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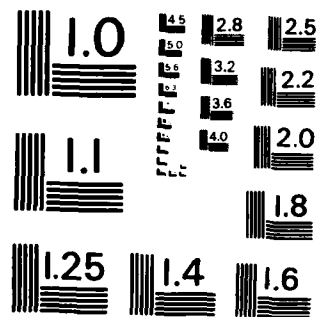
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RADC-TM-84-6
In-House Report
March 1984

ACCELERATED STRESS FACILITY 1976-1983

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R. Alan Blore

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ROME AIR DEVELOPMENT CENTER
Air Force Systems Command
Griffiss Air Force Base, NY 13441

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The complexities of the electronics on which we will perform reliability assessments can only be achieved through automation. Likewise, the complexities of the reliability assessment can only be met through automation. We must be smart in what failure mechanisms to expect, where to expect them, when to expect them, how to stress for them, and how to recognize them when they occur. We must be smart in what we are looking for, what data we gather, and how we analyze that data. We must be smart in how we specify the devices. We must automate the whole reliability characterization process.

This publication documents the developments that have taken place in the RADC/RBRP Accelerated Stress Facility (ASF) for the years 1976 through 1983. Section II highlights the modifications which took the ASF from primarily static bias to dynamic exercise capability. Section III deals with the automation of the stress tests utilizing evaluation kits through a network of minicomputers. It is through this work that the necessity and some of the potentials of automating the reliability characterization process and specifically the stress testing (over)

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portion have been realized as well as some of the practical aspects of implementing such. Most importantly, Section IV addresses some of those potential applications of automation which will be possible because of the incorporation of computers in the testing process. The integration of computers into the stress test process is truly smart testing. It will enable the gathering of more information with reduced labor, even in the face of higher complexity, higher cost, small volume microcircuit procurement.

Preface

The work described in this TM includes contributions from many RBRP personnel. Mr. Dan Burns and co-op students Kathy Chruch and Tim Paulin are responsible for the algorithm used during the EOS/ESD experiment for input conditions (Figure 17). Mr. Carm Salvo is responsible for much of the work resulting in the oven modifications and printed circuit board design and fabrication as described in the early portion of Section II and more importantly, for timely and consistent technical insight throughout. The construction of some of the EOS hardware and the identification of the STD BUS capabilities discussed in Section III resulted from contractual support of the Reliability Analysis Center. And, of course, the support of Lee Lazicki and her assistant, Beth White, who cheerfully transformed the seemingly endless revisions to produce this report.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

I. Introduction

RADC is the focal point for reliability assessment and assurance in the Air Force. Of the many functions that this responsibility entails, the facilities and capabilities for microcircuit reliability characterization through the use of accelerated stress testing is the setting of this TM. Specifically, this report has been generated to document what has been accomplished in the past seven years to enhance the capabilities of the Accelerated Stress Facility (ASF) at RADC and to give insight as to what is necessarily the future in stress testing. It is understood that RADC is committed to continuing to provide an in-house facility capable of performing reliability characterizations of microelectronics in support of Air Force and DOD programs. It is understood that the facility is not a high volume, routine type test house, but rather a facility to respond with reliability characterizations on high cost, small volume, state-of-the-art or custom applications of technology or the study of the emerging technology itself. It is also understood that if RADC is to continue to perform reliability characterization, we must make use of automation in all phases of that process, including the stress testing capability.

II. From Static to SMART

The goal of stress testing is to stimulate potential failure mechanisms. This is often done at stress levels different than those expected in actual application to effect an acceleration of the mechanism. Typical stressors are temperature, voltage, and humidity.

Elevated temperature testing is the most commonly used stress. Typical microcircuit stressing techniques can be visualized as shown in Figure 1. The most elementary is the storage bake where elevated temperature is used as the sole stressor for some period of time. This is effective for stabilization of device parameters and evaluation of epoxies and polyimides used for die attach and chip coatings.
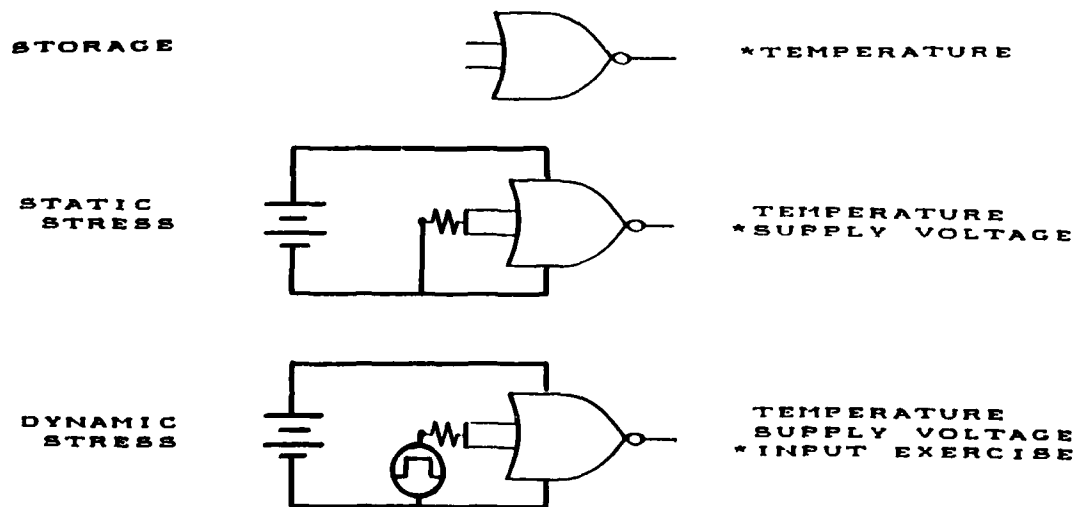
Figure 1: Historical Stress Concepts

The addition of static voltages provides electric fields which can accelerate

oxide breakdown, charge accumulation, corrosion, and material migration in addition to the temperature effects. Static stress is the most widely used stress since it is effective for accelerating many failure mechanisms and can be applied with relatively simple test hardware.

For larger more complex devices with internal nodes that are not directly accessible from the package pins, and devices which are dynamic by design such as dynamic RAM's, dynamic stress is required to stimulate the potential failure mechanisms. This technique seeks to exercise the nodes of the device to accelerate mechanisms such as charge injection, leakage, and oxide breakdown throughout the device. Purely static bias allows uncontrolled and unknown bias conditions to exist on the internal device nodes. A static bias is not capable of producing the charge/discharge currents, or switching transients. Dynamic bias is increasingly recognized as essential particularly as device geometries shrink and complexity increases. It is, however, considerably more involved in expense and test hardware.

It was this need for dynamic capability experienced during the in-house MX-ACT I study that motivated an upgrade of the RADC stress test facility. It was also recognized that the required labor and material could be reduced for both static and dynamic testing through better design.

Prior to 1977 a patch board arrangement as shown in Figure 2 was in use. This approach was useful for static bias but very labor intensive to set up and not suitable for dynamic testing.
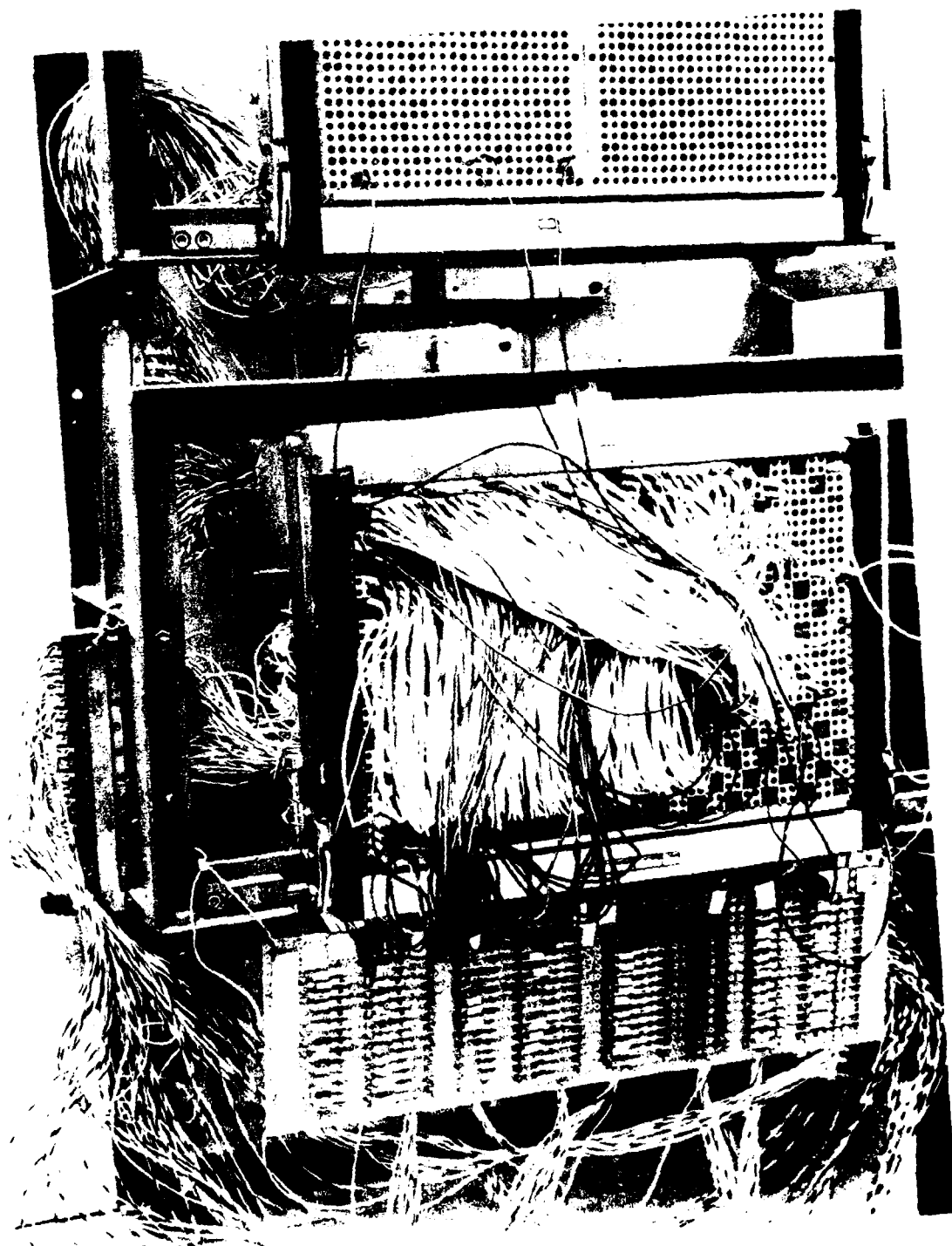
Figure 2: Patch Board Bias Implementation

Beginning in 1977, in-house oven modifications were started to provide dynamic exercise capability and to reduce the labor requirements. Two thermal chamber doors were modified with six inch feed through boards to card racks on both sides. High temperature device and feed through boards were designed and fabricated with nickel clad polyimide materials capable of 250°C operation. Each through door socket assembly was seventy pins wide. These sockets were arranged in three columns of ten each. Capacities per door were thirty, sixty four pin devices to one hundred and fifty, fourteen pin devices. Figure 3 shows the door configuration. Devices under test (DUT) are biased via drive boards on the exterior of the chamber. As shown in Figure 4, the drivers, which are identical copies of each other, are interconnected with mass termination ribbon cable and fed from a common pattern source. The pattern source in this figure is located in the top slot of the left hand column of boards. The regularity of the support circuitry and interconnections greatly reduced the assembly and maintenance time. Wire wrap connections were made standard, being quick and flexible in the small volume environment of the ASF. The figure also illustrates the use of an ac-dc disturbance analyzer with internal clock and printer monitoring the ac line voltage and the dc power supply to the devices under test. This is useful in detecting and identifying potentially damaging transients which may occur during testing. On top of the chamber is a frequency counter which monitors the operation of an exercise signal.

A universal DUT board was designed to accept dual-in-line packages with widths of 300, 400, and 600 mils. The basic board is shown in Figure 5 and some applications are seen in Figure 6.
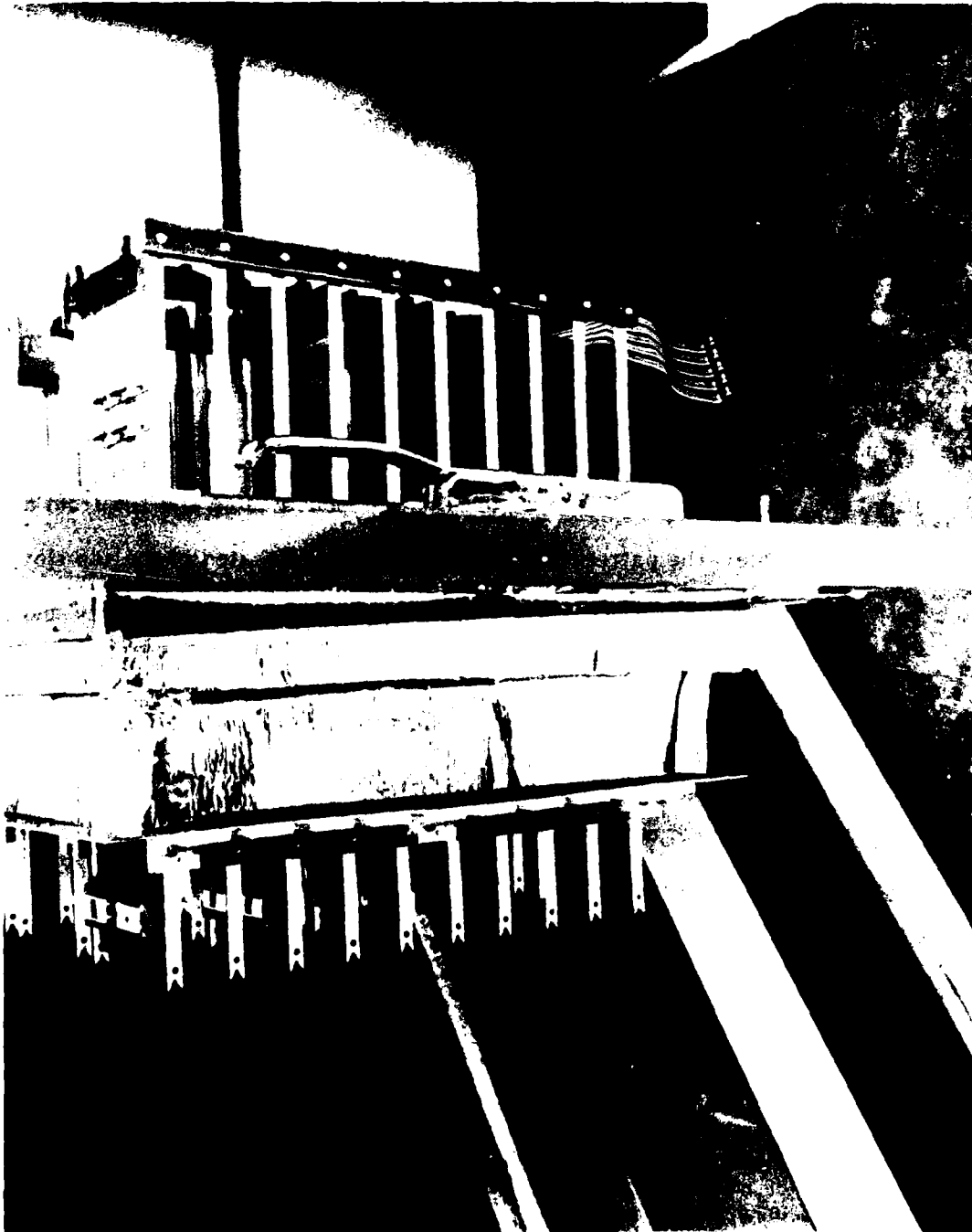
Figure 3: Chamber Thru-Door Implementation
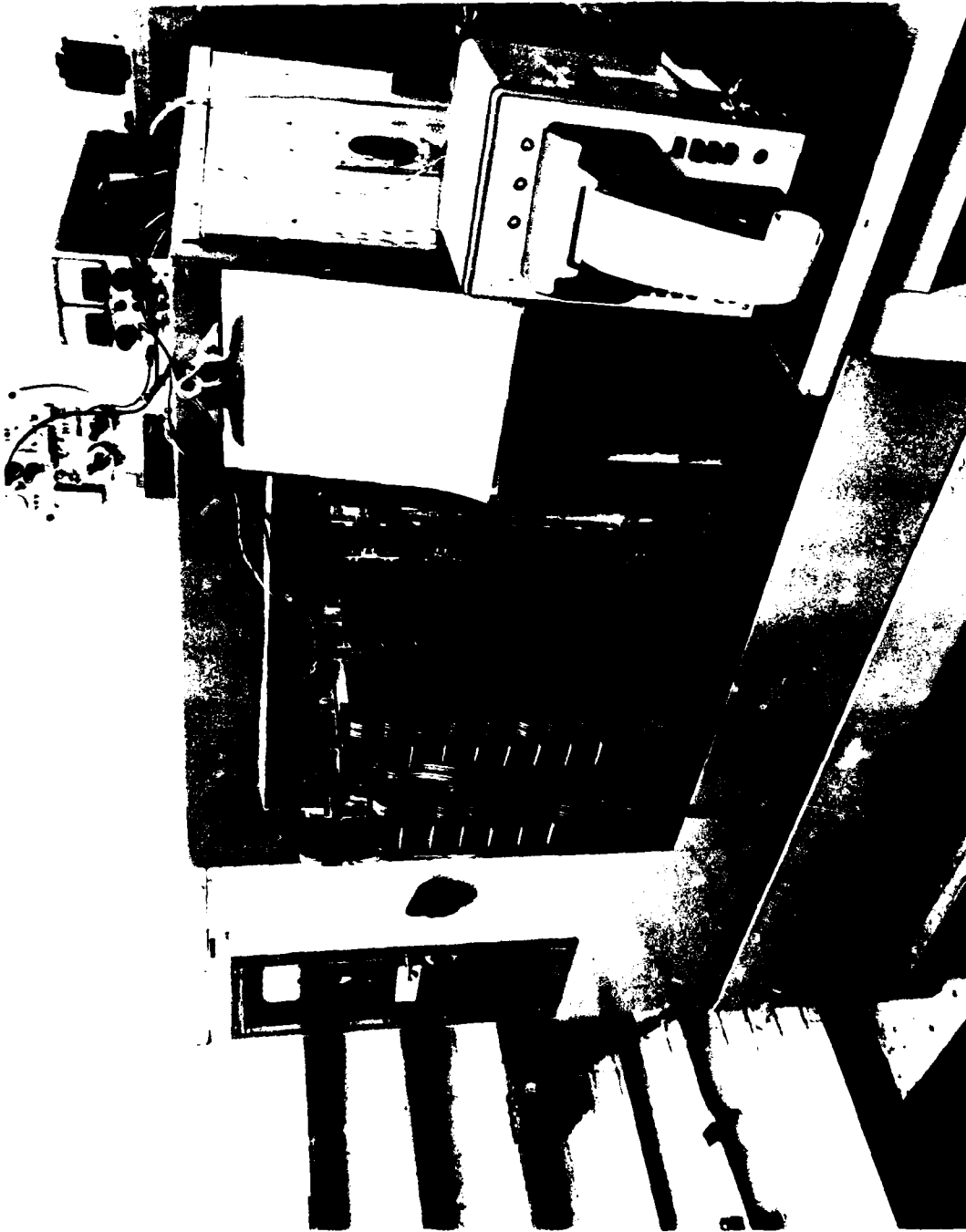
Figure 4: Thru-Door Application
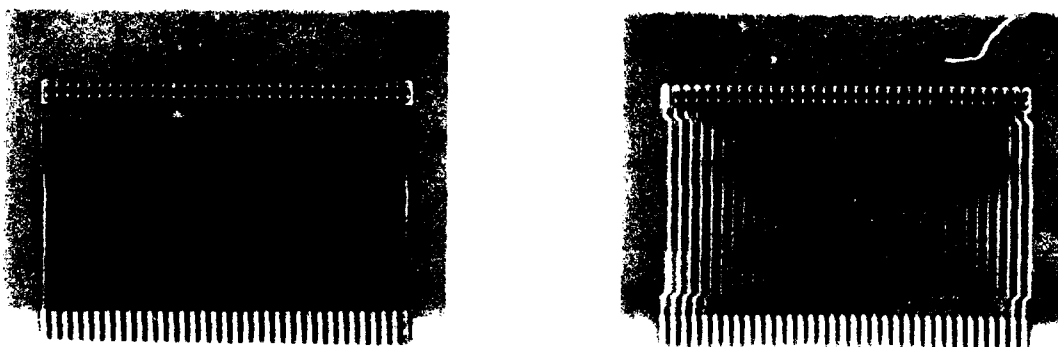
Figure 5: Universal DUT Board

These modifications made dynamic stressing up to 1MHz practical and greatly simplified the process of setting up the stress tests.

These techniques, high temperature storage, static stress, and dynamic stress are continually used to study the potential failure modes and mechanisms in semiconductors. The accelerated changes are not usually known until the DUTs are removed from the chamber and evaluated on Automated Microcircuit Test Equipment (AMTE). These tests often include parametric measurement of leakage currents, output drive capability, and functional verification. The functional testing on AMTE is intended to determine with a high degree of accuracy and precision that the DUT provides the output that is expected, when it is expected, for a given set of conditions including input pattern, voltage, timing, and temperature.

8
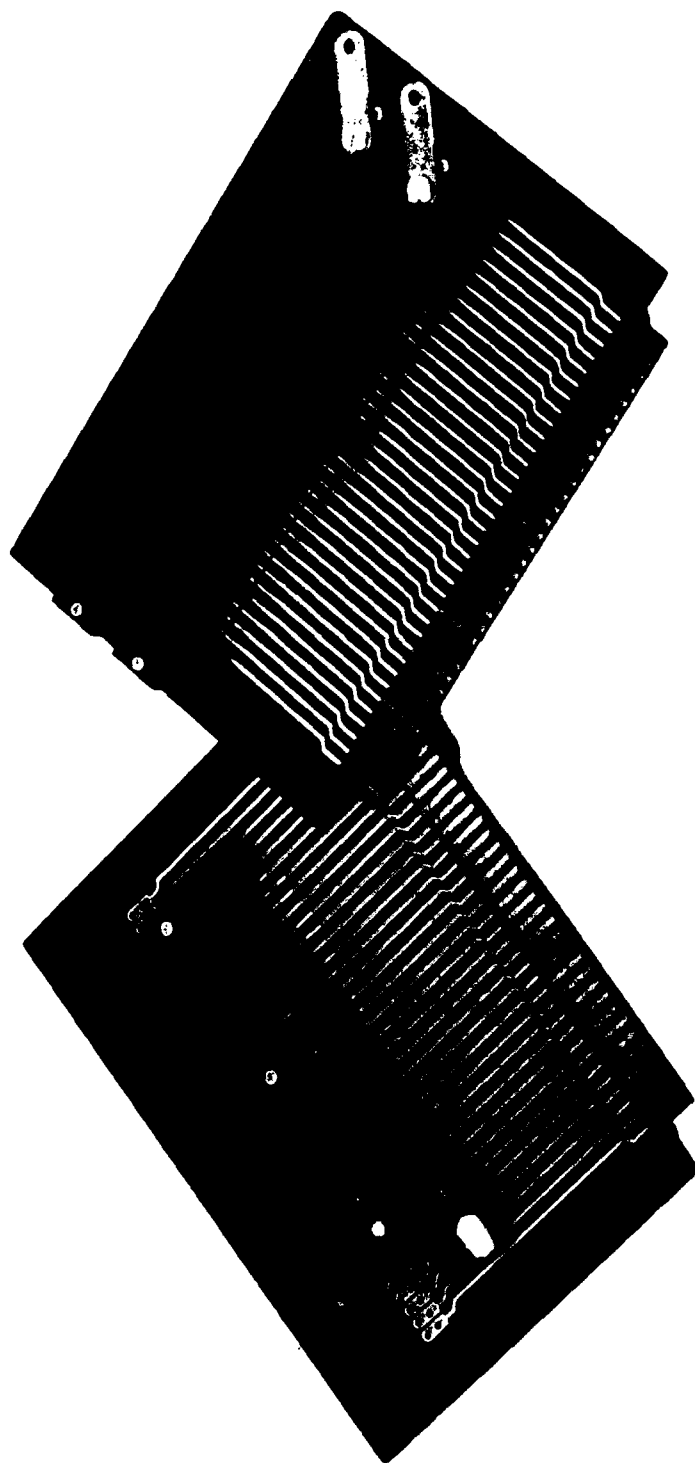
Figure 6: Socketed Universal DUT Board

If output monitoring circuitry were added to the stress test hardware, functional information could be obtained on the DUTs in the test chamber during the stress test.

This would allow many possibilities for increasing the device information. First, a major problem with AMTE testing is the time and cost involved in testing a device. Whether the device is good or bad each device out of the stress chamber is tested to some degree on the AMTE. AMTE basically tests only one or at most a few devices at a time generally in a round robin fashion. Test times in excess of a few seconds to a few minutes each are not affordable. In conventional approaches to testing, more complex devices require increasingly more complex test algorithms. The execution time for these tests quickly forces an extreme limitation of the testing that is afforded.

Time is not so much of an issue in stress testing. Current burn-in models such as specified in MIL-STD-883 specify 160 hours at 125° for Class B devices. Life tests are usually conducted for 1000 hours, 4000 hours, or even longer. The ability to functionally evaluate devices in the chamber would therefore allow more extensive device evaluations to be performed. Data on the whole population of devices under test could be gathered during the stress test and made available for analysis. The fact that in the past the effects of the stressors were not known until the parts were tested one at a time on the AMTE at some predetermined test interval was not a function of the information not being available. The data merely was not being accessed. The data is available. The time is available. The information needs to be gathered.

10

Secondly, much of the expense of the AMTE is the accuracy, precision, and speed required to measure any given parameter. The actual value often has no informational content. Were the system considerably less sophisticated, the informational content would not be greatly changed.

The test hardware at the chamber can address this not so demanding testing area. The fact that clock rate and timing edges will be slowed because of physical lengths, loading, etc., is not of overriding concern. The incorporation of test capability at the chamber is not intended to do away with AMTE. The testing at the chamber can make the AMTE more productive. The chamber test capability can bound operating regions, identify devices that are obviously good, no good, or requiring better capability to classify. By example, if a part fails to function in the chamber is it worth the expense of the AMTE? If an output appears between 75nS and 50nS earlier than the specification is it important for the actual time of 62.5nS early to be established? On the whole population of devices? For characterization purposes of a sample yes. For failure analysis, perhaps. For general product testing on the AMTE for all measurements for all parts for all temperatures whether good or bad, no. Such a use is a waste. The chamber test capability can be a screen to make the AMTE more efficient and productive.

An extension of this would allow the AMTE test program to be a unique concatenation of only those tests which are required to complete the database of information for each specific device. The test capability at the chamber fills in the less demanding and more time consuming data. The AMTE fills in the demanding difficult data. The demand on the AMTE is reduced. The total information available on the device is increased.

11

There are other advantages to the incorporation of test capability at the chamber. One of these has to do with knowing that the DUTs are in fact being stressed as intended. Escapes are those devices which elude the stress or the detection of the incidence of failure. The detection of a correct device function provides a means to insure that the electrical bias is being applied to each DUT and that the operating region of the DUTs is not being exceeded by the stressors. Devices can be damaged by incomplete electrical bias caused by broken solder joints, corroded socket contacts, etc., or at least subjected to a subset of the intended stressors and escape the screen to fail later in application. Another area of escapes relates to devices which recover to with i specified limits prior to testing on AMTE. For either case, testing at the chamber offers the opportunity of catching these devices.

Another important type of failure is intermittents. Intermittents due to thermal ramping of the chamber usually escape detection. MIL-STD-883 currently calls out procedures for checking signal continuity. The method basically addresses stabilized temperatures and represents a compromise of continuity assurance with the practical problems of acquiring that assurance. Testing at the chamber will provide the assurance of continuity.

Testing at the chamber also offers the possibility to detect another intermittent fault, namely soft errors. Soft error detection requires many device hours to be accumulated. Testing time and the number of device under test make this possible in the stress chamber.

12

One of the major definitions of failure is nonfunctionality. Another has to do with stability. The ability to test at the chamber will provide the ability to monitor device stability throughout the stress test, not just at the end points. Monitoring throughout the stress test will provide the ability to better characterize the fallout during the test, through better statistics and better correlation with failure mechanism. Such insight with corrective action will lead to improved yield.

As package dimensions increase the thermal mass increases and consequently the time required to achieve thermal equilibrium with the ambient. In the chamber all parts are exposed with bias to the thermal environment. Testing can be performed during the thermal transistions as well as with confidence that the devices are at thermal equilibrium.

Table 1 summarizes some of the advantages that testing at the chamber makes possible.

TABLE 1: ADVANTAGES OF CHAMBER TEST

Extensive device evaluation

Data during the stress test

Reduced AMTE demand

Assurance of stress test integrity

Hard/soft error detection

Improved statistical data

Thermal stability

13

The design and conduct of reliability stress tests has been labor intensive. The advent of dynamic testing represents an increase in complexity and monitored dynamic testing another major increase. More complex devices necessitate increased testing which further compounds the problems. There are more device pins and more device functions. Testing at the chamber is an answer. In order to implement testing at the chamber the stress test must be automated.

It should be recognized that the complex circuits requiring testing are intended to automate solutions; to reduce the labor; to perform the function better; to make practical new functions. By making use of these devices such as microprocessors, microcomputers, memory devices; the new complex devices, the testing process can be profitably automated. This results in not only allowing but expanding the abilities to assess device reliability while reducing the manpower, and increasing the throughput. The integration of the computer will bring the testing problem back down to size and provide many significant additional tools enabling reliability characterizations to be performed.

What is needed is automated monitored reliability stress testing (AMRST). It is simply the integration of three elements. (1) Electronics that are capable of controlling the stressors applied to the devices under test. (2) Electronics that are capable of monitoring the response of the devices under test. (3) Computer technology to intelligently interface these elements.

The key is the integration of computer technology. The test definition is then in software, not hardware. To change the test definition one changes the software which is quicker and easier than wiring a new drive board. Stress testing involves

14

waiting for something to change. Recognizing that change at the chamber involves gathering lots of data. Computers are excellent for repetitive programs and handling and sorting of data. Many of the time consuming, error prone details of actually conducting a stress test can be accomplished far better by the computer. One of the most advantageous features however, is that computers can make the stress test adaptive. Interfacing the controlling and monitoring capabilities via software will make possible an adaptive system whereby the stressors can be tailored to the response of the devices under test. Thus, stress tests could be customized to each particular lot of devices under test. "Burn-in to order", to a particular failure rate, or failure free period will be possible. The identification of bad lots of product can be made early to allow replacement with product that can be profitably tested. The stress test can be made to fit the parts and target reliability rather than a generalized model.

Incorporating the possibilities of AMRST into the capabilities of the ASF at RADC has become the major emphasis for the past five years. Various experiments have been performed to recognize and develop some of those possibilities. What was soon recognized was that the integration of the computer into stress testing is only the beginning. The opportunities that present themselves for optimized testing, enhanced data analysis, and more efficient and effective reliability testing are as tremendous as they are necessary. To put it another way, AMRST is really "SMART" testing. The next section deals with in-house experiments and results.

III. In-house SMART Work

Devices of VLSI complexity, capability, size, and "production" volume coupled with the increased emphasis on custom devices, short device development schedule, and increased labor costs make reliability characterization more difficult. Junction density, current density, electromagnetic coupling, thermal coupling, latchup, and smaller processing margins make reliability assessment more necessary. To get the needed information new methods have to be devised. New techniques for obtaining the necessary information from less data in less time must be developed. New methods of handling all this information must be utilized.

The key to these needs is automation and in particular the integration of computers.

The initial in-house application of computers in the stress test process took place in 1979. This involved a microprocessor evaluation kit based on the CMOS 1802 microprocessor. The evaluation kit consisted of the processor, 0.5K RAM, some parallel I.O, an RS232C interface, and a IK ROM with minimal utilities and monitor programs. All programming was done in machine language. The CMOS microprocessor system allowed a wide single operating voltage (3-15V) facilitating interface requirements to devices under test, clock rates of DC to 5MHz, single step operation, and was a fast emerging, promising technology. The evaluation kit also offered LED monitor lights on the data (8) and address (16) busses, control lines, state lines, and serial output line for debug purposes, user work space, and a capability to expand the memory on the single pc board to 4K. The cost was $250.
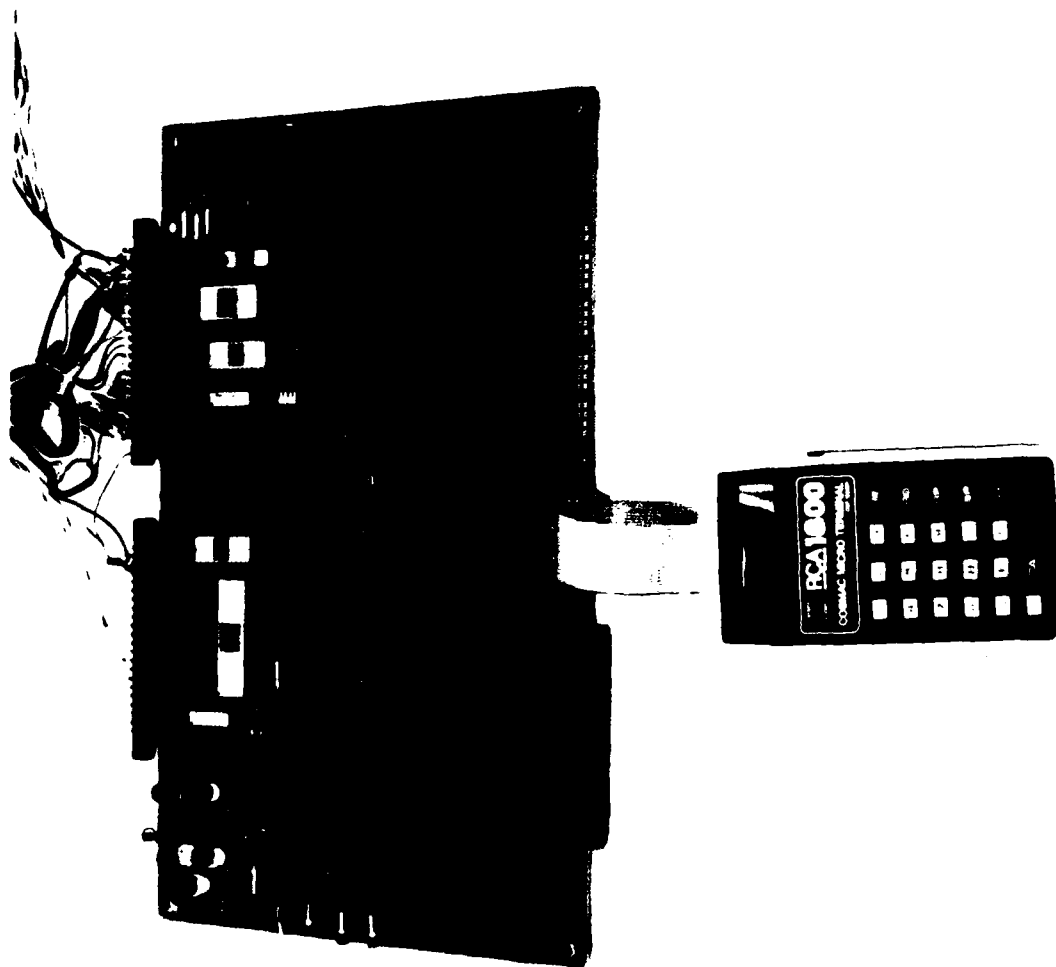
Figure 7:   1802 Evaluation Board

17

Figure 7 is a photo of the evaluation board with an auxillary keyboard terminal.

The first automated monitored stress testing experiment was performed in 1980 on some developmental MNOS memories configured 32 x 8. The objective was to study the retention of the MNOS memory as a function of elevated temperature, number of read cycles, and duration of the write cycle. The test was concerned with stimulating the loss of stored charge which would evidence itself by incorrect data.

The test setup is shown in Figures 8 and 9. The evaluation kit was programmed to generate the necessary control logic waveforms, addresses, and expected data. These signals were supplied to the interface board located in the bottom slot of the right hand column in Figure 9. A block diagram for the hardware is shown in Figure 10. Referring to Figure 9, the signals were buffered and drove the devices under test in parallel via the left hand ribbon cable. The DUT outputs were compared with the circuitry on each driver card by an XNOR and AND circuit. The resultant signal for each memory was cabled back to the interface board via the right hand ribbon cable where the results were combined by another AND circuit to generate a fail signal. Upon detection of this fail signal the uP would halt the generation of the exercising signal and input the individual failed device signal as well as the address of the fault. The uP would then process this information to determine if this was a first time failure for the particular device and location or a repeat occurrence. The results were stored in either a temporary or permanent failure array. Upon completion of the analysis testing was resumed.

18

Figure 9: MNOS Test Driver Hardware
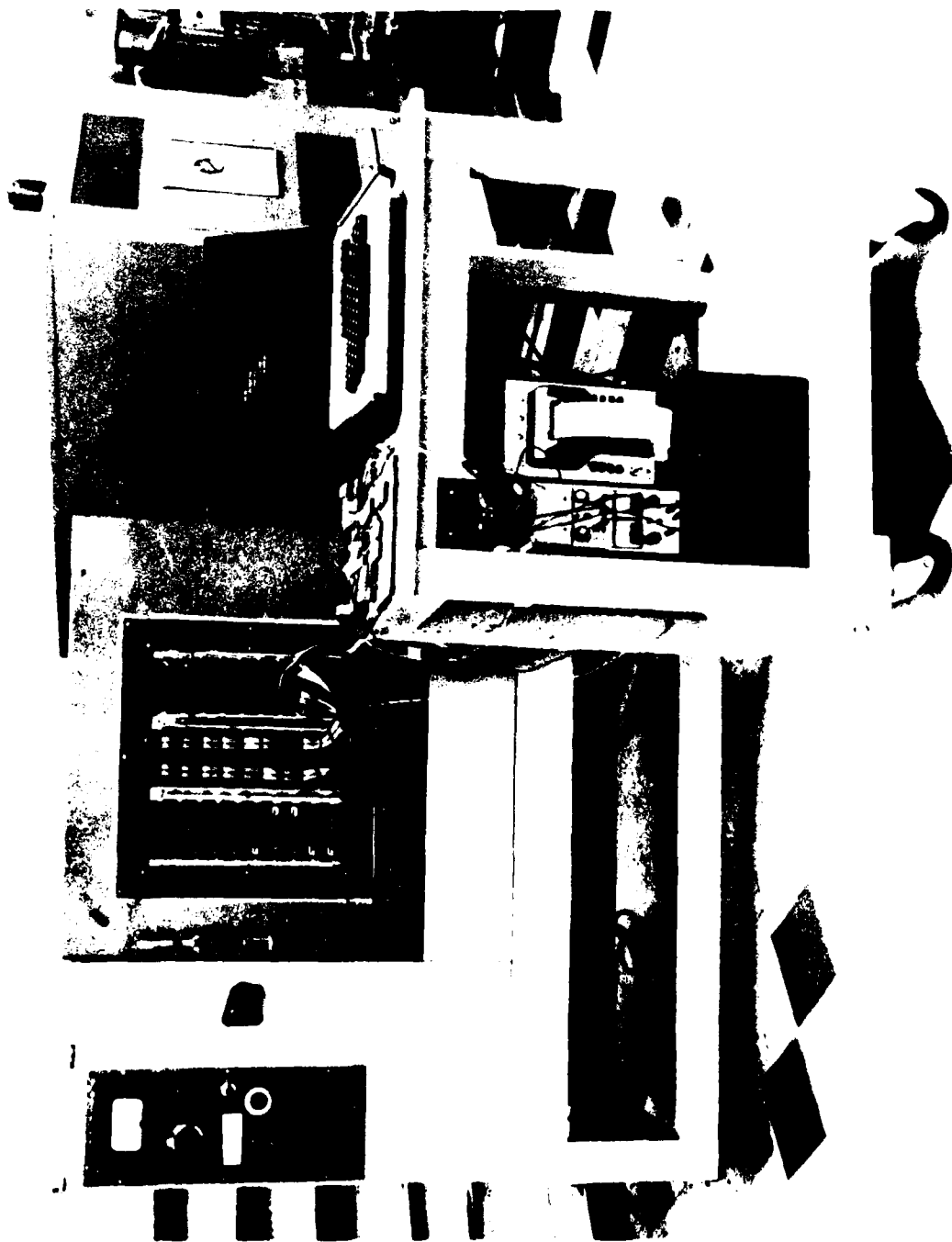
Figure 8: MNOS Automated Monitored Stress System
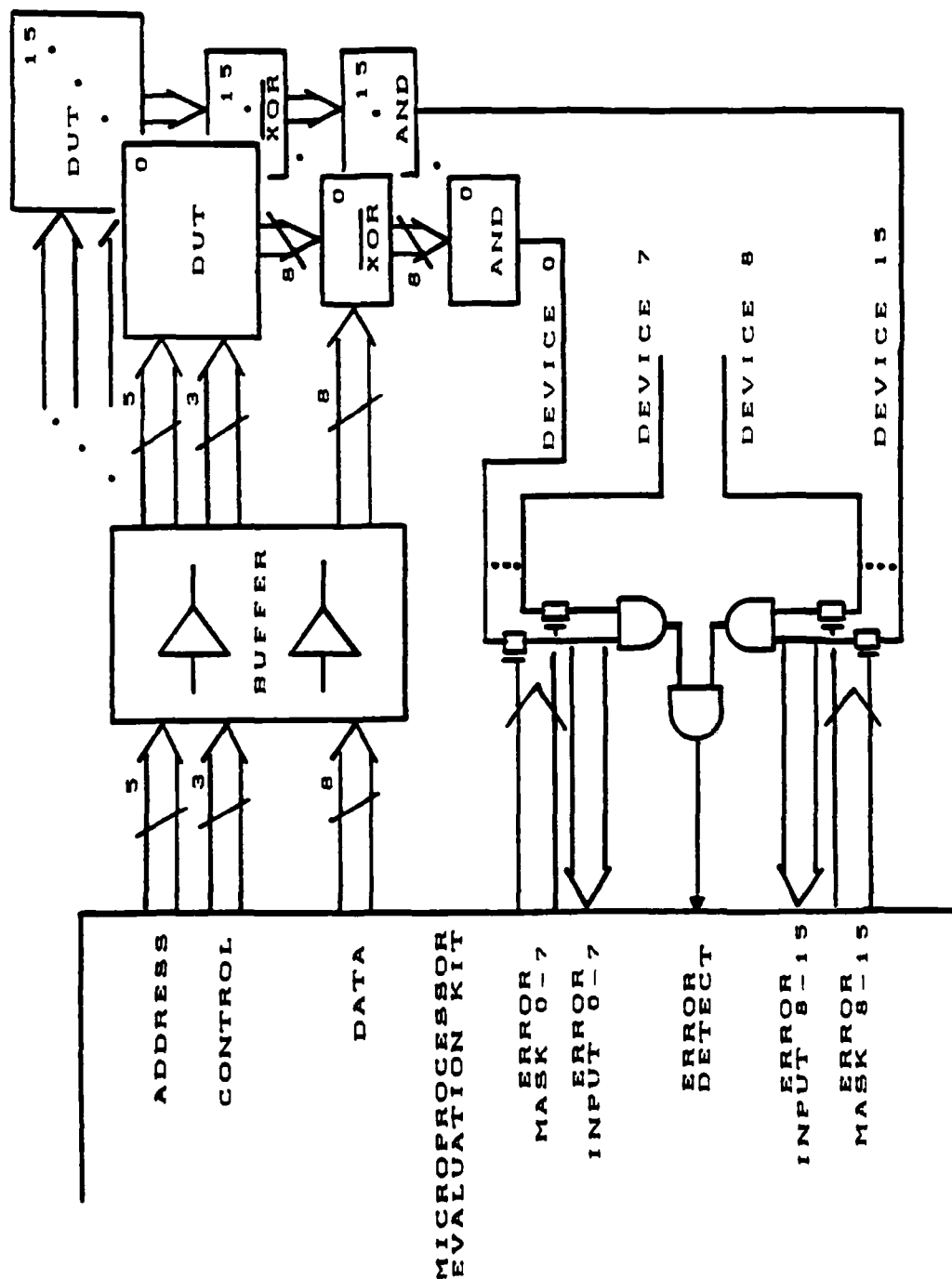
Figure 10: MNOS Automated Monitored
Stress System Block Diagram

21

Once a device address was determined to be a repeated failure the uP would issue an error mask bit to the interface board inhibiting subsequent fault detections for that specific device and address.

Sixteen devices were thus stressed. Periodically testing would be halted to read the temporary and permanent failure arrays.

Utilizing a 4MHz crystal the cycle time for the software generated signals was 64 uS which is a frequency of less than 16KHz. While this is relatively slow it resulted in 15625 read cycles per second which was 488 reads of the complete memory per second. Per day, the complete memory was read over 42 million times. In the course of a 168 hour (7 day) burn-in, all memory addresses would be read in excess of 295 million times. For a 1000 hour life test, the number of complete reads is upwards of 1.8 billion cycles. These cycles were performed on all sixteen devices under test. These numbers are summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2: MNOS READ CYCLE COUNTS

TIME	READ CYCLES	COMPLETE MEMORY READ CYCLES
SEC	15625	488
MIN	937500	29297
HR	5.62×10^7	$1.76 \ 10^6$
DAY	1.35×10^9	4.22×10^7
WK (168 Hrs.)	9.45×10^9	2.95×10^8
1000 HR	5.62×10^{10}	1.76×10^9

64 uS Cycle Ti·

The address sequence in this MNOS experiment was sequential. It need not have been. The program utilized an array to store the address sequence. A different stored sequence such as all odd addresses followed by all evens, or random, or some other generated sequence could just as well have been used. The changes could have been quickly effected since the pattern source and sequence were software controlled. Likewise, the designation of first occurrence of failure as transient and repeat occurrence as permanent could have quickly been changed to any occurrence or mask the error on the fifth occurrence. This type of flexibility is essential to stress testing complex parts and is easily supported with the use of a software programmable system including a software programmable pattern source.

The total software used in the stress test of these memories (exclusive of the ROM base monitor routines) required only 380 bytes of memory. This included an address array, reference data array, error mask array, temporary and repeat failure arrays, and coding to perform the control logic signal generation and data analysis to identify the failures.

Table 3 lists some of the recognized advantages and Table 4 the disadvantages of this particular test. The basic conclusion can be drawn that for some stress testing applications such a simple, inexpensive set up is practical, and offers many advantages to the test engineer.

23

TABLE 3: MNOS/EVALUATION KIT ADVANTAGES

Functional monitoring of every DUT

Software programmable exercise pattern

Software programmable data acquisition and analysis

Fault isolation to device and address

Temporary or repeat fault determination

Error mask for repeat faults

Boolean operations supported by uP

Simple hardware-Simple debug

Single board uP system

Effective

Cheap

TABLE 4: MNOS/EVALUATION KIT DISADVANTAGES

Machine language programming

Low clock rates

Controlled only DUT exercise signals

While the evaluation kit proved successful for the MNOS program it was also clear that for other test situations more computer technology would be required. The next application of computers involved incorporating a minicomputer into a stress test. The chosen unit was specifically designed for measurement and control applications in an industrial or laboratory environment.

24

Some of the considerations of utilizing the particular minicomputer in the stress test are summarized in Table 5.

TABLE 5: MINICOMPUTER ADVANTAGES

Basic design for measurement and cor.. ol applications.

Card cage approach with uncommitted bus structure (16 slots)

Digital and analog input and output

32K RAM expandable

Magnetic tape cartridge for programs and storage

High order language (BASIC)

Real time clock

Multiple RS232 compatible parts

Thermocouple capability

IEEE 488 interface capability

Auto restart after power loss

Multitask operating system

Self contained terminal and display

A key feature of instrumenting the test process has to be flexibility. This involves the type and amount of hardware needed to support the testing. A card cage with a common bus capable of being configured for the test specific number of analog and digital channels is desirable to allow easy tailoring of the system to the particular needs of the test. In this case, the computer cabinet housed all necessary system power supplies, computing logic, and a sixteen slot card cage.

25

The card cage was capable of being filled by any mix of digital in, digital out, A/D multiplexer, D/A converter cards, or other specialized interfaces with the exception of one timer card which had a particular slot requirement.

The primary application was to monitor and control an EOS/ESD experiment on 4011B CMOS microcircuits to study time dependent latent defects. The test setup is shown in Figure 11. The devices under test were statically biased. Each input to each device and the power to each device were controlled by a drive board which was under the control of the computer. The primary function of the computer was to control the drive boards, monitor the leakage currents in both V_{SS} and V_{DD} of each device, and analyze and store the data. Data arrays were constructed of part numbers, input vectors, measurements, and times of detection for parts exceeding prescribed deltas. The arrays were stored to the tape cartridge either when full or hourly. In this way data was maintained on the devices with no more than a one hour lapse. The device boards were equipped with voltage references to calibrate the A/D measurement for the circuit induced offsets. Comparison with measurements made on an automated microcircuit test system showed that measurements of 300 nA or more were reasonably accurate while multiple measurements below even 150 nA could be recognized to represent trends.

The experiment had three test cells; two for elevated temperatures and one for room temperature testing. The drive circuitry for each cell, illustrated in Figure 12, involved supporting 60 devices under test and controlling a total of 480 inputs and 60 V_{DD} lines, all independently, and 120 separate differential measurements points for V_{DD} and V_{SS}. The digital control required 16 digital
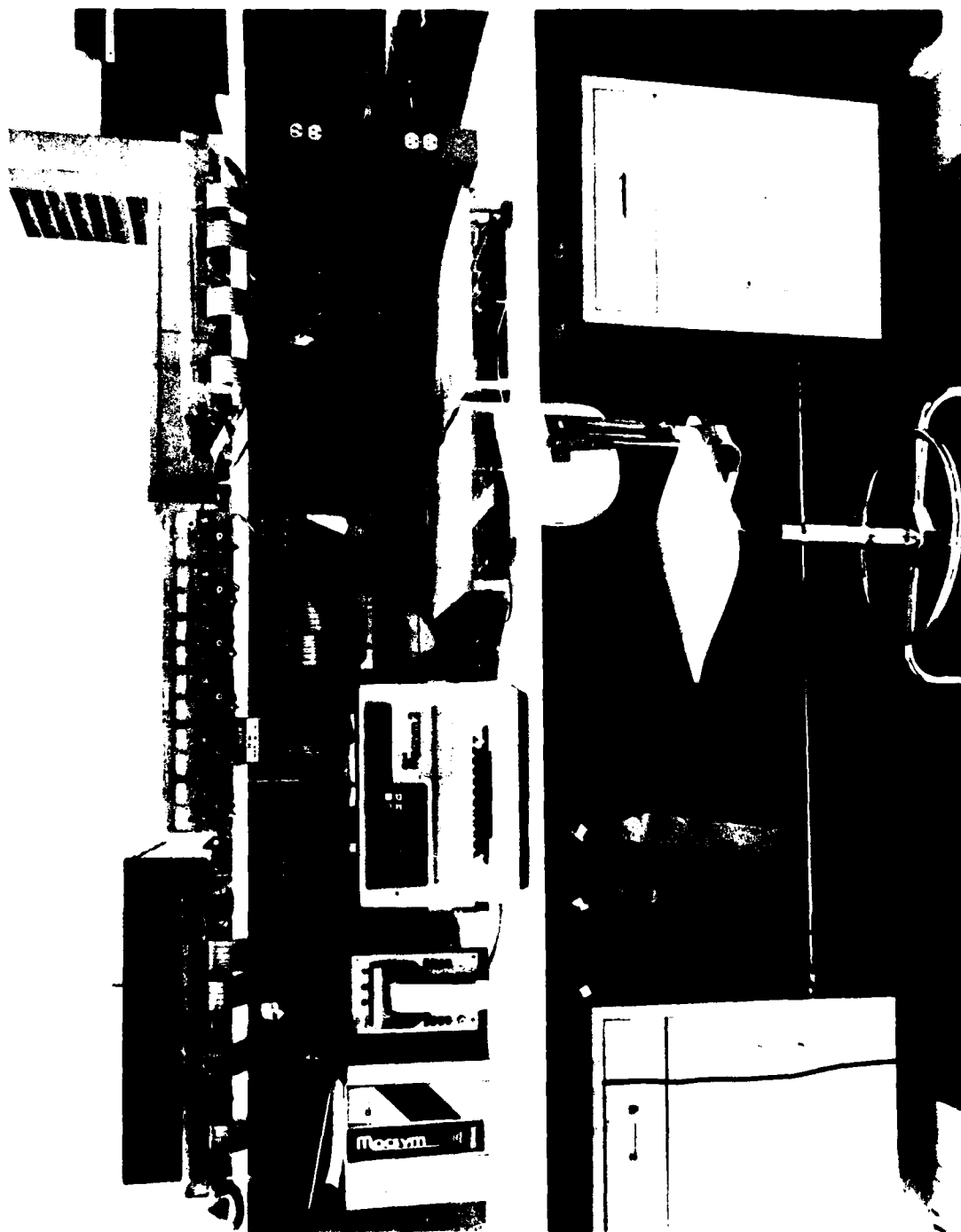
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Figure 11: EOS/ESD Stress Test Hardware
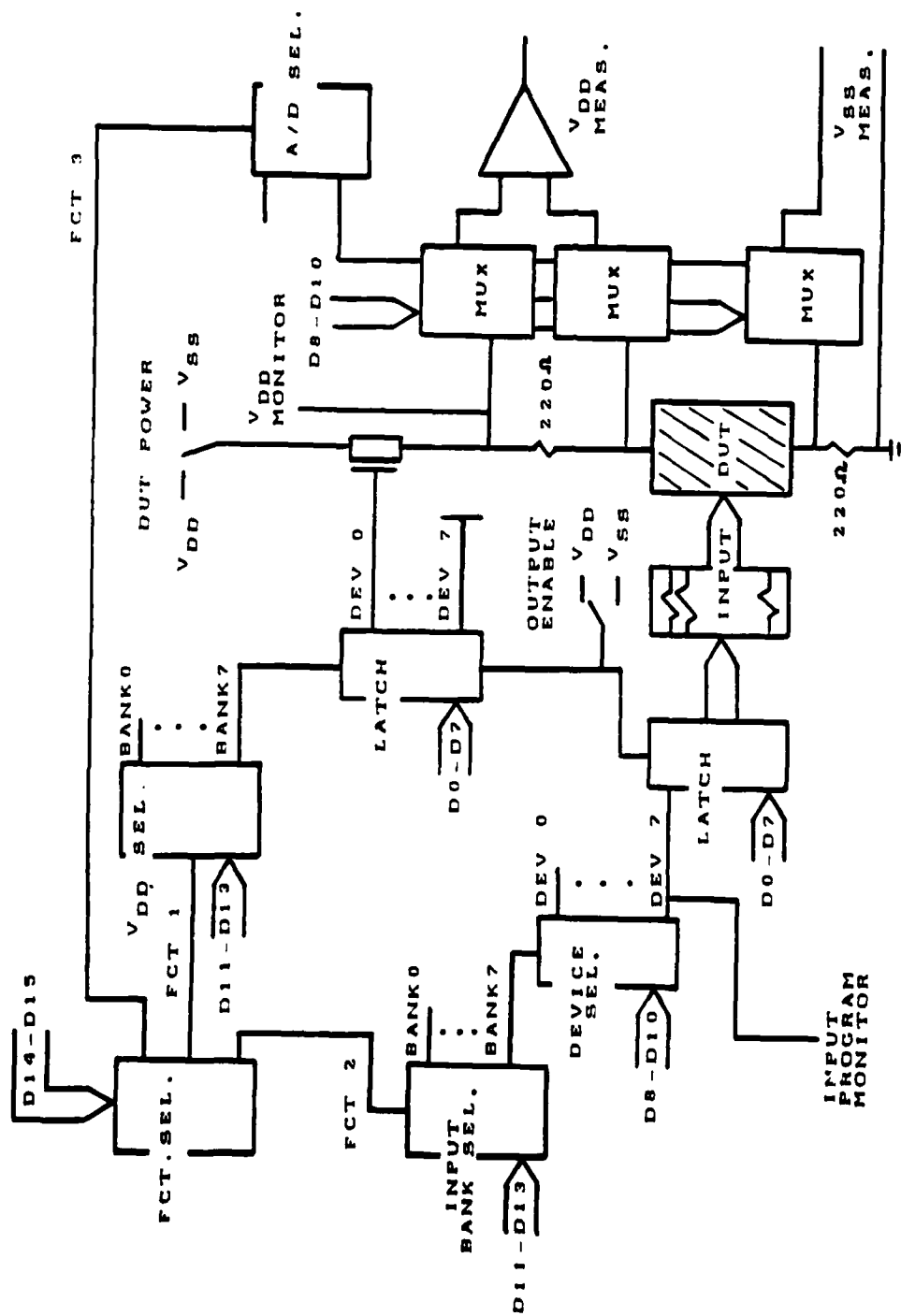
Figure 12: EOS/ESD Stress Test Block Diagram

28

output channels per cell, 2 analog in channels, and 16 digital input channels for bus integrity. Each drive board is comprised of 200 active devices with 480 connections and about 900 feet of #30 wire. Each connection to each device under test consists of three additional connectors,and five foot of cabling to finally place the signal at the device socket. While the regularity of the circuitry is high the debug and trouble shooting problems were involved. However, the use of the computer and a test jig which plugged into the DUT socket identified missing, broken, or misplaced wires, bent pins, and open or shorted connectors and cables allowing rapid fault detection. Furthermore the full evaluation could be made each time the socket was emptied for a device measurement and therefore better control over the hardware was maintained. The test jig, shown in Figure 13, is composed of a 14 pin dip extension cable which was plugged into the device under test socket linking the signals supplied to the DUT socket by the drive board under the control of the digital output of the computer back to the digital input of the computer. This provided a go/no go test for all 8 inputs, the presence of power in the V_{DD} line, and a check on the existance of a V_{SS} connection. By controlling the output of the drive board and comparing the received signals to the expected response the various faults were detected.

A major concern of adding lots of support hardware to a testbed is lots of support hardware failures. The incorporation of automation needs to stress the automation of the diagnostics. The computer can assist in failure recognition, location, and resolution of the problem both during the maintenance phases and the actual stress test. This is not a trivial advantage. Because real time information on the DUTs was available in this test it was possible to recognize, locate, and

29
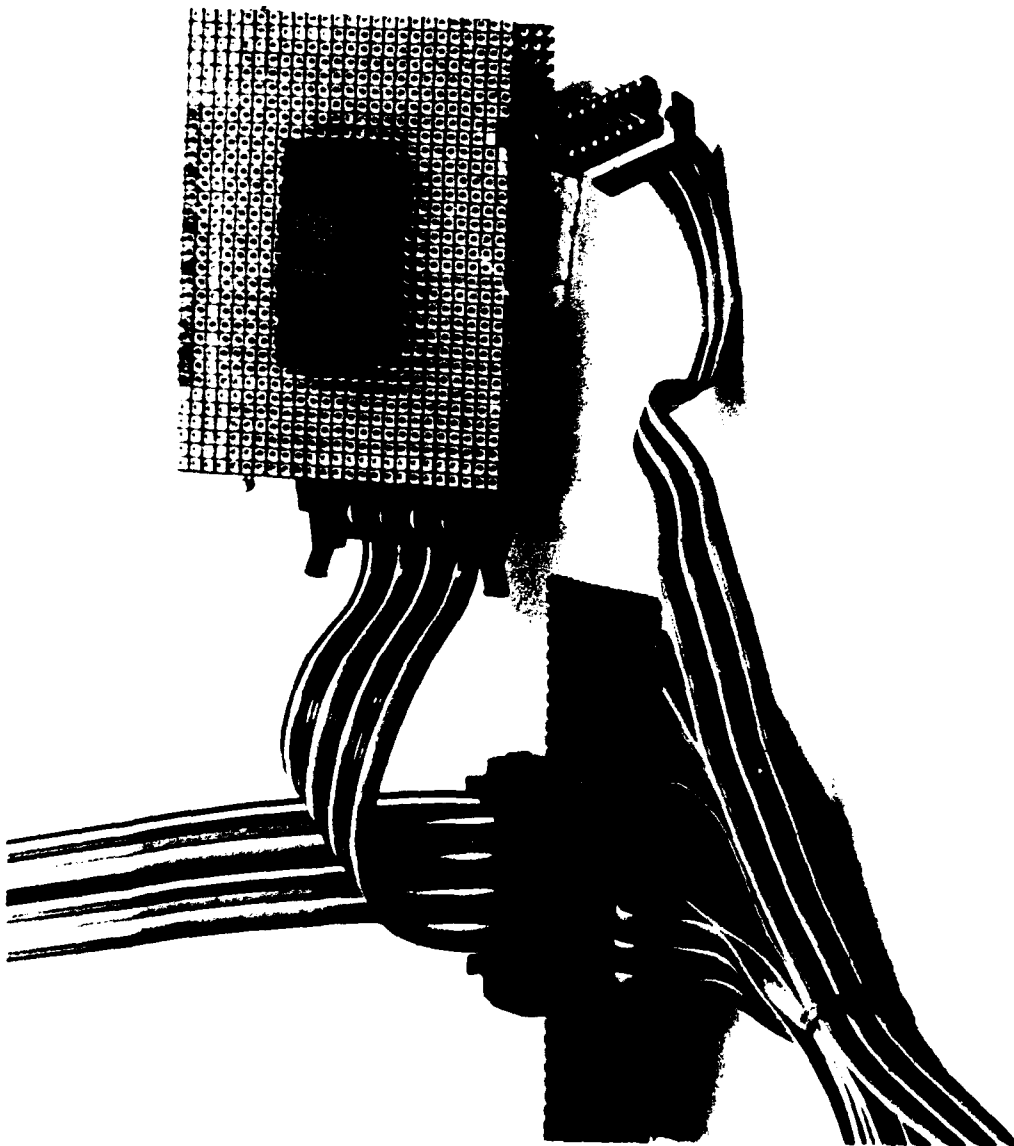
Figure 13: Diagnostic Test Jig

repair support hardware failure during the test restoring the system to the intended stress conditions. The computer also can provide information to assess the possible affects of the induced stresses and duration that the DUTs experienced with the failure. Without monitoring, the loss of signals can go undetected affecting up to six months worth of product even if MIL-STD-883 continuity provisions are adhered to. Even the minimal automated diagnostics applied in this program made a significant contribution to the sucessful test.

Other diagnostics consisted of verifying the 16 bit wide digital control bus which daisy chained through the drive board. This check could be done without affecting the status of the drive board and verified continuity of the control bus. Analog diagnostics were also generated to calibrate the analog circuitry utilizing the on board reference channels (eight per drive board), and using known loads in the DUT sockets.

The use of the computer facilitated the documentation of the hardware status. Hard copy reports indicated the diagnostics findings and allowed corrective action to be annotated thus providing a record of how the fault manifested itself, where the fault was located, and the occurrence of a repair. Figure 14 is a typical diagnostic report generated with the socket test jig for the digital logic. Figure 15 illustrates an analog diagnostic report detailing offsets in the analog circuitry. Figure 16 illustrates an analog calibration with known loads in Bank 0 Devices 5, 6, and 7, and Bank 1 Devices 0 and 1 locations.

31

```
CHECKOUT OF BOARD #2 - 5V

11/03/81 10:55:06

DOT SLOT=      15           DIN SLOT=      14

*****************************************************************************
BANK=    0

SOCKET    0        GOOD
SOCKET    1        GOOD
SOCKET    2        GOOD
SOCKET    3        GOOD
SOCKET    4        GOOD
SOCKET    5        GOOD
SOCKET    6        GOOD
SOCKET    7        GOOD
SOCKET    8        GOOD
SOCKET    9        GOOD
SOCKET   10        GOOD
SOCKET   11        GOOD
SOCKET   12        GOOD
***ERROR***
DEVICE   13        PIN    :
OUT=      1          IN=    0

SOCKET   13        GOOD
SOCKET   13        GOOD
SOCKET   14        GOOD
```

Regenerate whole card *JB 4/3*

Figure 14: Typical Digital Diagnostic Report

```
***************************************************   ****
****    MON. MORN. PROG. 3/3  15V          ****
INPUTS= 0      MEAS. DELAY = 10
DRIVE BOARD= 3  GAIN= 10
START BANK= 0   END BANK= 7

04/05/82 09:52:39          CHAMBER TEMPERATURE= 20.3401  C

**** OFFSET FOR BANK   0      AND   1      =    -954.39 MICROVOLTS

**** OFFSET FOR BANK   2      AND   3      =    -955.896 MICROVOLTS

**** OFFSET FOR BANK   4      AND   5      =    -955.105 MICROVOLTS

**** OFFSET FOR BANK   6      AND   7      =    -956.488 MICROVOLTS

04/05/82 09:52:38
MEAS. COMPLETE AT      9  52  38

**** VALUES IN        MICROVOLTS

BANK= 0
    VSS AVG.= .596046      VDD AVG.= -2.53634

BANK= 1
    VSS AVG.= -81.3007     VDD AVG.= -2.36034

BANK= 2
    VSS AVG.= 0            VDD AVG.= 283.294

BANK= 3
    VSS AVG.= 8.43406      VDD AVG.= -.758171

BANK= 4
    VSS AVG.= -1.87755     VDD AVG.= -2.96831

BANK= 5
    VSS AVG.= -61.3728     VDD AVG.= -2.30142

BANK= 6
    VSS AVG.= 3.75507      VDD AVG.= -3.44515

BANK= 7
    VSS AVG.= 3.12924      VDD AVG.= -3.14713
```

Figure 15: Typical Analog Diagnostic Report

```
***** EOS/ESD   EXPERIMENT  *****

*****  10/05/82 15:05:31   *****


BOARD NO. = 2    TEMPERATURE= 22 C      TAPE A  FILE 2

DATE 10 /5      START TIME 14 :59 :19   STOP TIME 15 :2 :47

START BANK 0    STOP BANK 7



BANK    0                                              IDD           ISS
DEVICE 0     STRESS VECTOR 230   POWER ON - 1 FAULTS    10. NA      170. NA
DEVICE 1     STRESS VECTOR 147   POWER ON - GOOD        10. NA        0. NA
DEVICE 2     STRESS VECTOR 78    POWER ON - GOOD        40. NA        0. NA
DEVICE 3     STRESS VECTOR 57    POWER ON - GOOD        20. NA       30. NA
DEVICE 4     STRESS VECTOR 228   POWER ON - GOOD        20. NA       20. NA
DEVICE 5     STRESS VECTOR 147   POWER ON - GOOD       420. NA      390. NA
DEVICE 6     STRESS VECTOR 78    PREV. POWER OFF      1740. NA     2240. NA
DEVICE 7     STRESS VECTOR 57    PREV. POWER OFF      1360. NA     1890. NA

BANK    1                                              IDD           ISS
DEVICE 0     STRESS VECTOR 228   PREV. POWER OFF     40000. NA    40000. NA
DEVICE 1     STRESS VECTOR 147   PREV. POWER OFF     70000. NA    70000. NA
DEVICE 2     STRESS VECTOR 78    POWER ON - GOOD        20. NA       30. NA
DEVICE 3     STRESS VECTOR 57    POWER ON - GOOD         0. NA       20. NA
DEVICE 4     STRESS VECTOR 228   POWER ON - GOOD         0. NA       40. NA
DEVICE 5     STRESS VECTOR 147   POWER ON - GOOD        30. NA       20. NA
DEVICE 6     STRESS VECTOR 78    POWER ON - GOOD        40. NA       80. NA
DEVICE 7     STRESS VECTOR 57    POWER ON - GOOD        20. NA       90. NA
```

Figure 16: Typical Analog Calibration Report

The real time knowledge of the testbed made possible the detection of various fluctuations otherwise not observable and also the means of tracking and correlating various events. In one situation, leakage measurements were occasionallynoted many of which exceeded the delta limit. Various correlations with power supply drift, line voltage transients, oven temperature variations, and computer temperature variations were examined but showed no correlation. The culprit turned out to be spurious radiation from the high voltage horizontal sweep in a CRT terminal associated with another computerized testbed. When the terminal was turned on to monitor progress of the other experiment interference would produce higher than normal currents measurements. When the terminal was turned off the measurements returned to their previous values. There were no residual effects.

Suppose that there was a permanent effect induced in the components. The automated monitored test would detect that and assist in the source identification and correction. If the testbed were not monitored however, the permanent damage would have been induced but not detected until the parts were subjected to AMTE testing at the end of the stress period; perhaps 1000 hours later. It would not be known that a problem unrelated to the quality of the parts had occurred and it would be very difficult to determine what did happen for that test. The tester would indicate damage. Did that damage occur during the controlled stresses, on the tester itself, or in the handling of the device between the test socket and the AMTE? Is the damage test induced or a problem of the device population being tester? Data gathered while the part is in the chamber would identify whether the damage occurred during the controlled stressing or subsequent to that time and indicates the time distribution of device failures.

35

It is important to know if the test procedures are inducing faults so that the lab procedures and personnel can be corrected, not the device manufacturer. The cost, complexity, and quantity of devices we test cannot afford specious failures.

The computer made possible more complex algorithms to be used in testing the parts. Oxide breakdown was expected as a primary fault and gradually increased leakage due to charged particle accumulation such as ionic drift was the other main expected failure mechanism. The device was a quad, two input NAND. Initial input patterns were chosen to bias one gate with all ones, one gate with both zeros, one gate with a zero and one pattern, and the other with a one and zero pattern. The pattern was rotated such that the same input on any 4 consecutive devices had a different pattern. Thus, the initial input word for every fourth device was the same; sequential devices were different (See Figure 17).

DEVICE	BINARY	DECIMAL
0	11 10 01 00	228
1	10 01 00 11	147
2	01 00 11 10	78
3	00 11 10 01	57
4	11 10 01 00	228
5	10 01 00 11	147
o	o	o
o	o	o
o	o	o

Figure 17: Initial Input Vector Rotation

36

The computer maintained the previous acceptable current readings and the input vectors. On a polling basis the I_{SS} and I_{DD} currents of each device were measured. If the computer determined a current reading in excess of the delta limit it would store the information and update the reference. It if exceeded the failure definition the computer would use an algorithm to search for an input condition which would produce a leakage within the limit allowing stressing to continue. The algorithm changed each of the eight inputs independently. All possible input conditions for each gate were thereby checked with just thirteen vectors. With the algorithm used, a single stuck at fault could always be resolved. Multiple faults were sometimes resolvable. Should there be none of the thirteen input vectors which gave leakage currents below the failure limit, the device inputs were programmed to ground and the V_{DD} power to that particular device was shut off. The appropriate information was stored. The device could be repowered at some future time and rechecked. In this way the part could be baked unbiased. If the fault was due to ionic drift the absence of an electric field in the presence of the elevated temperature should result in baking out the problem (failure analysis technique). If the fault did not clear with the unbiased bake then the indication would be an oxide short.

Particularly for CMOS, the leakage currents are the key parameters indicating failure. By measuring the I_{SS} and I_{DD} leakage parameters, information could also be gained on the location of the fault. Equivalent currents measured for both I_{DD} and I_{SS} indicated that either both the upper and lower input protective networks were damaged or that the input was an open circuit causing the input node to float to an intermediate value biasing both n and p transistors. The size and constancy of the currents would be helpful in distinguishing these conditions.

37

If the I_{DD} and I_{SS} measurements were different, input damage was suspected. If I_{DD} were greater than I_{SS} and that condition existed when a given input was low but not high, the faulty input would be identified and the lower input protective network or the N channel oxide would be suspect. Hence, not only is the fault detectable but the computer is able to do some preliminary failure analysis to localize the fault.

In the EOS/ESD program, should a current exceed the software programmable failure criterion, the computer would search for a different input vector that would allow the test to continue. The parts could then stay in the chamber unhandled until the duration of the particular stress has elapsed, a failure rate has been achieved, a failure free period has elapsed, or sufficient aging has occurred to warrant AMTE testing. Burn-in, life test, or accelerated stress "to order" accomplished on an individual lot by lot basis is possible. Should the particular lot being tested have excessive fallout the test can be terminated as soon as that is recognized. If a given lot should take some percentage of time longer to achieve the desired failure rate, the parts could remain under the stress conditions until the target is achieved, elininating the time and handling involved in sequential assessing that situation on the AMTE. Optimized stressing will mean optimized usage of the stress hardware (ovens and boards, etc.), manpower, and AMTE while providing higher quality and confidence with reduced total costs.

As part of the EOS/ESD test, half of the devices were periodically removed from the test cells and measured on the AMTE. Because the stress test electrical conditions in this case were automated, the start up and stop procedures could be the same each time. Test conditions, sequences, and duration can be controlled

such that comparison tests between lots or between vendors of "equivalent" parts may be more accurately performed. Power supply sequencing and voltages would be the same. Chamber temperature and ramp rates would be the same. Bringing these and the many other test conditions such as exercise patterns, etc., under control removes these variables from affecting the test outcome.

Table 6 lists some of the recognized advantages of using the minicomputer in the EOS test program and Table 7 the disadvantages.

TABLE 6: EOS/MINICOMPUTER ADVANTAGES

High Level Language Programming

Variety/Flexibility of Hardware Configuration

Automated Diagnostics

Drive Electronics Failure Detestion

Automated Data Analysis

Automated Input Stress Adjustment

Increased Data and Program Storage

Frequent Repeatable Data Acquisition

Structured Power Up/Down

Reduced Handling of Devices

TABLE 7: EOS/MINICOMPUTER DISADVANTAGES

Limited Data Storage

No Simultaneous User Capability

There has been accomplished a third phase to the smart stress system development at RADC. The evaluation kit is found to be limited in usefulness though the hardware is very inexpensive. The use of the lab computer is quite flexible but even though it has more storage capacity it still had limited data storage capability, no ability to support more than one program at a time, and was more expensive than necessary.

An alternative approach has been to develop a distributed processing intralab network. The network consists of a central computer managing shared resources and directing the stress tests via control of small satellite computers at each stress chamber. The central controller is also used for data analysis and program development. The satellite test systems are concerned with the localized control of the test such as actual exercise of the DUT's and data acquisition. The central machine maintains the mass storage, printer and other output devices, and overhead functions allowing data analysis to be done without interfering with the testing.

Because the nontest related resources are available via the network, the required capabilities of the satellites are reduced. The smaller satellite test systems are configured around the commercially well supported STD BUS. The bus is modular and represents an excellent balance between simplicity and flexibility.

The standard bus has many companies which supply A/D, D/A, digital input and digital output capabilities, memory and support functions such as real time clocks, graphics, EPROM programmers, etc. Microprocessors currently used in the

40

satellites are the 4MHz, Z80A and INS8073. Such a system as used in the ASF is shown in Figure 18.

The 8073 based system is a single board computer which has digital I/O, RAM, EPROM, an EPROM programmer, industrial BASIC including logical operations, utility routine, and a realtime clock. With the exception of interface circuits to accommodate non-TTL and increased drive levels the electronics is complete for many small testing program requirements.

The single board capabilities and STD BUS configuration also allows easy incorporation of additional capabilities such as A/D, etc., in the uncommitted STD BUS card cage approach.

This simple single board system in conjunction with the intralab network addresses many of the limitations experienced with the evaluation kit and minicomputer approaches. Capabilities to store, manipulate, and analyze data, support multiple programs and programming tasks are not necessary for the test systems at the chambers to support. The distributed intelligence and resource approach allows the uP at the chamber to be solely responsible for performing testing with only some preliminary data analysis while off loading the bulk resource and non-testing requirements.

In the network the satellite processors are tied via a bidirectional link allowing data transfer, program transfer, and interaction of the central machine when the needs exceed the capabilities resident at the chamber. As an example the central controller downloads the test algorithm to the satellite test processor which

41

Figure 18: STD BUS Test Satellite

performs the test until completion, updating by the central processor, or fault detection. Upon fault detection, the satellite establishes the time and conditions of the fault and performs some limited analysis. If the satellite can resolve the fault sufficiently, testing will resume with the appropriate documentation and changes to the test conditions having been made. If the satellite processor cannot sufficiently analyze and resolve the fault or requires other assistance it signals the central controller. The central controller can respond by storage of the data, analysis of the situation and downloading of additional programs specifically targetted to help identify the location of the fault including routines to verify proper operation of the satellite. Upon completion of analysis routines the central controller will return the satellite to testing perhaps with a new program or the old program updated with error masking, etc.

Such a distributed intelligence system identifies levels of responsibility allowing specialization of the hardware, increases the use of resources such as mass storage which can be shared, and supports data analysis and reduction off from the testing process. The central controller with a multi-user operating system is not involved full time with testing as are the satellites. It can support the overhead management functions and service the multiple satellites.

The system as developed at RADC utilizes a 6800 based minicomputer with 64K RAM with dual floppy disks as the central processor. Common resources are enhanced by a real time clock providing date and time of day. Also attached to the central machine is a printer and a uP development system with dual floppy disks. A microprocessor development system has been modified to support color graphics display of data gathered from the networked satellites. The network is configured

43

around the RS232C standard which is very common and easily utilized. The system is illustrated in Figure 19. The central controller runs in BASIC as do all the satellite systems to facilitate programming. The central controller operating system has been modified to service the satellites while programming or data analysis is being run from the keyboard.

In practice the system has been designed and assembled in-house. The central computer operating system modifications and graphics capabilities are very crude and do not support multiple users. The entire system is unique and hence has to be uniquely maintained. But while the capabilities are not sophisticated or complete enough to support the exploitation of computerized testing, they have been adequate to indicate some of the tremendous advances that can be made by automating the stress testing process and have shown the flexibility, utility, and cost effectiveness of the distributed processing, shared resource, networked approach.

Just as the integration of computers with electrical testing allows the AMTE which are common place today, there is much productivity to be gained in stress testing from the integration of computers. The future will bring more and more integration of computers into the stress test. The whole of reliability characterization will be greatly improved and extended through the intelligent applications of automation. In fact, reliability characterization of coming devices will not be possible without the extensive use of computer technology.
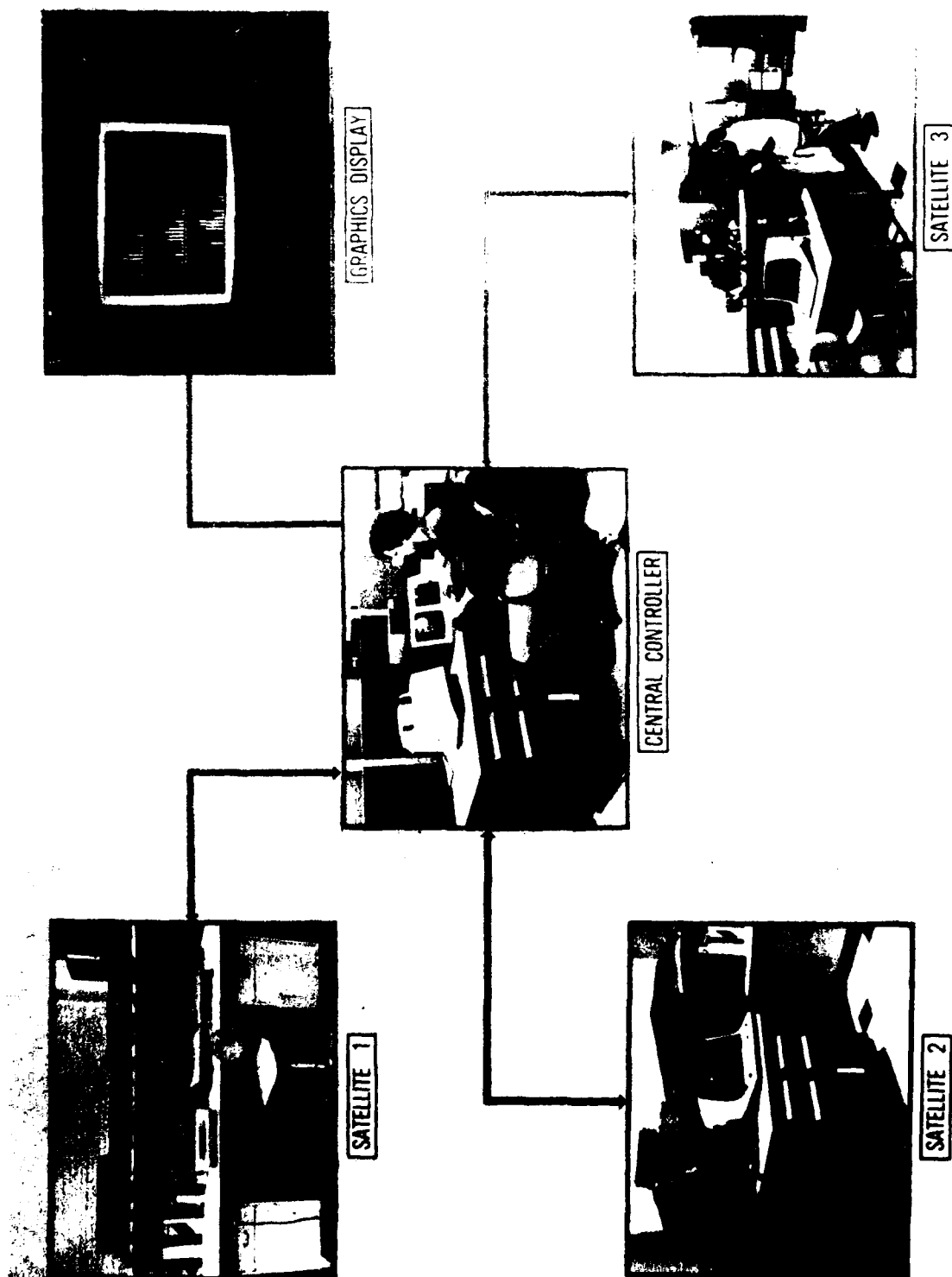
Figure 19: ASF Automated Network

45

IV. Future-Present

This brings us to the future-present. Increasingly complex devices are increasingly complex to characterize yet there isn't enough time or money in the budget to acquire the necessary information with the standard tools. It is evident that automation of the stress test has much to offer. It is evident that automation of the entire reliability characterization process has much to offer. It is evident that automation is essential. After all, it is only through automation that these complex devices are possible in the first place.

Automated stress systems are commercially available today that provide control of the temperature, voltages, clock rates, patterns, and sequencing as well as monitoring of the DUT outputs for functionality. These systems are computer based and employ distributed intelligence and shared resources interconnected by a network. RADC is planning to acquire such a system.

Commercially available systems today which perform monitored testing do so based on monitoring the functionality of the DUTs. The leakage monitoring as in the EOS/ESD program is an important enhancement of automated monitored testing but one which is not yet commercially available. Failure is often defined in terms of stability. Unstable parts are indicative of poor process control and likely to result in system failure. Particularly for CMOS, leakage currents are the primary indicators of instability. Good devices will have very low leakage. Essentially any degradation will show up as an increased leakage. Practical CMOS failure analysis begins with examining the supply and input leakage measurements.

The implementation of leakage current measurements involves incorporating analog to digital converter capability into the computer based test bed. Multiple channel, twelve bit, programmable gain, computer compatible A/D boards are readily available, and inexpensive, and easy to utilize. The distributed microprocessor based architecture of the current systems will greatly facilitate this task.

Combining the functional and parametric monitoring capabilities with the ability to control the power supply and input voltages, temperature, frequency, patterns, etc., with the data handling capabilities of a computer will make possible more extensive characterization in the chamber.

Automation of the stress test is, however, only one part of what is necessary to evaluate complex devices. It is important to know what failure mechanisms to expect, where to expect them, how to stress for them, and how to recognize their occurrence.

One area that is seemingly not being addressed is that of tapping the design database generated through the CAD/CAM/CAT work to support the stress test. Effort has focused on making use of that database for test vector generation for AMTE. Stress testing needs that database even more. The old standby step stress attempts to find the limits where devices stop working due to vanishing margins. These margins can be design margins or physical margins. Because of the complexity and numbers of devices it will be necessary to be smart about how to test. The stress test must address those areas of least margin and greatest sensitivity to activate the failure mechanisms most effectively. The design

database should be tapped to predict those areas most likely to incur the failure mechanisms and those stress scenarios most likely to stimulate them. These models should address effects of voltages, temperature, currents and current densities, noise, drive, etc. These margins are related to geometries, doping profiles, relative positions, etc. Much of the model parameter information is in the design database. In the future, computer modelling will become increasingly more important. Computer simulations will be performed to predict the effects of failure mechanisms on circuit performance. From these simulations stress scenarios will be constructed. This is not a trivial task. Modelling of the physics of failure will be required. Effective computer models, simulations, and predictions will be necessary. We must be smart in how we characterize our devices.

Another area for modelling is failure analysis. The size and multilayer construction of devices makes physical location and verification of failures impossible with todays methods. By using the model in the design database the computer can generate the probable failure mechanisms and locations which would produce the observed device conditions. We must be smart about what we look for and where we look for the problem.

Recognizing failures also needs new techniques. Earlier detection can lead to increased productivity. In the late sixties sophisticated data analysis software entitled OLPARS (On-Line Pattern Analysis and Recognition System) was developed at RADC. Key features allowed multidimensional data bases to be visualized and manipulated, and decision boundaries drawn enabling automatic classification of subsequent data. It is proposed that this type of computer analysis

be done on the databases; particularly those generated by the SMART and AMTE equipments. Multidimensional data analysis may lead to recognition of the elusive "precursors of failure." Utilizing decision planes learned from previous data sets in n dimensions would possibly yield earlier determination of failure or instability. We must be smart in how we analyze the data.

Multidimensional analysis could lead to smaller data bases. Each parameter that is measured would be considered as a dimension in the multidimensional database. Multidimensional analysis resulting in decision boundaries could result in identifying those dimensions (parameters) which have minimal or no informational content. If applied to data bases such as MIL-M-38510 slash sheet tests or qualification data gathered by DESC, it is not unreasonable to expect that the volume of parameters measured and the frequency of measurements could be reduced making the process quicker, more efficient, and more effective. Automation makes available tremendous amounts of numbers. Automation must be utilized to identify the information and extract it. Such analysis will make it easier to recognize the patterns and to key on the trends that lead to failure. We must be smart in the amount of data we handle in order to get the information we need.

Another area in which smart testing offers advantages is in JAN requirement enforcement. The reduction of escapes through monitoring has already been discussed. The area of test documentation can be improved. Such principles as restricted access applied to smart testing could reduce the problem recently experienced with major military suppliers cheating on the screening requirements. Documentation kept by the computer identified by lot and serial numbers, with

49

dates, times, temperature and voltage profiles, escapes information, failure information, etc., could be readily maintained and delivered with each lot. This is particularly important for optimized screens where the details of the stress conditions vary with each lot to achieve the target reliability. Computer programs can be broken into and data and records adulterated but computer security with access restricted to only high level company people elevates the responsibility and the liability for deliberate fraud.

Other applications will surely surface. SMART is only one portion of reliability characterization. Each portion needs to be automated and integrated. The automation of the stress test is truly smart testing. The Air Force needs the capabilities of smart testing. The time is now.

V. Conclusion

New stress testing techniques are a response to the need to evaluate and characterize the wide variety of microelectronics. It is the microelectronics industry that drives the stress test industry and that industry is plunging into small volume, custom, high density, high complexity devices. The new technologies will not be characterized with the old techniques. In order to assess reliability problems and provide the needed answers smart testing capability must be established. The integration of computers into the stress testing portion of reliability characterization is essential. The potential advantages are great.