1 Introduction

Thin-film solar cell technology promises to achieve a significant cost reduction in materials, by adopting large area deposition capability, and the use of cheap and flexible substrates. Typical thin film solar cells used in terrestrial PV (photovoltaic) applications consist of back contact, absorber, and front contact films. CdTe (cadmium telluride) is the dominant absorber material in recent years because of its attractive price and stable performance at high temperatures. The efficiency of thin-film solar panels, however, is hampered by resistive losses in the module proportional to the square of the current. In practice, photocurrent is decreased by scribing the solar module into a large number (between 100 and 200) mini-modules and connecting them in series to create high-voltage, low-current devices. Since each layer in the solar module must be scribed after deposition, scribing is performed in 3 steps—Patterns 1, 2, and 3 (P1, P2, and P3) processes, which are also used in the commercial production of a-Si:H (hydrogenated amorphous silicon) and copper indium gallium selenide based thin film solar cell fabrications. Compared to mechanical scribing, key advantage of laser scribing is that it is able to enable much smaller line width (50 μm versus 500 μm) so the “dead zone” can be much smaller with higher efficiency. Also, it is currently only industrial standard process for high speed mass production (scribing speed around 1 m/s versus 0.05–0.1 m/s). However, laser scribing has been shown to leave a heat-affected zone around the scribe, which causes undesirably poor isolation between cells and low shunt resistance. Laser scribing has also been shown to leave high protruded ridges along the edge of the scribe line, contributing to electrical shorts. 

In order to decrease the thermal effect of laser irradiation during processing, the use of ultrashort pulsed lasers, such as picosecond and femtosecond lasers, are being investigated for scribing processes. These lasers are complex and expensive, and regardless of pulse duration, material melting cannot be totally eliminated. Glass side laser processing has been shown to be more efficient than film side processing with reduced thermal effect. Film side laser scribing is governed by heating, melting, and vaporizing of selective films, while glass side laser scribing is a thermal-mechanical process which involves stress induced material failure and removal rather than vaporization. The mechanical fracture and removal of film material during glass side scribing is commonly referred to as lift off or micro-explosion processing. During micro-explosion processing, the laser irradiates through the transparent substrate and is fully absorbed in a very thin layer of film at the interface. High pressure plasma is generated and expanded in the film. The plasma punches through the solid film above and the material is removed mechanically. 

Micro-explosion processing is pronounced when the laser material penetration depth is much shallower than the film thickness. One example is that of CdTe irradiated with a green laser at a wavelength of 532 nm. Laser energy is mainly absorbed at the CdTe/substrate interface. High pressure plasma is generated and lifts off the solid film above. For front contact films made by transparent conducting oxide (TCO) materials, such as indium tin oxide and SnO2:F, the mechanical stress responsible for film removal during laser scribing is commonly referred to as lift off or micro-explosion processing. During micro-explosion processing, the laser irradiates through the transparent substrate and is fully absorbed in a very thin layer of film at the interface. High pressure plasma is generated and expanded in the film. The plasma punches through the solid film above and the material is removed mechanically. 

While glass-side laser scribing has led to improved scribe quality over competing methods, defects such as irregular scribe geometry, heat-affected zones, and microcracks that lead to decreased module efficiency are still introduced. The physical phenomena responsible for film removal during laser scribing and their effect on scribe quality are not well known. In order to be cost competitive to other PV technologies like crystalline silicon based cells, major thin-film solar players such as General Electric are pushing hard to develop next generation of cell with significantly higher efficiency and lower manufacturing cost. Developing modeling and better understanding for laser scribing process on thin-film PV is becoming a critical task for both industry and academia. It will help reduce the “dead zone” by predicting scribing width and improve the cell efficiency with optimization of process window. Furthermore, it will enable innovative new
cell/structure design which can be better fit into the current laser scribing process. To date, only rudimentary modeling efforts have been made, offering no predictive or optimization capabilities. Bovatsek et al. [6] developed a simple, one-dimensional thermal model to estimate the through thickness temperature variation of a-Si:H based thin film solar cells by ns laser pulse irradiated from the glass side, and estimated the thermal stress as that of an expanding plate with fixed edges heated by a laser. While this model shows the formation of thermal stresses, caused by the laser fluence lower than the melting threshold, can exceed the material’s compressive yield stress, it offers no predictive capabilities of the scribe geometry due to the lack of spatial and temporal resolution. There is also limited simulation effort on micro-explosion processes. Based on the current thin-film solar cell technology, a 1% increase in efficiency from improved scribe quality equates to roughly a 10% reduction cost. Therefore, numerical models of laser scribing processes that predict scribing width, cleanliness, and process time. There is also limited simulation effort on micro-explosion processes due to the lack of spatial and temporal resolution. There is also limited simulation effort on micro-explosion processes. Based on the current thin-film solar cell technology, a 1% increase in efficiency from improved scribe quality equates to roughly a 10% reduction cost. Therefore, numerical models of laser scribing processes that predict scribing width, cleanliness, and process time. There is also limited simulation effort on micro-explosion processes due to the lack of spatial and temporal resolution. There is also limited simulation effort on micro-explosion processes. Based on the current thin-film solar cell technology, a 1% increase in efficiency from improved scribe quality equates to roughly a 10% reduction cost. Therefore, numerical models of laser scribing processes that predict scribing width, cleanliness, and process time. There is also limited simulation effort on micro-explosion processes due to the lack of spatial and temporal resolution. There is also limited simulation effort on micro-explosion processes due to the lack of spatial and temporal resolution. There is also limited simulation effort on micro-explosion processes due to the lack of spatial and temporal resolution. There is also limited simulation effort on micro-explosion processes due to the lack of spatial and temporal resolution.

2 Background

Because the entire layer of SnO2:F can absorb the laser energy uniformly due to its high optical penetration depth compared to its thickness (400 nm), SnO2:F is usually removed by laser ablation which results in a heat-affected zone. Here, a film removal process of SnO2:F with low laser fluences (less than melting threshold) is investigated. It is found that the SnO2:F film is removed by the thermal-induced stress. CdTe, which has a lower optical penetration depth than its thickness (2 μm), it is commonly removed by micro-explosion process. Because the CdTe film is thicker than the SnO2:F film, it is difficult to thermally ablate with a single pulse. High-pressure plasma is generated at the film/substrate interface while applying laser from the glass side, and the solid film above is lifted off during plasma expansion. CdTe film undergoes brittle material cracking during the plasma expansion, and the material at the plasma boundaries is delaminated simultaneously. Film delamination is analyzed by the traction separation mechanism at the interface, which is implemented using cohesive elements in the simulation.

2.1 Thermal Stress and Brittle Failure Analysis. During laser irradiation, the spatial and temporal distribution of temperature is governed by the heat equation

\[ \rho c_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (k \nabla T) + q(r, z, t) \]  

where \( \rho \), \( c_p \), \( T \), \( t \), and \( k \) are density, specific heat, temperature, time, and thermal conductivity; \( r \) and \( z \) are the radial distance to the laser beam center and film thickness, respectively; laser power density \( q(r, z, t) \) represented temporal and spatial distribution within the film is given as

\[ q(r, z, t) = q_0 \cdot \exp(-\kappa z) \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{2z^2}{R_0^2}\right) \cdot \exp\left[-4\ln(2)(t/t_p - 1)^2\right] \]

where \( q_0 \), \( \kappa \), \( R_0 \), and \( t_p \) are the peak power density, absorption coefficient, beam radius, and pulse width. When a structure is mechanically constrained, thermal stresses are induced by thermal expansion, as determined by the Hooke’s Law, \( \varepsilon = \alpha \Delta T \), where \( \alpha \) is thermal expansion coefficient and \( \Delta T \) is the temperature change. Because the thermal and mechanical response of the material is interdependent, a fully-coupled thermo-mechanical analysis, is implemented.

SnO2:F and CdTe are considered as brittle materials and a precise failure criterion, which captures failure of a brittle material by both tensile and compressive stresses, can be provided by the Coulomb-Mohr criterion, written as [15]

\[ \begin{cases} \sigma_1 > R_t, \text{ or } \sigma_2 > R_t, \text{ if } \sigma_1 \text{ and } \sigma_2 > 0; \\ \frac{\sigma_1}{R_t} + \frac{\sigma_2}{R_t} > 1, \text{ if } \sigma_1 > 0 \text{ and } \sigma_2 < 0; \\ \sigma_1 < -R_t, \text{ or } \sigma_2 < -R_t, \text{ if } \sigma_1 \text{ and } \sigma_2 < 0; \\ \frac{\sigma_1}{R_t} - \frac{\sigma_2}{R_t} > 1, \text{ if } \sigma_1 < 0 \text{ and } \sigma_2 > 0 \end{cases} \]

where \( \sigma_1 \) and \( \sigma_2 \) are the principal stresses, and \( R_t \) and \( R_c \) are the tensile and compressive failure strengths, respectively. When the principal stress of the brittle material elements exceed the Coulomb-Mohr criterion, the elements fail and cannot carry stresses any longer, and are removed from the calculation.

2.2 Micro-Explosion Analysis. When a target, i.e., CdTe, is irradiated by an intense laser pulse, due to its small optical penetration depth, the laser energy absorbed at the CdTe/substrate interface ionizes the material into plasma. Since the plasma is mechanically constrained, thermal stresses are induced by thermal expansion, as determined by the Hooke’s Law, \( \varepsilon = \alpha \Delta T \), where \( \alpha \) is thermal expansion coefficient and \( \Delta T \) is the temperature change. Because the thermal and mechanical response of the material is interdependent, a fully-coupled thermo-mechanical analysis, is implemented.

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\[ \frac{\partial L(t)}{\partial t} = \frac{2P(t)}{Z} \]

\[ \left( \frac{Z}{2} + \frac{3Z}{4\varepsilon} \right) \left( \frac{\partial L(t)}{\partial t} \right)^2 + \frac{3Z}{4\varepsilon} L(t) \frac{\partial^2 L(t)}{\partial t^2} = AL(t) \]

where \( Z \) is the impedance of shock wave caused by the plasma expansion, \( t \) is the time, \( I(t) \) is the incident laser intensity, and \( A \) is absorption coefficient of plasma. It is also assumed that plasma pressure follows a Gaussian spatial distribution with its 1/e² radius proportional to the 1/e² radius of the laser beam. The pressure is expressed as a function of space and time as \( P(r, t) = P(t) \cdot \exp\left[-r^2/2R_0^2\right] \), where \( R_0 \) is the laser beam radius.

2.3 Traction Separation Analysis. Because laser induced plasma expansion at the CdTe film/substrate interface can delaminate the film from the substrate, traction separation behaviors at the interface are considered using cohesive elements. The traction
stress vector, \( \mathbf{t} \), consists of two components \( t_n \) and \( t_s \), which represent the normal and shear tractions. Corresponding displacements are \( d_n \) and \( d_s \), and the strains are obtained by \( \varepsilon_n = d_n / \varepsilon_0 \), \( \varepsilon_s = d_s / \varepsilon_0 \), where \( \varepsilon_0 \) is the original thickness of the interfacial elements. Before interface damage occurs, the relationship between the traction stress and strain is written as

\[
\mathbf{t} = \begin{bmatrix} t_n \\ t_s \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} K_{uu} & K_{uv} \\ K_{uv} & K_{vv} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_n \\ \varepsilon_s \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{K} \varepsilon \tag{6}
\]

where \( K_{uu} \) and \( K_{vv} \) are the stiffness in the principal directions, while \( K_{uv} \) is the stiffness in the shear direction. The CdTe/substrate traction separation law states that the traction stress depends linearly on the strain, but starts decreasing once the quadratic nominal stress ratio reaches one [18]

\[
\begin{bmatrix} \langle d_n \rangle \\ \langle d_s \rangle \end{bmatrix}^2 + \begin{bmatrix} t_n \\ t_s \end{bmatrix}^2 = 1 \tag{7}
\]

where material constants \( \delta_n^0 \) and \( \delta_s^0 \) are the critical values in the normal and shear directions, where the interface damage initiates. The value of \( t_n \) is 0 if \( t_s < 0 \), and \( t_s > 0 \), because a purely compressive stress does not initiate damage. When the stress criterion is reached, the traction stresses decrease as [19]

\[
t_n = \begin{cases} (1 - D) t_n, & t_n > 0 \\ t_n, & t_n \leq 0, \end{cases} \quad t_s = (1 - D) t_s \tag{8}
\]

where the scalar damage variable, \( D \), increases from 0 to 1 upon further loading after the initiation of damage. \( t_n \) and \( t_s \) are the stress components as a result of damage evolution. The scalar damage variable \( D \) is given as [19]

\[
D = \frac{\delta_m^f (\delta_m^{\max} - \delta_m^w)}{\delta_m^{\max} (\delta_m^{\max} - \delta_m^w)} \tag{9}
\]

where \( \delta_m \) is the effective displacement defined as \( \delta_m = \sqrt{(\delta_n^0)^2 + (\delta_s^0)^2} \), and the superscripts \( \text{max}, \alpha, \) and \( f \) denote the maximum, initiation, and failure points. Equations (7)–(9) describe the failure behavior of the cohesive elements used in simulation and film delamination occurs when the effective displacement of the material at the interface reaches the critical value, \( \delta_m^{\max} \).

The above analyses are carried out through a finite element method. Explicit time-stepping scheme is used for modeling this laser-induced highly dynamic process. A user-defined material property subroutine VUMAT is developed for identification of the material removal based on the criteria mentioned above.

3 Experimental Setup

The front contact layers, polycrystalline TCO (SnO2:F) material, were deposited on 3.2 mm-thick soda-lime glass substrates using the chemical vapor deposition method at 1100 °F. The deposited SnO2:F film thickness was measured to be 400 nm by ellipsometry.

Laser scribing was carried out on the multilayer thin-film samples with a Q-switched Nd:YAG laser. The laser system delivered 50 ns pulses with a wavelength of 1064 nm and a repetition rate of 1 kHz. The SnO2:F films were cleaned with acetone in an ultrasonic cleaner for 5 min and then rinsed with methanol and distilled water prior to laser processing. The sample, mounted on a three-axis translation stage, was irradiated by laser pulses focused by a 20 mm effective-focal-length objective lens. The laser focal plane was placed at the SnO2:F/glass interface with a circular 10 µm in diameter beam spot. Both glass side-scribing and film-side scribing were conducted.

Laser treated samples were observed through SEM, and scribe profiles were measured by optical profilometry. The chemical components of laser processed samples were investigated by EDX to estimate the scribing quality.

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 Simulation on SnO2:F Film Removal by Thermal Stress

The schematic of glass-side laser scribing of SnO2:F and CdTe in both simulation and experiments is illustrated in Fig. 1. The SnO2:F film thickness is 400 nm, the glass substrate is 50 µm thick, and the width of the model is 100 µm in the simulation. A 50 ns pulse duration laser with a wavelength of 1064 nm is used for SnO2:F film scribing, a wavelength of 532 nm is used for CdTe film scribing. The material properties of SnO2:F, CdTe, and the soda-lime glass substrate used in the simulation are listed in Table 1.

SnO2:F is usually scribed through thermal ablation, however, a large area of heat-affected zone is always introduced. Here, in

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**Table 1** Material properties used in simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Properties</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>CdTe</th>
<th>SnO2:F</th>
<th>Glass</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Density, ( \rho )</td>
<td>g/cm³</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>6.95</td>
<td>2.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conductivity, ( \kappa )</td>
<td>W/mK</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latent heat, ( L )</td>
<td>J/kg</td>
<td>2092</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spec. heat, ( C_p )</td>
<td>J/kgK</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exp. Coef., ( \kappa )</td>
<td>10⁻⁵/K</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modulus, ( E )</td>
<td>GPa</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poisson ratio, ( \nu )</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refractive index @1064 nm</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1.6 ± i0.05</td>
<td>1.51 ± i5.0 × 10⁻⁶</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refractive index @532 nm</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2.72 ± i0.286</td>
<td>1.98 ± i0.01</td>
<td>1.53 ± i1.8 × 10⁻⁷</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melt. Temp., ( T_m )</td>
<td>°C</td>
<td>1370</td>
<td>1903</td>
<td>1873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vap. Temp., ( T_v )</td>
<td>°C</td>
<td>1403</td>
<td>2123</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impedance, ( Z )</td>
<td>10⁶ kg/m²s</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tensile failure strength</td>
<td>MPA</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td></td>
<td>[20–22]</td>
<td>[6,21]</td>
<td>[6,21–23]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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*Fig. 1* Illustration of the glass-side laser scribing model for SnO2:F and CdTe film removal. Lasers with wavelength of 1064 nm and 532 nm are adopted for SnO2:F and CdTe scribing, respectively.
order to minimize the thermal effect, a simulation investigation of SnO$_2$:F film removal with a laser fluence lower than the melting threshold is carried out. By considering the energy loss due to the absorption and reflection by the glass substrate as well as the reflection by SnO$_2$:F/glass interface, the laser energy source in the SnO$_2$:F layer is written as

$$E(r,z,t) = a_f \left( \frac{1}{C_0 R_f} \right) \left( \frac{1}{C_0 R_g} \right) I(r,z,t) e^{-\gamma(z-T_g)}$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

where $I(r,z,t)$ is the incident laser pulse energy, $R_f$ and $a_f$ are the reflectivity and absorption coefficient of SnO$_2$:F, $R_g$, $A_g$, and $T_g$ are the reflectivity, absorption, and thickness of glass substrate. The results of thermal analysis are shown in Fig. 2. In the simulation, the SnO$_2$:F film is treated under a fluence of 3 J/cm$^2$, which is less than the melting threshold (\~4 J/cm$^2$ for 1064 nm @ 70 ns) [4], and laser is irradiated from the glass side. The highest temperature of SnO$_2$:F during the simulation history is 1848 K, which is less than the melting point of 1903 K. The large penetration depth in SnO$_2$:F, around 2 l m at 1064 nm, causes a uniform temperature distribution along the film’s thickness.

The fully-coupled analysis considers the simultaneous dependence between the variations of temperature, thermal stress, and film deformation. In addition, the brittle failure analysis is implemented in order to simulate the film removal caused by the thermal stress. Figure 3 shows a snapshot of the film removal process at 38 ns. It can be seen that a 2 l m opening has been generated accordingly. A 2 l m opening has been generated accordingly. 10$^{-3}$ Deformation scale for viewing clarity.

When the film is irradiated at a lower fluence, 1 J/cm$^2$, the compressive stress inside the film is not adequate enough to cause the film fracture. Tension needs to be considered. Figure 6 shows the temperature history output at 38 ns. It can be seen that a 2 l m opening has been generated at this moment, since the elements have experienced the compressive principal stresses that are adequate to meet the Coulomb-Mohr criterion. While the absorption coefficient of SnO$_2$:F is much larger than that of glass, during the 50 ns laser heating time, the SnO$_2$:F film expands much faster than that of glass, which results in a compressive stress in the film due to the confinement of the substrate. Elements are removed when the compressive stresses meet the Coulomb-Mohr criterion. The evolution of the principal stress and the heat flux in an element at the center of SnO$_2$:F film are shown in Fig. 4. It can be observed that compressive stress is dominant in $S_{11}$, due to the discrepancy of the thermal expansions between the SnO$_2$:F film and glass substrate. Before element failure occurs, the compressive principal stress keeps increasing. Once the material fails, the element loses its ability to carry stress or heat which affects the subsequent simulation step in the fully-coupled analysis. Figure 5 shows the final results of complete SnO$_2$:F film removal irradiated at a fluence 3 J/cm$^2$ at 200 ns. A clean film removal is obtained with an opening of 8.3 l m. Since phase change is not considered in the simulation, thermally induced compressive stress in the film is dominant during the film removal process. When the film is irradiated at a lower fluence, 1 J/cm$^2$, the compressive stress inside the film is not adequate enough to cause the film fracture. Tension needs to be considered. In Figure 6, the temperature history output shows that the glass temperature increase has a time delay compared with that of SnO$_2$:F. This indicates that part of the heat transfers to the glass after the fast laser
heating of the film, which leads to the transition from compression to tension in the film. The expansion coefficient of glass is twice of that of SnO$_2$:F. The temperature change of glass is greater than SnO$_2$:F for a unit energy input. Thus, glass expands more than the film while heat is conducted from the film to the substrate. This leads to the decrease of compressive stress, and a transition to tensile stress when the glass expansion exceeds that of the film. The time history evolution of principal stress in a deleted element under a laser irradiation with a fluence of 1 J/cm$^2$ is shown in Fig. 6. A clear transition between compressive and tensile stresses ($S_{11}$) is observed and the element is removed when the Coulomb-Mohr criterion is met. The effect of tension is neglected when the film is removed by compressive stress at higher fluences. The reason is because the elements around the scribe removed during the laser irradiation are free of confinement in r direction, which eliminates the subsequent dominant tensile stress ($S_{11}$). Because the film removal occurs during the laser heating time when compressive stress is dominant, the heated film is removed from the calculation before transferring the heat to the substrate; therefore, the glass thermal expansion will be much smaller and the tension is too small to fracture the rest solid film. At low fluences where compressive stress cannot lead to film removal, tensile stresses can be dominant for the removal.

A comparison of experimental and simulation results are shown in Fig. 7. It is observed that the scribe widths obtained from the simulation are close to the experimental results and both show a linearly increasing relationship between scribe width and laser fluence. Simulation results show that film removal is complete for all conditions; however, the experimental results depict that the films are partially removed in depth and the removal depths vary linearly with increasing laser fluence. Discrepancies between the simulation and experimental results are caused by neglecting the effect of the interface. As shown in the simulation, the temperature and stress distributions along the thickness direction are uniform due to the large laser penetration depth. However, the impurities or defects induced during the deposition process can absorb a fraction of laser energy and less energy is absorbed by the film than that in the simulation, thus the simulation over-estimates the scribe width. Additionally, micro cracking and fracture driven mechanical interactions along the substrate film interface may play a significant role in the energy release process. Such mechanisms are not considered in the current model and may result in the partial removal of SnO$_2$:F film observed in experiments. Lastly, material properties, such as thermal capacity, conductivity and absorption coefficient are assumed constant, nontemperature dependent, and homogeneous. The effect of fluorine doping and other impurities are also not considered in the model. These reasons may cause the over-estimation of the simulation results.

The current model is capable of capturing the film removal process. The model shows that the film expands more at the top surface and larger stress is induced due to the different thermal fluence. Simulation results show that film removal is complete for all conditions; however, the experimental results depict that the films are partially removed in depth and the removal depths vary linearly with increasing laser fluence. Discrepancies between the simulation and experimental results are caused by neglecting the effect of the interface. As shown in the simulation, the temperature and stress distributions along the thickness direction are uniform due to the large laser penetration depth. However, the impurities or defects induced during the deposition process can absorb a fraction of laser energy and less energy is absorbed by the film than that in the simulation, thus the simulation over-estimates the scribe width. Additionally, micro cracking and fracture driven mechanical interactions along the substrate film interface may play a significant role in the energy release process. Such mechanisms are not considered in the current model and may result in the partial removal of SnO$_2$:F film observed in experiments. Lastly, material properties, such as thermal capacity, conductivity and absorption coefficient are assumed constant, nontemperature dependent, and homogeneous. The effect of fluorine doping and other impurities are also not considered in the model. These reasons may cause the over-estimation of the simulation results.

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expansion, so that the film starts breaking from top to the bottom, and under a certain condition, partial removal occurs. Moreover, the width of the film removal predicted by the model is close as the experimental result. Both show the trend of decreasing width with decreasing fluence.

4.2 Experiments on Laser Scribing of SnO$_2$:F Thin Films.

Glass side laser scribing results are shown in Fig. 8 for a film processed at 127 J/cm$^2$. Optical profilometry results, given in Fig. 8(b), show that the sidewall of the removed area is steep and the scribe is 35 $\mu$m in width with no positive ridges. It is observed that the scribe depth is slightly greater than the film thickness (400 nm) at some locations. This suggests that substrate damage occurs at this fluence. SEM cross-sectional images (Fig. 8(c)), show that the sidewall possesses similar granular structures as the surface of the film. This suggests that no melt material attached on the sidewalls and the entire scribe boundary is removed mechanically rather than through thermal ablation. Brittle crack propagation, caused by laser-induced plasma, along the transverse direction makes the scribe width much larger than the beam spot size, and the non-thermal-affected sidewalls is formed by the thermal stress. Film removal quality is estimated by atomic density measurement at the removal area via EDX shown in Fig. 8(d).

Line scanning EDX shows that there is a little residual tin after one laser pulse irradiation, which may be removed during laser scribing with a certain pulse overlap. Silicon is detected at the undamaged surface because the electron penetration depth of SnO$_2$:F is $\sim$1.3 $\mu$m is estimated by [24].

\[
X(\mu m) = 0.1 E^{1.5} / \rho
\]

where $E$ is the accelerating voltage (keV) and $\rho$ is the density (g/cm$^3$). This observation shows a promising manufacturing process—mechanical dominant removal at the boundary, clean scribe with steep sidewalls. Further, simulation investigations will consider higher fluence processing regimes with coexisting ablation and thermal stress film removal mechanisms.

As a comparison of the glass-side laser treatment, the film-side laser scribing with a fluence of 127 J/cm$^2$ is carried out. Figure 9(a) gives the 3D profile of the scribe area. The film is completely removed with a diameter of 50 $\mu$m. A positive ridge exists around the scribe boundary due to SnO$_2$:F vapor redeposition. Thermal ablation based film removal process is driven by the thermodynamical phase transition of the film material. During the ablation process, the material is vaporized, and the vapor moves away.

Fig. 8 (a) SEM image of the film removal by single pulse processed SnO$_2$:F samples from glass side at a fluence of 127 J/cm$^2$; (b) removal line profile along A measured by optical profilometry; (c) SEM image of scribe sidewall; (d) EDX line profile scanning along A
from the target due to the high pressure. Some vaporized material redeposits on high-temperature areas, specifically the melted material at the scribe boundary, via the vapor-liquid-solid mechanism [25]. Vapor redeposit is characterized by the protruding material at the scribe boundary, via the vapor-liquid-solid mechanism. The combined effects of the protruded ridge and residual solidified molten layer on the sidewalls indicate that film-side laser scribing can lead to undesired electrical properties.

A parametric study on glass-side laser scribing is carried out to fully understand the mechanisms under different laser treatment conditions. The scribe width and depth under different laser fluences are shown in Fig. 10. It is observed that the scribe depth increases with increasing fluence until the film is completely removed. This near-linear trend is not observed in the scribe width. Width increases with fluence when treated by the fluences below 20 J/cm² and above 60 J/cm². When the fluence is between 20 J/cm² and 60 J/cm², the width remains constant. This observation indicates that a mechanism transition occurs under different fluences. At fluences below 20 J/cm², the removal mechanism is mechanically dominant. The thermal stress is induced by the increasing temperature, and thus the scribe depth and width increase with increased fluence. At fluences between 20 and 60 J/cm², thermal ablation removal becomes dominant. An area close to the spot size is thermally removed and part of the film is removed due to thermal stress. At fluences greater than 60 J/cm², film surrounding the high-pressure plasma is removed by crack propagation, and the sidewalls are formed mainly by mechanical removal.

Both simulation and experimental show that SnO₂:F film can be removed before the temperature reaches the melting temperature, therefore, if the scribe quality, such as thermal effect and scribe width, is more important than the manufacturing throughput, this thermal-stress dominant film removal can be considered. Otherwise, a mechanical dominant film removal at higher fluences may be used resulting in clean scribe boundaries and larger scribe widths.

5 Simulation on CdTe Film Removal by Micro-Explosion

Selective scribing of a 2 µm thick CdTe film is performed with a green laser at a wavelength of 532 nm. A green laser is used because the melting threshold of SnO₂:F is much larger than that of CdTe at this wavelength. Therefore, laser energy can be highly transmitted though the SnO₂:F film, and fully absorbed by the CdTe film within a very thin layer near the CdTe/SnO₂:F interface. The penetration depth of CdTe at 532 nm wavelength is around 167 nm, which is thinner than the CdTe film thickness (2 µm) by one order of magnitude. The high energy density absorbed within the thin CdTe layer increases local temperature above vaporization temperature and induces material ionization, resulting in plasma generation. The plasma is confined by the solid CdTe and SnO₂:F and is under high pressure, which lifts off the solid CdTe film above, resulting in film removal and delamination. This film removal mechanism is known as the micro-explosion process.

As shown in Fig. 11, the model is composed of a 2 µm thick CdTe layer is on the top of the 400 nm thick SnO₂:F layer and 50 µm thick glass substrate. To consider the traction stresses at the CdTe/SnO₂:F interface, a 10 nm thick layer of cohesive elements is also implemented at the interface. The cohesive layer is governed by the traction separation law described in Sec. 2.3, and serves the purpose of simulating the process in which the CdTe film lifts up and delaminates from the SnO₂:F layer caused by the plasma expansion. The thermal analysis is carried out with the consideration of energy loss due to the reflection at the interfaces of SnO₂:F/CdTe and glass/SnO₂:F, as well as the absorption by the glass substrate and SnO₂:F layer. Material properties are shown in Table 1. The laser pulse duration is 50 ns and wavelength is 532 nm. The laser energy is given by [6]

\[
E(r,z,t) = (1 - R_e - A_r)(1 - R_s)(1 - R_c)I(r,z,t)e^{-\alpha z}e^{-\frac{z}{c(T_g - T_s)}}
\]

(12)

where \(R_e\) and \(\alpha\) are the reflectivity and absorption coefficient of CdTe, and \(T_s\) is the thickness of SnO₂:F. Figure 11 shows the temperature distribution as a result of the glass-side laser irradiation at a fluence of 0.2 J/cm². It can be observed that the absorbing volume in the CdTe layer is confined near the CdTe/SnO₂:F interface, rather than uniformly distributed in the SnO₂:F layer as shown in Fig. 2. This highly confined energy increases temperature higher than the vaporization temperature of CdTe (1400 K), generating plasma. Figure 12 shows the temporal distribution of
plasma pressure under the fluences from 0.2 J/cm² to 0.8 J/cm² as generally used in experiments. The plasma pressure achieves several hundred Mega Pascal which is much larger than the CdTe failure strength.

The pressure with the temporal and spatial pressure distributions described in Sec. 2.2 and Fig. 12 are incorporated and exerted on both CdTe and SnO₂:F layers at the interface. The width of plasma is assumed to be the same as the beam spot size—10 μm. A snapshot of stress distribution in the film and substrate at 10 ns after the onset of laser pulse is given in Fig. 13. The CdTe film is pushed upward due to the plasma expansion. This deformation expands the top center of the film in the r direction, generating a S₁₁ tensile stress. Stress in the z direction (S₂₂) is much smaller. Therefore, the principal stress on the top center of the film is mainly contributed from the S₁₁ tensile stress, as shown in Fig. 13. Similarly, a compressive principal stress exists at the lower part of film center due to CdTe film deformation. At the edge of the plasma, a large principal tensile stress is observed at the CdTe/SnO₂:F interface. This principal tensile stress comes from the traction stress between the SnO₂:F and the deforming CdTe layers. The traction at the interface is considered in more detail in Fig. 14, in which Region A in Fig. 13 is magnified. It can be seen that large S₂₂ stress in the CdTe layer, SnO₂:F layer, and the cohesive elements near the plasma boundary. This S₂₂ stress is induced by the deformation of CdTe layer caused by the plasma expansion. The deforming CdTe layer in turn pulls the cohesive elements upwards. Deformed cohesive elements carry a tensile stress governed by the traction separation law, binding the CdTe film to the SnO₂:F substrate, and the surrounding CdTe and SnO₂:F elements also experience a tensile S₂₂ stress. It is observed that S₂₂ tensile stress in the film is smaller than S₁₁ tensile stress; therefore, S₁₁ tensile stress is dominant for the CdTe material removal. As the film deforms, the S₁₁ tensile stresses at the top center and plasma boundaries in the film increases, and the film starts breaking at these locations when the principal stress satisfies the Coulomb-Mohr criterion.

A snapshot at the early stage of the film breaking taken at 20 ns is given in Fig. 15, which shows that material failure initiates at the center. The removal of the CdTe elements on the top center of the film is the tensile stresses dominant removal, while removal
of the elements on the bottom center is dominant by the compressive stresses. Some elements near the plasma boundaries are removed due to the large $S_{22}$ tensile stress caused by the confinement between the cohesive elements and CdTe material. Cohesive elements failed and are deleted from the calculation based on the traction separation analysis, initiating film delamination. Material failure and film delamination both contribute to the film removal at this stage. In order to capture the processes of film breaking, the stress evolution of the failed elements at the top center and bottom center of the CdTe layer is shown in Fig. 16. The element at the top center undergoes tensile stress (maximum principal stress) during the simulation and is responsible for the film removal. The stresses drop to zero once the Coulomb-Mohr criterion is met.

Fig. 14 $S_{22}$ stress distribution of the magnified area A in Fig. 13 at the same moment. The cohesive elements have been deformed due to $S_{22}$ stress. Deformation scale is $10^3$ for viewing clarity.

Fig. 15 $S_{22}$ stress distribution of the region shown in Fig. 14 at the later stage (20 ns), showing some cohesive elements have been deleted. Deformation scale is $10^3$ for viewing clarity.

Fig. 16 Stress evolution of the failed elements at the top center and bottom center of the CdTe layer. Tensile stress occurs on the top, while compressive stress occurs at the bottom. The stresses drop to zero once the Coulomb-Mohr criterion is met.

Fig. 17 Typical evolution of stresses and the quadratic nominal stress ratio defined in Eq. (7) of the removed cohesive elements. Nodal displacement of the cohesive element is also shown.
element at the bottom center sees compressive stress (minimum principal stress). Stresses carried in both elements increase with simulation time before failure. Once the Coulomb-Mohr criterion is met, the element fails and no longer carries stresses. The greater compressive failure strength causes the delay of material failure at the bottom center, which indicates that film breaking initiates from the top center to the bottom.

Figure 17 gives the typical evolution of stress and the quadratic nominal stress ratio defined in Eq. (7) of a removed cohesive element. The nodal displacement of the cohesive element, which represents the displacement of the deforming film before element failure, is also shown. In the early stage the plasma pressure lifts the CdTe film upward, and the cohesive element experiences $S_{22}$ tensile stress, while the shear stress $S_{12}$ is less dominant. The quadratic nominal stress ratio is the criterion to determine the initiation of cohesive element damage. Once the ratio reaches 1, damage initiates and the stress to be carried begins to reduce. The cohesive element then undergoes a large deformation, mainly in the $z$ direction. Once the nodal displacement reaches a predefined value, traction stress becomes zero and the cohesive element is removed from the calculation. This suggests no confinement between the film and substrate; film delamination then occurs. The late stage of the micro-explosion process is shown in Fig. 18. As CdTe layer keeps deforming, it also begins breaking into multiple segments due to brittle failure. At the same time, the width of the removed film keeps enlarging from 10 $\mu$m (assumed initial size of the plasma) to 12.5 $\mu$m. The enlarged opening shows a scribe width of 12.5 $\mu$m. Complete film removal is achieved. The simulation shows that the film removal process via the micro-explosion mechanism is contributed from both brittle failure and film delamination processes without thermal effects. A similar observation of laser scribing of ZnO film on glass substrate is presented by Matylitsky et al. [12]. The micro-explosion model is capable of predicting the film removal quality of low-penetration-depth materials (compared to the film thickness).

6 Conclusion

Predictive numerical finite element models are demonstrated for glass-side laser scribing of SnO$_2$:F and CdTe films. A fully-coupled thermal-mechanical model is implemented, showing that SnO$_2$:F film is removed at a laser fluence below the damage threshold due to thermal stresses. The scribe size is predicted by simulation and is on the same order of magnitude as experimental results. Experimental results also show that SnO$_2$:F film removal starts from the top, as predicted by the simulation. The micro-explosion model is developed for glass-side laser scribing of CdTe films, with the stress loading estimated by the laser-induced plasma pressure. A CdTe removal process dominated by brittle failure and delamination with reduced thermal effects, as captured by the numerical model, is desired for reducing scribing dead zones and interlaminar shorts. Such a process is highly desirable for improved scribe quality and greater process efficiency. Numerical models investigated in this work are capable of predicting the material removal dynamics and fracture behavior of SnO$_2$:F and CdTe. Further numerical developments are aimed at predictively modeling the scribing line profile by taking account of the laser pulse overlapping.

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References


Fig. 18 Maximum principal stress distribution at 66 ns. The film has been completely removed with an opening width of 12.5 $\mu$m. Both brittle failure and film delamination contribute to the film removal. Deformation scale is 2x for viewing clarity.


