

COE 571 Digital System Testing

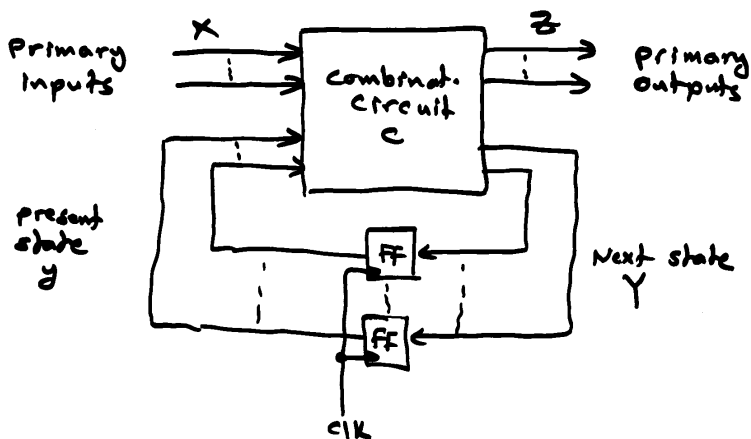
Dr. Aiman El-Maleh

Testing of Sequential Circuits

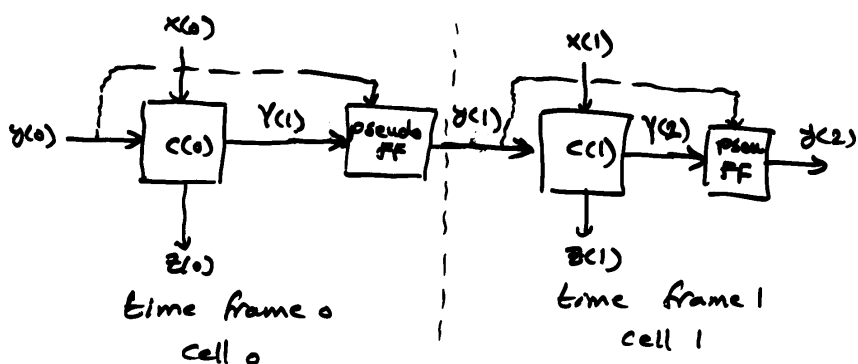
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Testing of Sequential Circuits

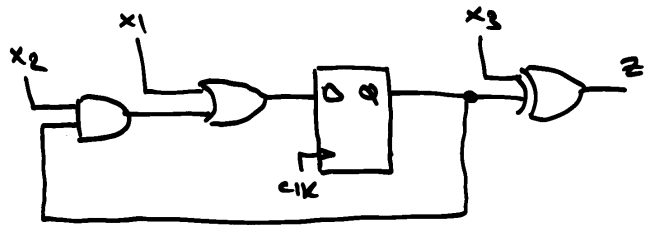
- A synchronous sequential circuit has the following canonical structure



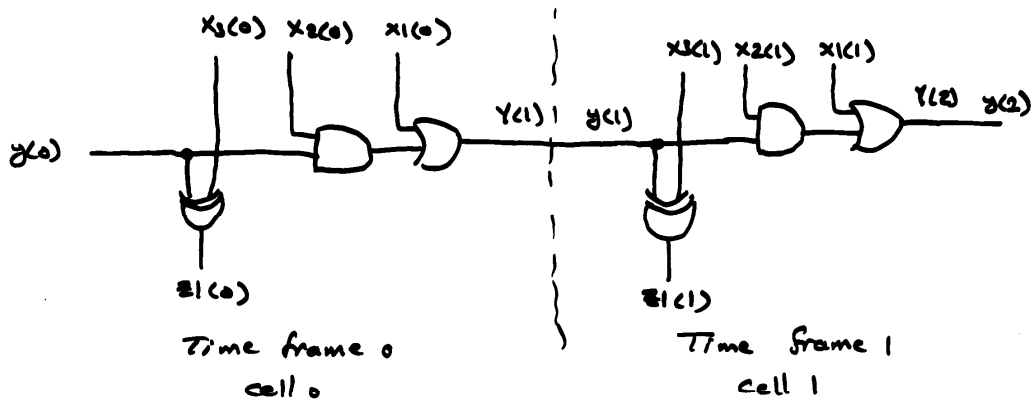
- For test generation, a synchronous sequential circuit S can be modeled by an iterative array model



- Example: Modeling a sequential circuit with DFFs

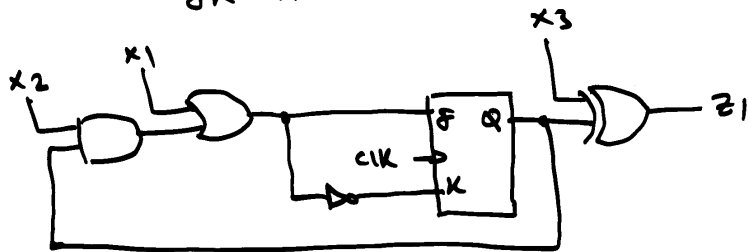


Iterative array model:



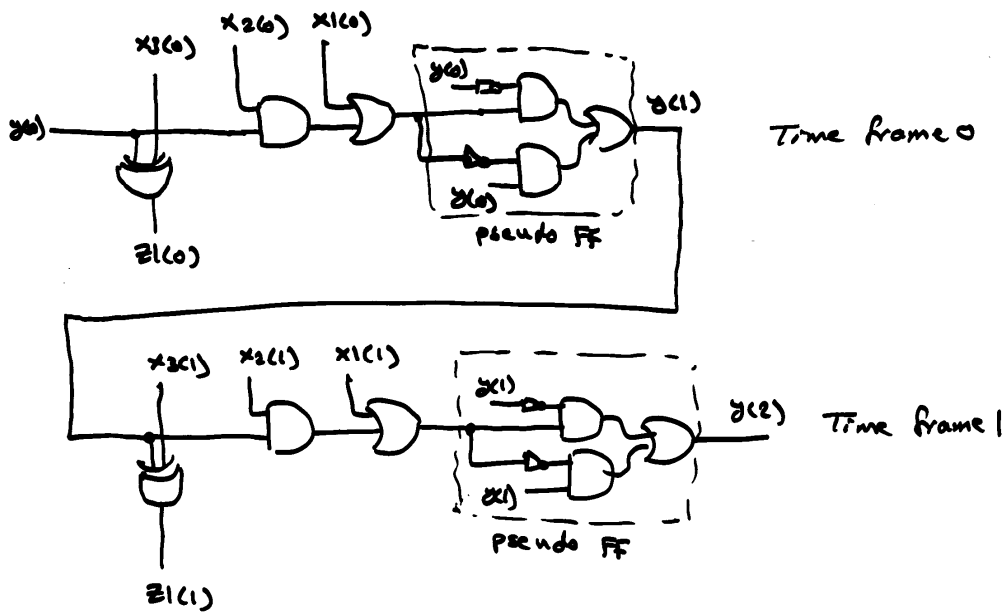
- This modeling technique maps the time domain response of the sequential circuit into a space domain response.
- It allows test generation methods developed for combinational circuits to be extended to synchronous sequential circuits.

Example : Modeling a sequential circuit with JK-FFs.



Iterative array model

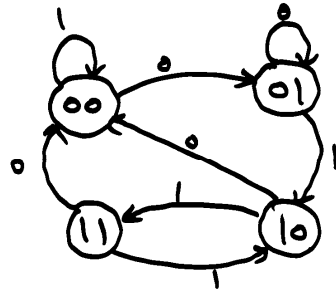
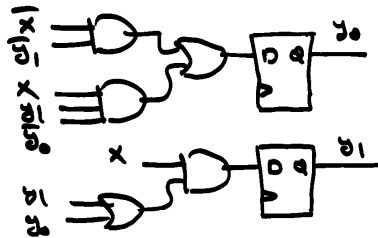
$$q^+ = \bar{q}J + q\bar{K}$$



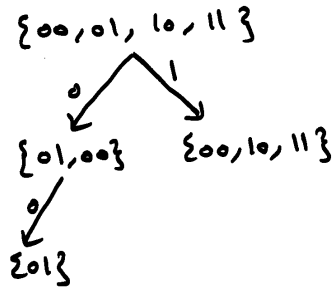
The Unknown Logic Value

- The response of a sequential circuit to an input sequence depends on its initial state.
- When a circuit is powered-up, the initial state of memory elements such as FFs & RAMs is unpredictable.
- Before normal operation of a sequential circuit, an initialization sequence is applied to bring the circuit into a known reset state.

- Example

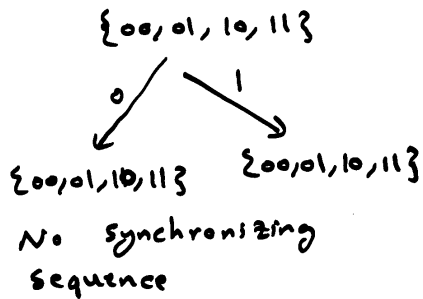
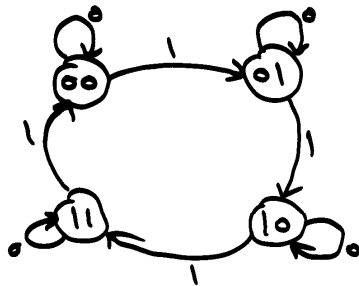


- A minimal length initialization (synchronizing) sequence is $x = \{0, 0\}$
- This sequence initializes the circuit to the state (01), called the reset state.



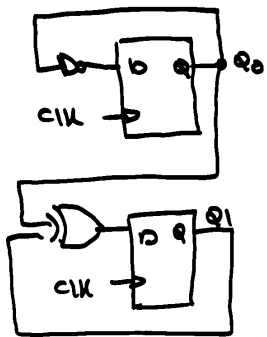
- Note that not all synchronous sequential circuits have a synchronizing sequence.

- Example: Counters

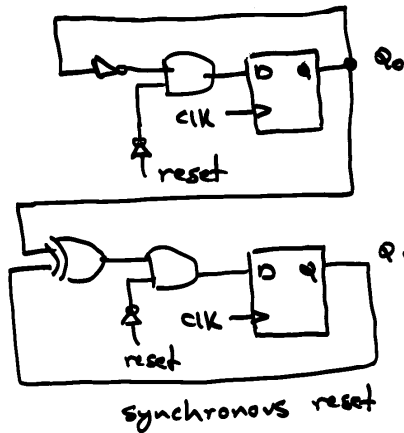


- Often when a circuit has no synchronizing sequence, an explicit reset line is added.

2-bit Counter



2-bit Counter with reset



- To process the unknown initial state, simulation algorithms use a separate logic value denoted by $\underline{\mu}$, to indicate unknown logic value.
- The $\underline{\mu}$ logic value is processed together with the binary logic values during simulation
- The value $\underline{\mu}$ represents one value in the set $\{0,1\}$.
- $AND(0, \underline{\mu}) = AND(\{0\}, \{0,1\}) = \{AND(0,0), AND(0,1)\}$
 $= \{0,0\} = \{0\} = 0$
- $OR(0, \underline{\mu}) = OR(\{0\}, \{0,1\}) = \{OR(0,0), OR(0,1)\}$
 $= \{0,1\} = \underline{\mu}$
- $NOT(\underline{\mu}) = NOT(\{0,1\}) = \{NOT(0), NOT(1)\}$
 $= \{1,0\} = \underline{\mu}$

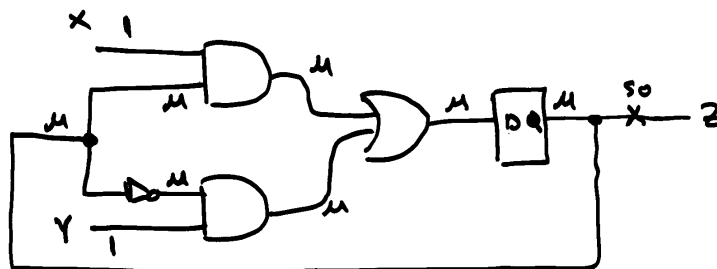
| AND | 0 | 1 | $\underline{\mu}$ |
|-------------------|---|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | $\underline{\mu}$ |
| $\underline{\mu}$ | 0 | $\underline{\mu}$ | $\underline{\mu}$ |

| OR | 0 | 1 | $\underline{\mu}$ |
|-------------------|-------------------|---|-------------------|
| 0 | 0 | 1 | $\underline{\mu}$ |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| $\underline{\mu}$ | $\underline{\mu}$ | 1 | $\underline{\mu}$ |

| NOT | 0 | 1 | $\underline{\mu}$ |
|-----|---|---|-------------------|
| | 1 | 0 | $\underline{\mu}$ |

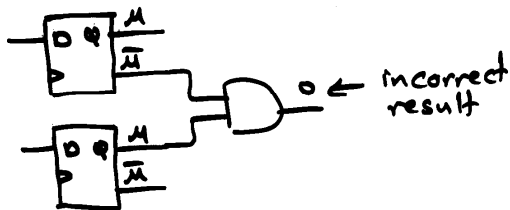
Truth Tables for
3-valued logic

- There is a loss of information associated with the use of 3-valued logic.
- This loss of information may lead to pesimistic results.
- Example



- using 3-valued simulation, the test $XY = 11$ does not detect the fault $z = 0 \rightarrow 1$
- However, in reality this test detects the fault since regardless of the initial state, the next state will be 1. Thus, the fault will be excited & detected.

- It may appear that the use of complementary unknown values μ and $\bar{\mu}$ along with the rule $\mu \cdot \bar{\mu} = 0$ and $\mu + \bar{\mu} = 1$ will solve the problem.
- However, this solution leads to incorrect results if we have more than one FF.

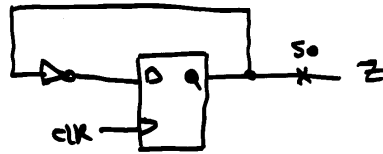


- A correct solution is to use several distinct unknown values $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_n$ (one for every FF) and the rules $\mu_i \cdot \bar{\mu}_i = 0$ and $\mu_i + \bar{\mu}_i = 1$
- This solution is not practical for large circuits since the values of some lines would be represented by large Boolean expressions of μ_i variables.
- Structural Automatic Test Pattern Generation (ATPG) algorithms are based on 3-valued logic simulation i.e. they are pessimistic.

Fault Detection in Sequential Circuits

- Testing sequential circuits is considerably more difficult than testing combinational circuits.
- To detect a fault, a test sequence is usually required rather than a single input vector.
- The response of a sequential circuit is a function of its initial state.
- Let T be a test sequence and $R(q, T)$ be the response to T of a sequential circuit N starting with the initial state q .
- Let N_f be the obtained circuit in presence of the fault f . We denote $R_f(q_f, T)$ the response of N_f to T starting in the initial state q_f .
- Definition: A test sequence T strongly detects the fault f iff the output sequences $R(q, T)$ and $R_f(q_f, T)$ are different for every possible pair of initial states q and q_f .
(Multiple observation time test strategy)

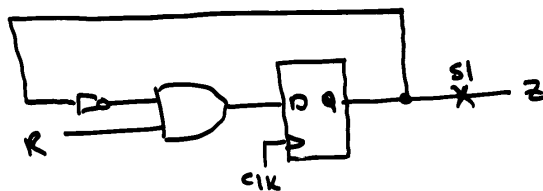
Example



| state | fault-free response | faulty response |
|-----------|---------------------|-----------------|
| $q_0 = 0$ | 0 1 | 0 0 |
| $q_1 = 1$ | 1 0 | 0 0 |

- The fault Z s-a-0 is strongly detected if we apply two clock cycles
- Although the fault Z s-a-0 is strongly detected, the error symptom cannot be simply specified.
- We cannot say that at some point in the output sequence the normal circuit will have a 1 output and the faulty circuit a 0 output or vice versa.
- We must list all possible responses of the normal and faulty machines which is impractical.
- A tester compares the obtained and the expected output sequences on a vector-by-vector basis.

- Definition A test sequence T detects the fault f iff for every possible pair of initial states q and q_f , the output sequences $R(q, T)$ and $R_f(q_f, T)$ are different for some specified vector $t_i \in T$.
(single observation time test strategy)



| State | $R=0, R=x$ | fault-free response | faulty response |
|-----------|------------|---------------------|-----------------|
| $q_0 = 0$ | | 0 0 | 1 1 |
| $q_1 = 1$ | | 1 0 | 1 1 |

- The fault z $s1$ is detected by the test sequence $R = \{0, x\}$
- Note that detection implies strong detection but not vice versa.

- To determine the vector t_i when an error caused by f can be observed at POs independent of the initial states q and q_f , testing experiment is divided into two phases.

- Initialization phase:

- We apply an initialization sequence T_I such that at the end of T_I , both N and N_f are brought to known states q_I and q_{If} .
- The output responses are ignored during T_I since they are not predictable.

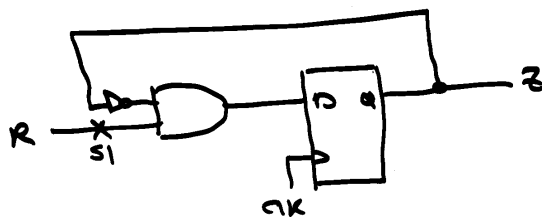
- Distinguishing phase:

- We apply a distinguishing sequence T' that distinguishes between the fault-free state q_I and the faulty state q_{If} .

i.e. $R(q_I, T') \neq R(q_{If}, T')$ and t_i is taken as the first vector of T' for which the error is observed.

- This type of testing is based on the assumption that an initialization sequence T_I exists.

- Most practical circuit have an initialization sequence, employed to start its operation from a known state.
- An often used technique is to provide a common reset line to every FF.
- An initialization sequence for the fault-free circuit N may fail to initialize some faulty circuit N_f . Such a fault is said to prevent initialization.
- Faults that prevent initialization are considered undetectable by edge-pin testing.



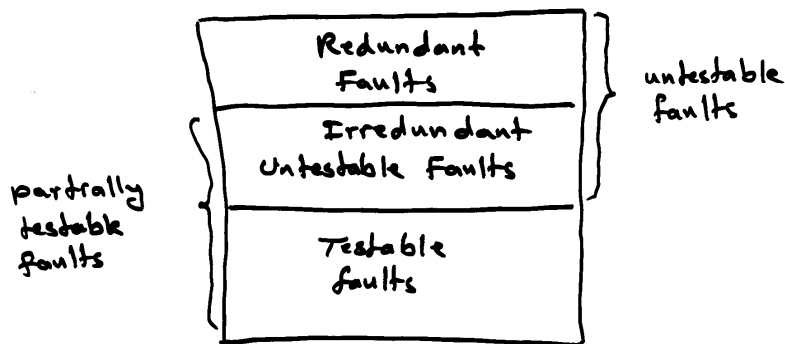
- The fault $R = 0$ prevents initialization
- It is not detectable but strongly detectable.

Sequential Untestability & Redundancy

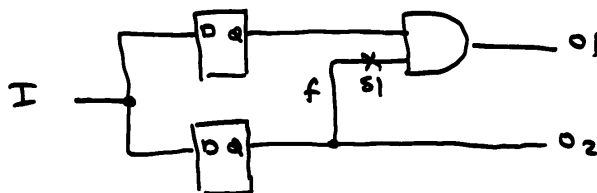
- A fault is redundant if the behavior of the faulty circuit cannot be distinguished from that of the fault-free circuit.
- Note that relying on 3-valued logic simulation to verify this fact may lead to erroneous results.
- Definition:
A fault f is said to be detectable if there exists an input sequence I such that for every pair of initial states S and S^f of the fault-free and faulty circuit, the response $Z(I, S)$ of the fault-free circuit to I is different from $Z^f(I, S^f)$ of the faulty circuit (at some time on some output).
- Definition:
A fault is undetectable if it is not detectable.

- Definition:
A fault is partially testable if there exists an initial state S^f of the faulty circuit and an input sequence I such that for every fault-free initial state S , the response $Z(I, S)$ is different from $Z^f(I, S^f)$.

- Definition
A fault is redundant if it is not partially testable.



- Example of a partially testable fault:



consider the fault f s-a-1

| A state | $I=0$ | $I=1$ | $I=0$ | $I=1$ |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 00 | 00,00 | 11,00 | 00,00 | 11,00 |
| 01 | 00,01 | 11,01 | 00,01 | 11,01 |
| 10 | 00,00 | 11,00 | 00,10 | 11,10 |
| 11 | 00,11 | 11,11 | 00,11 | 11,11 |

fault free
faulty
N. state, output
N. state, output

- The fault f s-a-1 is neither strongly detectable nor detectable. This is because state $q=00$ is equivalent to $q^f=00$.
- However, the fault is partially testable. The faulty state $q^f=10$ is distinguishable from all fault-free states.

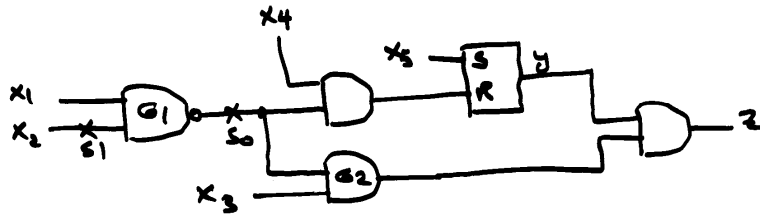
- Note that the fault f_{s-a-1} in the previous example is partially testable and irredundant by definition.
- However, intuitively the circuit seems redundant.
- Definition:
 Consider the set of states $\{S_c\}$ reachable after powering up the faulty circuit and applying any sequence of c input vectors.
 (Note that $\{S_c\}$ shrinks as c increases).
 Then, a fault is c -cycle redundant if it is not partially testable under the assumption that the initial states of the faulty circuit are restricted to $\{S_c\}$.
- ^{it's} Note that the fault f_{s-a-1} is 1-cycle redundant.
- A c -cycle redundant fault can be simplified by removing the redundant region associated with that fault.
- Removing a c -cycle redundant fault requires the application of c arbitrary input vectors before the existing initialization sequence.

Fault Equivalence in Sequential Circuits

- Definition: Two faults f and g are said to be strongly functionally equivalent iff the corresponding sequential circuits N_f and N_g have equivalent state tables.
- This definition is not practical and the practical definition of fault equivalence is based on the responses of N_f and N_g to a test sequence T .
- We assume that first an initialization sequence T_I is applied that brings N_f and N_g to known states q_{If} and q_{Ig} .
- Let T' be the sequence applied after T_I .
- Definition: Two faults f and g are said to be functionally equivalent iff $R_f(q_{If}, T') = R_g(q_{Ig}, T')$ for any T' .
- Note that this definition does not apply to faults preventing initialization.

- While equivalence fault-collapsing techniques for combinational circuits remain valid for sequential circuits, dominance fault collapsing techniques are no longer applicable.

Example 3 consider the test set $\{10010, 01100\}$
 & assume y is initially 1.



| Test $x_1 x_2 x_3 x_4 x_5$ | fault-free output | x_2 s-a-1 faulty output | G_1 s-a-0 faulty output |
|-------------------------------|-------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 10010 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 01100 | 0 | 1 | 0 |

So, in a combinational circuit G_1 s-a-0 dominates x_2 s-a-1. However, this is not valid when the combinational circuit is embedded in a sequential circuit.