

Importance of Dynamic Faults for New SRAM Technologies

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Abstract

New memory technologies and processes introduce new defects that cause previously unknown faults. Dynamic faults are among these new faults; they can take place in the absence of the traditional static faults. This paper describes the concept of dynamic faults, based on the fault primitive concept. It further shows, based on industrial test results, the importance of such faults for the new memory technologies, and introduces a systematic way for modeling them. It concludes that current and future SRAM products need to consider testability for dynamic faults or leave substantial DPM on the table, and it sets a direction for further research.

1 Introduction

Researchers studying the faulty behavior of memory devices have been defining *functional fault models (FFMs)* and developing tests to target them [2, 5, 6, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16]. However, most of the published work is limited to *static faults*, which are faults sensitized by performing *at the most* one operation. Recent published work, based on defect injection and SPICE simulation, shows that another type of faulty behavior can take place in the absence of static faults [3, 9]. This faulty behavior requires *more than one operation* to be sensitized. For example, a write operation, followed *immediately* by a read operation, causes the cell to flip; however, if only a single write or a single read, or a read which does not immediately follow the write is performed, the cell will not flip. Faults requiring *more than one operation sequentially* in order to be sensitized are called *dynamic faults*. Most of currently used tests are designed for static faults, and therefore may not be able to detect dynamic faults; the only test specifically designed to target a few of the many possible dynamic faults is March RAW (i.e., read-after-write) [9].

This paper shows the importance of dynamic faults for the new memory (e.g., SRAM) technologies, based on industrial experiments done at ST Microelectronics and at Intel; it concludes that current and future (SRAM) memory products need to consider testing dynamic faults, or leave substantial DPM on the table. The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 explains the concept of the dynamic faults; Section 3 presents industrial test results from which the importance of dynamic faults will follow. Section 4 presents a systematic way for modeling and testing dynamic faults; while Section 5 ends with conclusions.

2 Dynamic fault concept

To mathematically define dynamic faults, the fault primitive concept [18] will be used. The two basic ingredients for any fault model are: (a) A list of performed memory operations, and (b) A list of corresponding deviations in the observed behavior from the expected one. Any list of performed operations on the memory is called an *operation sequence*. An operation sequence that results in a difference between the observed and the expected memory behavior is called a *sensitizing operation sequence (S)*. The observed memory behavior that deviates from the expected one is called the *faulty behavior (F)*.

In order to specify a certain fault, one has to specify the *S*, together with the corresponding faulty behavior *F* and the read results (*R*) of *S*, in case *S* is a read operation. The combination of *S*, *F* and *R* for a given memory failure is called a *Fault Primitive (FP)* [18], and is denoted as $\langle S/F/R \rangle$. *S* describes the sensitizing operation sequence that sensitizes the fault, *F* describes the value or the behavior of the faulty cell (e.g., the cell flips from 0 to 1), while *R* describes the logic output level of a read operation (e.g., 0) in case *S* is a read operation, or is a sequence of operations with a read as last one in the sequence.

By inspecting the definition of the FP concept, one can see that the difference between *static* and *dynamic* faults is

Table 1. List of the used Base Tests (BTs)

#	BT name	Description
1	SCAN [1]	{ $\uparrow(w0); \uparrow(r0); \uparrow(w1); \uparrow(r0)$ }
2	MATS+ [14]	{ $\uparrow(w0); \uparrow(r0, w1); \downarrow(r1, w0)$ }
3	MATS++ [5]	{ $\uparrow(w0); \uparrow(r0, w1); \downarrow(r1, w0, r0)$ }
4	March C- [12, 16]	{ $\uparrow(w0); \uparrow(r0, w1); \uparrow(r1, w0); \downarrow(r0, w1); \downarrow(r1, w0); \uparrow(r0)$ }
5	PMOVI [7]	{ $\downarrow(w0); \uparrow(r0, w1, r1); \uparrow(r1, w0, r0); \downarrow(r0, w1, r1); \downarrow(r1, w0, r0)$ }
6	March SR [8]	{ $\downarrow(w0); \uparrow(r0, w1, r1, w0); \uparrow(r0, r0); \uparrow(w1); \downarrow(r1, w0, r0, w1); \downarrow(r1, r1)$ }
7	March SS [10]	{ $\uparrow(w0); \uparrow(r0, r0, w0, r0, w1); \uparrow(r1, r1, w1, r1, w0); \downarrow(r0, r0, w0, r0, w1); \downarrow(r1, r1, w1, r1, w0); \uparrow(r0)$ }
8	March G [15]	{ $\uparrow(w0); \uparrow(r0, w1, r1, w0, r0, w1); \uparrow(r1, w0, w1); \downarrow(r1, w0, w1, w0); \downarrow(r0, w1, w0); \downarrow(r0, w1, r1); \uparrow(r1, w0, r0)$ }
9	March RAW [9]	{ $\uparrow(w0); \uparrow(r0, w0, r0, r0, w1, r1); \uparrow(r1, w1, r1, r1, w0, r0); \downarrow(r0, w0, r0, r0, w1, r1); \downarrow(r1, w1, r1, r1, w0, r0); \uparrow(r0)$ }
10	Hammer [17]	{ $\uparrow(w0); \uparrow(r0, 10 * w1, r1); \uparrow(r1, 10 * w0, r0); \downarrow(r0, 10 * w1, r1); \downarrow(r1, 10 * w0, r0)$ }
11	GalColumn	{ $\uparrow(w0); \uparrow_b(w1_b, col(r0, r1_b), w0_b); \uparrow(w1); \uparrow_b(w0_b, col(r1, r0_b), w1_b)$ }
12	GalRow	{ $\uparrow(w0); \uparrow_b(w1_b, row(r0, r1_b), w0_b); \uparrow(w1); \uparrow_b(w0_b, row(r1, r0_b), w1_b)$ }
13	WalkColumn	{ $\uparrow(w0); \uparrow_b(w1_b, col(r0), r1_b, w0_b); \uparrow(w1); \uparrow_b(w0_b, col(r1), r1_b, w0_b)$ }
14	WalkRow	{ $\uparrow(w0); \uparrow_b(w1_b, row(r0), r1_b, w0_b); \uparrow(w1); \uparrow_b(w0_b, row(r1), r1_b, w0_b)$ }

determined by the number of operations required in S . Let $\#O$ be defined as the number of different operations performed *sequentially* in S . For example, if a single read operation applied to a certain cell causes that cell to flip, then $\#O = 1$. Depending on $\#O$, memory faults can be divided into *static* and *dynamic* faults:

- *Static faults*: These are faults sensitized by performing at the most one operation; that is $\#O \leq 1$. For example, the state of the cell is always stuck at one ($\#O = 0$), a read operation to a certain cell causes that cell to flip ($\#O = 1$), etc.
- *Dynamic faults*: These are faults that can only be sensitized by performing more than one operation *sequentially*; that is $\#O > 1$. For example, two *successive* read operations cause the cell to flip; however, if only one read operation is performed, the cell will not flip. Depending on $\#O$, a further classification can be made between *2-operation dynamic* faults whereby $\#O = 2$, *3-operation dynamic* faults whereby $\#O = 3$, etc. It has been shown that the probability of dynamic faults decreases as the number of operations increases [4].

3 Industrial validation of dynamic faults

This section gives an industrial evaluation of the traditional tests as compared with the only test, March RAW [9], specifically designed to target some dynamic faults. March RAW is designed to target dynamic faults sensitized in a *victim cell* by applying a *read-after-write* to the *aggressor cell* or to the victim cell [9]. The test results of DPM screening done at STMicroelectronics and at Intel for advanced SRAMs will be presented; they validate the high fault coverage of March RAW in general, and show the importance of dynamic faults which still need to be worked out.

3.1 Used tests and stress combinations

In the experiment done at STMicroelectronics as well as at Intel, a set 53 tests have been used. A *test* consists of a

base test (BT) (i.e., test algorithm) applied using a particular *stress combination (SC)*. A SC consists of a combination of values of different *stresses*; e.g., addressing, data-backgrounds, etc.

3.1.1 Used base tests

The used BTs are listed in Table 1. For Hammer, the notation e.g., $10 * w1$ means that the write operation is performed 10 times successively to the same cell. For GalRow and GalColumn, the notation e.g., $row(r0, r1_b)$ means apply a $r0$ operation in an incrementing order to the cells of the row of the base cell, and apply $r1$ operation to the base cell after each $r0$ operation; a similar explanation applies to $col(r0, r1_b)$. Similarly, for WalkRow and WalkColumn, the notation e.g., $row(r0)$ means apply a $r0$ operation using an incrementing address order to the row of the base cell, and skip the base cell; a similar explanation applies to $col(r0)$.

3.1.2 Used stresses

Two types of stresses have been used; namely addressing and data-background stresses. The used addressing stresses consist of two types of addressing:

1. **Fast X (fx)**: Fast X addressing is simply incrementing or decrementing the address in such a way that each step goes to the next row.
2. **Fast Y (fy)**: Fast Y addressing is simply incrementing or decrementing the address in such a way that each step goes to the next column.

A *data-background (DB)* is defined as the pattern of ones and zeros as seen in an array of memory cells. The most common types of data-backgrounds are: Solid (s), Checkerboard (c), Column Stripe (cs), and Row Stripe (rs). Figure 1 illustrates the four DBs, using a simple 4×4 array. Each DB is shown with the base and the complement values.

Table 2 shows the total number of tests used. The column $\#SC$ gives the number of SCs each BT is used with; and the

Table 2. List of the used BTs and their stress combinations

#	Base Test (BT)	# SC	T.L.	Stress combination							
				fx				fy			
				s	c	cs	rs	s	c	cs	rs
1	Scan	4	4n	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	-
2	Mats+	2	5n	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
3	Mats++	2	6n	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
4	March C-	6	10n	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+
5	PMOVI	8	13n	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
6	March SR	8	14n	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
7	March SS	8	22n	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
8	March G	2	23n	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
9	March RAW	8	26n	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
10	Hammer	1	49n	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	GalColumn	1	6n+4nR	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
12	GalRow	1	6n+4nC	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
13	WalkColumn	1	8n+2nR	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14	WalkRow	1	8n+2nC	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-

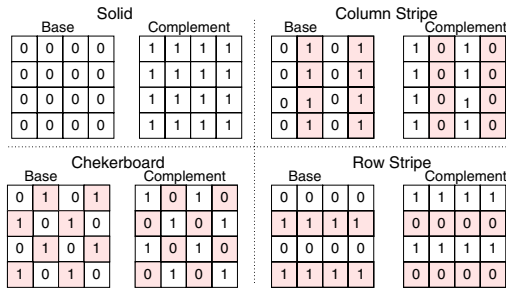


Figure 1. The common data-backgrounds

column T.L. gives the test length of each BT, n denotes the size of the memory cell array, R the number of rows, and C the number of columns. A '+' in the table indicates that the corresponding SC is applied, and a '-' denoted that it is not. Note that the addressings 'fx' and 'fy' are most frequently used, because it has been industrially proven that they are the most effective.

3.2 STMicroelectronics test results

All listed BTs and their corresponding SCs in Table 2 have been implemented. From the large number of SRAM chips (with a size of 512 Kbits) tested, 1134 chips fail *all* the tests; while 60 chips fail *only some* tests. We will only concentrate on the 60 chips since they are the most interesting. The data base of the test results has been simplified and filtered for the analysis purposes. Therefore the fault coverage of each BT is considered instead of each test. The FC of a BT is the *union* of the fault coverages of its corresponding SCs. A die is considered detected by a BT if a least one SC of that BT detects the faulty die.

Table 3 gives the *unions* and the *intersections* of the used 14 BTs for low Vcc and low speed testing. A die belongs to the union of two BTs if at least one of the two BTs found the die to be faulty, and belongs to the intersection of two

BTs if both BTs found the die to be faulty. The first column in each table gives the BT number; the second column the name of the BT. The column 'FC' lists the fault coverage of the corresponding BT; the column 'UFs' gives number of *unique faults (UFs)* each BT detects. Unique faults are faults that are only detected once with a single test; e.g., March SR detects 2 unique faults that are not detected by any other test. The union and the intersection of each pair of BTs is shown in the rest of the tables. The numbers on the diagonal give the fault coverage (FC) of the BTs, which are also listed in the column 'FC'. The part above the main diagonal lists the union of the corresponding BT pair, while the part below the diagonal lists the intersection of each BT pair. Based on the test result data base and Table 3, one can conclude the following:

1. Total number of faulty chips detected: 60.
2. The best BTs, in terms of FC, are: March G with FC=49, March SS with FC=48, and March SR and March C- with FC=47.
3. There are 4 unique faults, detected by 3 tests; these are listed next together with their FC and the number of unique faults (# UF) each detects.

BT	FC	# UF
March SR	47	2
March SS	48	1
March G	49	1

4. The best union pair, in terms of the FC, is March SR and March SS with FC=55.
5. There are 3 BTs which cover other BTs; e.g. March SS covers all faults found by WalkRow since their intersection is 37, which is the FC achieved by WalkRow. The three BTs covering other BTs are given next, with the covered BTs.

BT	Covered BTs
March C-:	Mats+, Mats++, Hammer
March SS:	WalkRow
March G:	Mats+, Mats++, Hammer

Table 3. The union and the intersection of BTs (STMicroelectronics)

#	BT Name	FC	UFs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Scan	34	0	34	44	45	51	50	49	50	53	49	43	44	41	44	42
2	Mats+	39	0	29	39	40	47	47	52	49	49	47	40	45	43	43	43
3	Mats++	39	0	28	38	39	47	47	52	49	49	47	40	46	44	44	44
4	March C-	47	0	30	39	39	47	49	54	51	53	50	47	50	49	48	49
5	PMOVI	46	0	30	38	38	44	46	54	49	52	49	47	50	49	48	47
6	March SR	47	2	32	34	34	40	39	47	55	54	52	52	53	50	52	50
7	March SS	48	1	32	38	38	44	45	40	48	53	51	49	51	50	49	48
8	March G	49	1	30	39	39	43	43	42	44	49	52	49	52	52	51	50
9	March RAW	46	0	31	38	38	43	43	41	43	43	46	47	48	47	47	47
10	Hammer	32	0	23	31	31	32	31	27	31	32	31	32	45	42	43	42
11	GalColumn	34	0	24	28	27	31	30	28	31	31	32	21	34	41	37	43
12	GalRow	35	0	28	31	30	33	32	32	33	32	34	25	28	35	42	39
13	WalkColumn	35	0	25	31	30	34	33	30	34	33	34	24	32	28	35	41
14	WalkRow	37	0	29	33	32	35	36	34	37	36	36	27	28	33	31	37

Table 4. The union and the intersection of BTs (Intel)

#	BT Name	FC	UFs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Scan	168	1	168	181	181	186	185	178	186	188	188	181	177	190	173	181
2	MATS+	175	0	162	175	179	184	183	185	184	186	186	186	180	189	179	181
3	MATS++	177	0	164	173	177	183	183	185	184	186	186	184	178	188	177	181
4	March C-	183	0	165	174	177	183	185	187	185	186	187	186	183	192	183	183
5	PMOVI	181	0	164	173	175	179	181	187	185	186	184	185	183	190	183	181
6	March SR	170	0	160	160	162	166	164	170	187	189	188	184	181	192	178	184
7	March SS	184	0	166	175	177	182	180	167	184	187	186	186	184	193	184	184
8	March G	185	0	165	174	176	182	180	166	182	185	188	188	176	195	186	186
9	March RAW	184	0	164	173	175	180	181	166	182	181	184	186	186	193	186	184
10	Hammer	171	1	158	160	164	168	167	157	169	168	169	171	179	192	178	183
11	GalColumn	164	0	155	159	163	164	162	153	164	163	162	156	164	188	164	181
12	GalRow	176	9	154	162	165	167	167	154	167	166	167	155	152	176	188	178
13	WalkColumn	173	0	155	156	160	160	158	152	160	159	158	153	160	148	160	181
14	WalkRow	181	0	155	162	164	168	168	154	168	167	168	156	151	166	147	168

3.3 Intel test results

This section gives the test results based on the experiment done on Intel embedded caches with a size of 512 Kbytes. All listed SCs in Table 2 have been implemented. From the large number of chips tested, 1343 chips fail *all* the tests; while 204 chips fail *only some* tests. We will only concentrate on the 204 chips since they are the most interesting. Table 4 gives the union and the intersections of the 14 BTs for a high Vcc and high speed testing; a similar representation is used as in Table 3. Based on the test result data base and Table 4, one can conclude the following:

1. Total number of faulty chips detected: 204.
2. The best BTs in terms of FC are: March G with FC=185, March SS and March RAW with FC=184, and March C- with FC=183.
3. There are 11 unique faults, detected by 3 tests; these are listed next.

BT	FC	# UFs
Scan	168	1
Hammer	171	1
GalRow	176	9

4. The best union pair in terms of the FC is GalRow and March G with FC=195, followed with GalRow and March RAW with FC=193.
5. There are 6 BTs covering supersets fails of other BTs; these are given next, together with the covered BTs.

BT	Covered BTs
MATS++	WalkColumn
March C-	Mats++, GalColumn, WalkColumn, WalkRow
PMOVI	WalkRow
March SS	Mats+, Mats++, GalColumn, WalkColumn, WalkRow
March RAW	PMOVI, WalkRow
GalColumn	WalkColumn

It is clear from Table 3 and Table 4 that March RAW, designed to target a few of the many possible dynamic faults, generally scores very high in comparison with other BTs. Further, the UFs detected by some empirical tests can not be explained with the well known fault models. Such faults need a detailed analysis in order to be understood and modeled. Some analysis examples of UFs will be given in Section 4; they will show that the detected UFs are *dynamic faults*, which indicates their importance for the new memory technologies.

4 Analysis of unique faults

This section analyzes some of detected UFs, and shows that those faults are dynamic faults. It further introduces a systematic way to model the faults. This will be done for ST experiment based UFs as well as for Intel based UFs.

4.1 ST experiment based unique faults

It has been shown in Section 3.2 that there are three tests which detect UFs; these faults can not be explained using the well-known fault models. This means that additional fault models and/or fault classes exist. By analyzing each failed test for UFs, new fault models will be introduced. Failure analysis can also be used for better understanding of the underlying defect causing such UF behavior. A new test(s) with a shorter test length, targeting the detected UFs, may thereafter be constructed and used for further test purposes.

The detected UFs have been analyzed during DPM screening. The results of the analysis done for March SR and March SS will be presented next; see Table 5. The march elements that were responsible for the detection of UFs, as reported by the simulator/tools, are given in bold.

Table 5. Analysis of UFs (ST)

BT	UFs	Description
March SR	2	{ $\downarrow(w0); \uparrow(\mathbf{r0}, \mathbf{w1}, \mathbf{r1}, \mathbf{w0}); \uparrow(r0, r0); \uparrow(w1); \downarrow(\mathbf{r1}, \mathbf{w0}, \mathbf{r0}, \mathbf{w1}); \downarrow(r1, r1)$ }
March SS	1	{ $\uparrow(w0); \uparrow(\mathbf{r0}, \mathbf{r0}, \mathbf{w0}, \mathbf{r0}, \mathbf{w1}); \uparrow(r1, r1, w1, r1, w0); \downarrow(r0, r0, w0, r0, w1); \downarrow(r1, r1, w1, r1, w0); \uparrow(r0)$ }

The analysis done for March SR points out that one UF, say UF₁ is detected by $\uparrow(r0, w1, r1, w0)$ and one UF, say UF₂, by $\downarrow(r1, w0, r0, w1)$. The UF₁ is not detected by $\uparrow(r0, w1)$ (of March C-), neither by $\uparrow(r0, w1, r1)$ (of PMOVI) or any other test. The sensitization and detection of UF₁ require the application of last operation of $\uparrow(r0, w1, r1, w0)$ (i.e., w0) to the *aggressor cell (a-cell)* followed *immediately* with the first operation of $\uparrow(r0, w1, r1, w0)$ (i.e., r0) applied to the *victim cell (v-cell)*. The a-cell and the v-cell are accessed successively; i.e., the address of the v-cell is the address of the a-cell plus 1. In a similar way, the analysis showed that the sensitization and detection of UF₂, by $\downarrow(r1, w0, r0, w1)$, require the application of a w1 operation to the a-cell followed *immediately* with a r1 operation applied to the v-cell, where the address of the v-cell is the address of the a-cell minus 1. If the operations are not applied sequentially to the a-cell and the v-cell, the faults will be not detected, as is the case for example for March C-. It is clear that the detected UFs require the application of a *read to the v-cell immediately after a write to the a-cell where the v-cell and the a-cell have adjacent addresses*. A similar conclusion has been drawn based

on the analysis done for March SS. These detected faults are called *dynamic faults* [3, 9], as we have discussed in Section 2; they are faults sensitized by performing *more* than one operation *sequentially* (e.g., read immediately after write). Traditional tests written to cover *static faults* (i.e., faults sensitized by performing at the most one operation) do not necessarily detect dynamic faults. Establishing a complete set of possible dynamic faults together with their appropriate tests still remain to be done.

To describe the detected UFs by March SR, the fault primitive notation will be used; see Section 2. Thus a dynamic fault can be denoted as: $\langle S_a; S_v/F/R \rangle$, where:

$S_a; S_v$ describe *sensitizing operation sequences* applied respectively to the a-cell and to the v-cell, which sensitize a fault F in the v-cell. Thus for UF₁ observed with March SR, S_a is a w0 operation (to a cell containing 1) and S_v is a read 0 operation (i.e., $S_a; S_v = 1w0; 0r0$), while for UF₂ S_a is a w1 operation (to a cell containing 0) and S_v is a read 1 operation (i.e., $S_a; S_v = 0w1; 1r1$).

F describes the value of the *faulty cell* (i.e., the v-cell); $F \in \{0, 1\}$, R describes the logical value which appears at the output of the memory if the sensitizing operation applied to the v-cell is a *read* operation: $R \in \{0, 1, -\}$.

Thus UF₁ can be denoted as $\langle 1w0; 0r0/F/1 \rangle$, and UF₂ as $\langle 0w1; 1r1/F/0 \rangle$. Note that in both notations the value of R differs from the expected value as described by S_v ; for instance in $\langle 1w0; 0r0/F/1 \rangle$, the expected read value is 0 (since $S_v = 0r0$), but the obtained value at the output is $R = 1$; therefore the fault is detected.

In $\langle 1w0; 0r0/F/1 \rangle$, F can have two values: (a) $F = 0$; that means the the v-cell keeps its state, or (b) $F = 1$, that means that the cell flips to 1. A similar explanation can be given for $\langle 0w1; 1r1/F/0 \rangle$. Therefore there are four possible fault primitives describing the dynamic faults detected with March SR: $\langle 1w0; 0r0/0/1 \rangle$, $\langle 1w0; 0r0/1/1 \rangle$, $\langle 0w1; 1r1/1/0 \rangle$, and $\langle 0w1; 1r1/0/0 \rangle$.

4.2 Intel experiment based unique faults

Section 3.3 showed that there are three tests which detect UFs. As an example, an analysis of GalRow detecting 9 UFs will be done. GalRow is given again in Table 6. The UFs are detected by '*row(r0, r1_b)*' (or by '*row(r1, r0_b)*'), which are given in bold font. The $r1_b$ and the $r0_b$ are the read data observed during the test. Thus the detection of the 9 UFs occurs during $r1_b$ (or $r0_b$).

Let's now consider the WalkRow which is also given in Table 6. The fault detection for this test occurs during '*row(r0), r1_b*' or during '*row(r1), r1_b*' (given in bold font). If we compare the operations responsible for the fault detection for GalRow and for WalkRow, we can see that they are similar; the only difference is that by GalRow a read operation is performed to the *victim cell (v-cell; i.e., base cell)*, *immediately* after a read operation performed to

the *aggressor cell (a-cell)* belonging to the row of the victim cell. However for WalkRow, a read operation is applied to the v-cell after performing read operations to all the cells belonging to the row of the v-cell. Thus applying a read operation to the v-cell *immediately* after a read operation the a-cell will sensitize (and detect) the fault, but not if the read to the v-cell is *not* applied immediately after a read to the a-cell. In other words, the detected UFs require the application of a *read to the v-cell immediately after a read to the a-cell where the v-cell and the a-cell belong to the same row*. These detected faults are called *dynamic faults* [3, 9] as discussed in Section 2.

Table 6. Analysis of UFs (Intel)

BT	UFs	Description
GalRow	9	$\{\uparrow(w0); \uparrow(w1_b, \text{row}(r0, r1_b), w0_b); \uparrow(w1); \uparrow(w0_b, \text{row}(r1, r0_b), w1_b)\}$
WalkRow	0	$\{\uparrow(w0); \uparrow(w1_b, \text{row}(r0, r1_b), w0_b); \uparrow(w1); \uparrow(w0_b, \text{row}(r1, r1_b), w0_b)\}$

By using the fault primitive notation, the detected UFs by GalRow can be described as $\langle 0r0; 1r1/F/0 \rangle$ and $\langle 1r1; 0r0/F/1 \rangle$, where $F \in \{0, 1\}$. Thus there are four fault primitives describing the detected UFs: $\langle 0r0; 1r1/1/0 \rangle$, $\langle 0r0; 1r1/0/0 \rangle$, $\langle 1r1; 0r0/0/1 \rangle$ and $\langle 1r1; 0r0/1/1 \rangle$.

The analysis done for some UFs show clearly that dynamic faults, which have been ignored in the past, become a very important fault class for the new memory technologies. A complete analysis of this class, in order to establish the complete fault space, remains still to be done. An experimental/industrial analysis, using defect injection, SPICE simulation and IFA, in order to establish their probability remain still to be performed; as well as the design of the appropriate tests targeting such faults.

5 Conclusions

This paper summarizes and analyzes the results of applying up to 17 base tests, each with up to 8 stress combinations, to advanced STMicroelectronics and Intel SRAMs. The test results show that March RAW, designed to target a few dynamic faults, scores very high. The analysis done for detected unique faults, which can not be explained with the well known fault models, shows the existence of new dynamic faults and that their range is much wider than what has been previously imagined. This indicates the importance of this fault class. The dynamic faults observed in STMicroelectronics chips are different from those observed in Intel chips; this reinforces the point that a highly optimized patterns set is only applicable to a particular architecture/technology. The results also show that some tests, designed specifically to target the traditional static faults, also detect some dynamic faults.

The class of dynamic fault has been ignored in the past;

it now becomes important and has to be taken into consideration for current and future memory products. This sets a direction for a further research on items like:

1. Establishing the fault space of dynamic faults.
2. Validation based on defect injection/ SPICE simulation.
3. Inductive Fault Analysis in order to determine the importance of each introduced fault model.
4. Design of short and high quality tests targeting the considered dynamic faults.
5. Industrial validation.

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