

Prognostic/Diagnostic Health Management System (PHM) for Fab Efficiency

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Abstract

In this work, a Prognostic/Diagnostic approach was made to use knowledge-based system to accelerate the process/equipment faults detection and classification. The domain knowledge within the Fab environment can be either captured by PHM systems or populated by the experienced engineers. With the implementation of the proposed PHM system, as shown in Fig. 2, domain knowledge stored in the PHM-Equip and PHM-APC (Advanced Process Control) subsystems will feed forward and feed backward through the entire process flow. For example, device information from the PHM-BE (Back End) subsystems will be easily shared with process and equipment engineers. Likewise, process information from PHM-Equip and PHM-APC subsystems can also be shared with Device and Test engineers to achieve a Fab-wide collaboration environment. These PHM systems are executed in a formal factory automation environment with all the correct compliances for equipment interface and integration plus MES connectivity.

Keywords

Knowledge Management (KM), Prognostics, Diagnostics, Health Management, Rule-based, Factory Automation (FA), Equipment Integration (EI), and Manufacturing Execution Systems (MES), Fault Detection and Classification (FDC).

INTRODUCTION

Tool health and Process health are the primary goals for FDC and APC implementations in the Fab environment. The successful implementations of FDC and APC rely upon process and equipment engineers' domain knowledge. From

Figure 1, the next step of quality evolution is to utilize the knowledge-based system to accumulate and share the domain knowledge within the Fab environment in order to improve the productivity and efficiency of Fab operations.

FDC is very effective in detecting tool/equipment faults. However, the corrective actions still rely upon engineers to perform the tasks. The time delay between the faults discovery and problems being fixed is a function of the engineers' expertise and experience. In order to shorten the time delay mentioned above, knowledge-based systems are needed to assist engineers in performing the tasks in the shortest time possible.

The proposed knowledge-based system called Prognostic/Diagnostic Health Management System (PHM) consists of many diagnostic rules to help the engineers drilldown to the root causes in a matter of minutes instead of hours. Moreover, the prognostic rules implemented from the equipment vendor or experienced engineers can predict the upcoming faults to reduce tool/equipment downtime. Figure 2 shows the implementations of Fab-wide PHM systems.

The integrated PHM system, called PHM INT, consists of three subsystems (i.e. PHM-Equip, PHM-APC and PHM-BE). PHM-Equip subsystems with built-in databases and knowledge bases are designed for tool/equipment health management while PHM-APC subsystems are sketched for linking PHM-Equip subsystems and current APC systems. An example of this implementation is the integration of Recipe Management system with PHM-Equip to achieve the SEMI E126 and SEMI E133 (The Process Control System (PCS)) standards for recipe download verification. PHM-BE is designed for backend operations such as PHM-Etest for process health management and KGD (Known Good Die) applications with Wafer Electrical Test data, PHM-DDR for Defect Density Reduction and PHM-BEST for Back End Wafer Sort and Final Test operations.

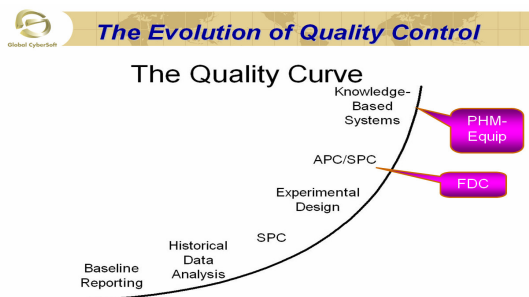


Figure 1 The evolution of quality curve

An example of failing oxygen sensor prognostic rule implementation to demonstrate the effectiveness of the PHM system is given in Figure 7 and 8. This approach will be described in detail in this presentation. The user-friendly rules development and test environment will also be demonstrated.

With the implementation of the proposed PHM system as shown in Fig. 2, domain knowledge stored in the PHM-Equip and PHM-APC subsystems will feed forward and feed backward through the entire process flow. For example, device information from the PHM-BE subsystems will be easily shared with process and equipment engineers. Likewise, process information from PHM-Equip and PHM-APC subsystems can also be shared with Device and Test engineers to achieve a Fab-wide collaboration environment.

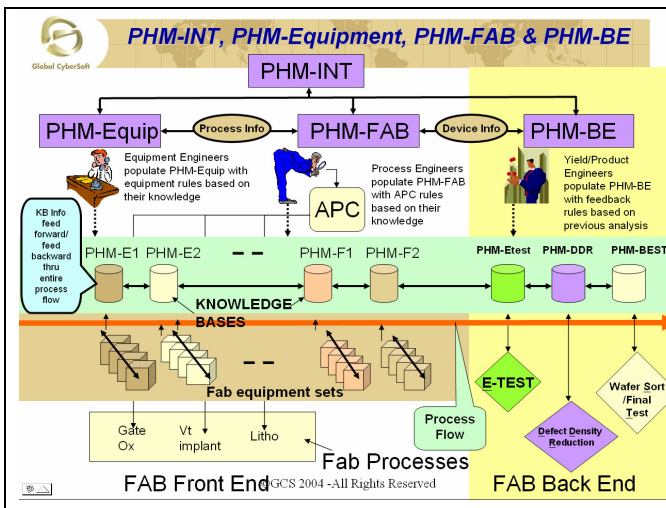


Figure 2: Components of a Fab-wide PHM Systems

EXPERIMENTAL

The datasets from TI's (Texas Instruments) experiment were utilized to illustrate PHM's capabilities in faults detection and classification. The training and test datasets from the 129 wafers can be downloaded from this URL: <http://software.eigenvector.com/Data/Etch/index.html>. There are 21 variables from a LAM 9600 Metal Etcher and 129 OES (Optical Emission Spectroscopy, 245 to 800 nm) parameters from the OES fiber optics sensors as shown in Table 1. The training dataset consists of 108 wafers taken during 3 experiments. There were 21 wafers with intentionally induced faults as shown in Table 1. The experiments were run several weeks apart and data from different experiments has a different mean and somewhat different covariance structure. Therefore, these three datasets were analyzed separately to avoid system degradation effects.

Table 1: Variables and faults listing

| ❖ Variables: | Optical Emission Spectroscopy wavelength monitored | ❖ Faults: |
|-------------------|--|--------------|
| 1. Time | ◆ 250 nm | 1. TCP +50 |
| 2. Step Number | ◆ 261.8 nm | 2. RF -12 |
| 3. BCl3 Flow | ◆ 266.6 nm | 3. RF +10 |
| 4. Cl2 Flow | ◆ 272.2 nm | 4. Pr +3 |
| 5. RF Btm Pwr | ◆ 278.3 nm | 5. TCP +10 |
| 6. RF Btm Rfl Pwr | ◆ 284.6 nm | 6. BCl3 +5 |
| 7. Endpt A | ◆ 288.25 nm | 7. Pr -2 |
| 8. He Press | ◆ | 8. Cl2 -5 |
| 9. Pressure | | 9. He Chuck |
| 10. RF Tuner | | 10. TCP +30 |
| 11. RF Load | | 11. Cl2 +5 |
| 12. RF Phase Err | | 12. BCl3 -5 |
| 13. RF Pwr | | 13. Pr +2 |
| 14. RF Impedance | | 14. TCP -20 |
| 15. TCP Tuner | | 15. TCP -15 |
| 16. TCP Phase Err | | 16. Cl2 -10 |
| 17. TCP Impedance | | 17. RF -12 |
| 18. TCP Top Pwr | | 18. BCl3 +10 |
| 19. TCP Rfl Pwr | | 19. Pr +1 |
| 20. TCP Load | | 20. TCP +20 |
| 21. Vat Valve | | |

METHODS

A Health Examination system is a multidimensional system. In Most of the multidimensional systems, the objective is to make a decision based on several input characteristics ("characteristics" are also referred to as "variables"). Traditionally, Mahalanobis distance (MD) is used to determine the similarity of a set of values from an unknown sample to a set of values measured from a collection of known samples. The original MD calculations can be obtained from Mahalanobis (1936). In the present method, MD is suitably scaled and used to construct a scale to monitor the condition of entities of a multidimensional system. The method has a new way of deciding which variables are useful (important) using Orthogonal Arrays (OA's) and S/N ratios. A discussion on OA's and S/N ratios is given in Taguchi (1987). Unlike in other methods, in this method the abnormalities ("abnormalities" are also referred to as "abnormals") do not constitute a separate population – they are unique. Therefore, our problem is not one of classification into two populations of normal and abnormal. The measures and methods used in Mahalanobis-Taguchi-System (MTS) are data analytic (using the measures of descriptive statistics and principles of Taguchi Methods) rather than usual probability based inference.

THE MAHALANOBIS-TAGUCHI SYSTEM (MTS)

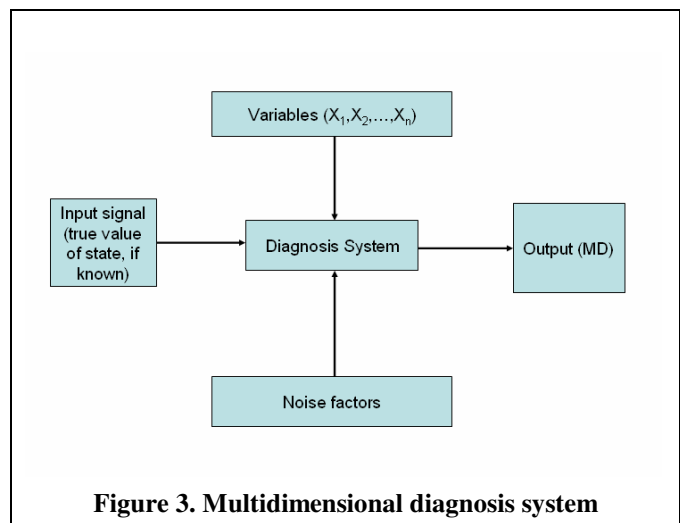


Figure 3. Multidimensional diagnosis system

A typical multidimensional system used in MTS is shown in Figure 3. In this figure X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n correspond to the variables which provide a set of information to make a decision. Using these variables, MS (Mahalanobis Space) is constructed for the healthy group, which becomes the reference point for the measurement scale. After constructing the MS, the measurement scale is justified by considering the known normals. The normals have to be checked with the given input signals and in the presence of the noise factor (if any).

MTS is a diagnostic and forecasting tool for identifying the degree of abnormality of observations based on multivariate variables of “normal” group of observations. Examples of normal groups are the healthy persons in a drug diagnostic, the persons with good credit in a credit evaluation, and the good products in a product inspection process. To apply MTS, the first step is to define and sample “normal” observations to construct a reference space, which is also referred to Mahalanobis Space (MS), and then we identify whether the created Mahalanobis Distance (MD) has the ability to differentiate “normal” group from “abnormal” group.

❖ **Phase 1: Construct a measurement scale with MS as the reference**

In order to construct a measurement scale, we need to collect a set of “normal” observations and standardize the variables of these observations to calculate the Mahalanobis distances (MDs). MD measures distances in multidimensional spaces by taking into account the correlation among variables. In classical methods, Mahalanobis Distance is used to find the “nearness” of an unknown point from the mean of a group. In MTS, the MD in (1) is the original MD divided by k . The MDs define a Mahalanobis Space (MS), which provides a reference point for the measurement scale. The following is the formula used to calculate MDs:

$$MD_j = D_j^2 = (1/k) Z_{ij}^T C^{-1} Z_{ij} \quad (1)$$

Where Z_i =standardized vector obtained by standardized values of $X_i (i = 1, 2 \dots k)$

$$Z_{ij} = (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_i) / S_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, k, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$\bar{X}_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n X_{ij}}{n}$$

Where X_{ij} =value of i -th variable j -th observation

$$S_i = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_i)^2}{n-1}}$$

Where S_i = standard deviations of i -th variable, C^{-1} = the inverse of correlation matrix, k = number of variables, n = number of observations, T = transpose of the standard vector.

According to Dr. Taguchi [4] the average value of MD is equal to 1 for all the observations in MS, which is why MS is also called unit space.

❖ **Phase 2: Validate the measurement scale**

For validating the measurement scale, we choose observations outside of MS, usually “abnormal” observations. In the MTS, the decision maker chooses solely the variables that are required for creating an MTS measurement scale, so these variables need to be examined again to make sure they are properly selected. After the measurement scale is established, we need to use observations outside of MS to evaluate if these variables are suitable. If the numbers of abnormal observations are t , we use the average and standard deviation and correlation matrix of these “normal” observations to calculate the MD in the “abnormal” observations. **According to the MTS theory, the MD of “abnormal” observations will be larger than the MD of “normal” observations, if this is a good scale.**

RESULTS - Faults Detection

Step 1: Define the problem

In the MTS approach, we need to define “normal” observations to construct the MS. In this example we define three groups of training datasets as “normal” observations as shown in row 2 of Table 2, and use the MS constructed from these “normal” observations to differentiate the other three test datasets as shown in row 3 of Table 2.

Table 2 Experiment Split Information

| Experiment No. | Experiment 1 | Experiment 2 | Experiment 3 |
|------------------|------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| Training Dataset | Wafers 1 - 34 | Wafers 35 - 71 | Wafers 72 - 108 |
| Test Dataset | Wafers 1 - 9 | Wafers 10 - 15 | Wafers 16 - 21 |

Step 2: Define response/control variables

We define the 21 machine state variables and 129 OES variables as the control factors, and MD as the response variable.

Step 3: Construct the “Full Model MTS Measurement Scale”

In this step, we collect “normal” observations to construct the “Full Model MTS Measurement Scale”.

Table 3, 4 and 5 show the three different experiment results. The measurement scale is constructed by training datasets while the capability of measurement scale is demonstrated by test datasets. Table 3 shows the MDs distribution between this “normal” data and the other “abnormal” data. The average of the MDs for normal data of Experiment 1 is 0.999713, which is very close to 1. This is very close to the theory of the MTS. The range of the MDs for abnormal data for Experiment 1 is 2.75 – 43.815. The results of experiment 2 and 3 are shown in Table 4 and 5, respectively.

Table 3 Experiment 1 Machine State Variables results

| | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Datasets | Experiment 1 | |
| Training datasets MD | 1.83727 | |
| Threshold limit, average MD | (0.999713) | |
| Test datasets MDs (2.75 – 43.815) | 0 Wafer | 1 MD |
| | ----- | |
| | 1 8 | 2.751194 |
| | 2 5 | 2.772649 |
| | 3 6 | 2.797539 |
| | 4 9 | 2.899345 |
| | 5 2 | 2.968293 |
| | 6 1 | 3.383198 |
| | 7 3 | 4.667629 |
| | 8 7 | 28.47446 |
| 9 4 | 43.81564 | |

Table 4 Experiment 2 Machine State Variables results

| | | |
|---|-------------------|------------------|
| Datasets | Experiment 2 | |
| Training datasets MD | 1.894087 | |
| Threshold limit, average MD | (0.999725) | |
| Test datasets MDs (2.4498 – 201.701) | 0 Wafer | 1 MD |
| | ----- | |
| | 1 11 | 2.449816 |
| | 2 15 | 2.934251 |
| | 3 12 | 3.95354 |
| | 4 10 | 4.436855 |
| | 5 14 | 13.465369 |
| 6 13 | 201.701001 | |

Table 5 Experiment 3 Machine State Variables results

| | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|--|
| Datasets | Experiment 3 | |
| Training datasets MD | 1.989112 | |
| Threshold limit, average MD | (0.999718) | |

| | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|-----------------|
| | 0 Wafer | 1 MD |
| Test datasets MDs (2.453 – 5.758) | 1 17 | 2.453123 |
| | 2 16 | 2.661746 |
| | 3 18 | 3.323704 |
| | 4 20 | 4.416141 |
| | 5 21 | 4.55294 |
| | 6 19 | 5.758571 |

Step 4: Validate the ability of the measurement scale

According to the MTS theory, the MD of “abnormal” observation will be larger than the MD of “normal” observation, if this is a good measurement scale. In this study, we use a test sample to validate and calculate the MD for each observation. The MD threshold limit is computed from the training dataset with %95 confidence level. The result shows that the measurement scale constructed by all 21 machine state variables is good, since all the test wafers’ MD are all greater than the respective threshold limit. Therefore, they were all identified as faulty wafers.

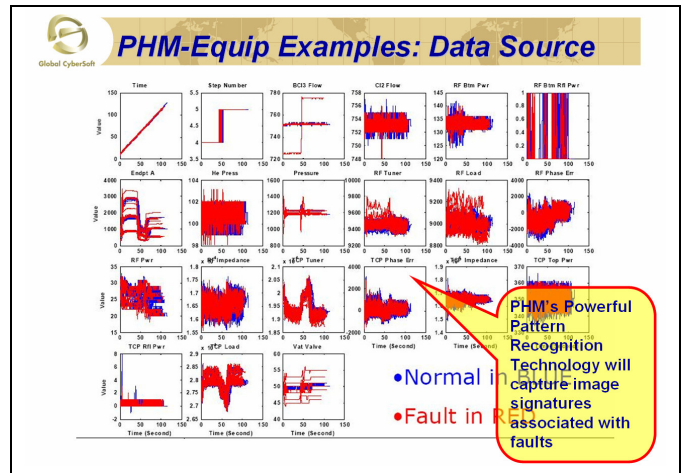


Figure 4 Signal Plots vs time for Machine State Variables

RESULTS - Faults Classification

For machine state faults detection, a model with 21 variables (i.e. 21 dimensional system) was built to detect system faults. The 21x21 correlation matrix contains all the correlated information among the 21 variables. Similar to the machine state model, a 129x129 model with 129 variables was also built using OES dataset.

In order to find out the variables associated with the system faults, we need to be able to distinguish the signal pattern shift of each variable as shown in Figure 4 between the test dataset and the model built from the training dataset. Therefore, we need to build pattern recognition models for each variable. For each variable in the training dataset, we plot the signal pattern vs time. Then we converted the image

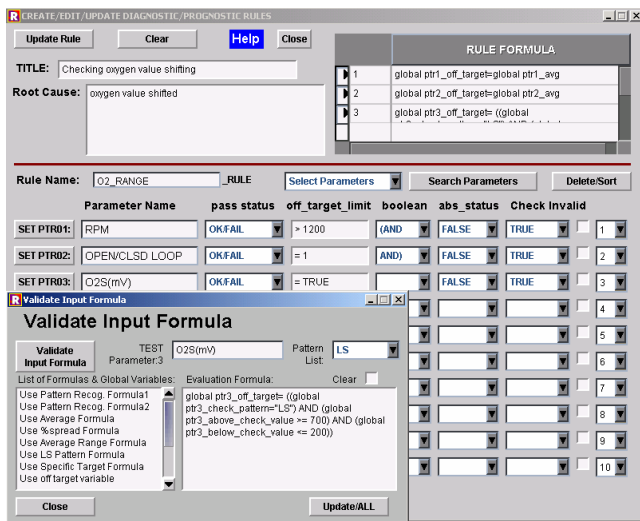


Figure 9. Failing oxygen sensor prognostic rule

CONCLUSION

The domain knowledge stored in the PHM-Equip and PHM-APC subsystems (Figure 2) will feed forward and feed backward through the entire process flow. Wafer Electrical Test information from the PHM-Etest subsystem will be easily shared with process and equipment engineers. Likewise, process and equipment operational information from PHM-Equip and PHM-APC subsystems can also be shared with Device and Test engineers to achieve a Fab-wide collaboration environment. As a result, equipment and processes are monitored “real time” allowing for immediate notification, identification and suggested remediation of both equipment and process issues. This in turn provides decreased scrap wafers, improved process, quality control, and increased yield to the Fab environment. Additionally, with a Knowledge Base of countless years of equipment maintenance knowledge, equipment repairs, spares and warranty issues can be tracked in a single location. Even small gains in yield can provide millions of dollars in increased revenues to any Fab.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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BIOGRAPHY

Chin Sun received the B.S. degree in Chemistry from National Chung-Hsing University in Taiwan, R.O.C. in 1980 and the M.S. degree in electrical engineering from the University of Arizona in 1988. For the last 17 years, Mr. Sun worked for IDT and AMD as a yield enhancement engineer. Mr. Sun holds 4 US Patents. He is currently the President and CTO of Quality Wise Knowledge Solutions.

Kevin Nguyen offers 25 years of extensive entrepreneurial experience in system integration and internet-related activities, specializing in semiconductor IC design and manufacturing layout. He founded several factory automation consulting companies in Silicon Valley. Prior to being an entrepreneur, Kevin worked as senior technical professional for various major US hi-tech companies including IBM, Honeywell, and Boeing Computer Services. Kevin earned a BSIE from University of Illinois and a MSIE from University of Cincinnati.

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Scott Bisland is the Equipment Services Manager at Sematech / ATDF Inc., Advanced Technology Development Facility, Austin Texas. Seasoned Project Manager of successful multi-million dollar conversion and installation projects. Scott received the B.S. Electronics Engineering degree from Texas A & M University, College Station Texas in 1987. In 1989, Scott was an instructor of Laser Electro-Optics at Texas State Technical College, Waco Texas.