New Jersey Institute of Technology [Digital Commons @ NJIT](https://digitalcommons.njit.edu/)

[Theses](https://digitalcommons.njit.edu/theses) [Electronic Theses and Dissertations](https://digitalcommons.njit.edu/etd)

Winter 1-31-1994

Machining of silicon wafers with an abrasive water jet cutter

Frank J. Marciniak New Jersey Institute of Technology

Follow this and additional works at: [https://digitalcommons.njit.edu/theses](https://digitalcommons.njit.edu/theses?utm_source=digitalcommons.njit.edu%2Ftheses%2F1647&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)

Part of the [Manufacturing Commons](http://network.bepress.com/hgg/discipline/301?utm_source=digitalcommons.njit.edu%2Ftheses%2F1647&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)

Recommended Citation

Marciniak, Frank J., "Machining of silicon wafers with an abrasive water jet cutter" (1994). Theses. 1647. [https://digitalcommons.njit.edu/theses/1647](https://digitalcommons.njit.edu/theses/1647?utm_source=digitalcommons.njit.edu%2Ftheses%2F1647&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Electronic Theses and Dissertations at Digital Commons @ NJIT. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses by an authorized administrator of Digital Commons @ NJIT. For more information, please contact digitalcommons@njit.edu.

Copyright Warning & Restrictions

The copyright law of the United States (Title 17, United States Code) governs the making of photocopies or other reproductions of copyrighted material.

Under certain conditions specified in the law, libraries and archives are authorized to furnish a photocopy or other reproduction. One of these specified conditions is that the photocopy or reproduction is not to be "used for any purpose other than private study, scholarship, or research." If a, user makes a request for, or later uses, a photocopy or reproduction for purposes in excess of "fair use" that user may be liable for copyright infringement,

This institution reserves the right to refuse to accept a copying order if, in its judgment, fulfillment of the order would involve violation of copyright law.

Please Note: The author retains the copyright while the New Jersey Institute of Technology reserves the right to distribute this thesis or dissertation

Printing note: If you do not wish to print this page, then select "Pages from: first page $#$ to: last page $#$ " on the print dialog screen

The Van Houten library has removed some of the personal information and all signatures from the approval page and biographical sketches of theses and dissertations in order to protect the identity of NJIT graduates and faculty.

ABSTRACT

Machining of Silicon Wafers with an Abrasive Water Jet Cutter

by Frank J. Marciniak

This thesis consists of a study of the effects of abrasive water jet cutting on brittle silicon substrates. In total, 26 different cuts were made in a single crystal silicon substrate with an abrasive water jet cutter under different conditions of water flow, water pressure, and abrasive flow rate. These cuts were analyzed for surface roughness, and microstructure.

The roughness measurements were compared in order to determine the best possible cutting conditions. The cut with the best roughness of 0.000170 inches was obtained under cutting conditions of 30 KSI water pressure, 1 inch/minute cutting speed, and an abrasive flow rate of 56 grams/minute.

Other trends in the data show the optimum cutting speed to be between 1 and 2 inches/ minute. The water pressure of 30 KSI achieved better results than the 50 KSI presures under similar cutting conditions . At both 50KSI and 30 KSI, low abrasive flow rates result in better roughness values.

MACHINING OF SILICON WAFERS WITH AN ABRASIVE WATER JET CUTTER

by FRANK J. MARCINIAK

A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of New Jersey Institute of Technology in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Manufacturing Systems Engineering

Manufacturing Engineering Division

January 1994

APPROVAL PAGE

Machining of Silicon Wafers With an Abrasive Water Jet Cutter

PRANK J. MARCINIAK

Dr. E. S. Geskin, Thesis Advisor and Date Professor of Mechanical Engineering, NJIT

Dr. N. M. Ravindra, Committee Member Date Associate Professor of Microelectronics Department of Physics, NJIT

Dr. Raj. S. Sodhi, Committee Member Date Associate Professor of Mechanical Engineering and Director of Manufacturing Engineering Programs, NJIT

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Author: Frank J. Marciniak

Degree: Master of Science in Manufacturing Systems Engineering

Date: January, 1994

Undergraduate and Graduate Education

- Master of Science in Manufacturing Systems Engineering, New Jersey Institute of Technology, Newark, NJ, 1994
- Bachelor of Science in Ceramic Engineering, Rutgers University, College of Engineering, New Brunswick, New Jersey, 1989

Major: Manufacturing Systems Engineering

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I wish to express my deepest gratitude to Dr. Ernest Geskin, Professor, Mechanical Engineering Department of New Jersey Institute of Technology for his valuable guidance throughout this investigation. I would also like to thank Dr. N.M. Ravindra, Associate Professor, Physics Department of New Jersey Institute of Technology, for his continuous supervision and support during my work.

I would also like to thank Leon Tourietzky for his help and tutoring in the operation of the laboratory equipment.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS (CONTINUED)

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF TABLES (CONTINUED)

LIST OF FIGURES

 $\mathsf X$

LIST OF FIGURES (CONTINUED)

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

There are two different reasons for studying the effects of machining on ceramic materials. They are scientific and economical. The scientific aspect is a search for knowledge and understanding of the materials being studied. The economical aspect is an effort to improve the process of machining and cutting in order to realize lower costs, higher quality, and improved productivity. These goals can be accomplished through knowledge of the machining and finishing processes, the resultant characteristics of the surface, and the effect on the properties of the materials.

The three major types of solid materials are metals, organics, and ceramics. A lack of understanding of any one of these areas leaves a major gap in the scientific understanding of materials. The study of ceramic materials in terms of structure, defects, and properties is a unique challenge. Machining of ceramic materials is important to many engineers whose areas of specialization may be far from this area because of its importance in determining the character of the surface of ceramic materials and the important resulting properties such as mechanical and electrical. These properties are very important in the processing of electronic materials due to the continuous miniaturization of electronics.

The economic motivation takes into account two important factors. The first is the effect of machining practices on the cost of components. Machining costs tend to be a large part of the cost of ceramic components. Therefore, improved ceramic machining can play a significant role in cost reduction.

The second factor is the increasing demands of technology. Better performance is demanded of most ceramic bodies, especially in the electronics area. This is true both from a mechanical and an electrical standpoint. Many applications for ceramics put a higher demand on the materials than they have in **the** past. **They** require materials with higher strengths or more resistance to wear. In the electronics applications, they require good electrical properties with very tight tolerances.

Because the economic and scientific motivations are interdependent, the economic gains that can be accomplished from advanced machining techniques will only come from scientific advances. The ability to machine ceramics is **in** itself a challenge. There are many different machining methods available for these brittle materials. They range from traditional machining **with** a **cutting** tool and grinders and polishers to nontraditional methods such as abrasive water jet cutting to laser cutting.

The interaction between a **cutting method and** the workpiece is a very complex **phenomenon. Each method** has certain characteristics that **differentiate them from the**

other methods. These characteristics also affect the final outcome of the workpiece cuts. The same types of cutting methods have been applied to other non-ceramic materials such as metals and polymers. Ceramics, however, present additional challenges that are not present in these other materials. One challenge is the general absence of macroscopic ductility to prevent fracture in the materials(1). There is also a much broader range of structure and bonding and related intrinsic properties such as hardness, conductivity, and elastic modulus. Also, there is a broader range of microstructures. Additionally, ceramic bodies have been produced with finer grain sizes than are commonly used in most metals. They can even be made of single crystals such as in the case of single crystal silicon used in the manufacture of electronic substrates.

Because of these differences, and a lower quantity of research being performed on these materials over the years, less is known about ceramics. Many fewer important details are known about ceramics than about metals.

The rewards that can be gained from studying ceramic machining are the scientific understanding of materials, and the economic gains of more easily produced, and more reliable components. It is hopeful that an understanding of the process of removal and the character of the resulting surface can be attained. Understanding this can increase our knowledge of the surface dependent properties and provide us with the ability to improve upon these properties. These

advances could lead to the development of new machining methods, and possibly new machining tools, designed specifically for ceramics. But, in all likelihood, **they will result in either new,** or **at least** broader, applications of **ceramics.**

The use of **non-traditional machining** could contribute to **better** machining techniques **and** increased productivity. There should also be a greater **choice** between traditional mechanical machining and non **traditional** methods than **there currently** is.

The purpose of using non traditional machining methods is to obtain a final ceramic body **that has** specific, highly accurate dimensions, **with** desirable surface qualities, thereby eliminating undesirable surface characteristics. The requirements needed to create a **mirror** finish on a silicon substrate are very demanding. Machining to these tight tolerances with a high degree of repeatability is a very difficult **task.**

CHAPTER 2

NON-TRADITIONAL MACHINING METHODS

There are many methods of non-traditional machining that have come of age recently. Because of the more complex shapes and cutting requirements, new machining methods had to be developed. The creation of new materials has also urged these developments. Materials such as ceramics, composites, and some metals can be difficult to machine due to their high hardness, brittleness, poor thermal properties, chemical reactivity with the cutting tool, or inhomogeneous microstructures. In some cases, the only way to effectively machine such materials is with non traditional methods.

Generally, non-traditional methods are considered to be manufacturing processes adopted in the last 50 years that use common energy forms in new ways or that apply forms of energy never used before. Non-traditional processes are subdivided according to the form of energy that is being used: mechanical, electrical, thermal and chemical. They are summed up in table 2-1.

Mechanical methods of non-traditional processes harness direct mechanical abrasive action to remove material. Mechanical processes are usually used in materials that are difficult to machine with traditional techniques because of hardness, toughness or brittleness. Ceramics, composites,

and organics tend to be good materials for mechanical machining because they are not electrically conductive, and because they may be damaged when thermal processes are applied.

Electrical methods of non-traditional processes are limited to electrically conductive materials in their application. These methods can be used to cut difficult to machine materials, as well as other materials that require complex shapes. Complex shapes can be produced with a single pass of the tool.

TABLE 2-1 NON-TRADITIONAL MACHINING METHODS (2)

2.1 Mechanical Non-Traditional Machining Methods

Thermal methods of **non-traditional machining** processes **use heat energy to remove material.** These processes **are usually unaffected by the materials physical properties and** are **often applied to extremely hard workpiece materials.** Because of the **thermal** process, **materials that** are used for critical applications may require the removal of the heat affected zone.

Chemical methods of machining use chemical reactions to remove material. Because **material** is removed by chemical reaction, there are no forces **acting** on the workpiece (3). **This** allows parts to be **machined without** concern for distortion or damage. Also, because the machining takes place on all areas of the workpiece, it can be highly efficient and fast.

Abrasive Jet Machining is a process that removes material from a workpiece through the use of abrasive particles entrained in a high velocity gas stream. It is similar to sandblasting, **except that it** uses smaller sized abrasives (10-50 micron) and a more finely controlled delivery system. Abrasive Jet **Machining** is used to cut, clean, peen, deburr, deflash, or etch glass, ceramics, or hard metals (4).

Abrasive Flow Machining **finishes surfaces** and edges by extruding viscous abrasive **media through** or across the workpiece. Abrasion occurs only **where the flow of the** media occurs, with other areas remaining **unaffected. This method**

can be used to process many inaccessible passages on a workpiece simultaneously. It is used to deburr and polish surfaces and edges in a variety of materials from aerospace components to medical components (5).

Water Jet Machining uses a high velocity water stream as a cutting tool. This is limited to softer, less brittle materials. Abrasive water jet machining uses fine abrasive solids in the water jet stream to cut harder, denser materials such as glass, and ceramics (6).

Ultrasonic Machining utilizes the vibration of a tool at approximately 20 kHz to machine hard, brittle materials. It consists of two methods: ultrasonic impact grinding, and rotary ultrasonic machining. In ultrasonic impact grinding, an abrasive slurry flows through the gap between the workpiece and the vibrating tool. As the tool moves on the downstroke with the vibration, the particles are accelerated. The impact of the particles on the material cause chipping and erosion of the workpiece. In rotary ultrasonic machining, a rotating core drill is vibrated at 20 kHz. A liquid coolant is forced through the bore of the tube to cool and flush away the removed material (7).

2.2 Electrical Non-Traditional Machining Methods

Electrochemical Machining is the controlled removal of material through anodic dissolution in an electrolytic cell where the workpiece is the anode, and the tool is the cathode. The electrolyte is pumped through the gap between

the tool and the workpiece, while direct current is passed through the cell at low voltage. This dissolves the material from the surface of the workpiece (8).

Electrochemical grinding is similar to electrochemical machining except that it uses a grinding wheel in place of the contouring tool. It is used to machine difficult to machine materials (9).

Electrochemical Discharge Grinding uses a positively charged workpiece, a highly conductive electrolyte, and alternating or pulsed direct current (10). The intermittent spark discharges remove the material from the workpiece surface.

Electrostream and capillary drilling are electrochemical machining processes that are used to cut holes that are too deep to be cut by electrical discharge machining and too narrow to be drilled by shaped tube electrolytic machining (11)

Shaped Tube Electrolytic Machining is a modified electrochemical machining process that is used to drill holes with a large depth to diameter ratio. It uses an acid electrolyte to dissolve the removed material so that it does not clog the hole. It is limited in usage to corrosion resistant materials (12).

2.3 **Thermal Non-Traditional Machining** Methods

Electrical Discharge Machining is a process that removes material with sparks (13). A shaped electrode is used to

make a cavity that is the mirror image of the electrode. In this method, DC electrical power is supplied to the circuit in pulses to create the sparks. The sparks travel through the dielectric fluid at a controlled distance (14). **With** each **spark, material** is removed **by vaporization and** melting. **This** method is useful for **machining** conductive materials that have complex shapes (15).

Electric Discharge Wire Machining is similar to Electric Discharge Machining except **that it** uses a travelling wire to cut the workpiece (16).

Electric Discharge Grinding **is** similar to electric discharge machining except that the electrode is a rotating graphite wheel and the workpiece moves on a servo-controlled worktable (17).

Electron Beam Machining uses a high velocity beam of electrons to strike an object and cause rapid melting and vaporization of the **material,** leaving a hole in the workpiece (18).

Laser Beam machining uses **an** intensely focussed monochromatic light to remove, melt, or thermally modify a material (19). Laser beam machining provides rapid material removal with an easily controlled, non contact, non wearing tool. **It** can be used for drilling, welding, marking, and heat treating of a variety of materials. The effectiveness of laser beam machining depends **upon the reflectivity,** absorption, thermal conductivity, **specific heat, and heat** of vaporization of the material (20). **A variety of lasers from**

 $CO₂$ to YAG lasers that employ different wavelengths of light and energy intensities can be used depending upon the application and type of material being worked on (21).

Thermal Energy Method is used for deburring of parts by the use of intense heat. It is fast and removes all burrs on a workpiece simultaneously (22).

2.4 Chemical Non-Traditional Machining Methods

Chemical Milling is a form of controlled chemical etching. The process removes material from the whole part, or specific areas of the part if masks are used. It works by applying a chemically resistant mask to the workpiece. The mask is scribed and removed in the areas that are to be etched. An etchant is then used to remove material through a chemical reaction with the material. It can be used to create very intricate and close tolerance patterns on the surface of the workpiece (23).

Photochemical Milling is an etching process that uses a photoresist to define the locations where etching will take place. It is used to provide intricate, close tolerance patterns on a variety of flat materials (24)

2.5 The Future of Non-Traditional Machining Methods

Non-traditional machining methods are slowly gaining in popularity. These methods are ensured to play an increasingly important role because of their steadily increasing capabilities, as well as their benefits of being computer controlled processes. Most non-traditional methods

are computer controlled. This insures process reliability and repeatability. They can also be adaptively controlled by the use of many types of in-process sensors. This allows the process to be changed while running without changing the hard tools by changing the process parameters in the computer. The ability to detect and correct these situations automatically insures the increasing use of non-traditional processes in unattended machining cells and automated factories.

2.6 Abrasive Waterjet Process Description

This study is expected to give some insight into the effects of abrasive water jet machining on silicon substrates. Water jet machining is a non-traditional cutting technique that employs a high velocity water stream that is entrained on its target by use of a nozzle that focuses the water stream to cut the target material.

An abrasive water jet incorporates fine solid abrasive particles into the water jet stream. These particles act as cutting agents. This is extremely effective in the cutting of hard, brittle materials that otherwise would shatter under the stress of a simple water jet stream that contained no abrasives.

In abrasive water jet machining, the solid particles absorb the kinetic energy from the water jet stream. When these particles impinge upon the sample, the energy is transferred from the particles to the surface of the sample.

This creates many small fractures in the sample surface. When these fractures cross, material is loosened and thereby removed from the surface.

2.7 Advantages of Abrasive Waterjet Cutting

There are some disadvantages to using some of the conventional cutting methods or even the non traditional cutting methods. Some of these techniques produce dust particles, heat affected zones in the material, or put high mechanical stresses on the material that can cause warpage.

Water jet cutting can be an affective tool in eliminating these problems as well as in providing some additional advantages over other cutting methods.

Water jet machines are capable of cutting a variety of materials without a major change in system components.

Water jet cutting can be used to cut a wide range of materials without requiring a substantial change in system components. In most cases, the only changes that need to be done are a change in nozzle size, cutting speed, or water pressure (25).

Because it is computer controlled, it is easily integrated with automated systems.

Water jet cutting cuts without heat, which prevents thermal distortion and structural changes in the target material.

Work hardening of materials is eliminated.

Tooling costs are reduced because of the minimal force

that is imparted to the workpiece by the unit.

Airborne dust is eliminated, creating better working conditions.

The unit is computer controlled, making it easy to program cutting sequences and store them for future use.

Water jet cutters have omnidirectional cutting capabilities with the ability to do circular cuts, drill, and change directions during **cutting.**

2.8 Waterjet Cutting Theory

Water jet cutting consists of accelerating water in a circular nozzle up to a velocity of 750 m/s and focussing the jet stream on a target. **It** is an energy conversion process in which the water pressure is converted into kinetic energy by accelerating **the** water in a focussing nozzle. The fluid velocity is related to water pressure by the Bernoulli equation for incompressible fluid flow:

v=SQRT(2p/s) where p=pressure **in psi**

s=average fluid density.

Based on the **Bernoulli equation** for incompressible fluid flow, the volumetric flow rate of the water is related to the diameter of the orifice size by the equation

$Q = (pi/4)*D²*Cd*V$

where Q=flow of water (gpm)

D=Diameter of sapphire nozzle **(inch)** V=velocity of fluid (fps)

This can get very complex with abrasive jet cutting.

There are three different velocities and flow rates that can be determined. They are for the abrasive, the fluid, and the air that is sucked into the stream as it exits the nozzle (26).

The flow rate and the pressure of the water jet have different effects on cutting. The flow rate affects the rate of material removal. The pressure determines the kinetic energy of the jet stream molecules, and therefore its ability to cut the target material. Higher strength materials have higher molecular bonding forces. Therefore, higher strength materials require higher kinetic energy (higher pressure) jet streams in order to be cut effectively.

As the jet hits the surface of the workpiece, the velocity of the stream drops. This creates a high pressure zone on the surface of the workpiece. If this pressure is sufficient, the material in the impingement zone will move, and the jet will penetrate into the workpiece.

If the stresses created in the impingement zone are less than the deformation threshold, cutting will not take place.

In abrasive jet cutting, solid abrasive particles are added to the jet stream through a carbide mixing tube. The abrasives are sucked into the jet stream by the vacuum created by the high velocity stream. This creates a high velocity water-particles stream. This stream reaches the sample surface at high velocity. When the particle collide

with the sample surface, they are decelerated. This results in a high pressure zone that is much higher than that of a conventional waterjet stream by itself. This creates stresses on the material that exceed the strength of the material. When this strength is exceeded, small particles are removed from the workpiece surface. The effects on the material are limited to the small areas where the individual particles strike the surface (27).

The cutting of materials depends upon the ductility of the materials being cut. In ductile materials, erosion takes place through the penetration of the solid particles through the material. As the particles penetrate, they move the material that is in their path. In brittle materials, the impact of a particle on the surface results in microcracking of the surface. This microcracking takes place in the form of radial and lateral cracking. The lateral cracking (cracking parallel to the material surface) causes the material to be loosened and eventually removed from the surface (28).

The surface topography of the material is affected by the individual particles that strike the surface as well as the integrity of the stream as a whole (29). The individual particles control the micro topography of the surface, while the state of the water flow controls the macro topography.

2.9 Waterjet System Theory

Abrasive Water Jet Cutting has many system variables that can affect the cutting performance of the unit. These variables can be broken down into several categories. They are hydraulic parameters, nozzle parameters, abrasive parameters, cutting parameters, and workpiece parameters.

The hydraulic parameters affect the kinetic energy of the fluid as it passes the through the nozzle assembly. These are fluid pressure, hydraulic power, and type of fluid (30).

The nozzle parameters affect the energy conversion and abrasive mixing process. They are nozzle diameter, carbide tube diameter, length of carbide tube, and angle of convergence.

The abrasive parameters are type of abrasive, size of abrasive, shape of abrasive, and abrasive feed rate.

The cutting parameters are distance form nozzle to workpiece, traverse speed, and angle of cutting.

The quality of cut is also affected by the type of material that is being worked on. The workpiece parameters are material hardness and brittleness.

The results of the cutting process can be looked at in several different ways for some important output characteristics. They are depth of cut, surface roughness, kerf width, surface flaws, and subsurface microcracking (31)

CHAPTER 3

SUBSTRATE MATERIALS

Electronic ceramics play an important role in the microelectronics industry. They act as both substrate material as well as material for the circuits themselves.

In terms of substrates, materials play a key role in the reliability and operation of microelectronic circuits. They provide a means of physical support for the assembly of the devices. They provide a base for the electrical connection patterns and film resistors. They provide a mechanism for conducting thermal energy away from the circuit. Substrates must have the proper mix of mechanical, electrical, chemical and thermal properties in order to be able to provide a good basis for reliable microelectronics (32).

Some of these properties are the following. Substrates must have high electrical resistivity in order to prevent the conduction of electricity between closely spaced circuit lines. Volume resistivities should be greater than 10^{14} ohm-cm. Surface insulation resistance should be greater then 10⁹ ohms. The materials should have low porosity and high purity. This is to avoid moisture buildup, contamination, electron arcing, and atomic migration. Substrate materials must have good thermal conductivity in order to dissipate heat generated by the circuits. They must have thermal expansion coefficients that match the attached devices in

order to minimize stress and fracture of the components during operation of the device. They must be able to withstand the high temperatures involved in processing of the thin films (800-1000 degrees C). They must be able to withstand chemical etchants that are used in the processing of the thin film materials. They must also have very smooth surfaces in order to obtain the precision and stability that is necessary in very small thin films (33).

Silicon is a good material for electronic substrates. Like other group IV insulators and semiconductors, it crystallizes in the diamond cubic lattice structure. Each silicon atom has four bonds, one to each of its four nearest neighbors (34).

Crystals are made up of regular repeating orders of atoms. The planes of the crystal structure are defined by their Miller Indices. These indices, h,k,l are the reciprocals of the intercepts of the planes with the x, y, and z axes. A plane is denoted by the symbol (hkl). A family of planes can be denoted by a bracketed symbol (hkl). The Indices are the smallest integers having the same ratio. These indices can also be used to define direction. In cubic crystals, the direction perpendicular to a given plane has the same miller indices as the plane, denoted by a bracketed symbol [hkl]. A family of directions is denoted by <hkl>. For example, the x axis is the [100) direction, and the three coordinate axes are the <100> directions. The body directions are the <111> directions.

The atoms in a single silicon crystal are stacked in a regular, repeating order. In the [111] direction, there is a regular repeating order of atomic planes (35). Any disturbance in this repeating order is considered to be a defect.

Defects can take two different forms. They can be point defects, or extended defects. Point defects are imperfections that occur at a lattice point and do not distort the crystal over a long distance. Extended defects that have a larger effect on the crystal, usually repeating itself over many spacings or affecting the stacking order of the crystal. Vacancies and atomic impurities are examples of point defects. Vacancies can occur when an atom is located in the wrong position, or is not present at all. Impurities can take the place of silicon atoms in the structure or can occupy interstitial sites in the structure.

Some important impurities in Silicon crystals are oxygen, carbon, and hydrogen. Oxygen affects the mechanical properties (strength) of the crystal. Carbon does not adversely affect silicon crystals, but it may play a role in oxygen interactions in the crystals: Hydrogen is a very rapid diffuser into a silicon crystal (36). Any impurities or defects at the surface of the crystal can affect the quality of the film that will eventually be formed on it.

The extended defects are dislocations and slip, and stacking faults. Dislocation and slip occur when the stresses in the structure cause a part of the crystal to

deform and slip across another part. These dislocations may move through the crystal along the direction of the shearing force.

Stacking faults occur either in layer growth, or by oxidation. If Silicon dioxide is present, it takes up more space than silicon atoms in the structure. This causes an excess of Silicon interstices. If enough stress is created, stacking faults form.

Plastic deformation of silicon wafers usually occurs at high temperatures during device fabrication. It can also occur at low temperatures during microhardness measurements, scribing or other machining methods.

Plastic deformation occurs by slip between {111} planes in a <110> direction. With this mechanism, slip can be propagated from small surface damage deeply into the wafer during high temperature processing. Plastic flow due to excessive stress from thermal shock can occur at low temperatures.

Fracture can occur in silicon crystals. Because of its brittle nature, fracture is more common in single crystal silicon than plastic deformation at low temperatures. the easiest direction for fracture is along the <111> directions, or in {l00} planes, along <110> directions (37).

Integrated circuits, and discrete solid state devices are manufactured on single crystal silicon wafers. In order to obtain high reliability and good performance from the final product, it is important that the starting wafers be of reproducible high quality. This is to ensure that the small high resolution patterns that are formed on the wafer surface are uniform. The front surface must be smooth and flat. The electrical and chemical properties of the wafer must be tightly controlled. The preparation of the starting silicon wafer is important in achieving a high quality electronic device (38).

Traditional wafer preparation starts with the cutting of large single crystal silicon ingots into thin wafers. The final wafer must have at least one side that is clean, flat and defect free (39).

Typical wafer preparation encompasses the following steps. First, the crystal must be cropped to remove the seed and tong ends of crystal as well as any out of specification portions. The crystal is then ground down to reduce the diameter to the specified tolerance with a diamond grinding wheel. Flat areas are ground lengthwise along the crystal to serve as identification of the wafer type and axis orientation. The crystal is etched to remove any defects that were created in the grinding operation. Thin wafers are then cut from the ingot using a diamond blade. The cut wafers are heat treated to eliminate oxygen donors, normalizing resistivity. The edges are ground with a diamond wheel to remove the square corners created in diamond cutting. Grinding or lapping of the surface is done to smooth out the surface of the wafers. Etching is then done to remove the damaged surface layers from the cutting,
lapping, and edge profiling operations. Polishing is then done to create a defect free mirror surface. The surface is then cleaned to remove contaminants and prepare the wafer for the fabrication line.

This process requires the removal of silicon material by mechanical and chemical means. The mechanical means are sawing, lapping, and grinding. using abrasives such as diamond, SiC, or Al_2O_3 . There is no plastic flow associated with abrasive machining of silicon. Because of the hard, brittle nature of silicon, the penetration of abrasive particles establishes a field of damage in the form of cracks extending into the material from the surface. This leaves a rough surface and subsurface damage that consists of microcracks, dislocations, and stresses (40). The grit size controls the roughness and the speed of material removal.

Flats are ground into the material according to the crystal orientation and the dopant type. The orientation of the flats makes it easy to identify the crystal orientation (111 or 100) and the material (n or p type) (41).

In a wafering operation, a blade with diamond particles embedded in it is forced into the silicon crystal at pressures that exceed the compressive strength of the crystal. Microcracks form ahead of the cutting blade due to high stress fields. These cracks propagate into the crystal mainly along lattice planes. When the cracks intersect, material is released. Microcracks also propagate laterally into the material. This damage is called sawing damage. This damage can be increased due to blade runout and machine vibration. These microcracks, if they run deep enough into the subsurface are responsible for problems such as exit chips, cracks and breakage.

Acceptable wafer quality can be achieved with this method only if constant attention is paid to the blade, the machine and the process parameters. Blade cutting of wafers can also result in bowing of the wafers. As the blade vibrates and moves laterally while cutting, it deviates from a straight path through the material. This occurs when the greatest cutting forces are applied at the surfaces of the cut.

CHAPTER 4

EXPERIMENTAL EQUIPMENT

4.1 The Scanning Electron Microscope

4.1.1 Scanning Electron Microscope Theory

The scanning electron microscope (SEM) works by forming a wide beam of electrons and condensing it into a fine beam that is approximately 200 angstroms across. This beam sweeps across the sample in a series of step-like passes. When this happens, electrons strike the sample surface, knocking loose showers of electrons that are part of the specimen. These electrons are called secondary electrons. These secondary electrons **hit** a signal detector. This signal detector amplifies a signal and sends it to a CRT screen or a photographic camera so that it can be viewed (42).

An SEM consists of three groups of components: The electron optical column with its associated electronics, the vacuum system with specimen chamber and stage, and the signal detector and display system.

4.1.2 The Electron Optical Column

The electron column consists of an electron gun and 2 to 4 electron lenses. An electron beam from the electron source flows through the lenses, which serve to demagnify and condense the beam diameter. This brings the final point of

the beam to a spot size of under 250 angstroms. The final lens assembly contains two sets if magnetic scanning coils which cause the beam to be deflected in a rastor-like pattern over the specimen surface. Three other elements in the electron optical column are: a set of apertures to help define the angular aperture subtended by the beam at the specimen and to avoid contamination at the lens surfaces, an astigmate which is a set of coils that eliminates any astigmatisms that may be present in the system, and a set of plates that superimpose modulation on the electron beam.

4.1.3 SEM Vacuum Pumping System

A vacuum pumping system removes air from the chamber and provides acceptable vacuum in the system to insure proper imaging. The specimen stage is designed so that the specimen can be rotated and tilted to allow the operator to view the sample at the proper angle and sample position.

When the electron beam bombards the sample surface, the electrons interact with the sample, giving off primary electrons, which are reflected electrons form the electron beam, secondary electrons, which are electrons that are knocked loose from the sample atoms, beam induced conduction, and cathodoluminescence (43). These signals are picked up by a signal detector, amplified, and sent to a CRT for image display. The CRT image scans are synchronized with the electron beam scans to acquire a useable image at the CRT.

4.2 The Videometrix Econoscope

The Matrix Videometrix Econoscope is a fully automatic, 3axis video system. It uses non-contact techniques to provide rapid dimensional verification of complete parts or specific features of a part.

4.2.1 The Videometrix Econoscope Hardware

The econosope consists of a PC, a 3-axis positioning control system, and a digital image processor and a part monitor section. It uses a menu driven software package that allows it to be operated easily by the user.

The econoscope is intended to be used for part inspection. The final inspection results can be compiled into statistical data and used for SPC.

The system uses a Hewlett Packard series 200 PC with a Hewlett Packard Winchester hard disk as well as a Hewlett Packard Thinkjet Printer. It utilizes a joystick for manual stage and lens movement.

The inspection station is the actual measuring device of the system. It provides the mechanical means of making measurements through the use an X and Y axis stage, and a Z stage. These stages are controlled with electric stepper motors and precision lead screws that move the stage along the individual axes. The stage movements can be defined as data points in relation to the zero point. These data points can be used to define part features.

The stage can be moved manually with a joystick, and

the points manually recorded. Or, when inspecting a part, the stage movements fall under control of the computer, and the part is defined automatically with the computer storing the data points.

The image gathering is performed by using a video camera along with **a microscope. The** microscope consists of 5x, 10x and 20x lenses which enhance feature **identification and definition. The** video camera processes the image and supplies the raw video to **the Digital Image** Processor. The Digital Image Processor uses a moveable measurement window that appears on the screen to analyze images for precision measurements. The field of view is **digitized into** a 480 by 512 pixel matrix at maximum window size. The digitized image is processed by the computer, which determines the output that is desired once the features are analyzed.

The Econoscope takes measurements in both standard and metric units. The measuring capacity is a sample of size X: **6 in., Y: 6 in., and Z: 6 in.. The system resolution is Xaxis: 4 microinches, Y-axis: 4 microinches, and Z-axis: 4 microinches. Straightness** resolution is: .0002 in.. Squareness resolution is: .0002 **in.. System measuring accuracy is:** +- .0003 in..

4.2.2 The Videometrix Econoscope Software

The Videometrix software has different modes **of operation they include Manual Measurement, Part Definition, Output Definition, Run part and Stat Pak.**

Manual Measurement is useful in defining dimensions such as X, Y, and Z measurements, diameter, and radius measurements, angles, flatness, and straightness.

Part definition is used to define part dimensions, save these dimensions on file, and recall them again for reference in checking the quality of subsequent parts by verifying dimensions and features of these additional parts.

The Output Definition mode is used to mathematically reconstruct the part from the data points captured within the Part Definition module and output the results.

The Run Part module provides a computerized statistical analysis of the data gathered by the system. The data is compiled and output in the form of tabular and graphical printouts.

There is also a program called TOPO. This software allows the user to gather and view information on the surface contour of a part. It is broken down into Two processes: Inspect and Graphics.

The Inspect process is used to gather data. The user defines the area that is being observed by programming in the number of focus points that will be gathered, the length and width of the area being observed, lens magnification, the size of the Digital Image Processor window, and the intensity of the surface lighting. The Econoscope focuses on each focus point and gives a reading for the Z value. When the Z values are collected for each focus point in the entire collection of data points, a graphics printout of the

surface can be viewed.

The Graphics process is used to view the collected points on the CRT screen or on a hard copy printout. Different viewing angles of the final data, as well as a listing of the collected data points can be obtained (44).

4.3 Abrasive Waterjet Cutting System

Abrasive water jet cutting and water jet cutting can offer some advantages over other types of machining, depending on the application it is being used for. Some of the advantages are cost savings, the production of little or no dust during cutting, the elimination of thermal distortions by cutting without heat, and the elimination of internal stresses that may damage the workpiece. The cutting of complicated shapes becomes easy with water jet cutting due to the omnidirectional nature of the cutter. Additional advantages could be low noise, fast cutting speed, and smooth cutting surface, depending on the application.

The abrasive water jet cutter used in this study is made by the Ingersoll-Rand Company. It has four major components: the water preparation unit, the water distribution system, the work station, and the catcher and drainage system.

4.3.1 Abrasive Waterjet Cutter Water Preparation Unit

The purpose of the water preparation unit is to feed pure water into the system and to pressurize the water. First,

the water is fed into the system using a low pressure booster pump (180 psi.). This water is treated using a series of low pressure filters and softeners. This is done to remove dissolved solids from the water that would otherwise precipitate out at high pressures and destroy the nozzle orifice.

A hydraulic unit contains an oil intensifier (pump) that is a double acting piston type pump. It has two separate circuits, one for oil, and one for water. The oil is pressurized against a large diameter piston by an intensifier pump that develops pressures of 1500 to 3000 psi. This piston is connected to a smaller diameter piston that pressurizes the water. This setup results in a step up in pressure from the large piston to the small piston in a ratio that is equal the ratio of the size of the size of the large piston to the small piston. With this principle, water pressures of 50 to 60 KSI can be created.

A series of check valves allows the water to enter the high pressure cylinder on the suction stroke and leave on the discharge stroke. The booster pump assures a continuous flow into the suction side of the high pressure cylinders.

The high pressure water from both sides of the intensifier is discharged into an accumulator where the pressure gets stabilized. The accumulator provides uniform discharge pressure and flow to the cutting nozzle.

4.3.2 Abrasive Waterjet Cutter Distribution System

High pressure tubing, swivels, flexible joints and fittings are used to connect the accumulator to the work station.

4.3.3 Abrasive Waterjet Cutter Workstation

The workstation is the place where the cutting operation is performed. **It** consists of a nozzle assembly, an abrasive feeder, a traverse mechanism, and a catcher.

The nozzle assembly is the place where the water pressure is converted into kinetic energy by accelerating the water to a velocity of between 2000 and 3000 fps.

In a pure water jet cutting system, the nozzle is made of sapphire with a small orifice of diameter between .004 in. and .014 in. Abrasive water jet cutting systems employ the same nozzle as in a pure water jet cutting system along with a secondary nozzle, called a carbide tube, that is made of tungsten carbide to resist wear from the abrasives.

Abrasives are fed into the jet stream by use of a vibratory feeder that controls their flow rate. An applied voltage to the vibratory tray causes the abrasive to flow out of the tray into an abrasive tube. Flow is controlled by adjusting the voltage. The effect of vibration on the flow rate varies with type and size of the abrasive.

Abrasives enter the water stream from a side port between the sapphire nozzle and the carbide tube. The suction from the water stream draws the abrasives into the water stream. The abrasive particles are accelerated and the kinetic energy is transferred to the abrasive particles from the water (45).

In order to perform effective cutting with the jet, either the jet or the workpiece has to be able to move.

In this system. the movement of the cutter is controlled by a two and one half axis robotic workcell with an Alan Bradley 8200 controller. The positioning accuracy of the nozzle with the controller is $+/-$.005 in. with a repeatability of $+/-$.005 in..

4.3.4 Abrasive Waterjet Cutter Catcher and Drainage System

The catcher is designed to contain the water jet stream and abrasives after they exit the workpiece. This ensures that the system operates safely, and so that the waste material can be disposed of properly.

4.3.5 Abrasive Waterjet Cutter Controller

The Ingersoll Rand Two and One Half Axis Water Jet Cutter is controlled by an Allen Bradley Series B 8400 MP/ Bandit IV revision F Firmware Controller.

The AB controller consists of a CPU (Central Processor Unit), a CRT (Cathode Ray Tube), a keyboard, and controls for machine operation. The CPU is the computer module that processes system information and directs axis movement. The CRT allows the user to monitor and control the machine functions. The keyboard is used to enter data for part programs as well as access software functions. The control **functions are for emergency stop, spindle** speed **adjustment, feedrate, and other machine functions.**

The controller can be operated from a Manual operate mode or an Auto operate mode.

The Manual operate mode **allows manual movement of the** axes to take **place. Machine** Home, Jog **Handwheel,** Jog Continuous, Jog Incremental, **allow the** axes to be moved by direct control from the keys.

This mode also allows other **operations by using Manual** Data Input (MDI). MDI **allows the user to input a single desired data block for immediate execution by the controller.**

The Auto Operate mode can be used to run a **program. When this mode is used, a program must be properly written, tested and debugged so that it** can be properly **executed. Programming is accomplished by using the softkeys on the keyboard to get into the Job Setup page. From here, the user can enter the number of a program to be executed or he can enter zero to load a program from an external device.**

The commands that are **important.for Job Setup are the following. Inch/ Metric allows the user to display the measurement units for all** dimensions such as axis **displays, feedrates, and offsets in either inch or metric units. The Block Delete command is** used to stop **the execution of a block of commands or an individual command. The Optional Stop command will halt the execution of the program at that point in order to allow other functions, such as tool**

changes, to be performed. The program will restart again and continue on only when the cycle start button is pushed. The Tool Offset command is used to allow **for** differences **in** tool **size** when programming. The operator can program arm motion into the **controller** without having to take into account tool length. With the proper Tool Offset code, the tool size is automatically factored into **the** programming sequence.

The program edit softkey is used to enter a new program or edit a program that is already in storage. The Insert command key is used to enter characters and blocks of data. The Delete command key is used to remove characters or blocks of data from the program.

M codes are commands **that** control toolhead functions such as flow rate and pressure. G codes are used to control arm movements such as drilling and cutting motions (46)

CHAPTER 5

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

The experiment was performed on a polished single crystal silicon wafer that is two inches in diameter. The machining was performed using the two and one half axis water jet cutter with silicon carbide abrasive particles.

Single crystal silicon is a very strong, yet brittle material that requires careful handling in order to insure that it will not fracture during the cutting process. In order to prevent the thin, brittle ceramic wafer from cracking and shattering, the sample was placed on a flat plastic material that was used as a backing for support. It was secured to the backing material to prevent movement of the wafer. In order to try to minimize damage to the polished surface away from the cuts by stray particles from the abrasive waterjet stream and to get a square edged cut, transparent plastic tape was placed on the polished side of the wafer. This insures that only the surface of the area being cut will be affected by the cutting jet stream. Any abrasive particles that sprayed out into a wider area away from the immediate jet stream were prevented from hitting the surface of the sample by the tape.

Initially, an attempt was made to cut the wafers with the two and one half axis water jet cutter using only a high pressure water stream with no abrasive particles. Upon

attempted cutting of the wafer with this method, the wafer cracked in half along the crystal planes. It was then decided that the machine would have to be set up for abrasive jet cutting. The system was set up with a carbide tube and 120 grit abrasive particles.

With abrasive water jet cutting, the wafer was cut under varying conditions of cutting stream pressure, cutting speed, and abrasive flow rate. Initially, 13 different cuts were made with the abrasive water jet cutter. These cutting conditions are summed up in table 5-1.

CUT NUMBER	ABRASIVE FLOW RATE (GPM)	PRESSURE (KST)	ABRASIVE NUMBER	NOZZLE NUMBER	TRAVERSE SPEED (IN/MIN)	CARBIDE NUMBER
CA01A CA02A	229 229	50 50	120 120	10 10	5	30 30
CA03A	229	50	120	10	$\overline{2}$	30
CA04A	229	50	120	10		30
CA05A	229	33	120	10	3	30
CA06B	229	33	120	10	2	30
CA07A	229	33	120	10		30
CA08A	185	33	120	10		30
CA09A	185	33	120	10	2	30
CA10A	185	33	120	10	3	30
CA11H	185	50	120	10	3	30
CA12A	185	50	120	10	2	30
CA13A	185	50	120	10		30

TABLE 5-1 FIRST SET OF ABRASIVE WATER JET CUTTING CONDITIONS FOR SILICON WAFER

These cuts were analyzed using the SEM at 50X and 500X magnifications in order to try to get an idea of the micorostructural damage that took place during cutting. The Videometrix microscope was used to measure the surface roughness characteristics of the sample for the different cuts.

Additional cuts were then made with the abrasive water jet cutter in order to try to get a smoother cut that would better match that or surpass that of diamond cutting. These cuts also were made under varying conditions of abrasive flow rate, cutting speed, and water pressure. These cutting conditions are summed up in table 5-2 and table 5-3.

TABLE 5-2 SECOND SET OF ABRASIVE WATER JET CUTTING CONDITIONS FOR SILICON WAFER

CUT NUMBER	ABRASTVE FLOW RATE (GPM)	PRESSURE (KSI)	ABRASIVE NUMBER	NOZZLE NUMBER	TRAVERSE SPEED (IN/MIN)	CARBIDE NUMBER
CB1B	82.06	50	120		2	30
CB ₂ B	144.8	50	120		フ	30
CB ₃ A	144.8	50	120			30
CB4B	144.8	50	120		0.5	30
CB5B	235.2	50	120		2	30
CB6A	235.2	50	120			30
CB7A	235.2	50	120		0.5	30

TABLE 5-3 THIRD SET OF ABRASIVE WATER JET CUTTING CONDITIONS FOR SILICON WAFER

Some of the silicon cuts were analyzed for microstructural characteristics by use of a scanning electron microscope. This was done in order to determine the effects of the water jet stream on the surface microstructure of the sample.

Due to limitations on the size of the sample that can fit into the SEM, the cut wafers had to be cut down to a smaller size in order to fit into the vacuum chamber of the microscope. Samples had to be placed into the chamber individually to be analyzed.

The Videometrix analysis of the cuts consisted of using the TOPO program in order to get roughness measurements of the cuts. These measurements were compared in an attempt to determine the best cutting conditions for obtaining smooth cuts with the abrasive water jet cutter.

Sample preparation for the videometrix microscope amounted to removing the small pieces of the wafer that contained the individual cuts and mounting them on their edges so that the videometrix would be analyzing the surface of the edge. The samples had to be mounted so that their surfaces were situated parallel to the stage. Z-axis measurements were taken over a .25 inch length of the edge with 50 data points being taken for each edge length. These measurements quantify the variation in the surface height from point to point. From this data, roughness measurements were determined.

The roughness is defined as the average surface

deviation above and below the center line.

The roughness measurements were analyzed and compared in order to determine the trends in roughness vs. cutting conditions as well as to determine the conditions for the best cut that was obtained.

CHAPTER 6

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The results for the abrasive water jet cuts of the silicon wafer are broken down into different categories. These categories are microstructure and roughness. The results for microstructure are shown in the form of SEM micrographs of some of the different cuts. The results for roughness are shown in the form of tables of Matrix Videometrix compiled data points for each cut, along with final results for roughness and comparisons between roughness values for different cutting conditions.

6.1 Microstructural **Characteristics of the Cuts**

Figures 6-1 through 6-22 in appendix A are SEM micrographs of the initial set of cuts. They show the surface of some of the cuts at 50x and either 500x or 200x magnifications. All of the micrographs, regardless of the cutting conditions, appear to exhibit similar surface characteristics for the silicon material.

The SEM micrographs in figures 6-1 and 6-2 seem to be fairly representative of all of the micrographs, so they will be used to explain the effects of waterjet cutting on the surface microstructure. They show the first cut with 229 grams/minute abrasive flow rate, 50 KSI water pressure, and 5 inches/minute cutting speed at 50x and 500x respectively.

These micrographs illustrate that the erosion of the workpiece takes place through the process of chipping and cracking of the material. Figure 6-1 seems to show that the material was removed by breaking sample pieces off along crystal planes. The cracking of the material appears to have taken place parallel to the surface of the wafer.

There was some speculation among those involved in the project that there was some plastic flow of the silicon that took place along the cut. Although some of the micrographs give this appearance, it is highly unlikely that plastic flow will take place at such low cutting temperatures in the brittle silicon material.

It seems more likely that the material is fracturing and chipping off along the crystal planes, thereby creating a layered appearance in the micrographs that could be mistaken for plastic flow.

There are two types of cracks that occur in abrasive water jet machining of brittle materials. They are radial cracks that are normal to the surface that cause strength degradation, and lateral cracks that form on planes parallel to the surface that relate to material removal. These cracks and material removal take place through the bombardment of the surface with multiple particles moving at high speeds. As these particles contact the surface of the target material, they are decelerated and a transfer of energy from the moving particles to the surface takes place. This energy transfer causes the surface of the target material to move.

If this force exceeds the bond strength of the molecules, the bonds will break and the material will fracture (47). Multiple fractures that intersect will cause particles of the material to loosen and separate from the target body.

This is consistent with abrasive water jet cutting theory. Lateral cracking in the material is the main cause of material removal in abrasive water jet cutting. Because of the single crystal structure of silicon, most of the lateral cracking should take place along crystal planes. It takes less energy to fracture the crystal along these planes than it does to fracture it across planes. This means that the most natural way for the crystal to fracture is along the crystal planes. This fracturing along these planes appears to be what is taking place in these samples.

The surface roughness corresponds to the radial cracking and material removal. Because the cracking that occurs perpendicular to the wafer surface is not taking place along crystal planes, the resultant surface is not as smooth as if it takes place along flat crystal planes.

The cuts themselves appear to be square edged due to the masking of the sample surface with plastic tape. There is some chipping that occurs at the edges, making them less square than is ideally desirable.

There is also another point that is not shown in the micrographs that should be mentioned. The edge of the cuts on the back side of the wafer where the water jet stream exits the material is not smooth around the cuts. It appears as if the force from the cutting jet stream is chipping large chunks of material off of the back of the wafer as it exits the sample. This may be due to poor support of the substrate during cutting. If a better backing is created that could give better support to the back of the substrate, this problem could be minimized. This is a major problem that will have to be dealt with if abrasive water jet cutting is going to become a viable method for the large scale machining of electronic substrates.

In the micrographs, it can also be seen that there are some defects that take place away from the actual cutting surfaces. This occurs because of the imperfection of the cutting jet stream. Some stray particles are projected out of the nozzle at a wider angles than are desired, causing them to strike the sample surface at points away from the cutting area. This is seen most clearly in the 50x micrographs.

The clear plastic tape masking was used to try to prevent this. However, as the cutting takes place, two things may occur. The first is that the tape may slide or come loose from the surface under the force of the cutting stream. The second is that the jetstream itself may penetrate and erode the mask, leaving the sample surface exposed, and allowing it to be damaged by the jet stream.

6.2 Roughness Characteristics

The results for the roughness of the cuts were obtained by

using the Matrix Videometrix Econoscope. The results for each cut are shown in table 6-1 through table 6-25. Table 6-26 shows a summary of the final roughness values along with the cutting conditions for each cut. These can be found in appendix C.

The results for the roughness of the different cuts were analyzed in an attempt to find a correlation between cutting conditions and roughness. Graphs of the results were made for roughness vs. cutting speed at the different cutting conditions of abrasive flow rate and water pressure. Graphs were also made for roughness vs. water pressure for varying conditions of cutting speed and abrasive flow rate. Additional graphs were made for roughness vs. abrasive flow rate for various conditions of cutting speed and water pressure.

All of the graphs for the roughness values are shown in Figures 6-23 through 6-45. These are located in appendix B.

Figures 6-23 through 6-30 show graphs of the results of the cutting speed vs. roughness.

Figure 6-23 (abrasive flow rate 56 GPM, water pressure 50 KSI) shows the best roughness to be at a 2 in./minute cutting speed. Figure 6-24 (abrasive flow rate 144 GPM, water pressure 50 KSI) shows the best roughness to be at 1 in./minute cutting speed. Figure 6-25 (abrasive flow rate 185 GPM, water pressure 50 KSI) shows the best roughness to be at 3 in./ minute. Figure 6-26 (abrasive flow rate 229 GPM, water pressure 50 KSI) shows the best roughness to be

at 5 in./ minute. Figure 6-27 (abrasive **flow** rate 235 **GPM,** water pressure 50 KSI) shows the best **roughness to** be at a **cutting** speed of **1 in./minute.**

Figure 6-28 (abrasive flow rate 56 **GPM, water** pressure 30 KSI) **shows the** best roughness **to** be at a **1 in/** minute cutting speed. Figure 6-29 (abrasive flow rate 185 GPM, water pressure 33) shows the best roughness to be at a 2 in./minute cutting speed. Figure 6-30 (abrasive flow rate **229** GPM, water pressure 33 KSI) shows the best roughness to be at a 3 in./minute cutting speed.

The general trend for roughness vs. cutting speed at 50 KSI water pressure has the best roughness at either a 1 in./minute or a 2 in./minute cutting speed. This tends to show that higher traverse speeds result in better roughness values. A similar trend is seen **in** the 30 KSI results.

A comparison of different water pressures on roughness was made using varying conditions of cutting speed and abrasive flow rate. The results can be seen in figures 6-31 through 6-38.

Figures 6-31 through 6-34 are for abrasive flow rates of 56 GPM.

Figure 6-31 (abrasive flow rate 56 GPM, speed .5) shows the roughness for the 50 KSI water pressure to be better than the roughness for the 30 KSI water pressure. Figure 6- 32 (abrasive flow rate 56 **GPM, cutting speed 1 in./min.)** shows the 30 KSI water pressure to yield better results than the 50 KSI water pressure. **Figure 6-33** (abrasive flow

rate 56 GPM, cutting speed 2 in./min.) shows the roughness for the 50 KSI cut to be better than the roughness for the 30 KSI cut.

Figures 6-34 through 6-36 illustrate the affect of the different pressures on roughness at an abrasive flow rate of 185 grams/minute. Figure 6-34 (abrasive flow rate 185 GPM, speed 1 in./min.), figure 6-35 (abrasive flow rate 185 GPM, speed 2 in./min.), and figure 6-36 (abrasive flow rate 185, speed 3) all show the roughness for 30 KSI water pressure to be better than the roughness at 50 KSI for the same conditions of abrasive flow rate and cutting speed.

Figures 6-37 and 6-38 compare the roughnesses for the 33 KSI and 50 KSI water pressures for an abrasive flow rate of 229 grams/ minute. At this abrasive flow rate, both figures 6-37 (abrasive flow rate 229 GPM, speed 1 in/minute) and 6-38 (abrasive flow rate 229 GPM, speed 3 in/minute) show the roughnesses for the 33 KSI cuts to be better than the roughnesses for the 50 KSI cuts.

In general, the 30 KSI pressure seems to get better results than the 50 KSI pressure. However, at the 56 gram/ minute flow rate, the best roughness was achieved at the 50 KSI pressure.

An analysis of the effect of abrasive flow rate on roughness was also done. The results are shown in figures 6-39 through 6-45. Figures 6-39 through 6-42 show the effect of abrasive flow rate at 50 KSI at various cutting speeds from .5 in./minute to 3 in./minute. Figure 6-39 (pressure 50

KSI, speed .5 in./minute) shows better roughness values for lower abrasive flow rates as do figures 6-43 (30 KSI, speed 1 in./minute) **and** 6-44 (pressure 30 KSI, speed 2 **in./minute) and** figure 6-41 (pressure 50 KSI, speed 2 in./minute). Figure 6-42 (pressure 50 KSI, speed 3 in./minute) and figure 6-45 (pressure 30 KSI, speed 3 in./minute) show the opposite trend with better roughness values coming at higher abrasive flow rates. Figure 6-40 (pressure 50 KSI, speed 1 in./minute) shows an intersesting trend with the best roughness values to be at both the high abrasive flow rates and the low abrasive flow rates, with the worst roughness values falling **in** the middle.

In general, at 50 KSI, a lower abrasive flow rate results **in** better roughness values. At 30 KSI, a lower abrasive flow rate also results in better roughness values.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS

Abrasive water jet cutting could be a viable non-traditional machining method for the cutting of ceramic substrates.

The SEM micrographs illustrate tht effects of abrasive water jet machining on the substrate. They show that the brittle silicon material is removed in layers and breaks off parallel to the surface of the wafer, along the flat crystal planes. This is consistent with crystalline fracture in that the bond strength between atoms running parallel to a crystal plane is greater than the bond strength between atoms runnning across crytal planes.

The roughness trends for the abrasive water jet cutting conditions are as follows. The roughness values range from 170 microinches to 644 microinches. The 170 microinch result comes at the cutting conditions of: abrasive flow rate of 56 grams per minute, 30 KSI water pressure, nozzle #10, and a traverse speed of 1 inch per minute.

When roughness is plotted vs. water pressure under constant conditions of abrasive flow rate and cutting speed, the overwhelming trend is that the 30 KSI pressure achieves better roughness values than the 50 KSI pressure.

When roughness is plotted vs. abrasive flow rate under constant conditions of water pressure and traverse speed, low abrasive flow rates result in the best roughness values

for both 30KSI and 50KSI water pressures.

A plot of roughness vs. traverse speed under constant conditions of water pressure and abrasive flow rate shows the optimum cutting speed to be between 1 and 2 inches per minute.

These cutting conditions and roughnesses will have to be studied in further detail to determine whether or not abrasive water jet cutting can be adjusted to get at least as good a result in terms of roughness as the traditional cutting methods that are currently employed, while having a minimal effect in terms of impurities and other microstructural deformities on the substrates.

APPENDIX A

SEM MICROGRAPHS OF MACHINED SURFACES

FIGURE 6-1 50X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CAO1A CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 229 GPM 50 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 5 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-2 500X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CAO1A CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 229 GPM 50 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 5 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-3 50X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CA03A
CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 229 GPM CUTTING CONDITIONS: 50 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 2 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-4 500X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CA03A
CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 229 GPM CUTTING CONDITIONS: 50 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 2 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-5 50X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CA04A
CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 229 GPM CUTTING CONDITIONS: 50 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 1 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-6 500X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CAO4A CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 229 GPM 50 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 1 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-7 50X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CA05A
CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 229 GPM CUTTING CONDITIONS: 33 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 3 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-8 500X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CAO5A CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 229 GPM 33 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 3 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-9 50X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CA08A
CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 185 GPM CUTTING CONDITIONS: 33 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 1 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-10 500X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CAO8A CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 185 GPM 33 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 1 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-11 50X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CAO9A CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 185 GPM 33 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 2 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-12 500X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CAO9A CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 185 GPM 33 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 2 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-13 50X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CA10A CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 185 GPM 33 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 3 IN./MIN. 20 KEV \sim

FIGURE 6-14 200X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CA10A CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 185 GPM 33 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 3 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-15 50X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CA11H CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 185 GPM 50 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 3 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-16 200X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CA11H CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 185 GPM 50 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 3 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-17 50X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CA12A CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 185 GPM 50 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 2 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

 \sim \sim

FIGURE 6-18 500X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CA12A CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 185 GPM 50 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 2 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-19 50X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CA13A CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 185 GPM 50 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 1 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-20 500X MICROGRAPH OF CUT CA13A CUTTING CONDITIONS: AFR: 185 GPM 50 KSI WATER PRESSURE NOZZLE #10 TRAVERSE SPEED: 1 IN./MIN. 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-21 50X MICROGRAPH OF A CLEAVED SURFACE 20 KEV

FIGURE 6-22 200X MICROGRAPH OF A CLEAVED SURFACE 20 KEV

GRAPHS OF ROUGHNESS VALUES FOR DIFFERENT CUTTING CONDITIONS

FIGURE 6-23 GRAPH OF ROUGHNESS VS. TRAVERSE SPEED AFR: 56 GPM 50 KSI NOZZLE #10 CARBIDE #30

 $\overline{}$

Abrasive Flow Rate (Grams/ Minute)

FIGURE 6-42 GRAPH OF ROUGHNESS VS. ABRASIVE FLOW RATE PRESSURE: 50 KSI CARBIDE #30 SPEED: 3 IN/MIN.

Abrasive Flow Rate (Grams/ Minute)

FIGURE 6-43 GRAPH OF ROUGHNESS VS. ABRASIVE FLOW RATE PRESSURE: 30 KSI CARBIDE #30 SPEED: 1 IN/MIN.

Abrasive Flow Rate (Grams/ Minute)

FIGURE 6-44 GRAPH OF ROUGHNESS VS. ABRASIVE FLOW RATE PRESSURE: 30 KSI CARBIDE #30 SPEED: 2 IN/MIN.

Abrasive Flow Rate (Grams/ Minute)

FIGURE 6-45 GRAPH OF ROUGHNESS VS. ABRASIVE FLOW RATE PRESSURE: 30 KSI CARBIDE #30 SPEED: 3 IN/MIN.

APPENDIX C

TABLES OF ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FROM VIDEOMETRIX ECONOSCOPE

TABLE 6-1 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR **CUT** CA01A

MATRIX VIDEOMETRIX

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.14796	0.00005	29	Ω
0.00000	0.15306	-0.00023	30	O
0.00000	0.15816	-0.00014	31	O
0.00000	0.16327	-0.00044	32	O
0.00000	0.16837	-0.00084	33	0
0.00000	0.17347	-0.00016	34	0
0.00000	0.17857	-0.00030	35	0
0.00000	0.18367	-0.00069	36	0
0.00000	0.18878	-0.00062	37	Ω
0.00000	0.19388	-0.00056	38	0
0.00000	0.19898	-0.00009	39	Ω
0.00000	0.20408	-0.00036	40	\circ
0.00000	0.20918	-0.00034	41	Ω
0.00000	0.21429	-0.00075	42	0
0.00000	0.21939	-0.00032	43	0
0.00000	0.22449	-0.00113	44	0
0.00000	0.22959	-0.00061	45	0
0.00000	0.23469	-0.00076	46	0
0.00000	0.23980	-0.00045	47	0
0.00000	0.24490	-0.00064	48	Ω
0.00000	0.25000	-0.00006	49	Ω

TABLE 6-1 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CA01A (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-1 SUMMARY

	X	Y	7.
Total Axis Travel:	.00100	.25000	
# of Focus Points:	1.00000	50.00000	
Step Increments $\frac{8}{9}$.00100	.00510	
Z pioint (MIN) :	-0.00059	.22453	$-.00113$
(MAX) :	-0.00003	.04082	.00036
$(MEAN)$:			$-.00021$

 \sim

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000	0.19388 0.19898 0.20408 0.20918 0.21429 0.21939 0.22449 0.22959 0.23469	0.00027 0.00109 0.00100 0.00094 0.00073 0.00008 0.00023 -0.00010 -0.00027	38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46	Ω Ω Ω
0.00000	0.23980	-0.00061	47	
0.00000 0.00000	0.24490 0.25000	-0.00011 0.00002	48 49	

TABLE 6-2 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CA02A (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-2 SUMMARY

Total Axis Travel: # of Focus Points: Step Increments :

 Z pioint (MIN) :

 (MAX) :

 $(MEAN)$:

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	0.00043	38	
0.00000	0.19898	0.00059	39	
0.00000	0.20408	0.00096	40	
0.00000	0.20918	0.00127	41	
0.00000	0.21429	0.00112	42	
0.00000	0.21939	0.00087	43	
0.00000	0.22449	0.00089	44	
0.00000	0.22959	0.00102	45	
0.00000	0.23469	0.00109	46	
0.00000	0.23980	0.00058	47	
0.00000	0.24490	0.00051	48	
0.00000	0.25000	-0.00033	49	

TABLE 6-3 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CA04A (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-3 SUMMARY

Total Axis Travel: # of Focus Points: Step Increments : Z pioint (MIN) : (MAX) :

 $(MEAN)$:

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	-0.00013	38	
0.00000	0.19898	-0.00009	39	
0.00000	0.20408	-0.00008	40	
0.00000	0.20918	0.00036	41	
0.00000	0.21429	-0.00002	42	
0.00000	0.21939	0.00000	43	
0.00000	0.22449	0.00022	44	
0.00000	0.22959	0.00028	45	
0.00000	0.23469	0.00009	46	
0.00000	0.23980	-0.00018	47	
0.00000	0.24490	-0.00017	48	
0.00000	0.25000	0.00026	49	

TABLE 6-4 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CA05A (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-4 SUMMARY

Total Axis Travel: # of Focus Points:

Step Increments :

Z pioint (MIN) :

 (MAX) :

 $(MEAN)$:

TOPO TM

Measurement Data

 $\overline{}$

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	-0.00149	38	
0.00000	0.19898	-0.00228	39	
0.00000	0.20408	-0.00188	40	
0.00000	0.20918	-0.00242	41	
0.00000	0.21429	-0.00229	42	
0.00000	0.21939	-0.00257	43	
0.00000	0.22449	-0.00293	44	
0.00000	0.22959	-0.00315	45	
0.00000	0.23469	-0.00294	46	
0.00000	0.23980	-0.00303	47	
0.00000	0.24490	-0.00249	48	
0.00000	0.25000	-0.00284	49	

TABLE 6-5 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CA06B (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-5 SUMMARY

	Χ	γ	7.
Total Axis Travel:	.00100	.25000	
# of Focus Points:	1.00000	50,00000	
Step Increments :	.00100	.00510	
Z pioint (MIN) :	0.00000	.22957	$-.00315$
(MAX) :	0.00000	.00000	.00000
$(MEAN)$:			$-.00151$

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	-0.00225	38	
0.00000	0.19898	-0.00227	39	
0.00000	0.20408	-0.00215	40	
0.00000	0.20918	-0.00227	41	
0.00000	0.21429	-0.00194	42	
0.00000	0.21939	-0.00285	43	
0.00000	0.22449	-0.00221	44	
0.00000	0.22959	-0.00198	45	
0.00000	0.23469	-0.00191	46	
0.00000	0.23980	-0.00214	47	
0.00000	0.24490	-0.00164	48	
0.00000	0.25000	-0.00166	49	

TABLE 6-6 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CA07A (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-6 SUMMARY

	Χ	Y	7.
Total Axis Travel:	.00100	.25000	
# of Focus Points:	1,00000	50,00000	
Step Increments	.00100	.00510	
Z pioint (MIN) :	0.00000	.21939	$-.00285$
(MAX) :	0.00000	.01531	.00000
$(MEAN)$:			$-.00171$

TABLE 6-7 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CA08A

MATRIX VIDEOMETRIX

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	-0.00053	38	
0.00000	0.19898	-0.00028	39	
0.00000	0.20408	-0.00026	40	
0.00000	0.20918	-0.00029	41	
0.00000	0.21429	-0.00013	42	
0.00000	0.21939	-0.00015	43	
0.00000	0.22449	-0.00009	44	
0.00000	0.22959	-0.00034	45	
0.00000	0.23469	-0.00059	46	
0.00000	0.23980	-0.00017	47	
0.00000	0.24490	-0.00044	48	
0.00000	0.25000	-0.00043	49	

TABLE 6-7 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CA08A (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-7 SUMMARY

		Χ	Υ	Z
Travel:		.00100	.25000	
Points:		1.00000	50.00000	
ments	$\ddot{\ }$.00100	.00510	
(MIN)	$\ddot{\cdot}$	-0.00003	.09695	$-.00084$
(MAX)	$\ddot{}$	-0.00004	.05616	.00071
(MEAN)	$\ddot{}$			$-.00010$

Total Axis Tr $#$ of Focus Po Step Increment Z pioint (M

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	0.00038	38	
0.00000	0.19898	0.00041	39	
0.00000	0.20408	0.00014	40	
0.00000	0.20918	-0.00006	41	
0.00000	0.21429	0.00288	42	
0.00000	0.21939	0.00046	43	
0.00000	0.22449	0.00022	44	
0.00000	0.22959	-0.00039	45	
0.00000	0.23469	0.00027	46	
0.00000	0.23980	0.00031	47	
0.00000	0.24490	0.00066	48	
0.00000	0.25000	0.00041	49	

TABLE 6-8 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CA09A (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-8 SUMMARY

Total Axis Travel: # of Focus Points:

Step Increments :

Z pioint (MIN) :

 (MAX) :

 $(MEAN)$:

 $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$

TOPO TM

0.00000 0.19388 38 0.00016 0.00000 0.19898 39 0.00004 0.00000 0.20408 40 0.00014 0.00000 0.20918 -0.00030 41 0.00000 0.21429 -0.00000 42 0.00000 0.21939 43 -0.00003 0.00000 0.22449 0.00018 44 0.00000 45 0.22959 0.00032 0.00000 46 0.23469 0.00043	X POSITION	Y POSTTION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000 0.23980 47 0.00027 0.00000 0.24490 48 -0.00011					

TABLE 6-9 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CA10A (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-9 SUMMARY

Total Axis Travel:

of Focus Points:

Step Increments :

 Z pioint (MIN) :

 (MAX) :

 $(MEAN)$:

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	-0.00003	38	
0.00000	0.19898	0.00083	39	
0.00000 0.00000	0.20408 0.20918	0.00060	40	Ω
0.00000	0.21429	0.00002 -0.00066	41 42	
0.00000	0.21939	-0.00094	43	
0.00000	0.22449	-0.00129	44	
0.00000	0.22959	-0.00115	45	
0.00000	0.23469	-0.00036	46	
0.00000	0.23980	-0.00088	47	
0.00000 0.00000	0.24490 0.25000	-0.00022 0.00006	48 49	

TABLE 6-10 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR **CUT CA11H (CONTINUED)**

TABLE 6-10 SUMMARY

 X Y Z Total Axis Travel: .00100 .25000 .25000 # of Focus Points: 1.00000 50.00000 Step Increments .00100 .00510 Z pioint (MIN) : 0.00000 .09184 -.00184 (MAX) : 0.00000 .19898 .00083 (MEAN) : -.00057

TOPO TM

Measurement Data

 \sim

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	-0.00160	38	
0.00000	0.19898	-0.00099	39	
0.00000	0.20408	0.00007	40	
0.00000	0.20918	0.00039	41	
0.00000	0.21429	-0.00071	42	
0.00000	0.21939	0.00014	43	
0.00000	0.22449	0.00026	44	
0.00000	0.22959	-0.00037	45	
0.00000	0.23469	-0.00042	46	
0.00000	0.23980	0.00012	47	
0.00000	0.24490	0.00022	48	
0.00000	0.25000	0.00033	49	

TABLE 6-11 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CA12A (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-11 SUMMARY

X Y Z Total Axis Travel: | .00100 .25000 .25000 # of Focus Points: | 1.00000 50.00000 Step Increments : .00100 .00510 Z pioint (MIN) : 0.00000 .14795 -.00165 (MAX) 0.00001 .05104 .00094 (MEAN) : -.00043

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000	0.19388 0.19898 0.20408 0.20918 0.21429 0.21939 0.22449 0.22959 0.23469 0.23980 0.24490	-0.00154 -0.00112 -0.00195 -0.00348 -0.00220 -0.00210 -0.00182 -0.00178 -0.00070 -0.00108 -0.00013	38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48	Ω Ω ი Ω Ω
0.00000	0.25000	0.00001	49	

TABLE 6-12 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CA13A (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-12 SUMMARY

X Y Z Total Axis Travel: .00100 .25000 # of Focus Points: | 1.00000 50.00000 Step Increments : .00100 .00510 Z pioint (MIN) : $\Big|$ -0.00033 .20917 -.00348 (MAX) : 0.00000 .04592 .00036 (MEAN) -.00072

-
-
-

TOPO TM

Measurement Data

 $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{A}}$

 ω

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000	0.19388 0.19898 0.20408 0.20918 0.21429 0.21939	0.00008 0.00043 0.00056 -0.00026 -0.00056 -0.00081	38 39 40 41 42 43	∩ Ω
0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000	0.22449 0.22959 0.23469 0.23980 0.24490 0.25000	-0.00128 -0.00090 -0.00047 -0.00058 -0.00063 -0.00051	44 45 46 47 48 49	

TABLE 6-13 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CB1B (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-13 SUMMARY

Total Axis Travel: # of Focus Points: Step Increments : Z pioint (MIN) : (MAX) :

 $(MEAN)$:

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	-0.00078	38	O
0.00000	0.19898	-0.00114	39	
0.00000	0.20408	-0.00044	40	
0.00000	0.20918	-0.00047	41	
0.00000	0.21429	-0.00061	42	
0.00000	0.21939	-0.00078	43	
0.00000	0.22449	-0.00080	44	
0.00000	0.22959	-0.00135	45	Ω
0.00000	0.23469	-0.00135	46	
0.00000	0.23980	-0.00062	47	
0.00000	0.24490	-0.00036	48	
0.00000	0.25000	-0.00003	49	

TABLE 6-14 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CB2B (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-14 SUMMARY

X Y Z Total Axis Travel: .00100 .25000 .25000 # of Focus Points: | 1.00000 50.00000 Step Increments : .00100 .00510 Z pioint (MIN) : $\begin{array}{|l|} 0.00000 & .12245 & -.00241 \end{array}$ (MAX) : 0.00000 .00000 .00000 (MEAN) : -.00097

TOPO **TM**

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000	0.19388 0.19898 0.20408 0.20918 0.21429 0.21939 0.22449 0.22959 0.23469 0.23980 0.24490	-0.00013 -0.00013 -0.00049 -0.00049 -0.00019 -0.00036 -0.00011 -0.00012 -0.00031 -0.00023 -0.00050	38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48	Ω
0.00000	0.25000	0.00014	49	

TABLE 6-15 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CB3A (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-15 SUMMARY

 X Y Z Total Axis Travel: | .00100 .25000 # of Focus Points: | 1.00000 50.00000 Step Increments : .00100 .00510 Z pioint (MIN) : 0.00000 .13776 -.00174 (MAX) 0.00000 .09184 .00077 (MEAN) -.00026

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	-0.00100	38	
0.00000	0.19898	-0.00129	39	
0.00000	0.20408	-0.00070	40	
0.00000	0.20918	-0.00070	41	
0.00000	0.21429	-0.00091	42	
0.00000	0.21939	-0.00070	43	
0.00000	0.22449	-0.00065	44	
0.00000	0.22959	-0.00097	45	
0.00000	0.23469	-0.00118	46	
0.00000	0.23980	-0.00133	47	
0.00000	0.24490	-0.00147	48	
0.00000	0.25000	-0.00181	49	

TABLE 6-16 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CB4B (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-16 SUMMARY

Total Axis Travel: # of Focus Points: Step Increments : Z pioint (MIN) : (MAX) :

 \sim

 $(MEAN)$:

TOPO TM

TABLE 6-17 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CB5B (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-17 SUMMARY

Total Axis Travel:

of Focus Points:

Step Increments :

 Z pioint (MIN) :

 (MAX) :

 $(MEAN)$:

 \sim

TOPO TM

131

TABLE 6-18 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CB6A (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-18 SUMMARY

Z pioint

TOPO TM

Measurement Data

 ~ 100

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	-0.00094	38	
0.00000	0.19898	-0.00042	39	
0.00000	0.20408	-0.00075	40	
0.00000	0.20918	-0.00078	41	
0.00000	0.21429	-0.00072	42	
0.00000	0.21939	-0.00055	43	
0.00000	0.22449	-0.00081	44	
0.00000	0.22959	-0.00087	45	
0.00000	0.23469	-0.00115	46	
0.00000	0.23980	-0.00046	47	
0.00000	0.24490	-0.00072	48	
0.00000	0.25000	-0.00084	49	

TABLE 6-19 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CB7A (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-19 SUMMARY

 X Y Z Total Axis Travel: .00100 .25000 # of Focus Points: 1.00000 50.00000 Step Increments : .00100 .00510 Z pioint (MIN) : 0.00000 .16837 -.00161 (MAX) : 0.00000 .01531 .00096 (MEAN) : $\Big|$ -.00040 -.00040

TABLE 6-20 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CC1B

MATRIX VIDEOMETRIX

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000	0.19388 0.19898 0.20408 0.20918 0.21429	0.00012 0.00013 0.00031 0.00020 -0.00012	38 39 40 41 42	Ω 0
0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000	0.21939 0.22449 0.22959 0.23469 0.23980 0.24490 0.25000	0.00040 0.00068 0.00097 0.00073 0.00078 0.00099 0.00084	43 44 45 46 47 48 49	

TABLE 6-20 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CC1B (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-20 SUMMARY

X Y Z Total Axis Travel: | .00100 .25000 # of Focus Points: | 1.00000 50.00000 Step Increments .00100 .00510 Z pioint (MIN) : 0.00000 .05102 -.00061 (MAX) : 0.00000 .24490 .00099 (MEAN) : | 00011

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	0.00037	38	
0.00000	0.19898	0.00054	39	
0.00000	0.20408	0.00000	40	
0.00000	0.20918	0.00022	41	
0.00000	0.21429	-0.00009	42	
0.00000	0.21939	-0.00010	43	
0.00000	0.22449	-0.00023	44	
0.00000	0.22959	0.00006	45	
0.00000	0.23469	0.00027	46	
0.00000	0.23980	0.00019	47	
0.00000	0.24490	0.00035	48	
0.00000	0.25000	0.00049	49	

TABLE 6-21 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CC2B (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-21 SUMMARY

X Y Z and and and and Total Axis Travel: .00100 .25000 # of Focus Points: | 1.00000 50.00000 Step Increments .00100 .00510 Z pioint (MIN) : 0.00000 .22449 -.00023 (MAX) : 0.00000 .07653 .00072 (MEAN) .00026

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	0.00030	38	
0.00000	0.19898	0.00003	39	
0.00000	0.20408	-0.00030	40	
0.00000	0.20918	0.00004	41	
0.00000	0.21429	0.00037	42	
0.00000	0.21939	0.00100	43	
0.00000	0.22449	0.00180	44	
0.00000	0.22959	0.00194	45	
0.00000	0.23469	0.00183	46	
0.00000	0.23980	0.00175	47	
0.00000	0.24490	0.00206	48	
0.00000	0.25000	0.00176	49	

TABLE 6-22 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CC3B (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-22 SUMMARY

X Y Z Total Axis Travel: .00100 .25000 # of Focus Points: | 1.00000 50.00000 Step Increments : | .00100 .00510 Z point (MIN) : 0.00000 .20408 -.00030 .
- The contract size and the same same wave size was very trust and sales wide wide and same such same wave swe (MAX) : 0.00000 .24490 .00206 (MEAN) : .00065

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSTTION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	0.00036	38	0
0.00000	0.19898	0.00026	39	
0.00000	0.20408	-0.00012	40	
0.00000	0.20918	0.00051	41	
0.00000	0.21429	0.00048	42	
0.00000	0.21939	0.00065	43	
0.00000	0.22449	0.00046	44	
0.00000	0.22959	0.00060	45	
0.00000	0.23469	0.00079	46	
0.00000	0.23980	0.00063	47	
0.00000	0.24490	0.00043	48	
0.00000	0.25000	0.00067	49	

TABLE 6-23 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CC4A (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-23 SUMMARY

Total Axis Travel: # of Focus Points: Step Increments : Z pioint (MIN) :

 (MAX) :

 $(MEAN)$:

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000	0.19388	-0.00039	38	
0.00000	0.19898	-0.00025	39	
0.00000	0.20408	-0.00048	4 O	
0.00000	0.20918	-0.00036	41	
0.00000	0.21429	-0.00010	42	
0.00000	0.21939	-0.00032	43	
0.00000	0.22449	-0.00024	44	
0.00000	0.22959	0.00017	45	
0.00000	0.23469	0.00001	46	
0.00000	0.23980	-0.00004	47	
0.00000	0.24490	-0.00020	48	
0.00000	0.25000	-0.00016	49	

TABLE 6-24 ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENT DATA FOR CUT CC5B (CONTINUED)

TABLE 6-24 SUMMARY

Total Axis Travel: # of Focus Points:

Step Increments :

Z pioint (MIN) :

 (MAX) :

 $(MEAN)$:

TOPO TM

X POSITION	Y POSITION	Z POSITION	ROW	COLUMN
0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000	0.19388 0.19898 0.20408 0.20918 0.21429 0.21939 0.22449	-0.00019 -0.00025 -0.00008 -0.00049 -0.00100 -0.00036 -0.00064	38 39 40 41 42 43 44	Ω Ω
0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000	0.22959 0.23469 0.23980 0.24490 0.25000	-0.00066 -0.00071 -0.00118 -0.00137 -0.00112	45 46 47 48 49	

TABLE 6-25 ROUGHNESS **MEASUREMENT DATA** FOR **CUT CC6A (CONTINUED)**

TABLE 6-25 SUMMARY

	Χ	Y	Z
Total Axis Travel:	.00100	.25000	
# of Focus Points:	1.00000	50,00000	
Step Increments :	.00100	.00510	
Z pioint (MIN) :	0.00000	.24490	$-.00137$
(MAX) :	0.00000	.05102	.00074
$(MEAN)$:			$-.00026$

TABLE 6-26 SUMMARY OF ROUGHNESS VALUES WITH CUTTING CONDITIONS FOR EACH CUT

 $\sim 10^{11}$

REFERENCES

- **1. S.J. Schneider Jr., R.W. Rice, The** Science of **Ceramic Machining and Surface Finishing, pp.** 2-7, 1970.
- 2. G.F. Benedict, <u>Metals Handbook Volume 16</u> Machining, **9th Edition, p. 510, 1989.**
- 3, G.F. Benedict, Metals **Handbook** Volume 16 **Machining, 9th** Edition, pp. 509-510, 1989.
- 4. G.E. Storck, Metals Handbook Volume 16 Machining, 9th Edition, p. 511, 1989.
- 5. L.T. Rhoades, H.A. Clouser, **Metals Handbook** Volume 16 - Machining, 9th **Edition,** p. 514, 1989.
- 6. C.E. Johnston, Metals Handbook Volume **16** Machining, 9th Edition, p. 520, 1989.
- 7. W.R. Tyrell, Metals Handbook Volume 16 Machining, 9th **Edition,** p. 528, 1989.
- 8. T.L. Lievestro, Metals Handbook Volume 16 Machining, 9th Edition, **p.** 533, 1989.
- 9. R.E. Phillips, Metals Handbook Volume 16 Machining, 9th Edition, p. 542, 1989.
- 10. Metals Handbook Volume 16 Machining, 9th **Edition,** p. 548, 1989.
- **11. A.M.** Newton, Metals Handbook Volume 16 Machining, **9th Edition,** p. 551, 1989.
- **12. A.M. Newton,** Metals Handbook Volume 16 Machining, 9th **Edition, p.** 554, 1989.
- 13. J.E. **Fuller,** Metals Handbook Volume 16 Machining, **9th Edition, p.** 557, 1989.
- **14. Milton C. Shaw, Metal Cutting** Principles, pp. 47-55, 1984.
- 15. H. Nogawa, Ceramics Processing State of the Art of R&D **in** Japan, pp. 8.1-8.19, 1988.
- 16. Metals Handbook Volume **16 Machining,** 9th Edition, p. 560, 1989.
- 17. Metals Handbook Volume 16 = Machining, 9th Edition, p. 565, 1989.

REFERENCES (CONTINUED)

- 18. R.W. Schneider, Metals Handbook Volume 16 Machining, 9th Edition, p. 568, 1989.
- 19. D. Elza, G. White, Metals Handbook Volume 16 - Machining, 9th Edition, p. 572, 1989.
- 20. M. Ramulu, M. Hashish, Machining Characteristics of Advanced Materials MD-Vol. 16, 1989.
- 21. H. Nogawa, Ceramics Processing State of the Art of R&D in Japan, pp. 7.1-7.24, 1988.
- 22. T. Fischer, Metals Handbook Volume 16 Machining, 9th Edition, p. 577, 1989.
- 23. E.M. Langworthy, Metals Handbook Volume 16 Machining, 9th Edition, p. 579, 1989.
- 24. H. Friedman, Metals Handbook Volume 16 Machining, 9th Edition, p. 587, 1989.
- 25. Wei-Long Chen, Correlation Between Particles Velocities and Conditions of Abrasive Waterjet Formation, N.J.I.T. Doctoral Thesis, pp. 8-10, 1990.
- 26. E.S. Geskin, "Waterjet Cutting", Modern Manufacturing Systems, 1992.
- 27. Shy-Syan Chen, Investigation of Surface Formation in Abrasive Waterjet Cutting N.J.I.T. Masters Thesis, pp. 1-7, 1989.
- 28. R. Jordan, "Waterjets on the Cutting edge of Machining", Nontraditional Machining Conference Proceedings, 2-3 December, 1985, Cincinnati, Ohio, pp. 13-22, 1986.
- 29. R.J. Brook, Concise Encyclopedia of Advanced Ceramic Materials, p. 468, 1991.
- 30. E.S. Geskin, "Material Shaping by the Use of Waterjets", Modern Manufacturing Systems, 1992.
- 31. M. Hashish, "Turning **with** Abrasive Water Jets", Advances in Nontraditional Machining, p. 79, 1986.
- 32. T.J. Kim, J.G. Sylvia, **L. Posner, "Piercing** and Cutting of Ceramics by Abrasive **Water Jet",** Machining of Ceramic Materials and Components **PED-Vol. 17,** 1985.

RErERENCES (CONTINUED)

- 33. W.C. O'Mara, R.B. Herring, L.P. Hunt, Handbook of Semiconductor Silicon Technology, pp. 349-371, 1990.
- 34. Properties of Silicon, p. 8, 1988.
- **35. W.C.** O'Mara, R.B. Herring, L.P. Hunt, Handbook of Semiconductor Silicon Technology, pp. 427-432, 1990.
- 36. S. Iyer, "Silicon Molecular Beam Epitaxy", Epitaxial Silicon Technology, pp. 150-154, 1989.
- 37. W.C. O'Mara, R.B. Herring, L.P. Hunt, Handbook of Semiconductor Silicon Technology, pp. 197-198, 1990.
- 38. J.I. Licari, L.R. Enlow, <u>Hybrid Microcircuit Techology</u>
Handbook Materials, Processes, Design, Testing and Production, pp. 25-26, 1988.
- 39. Properties of Silicon, p. 52, 1988.
- 40. A. Harper, Handbook of Materials and Processes for Electronics, pp. 7.90-7.99, 1970.
- 41. D.C. Guptor, Silicon Processing, 1983.
- 42. C.P. Gilmore, The Scanning Electron Microscope, p. 7, 1972.
- 43. P.R. Thornton, Scanning Electron Microscopy, Applications to Material and Device Science, pp. 13-45, 1968.
- 44. Matrix Videometrix Econoscope User's Manual.
- 45. D.C. Ray, P.K. Mishra, "Material Removal Rate in Abrasive Jet Machining: An Elasto-Plastic Model", Advances in Nontraditional Machining, pp. 111, 1986.
- 46. Allen Bradley Series B 8400 **MP/** Bandit IV RevisionF Firmware Controller Users Manual, 1988.
- 47. F. Shimura, Semiconductor Silicon Crystal Technology, pp. 22-78, 1989.