

FIB-SEM based 3D tomography of micro-electronic components: Application to automotive high-definition LED lighting systems

Safa Nocairi, Nicolas Compère, Antonin Bermond, Christine Roucoules, Sergio Sao Joao, Matthieu Lenci, Guillaume Kermouche, Helmut Klöcker

▶ To cite this version:

Safa Nocairi, Nicolas Compère, Antonin Bermond, Christine Roucoules, Sergio Sao Joao, et al.. FIB-SEM based 3D tomography of micro-electronic components: Application to automotive high-definition LED lighting systems. Microelectronics Reliability, 2022, 137, pp.114749. 10.1016/j.microrel.2022.114749. hal-03782555

HAL Id: hal-03782555

https://hal.science/hal-03782555

Submitted on 22 Sep 2022

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1	
2 3 4	FIB-SEM based 3D tomography of micro-electronic components: Application to automotive high-definition LED lighting systems Safa NOCAIRI (*1)(3), Nicolas Compère (2), Antonin Bermond (3), Christine Roucoules (1),
5	Sergio Sao-Joao (3), Matthieu Lenci (3), Guillaume Kermouche (3), Helmut Klöcker (3)
6	(1): Valeo Lighting Systems, 93000, Bobigny, France
7 8	(2): Manutech-USD, Bâtiment des Hautes Technologies, 20, Rue Professeur Benoît Lauras, 42000 Saint-Étienne, France
9 10	⁽³⁾ Mines Saint-Etienne, Univ Lyon, CNRS, UMR 5307 LGF, Centre SMS, F - 42023 Saint-Etienne France
11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 33 33 34 35 36 37 38 40 40 41	Abstract The first lead-free solders revealed as a weak part of electronic components and LED assemblies. In new high definition lighting modules, assembling more than thousand elements (pixels) with a single mm-sized motherboard is achieved by reflow soldering. During reflow, the distance between pixels and motherboard controls the solder heights (10µm). After assembly, all the pixels are in a single plane. To ensure constant solder heights, this plane has to be parallel to the motherboard. A small disorientation during reflow may lead to severe solder damage prior to any use of the opto-electronic component. Present work presents a novel non-destructive method for characterizing any chosen solder in the assembled component without unpacking the latter. A femtosecond motorized laser source is used for digging a hole in the LED above the selected solder. Then a Focused Ion Beam facility allows to mill around this specific solder. The same FIB facility allows making several hundred slices of controlled thickness and orientation in the solder material. During this slicing operation, high-resolution inspection is done by FEG-SEM imaging. 3D tomographic reconstruction of the solder is obtained by classical commercial software AVIZO. Finally, 3D damage in solder material is illustrated by example results. Keywords: characterize assembled LED, reflow, damage, Focused Ion Beam, Femtosecond Laser, Very high resolution Tomography
41 42 43	safa.nocari@valeo.com
4 5	

1. Introduction

 Over the past fifteen years, LED lamps have become very common in automotive lighting due to long service life and reasonable power requirements [1]. The first product families assembled with lead free solders revealed significant fatigue damage in the solder material. Consequently, solders were considered the weakest components. However, solders are essential for electric current supply as well as thermal and mechanical reliability.

The microstructure of lead free solders [2-5], as well as their interfacial reaction with common substrates [6, 7] were analyzed thoroughly. Gao et al. characterized intermetallics evolution in Sn-3.5Ag based solders [8]. Ventura et al. analyzed the solidification kinetics of Sn-Cu solder alloys [9]. Phase diagram prediction is still an active field in solder research [10]. Lee and Bieler presented two reviews on lead-free solders in 2015 and 2017 [11, 12]. Mechanical reliability was considered an important issue right from the beginning of lead free solder characterization. Several specific tests inside the SEM were developed [13, 14]. In the first generation of lead free Cu/Sn solders bismuth segregation led to interfacial embrittlement [15]. Zheng et al. addressed the reliability of several lead free solders [16]. Already in 2003, Suo [17] laid the theoretical bases for all of solder reliability analyses. Since then, numerous new contributions are constantly made [18]. These analyzes were dedicated to in depth characterization of a single or a small number of solders.

Smart headlamps with an integrated camera are available since 2006 [19, 20]. This led to the development of a 'matrix beam' with many pixels [21]. Meanwhile, modules consisting of 50-100 LEDs allow minimizing glare by turning off the light emitted in specific directions. Wireless communication technologies [22-24] leading to enhanced safety need lead to the development of *pixelated LEDs with several thousand pixels assembled by reflow to a single motherboard.* Typical solder heights are in the µm-range. The in plane dimensions of the motherboards are in the mm or cm-range. The final height and shape of the solders is thus controlled by the reflow process. A small disorientation *during reflow may lead to severe solder damage prior to any use of the opto-electronic component.* To the best of our knowledge, no non-destructive inspection method of a particular solder after reflow exist. In present paper, we present a novel inspection technique allowing *characterizing any chosen solder without dissembling the opto-electronic component.* To demonstrate the feasibility of the method, the new characterization is applied to one specific component with particular solder dimensions. However, these experimental methods are adapted for characterizing solders with typical dimensions reaching from several tens of µm to some mm.

A femtosecond motorized laser source is used for digging a hole in the LED above the selected solder. Laser machining has been applied for more than 20 years in microelectronics [25]. Then a Focused Ion Beam facility allows to mill around this specific solder [26]. The same FIB facility allows making several hundred slices of controlled thickness and orientation in the solder material. During this slicing operation, high-resolution inspection is done by FEG-SEM imaging. 3D tomographic reconstruction of the solder is obtained by classical commercial software AVIZO. Finally, 3D damage in solder material is illustrated by example results.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 explains the component architecture and reflow assembling. The following section explains the experimental steps in detail. The fourth section presents the main results with an emphasis on information gained by the combination of high-resolution SEM images and 3D tomographic analysis applied to a particular component [27].

2. Component Architecture and Assembling

A new pixelated LED (Figure 1a) was designed to analyze the reflow with several hundred of small micron-sized solders. The latter are connected to the substrate to allow electric current flow and system cooling through interconnect joints. As illustrated in Figure 1b, each pixel contains two pads (PN junctions). This architecture establishes a major step towards increased safety and vehicle-to-vehicle communication.

After reflow (soldering), perfect functioning of each interconnect has to be guaranteed. However, the close packed architecture increases the difficulty of the soldering process to a yet unknown level due to the very small solder height and the huge die extensions. Effectively, small die rotations around the x-or y-axis cause huge variations in solder height. The aim of this work is a 3D characterization of any desired solder <u>in the assembled structure</u>. We have thus deliberately chosen this novel architecture to highlight the efficiency of 3D tomographic characterization with SEM-typical resolutions. In the next section, the principle of combined femtosecond laser local Die ablation followed by FIB milling of the solder material will be given.

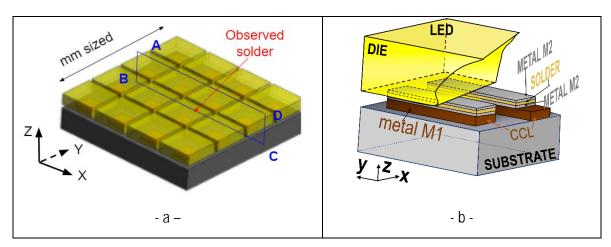


Figure 1: Schematic representation of high definition LED. (a) Overall architecture, (b) zoom in on a single pixel.

3. Experimental

3.1. 2D SEM observations

Prior to 3D characterization of the solders, microscopic observations after reflow assembling were made in a ZEISS SUPRA 55 VP Scanning Electron Microscope. First, the entire LED and then specific cross sections were characterized. Cross sections were prepared by milling with a Jeol Cross Polisher IB-19530CP using an Argon Ion beam. In a first step, the samples were cut with a diamond wire saw to fit in the cross polisher chamber. In a second step, a mask, on top of the sample, reveals only the part to be removed by the Argon beam. All details and parameters used for cross polishing are given in table 2. After polishing with this new facility, samples were ready for SEM observations (table 1).

Figure 2a shows SEM observations before and after cross polishing with the optimized parameters given in table 2. Observations were made in the plane ABCD (Figure 1a) perpendicular to the y-axis. Figure 2b zooms on one pixel. The region of interest corresponds to the solder exhibiting a heterogeneous distribution of micro-voids. These small micro-voids are difficult to characterize by X-ray micro-tomography [27-29]. Fraczkiewicz et al. [30] applied high-resolution X-ray tomography with a pixel-size of 100nm. However, the rotations needed for scanning limit these observations to single solders. A full <u>3D high-resolution SEM based tomography</u> of a solder in the assembled LED is developed in the next paragraph.

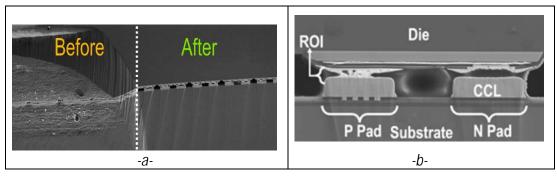


Figure 2: Sample after reflow. (a) SEM observation before and after cross polishing, (b) Zoom in on a single pixel depicting voids in the solder material (ROI).

3.2 Sample preparation for 3D Characterization

3.2.1. General outline of the method

After reflow, the LED architecture corresponds to the sketch in figure 3a. The upper part is formed by thick *light emitting* dies (>100 μ m) and thick substrate. The new method aims at characterizing the interconnects, particularly the solders, *without causing any additional damage* in the latter. This requirement excludes chemical dissolution of the die or substrate. Indeed, to the best of our knowledge, there is no chemical substance dissolving semiconductor materials without attacking the metallic interconnects.

Thus the scenario depicted in figure 3 was used on samples after reflow soldering (fig. 3a) with one zone of interest shown. A deep hole is excavated in the die by femtosecond laser ablation (fig. 3b). This step leads to the sandwich formed of 20µm die-material, the interconnects and the substrate are depicted in figure 3c. This sandwich is submitted to successive FIB milling and image acquisition in planes perpendicular to the y-axis. The following sections detail the different operations.

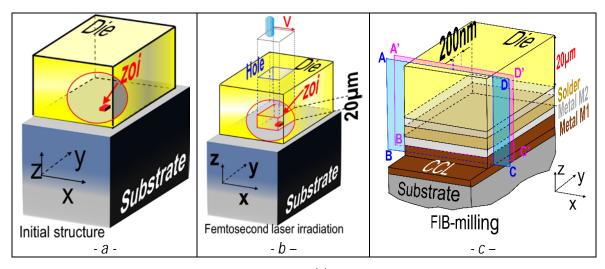


Figure 3: Overall procedure for 3D characterization. (a) The as assembled component after reflow. zoi indicates the zone of interest for further characterization. This is hidden by a thick die-layer. (b) The femtosecond laser produced a deep hole in the die-layer. The zoi is composed of 20µm die-material and the underlying interconnects. (c) Zoom in on the volume submitted to FIB milling. SEM observations are done in planes ABCD and A'B'C'D' perpendicular to the y-axis. CCL designates the current circuit layer.

3.2.2. Femtosecond laser Die ablation

With a 100 W TANGOR (Amplitude Systems) femtosecond laser, rectangular holes with controlled depths were dug in the die-layer. Figure 4a shows a schematic representation of the test facility. After passing through an expender with different lenses, the beam (X, Y)-coordinates are controlled through the displacement of two motorized mirrors $(M_1 \text{ and } M_2)$. Finally the beam passes through a lens with a focal distance of 170 mm. A constant spot size is achieved. The beam has a diameter of 55 μ m at the intersection with the work zone. Table 3 relates the femtosecond laser characteristics.

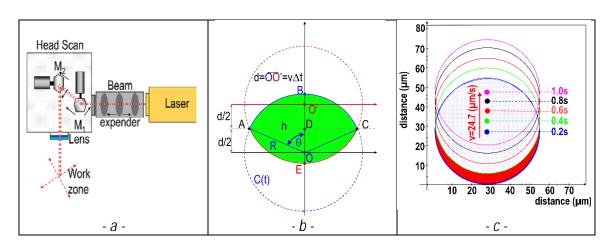


Figure 4: Hole digging by femtosecond laser ablation. (a) Schematic representation of the test facility. Laser impact corresponding to the optimized parameters of table 4 (5Hz and 24.7μm/s): (b) two successive positions of the laser spot in the (x, y)-space. (c)beam displacement along the y-axis is illustrated during 1s, showing the overlap between successive pulses. The area in red is not ablated; the dotted area is ablate after 1s.

The laser speed v, the pulse duration and frequency as well as the mean power can be controlled. These parameters were optimized by ablating successive 1200 μ m wide squares (figure 5) on the die. Two distinct optimization procedures were used to determine the optimal parameters. First, the mean power and pulse frequency were set to the values in table 4. Each pulse corresponds to a circle (55 μ m diameter) on the work zone. Successive pulses lead to successive circles. The centers of these circles move with the same speed as the laser (Figure 4b). The laser speed v leading to 2 μ m ablation in a single loop was determined. The pulse frequency and laser speed given in table 4 lead to an overlap between successive circles (lens ABCE in figure 4b). The area A of the lens ABCD may be expressed as follows:

$$A = 2\arccos\left(\frac{d}{2R}\right)R^2 - d\sqrt{4R^2 - d^2}, d = v\Delta t \tag{1}$$

R is the spot radius (50 μ m) and d is the distance between two successive centers of the spot.v and and Δt stand respectively for the laser speed (24.7 μ ms/s) and the time between two laser impacts (0.2s). This leads to an overlap between two successive impacts of 90.6%. The process parameters being known, the last optimization step was dedicated to determining the number of loops on each square. We aimed an ablation depth of 20 μ m. Successive squares were thus submitted to an increased number of laser loops (Figure 5b).

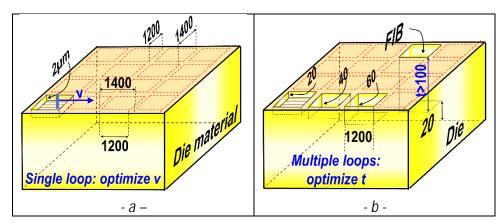


Figure 5: Die ablation with femtosecond laser. (a) Determination of the beam velocity to guarantee fixed ablation thickness for a single loop. (b) Determination of the maximum ablation depth ensuring undamaged interconnects.

Figure 6a shows a SEM observation with squares of successively deeper grooves in the die. The process was stopped in the square corresponding to the desired ablation depth. Figure 6b shows SEM observations of the last ablated squares. The ablation depths as well as the remaining die-material layer were checked thoroughly on the die. Once all the ablation parameters were determined, the procedure was repeated in the center of the die with the desired ablation depth, leaving $20\mu m$ thickness. This left the component ready for FIB milling.

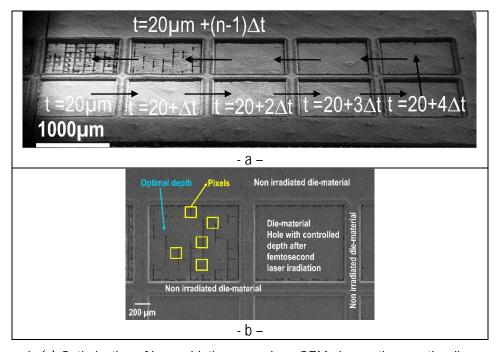


Figure 6: (a) Optimization of laser ablation procedure. SEM observations on the die used for determining the optimized parameters. Successively increased ablation depths $(t=20\mu m+\Delta t)$ in each square, (b) and (c) zoom in on the last squares ablated.

3.2.3. FIB milling and image acquisition

The optimal ablation parameters were applied at the center of the die (fig. 7a). The analysis was done on the solder marked by a blue dashed line. A red dashed line illustrates the zone of slicing corresponding to the whole solder.

205 206 207

217 218

First platinum is deposited (white dashed line) gradually along the solder length in order to reduce curtaining effects during the slicing. During platinum deposition, the current is fixed at 0.77nA and the voltage at 30kV. Then material milling is operated in zones 0-2 under 65nA (figures 7b, c). Figure 7b shows an intermediate state. The milling in zone 0 is completed. The milling of zone 2 is in progress and the milling of zone 1 has to be done. Milling of zone 3 (fig. 7c) was added to decrease the slicing time later on. Before beginning the second step, the ZOI (Zone of Interest) is cleaned by slicing four times with 21 nA. Table 6 gives all the detailed values of current, voltage and time interval for each sub-step.

In the last step prior to slicing (Figure 8), the slicing width (ws), height (hs) and direction are defined. Each image contains a fiducial as shown in figure 8. Figure 8a depicts the fiducial (cross) used as slicing reference. The image with this cross and the zone of slicing (white dashed line) is used by the slicing software as reference for the (xy) plane. The size of the slices in the (x, y) plane, the milling time (related to the milling depth in the v direction) and the relative position of the milling area and the fiducial are defined at this instant. The slices are 200 nm thick in the y direction. The other fiducial (figure 8b) as well as the zone of interest (zoi) are defined on a second image. During image acquisition, the same tilt angle as during subsequent slicing is used. The two fiducials are constructed by platinum deposition (table 7). At this stage, the width (w_s) and height of slicing (h_s) are defined. The milling depth for each step has been defined previously.

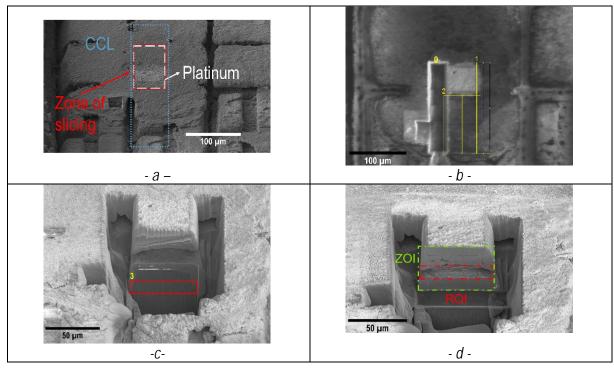
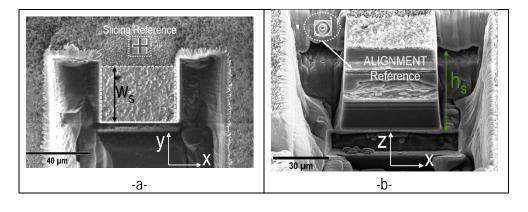


Figure 7: (a) Slicing zone localization, (b) Digging around one pad, (c)-(d) definition of ZOI and ROI



After deposition of the fiducials, more than 400 slices (2.5nA, 30kV) were milled and image acquisition done for each slice. Each milling operation took 30s per slice. In addition, for each slice the acquisition time was about 1 min.

4. Results:

4.1 3D solder observation after reflow

The complete solder volume has been analyzed with a <u>voxel size controlled by the SEM resolution</u> in the (x, z) plane and of I_y =200nm in the y (slicing) direction. Image acquisition was done with a tilt angle of 52°, leading to a slightly larger voxel size in the z than in the z-direction (I_z =18nm, I_z =23nm). Each slice, in the (x, z)-plane, the image dimensions contains more than 2500 pixels in the z-direction and more than 1500 pixels in the z-direction, corresponding (with the tilt correction) to I_z =55.3 I_z m and I_z =47.1 I_z m (figure 9). 530 slices were analyzed with Amira and a 3D reconstruction was achieved. Figure 9 shows the total volume observed. The total volume reconstructed in the z-direction corresponds to 90 I_z m.

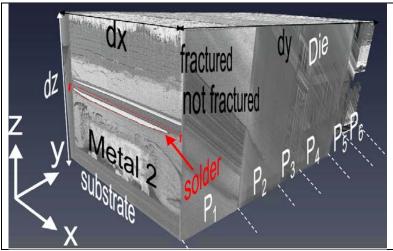


Figure 9: 3D reconstruction of the total observed volume (dx=55.3μm,dy=90μm,dz=47.1μm). The solder is indicated by the red rectangle.

About $20\mu m$ die-material was left above the interconnects. Equidistant cracks are observed in the upper part of the die (Figure 9). This corresponds to the successive loops of the laser impacts with layer thickness of about $2\mu m$. However, the die-material close to the interconnects is not damaged (Figure 9). After cracking, the fractured layers of die-material act as a buffer (damper) and protect the underlying material from damage. Henceforth, we assume no significant damage is induced in the solder material by the laser impacts. However, today, to our knowledge no mechanical model of the effects of laser impacts on complex structures exists. With this technique, the total solder height is observed at high magnification (pixel size: $I_x=18nm$, $I_z=23nm$).

In the following, 3D reconstructions of the solder are analyzed. Due to its small height compared to the two other dimensions, we decided to consider six connected parts (P_1 to P_6). The best 3D representation we could make out dictated the width (in the y direction) of each individual part. Figure 10 depicts 3D reconstructions of the solder material and the voids present in each part. All the dimensions are given in μ m. 55.3 μ m corresponds to the milling width in the x direction. The solder fits in this observation window. The total width in the y direction of all the parts sums up to 90 μ m. Moving from part P_1 to part P_6 , reveals a significant variation in the outer shape of the solder volume. In part P_1 , no notch

is visible. Parts P_2 to P_6 develop notches on both sides of the solder. The width w of minimum material layer decreases significantly from part P_1 to P_6 . Part P_6 exhibits extremely deep notches. These extremely strong variations in the solder geometry can only be observed by a 3D SEM-based high-resolution tomography.

High-resolution tomography not only allows reconstruction of the 3D volume, but also to analyze independently all the 530 slices separated by 200nm in the y direction. Some examples highlighting the powerfulness of tomography with an SEM-resolution are given below.

Figure 11 depicts one of the 530 sections. Figure 11a shows the entire section. Before focusing on the ROI (region of interest), centered on the solder material, we consider the different material layers. EDX analyses were done in this and similar sections. On figure 11a, the locations of the CCL, the wetting material 1 and wetting material 3 are indicated. Figure 11b offers a zoom of regions a, b and c. Clearly, metal 3 covers all the outer CCL borders. All over the entire joint between the CCL and solder, metal 3 is present and nice interdiffusion operated. Note that only the high SEM resolution allows checking the presence of the submicron sized metal 3-layer. At this stage, one could assume a perfect solder CCL-interface. The situation will change dramatically in the next paragraph.

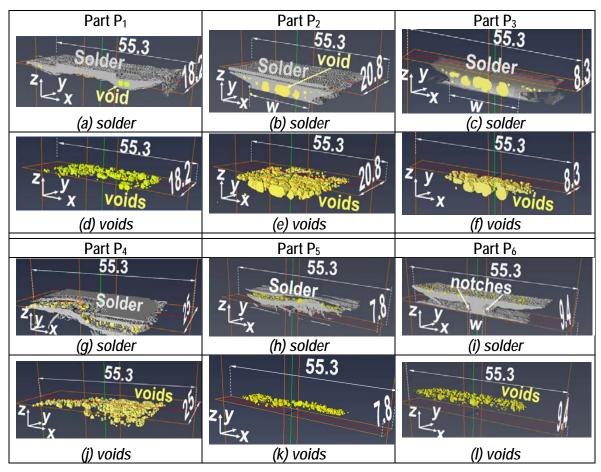


Figure 10: 3D reconstruction of the total solder volume (dx=55.3μm, dy=90μm, dz=47.1μm). Each part (P1 to P6) is depicted separately. For all the parts, two images are shown. The first shows the solder volume. The second depicts the voids inside the solder. All dimensions are given in μm.

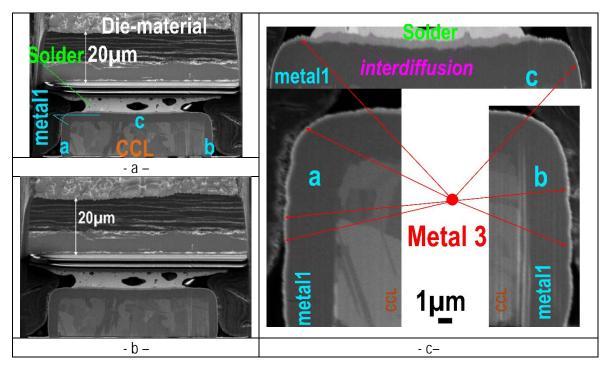
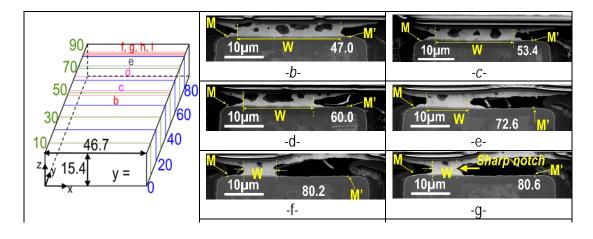


Figure 11: SEM-observation of one typical slice. (a) The total observed section (ZOI) with the main materials detectable in this section. (b) The same section without annotations (c) Zoom in on the boundaries to highlight the perfect covering by metal 3 of the entire CCL boundary.

Figure 11 highlighted the paramount importance of SEM resolution on a single cross section. The same analysis was done on all the 530 cross sections. Figure 12 depicts specific sections particularly useful for qualifying the reflow process. Figure 12a depicts a sketch of the entire ROI with the location of slices b to i. First, the maximum width w of the solder at the CCL interface was determined considering all the slices. Points M and M' indicate the largest segment observed at the solder CCL-interface (Figure 12b). The interface covered with solder material decreases between slices b and h. Finally, at section i starts a no contact area. As mentioned in the previous paragraph, the distribution of wetting metal all over the CCL reveals satisfying. Thus, wetting does not explain the strong evolution of the contact between CCL and solder. Instead, we reveal a local disorientation between the upper part (die) and lower part CCL. Slices e to i reveal large distances between the upper CCL border and lower solder border. Present sections show much larger gaps to be covered by the solder material. Relative rotation between the CCL and upper part of the component (die) may be the cause of these distances. Imperfect soldering leads to deep notches. Figure 12g shows a very sharp notch.



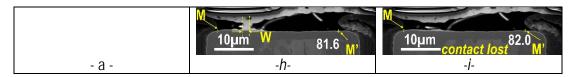


Figure 12: SEM-observations after soldering. (a) Schematic representation of the solder indicating the location of the different sections. (b-i) Cross sectional observations of the solder.

The last example shows the advantage of high resolution in the slicing direction ($0.2\mu m$). Figure 13 depicts SEM observations on slices very close to each other. One single observation (Figure 13a) would lead to consider three independent voids marked v_1 to v_3 . On the following slices, these micro-voids coalesce geometrically to form a single one. In addition, on the last slice shown they appear as independent voids. Analyzing void interaction is of primary importance when dealing with solders containing large via holes. The latter combine with micro-voids caused by the soldering process.

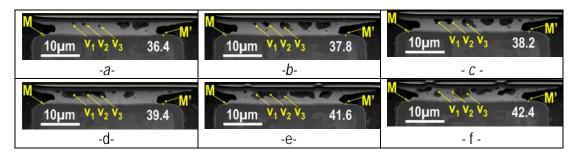


Figure 13: SEM-observations after soldering. Geometric coalescence of micro-voids. (a–b) 3 independent voids v_1 , v_2 , v_3 are observed. (c) v_1 and v_2 coalesced. (d-e) v_1 , v_2 , v_3 form a single void. (f) v_1 , v_2 , v_3 appear disconnected.

5. Discussion

The purpose of present work was the development of a novel inspection method allowing characterizing solders embedded in a complex architecture without disassembling the component. The first step consists of digging a hole of controlled dimension by femtosecond laser irradiation. This procedure was optimized in order to minimize the remaining layer of die-material while ensuring a small height of the latter was not fractured. The second step consists of successive FIB milling (slicing) and image acquisition. The last step consists of 3D reconstruction of the slices.

The optimized process parameters are given in table 4. After laser ablation, the interconnects are still covered by a $20\mu m$ thick layer of die material. The outermost $10\mu m$ of die-material exhibit a layered structure with an approximate thickness of $2\mu m$. The last $10\mu m$ do not reveal damage in all the observed 530 slices. We assume thus that the material beneath is not affected by the successive laser impacts. A theoretical analysis of successive laser impacts and consequent material ablation might be considered in future work.

After determining the optimized parameters for the femtosecond laser ablation, the total FIB milling and image acquisition required a week. Smaller distances between successive slices would of course increase this time. However, the milling time does not increase linearly with the number of slices. A large part of the FIB milling time corresponds to the sample preparation detailed in figure 8.

The analysis of only one solder is presented in present paper. The results allow however to draw significant conclusions on the reflow assembling process. The high-resolution SEM images confirm the presence of a wetting metal layer all around the CCL in all the 530 slices. This submicron layer is of course only detectable by SEM or TEM observations. Present analysis revealed however severe damage in the solder. The successive slices in figure 12 show a strong variation in the distance between the CCL and the upper part of the component. This indicates clearly a misalignment between the lower and upper part of the LED during reflow assembling. This effect can, of course, not be simulated on single solders or on

smaller architectures. Present method allowing damage characterization on the final product architecture is thus useful when developing new designs.

The new inspection method was applied to a particular solder in a particular opto-electronic component in order to show the feasibility and in order to highlight the need of 3D characterization of the solders. The data given in tables 1 to 3 are specific to the microscope and laser used. The reader can find the optimized parameters in tables 4 to 7. The same method may be easily adapted to other opto-electronic components. Only a few parameters have to be adapted to the particular substrate material. The determination of the specific overlap of the laser beam (table 4) may be determined on the substrate material without the presence of the opto-electronic component.

The purpose of present analysis is a very close description of the damage consequent to the assembling process. Observing a single solder revealed the large variation in geometry of the latter. The test is thought to be an advanced control for soldering complex architectures. Nevertheless, the results give indications on potential mechanical models of the component. The huge variations in solder geometry hint to a statistical approach. In a solder complex shaped notches, via holes and micro-voids interact. With new FIB technology allowing faster milling, a large number of observations (slices) might be the first step to a database for artificial intelligence algorithms of the soldering process.

6. Conclusions

Assembling products with numerous interconnects by reflow is challenging. Solder materials have been largely studied in the last decade. The present work addressed the issue of characterizing any chosen solder in the as assembled condition of a complex architecture. An experimental LED was dissected by femtosecond laser irradiating the die-material layer. After optimizing the femtosecond laser parameters, a deep hole was obtained in the die-material layer. Then, successive FIB milling on 200nm distant slices and image acquisition on a scanning electron microscope were made. 530 SEM observations of a single solder were obtained. Amira allowed 3D reconstruction.

All the SEM observations show that no damage in the solders was induced by the preparation techniques. The high-resolution 3D tomography combined with EDX observations allows otherwise impossible characterizations of submicron material layers. As an illustration, the presence of wetting metal surrounding the current circuit layer (CCL) was confirmed in present work. The small distance between successive slices (200nm) is particularly well adapted for characterizing the heterogeneities of different submicron material layers or heterogeneities of solder geometry in microelectronics. As an example, present work revealed micro-void coalescence in the solder material. This ability of the new tool is of primary importance to analyze the influence of solder design (e.g. the presence of via holes).

Finally, the primary importance of characterizing the solders in the real assembled architecture was shown. Covering the total solder length with high-resolution slices allowed detecting an abnormal distance between the lower and upper part of the component. Thus, present work identified clearly, which problems occurred during the reflow soldering process. The same technique can be applied fruitfully after special test loadings during product development (thermal cycles or thermal shock cycle loading) of the component. If the time needed for the characterization might seem large at first glance, dividing the total time by the number of slices (SEM images) shows the efficiency of the present method.

References

- [1] Coushaine et al. United States US 2005O281 033A1 (12) Patent Application Publication (10) Pub. No.: US 2005/0281033 A1Coushaine et al. (43) Pub. Date: Dec. 22, 2005
- [2] Glazer J. Microstructure and mechanical properties of Pb-free solder alloys for low-cost electronic assembly: a review. J Electron Mater. 1994; 23:693–700.

- Abtew M, Selvaduray G. Lead-free solders in microelectronics. Mater Sci Eng R. 2000; 27:95–386 141.
- Grossmann G, Tharian J, Jud P, Sennhauser U. Microstructural investigation of lead-free BGAs soldered with tin-lead solder. Solder Surf Mt Technol. 2005; 17:10–21.
- Zhang Q., Investigations on Microstructure and Mechanical Properties of the Cu/Pb-free Solder
 Joint Interfaces, Doctoral Thesis accepted by University of Chinese Academy of Sciences,
 Beijing, China, ISSN 2190-5053, Springer Theses, ISBN 978-3-662-48821-8, DOI 10.1007/978-3-

392 662-48823-2.

- Laurila T, Vuorinen V, Kivilahti JK. Interfacial reactions between lead-free solders and common base materials. Mater Sci Eng R. 2005;49:1–60.
- Laurila T, Vuorinen V, Paulasto-Kröckel M. Impurity and alloying effects on interfacial reaction layers in Pb-free soldering. Mater Sci Eng R. 2010;68:1–38.
- Gao F, Nishikawa H, Takemoto T. Intermetallics evolution in Sn–3.5Ag based lead-free solder
 matrix on an OSPCu finish. J Electron Mater. 2007;36:1630–4
- Ventura T, Terzi S, Rappaz M, Dahle AK. Effects of solidification kinetics on microstructure formation in binary Sn–Cu solder alloys. Acta Mater. 2011;59:1651–8.
- 401 [10] Roshanghias A., Vrestal J., Yakymovych A., Richter K.W., Ipser H. (2015), Sn–Ag–Cu 402 nanosolders: Melting behavior and phase diagram prediction in the Sn-rich corner of the ternary 403 system, in CALPHAD: Computer Coupling of Phase Diagrams and Thermochemistry, 49: 101-404 109
- Lee T.K., Bieler T.R. (2015), Fundamentals of Lead-Free Solder Interconnect, From
 Microstructures to Reliability, Springer New York Heidelberg Dordrecht London, ISBN 978-1-4614-9265-8, DOI 10.1007/978-1-4614-9266-5.
- Lee T.K., Bieler T.R. (2017), Lead free solder Reference Module in Materials Science and Materials Engineering, doi:10.1016/B978-0-12-803581-8.09205-5, 1-12.
- 410 [13] Mei Z, Morris JW Jr. Characterization of eutectic Sn–Bi solder joints. J Electron Mater. 1992; 411 21:599–607.
- 412 [14] McCormack M, Jin S, Kammlott GW, Chen HS. New Pb-free solder alloy with superior mechanical properties. Appl Phys Lett. 1993;63:15–7.
- Liu PL, Shang JK. Interfacial embrittlement by bismuth segregation in copper/tin–bismuth Pb-free solder interconnect. J Mater Res. 2001;16:1651–9.
- Zeng K, Tu KN. Six cases of reliability study of Pb-free solder joints in electronic packaging technology. Mater Sci Eng R. 2002;38:55–105.
- Suo Z., Reliability of Interconnect Structures, pp. 265-324 in Volume 8: Interfacial and Nanoscale
 Failure (W. Gerberich, W. Yang, Editors), Comprehensive Structural Integrity (I. Milne, R.O.
 Ritchie, B. Karihaloo, Editors-in-Chief), Elsevier, Amsterdam, 2003.
- 18 Chan YC, Yang D. Failure mechanisms of solder interconnects under current stressing in advanced electronic packages. Prog Mater Sci. 2010;55:428–75.

- Kloppenburg G., Wolf A., Lachmayer R., (2016), High-resolution vehicle headlamps: technologies and scanning prototype, Adv. Opt. Techn. 2016; 5(2): 147–155.
- 425 [20] Braess H.-H., Seiffert U., (2013), Vieweg-Handbuch Kraftfahrzeugtechnik, ISBN 978-3-658-426 01690-6 Springer Vieweg, Wiesbaden, (2013), chapter 8: 902-905.
- 427 [21] Berlitz S., Hamm M., Funk C., Matrix-LED-Scheinwerfer von Audi, Automobiltechnische Zeitschrift, 116, 10–15 (2014).
- Habib S., Hannan M.A., Javadi M.S., Samad S.A., Muad AM., Hussain A. (2013), Inter -Vehicle Wireless Communications Technologies, Issues and Challenges, Information Technology Journal 12 (4): 558-568.
- Liu C., Sadeghi B., Knightly E.W., (2011), Enabling Vehicular Visible Light Communication (V2LC) Networks, Proc. ACM Int'l. Wksp. Vehic. Inter-Networking, pp. 41–50.
- 434 [24] Yu S.-H., Shih O., Tsai H.-M., Smart Automotive Lighting for Vehicle Safety, VISIBLE LIGHT
 435 COMMUNICATIONS: THE ROAD TO STANDARDIZATION AND COMMERCIALIZATION, IEEE
 436 Communications Magazine, December 2013, p. 50-59.
- 437 [25] Meijerl J., Du K., Gillner A., Hoffmann D., Kovalenko V.S., Masuzawa T., Ostendorf A., Poprawe R., Schulz W., Laser Machining by short and ultrashort pulses, state of the art and new opportunities in the age of the photons, CIRP Annals, Volume 51, Issue 2, 2002, Pages 531-550.
- Stevie F. A., Shane T. C., Kahora P. M., Hull R., Bahn D., Kannan C. and David E., Applications of Focused Ion Beams in Microelectronics Production, Design and Development, Surface and interface analysis, VOL. 23, 61-68 (1995).
- 443 [27] S. Nocairi, K. Maarouf, Ch. Roucoules, G. Kermouche, S. Sao-Joao, H. Klöcker, Automotive 444 optoelectronic components submitted to thermal shock: Impact of component architecture on 445 mechanical reliability, Microelectronics Reliability 128 (2022) 114422 446 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.microrel.2021.114422.
- 447 [28] A. Tireira, G. Requena, S. Sao Jao, A. Borbely, H. Klöcker, Rupture of intermetallic networks and 448 strain localization in cast AlSi12Ni alloy: 2D and 3D characterization, Acta Materialia 112 (2016) 449 162-170.
- [29] A. Tireira, M. Bornert, G. Reguena, E. Maire, S. Sao Jao, A. Borbely, H. Klöcker, Damage in a cast 450 451 AISi12Ni alloy: In situ tomography, 2D and 3D image correlation, https://doi.org/10.1016/i.mtla.2019.100475. 452
- 453 [30] A. Fraczkiewicz, F. Lorut, G. Audoit, E. Boller, E. Capria, P. Cloetens, J. Da Silva, A. Farcy, T. Mourier, F. Ponthenier, P. Bleuet, 3D high resolution imaging for microelectronics: a multitechnique survey on copper pillars, Ultramicroscopy (2018), doi: 10.1016/j.ultramic.2018.04.012

457 <u>Tables</u>

457	Table
458	

Inputs	WD (mm)	Tilt (θ°)	Signal	EHT(kV)
Values	17~20	58~62	AsB/SE2	20

 Table 1: Zeiss SEM configuration parameters

Parameters	Modes	Ar Gas valve	Voltage (kV)	Time (Hours)
Values	Normal (Basic)	6.9-7.7	6	4-11
	Fine	8-8.8	4	1-2

Table 2: Cross polisher parameters

Source Type	Laser Wavelength	Pulse Duration	Laser Frequency
TANGOR 100 W	1030 nm	500~600 fs	5kHz

Table 3: Femto second laser characteristics

Frequency	Ø spot	Mean Power	Overlap	Speed
(Hz)	(µm)	(W)	(%)	(µm/s)
5	55	0.16	>70%(optimized)	24.7

Table 4: Die-ablating procedure: parameters

FIB Type	Ion	Voltage (kV)	ge (kV) FEG SEN		M of FIB	
Thermo Scientific			Detectors	Voltage(kV)	WD (mm)	
Helios Nano Lab	Gallium	30	Secondary	<10	4.2	
600i Dual Beam			electron	(optimized)	4.2	

Table 5: Focused Ion Beam technical parameters

	Pt	Material milling	Cleaning
	deposition	around ZOI	before slicing
Current (nA)	0.77	65	21
Voltage (kV)	30	30	30
Duration	40~50 (mins)	1 day	1~3 (mins)

Table 6: Material-milling parameters for ZOI preparation

		Current (nA)	
	Pt-thickness	Pt	imprint
	(µm)	deposition	digging
Slicing reference	2	0.4	2.5
Alianment reference	1	0.4	2.5

Table 7: Fiducials parameters