults to be analyzed based on the dominance relation



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Stem vs. Branch Faults

- Detect A s-a-1:

$$z(t) \oplus z_f(t) = (CD \oplus CE) \oplus (D \oplus CE) = D \oplus CD = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow (C=0, D=1)$$

- Detect C s-a-1:

$$z(t) \oplus z_f(t) = (CD \oplus CE) \oplus (D \oplus E) = 1$$

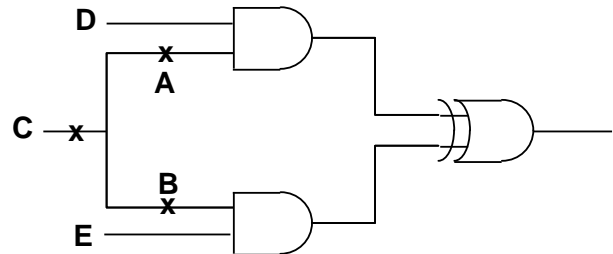
$$\Rightarrow (C=0, D=1) \text{ or } (C=0, E=1)$$

- Hence, C s-a-1 dominates A s-a-1

- Similarly

- C s-a-1 dominates B s-a-1
- C s-a-0 dominates A s-a-0
- C s-a-0 dominates B s-a-0

- In general, there might be no equivalence or dominance relations between stem and branch faults



C: stem of a multiple fanout

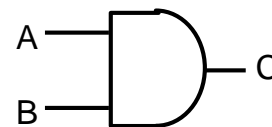
A, B: branches

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Analysis of a Single Gate

- Fault Equivalence Class

- (A s-a-0, B s-a-0, C s-a-0)



- Fault Dominance Relations

- (C s-a-1 > A s-a-1) and (C s-a-1 > B s-a-1)

- Faults that can be ignored:

- A s-a-0, B s-a-0, and C s-a-1

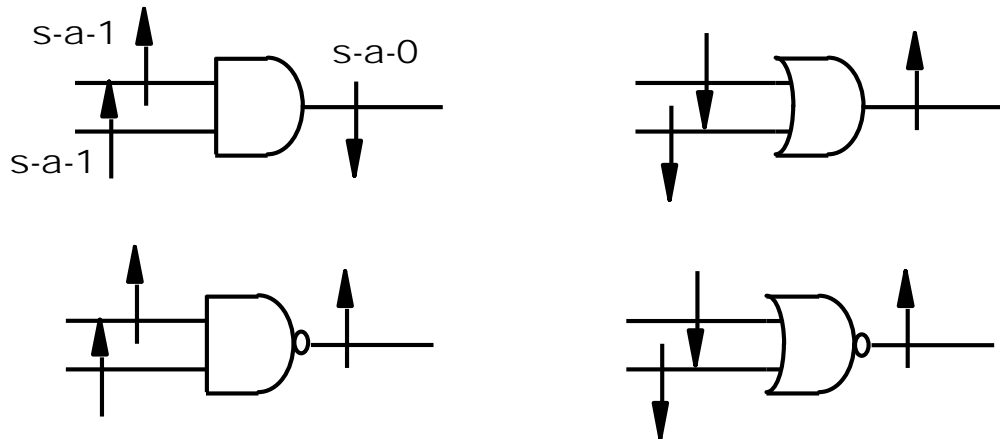
AB	C	A sa1	B sa1	C sa1	A sa0	B sa0	C sa0
00	0			1			
01	0	1		1			
10	0		1	1			
11	1				0	0	0

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Fault Collapsing

□ Collapse faults by fault equivalence and dominance

- For an n -input gate, we only need to consider $n+1$ faults in test generation



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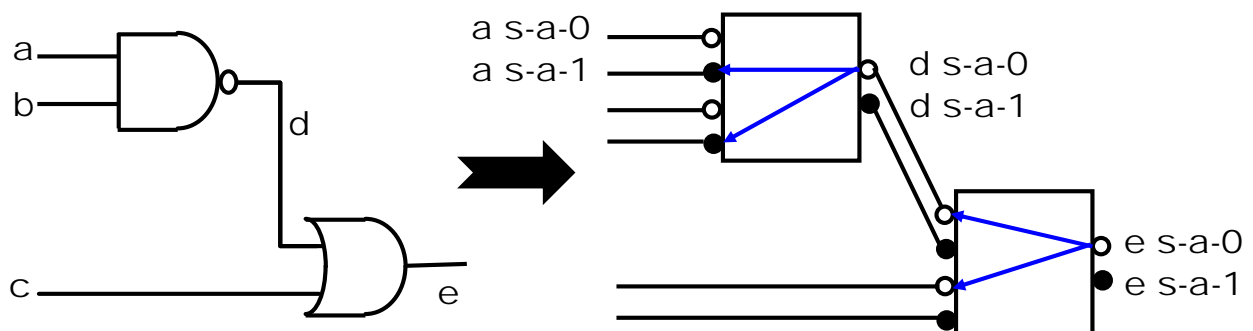
Dominance Graph

□ Rule

- When fault α dominates fault β , then an arrow is pointing from α to β

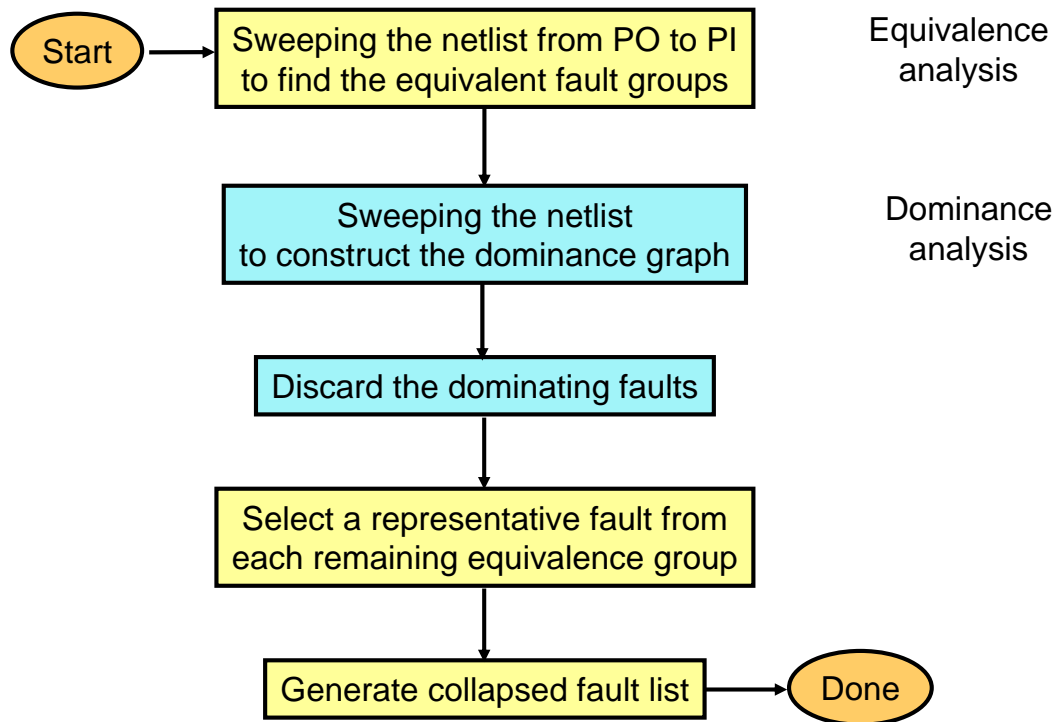
□ Application

- Find out the **transitive dominance relations** among faults



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Fault Collapsing Flow



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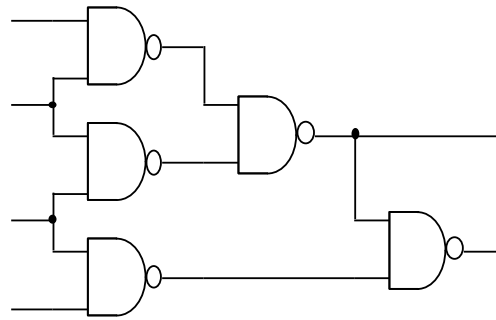
Prime Fault

- α is a **prime fault** if every fault that is dominated by α is also equivalent to α
- Representative Set of Prime Fault (RSPF)
 - A set that consists of exactly one prime fault from each equivalence class of prime faults
 - True minimal RSPF is difficult to find

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Why Fault Collapsing ?

- ❑ Save memory and CPU time
- ❑ Ease testing generation and fault simulation
- ❑ Exercise

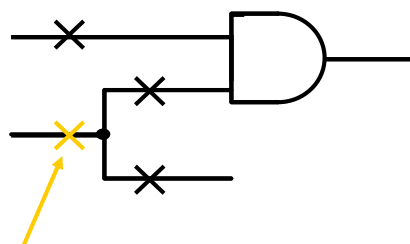


* 30 total faults → 12 prime faults

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Checkpoint Theorem

- ❑ Checkpoints for test generation
 - A test set detects every fault on the **primary inputs** and **fanout branches** is complete
 - ❑ I.e., this test set detects all other faults, too
 - Therefore, primary inputs and fanout branches form a **sufficient** set of checkpoints in test generation
 - ❑ In fanout-free combinational circuits (i.e., every gate has only one fanout), primary inputs are the checkpoints



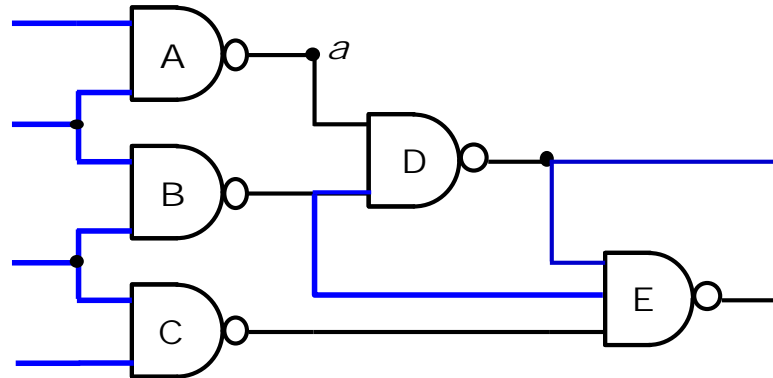
Stem is not a checkpoint !

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Why Inputs + Branches Are Enough ?

□ Example

- Checkpoints are marked in blue
- Sweeping the circuit from PI to PO to examine every gate, e.g., based on an order of (A->B->C->D->E)
- For each gate, output faults are detected if every input fault is detected

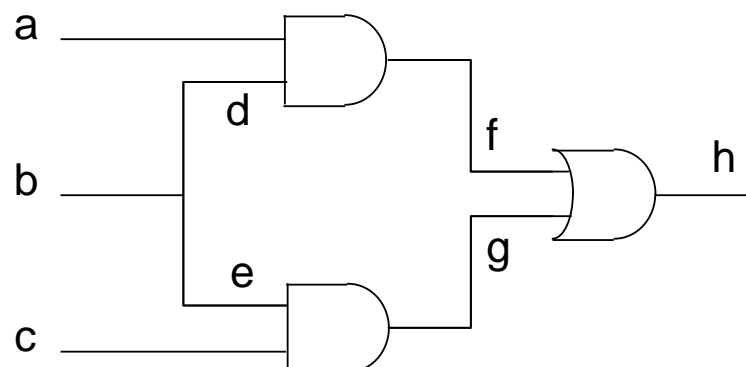


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Fault Collapsing + Checkpoint

□ Example:

- 10 checkpoint faults
- $a \text{ s-a-0} \iff d \text{ s-a-0}$, $c \text{ s-a-0} \iff e \text{ s-a-0}$
 $b \text{ s-a-0} \implies d \text{ s-a-0}$, $b \text{ s-a-1} \implies d \text{ s-a-1}$
- 6 faults are enough



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Outline

- Fault Modeling
- Fault Simulation
- Automatic Test Pattern Generation
- Design for Testability

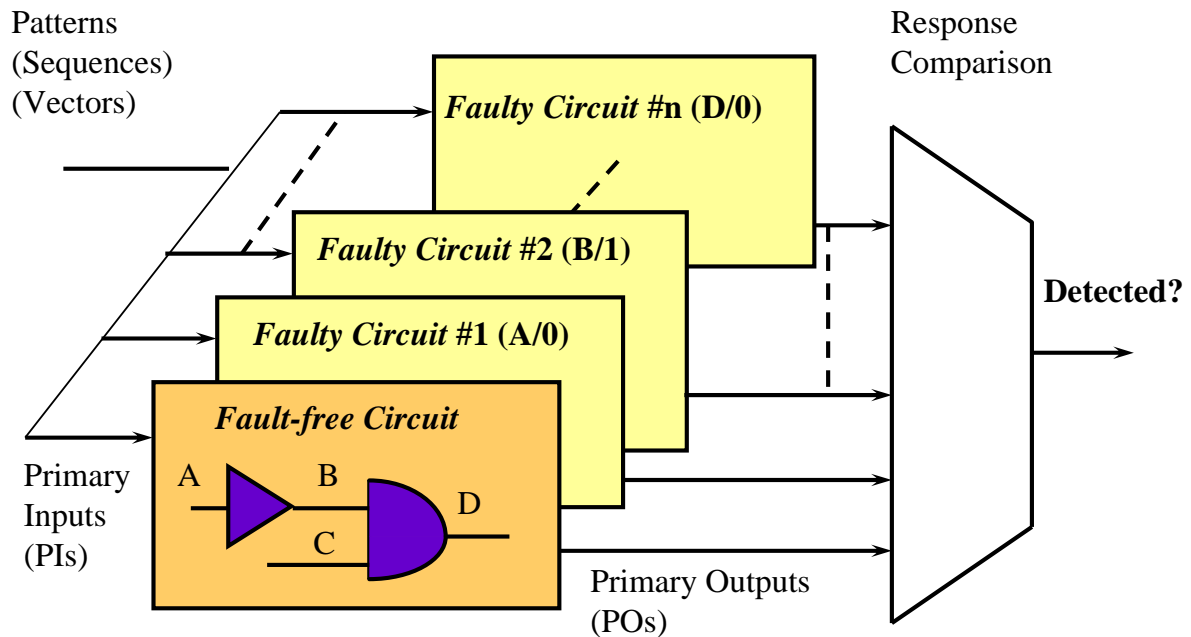
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Why Fault Simulation ?

- To evaluate the quality of a test set
 - I.e., to compute its fault coverage
- Part of an ATPG program
 - A vector usually detects multiple faults
 - Fault simulation is used to compute the faults that are accidentally detected by a particular vector
- To construct fault-dictionary
 - For post-testing diagnosis

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Conceptual Fault Simulation



Logic simulation on both good (fault-free) and faulty circuits

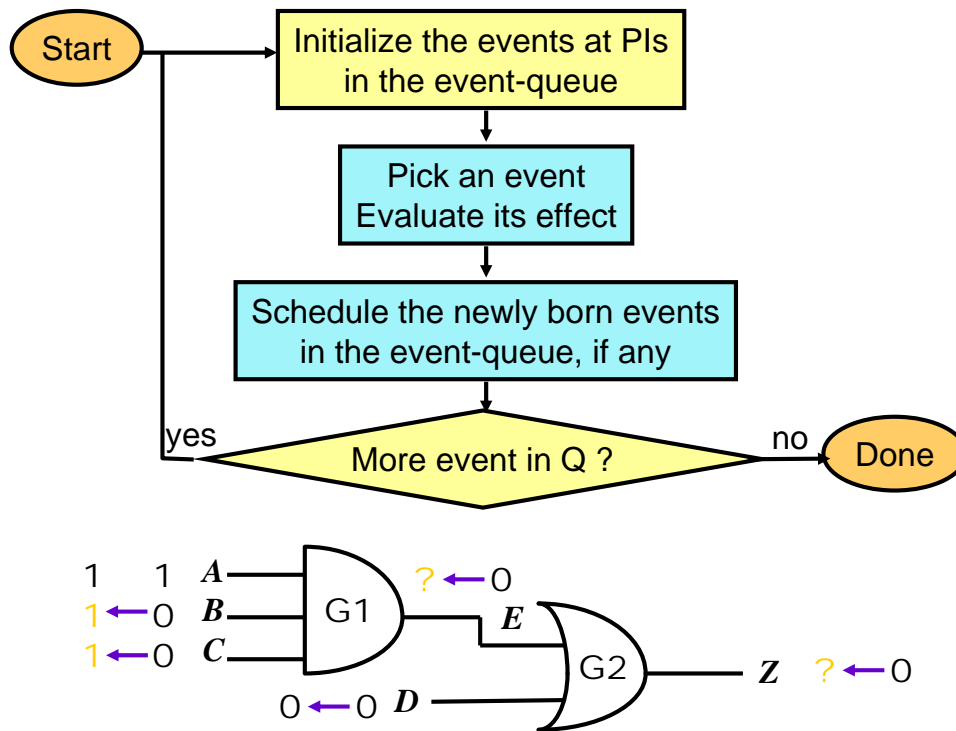
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Some Basics for Logic Simulation

- ❑ In fault simulation, our main concern is functional faults; gate delays are assumed to be **zero** unless delay faults are considered
- ❑ Logic values can be either {0, 1} (for two-value simulation) or {0, 1, X} (for three-value simulation)
- ❑ Two simulation mechanisms:
 - **Compiled-code valuation:**
 - ❑ A circuit is translated into a program and **all** gates are executed for each pattern (may have redundant computation)
 - **Event-driven valuation:**
 - ❑ Simulating a vector is viewed as a sequence of **value-change events** propagating from PIs to POs
 - ❑ Only those logic gates affected by the events are **re-evaluated**

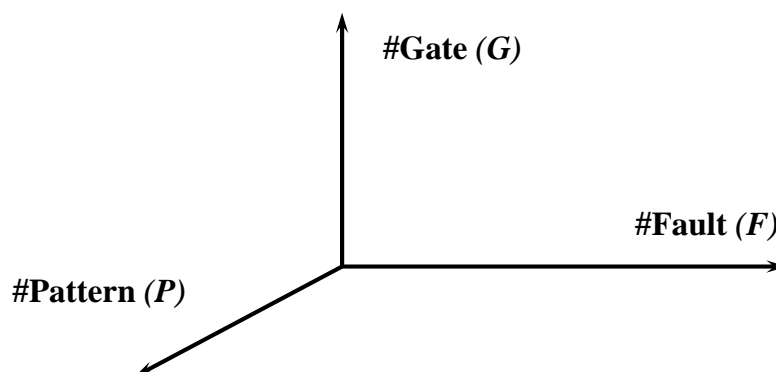
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Event-Driven Simulation



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Complexity of Fault Simulation



- ❑ Complexity $\sim F \cdot P \cdot G \sim O(G^3)$
- ❑ The complexity is higher than logic simulation by a factor of F , while it is usually much lower than ATPG
- ❑ The complexity can be greatly reduced using
 - fault collapsing and other advanced techniques

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