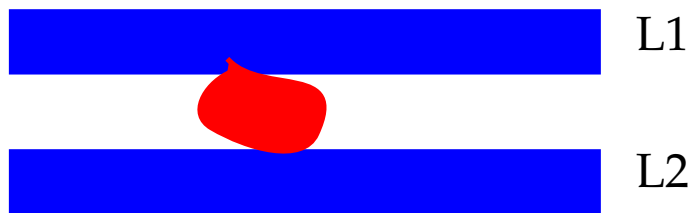


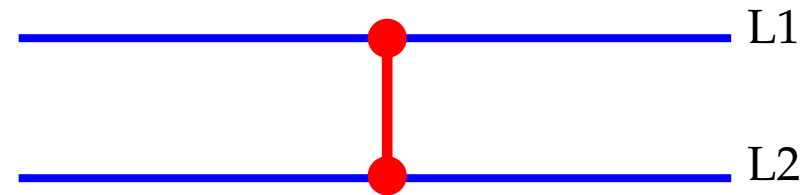
Failures in Integrated Circuits

Failure mode is used in reference to the manifestation of a "defect" at the *electrical level*.

Failure modes are modeled as *faults* at logic or behavioral level of abstraction.

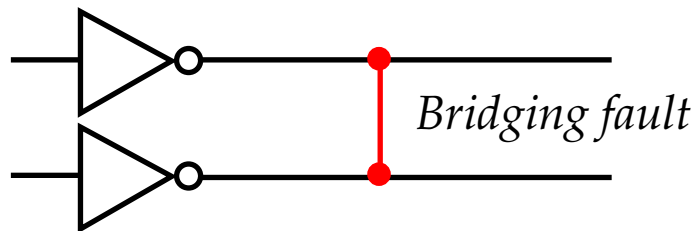
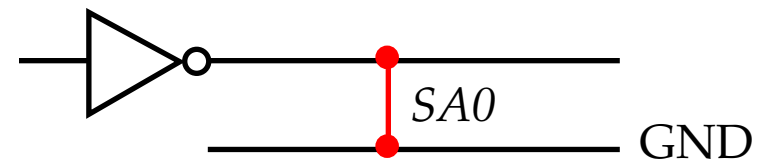
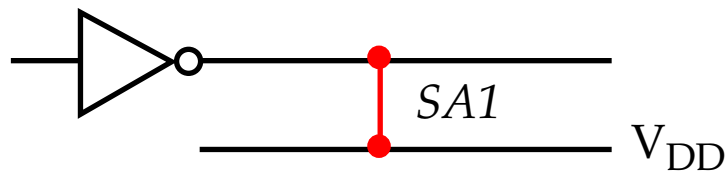


Physical defect



Physical model

At the logic level, failure mode can be interpreted in different ways.



Failure Mechanisms

Failure mechanisms describe the processes that produce defects.

It is important to determine the **principal failure mechanisms** of a process.

Some examples include:

- Gate oxide breakdown
- Incomplete contact and via fills
- Electromigration
- Wire bonding failure

These *mechanisms* are tied to variations in the fabrication process:

- Random fluctuations in the actual environment, e.g.,
Turbulent flow of gases used for diffusion and oxidation.
- Inaccuracies in the control of the furnace.
- Variations in the physical and chemical parameters of the material, e.g.,
Fluctuation in the density and viscosity of the photoresist.
Water and gas contaminants.

Physical Defects

Extra and Missing Material:

Can be caused by *dust particles* on the mask, wafer surface or processing chemicals, e.g. photoresist.

During photolithography, these particles lead to *unexposed* photoresist areas, leading to:

- *Unwanted material* or *unwanted etching* of the material
- Causes **shorts** and **opens** in the poly, active or metal layers

Gate-Oxide-Shorts

Pinhole defects are common thin-ox defects, that are caused by:

- Insufficient oxygen at the interface of Si and SiO₂
- Chemical contamination
- Nitride cracking during field oxidation
- Crystal defects
- Imperfections in a uniform growth pattern of the thin oxide layer
- Particulate contamination in the thin oxide mask

Physical Defects

Gate-Oxide-Shorts (cont.)

A **GOS** can also be created in post fabrication procedures and *operational conditions*:

- Electric field stress due to scaling feature size without scaling supply voltage
- Electro-static discharge (**ESD**)
- Trapping of charge introduced by hot electrons
- May develop later due to an effect called Time Dependent Dielectric Breakdown (**TDDDB**)

Electromigration

One of the major failure mechanisms in interconnects.

Aluminum has a low melting point, and high current densities can displace metal atoms.

Scaling is reducing the *Mean Time To Failure* (MTTR), which is:

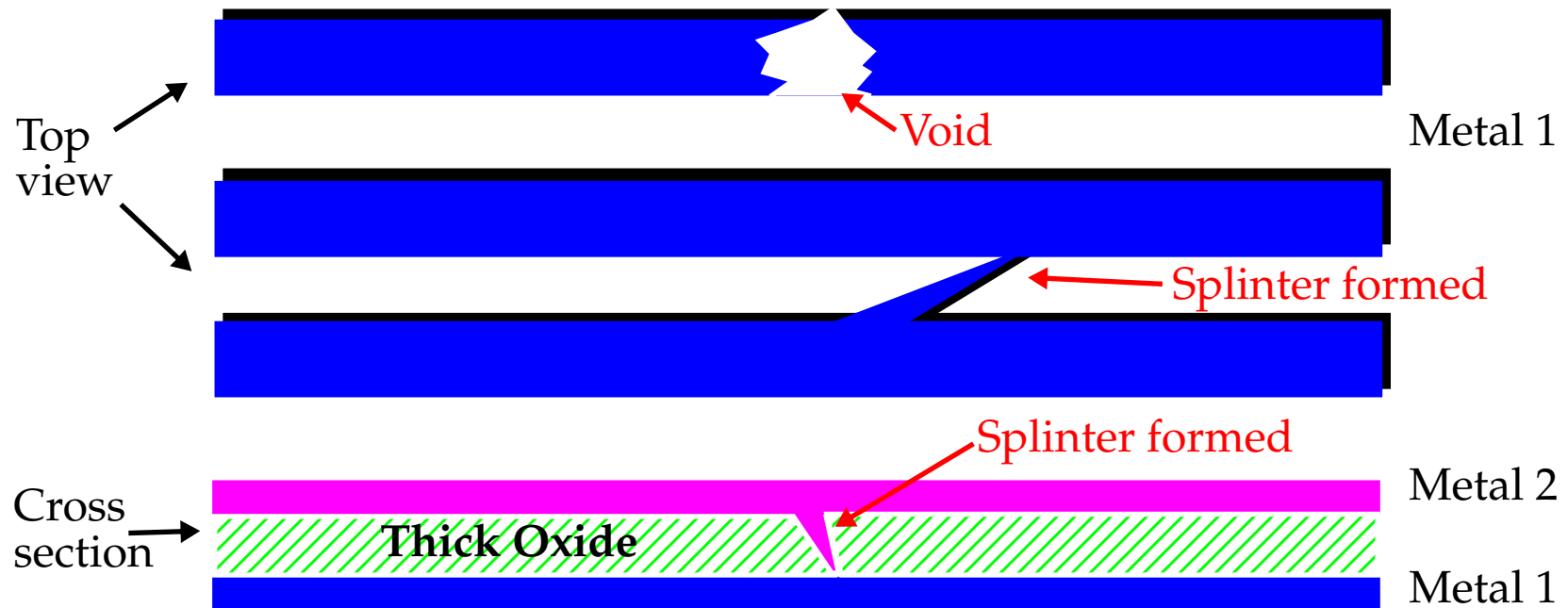
- Proportional to the width and thickness of the metal lines
- Inversely proportional to the current density



Physical Defects

Electromigration (cont.)

Three possible outcomes:



Complete defect characterization is difficult.

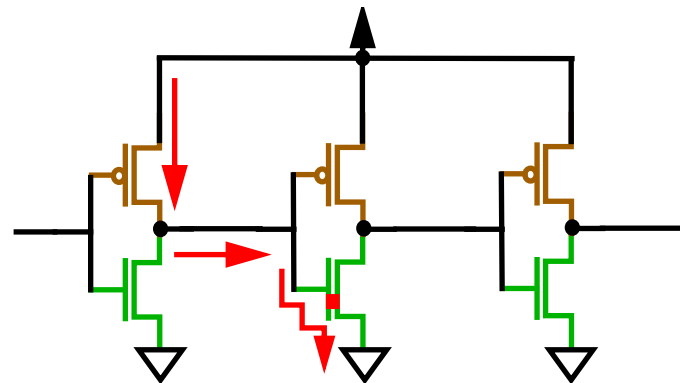
New failure mechanisms or old ones that become more prevalent through scaling make this a challenging problem.

Shorting Defects:

Shorts can occur:

- Between metal lines and V_{DD} or V_{SS}
- Between subnets as bridging defects
- And as Gate-Oxide-Short (**GOS**) to the source, drain or channel region of the transistor
- Via punch-through, parasitic transistor leakage and defective pn junctions

Gate-Oxide-Shorts



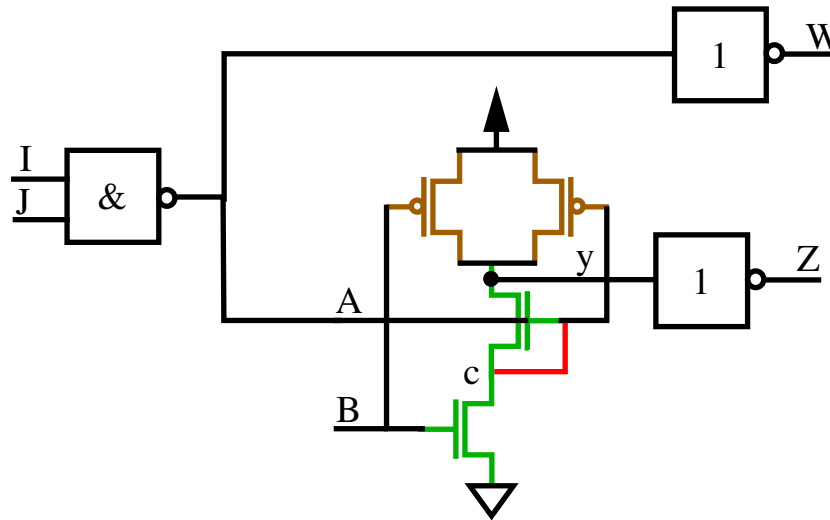
Hawkins and Soden '85

The type of fault behavior depends on:

- The location of the short (gate-to-channel vs. gate-to-source/drain)
- The type of the affected transistor (n or p)
- The resistance of the short and the state of the driving transistors

Gate-Oxide-Shorts

GOS can exhibit *pattern-dependent* fault behavior:



Hao and McCluskey '91

In this circuit, two of the possible faults include a *slow-to-fall* delay fault or *SA1* fault on node y .

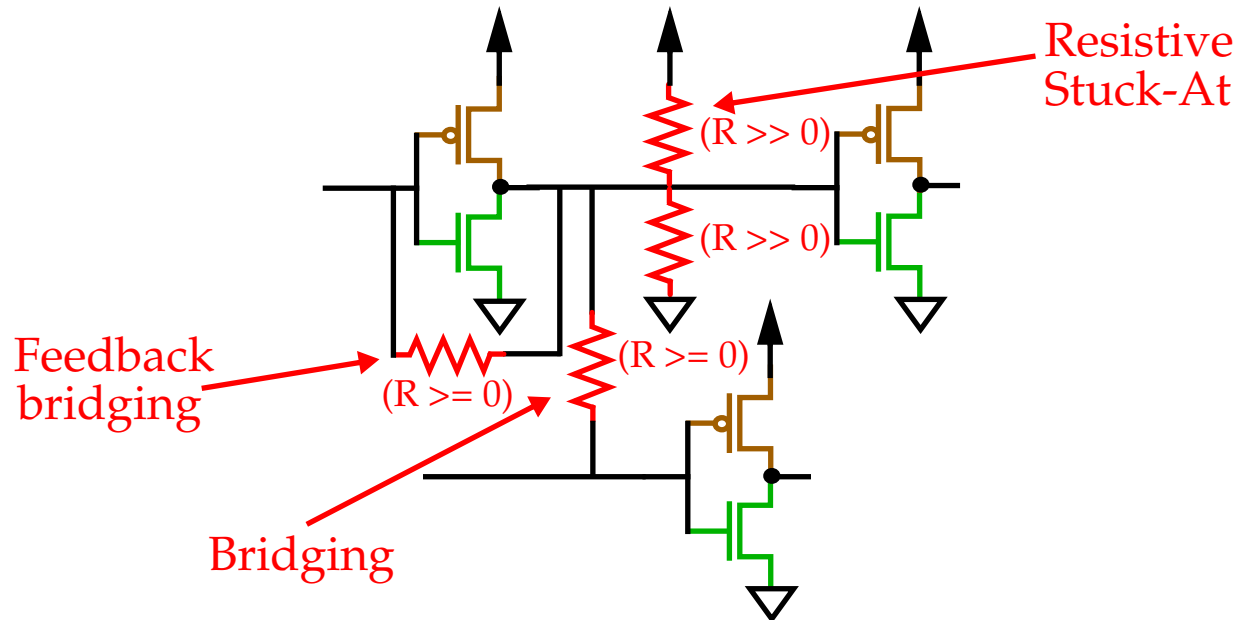
Test Pattern that provokes the fault $AB = (10,11)$.

However, several test patterns can set node A to 1: $IJ = (01,10,00)$.

This requires attention to inputs that are not directly connected to the Gate-Under-Test (GUT), which ATPGs typically do not consider.

Bridges

Bridges can be defined as undesired electrical connections between two or more lines in an IC, resulting from extra conducting material or missing insulating material.



Bridging defects may also develop after fabrication as a result of mechanisms including:

- Oxide surface conduction
- Lateral charge spreading
- Electromigration

Bridges

For Bridges:

Fault detection requires the test vector to set the shorted nodes to opposite logic polarities.

For *test generation*, physical layout information must be used to reduce the n^2 node pairings.

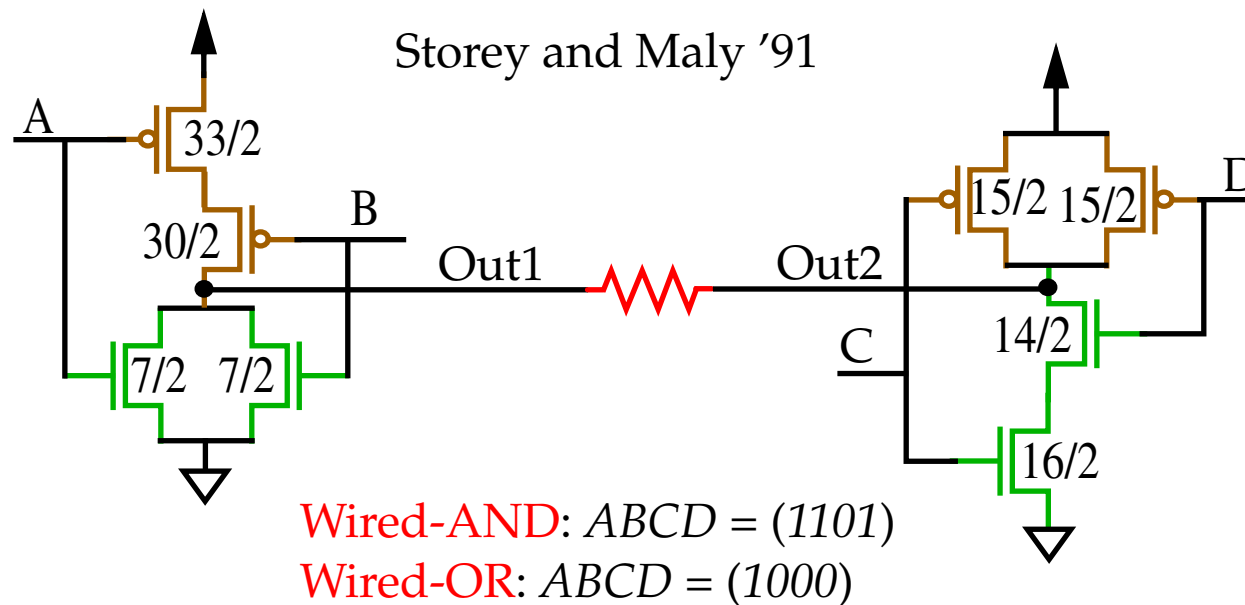
Failure modes include:

- If one node is able to dominate the other, a **logical fault** may occur at the weaker of the two nodes.
- If the resistance of the bridge is large enough (allowing the nodes to assume different potentials) then a **delay fault** may result.
- If the resistance of the bridge is small enough, the defect may significantly increase the magnitude of the **steady state current**.

Bridges

A *wired-AND* / *-OR* model used in TTL and ECL is not always applicable for CMOS.

- *Wired-AND* models the shorted nodes at 0 unless both are driven to 1.
- *Wired-OR* models the shorted nodes at 1 unless both are driven to 0.



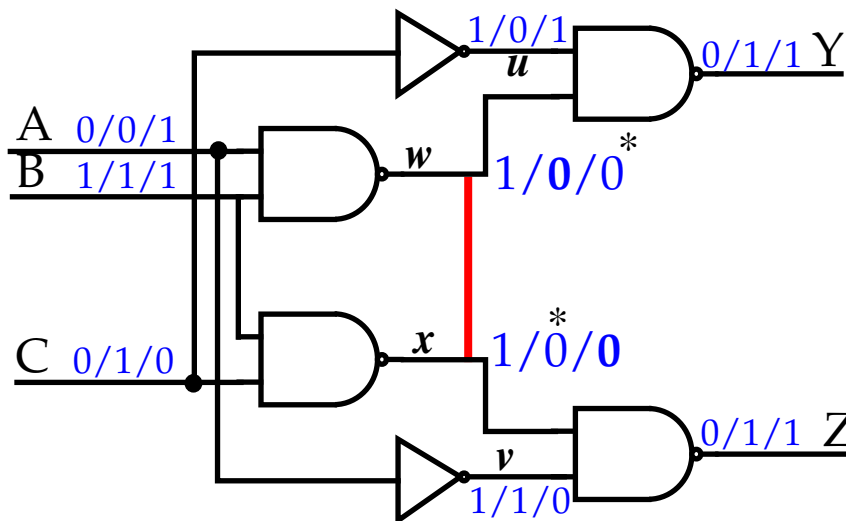
For CMOS, the faulty voltage value is dependent on both:

- The **relative strengths** of the pull-up and pull-down transistors.
- The **number** of transistors that are **activated** in the conflicting network.

Bridges

Even when a *wired-AND* fault behavior is assumed, it may not be possible to produce a test that causes a logic fault.

Ferguson *et. al.* '90



A	B	C	w	x	Y	Z
0	0	0	1	1	0	0
0	0	1	1	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	D	0	1	1
1	0	0	1	1	0	1
1	0	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	D	1	1
1	1	1	0	0	1	1

Delay fault on node Z results under the test sequence:

$$ABC = (010, 011)$$

However, no logic fault occurs under either test that causes w and x to acquire different values:

$$ABC = (011) \text{ and } (110)$$

Opens

Defined as opens or breaks caused by missing conducting material or by extra insulating material.

Opens in CMOS circuits are difficult to detect.

The fault behavior caused by an **open** is dependent on:

- Its location
- Its resistance
- Its width
- The values of parasitic coupling capacitances and leakage currents associated with the floating node

Most fault models assume:

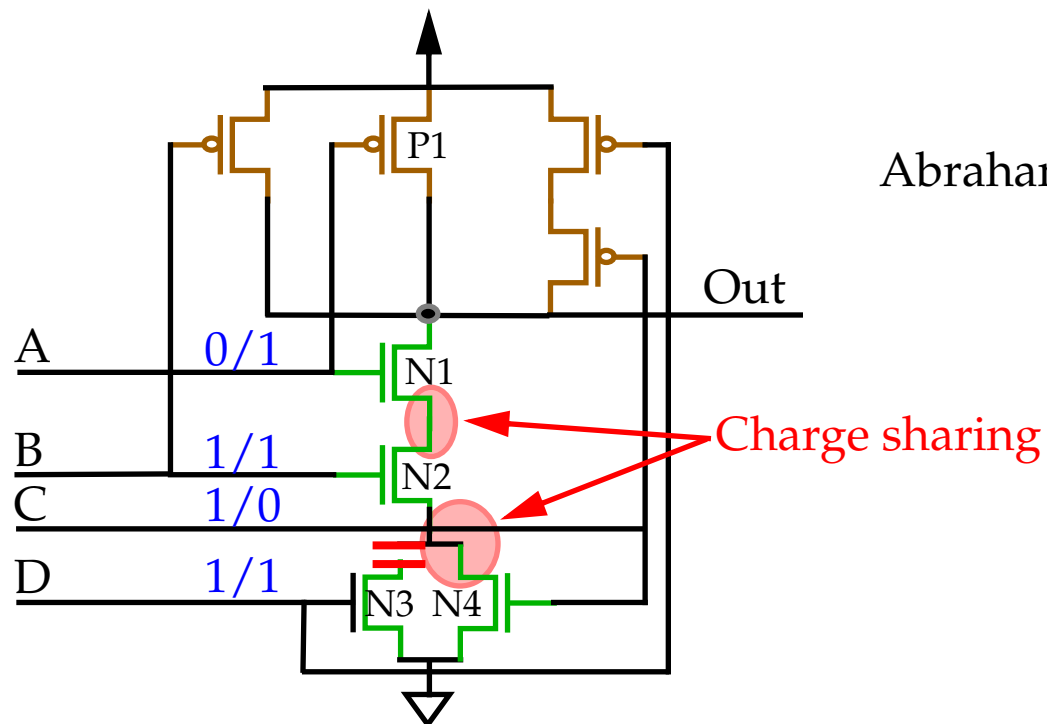
- The *width* of the open is large enough to prevent capacitive coupling interactions with neighboring nodes
- The effects of *leakage currents* are negligible

Leakage current, for example, make faults **timing-sensitive**, adding test application rate as a constraint for detection.

Opens

Effects such as **charge sharing** make detection difficult even when it is assumed that leakage currents are negligible and the width of the break is large.

Charge sharing refers to the redistribution of charge stored at an isolated node.

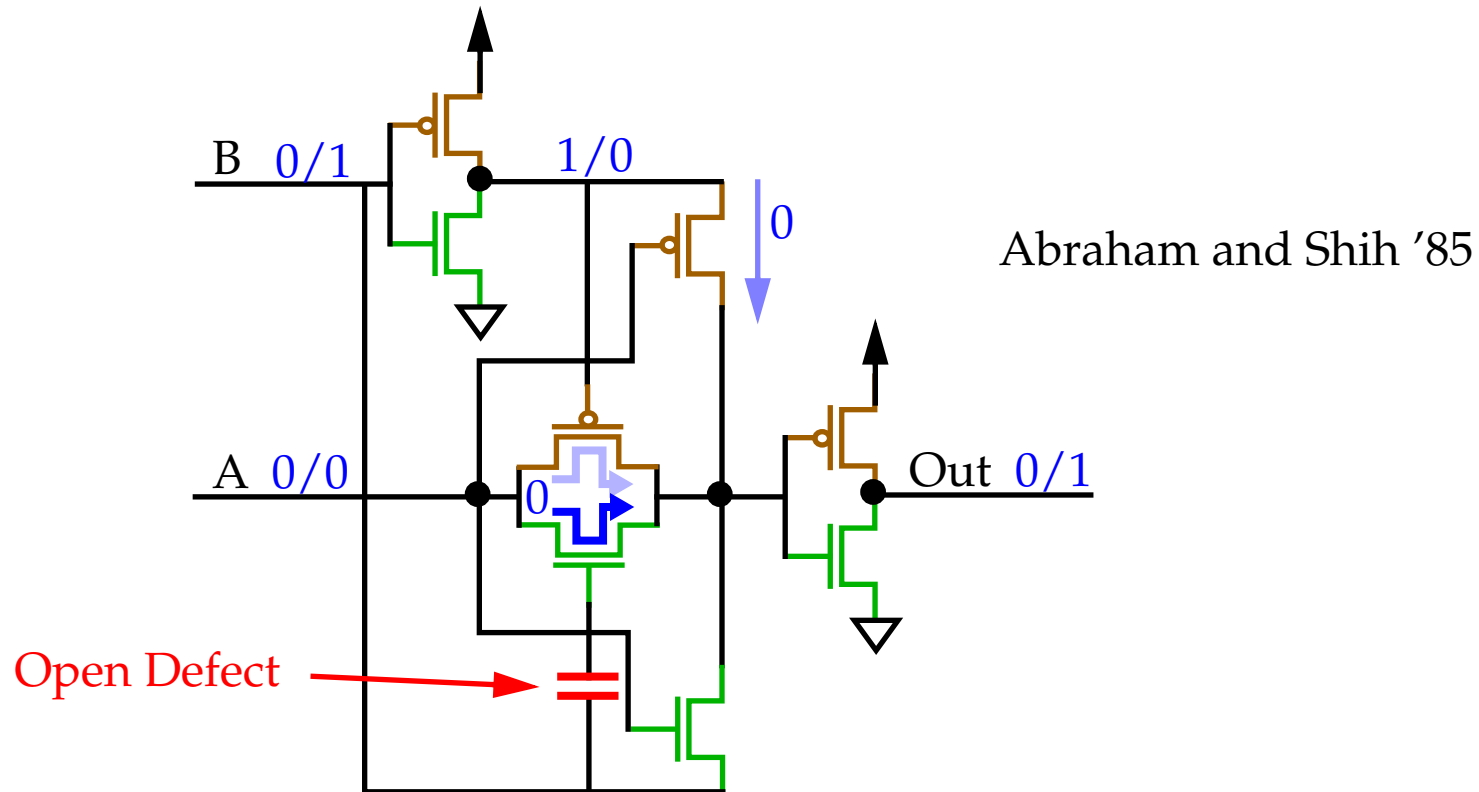


Test $ABCD = (0111, 1101)$ designed to test *Stuck-Open* defect between $N2$ and $N3$.

Opens

The same is true for *path redundancy*:

Path redundancy describes a circuit configuration in which multiple independent paths drive an output node.



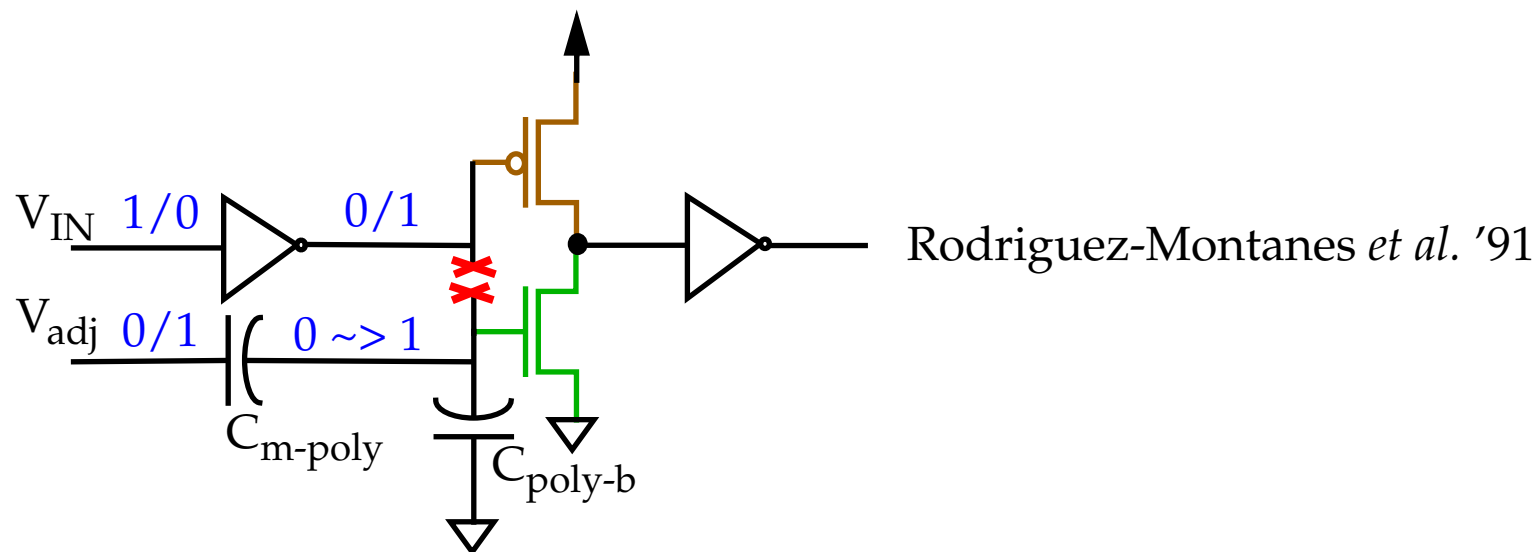
Operates functionally correct but is slower and may increase steady-state current.

Opens

Fault effects can be *time-dependent* for:

- Narrow (tunneling) opens ($< 0.1\mu\text{m}$)
- Opens in which coupling capacitance interactions and leakage currents effect the state of the node

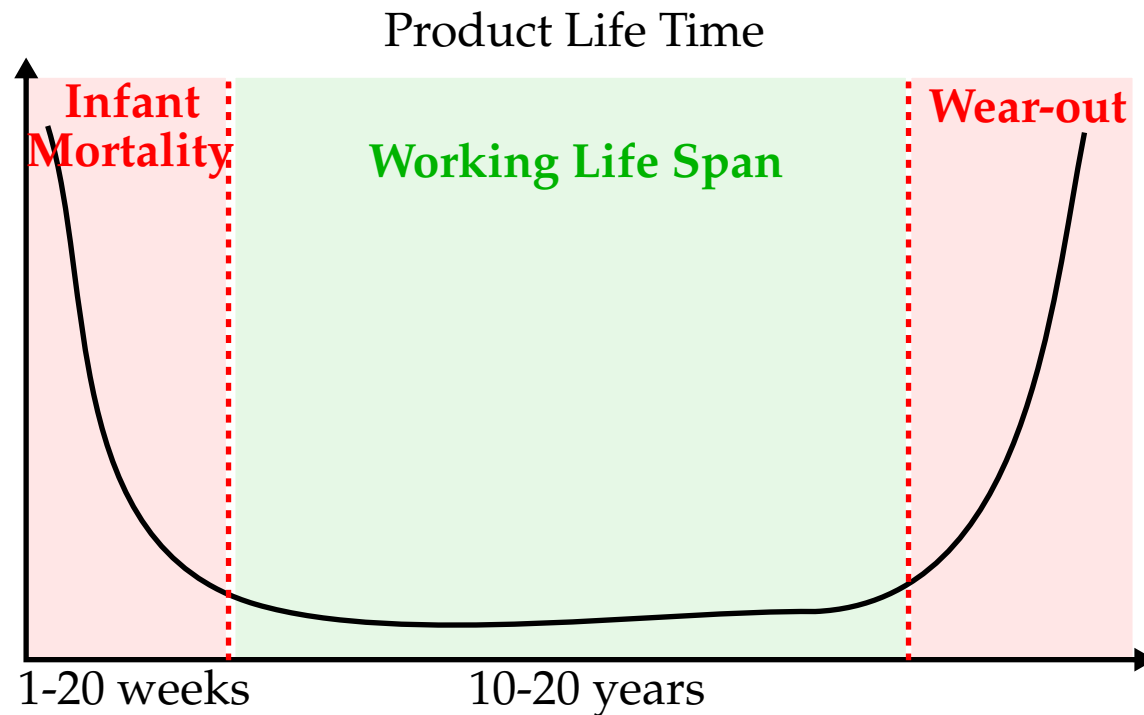
Capacitively coupled open nodes can allow the circuit to operate correctly but more slowly.



Also, **leakages** through the source and drain junctions can allow an output node to change state, given enough time.

Post-fabrication failures

ICs can fail at different stages of its lifetime:



Bath-tube curve

Infant mortality: defects that escape detection.

Burn-in is designed to screen these types of defects.

Wear-out: Characterized by an exponential increase in failures.

Main factor causing wear-out is *excessive heat dissipation*.