# A Design Methodology to Realize Delay Testable Controllers Using State Transition Information

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## Abstract

This paper proposes a non-scan design scheme to enhance delay fault testability of controllers. In this scheme, we utilize a given state transition graph (STG) to test delay faults in its synthesized controller. The original behavior of the STG is used during test application. For faults that cannot be detected by using the original behavior, we design an extra logic, called an invalid test state and transition generator, to make those faults detectable. Our scheme allows achieving short test application time and at-speed testing. We show the effectiveness of our method by experiments.

## **1** Introduction

Modern high speed VLSI circuits require delay fault testing because conventional stuck-at fault testing cannot guarantee the timing correctness of the circuits. Delay test generation for such circuits is generally a hard problem. This is because there exist many sequentially untestable delay faults in a circuit [2], and the task of identifying those faults is very time-consuming. It is virtually impossible to identify all the untestable faults in a large circuit. To facilitate delay test generation, standard scan methods [7, 8] and enhanced scan ones [4, 2] have been proposed. Given a sequential circuit, these design methods make most or all of the sequentially untestable faults detectable by making every flipflop (FF) controllable and observable. As a result, the test generation time is significantly reduced and the fault coverage becomes higher. However, in scan-based delay testing, the test application time becomes longer because of the scan-shift operation. In addition, the scan-shift operation is generally performed at a low clock speed while the second vectors of two-pattern tests are launched at a rated clock speed. This situation may cause the IR-drop [9] because the operating speed rapidly changes, and it makes apparent circuit delay increase temporarily. In consequence, the test may detect temporary delay faults and it causes overtesting. Therefore, it is desirable that the operating speed is constant during test application.

Design for testability (DFT) methods at register transfer (RT) level have been proposed [5]. In general, an RT level circuit is composed of a controller, represented by a state transition graph (STG), and a data path, represented by hardware elements such as registers, multiplexers (MUXs) and operational modules. For delay faults, a non-scan DFT method of data paths, which overcomes the drawbacks of scan-based testing, has been proposed [1]. On the other hand, a DFT method for stuck-at faults in controllers has been proposed [6]. This method is also non-scan based, and achieves complete fault efficiency, short test application time and at-speed testing. In this method, the above merits are realized by utilizing a given STG and by appending an extra logic, called an *invalid test state generator (ISG)*, to the original controller.

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In this paper, we propose a non-scan design scheme, which is an extension of one in [6], to enhance delay fault testability of controllers. In this scheme, we utilize a given STG to test delay faults in its synthesized controller. The original behavior of the STG is used during test application. For faults that cannot be detected by using the original behavior, we append an extra logic, called an *invalid test state and transition generator (ISTG)*, to the original controller. In this paper, we discuss the classification of untestable faults in a controller, and show our DFT flow based on the classification. Our scheme allows achieving short test application time and at-speed testing, which is always performed at a constant clock speed. Experimental results show that our method is effective in test application time compared with scan-based methods.

## 2 Preliminaries

## 2.1 Target circuit and fault model

Our target circuit is a controller represented by an STG, and we target delay faults which can be tested by twopattern tests (e.g., transition faults and path delay faults) in the circuit. In the following discussion, we focus on the transition fault model for simplicity. Figure 1 shows an example of a controller represented by an STG. In this paper, we assume that a gate-level implementation of a controller is given, and the controller has a reset signal, i.e., we can make a transition from any state to the reset state by activating the reset signal. Figure 2 shows a synthesized controller, which can be represented by a combinational circuit and a state register (SR). We also assume that, for a given controller, the mapping information between each state in the STG and the value of the SR (state encoding information) is available.

#### 2.2 Terminologies

Here, we define several terminologies. For any value of the SR in a sequential circuit synthesized from a given



Figure 1. State transition graph representing a controller.



Figure 2. Synthesized controller.

STG, the state corresponding to the value is called a valid state if it is reachable from the reset state in the STG. Otherwise, it is called an *invalid state*. For a synthesized controller, a combinational circuit extracted from the controller by replacing the SR with pseudo primary inputs (PPIs) and pseudo primary outputs (PPOs) is called a combinational test generation model (CTGM) (Figure 3). Every two-pattern test,  $(V_1, V_2)$ , for a CTGM can be denoted as  $(I_1 \& S_1, I_2 \& S_2)$ , where  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  are the values of primary inputs (PIs),  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are the values of PPIs, and "&" is the concatenation operator. A two-pattern test,  $(I_1 \& S_1, I_2 \& S_2)$ , for a CTGM is said to be a valid two-pattern test if there exists an arc (transition) (I, P, N, O) in a given STG such that  $I = I_1, P = S_1$  and  $N = S_2$ , where I is an input value, P is a present state value, N is a next state value, and O is an output value. Otherwise, it is called an invalid two-pattern *test*. The transition corresponding to a valid two-pattern test (resp. an invalid two-pattern test) is called a valid test transition (resp. an invalid test transition). For each state included in a test transition, the state is called a valid test state (resp. an invalid test state) if it is a valid state (resp. an invalid state).

Figure 4 shows an example of test states and test transitions. When two-pattern tests are generated for the CTGM (Figure 3) of Figure 1, the test transitions corresponding to the generated two-pattern tests can be classified into five types:

- valid test transition (Figure 4(1)),
- invalid test transition from a valid state to a valid state (Figure 4(2)),
- invalid test transition from a valid state to an invalid state (Figure 4(3)),
- invalid test transition from an invalid state to a valid state (Figure 4(4)) and
- invalid test transition from an invalid state to an invalid state (Figure 4(5)).

# 3 Proposed method

## 3.1 Test architecture

In our testing scheme, the original behavior of a given STG is used during test application, i.e., valid two-pattern



Figure 3. Combinational test generation model (CTGM).



Figure 4. Test states and transitions.

tests are applied by the original behavior. The faults that cannot be detected by the original behavior are tested by an extra logic, called an *invalid test state and transition generator (ISTG)*. Our test architecture is shown in Figure 5. In Figure 5, the respective DFT elements play the following roles.

- The ISTG is used to generate invalid test states and invalid test transitions.
- The extra pin of t<sub>mode</sub> is used to select between the normal mode and the test mode.
- The extra pins of t<sub>out</sub> are used to observe the value of the SR.
- The extra pins of t<sub>sel</sub> are used to distinguish among invalid two-pattern tests<sup>1</sup>.
- The MUX is used to switch between the signal from the combinational part of the controller and that from the ISTG.

This test architecture can achieve short test application time and at-speed testing<sup>2</sup> because the scan-shift operation is never used. In our test architecture, since the ISTG is used only in the test mode, we can functionally test it during test application by observing the value of  $t_{out}$ .

Here, we mention an impact of power consumption on a controller induced by the ISTG. Although the ISTG is only used during testing, it might consume power in the normal mode. If the impact is serious, we can avoid it by configuring the controller as Figure 6. In Figure 6, "AND" is used to suppress the power consumption in the ISTG during normal operation. If the value of  $t_{mode}$  is 1, "AND" supplies the values of the PIs and the SR to the ISTG. In normal operation, the ISTG receives the constant value of zeros by setting the value of  $t_{mode}$  to 0. Note that, in the following discussion, we do not consider the power impact of an ISTG for simplicity.

#### 3.2 Test quality

In a sequential circuit, untestable delay faults generally exist. We classify untestable delay faults in a controller into five categories in terms of "logic level", "function level" and  $t_{out}$  here. The classification is shown in Figure 7. All the faults in a set of  $F_C$  are untestable faults in the combinational

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The details will be described in the next subsection.

 $<sup>^{2}</sup>$ We use the terminology of "at-speed test" only if test application can always be performed at a rated clock speed.



Figure 5. Proposed test architecture.



Figure 6. Power-aware configuration.

part of the controller if we consider the SR as POs and PIs. These faults are called combinationally untestable faults. Some combinationally testable faults in  $\overline{F_C}$  are untestable because the value of the SR are restricted by the available state transitions in the synthesized controller. Such faults belong to a set of  $F_{S_l}$  ( $\supset$   $F_C$ ). We call these faults sequentially untestable faults at logic level without  $t_{out}$ . When a given STG is synthesized, some new states and transitions are generally implemented in the synthesized controller. This implies that some testable faults in  $\overline{F_{S_l}}$  are untestable if the original behavior of the given STG is only considered. We classify these faults into a set of  $F_{S_f}$   $(\supset F_{S_l})$ . These faults are called sequentially untestable faults at function level without  $t_{out}$ . Let us consider to append  $t_{out}$  to the synthesized controller here. Appending t<sub>out</sub> makes some untestable faults in  $F_{S_l}$  and  $F_{S_f}$  detectable. Thus,  $F_{S_l}$  and  $F_{S_f}$  change into sets of  $F_{S_l}^t (\supset F_C)$  and  $F_{S_f}^t (\supset F_S)$ , respectively.

When a sequential circuit is given, a sequential test generator (ATPG) tries to identify all the untestable faults in  $F_{S_l}$  and to generate tests for all the testable faults in  $\overline{F_{S_l}}$ . One goal of our method is to achieve the same test quality as that targeted by a sequential ATPG. Although a fault in  $F_{S_f} - F_{S_l}$ itself does not affect the performance of a controller under the behavior of its STG and the single fault assumption, we try to detect the fault. The reason is as follows. Suppose that there exist an untestable fault f' in  $F_{S_f} - F_{S_l}$  and a testable fault f in  $\overline{F_{S_f}}$  simultaneously in a circuit, and the effect of f'cannot be propagated to a PO but f' can be activated during normal operation. In this case, if f' is not tested, we cannot evaluate whether a test generated for f is invalidated by f'. This implies that f can be missed if there are no tests which detect f in a generated test set. In order to avoid such a



## Figure 7. Classification of untestable faults.



Figure 8. Flow chart of our method.

situation, we should test not only testable faults in  $\overline{F_{S_f}}$  but also untestable faults in  $F_{S_f} - F_{S_l}$ . Since we aim to achieve the same test quality as that targeted by a sequential ATPG, we do not test untestable faults in  $F_{S_l}$  as much as possible although some of them are made detectable by  $t_{out}$ . Under the single fault assumption, the above discussion does not mean anything. However, from a practical point of view, it is very useful because there can exist multiple faults in a circuit.

## 3.3 Flow of our method

Given a controller, the procedure of our method is performed as Figure 8. In the following paragraphs, we explain each step of Figure 8 in detail.

**Step 1:** For the CTGM of a given controller, we use a combinational ATPG. In order to generate valid two-pattern tests, we give some information (constraint) to a combinational ATPG. A constraint is defined as a vector pair  $(I_1^C \& S_1^C, I_2^C \& S_2^C)$ . Each bit of a constraint can take the value of 0, 1 or *don't care* (X). When we give a constraint to a combinational ATPG, the ATPG tries to generate two-pattern tests under the constraint, i.e., for every X in the constraint, a suitable value is specified.

Let us consider to use the values of transitions in a given STG as constraints. Suppose that a transition (I,P,N,O) is used as a constraint (I&P, "Xs"&N). It is obvious that two-pattern tests generated under this constraint can always be applied by using the original behavior of the controller. Since an STG is given, we can easily extract all the constraints corresponding to the transitions with no effort.

Table 1. Truth table of an ISTG.

Inputs	Outputs		
$I_1^1 \& S_1^1$	$S_2^1$		
$I_1^2 \& S_1^2$	$S_2^{\overline{2}}$		
:	:		
$I_1^n \& S_1^n$	$S_2^n$		

Thus, we can obtain valid two-pattern tests. Note that, owing to the presence of a delay fault f, we may fail to justify a valid two-pattern test generated for f by using the original behavior. However, it does not matter because any error induced by f in the SR can always be observed from t<sub>out</sub>. In Step 1, if we use all the constraints corresponding to the transitions in the STG, we can identify all the untestable faults in  $F_{S_f}^t$ , and valid two-pattern tests can be generated

for all the faults in  $\overline{F_{S_f}^t}$ . The detected faults are dropped from the fault list.

Step 2: For the remaining faults in Step 1, we try to identify untestable faults in  $F_{S_l}^{t}$  and generate a test sequence for faults in  $F_{S_f}^t - F_{S_l}^t$  by applying a sequential ATPG to the controller with tout. Since the circuit has tout, test generation for it is easier than that for the original one. Moreover, the number of target faults in this step is much reduced compared with the total number of faults. Nevertheless, this task is very time-consuming. Therefore, we consider to use a sequential ATPG under a limited processing time (or a limited number of backtracks) per fault. This implies that, in this step, we take into account faults which can be easily identified as untestable faults and easily detectable faults. The detected faults and the untestable faults are dropped from the fault list. Notice that if there are no aborted faults in this step, we do not need to perform Steps 3 and 4. This means that only the pins of tout are added to the original controller as a DFT element.

**Step 3:** We generate two-pattern tests, which are invalid, for the remaining faults in Step 2 under no constraint by using a combinational ATPG. This step can identify all the untestable faults in  $F_C$ .

**Step 4:** We design an ISTG to test the faults detected in Step 3 because we do not identify whether these faults belong to  $F_{S_l}^i - F_C$  or not. An ISTG must realize functions to apply invalid two-pattern tests to the combinational part of the controller. Furthermore, it must also have functions which make all of the invalid test states in the invalid two-pattern tests reachable from the reset state. For example, given *n* invalid two-pattern tests  $t_1 = (I_1^1 \& S_1^1, I_2^1 \& S_2^1)$ ,  $t_2 = (I_1^2 \& S_1^2, I_2^2 \& S_2^2), \ldots, t_n = (I_1^n \& S_1^n, I_2^n \& S_2^n)$ , an ISTG need to realize the functions shown in the truth table (Table 1). Note that, in Table 1, if there exist *m* invalid twopattern tests such that  $I_1^1 \& S_1^1 = I_1^2 \& S_1^2 = \cdots = I_1^m \& S_1^m$  and  $S_2^i \neq S_2^j (\forall i, j, 1 \le i, j \le m, i \ne j)$ , we need  $t_{sel}$  to distinguish among them. The bit width of  $t_{sel}$  is  $\lceil \log m_{max} \rceil$ , where  $m_{max}$ is the maximum number of two-pattern tests that satisfy the above conditions.

We touch on a problem to reduce the area of an ISTG here. If the truth table shown in Table 1 includes X values, i.e., X values are included in two-pattern tests, we can make use of them to reduce the area of an ISTG. This problem is considered as a type of an input encoding problem [10].

	Tabl	e 2. Dist	tance m	atrix	
	R	$t_1$	<i>t</i> <sub>2</sub>	•••	t <sub>n</sub>
R	-	$d(R,t_1)$	$d(R,t_2)$		$d(R,t_n)$
$t_1$	$d(t_1, R)$	—	$d(t_1, t_2)$		$d(t_1,t_n)$
<i>t</i> <sub>2</sub>	$d(t_2, R)$	$d(t_2,t_1)$	-		$d(t_2,t_n)$
:	:	:	:	•.	:
•		•	•	•	•
<i>t</i> <sub>n</sub>	$d(t_n, R)$	$d(t_n,t_1)$	$d(t_n,t_2)$		_

Therefore, we could apply some heuristics [10] for the input encoding problem to design an ISTG. However, this is still an open problem. In this paper, it is assumed that twopattern tests generated in Step 3 do not include X values.

Step 5: In order to construct a test sequence for the original circuit, we determine an order of applying all the generated two-pattern tests. Note that the test sequence generated in Step 2 is applied to the circuit before or after applying the test sequence obtained in this step. Here, we consider a problem to construct the test sequence that has the minimum length. It is solved as an asymmetric traveling salesperson problem (ATSP) on a complete weighted directed graph represented by a distance matrix, where a vertex tcorresponds to a two-pattern test, an arc  $(t_i, t_j)$  corresponds to the path between  $t_i$  and  $t_j$ , the weight of the arc corresponds to the distance from  $t_i$  to  $t_j$ . The distance  $d(t_i, t_j)$ means the minimum clock cycles that are needed to apply the first vector of  $t_i$  after applying  $t_i^3$ . Thus, we can construct a test sequence by solving the corresponding ATSP. Note that since it is hard to obtain the optimum solution for a large instance of ATSPs, a heuristic algorithm should be used for it. Table 2 is a distance matrix for n two-pattern tests. In this table, d(R,t) (resp. d(t,R)) denotes the minimum distance from the reset state R (resp.  $S_a$ ) to  $S_b$  (resp. R), where  $S_a$  is the reaching state after applying the second vector of t, and  $S_b$  is the state in applying the first vector of t.

#### 4 Advantages of our method

### 4.1 Conventional methods and our method

In this subsection, we summarize the proposed method and conventional methods (standard scan and enhanced scan ones).

**Standard scan method:** Test generation for a controller designed by this method requires a combinational ATPG which supports the skewed-load [7] mode and/or the broad-side [8] one. Generated two-pattern tests are applied to the controller through a scan chain in the skewed-load fashion and/or the broad-side one. The test application time is estimated as  $n(n_{\text{SSFF}} + 2) + n_{\text{SSFF}}$ , where *n* and  $n_{\text{SSFF}}$  are the numbers of two-pattern tests and standard scan FFs (SSFFs), respectively. In this method, each SSFF in the controller has an additional MUX. Therefore, the area overhead is  $A_{\text{MUX}} \times n_{\text{SSFF}}$ , where  $A_{\text{MUX}}$  is the area of the additional MUX. As a result, the delay of an MUX is added as the additional circuit delay. This method needs three additional pins. Note that we assume that this method has a single scan chain for simplicity.

**Enhanced scan method:** We can generate tests for a controller designed by this method by using a combinational

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>If the values of the second vector of  $t_i$  and the first vector of  $t_j$  are identical, the value of  $d(t_i, t_j)$  is -1.

ATPG. The test application time is estimated as  $2n(n_{\rm ESFF} + 1) + 2n_{\rm ESFF}$ , where  $n_{\rm ESFF}$  is the number of enhanced scan FFs (ESFFs). Each ESFF in the controller has an additional MUX and a hold latch (HL) [4]. The area overhead is, therefore,  $(A_{\rm MUX} + A_{\rm HL}) \times n_{\rm ESFF}$ . Note that, although the area overhead can be reduced by using some techniques (e.g., [3]), we estimate it as the above equation for simplicity. The delay penalty is the same as that of the standard scan method because HLs themselves are not connected to the combinational part of the controller. Also, the pin overhead of this method is the same as that of the standard scan method because HLs can be controlled by the scan clock. Consequently, the total number of additional pins is 3. Note that it is also assumed that this method has a single scan chain.

Our method: In our method, we first generate tests for the combinational test generation model of a given controller by using a combinational ATPG under the constraints extracted from its STG. The test generation is repeated  $n_c$ times, where  $n_c$  is the number of constraints. Next, we generate a test sequence for the remaining faults under a limited processing time by using a sequential ATPG. Then, we try to generate two-pattern tests for the aborted faults in the previous step under no constraint. The test application time is determined by an order of applying all the generated two-pattern tests to the controller. The area overhead is  $A_{\text{MUX}} \times n_{\text{FF}} + A_{\text{ISTG}}$ , where  $n_{\text{FF}}$  is the number of FFs, and AISTG is the area of an ISTG. The proposed method has the same delay penalty compared to that of the scan-based methods because ISTGs are not used during normal operation. However, in order to perform at-speed testing, we need to pay attention to the maximum delay of an ISTG. The maximum delay of an ISTG depends on its structure. In the next subsection, we evaluate the maximum delays of ISTGs by experiments. We believe that the ISTG of a given controller can be constructed with small maximum delay compared to that of the original circuit by contriving ways to synthesize the ISTG. The extra pins  $(t_{sel}, t_{out} \text{ and } t_{mode})$ are needed in our method. The sum of the bit width of these pins is  $|t_{sel}| + |t_{out}| + 1$ . Notice that, in the proposed method, if Steps 3 and 4 are not performed, the pin overhead is  $|t_{out}|$ . If we consider a controller-data path circuit, the PIs and the POs of the data path can be used as t<sub>sel</sub> and t<sub>out</sub>, respectively. As a result of the sharing, the pin overhead decreases to 2. It is also reduced to 1 if Steps  $\hat{3}$  and 4 are skipped.

We mention here some differences among the three methods. Since the scan-shift operation is needed in the scan-based methods, at-speed test cannot be performed, i.e., a slow clock is used except in activating delay faults. However, our method can always apply tests at a rated clock speed. In this environment, the IR-drop will be suppressed. Moreover, our method can be performed flexibly according to a trade-off between hardware overhead and test generation time. The trade-off is determined by the number of constraints used in Step 1 of the proposed method and by the limited processing time per fault in Step 2. In the scan-based methods, all the FFs in a circuit are modified independently of the circuit function. Consequently, most untestable delay faults in  $F_{S_l} - F_C$  (Figure 7) are made detectable. This implies that yield loss may potentially occur. In contrast, since our method uses the original behavior of a

	Table	З.	Circuit	character	istics.
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Circuit name	#PIs	#POs	#FFs	#States	#Arcs	Area
bbsse	7	7	4	16	72	295
keyb	7	2	5	19	189	459
kirkman	12	6	4	16	446	360
planet	7	19	6	48	163	937
s298	3	6	8	218	1,314	3,662
s420	19	2	5	18	155	122
sand	11	9	5	32	216	866
scf	27	56	7	121	407	1,378

given controller as much as possible during test application, many fewer untestable delay faults in  $F_{S_l} - F_C$  are made detectable. It allows to avoid over-testing.

#### 4.2 Experimental results

To evaluate our method, the following experiments were performed. We used the MCNC '91 benchmark circuits shown in Table 3. A reset signal was appended to every benchmark circuit. Columns "#PIs", "#POs", "#FFs", "#States" and "#Arcs" denote the numbers of PIs, POs, FFs, states in an STG, and transitions in an STG, respectively. Column "Area" represents circuit size. The size was estimated by the Design Compiler (Synopsys), and the value of "Area" was calculated by considering the area of a 2-input NAND gate to be 2. During logic synthesis, binary encodings were used. In the following experiments, we compared our method (NS) to the standard scan technique (SS) and the enhanced scan technique (ES). The TestGen (Synopsys) and the FlexTest (Mentor Graphics) were used as a combinational ATPG and a sequential one respectively, and the transition fault model was targeted. Note that, in SS and ES, we assumed that the both methods have a single scan chain. For SS, we compared only the hardware overhead because the ATPGs do not support the skewed-load mode and the broad-side one.

First, we evaluate the test generation results. In this experiment, our method was performed as follows. Column "#Arcs" in Table 3 corresponds to the number of constraints in Step 1 of our method. We used all the constraints in Step 1, i.e., for each circuit, test generation was repeated #Arcs times. In Step 2, the backtrack limit was set to 64, which is not so large value. In Step 5, we used a simple algorithm to solve the ATSP and the processing time was negligibly short. Tables 4 shows the test generation results of the respective methods. Columns "TGT [s]", "FC [%]" and "TAT [CC (clock cycles)]" denote test generation time, fault coverage and test application time, respectively. In ES, there were no aborted faults during test generation, i.e., 100% fault efficiency was achieved in all the cases. Our method encountered no aborted faults in Step 3 for all the circuits. This implies that our method also achieved 100% fault efficiency. In Table 4, the value in each parenthe-sis of column "FC [%]" (resp. "TAT [CC]") represents fault coverage (resp. test application time) when untestable faults identified in Step 2 was removed from the fault list of ES. We listed these values to evaluate test application time fairly.

In the test generation results, the test generation time of our method was longer than that of ES because we used all the constraints in Step 1, and sequential test generation was

Circuit	TC	FT [s]	FC [%]		TAT [CC]	
name	ES	NS	ES	NS	ES	NS
bbsse	0.2	6.5	100.00 (96.29)	96.29	578 (558)	269
keyb	0.5	33.1	100.00 (99.00)	99.00	1,330 (1,330)	641
kirkman	0.4	16.6	100.00 (99.26)	99.26	868 (908)	514
planet	1.6	60.1	99.96 (98.18)	98.18	1,720 (1,622)	542
sand	2.0	33.1	100.00 (99.17)	99.17	1,762 (1,714)	695
s298	16.6	1,219.6	99.97 (99.90)	99.90	10,114 (10,168)	4,069
s420	0.1	5.8	91.34 (86.61)	86.61	334 (298)	156
scf	2.7	209.2	99.84 (97.92)	97.92	3,022 (2,814)	1,300

Table 4. Test generation results.

performed. However, we achieved low fault coverage under 100% fault efficiency compared with that of ES. This means that ES detected faults which do not need to be tested. Furthermore, we obtained shorter test application time. Unlike ES, we can perform at-speed test in our method. It implies that the actual test application time of our method becomes much shorter than that of ES. If it is assumed that the scan clock speed of ES is 1/5 as slow as the rated clock speed, the test application time of our method is 10 or more times faster, on average, than that of ES. Notice that, if we use one-hot encodings in logic synthesis, the advantage of our method will stand out further. This is because the test application time of ESFs.

Next, we evaluate the hardware overhead of our method. Columns "Area OH [%]" and "Pin OH" of Table 5 denote the ratio of the area of additional hardware elements to that of the original circuit, and the number of additional test pins respectively. To calculate "Area OH [%]", we considered areas  $A_{\text{MUX}}$  and  $A_{\text{HI}}$  described in the previous section as 7 and 10, respectively. In Table 5, the area overhead of SS was the smallest of all. The area overhead of our method was larger than that of ES in two cases. However, our method achieved the same area overhead as that of SS in the other two cases. Note that, as mentioned in Section 3.3, if we utilize X values in two-pattern tests, the area overhead can be reduced. Besides, in a controller-data path circuit, the controller is generally much smaller than the data path. Therefore, even if the area overhead of a controller is large, it is not critical in the whole circuit. In the result of pin overheads, our method required a large number of additional test pins for each circuit, which is shown in a parenthesis, if the sharing of test pins is not adopted. However, if the PIs (resp. POs) of the data path are used as t<sub>sel</sub> (resp. t<sub>out</sub>) in each circuit, the pin overhead can be reduced as shown in Table 5.

Finally, we mention the maximum delays of ISTGs. For every case, the maximum delay of the ISTG was smaller than that of the original circuit. This means that our method can always apply tests at a rated clock speed.

#### **5** Conclusions and future works

This paper proposed a non-scan testing scheme to enhance delay fault testability of controllers. In this scheme,

Table 5. Hardware overheads.

Circuit	Area OH [%]			Pin OH			
name	SS	ES	NS	SS	ES	NS	
bbsse	9.5	23.1	9.8	2 (3)	2 (3)	2 (5)	
keyb	7.6	18.5	7.6	2 (3)	2 (3)	1 (5)	
kirkman	7.8	18.9	7.8	2 (3)	2 (3)	1 (4)	
planet	4.5	10.9	15.6	2 (3)	2 (3)	2 (7)	
s298	1.5	2.3	28.1	2 (3)	2 (3)	2 (10)	
s420	28.7	111.5	45.9	2 (3)	2 (3)	1 (5)	
sand	4.0	9.8	4.2	2 (3)	2 (3)	2 (6)	
scf	3.6	8.6	6.6	2 (3)	2 (3)	2 (8)	

the original behavior of a given STG is used during test application. For faults that cannot be detected by using the original behavior, we append an extra logic, called an *invalid test state and transition generator (ISTG)*, to the original controller. Our scheme can achieve short test application time and at-speed testing. Experimental results showed that our method is effective compared with scanbased methods.

Our future works are to develop ways to reduce the hardware overhead and make the test generation under constraints more efficient.

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