

Preparation and Characterization of Palladium-based/ α -Alumina Membrane by Electroless Plating

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Abstract. Palladium (Pd) membranes have been prepared by the electroless plating (ELP) method using hydrazine monohydrate ($\text{N}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$) as a reducing agent onto tubular porous alumina ($\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$) supports. In this work, four Pd/ $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ membranes (M1–M4) were fabricated under different plating repetitions. Electroless plating was carried out at 50 °C for 90 minutes each time. This study aims to investigate the morphology of membranes of different thicknesses. The membrane turned into characterized by using Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM), Atomic Force Microscope (AFM), and X-ray diffraction (XRD). Scanning electron microscopy images display that the synthesized thicknesses are from 10.25 to 22.53 μm . Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM) reveals a relation between the roughness and the thickness, and the roughness increases as the thickness increases. X-ray diffraction studies imply that the synthesized M1 has a face-centered cubic phase (FCC), with an average crystallites size of 12.35 nm for M1 while 12.62 nm, 18.67 nm and 26.12 nm for M2, M3 and M4, respectively.

Keywords: *crystallite; electroless plating; face-centered cubic; morphology; Pd/ $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ membrane; roughness; thickness.*

1 Introduction

In the chemical processing sector as well as in mobile and stationary fuel cell applications, Pd membranes have the potential to use energy more effectively. Given the growing international pressure on non-renewable resources, it is crucial to minimize the environmental effects of energy production and consumption [1].

Metal composite membranes, especially Pd-based membranes, are widely used for hydrogen separation because they have good permeability and selectivity to hydrogen and can be operated at high temperatures [2]–[4]. The palladium layer thickness and membrane cost can be significantly reduced with composite membranes with porous supports while ensuring increased permeability and reliable performance [5].

Palladium has a high hydrogen permselectivity, which led to the development of palladium membranes. Due to the intense surface interaction between hydrogen and palladium, this characteristic is produced. It first causes the formation of a solid hydrogen solution in palladium (α phase) and a hydride (β phase) at higher hydrogen concentrations. However, there are significant disadvantages, including the cost and the potential for the palladium layer to become embrittlement. This is primarily due to the phase transition from the α phase to the hybrid β phase at low temperatures in the presence of hydrogen [6].

Porous alumina ceramics have attracted much attention because they have great potential for industrial applications such as heat insulators, gas separation, and catalyst supports [7]. A porous alumina ceramic membrane tube is mainly chosen as the substrate due to its high alumina purity, which leads to high chemical stability in acid, base, and other reactive environments and high thermal and hydrothermal stability [8], [9].

Electroless plating occurs through an autocatalytic reaction mechanism initiated by an activated surface. Prior to plating, the substrate is activated by scattering Pd nuclei across its surface. These sites start the electroless plating reaction by catalyzing hydrazine decomposition in the plating bath. Electroless plating can be implemented for non-conductive materials such as plastics, glasses, ceramics, and semiconductors and does not require an anode. This method is commonly used because it provides distinct advantages, such as low cost and lower deposition rates, resulting in homogeneous and smooth thin film coatings [10]. In this study, the repetition of plating using electroless plating were carried out. The morphology of the resulting membranes with different thicknesses were studied using SEM, AFM, and XRD.

2 Experimental Procedure

2.1 Materials

The material used for membranes support is α -alumina tube (α -Al₂O₃, outside diameter 10 mm, inside diameter 7 mm, and pore size 0.1 μ m, NGK Insulators, Ltd.). Nitric acid (60% HNO₃, Nacalai Tesque) and ultrapure water were used to wash the membranes. Chemicals that produce sensitizing solutions include

stannous chloride (97.0% $\text{SnCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, Nacalai Tesque) and hydrochloric acid (35% HCl , Nacalai Tesque). The activation solution consisted of palladium chloride (100.00% PdCl_2 , Tanaka Kikinzoku Kogyo Co., Ltd.) and hydrochloric acid (35% HCl , Nacalai Tesque). The solution used for the electroless plating contained tetraamine palladium dichloride (41,34% TAPDC, Tanaka Kikinzoku Kogyo Co., Ltd.), hydrazine monohydrate (98% $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$, Nacalai Tesque), disodium dihydrogen ethylenediamine tetraacetate dihydrate (99,5% $\text{Na}_2\text{EDTA} \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, Nacalai Tesque), and ammonia solution (28% NH_3 , Nacalai Tesque).

2.2 Membrane Preparation

Synthesis of the $\text{Pd}/\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ membrane was accomplished through several steps, including cleaning the membranes, sensitizing and activating the membrane, and coating using the electroless plating method. Nitric acid and ultrapure water were used in an ultrasonic bath to clean the membrane. Then the membrane was dried in a furnace to remove all cleaning agents from its pore. After that, the membrane was dipped in a sensitization solution consisting of SnCl_2 and HCl , then washed with ultrapure water. The membrane was then dipped into the activation solution of PdCl_2 and HCl . The membrane was rewashed with ultrapure water. Before beginning the electroless plating process, this process is repeated to produce sufficient Pd nucleus on the surface of the membrane support. Table 1 displays the composition of Pd electroless plating. The membrane was washed with ultrapure water and heated in an oven.

Table 1 Composition of Pd electroless plating bath.

Component	Pd bath
TAPDC (g/L)	5.40
$\text{Na}_2\text{EDTA} \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (g/L)	67.20
Aqueous NH_3 (mL/L)	650.67
Aqueous $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ (mL/L)	2.00
Temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	50.00

2.3 Membrane Characterization

The surface morphology of the Pd layer was observed by Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM, S-4800, Hitachi) equipped with an Atomic Force Microscope (AFM5400L, Hitachi) where no coating was required. X-Ray Diffraction patterns (XRD, D8 Advance, Bruker) with a nickel filter were used to determine the crystal structure of the Pd films. The voltage was set at 40 kV and the current at 40 mA.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)

The thickness of the palladium film depends on the number of plating repetitions. Figure 1 shows the thickness of the palladium and α -alumina layers on a two-layer cross-section of the palladium-alumina composite membrane for each plating repetition (plating time 90 minutes for each plating repetition).

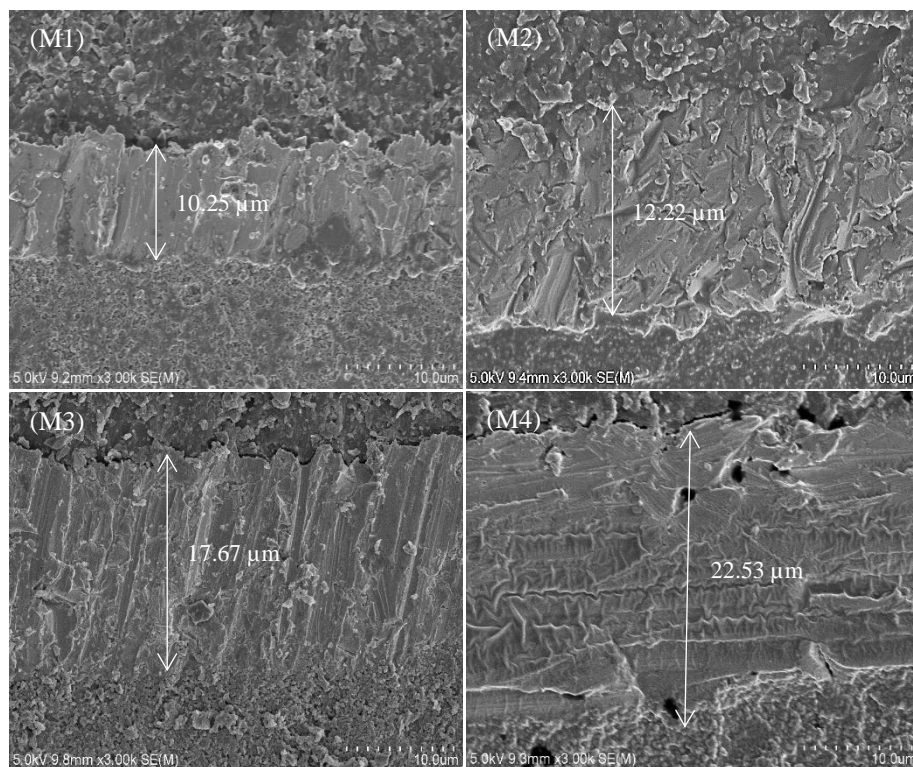


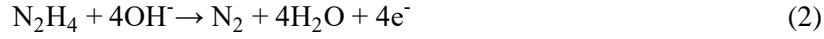
Figure 1 SEM image of Pd/ α -Al₂O₃.

The palladium film covers the α -alumina layer. Due to the homogeneous distribution of palladium nuclei during the activation process, the reaction process proceeds uniformly across the surface of the α -alumina. Palladium film and nucleus growth take place concurrently during this process. As shown in Figure 1, the palladium film thickness rises proportionally as the plating time increases (from 2 plating repetitions to 5 plating repetitions). Palladium can be formed by a reduction mechanism with a reducing agent. In electroless palladium plating in hydrazine-based baths, the redox reaction can be represented as follows:

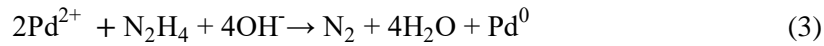
Reduction reaction:



Oxidation reaction:



Overall reaction:



The electrons released during the reaction are used to decompose the palladium complex to palladium, with the rate of deposition increasing with the number of available palladium sites [11]. The presence of palladium is evidenced by the XRD analysis shown in Figure 2.

3.2 X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)

The phase purity and crystallinity of M1–M4 were investigated by X-ray Diffraction over a 2θ range of 30° – 90° . Figure 2 displays the diffraction pattern of the Pd membrane. Five peaks of Pd at $2\theta = 39.90^\circ$, 46.53° , 67.94° , 81.98° and 86.39° , which correspond to (111), (200), (220), (311), and (222) crystalline planes of Pd. All the diffraction peaks of the XRD pattern (Figure 2) could be indexed to the face-centered cubic (FCC) phase of palladium (JCPDS card No. 05-0681) [12]. The crystallinity index (CI) is calculated using the method reported by Pardo et al. [13].

$$CI = \frac{A_c}{A_c + A_a} \quad (4)$$

The crystallinity index of M1–M4 decreased from 69.61 to 30.56 % by increasing the film thickness (Table 2). Same phenomena was observed by Alkatun [14]. The average crystallite sizes of the obtained Pd film were calculated using the Scherrer equation [15].

$$D_{hkl} = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta_{hkl}} \quad (5)$$

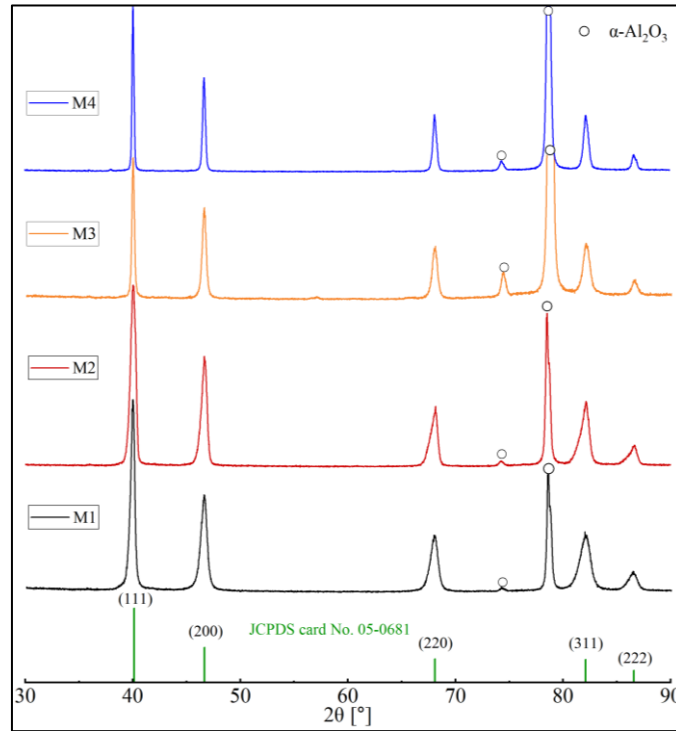


Figure 2 The XRD pattern of Pd membrane.

The average crystallite size calculated for M1–M4 were found to be 12.35–26.12 nm as shown in Table 2. This shows that as thickness increases, the average crystallite size grows [16]. The strain and dislocation density of the material are other important factors that can be calculated from XRD data [17]. The strain (ϵ) and dislocation density (δ) values for all the samples were calculated using the following relations and tabulated in Table 2. As shown in Table 2, the dislocation density and strain values decrease with increasing film thickness [14], from 7.55×10^{-3} to 1.82×10^{-3} (nm^{-2}) and from 5.99×10^{-3} to 2.84×10^{-3} , respectively.

$$\epsilon = \frac{\beta \times \cos \theta}{4} \quad (6)$$

$$\delta = \frac{15 \times \epsilon}{a \times D} \quad (7)$$

Table 2 Crystallinity index (CI), lattice constants, crystallites sizes (D), dislocation density (δ) and strain (ϵ) of Pd membrane (M1–M4).

Membrane	Thickness (μm)	CI (%)	Lattice constant (\AA)	D (nm)	$\delta \times 10^{-3} (\text{nm}^{-2})$	$\epsilon \times 10^{-3}$
M1	10.25	69.6	3.901	12.350	7.546	5.988
M2	12.22	67.02	3.896	12.615	6.618	5.757
M3	17.67	42.26	3.897	18.686	3.971	4.083
M3	22.53	30.56	3.888	26.122	1.819	2.841

3.3 Atomic Force Microscope (AFM)

AFM contact mode was utilized to study the morphology of Pd films. Figure 3 displays various 3D AFM images of the samples obtained at different thicknesses. The samples were scanned in an area of $50 \mu\text{m} \times 50 \mu\text{m}$. The microscopic images of the samples reveal little homogeneous surfaces and their roughness increases with increasing thickness.

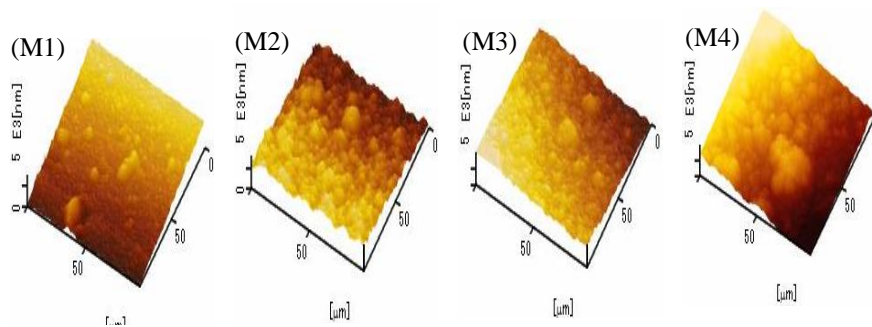
**Figure 3** AFM images of the skin layer surface of Pd/ α -Al₂O₃.

Figure 3 shows the morphological differences in palladium films as the thickness varied. The brightest areas in these images represent the membrane's highest point, while the darkest areas represent valleys or membrane pores. The correlation between roughness, grain size, and thickness variation is shown in Table 3.

Table 3 The correlation between the roughness and grain size of Pd film with the plating time of 90 minutes for each repetition.

Membrane	Number of plating repetitions	Thickness (μm)	Roughness (μm)	Grain Size (μm)
M1	2	10.25	1.66	7.18
M2	3	12.22	1.76	8.30
M3	4	17.67	2.10	9.25
M4	5	22.53	2.54	11.78

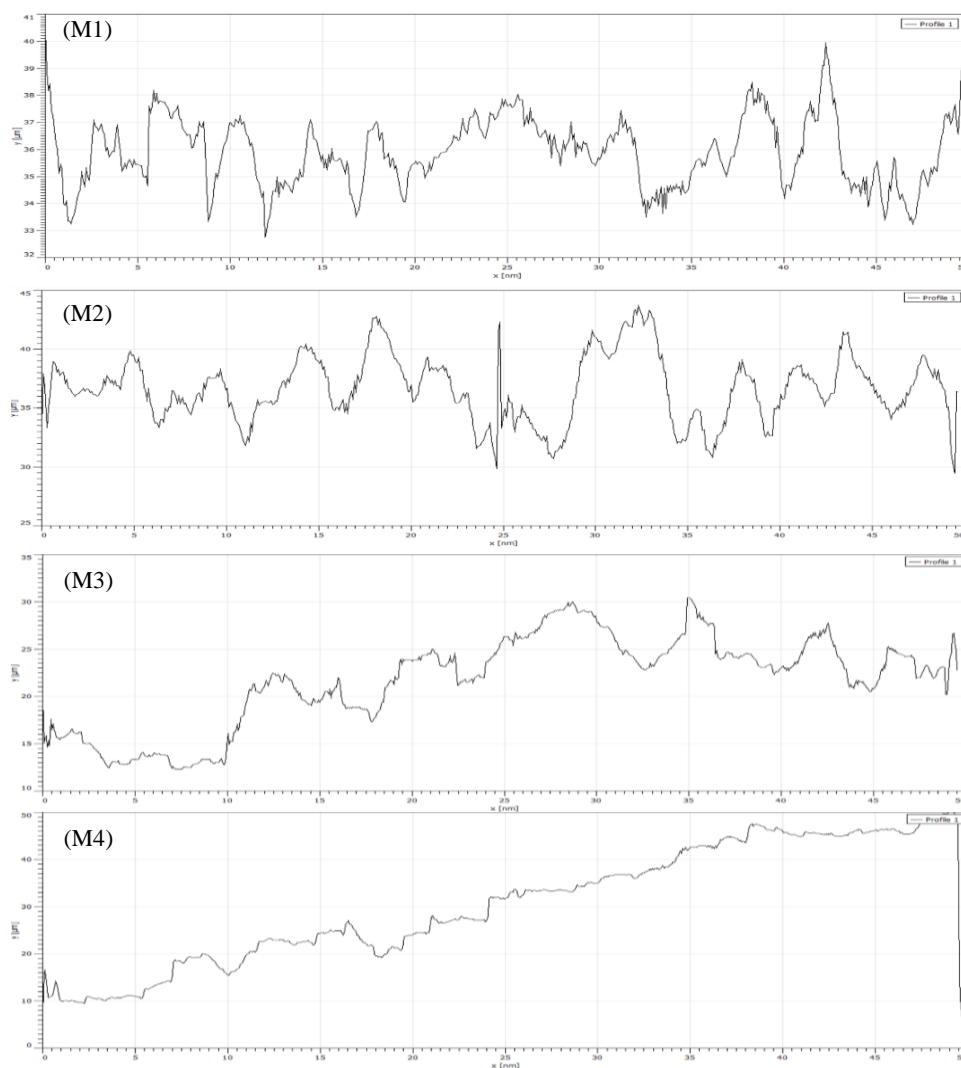


Figure 4 Texture profiles of AFM images of palladium films.

According to Table 3, the grain size grows as the film thickness increases. Additionally, a number of other parameters, including as the substrate's material, temperature, magnetron size, and external substrate heating during the deposition, affect the grain size [18]. With a root mean square roughness (R_q) of 1.66 m, the sample grown at M1 has the most homogeneous surface. The roughness of the surface of the sample grown at M2 and M3 is ($R_q = 1.76$ m) and ($R_q = 2.10$ m), respectively. The sample grown at M4 has the surface with the highest roughness ($R_q = 2.54$ m) and columnar growth. The texture profile of the cross-section area of the AFM images, obtained by the Gwyddion software, obtained the grain size of Pd films statistically, and shown in Figure 4, confirms that the surfaces of the sample grown at M1 and M2 have smaller grain sizes than the surfaces of the sample grown at M3 and M4.

4 Conclusion

Pd/ α -Al₂O₃ were prepared using the electroless plating method with varying plating repetitions (M1–M4). SEM analysis showed the thickness obtained were 10.25 μ m, 12.22 μ m, 17.67 μ m, and 22.53 μ m. AFM studies indicate that the Pd's surface roughness and grain size increased as the thickness increased, from 7.18 to 11.78 μ m. The XRD analysis confirmed the face-centered cubic (FCC) phase of palladium and has an average lattice constant of 3.89 Å. The XRD analysis also obtained the crystallite size of 12.35–26.12 nm and the crystallinity index of 69.61–30.56%.

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Nomenclature

A	=	Lattice constant
A_a	=	Area of amorphous hollows
A_c	=	Area under crystalline peaks
B	=	Full-width half-maximum (FWHM)
D	=	Crystallites size
E	=	Strain
Hkl	=	Denotes the diffraction plane (Bravais lattice)

- K = Scherrer constant, taken as 0.9
 Λ = Wavelength of the X-ray sources
 Δ = Dislocation density
 Θ = Peak position

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