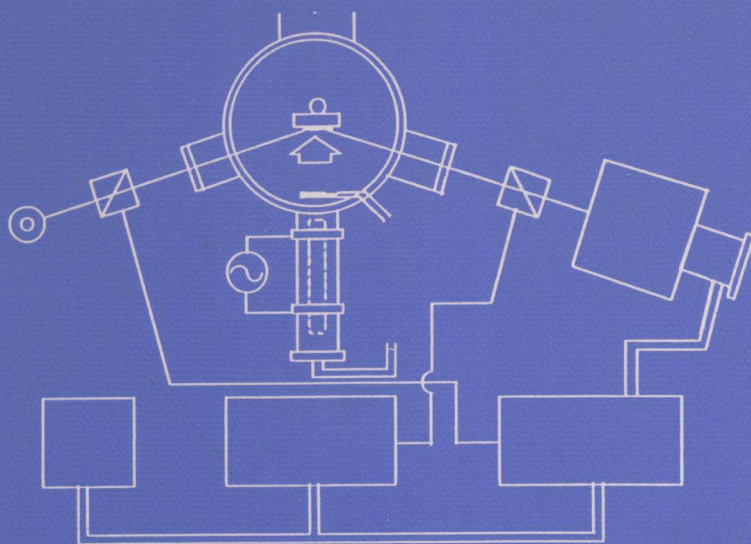


# New Trends and Approaches in Electrochemical Technology

Edited by  
N. Masuko, T. Osaka and  
Y. Fukunaka



# **New Trends and Approaches in Electrochemical Technology**

**Edited by**

**Noboru Masuko, Tetsuya Osaka  
and Yasuhiro Fukunaka**



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Tokyo



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Noboru Masuko  
Professor  
Institute of Industrial  
Science, University of  
Tokyo, Tokyo 106

Tetsuya Osaka  
Professor  
Department of Applied  
Chemistry, Waseda  
University, Tokyo 160

Yasuhiro Fukunaka  
Research associate  
Department of Metallurgy,  
Kyoto University,  
Kyoto 606

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Sadoway, Donald R., *Massachusetts Inst. Tech., U.S.A.*

## List of Contributors\*

Asaki, Z. (215)

*Dept. of Metallurgy, Kyoto University, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606, Japan*

Collins, R.W. (115)

*Materials Research Laboratory and Department of Physics, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA 16802, U.S.A.*

Fukunaka, Y. (215)

*Dept. of Metallurgy, Kyoto University, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606, Japan*

Fujishima, A. (167)

*Department of Synthetic Chemistry, Faculty of Engineering, The University of Tokyo, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113, Japan*

Homma, T. (13)

*Department of Applied Chemistry, Waseda University, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 169, Japan*

Imafuku, M. (247)

*Advanced Materials & Technology Research Laboratories, Nippon Steel Corporation, Nakaharaku, Kawasaki 211, Japan*

Itaya, K. (181)

*Department of Engineering Science, Faculty of Engineering, Tohoku University, Sendai 980, Japan*

Ito, S. (247)

*Steel Research Laboratories, Nippon Steel Corporation Shintomi, Futtsu, Chiba 299-12, Japan*

Ito, W. (247)

*Superconductivity Research Laboratories, Kohtoh-ku, Tokyo 135, Japan*

Lien, M. (77)

*Corrosion Research Center, Department of Chemical Engineering and Materials Science, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN 55455, U.S.A.*

Martin, S.J. (151)

*Microsensor Department 1315, Sandia National Laboratories, Albuquerque, NM 87185, U.S.A.*

Masuko, N. (3)

*Institute of Industrial Science, University of Tokyo, Minato-ku, Tokyo 106, Japan*

Matz, R. (235)

*Siemens AG, München, Germany*

McLarnon, F. (215)

*Energy & Environment Division, Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory, Berkeley, CA 94720, U.S.A.*

\* Numbers in parentheses refer to the page on which a contributor's paper begins.

Muller, R.H. (195)

*Materials Sciences Division, Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory and Department of Chemical Engineering, University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720, U.S.A.*

Nakahara, S. (39)

*AT&T Bell Laboratories, Murray Hill, New Jersey 07974 U.S.A.*

Okinaka, Y. (39)

*AT&T Bell Laboratories, Murray Hill, New Jersey 07974, U.S.A.*

Osaka, T. (13)

*Department of Applied Chemistry, Waseda University, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 169, Japan*

Pfuhl, G. (235)

*Freie Universitaet Berlin, Takustrasse 3, 1000 Berlin 33, Germany*

Plieth, W. (235)

*Freie Universitaet Berlin, Takustrasse 3, 1000 Berlin 33, Germany*

Ricco, A.J. (151)

*Microsensor Department 1315, Sandia National Laboratories, Albuquerque, NM 87185, U.S.A.*

Sadoway, Donald R. (65)

*Department of Materials Science and Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139-4307, U.S.A.*

Shimada, H. (247)

*Advanced Materials & Technology Research Laboratories, Nippon Steel Corporation, Nakahara-ku, Kawasaki 211, Japan*

Smyrl, W.H. (77)

*Corrosion Research Center, Department of Chemical Engineering and Materials Science, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN 55455, U.S.A.*

Tsuda, T. (3)

*Surface Coating Technology Section, Sumitomo Metal Industries Ltd., Minato, Wakayama 640, Japan*

Yoshihara, S. (167)

*Department of Applied Chemistry, Faculty of Engineering, Utsunomiya University, Ishii-cho, Utsunomiya, Tochigi 321, Japan*



## Preface

Over the past few decades, the electronics industry has gone through a very rapid evolution towards microscale surface finishing, where high-tailored surface finishing including film formation, etching and ion implantation plays an important role.

Electrochemists and electrochemical engineers have developed many new processes and techniques, including plating and etching with photo-mask technology which permits micron and sub-micron dimensions, plating with extremely tight thickness and composition control, and plating with tightly controlled agitation and current distribution. Nowadays some of the most advanced techniques include electroless plating of a cobalt alloy with a very thin and homogeneous thickness for high-density magnetic disks, electroplating of a permalloy alloy with high compositional control in narrow places for the thin-film magnetic recording head and electroless plating of copper with very reliable connectors for more than 60 multi-layer boards. The demands of the electronics industry thus present a tremendous challenge to electrochemists and electrochemical engineers worldwide.

The International Symposium on Electrochemical Technology in Electronics held in October 1987 in Honolulu, Hawaii, as a part of the 172nd meeting of the Electrochemical Society Inc. was cosponsored by the Electrochemical Society of Japan and the Japan Society of Applied Physics. In September 1989, symposia on Electronic Materials in Electrochemical Technology and Electrochemical Processing for Tailored Materials were held in Kyoto, Japan, as part of the 40th International Society of Electrochemistry (ISE) Meeting. Some of the coorganizers of these symposia decided to publish review books on this field to stimulate further high-tailored research in electrochemical technology.

Hence, the editors selected various topics from these three symposia as the basis for this volume. We hope the topics discussed will contribute to the development of a higher level of electrochemical processing and create new areas of research and development.

January 12, 1993

Noboru Masuko  
Tetsuya Osaka  
Yasuhiro Fukunaka

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# **I**

## **New Trends in Electrochemical Technology**



# Future Perspectives in Electrochemical Processing and Technology

Noboru MASUKO\*<sup>1</sup> and Tetsuaki TSUDA\*<sup>2</sup>

\*1 *Institute of Industrial Science, University of Tokyo, 7-22-1 Roppongi, Minato-ku, Tokyo 106, Japan*

\*2 *Surface Coating Technology Section, Sumitomo Metal Industries Ltd., 1850 Minato, Wakayama 640, Japan*

## 1.1 Introduction

While the subject of thin film growth on tailored materials is not new, its fundamental basis has not been fully established. It is possible to trace work back to AD 752–757 in Japan, when ancient craftsmen applied a gold-amalgam process to a large bronze statue 15 meters high, to plate a uniform gold layer of 5 micrometers thickness. Today, sophisticated wet processes are applied to advanced fabrication of micron size devices. For instance, magnetic thin film heads are fabricated utilizing micro-pattern electroplating technology through polymeric mask (see photo). Nevertheless, the development on electrodeposition processes still seems to remain as a state-of-art technology, and the theory of electrodeposition tends to limp behind the art to some extent. Further progress in basic understanding of electrodeposition processes will be essential for process optimization and, more importantly, for creative designs of innovative electrochemical systems, despite the wide variety of electrodeposition processes and the complicated chemistry involved.

In this short overview, the two key factors affecting the microscopic morphology, on a scale (microns) comparable to the thickness of solid phases on a substrate, of electrodeposited layers are discussed. Morphology of electrodeposit is influenced by various process variables, e.g. substrate materials, current density or cathode potential, electrolyte temperature, concentration of metal ion (*i.e.* major discharged species), other cations, anions, complexing ligands, inhibitors and pH, agitation of electrolyte which occasionally is not well-defined quantitatively, etc. From a phenomenological point of view, the electrodeposit becomes noncoherent, spongy, dendritic and/or powdery in general in the specific current density range, namely, at or below the exchange current density  $i_0$  and at or above the mass-transfer limiting current density  $i_L$ . Compact deposits are obtained in a certain current density range in between  $i_0$  and  $i_L$ , to the contrary. It should be noted that the aim of this overview is to provide a framework of ideas, in view of both kinetic and mass transfer parameters, which can be used to visualize various industrial electrodeposition processes in perspective.

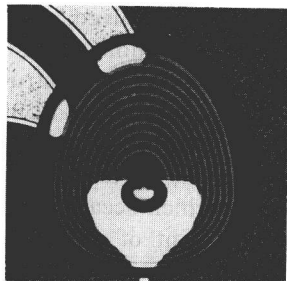
## 1.2 Electrodeposition Process

### 1.2.1 Kinetic and Transport Aspects of Electrodeposition

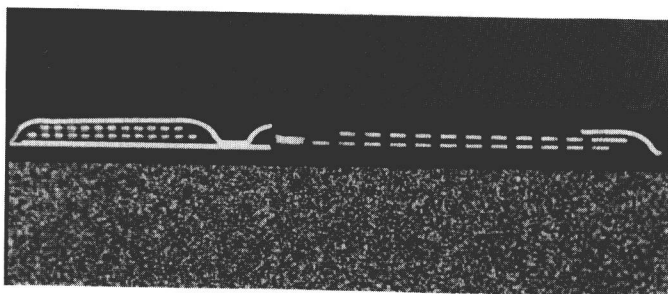
A relation between flux of electrodeposited species  $N_{(j)}$  and partial current density  $i_{(j)}$  is represented in Faraday's law equation for each species  $j$ :


 $5 \times 10^2 \text{ cm}$ 

(a) The gold plated statue of Buddha in Nara


 $2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ cm}$ 

Top view


 $2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ cm}$ 

Cross-sectional view

(b) Electroplated Cu inductive coils and Ni-Fe (permalloy)  
Plated pole pieces of magnetic thin film heads

Photo 1. Tailored materials manufactured by wet-processes in ancient and modern Japan.

$$N_{(j)} = i_{(j)} / Z_j F \quad (1.1)$$

where  $Z_j$  is the number of electrons transferred in the cathodic reaction, and  $F$  is the Faraday constant. The average growth rate normal to the substrate of electrodeposited layer in the presence of simultaneous side reactions, such as hydrogen co-evolution, is then given by,

$$R_g = i \varepsilon_F M / Z F \rho \quad (1.2)$$

where  $R_g$  denotes the growth rate,  $i$  the total plating current density,  $\varepsilon_F$  plating current efficiency,  $M$  molecular weight,  $\rho$  the density of electrodeposited metal, and  $Z$  the number of electrons consumed or released in an electrochemical reaction.

Thin boundary layer approximation leads to the separation of the electrodeposition process into two parts. Firstly, the description of the kinetics very close to the cathode in the reaction layer (of the order of 1–10 nm), and secondly the description of the mass transfer of ionic species through the diffusion boundary layer from the bulk of solution to just outside the reaction layer.

Electrodeposition rate may be expressed by the Tafel equation in case  $|\beta Z F \eta / RT| \gg 1$

$$i = i_0 \exp [-\beta Z F \eta / RT] \quad (1.3)$$

or in the rate constant form, assuming first-order rate process,

$$k_R = k_R^0 \exp [-\beta Z F \eta / RT] \quad (1.4)$$

$$N_{(j)} = k_R C_S \quad (1.5)$$

where  $i_0$  stands for exchange current density,  $\beta$  transfer coefficients,  $\eta$  surface overpotential,  $R$  gas constant,  $T$  absolute temperature,  $k_R$  heterogeneous rate constant,  $k_R^0$  value of  $k_R$  at  $\eta = 0$ ,  $C_S$  denotes the concentration of metallic ions just outside the double layer.

General equation for the mass transfer of species  $j$  in a dilute electrolyte<sup>1)</sup> may be written as a summation of the electric migration term, diffusion term and convection term.

$$\tilde{N}_{(j)} = -Z_j U_j F C_j \nabla \Phi - D_j \nabla C_j + C_j \tilde{V} \quad (1.6)$$

Here, the subscript  $j$  designates species  $j$ ,  $\tilde{N}_{(j)}$  vector flux of species  $j$ ,  $U$  the mobility,  $Z$  the ionic charge,  $C$  the concentration,  $d$  the diffusion coefficient, and  $\tilde{V}$  the fluid velocity vector. Influence of the ionic migration can be neglected in the presence of excess supporting electrolyte, thus Eq. (1.6) reduces to the convective-diffusion case.<sup>2)</sup> By introducing mass transfer coefficient  $k_M$ , the flux being transported through the diffusion layer  $\delta_D$  towards the outside of the double layer is then

$$N_{(j)} = k_M (C_\infty - C_S) \quad (1.7)$$

and

$$k_M = D_j / \delta_D \quad (1.8)$$

where,  $C_\infty$  is the bulk concentration of metallic ions to be electrodeposited. Substitution of Eqs. (1.7) and (1.8) to Eq. (1.5) gives,

$$C_S = \frac{C_\infty}{1 + (k_R / k_M)} \quad (1.9)$$

$$N_{(j)} = C_\infty \left( \frac{1}{k_R} + \frac{1}{k_M} \right)^{-1} \quad (1.10)$$

Limiting current density can be obtained when  $C_S = 0$ , for Eq. (1.7), and combining Eq. (1.1),

$$N_L = k_M C_\infty \quad (1.11)$$



or

$$i_L = ZFDC_\infty / \delta_D \quad (1.12)$$

The degree of electrodeposition uniformity is characterized by the Wagner number, which represents the ratio of the electrochemical reaction to the Ohmic resistances.

$$W = \frac{\kappa}{L} \cdot \frac{d\eta}{di} \quad (1.13)$$

or

$$W = \frac{\kappa RT}{Li\beta ZF} \quad \text{for Tafel polarization} \quad (1.14)$$

Here,  $\kappa$  is the conductivity of electrolyte, and  $L$  is the characteristic length dimension. The larger the Wagner number, the more negligible the primary current distribution. For microscopic topography of electrodeposits in the length order of microns, where  $L \ll 1$ , microscopic current distribution would be nearly independent of ohmic potential differences in the electrolyte, corresponding to very large  $W$ .

### 1.2.2 Electrocrystallization of Metal

The driving force of electrocrystallization<sup>3)</sup> may be written as,

$$\Delta\mu = kT \ln(1 + \sigma) \quad (1.15)$$

where  $k$  is the Boltzmann constant and  $\sigma$  is the supersaturation expressed by

$$\sigma = \exp\left[-\frac{ZF\eta}{RT}\right] - 1 \quad (1.16)$$

On a parallel with the vapor deposition of metals, growth rate  $R_g$  and nucleation rate would be increased as supersaturation is increased. Unfortunately, there is so far no comprehensive model of electrocrystallization, relating atomistic scale processes to microscopic morphological development, due to the complexity arising from the presence of metal-solution double layer, adsorbed molecules or ions, desolvation of charged species, etc. As a first approximation, surface overpotential  $\eta$  in Eq. (1.3) may be associated with supersaturation  $\sigma$  in Eq. (1.16), although  $\eta$  is not divided into charge-transfer and crystallization overpotentials as individually defined by Vetter.<sup>4)</sup> Thus, we may expect enhanced nucleation and growth, increasing surface overpotential  $\eta$ , which is also an increasing function of the fraction  $i/i_0$ , and vice versa.

According to Fischer's classification of polycrystalline deposits,<sup>5)</sup> it is known that morphology of electrodeposit varies with surface overpotential  $\eta$ , in the following order:

$$FI \rightarrow BR \rightarrow FT \rightarrow UD \rightarrow D \text{ or } P$$

where FI is "field oriented isolated crystal type," BR is "basis oriented reproduction type," FT is "field oriented texture type," UD is "unoriented dispersion type," and D or P is "dendritic and/or powdery crystal type."

Ibl<sup>6)</sup> pointed out that instability of surface roughness could occur for a diffusion-controlled process due to difference in the diffusion boundary layer thickness between peak and recess. Namely,  $i_{\text{peak}}$  will be greater than  $i_{\text{recess}}$ , because  $\delta_{\text{peak}}$  is smaller than  $\delta_{\text{recess}}$ , resulting in evolution of dendritic growth at peaks. Popov *et al.*<sup>7-9)</sup> studied the spongy deposit formation, which is caused by mass-transfer limitations under conditions of low nucleation rate (e.g. low overpotential  $\eta$  and small  $i_L$ ). Pavlovic *et al.*<sup>29)</sup> interpreted copper dendrite formation in terms of the ratio  $i_L/i_0$ . Typically, metals with high exchange current



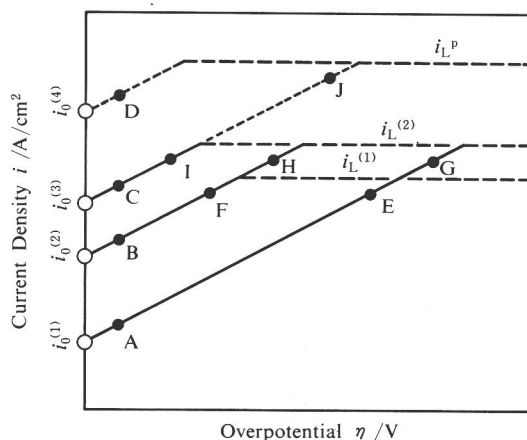


Fig. 1.1 Schematic diagram of operational windows for various electroplating systems.

	Exchange current density		Limiting current density	Process variables window
case I	$[i_0^{(1)}]$	,	$i_L^{(1)}$	Line A-E
case II	$[i_0^{(1)}]$	,	$i_L^{(2)}$	Line A-G
case III	$[i_0^{(2)}]$	,	$i_L^{(1)}$	Line B-F
case IV	$[i_0^{(2)}]$	,	$i_L^{(2)}$	Line B-H
case V	$[i_0^{(3)}]$	,	$i_L^{(2)}$	Line C-I
case VI	$[i_0^{(3)}]$	,	$i_L^p$	Line C-I for $i$ C-J for $\eta$

densities, such as silver or aluminum in chloroaluminate melt, form nodular, dendritic and/or powdery deposits during electrodeposition more readily than the metals with low exchange current densities, such as nickel or iron.

Along the lines of Winand's diagram,<sup>10)</sup> Fig. 1.1 illustrates the conceptual basis for the optimal range of process variables ( $i$ ,  $\eta$ ) to obtain compact deposits, for a given electrodeposition process characterized in terms of the kinetic parameter  $i_0$  and the mass transfer-related parameter  $i_L$ . Coherent deposit is obtained when  $i_0 < i < i_L$ . Ideally,  $i$  should be much higher than  $i_0$ , and it is also recommended that  $i$  not exceed about half of  $i_L$ . Wider operational windows are achieved by lowering  $i_0$  and/or increasing  $i_L$  values, which can be easily seen by comparing cases I, II, III and IV. Organic additives, such as thiourea, poly acrylamides, polyethylene glycol, etc., are often introduced in the electrolyte in very minute amounts to inhibit the kinetics of electrodeposition by adsorption mechanism in practice. For metal deposition with high exchange current densities close to limiting current densities, such as seen in case V, application of pulse plating may offer the possibility of higher overpotential deposition, as in case VI, for tailoring the quality of deposits.

### 1.3 Hydrodynamic Effects

As described in the previous section, electrodeposition process is a multi-successive process, involving mass transfer and kinetic reaction at the cathode surface. Mass transfer depends greatly on convection, which is governed by the fluid velocity field in the system.