Applications of Thin Films

- Protective coatings Hard films
- Optical coatings Filters, mirrors, lenses
- Microelectronic devices
- Optoelectronic devices, Photonic devices
- Electrode surfaces
- Photoelectric devices, photovoltaics, solar cells
- Xerography, Photography, Lithography
- Catalyst surfaces Heterogeneous catalysis





Information storage, magnetic, magneto-optical, optical memories

Properties of Thin Films

- Crystalline, amorphous, microcrystalline
- Monolayer, multilayer, superlattice, junctions
- Free-standing, supported
- Epitaxial (commensurate), incommensurate







Properties of Thin Films

- Thickness (1 Å 1 μ m)
- Surface-to-volume ratio
- Structure surface versus bulk, surface reconstruction
- Surface morphology, roughness
- Chemical composition (oxides, metals, nitrides, carbides,...)
- Hydrophobicity, hydrophilicy (Si-OH vs. Si-H)
- Texture: single crystal, microcrystalline, domains, orientation: Si (100) vs. (111)
- Form supported or unsupported, nature of substrate 3

Surface Energy

Surface energy [J m⁻²] a scalar Surface stress [J m⁻²] a tensor

Same for liquids, different for solids

Surface tension [J m⁻²] the work done in creating unit area of new surface (= Surface energy in one-component systems)

Surface energy [J m⁻²] depends on:

- The distance of the face from the center of the crystal
- Miller indices
- Surface roughness
- The radius of curvature



Cubic (rocksalt) MgO crystal: different netplanes

Surface Model

The Terrace-Step-Kink (TSK) Model of a Surface (Kossel/Stranski)

- Terrace
- Step/Ledge
- Kink
- Vacancy
- Adatom
- Island



Surfaces



The acetone molecule (in colored spheres) attached to (A) the edge of bilayer graphene (carbon atoms are represented as black balls), (B) the edge of four layer graphene, (C) on a step formed from bilayer graphene, and (D) on a step formed from trilayer graphene

Surfaces





Screw dislocation on graphite Spiral growth

Thin-Film Growth Mechanisms

The growth of epitaxial (homogenous or heterogeneous) thin films on a single crystal surface depends on **the interaction strength between adatoms and the surface**

• Volmer–Weber (VW) growth - adatom-adatom interactions are stronger than those of the adatom with the surface, the formation of three-dimensional adatom clusters or **islands**, coarsening, rough multilayer films

• Frank–van der Merwe (FM) growth - adatoms attach preferentially to surface sites, atomically smooth layers, layer-by-layer growth, epitaxy

• **Stranski–Krastanov growth** - an intermediary process, both 2D layer and 3D island growth, transition from the layer-by-layer (wetting layer) to island-based growth occurs at a critical layer thickness, dependent on the chemical and physical properties, such as surface energies and lattice parameters, of the substrate and film

Thin-Film Growth Mechanisms



Symmetry at Surfaces



Symmetry at Surfaces



Surface Diffusion

Surface diffusion coefficient D

 $D = a^2 k_s$

a ... effective hopping distance between sites k_s ... site-to-site hopping rate of an adatom

 $k_s = A \exp(-V_s/k_bT)$

 V_s ... energy barrier to hopping from site to site T ... substrate temperature

Higher temperature = Faster diffusion



Surface Diffusion





The dissociative collision of a CH₄ molecule with a nickel surface does not significantly perturb the nickel atom at the impact point

Si(111) Surface

a = 5.463 Å

Silicon "diamond lattice" structure

Si(111) = a set of atomic planes

One plane outlined with red



A top view of the atomic arrangement for the (111) plane





orange = the top layer green = deeper layers

Si (111) etches more slowly than (001) Si (111) oxidizes twice as rapidly as (001)

Si(111) Surface

a) Unoccupied states

b) Occupied states





20 Å



Figure 7. STM topographs of the clean Si(111)-(7×7) surface: (a) unoccupied states imaged at +2.0 V crystal bias, (b) occupied states imaged at -2.0 V crystal bias. The 12 adatoms are clearly visible in both images, and in the occupied state image the stacking fault and differences between corner and center adatoms are also seen. Courtesy of V. Ukraintsev, J. C. Camp, and J. T. Yates, Jr.

Reconstruction

Relaxation = energy lowering, no change in symmetry

Reconstruction = the surface atoms rearrange to a more energetically stable configuration Symmetry lowering 2D symmetry – 17 plane groups / 230 bulk space groups



Si 7x7 Reconstruction

When (111) surface of Si is heated to high temperatures under the Ultra-High Vacuum conditions the surface atoms rearrange to a more energetically stable configuration called 7x7 reconstruction





STM image of Si(111) surface

Si(100) Surface



STM images of the silicon-silicon dimers imaged with

(a)
$$V_{\text{sample}} = -2.0$$
 V

(b)
$$V_{\text{sample}} = 2.3 \text{ V}$$

The filled and empty states of these highly ordered dimers can be probed by biasing the surface in the opposite directions The dimensions of the figure are 2.3 nm x 7.7nm

Critical Parameters Synthesis of Thin Films

High-quality films for the electronics and optics industries

Chemical composition control - variety of materials to be deposited Purity of precursors: usually less than 10⁻⁹ impurity levels Challenge for chemistry - purifying and analyzing at the ppb level Exceptionally clean growth systems Impurities destroy controlled doping of films for device applications

Good film uniformity over large areas covered > 100 cm² Precise reproducibility Precise control of film thickness = accurate control of deposition, film growth rate, 1 - 2000 nm layer thickness

Crystal quality, epitaxy - high degree of film perfection Defects degrade device performance

Alternating composition and graded composition films 30 - 40 sequential layers 0.5 - 50 nm thickness required with atomic level precision Interface widths - abrupt changes of composition and dopant concentration required, quantum confined structures

MAIN METHODS OF SYNTHESIZING THIN FILMS:

CHEMICAL, ELECTROCHEMICAL, PHYSICAL

- Cathodic deposition, Anodic deposition, Electroless deposition
- Thermal oxidation, nitridation
- Chemical vapor deposition (CVD)
- Metal organic chemical vapor deposition (MOCVD)
- Cathode sputtering, vacuum evaporation
- Molecular beam epitaxy, supersonic cluster beams, aerosol deposition
- Photoepitaxy
- Electrochemical deposition
- Laser ablation
- Plasma spraying
- Self-assembly, surface anchoring, SAM
- Dip coating
- Evaporation-Induced Self-Assembly
- Spin coating

Electrochemical Synthesis of Thin Films

CATHODIC DEPOSITION

Two electrodes, dipped into electrolyte solution External potential applied Metal deposition onto the cathode as thin film Anode metal slowly dissolves

ELECTROLESS DEPOSITION

Spontaneous, no applied potential, cementation Depends on electrochemical potential difference between electrode and solution redox active species to be deposited

Both methods limited to metallic films on conducting substrates

ANODIC DEPOSITION

Formation of oxide films, such as alumina, titania Oxide films grow on a metallic electrode in aqueous salts or acids

Deposition of conducting polymer films by oxidative solution of monomer, such as thiophene, pyrolle, aniline







Porous Alumina Films

Anodic oxidation of aluminum in oxalic or phosphoric acid

AI | H_3PO_4 , H_2O | Pt electrolytic cell

 $AI \rightarrow AI^{3+} + 3 e^{-}$ anode = oxidation

2 Al³⁺ + 3 O²⁻ $\rightarrow \gamma$ -Al₂O₃ (annealing) $\rightarrow \alpha$ -Al₂O₃

$$PO_4^{3-} + 2 e^- \rightarrow PO_3^{3-} + O^{2-}$$
 cathode = reduction

Overall electrochemistry: 2 Al + 3 $PO_4^{3-} \rightarrow Al_2O_3 + 3 PO_3^{3-}$ **AFM Image of Porous Alumina Film**



The applied potential controls the oxide thickness and the rate at which it forms, oxide anions from solution have to diffuse through an Al_2O_3 layer of growing thickness on the reacting Al substrate, to attain an equilibrium thickness of the alumina film

Porous Alumina Films

Self-organizing process observed A regular array of size tunable hcp pores form and permeate orthogonally through the alumina film

Exceptionally useful process for creating

- Controlled porosity membranes
- Photonic gap materials
- Hard template for synthesizing semiconductor/metal nanostructures
- Host for synthesizing and organizing aligned carbon nanotubes
- Fuel cell electrode materials



Electrochemical Deposition

HAp protective films on Ti implants $Ca_5(PO_4)_3(OH)$ lonic species as precursors: Ca^{2+} , PO_4^{3-} , may form undesired Ca/PO_4 phases

Nanoparticulate HAp dispersed in aqueous solution using stabilizing agents (tri-sodium citrate and sodium polyacrylate)

Oxidation of water, a reduction in the pH in vicinity of the implant surface, the protonation of the carboxylic residues of the dispersants, diminishes the repulsion interactions among the NPs Irreversible aggregation of NPs on the surface



Resistivity Measurements in Thin Films

Four-Point Collinear Probe



The sheet resistance = surface resistivity

$$\sigma = \frac{\pi}{\ln 2} \times \frac{V}{I} \times k = 4.532 \times \frac{V}{I} \times k$$

V = the measured voltage (V) I = the source current (A) k = a correction factor based on the ratio of the probe to wafer diameter and on the ratio of wafer thickness to probe separation

THERMAL OXIDATION

Oxides - metal exposed to a glow discharge in O₂

 $AI + O_2 \rightarrow (RT) AI_2O_3$, thickness 3-4 nm

Similar method applicable to other metals, Ti, V, W, Zr etc.

Nitrides, exceptionally hard, high temperature protective coating

 $Ti + NH_3 \rightarrow TiN$

 $AI + NH_3 \rightarrow AIN$



CHEMICAL VAPOR DEPOSITION

Pyrolysis, photolysis, chemical reaction, discharges, RF, microwave Epitaxial films, correct matching to substrate lattice

EXAMPLES OF CVD

 $CH_4 + H_2$ (RF, MW) \rightarrow C, diamond

 Et_4Si (thermal, air) $\rightarrow SiO_2$

SiCl₄ or SiH₄ (thermal, H₂) \rightarrow a-HSi

 $SiH_4 + PH_3 (RF) \rightarrow n-Si$

 $Si_{2}H_{6}$ + $B_{2}H_{6}$ (RF) \rightarrow p-Si

 $SiH_{3}SiH_{2}SiH_{2}PH_{2} \text{ (RF)} \rightarrow \text{n-Si}$



METAL ORGANIC CHEMICAL VAPOR DEPOSITION, MOCVD

Invented by Mansevit in 1968 Recognized high volatility of metal organic compounds as sources for semiconductor thin film preparations

MOCVD PRECURSORS, SINGLE SOURCE MATERIALS

 $\begin{array}{l} Me_{3}Ga,\ Me_{3}Al,\ Et_{3}ln\\ NH_{3},\ PH_{3},\ AsH_{3}\\ H_{2}S,\ H_{2}Se\\ Me_{2}Te,\ Me_{2}Hg,\ Me_{2}Zn,\ Me_{4}Pb,\ Et_{2}Cd\\ All\ toxic\ materials\ -\ a\ problem\ of\ safe\ disposal\ of\ toxic\ waste \end{array}$

Example - IR detectors: Me₂Cd + Me₂Hg + Me₂Te (H₂, 500 °C) \rightarrow Cd_xHg_{1-x}Te

MOCVD reactors

Controlled flow of precursors to single crystal heated substrate Most reactions occur in range 400 – 1300 °C Hot-wall or cold-wall reactors Photolytic processes (photoepitaxy) help to decrease the deposition temperatures

REQUIREMENTS OF MOCVD PRECURSORS

RT stable, no polymerization, decomposition Easy handling, simple storage Not too reactive Vaporization without decomposition at modest T < 100 °C Low rate of homogeneous pyrolysis (gas phase) wrt heterogeneous decomposition (surface)



HOMO : HETERO rates ~ 1 : 1000

Gaseous precursor flow Adsorption at the surface Heterogeneous reaction on substrate Surface diffusion, nucleation, film growth Desorption of byproducts



30

CATHODE SPUTTERING

Bell jar equipment 10⁻¹ to 10⁻² torr of Ar, Kr, Xe Glow discharge created by high voltage Positively charged rare gas ions Accelerated by the electric field to cathode target High energy ions collide with cathode Sputter material from cathode



Deposits on substrate opposite cathode to form thin film Multi-target sputtering creates composite or multilayer films

THERMAL VACUUM EVAPORATION

High vacuum bell jar - 10⁻⁶ torr = the mean free path > 1 m Heating by e-beam, laser, joule heating of the resistive boat Evaporation - gaseous material deposited on a substrate Thin films nucleate and grow Containers must be chemically inert:

W, Ta, Nb, Pt, BN, Al₂O₃, ZrO₂, Graphite

Substrates - insulators, metals, glass, alkali halides, silicon Sources - metals, alloys, semiconductors, insulators, inorganic salts



Epitaxy

Epitaxial reactions = surface structure controlled reactions Crystallographic orientation of the film is controlled by the substrate

Kinetic control – TD metastable phases YMnO₃

- hexagonal in bulk
- cubic perovskite film on NdGaO₃ substrates



Homoepitaxy – same compound/orientation in substrate and film Heteroepitaxy – different compounds in the substrate and film

Strain engineering = the tuning of material properties via lattice distortions

Physical properties can be changed through lattice distortions (strain) - the bond lengths, the electron density, the orbital overlap

Strain affects: the electronic bandgap, thermal conductivity, multiferroicity, catalytic properties, charge transport

MOLECULAR BEAM EPITAXY 1968 Bell Laboratories Ultrahigh vacuum system >10⁻¹² torr Elemental or compound sources in shutter controlled Knudsen effusion cells

Ar⁺ ion gun for cleaning substrate surface or depth profiling sample using Auger analyzer

Reflection high-energy electron diffraction (RHEED) for surface structure analysis Mass spectrometer for control and detection of vapor species Electron-gun for heating the substrate

Fabrication of high quality artificial semiconductor quantum superlattices, ferroelectrics, superconductors





RHEED

aperture

ionizer

PHOTOEPITAXY

Making atomically perfect thin films under milder and more controlled conditions Mullin and Tunnicliffe 1984

- Photo chemical reaction
- Pyrolytic reaction due to hot substrate

Coherent laser source

- Excimer lasers 351 nm (XeF), 308 nm (XeCl), 248 nm (KrF), 193 nm (ArF) and 157 nm (F₂)
- Ar⁺ ion laser
- CO₂ laser 9 -11 μm **Incoherent light source**
- High pressure Hg lamp
- Xe, W, H_2 , D_2 lamp

Advantages of photoepitaxy

- Lower temperature operation
- **Multilayer formation**
- Lower interlayer diffusion
- Easy to fabricate abrupt boundaries
- Less defects, strain, irregularities at interfaces



LASER DIRECT WRITING

Substrate GaAs Me_3AI or Me_2Zn adsorbed layer or in (g) UV laser beam focused on film Photodissociation of organometallic precursors: $2 Me_3AI \rightarrow 2 AI + 3 C_2H_6$

 $Me_2Zn \rightarrow Zn + C_2H_6$ Creates sub-micron lines of Al or Zn

ZnO epitaxial films on (0112) sapphire Temperature 350-500 °C, KrF excimer laser Me₂Zn and NO₂

Polymerization

Quantum dots sintering





LASER ETCHING

GaAs substrate Gaseous or adsorbed layer of CH_3Br Focused UV laser creates reactive Br atoms $CH_3Br(g)(hv) \rightarrow CH_3(g) + Br(g)$ Br (g) + GaAs (s) \rightarrow GaAs...Br_n(ad) GaAs...Br_n(ad) \rightarrow GaBr_n(g) + AsBr_n(g)

Adsorbed reactive surface Br atoms erode surface regions irradiated with laser Vaporization of volatile gallium and arsenic bromides from surface creates sub-micron etched line

(100) Si, excimer laser 308 nm or focused e-beam, CI_2 Surface chlorination due to photodissociation of CI_2 in the gas phase Induced etching of silicon to SiCI₄





Pulsed Laser Ablation



Pulsed Laser Ablation



(a) Initial absorption of laser radiation (indicated by long arrows), melting and vaporization begin (shaded area indicates melted material, short arrows indicate motion of solid–liquid interface)

(b) Melt front propagates into the solid, vaporization continues and laser-plume interactions start to become important

(c) Absorption of incident laser radiation by the plume, and plasma formation

(d) Melt front recedes leading to eventual re-solidification

Plasma Spraying



The plasma spray gun

Cu anode, W cathode, water cooled Plasma gas (Ar, N₂, H₂, He) flows around the cathode and through the anode nozzle (50 l min⁻¹) The plasma initiated by a high voltage discharge (70 V, 400 A) Localized ionisation and a conductive path for a DC arc to form between cathode and anode

The resistance heating from the arc causes the gas to reach extreme temperatures (10 000 to 30 000 K), dissociate and ionise to form a neutral plasma flame (does not carry electric current)

Powder/suspension is fed into the plasma flame (40 g min⁻¹) Particles are melted and accelerated onto a prepared surface Upon impact, droplets cool down and solidify instantly by heat transfer to the underlying substrate and form a coating consisting of lamellae 39

Plasma Spraying

Coatings applied with plasma spraying:

- Pure metals (Cu, Al, Zn, Ni, Mo, W,...)
- Alloys (NiCr, NiAl, NiMoAl, NiCrSiB, Tribaloy, Inconel, Stellite, ...)
- Carbides (WC/Co, CrC/NiCr, ...)
- Ceramics (Al₂O₃, TiO₂, Cr₂O₃, ZrO₂/Y₂O₃, ...)
- Abradables (Ni/Graphite, AlSi/Polyester, ...)

Vast variety of material combinations allow plasma spraying to be used in wide spectrum of industrial applications providing:

- wear resistance
- corrosion resistance
- oxidation resistance
- thermal and electrical insulation
- electrical conductivity





SEM of a porous silicon

Porous Si

Luminiscence of p-Si





42

Chemistry on Si Surface

Table 1. Typical Bond Energies for Various Groups Related to Group(IV) Elements (kJ mol⁻¹)

element	self		Н	С	0	F	CI	Br	Ι	
C Si	292-360 210-250 (310-340 (bulk) disilane)	416 323	369	336 368	485 582	327 391	285 310	213 234	
Ge	105–126 (190–210 (256 (diger	disilene) bulk) mane)	290	255		465	356	276	213	
native o capped	xide Si(100)	1-2% H	F (aq)	s d	H Si Si ihydri	, H Ši; ∽Si- de ter	H Si Si minat	H F		Si))
native o	xide Si(111)	40% NH	i₄F (a	^{q)} , S mo	H Si Si nohyo	‴Si ^{™"} dride t	H Si ⁽ , Si Si ⁽ Si	H Si Si ated f	H "Si ^{w" S} S lat Si (1	` [™] S 11)
native o capped	xide Si(100)	HF electroo chem photoche	(aq) chemic ical of mical	cal, r etch	Hţ Si	^н ,н ∼si, s	н н 1 н 1 - si	H I Si Si	H HH Xi-Si S	

Hydrosilylation



Chemistry on Si Surface

Halogenation Si^vSivesi^{ve}Sivesi^{ve}Sivesi^{ve}Sivesi^{ve}Si $PCl_5 \text{ or } Cl_2$ Δ + benzoyl peroxide, 29 SI H H H H I I I SI^wSi^wSi^wSi^wSi^wSi^wSi^wSi or hy Si^{ve}Si Si^{ve}Si Si Si Si^{ve}Si Si Si Si monohydride terminated flat Si (111) NBS or CCI3Br Δ + benzoyl peroxide, or hy CICICICI HCI (g), Δ or 10% HCI (aq) native oxide capped Ge(111)

NBS = N-Bromo Succinimide

Carbaanion LiR, RMgX



2+2 Cycloaddition





silicon:



flat Si(100)-2x1



flat Si(100)-2x1



flat Si(100)-2x1



47

Secondary Chemistry



Secondary Chemistry



Self-assembly: spontaneous organization of molecules into stable, structurally well-defined aggregates

Self-assembled monolayers (SAM): two-dimensional ordered assemblies of long hydrocarbon chains anchored through chemical bonds to surfaces of solid inorganic substrates

Alkanethiolates on gold and alkylsiloxanes on silicon dioxide belong the most notoriously studied SAM systems



Metal surfaces Au, Ag, Cu, Pt, Hg, Fe,... react with



Thiols Disulfides Sulfides Same products formed in all three reactions: thiolates RSH are more soluble and react 10³ faster with Au than RSSR

Substrates: gold polycrystalline films on Si(SiO₂), glass, mica

Thickness 5-300 nm, sputtering, evaporation

Anealed to atomically flat surface





Thermodynamics Au does not form surface oxide layer

 Reaction driving force:
 ➤ Au-S bond energy 160-185 kJ mol⁻¹
 ➤ van der Waals attraction between alkyl chains 6-8 kJ mol⁻¹ per CH₂

In ^tBuSH and n-C₁₈SH competition reaction, the linear alkyl thiol binds 300 – 700 times better

Surface coverage 10^{14} molecules per cm² C₁₆ chain length ~2.2 nm, 32-40° tilted, all-trans

Chemical stability: Cu/C₁₈SH sustains HNO₃ Thermal stability: Au/RSH loses sulfur at 170-230 °C

Binding modes on Au(111)

♦ On-top sites

♦ Hollow sites – threefold, more stable by 25 kJ mol⁻¹

♦ Bridging sites – the most stable!! (QM calculations)

Au–S–C = 180°, sp Au–S–C = 104°, sp³, more stable by 1.7 kJ mol⁻¹ barrier to interconversion 10.5 kJ mol⁻¹



Au(111)

Hexagonal array of S, S....S distance 4.97 Å, interchain distance in crystalline paraffins 4.65 Å, tilt angles 25 - 30° to reestablish alkyl chain contacts, hollow site binding, 21.4 Å² per molecule

Ag(111)

Hexagonal array of S, S....S distance 4.41 Å, on-top site binding, more tightly packed alkyl chains, no tilt

Kinetics

Au(111) + RSH reactions proceed in two steps:

1. First step, fast (minutes), diffusion controlled Langmuir adsorption, concentration dependent (1 mM \sim 1 min, 1 μ M \sim 100 min)

2. Second step, slow (hours), disordered film orders to a 2D crystal, surface crystallization, defect healing, trapped solvent expulsion

Mechanisms: alkyl chain flipping, RS⁻ lateral diffusion, equilibrium with dissolved RSH, Au atom diffusion, Au in solution

Better crystallinity of films in polar solvents: MeOH, EtOH,...



Surface chemical derivatization

HS–(CH₂)_n–X X = CH₃, CF₃, OH, NH₂, SH, COOH, COOR, CN, CH=CH₂, C≡CH, CI, Br, OCH₃, SO₃H_. SiMe₃, ferrocenyl,

Microfabrication

▲ Self-assembly, at thermodynamic minima, rejects defects, high degree of perfection

 \clubsuit Dimension in the range 1 nm to 1000 $\mu\text{m},$ too large for chemical synthesis, too small for microlithography

High efficiency, spontaneous



- Native oxide on Si

- Silicagel



Chemical derivatization methods are based on the reactivity of the surface hydroxyl groups with various reagents



[O3Si]–OH stands for the siliceous surface



1. Grafting

Reactions with trifunctional reagents, such as alkyltrichlorosilanes and trialkoxyalkylsilanes, lead to the three-fold attachment of the Si-R groups

 $3 [O_3Si]-OH + CI_3Si-R \rightarrow \{[O_3Si]-O\}_3Si-R + 3 HCI$

 $3 [O_3Si]-OH + (MeO)_3Si-R \rightarrow \{[O_3Si]-O\}_3Si-R + 3 MeOH$



2. Chlorination/Displacement Method

The first step is the replacement of the Si-OH groups by more reactive Si-Cl bonds by chlorination

 $[O_3Si]-OH + SOCI_2 \rightarrow [O_3Si]-CI + HCI + SO_2$

 $[O_3Si]-OH + CCI_4 \rightarrow [O_3Si]-CI + COCI_2 + HCI$

In the subsequent step, the surface is treated with a Grignard or organolithium reagent with the formation of strong Si-C bonds

 $[O_3Si]-CI + RMgCI \rightarrow [O_3Si]-R + MgCl_2$

 $[O_3Si]$ -CI + RLi \rightarrow $[O_3Si]$ -R + LiCI

3. Post Modification Method

The organic groups (Si-R) covalently anchored to the siliceous surface by the two previous methods can be subsequently chemically modified

APTES (3-aminopropyl(triethoxy)silane) Large number of chemical transformations of the amino moiety to other functional groups are known

4. Hybrid sol-gel method (co-condensation)

A thin layer of a hybrid (organically modified) silica gel can be deposited on the silica surface from a solution of TEOS and (MeO)₃Si-R by controlled hydrolysis and condensation

 $(MeO)_3Si-R + (MeO)_4Si + 7 H_2O \rightarrow [O_3Si]-R + 7 MeOH$



60

5. Organometallic modification method

Organometallic reagents, such as metal alkyls, halides, amides, and alkoxides can be used to deposit a monolayer of metal complexes on the surface (ML_n stands for an organometallic group, M for a metal, L for a ligand, R" for a short alkyl chain, X for halogen)

$$\begin{split} & [O_{3}Si]-OH + R^{"}-ML_{n} \rightarrow R^{"}H + [O_{3}Si]-O-ML_{n} \\ & [O_{3}Si]-OH + X-ML_{n} \rightarrow HX + [O_{3}Si]-O-ML_{n} \\ & [O_{3}Si]-OH + Me_{2}N-ML_{n} \rightarrow Me_{2}NH + [O_{3}Si]-O-ML_{n} \\ & [O_{3}Si]-OH + R^{"}O-ML_{n} \rightarrow R^{"}OH + [O_{3}Si]-O-ML_{n} \end{split}$$

These organometallic moieties can serve as attachment points for further modification with long chain alcohols, thiols, carboxylic acids, phosphates, and diketonates

 $[O_3Si]-O-ML_n + HOR \rightarrow [O_3Si]-O-ML_{n-1}-OR + HL$ $[O_3Si]-O-ML_n + HOOCR \rightarrow [O_3Si]-O-ML_{n-1}-OOCR + HL$ ⁶¹

Manipulations with SAM

STM or AFM probe tips – mechanical or electrochemical



62

Manipulations with SAM

Dip-pen nanolithography



Dip Coating

Schott 1939 The substrates are dipped into a precursor solution - a sol or a slurry Withdrawal from the sol - a wet film is formed Solution viscosity, gravity force, surface tension gradient, particle size

Drying atmosphere - the produced film is transformed into a xerogel

Heat treatment - crystallization

Control of the thickness:

- Number of depositions
- Loading of the slurry
- Concentration of the sol
- Withdrawal speed



Dip Coating

The substrate pretreatment process

Immersion - at a constant speed, the substrate is dipped into the coating solution

Startup - the substrate remains in the solution for a designated time, and then it starts to be pulled out

Deposition - while the substrate is being pulled out, the thin film coating starts to be deposited on it, the thickness of the coating is directly dependent on the speed by which the substrate is being pulled out

Drainage - excess liquid is drained from the substrate surface

Evaporation - solvent starts to evaporate from the surface of the substrate to form a thin film





Coating Thickness

The capillarity regime Very low withdrawal speeds The solvent evaporation faster than the movement of the drying line

 $h_f = \frac{c_i M_i E}{\alpha_i \rho_i L U_0} =$



The viscous flow regime High velocities and viscous solutions

$$h_0 = c (\frac{\eta U_0}{\rho g})^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

The drainage regime Low withdrawal speeds The Landau-Levich equation



E = evaporation rate, *L* = the width of the film, h_f = the final dry film thickness, c_i = concentration of the solute, M_i = the molar weight of the solute, α_i = porosity of the final film

 h_0 = wet coating thickness, η = viscosity, γ_{LV} = liquid-vapor surface tension, ρ = density, g = gravity, U_0 = withdrawal velocity, c = the curvature of the dynamic meniscus

66

Evaporation-Induced Self-Assembly (EISA)



Critical parameters of EISA process:

•Molar ratio Surfactant / Inorganic precursor
•H₂O amount
•Volatile solvent content (Ethanol/THF)
•Temperature
•Relative Humidity





Four stages:

- Deposition
- solvent solution \rightarrow rotating \rightarrow drying \rightarrow repeating to prepare multilayer structure or to obtain the desired film thickness Substrate \rightarrow
- Spin-up

the liquid flows radially outward, driven by centrifugal force

Spin-off

the excess of liquid is ejected as drops on the perimeter

Evaporation

Surface tension coating (2 - 50 µm)

Doctor-blade coating - solution deposition onto the surface of the substrate, moving the coating tool to spread the solution, drying of the deposited coating (below 5 μ m) ⁶⁸