

## DEPOSITION OF METAL OXIDES (MO-CU-TI-FE) USING THE CATHODIC CAGE DEPOSITION TECHNIQUE

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### ABSTRACT

*This study analysed the formation of metal oxide films (Mo-Cu-Ti-Fe) using the cathodic cage deposition method. By varying the cage cover, films with different properties and compositions were produced. These films were analysed using scanning electron microscopy (SEM), energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS), X-ray diffractometry (XRD) and roughness measurements. The results showed that films with good adhesion to the substrate were formed, as well as the presence of crystalline phases typical of the deposited oxides. These characteristics indicate that the cathodic cage deposition method is suitable for producing high-quality thin films, making it a promising alternative for applications in catalysis, sensors and electronic devices.*

**KEYWORDS:** Cathodic Cage Deposition, Metal Oxides, Thin Films, Molybdenum

### I. INTRODUCTION

Today, the accelerated advancement of technology demands a continuous search for new materials that meet the growing needs of industry. In this context, transition metal oxides, particularly molybdenum oxides, have stood out due to their abundance, ease of processing, and the wide range of properties they exhibit. Research on molybdenum compounds is becoming increasingly relevant. Nitrides and oxides are widely used in surface engineering due to their excellent hardness, corrosion

resistance, low coefficient of friction, and solid lubrication characteristics [1]. Molybdenum oxide can be obtained through a variety of techniques, such as cathodic arc [2], ion beam [3], nitriding of molybdenum films [4], ion implantation [5], plasma-enhanced chemical vapor deposition [5], sol-gel [6], pulsed laser deposition [9], and plasma deposition with cathodic cages at cathodic and floating potentials [7], among other techniques.

On the other hand, TiO<sub>2</sub> films stand out for their unique properties, such as chemical stability, low toxicity, low cost, high refractive index, high permittivity and biocompatibility [8]. It is a metal oxide with excellent dielectric, optical and electronic properties. It crystallizes in three structural phases: anatase, rutile and brookite. The properties of the TiO<sub>2</sub> thin film depend on the proportion of each phase present in the developed film [9]. The anatase phase, in particular, offers advantages that enable the application of TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films in industry, such as anti-corrosion, chemical reactivity and photocatalysis. Additionally, depending on the preparation conditions, the anatase phase exhibits high durability, a high refractive index ( $n=2.3$ ), high resistivity, and a high dielectric constant – characteristics that are essential, for example, in anti-reflective films and photochemical solar cells [10], [11], [12].

TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films can be synthesized using numerous techniques, such as chemical vapor deposition (CVD) [13], [14], physical vapor deposition (PVD) [15], [16] and reactive sputtering [17].

Copper and copper oxide are gaining popularity in both fundamental science and technological applications. Due to their excellent thermal and electrical conductivity, as well as their bioactive properties, copper and its oxides are considered to be of great importance. Copper oxide, a p-type semiconductor, can exist in two forms: copper (I) oxide (Cu<sub>2</sub>O, also known as cuprous oxide) and copper (II) oxide (CuO, also known as cupric oxide).

Copper oxide (Cu<sub>2</sub>O) films are widely valued in the construction of photovoltaic solar cells and photoelectric cells due to their favorable energy bandgap, low manufacturing cost, and wide availability for production [18]. Various deposition techniques have been used to produce Cu<sub>2</sub>O films, including reactive sputtering [19], electrodeposition [20], DC reactive sputtering [21] and thermal oxidation [22].

Iron oxide is a compound that exhibits a range of interesting properties, such as catalytic, optical, magnetic, and semiconducting properties, which vary depending on its structure [23], [24]. Iron oxides, in particular, can exist in different chemical compositions and lattice arrangements, including FeO (wüstite), Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (magnetite),  $\gamma$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (maghemite) and  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (hematite). Hematite iron oxide ( $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) is considered one of the main candidates for photoanode material in photoelectrochemical water-splitting devices [25]. The versatility of iron oxide (Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) is evidenced by the variety of deposition techniques used in its production, including magnetron sputtering [26], pulsed laser deposition (PLD) [27], electrodeposition [28], sol-gel deposition [29], [30] and chemical vapor deposition (CVD) [31]. This diversity makes it possible to obtain films with specific properties for different applications.

This work aims to synthesize and characterize thin films of metal oxides (Mo-Cu-Ti-Fe) using the cathodic cage deposition technique in order to investigate their mechanical properties.

## II. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

### 2.1. Film deposition

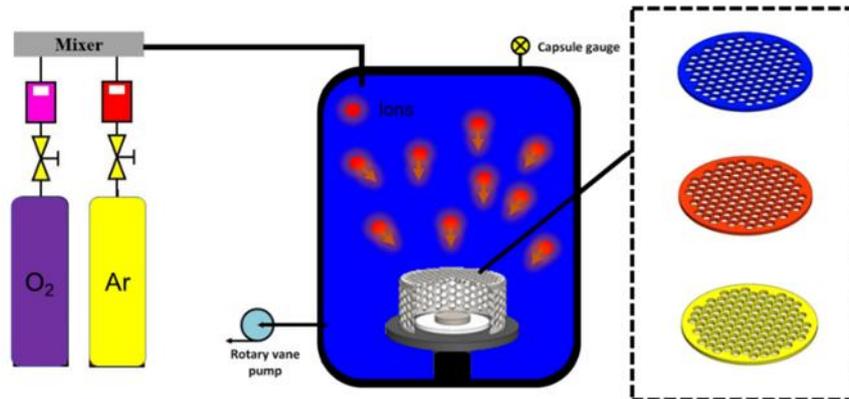
AISI 316 steel, a commercially available material, was used in this study in the form of samples with the following chemical composition (wt%): 0.03% C, 17% Cr, 12% Ni, 2.2% Mo, and Fe (balance).

The samples were machined into a rectangular shape with dimensions of 15×10×3 mm<sup>3</sup>. After the machining process, the samples were sanded using water sandpaper of different grain sizes: 220, 400, 600, and 1200 mesh. The samples were then polished on felt discs using alumina, immersed in 70% alcohol and subjected to ultrasonic agitation for 10 minutes. Finally, the samples were dried using a conventional dryer with a hot air flow. The films were deposited using a molybdenum cathode cage with dimensions of 45 mm in height and 90 mm in diameter. This structure features 8 mm diameter

holes, evenly distributed, with a center-to-center distance of 9 mm (Figure 1). The cage lid used in the procedures was made of molybdenum, titanium, steel and copper. Table 1 details the composition of the cage and the parameters used in the treatment.

**Table 1 - Treatments parameters.**

Sample	Cage		Atmosphere (sccm)	Temperature (°C)	Time (h)
	Cylinder	Lid			
GaMoTaMo	Mo	Mo	50 Ar – 50 O <sub>2</sub>	400	5
GaMoTaTi		Ti			
GaMoTaFe		Steel			
GaMoTaCu		Cu			



**Figure 1 - Schematic illustration of the plasma deposition reactor equipped with a molybdenum cathode cage and Molybdenum, Titanium, Steel and Copper caps.**

## 2.2. Morphological and structural analysis

The samples were characterized by X-ray diffraction (Shimadzu DRX-6000) using Cu-K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 1.55406 \text{ \AA}$ ). The copper tube operated with a voltage of 45 kV, a current of 40 mA, and a scanning range of  $2\theta$  from  $30^\circ$  to  $90^\circ$ . The Vickers microhardness test (INSIZE model ISH-TDV 1000 A-B) was carried out with a load of 50 gf, resulting in an average value from five measurements. The cross-sectional analysis was performed using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) with an FEI COMPANY QUANTA FEG 250 model. To determine the chemical elements present in the deposited films, the EDS accessory of the SEM was used, with an acceleration voltage of 20 kV. The adhesion test was performed using an INSIZE microdurometer, model ISH-BRV. In this test, an impression was made at the center of the treated sample, applying a load of 1471 N. The roughness test was carried out using a MITUTOYO model SJ-210 portable roughness meter. For this, 5 measurements were taken on each sample, each one starting from the centre to the edge of the sample. The sampling and evaluation lengths ( $l_m$ ) were 0.8 mm and 4.0 mm, respectively.

## III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 3.1. Morphological, elemental and structural characterization

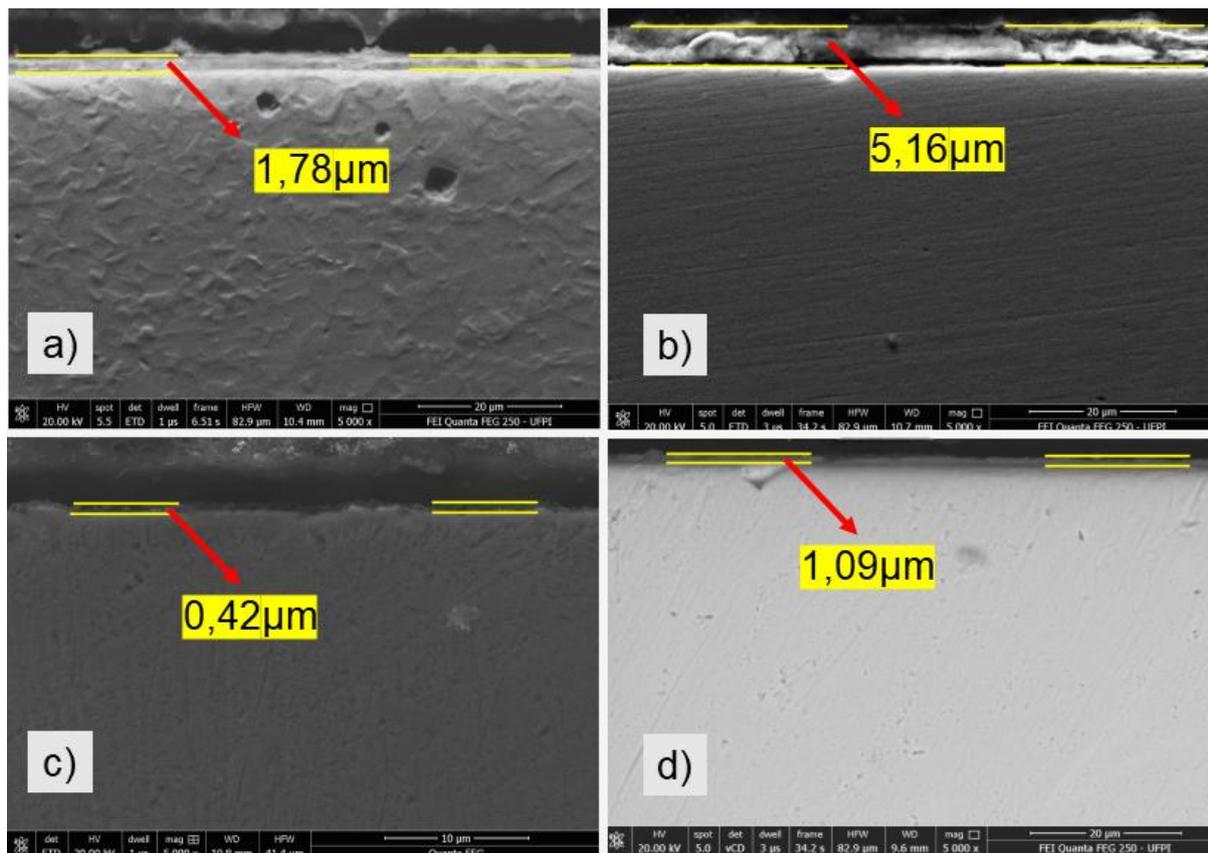
The morphology and elemental composition of the films were analyzed using SEM and EDS, as shown in Figure 2. The figure reveals the uniform appearance of the samples under all treatment conditions, demonstrating the efficiency of the cathodic cage treatment technique [32]. In Figure 2a, where a Mo cage and lid are used, a layer thickness of approximately  $1.78 \mu\text{m}$  is observed, presenting a significantly denser appearance compared to the cage with a titanium lid (Figure 2b). Despite this, the use of a titanium cage results in a greater layer thickness, approximately  $5.16 \mu\text{m}$ , compared to that obtained with Mo. The samples treated with steel lids (Figure 2c) and copper lids (Figure 2d) exhibit average layer thickness of  $0.42 \mu\text{m}$  and  $1.09 \mu\text{m}$ , respectively. The thickness and density of the deposited films show a variation directly linked to the characteristics of the material that makes up the cage lid, as described by [33]. This phenomenon can be explained using Arrhenius law (Equation

1), which establishes a relationship between the diffusion coefficient ( $D$ ) and parameters such as temperature ( $T$ ) and activation energy ( $Q$ ).

$$D = D_0 \exp\left(-\frac{Q}{RT}\right)$$

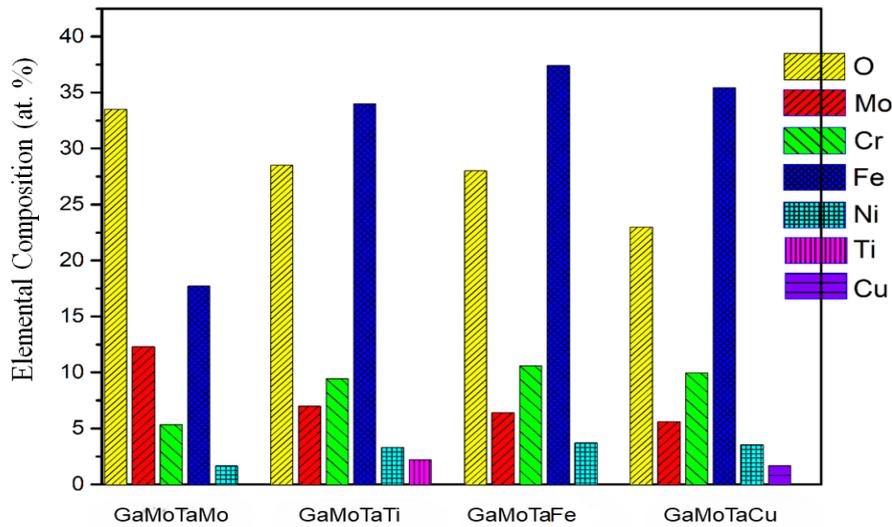
Equation 1

The activation energy of each material plays a decisive role in the mobility of atoms during the deposition process. Materials with different ionisation energy levels result in varying concentrations of active species in the plasma, which directly affects the kinetics of nitride formation [34]. In addition, the choice of film depends on its intended application, considering the different properties of each material. However, when layer thickness is a critical factor, the titanium lid stands out as the best option, due to the difference in activation energy associated with the materials.



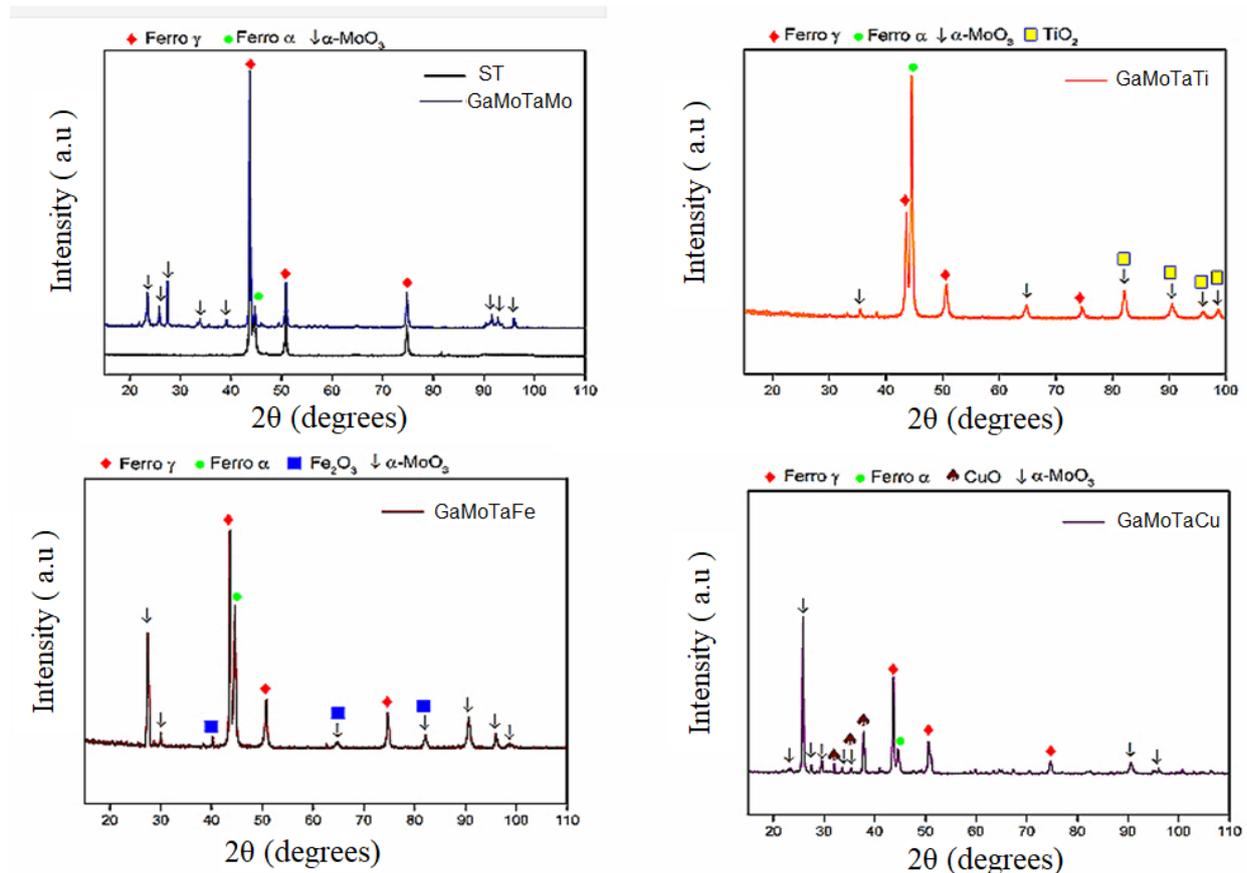
**Figure 2** - Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) Molybdenum cage with (a) Molybdenum, (b) Titanium, (c) Steel and (d) Copper lid.

Figure 3 shows the EDS spectra of the plasma-deposited films, highlighting the composition of these materials. The spectral analysis confirms the presence of elements from the atmosphere (oxygen), the body of the molybdenum cage, the lids (molybdenum, titanium, steel, and copper), and the AISI 316 sample (iron, chromium, and nickel). The GaMoTaMo sample exhibits a significant amount of molybdenum, which is directly related to the composition of the cage body and lid. This result is corroborated by X-ray diffractometry (XRD) analysis. In the GaMoTaTi sample, the presence of titanium is attributed to the use of a titanium lid. The GaMoTaFe sample, in turn, shows an increase in iron content due to the stainless steel lid. Similarly, the presence of copper is observed in the GaMoTaCu sample, as a copper lid was used in this case. Finally, the EDS spectra reveal that the molybdenum concentration in the deposition was significantly higher when the cage body and molybdenum lid were used, demonstrating the efficiency of the cathodic cage deposition technique [35].



**Figure 3** - Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) Molybdenum cage with Molybdenum (GaMoTaMo), Titanium (GaMoTaTi), Steel (GaMoTaFe) and Copper lid (GaMoTaCu).

Figure 4 shows the X-ray spectra of AISI 316 austenitic stainless steel samples subjected to plasma deposition treatment using the cathodic cage technique.



**Figure 4** - X-ray diffractograms for AISI 316 steel samples with plasma-deposited film using molybdenum cage with molybdenum (GaMoTaMo), titanium (GaMoTaTi), steel (GaMoTaFe) and copper caps (GaMoTaCu).

The diffractograms reveal the presence of characteristic molybdenum peaks (COD 35076) in all the samples, regardless of the material used for the lids. When analyzing the diffractograms of the samples with titanium, steel and copper lids, the presence of titanium oxide phases is observed,

suggesting that atoms from the lid were incorporated into the formation of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  phase. Similarly, the formation of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  iron oxide (ICSD 1011240) indicates the contribution of both the lid material and the element present in the substrate. The formation of copper oxide (COD 9016057) is also observed, which is attributed to the copper lid, as the sample material does not contain copper in its composition. These findings are corroborated by the energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) measurements of samples 2 and 3.

### 3.2. Vickers Microhardness, Roughness and Adhesion

Figure 5 presents a graph illustrating the average microhardness results of the samples, both untreated and after the treatments. The graph shows the formation of oxide layers, as all the treated samples showed an increase in surface hardness compared to the untreated sample, which had a microhardness of 288.15 HV.

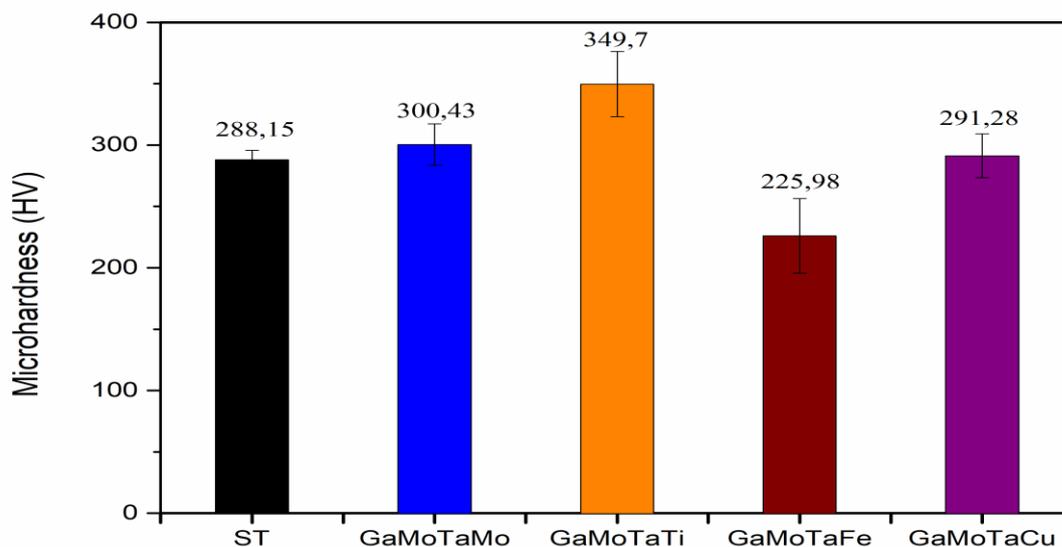


Figure 5 - Microhardness graph

The graph shows that, even under the same conditions, the deposition with the titanium lid exhibited slightly better results compared to the treatments with the other lids. This behavior can be interpreted based on the SEM results, which show a thicker layer on the sample treated with the titanium lid. Additionally, the formation of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  phase acts as a barrier to the movement of dislocations, making it difficult to deform the material and contributing to the increase in hardness of the deposited layer [36] [37]. Furthermore, the samples treated with molybdenum and copper lids show a slight increase in microhardness compared to the samples treated with steel lids. This increase may be related to the higher quantity of  $\alpha\text{-MoO}_3$  phases, as shown in the diffractograms of the samples, or to the thickness of the layers, which is greater in the samples with molybdenum and copper lids compared to the sample with the steel lid.

Figure 6 presents the results of the surface roughness analyses, showing the numerical values for arithmetic average roughness ( $R_a$ ) and quadratic average roughness ( $R_q$ ). The results indicate that plasma deposition had a considerable influence on the surface roughness of the substrate in all the treated samples. In other words, by varying the cage lid while keeping the time and temperature constant for both treatments, an increase in roughness values was detected compared to the untreated sample.

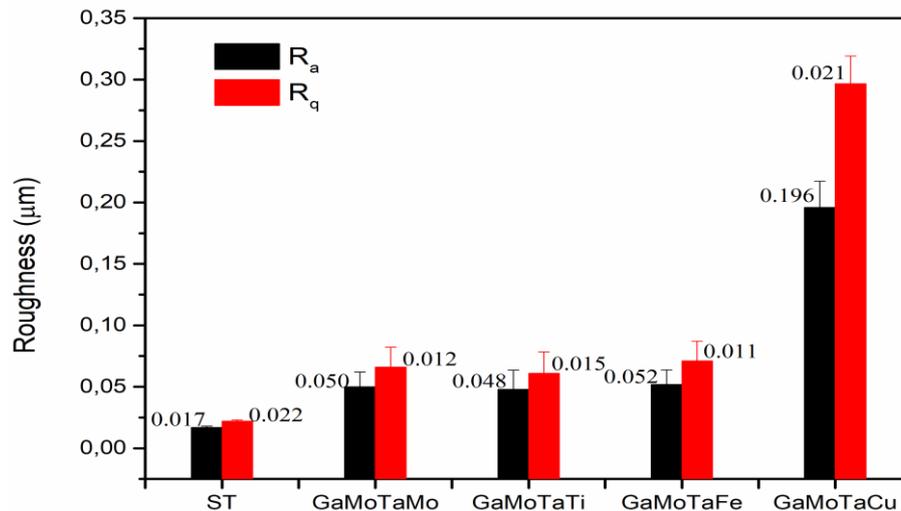


Figure 6 - Roughness measurement

A significant increase in the roughness of the sample with the copper lid was observed. This increase may be related to grain growth caused by the lid material [38]. When analyzed individually, the sample with the titanium lid, which had the greatest layer thickness among the samples evaluated, was the only one to show the lowest roughness values ( $R_a$  and  $R_q$ ). This phenomenon can be attributed to the good adhesion of the film, classified as H1, and the formation of  $TiO_2$  phase, observed in the X-ray diffraction (XRD), which acts as a micro-irregularity filling agent.

In Figure 7, the indentations resulting from the qualitative Daimler-Benz Rockwell-C adhesion test can be observed, applied to samples coated with films using molybdenum cage with molybdenum caps (Figure 6a), titanium (Figure 6b), stainless steel (Figure 6c), and copper (Figure 6d). This test classifies film adhesion into six categories: HF1, HF2, HF3, HF4, HF5, and HF6. Categories HF1 to HF4 indicate good adhesion behavior, while HF5 and HF6 indicate poor adhesion, with visible areas of delamination [39].

All the images show excellent adhesion, classified as HF1. In these images, there are no cracks or regions of detachment. The only mark around the indentations is the accumulation of material at the edges, which suggests a good level of plasticity in the films.

This behavior indicates that the films are classified as HF1, which denotes very good adhesion to the sample, providing durability and resistance to wear in practical applications.

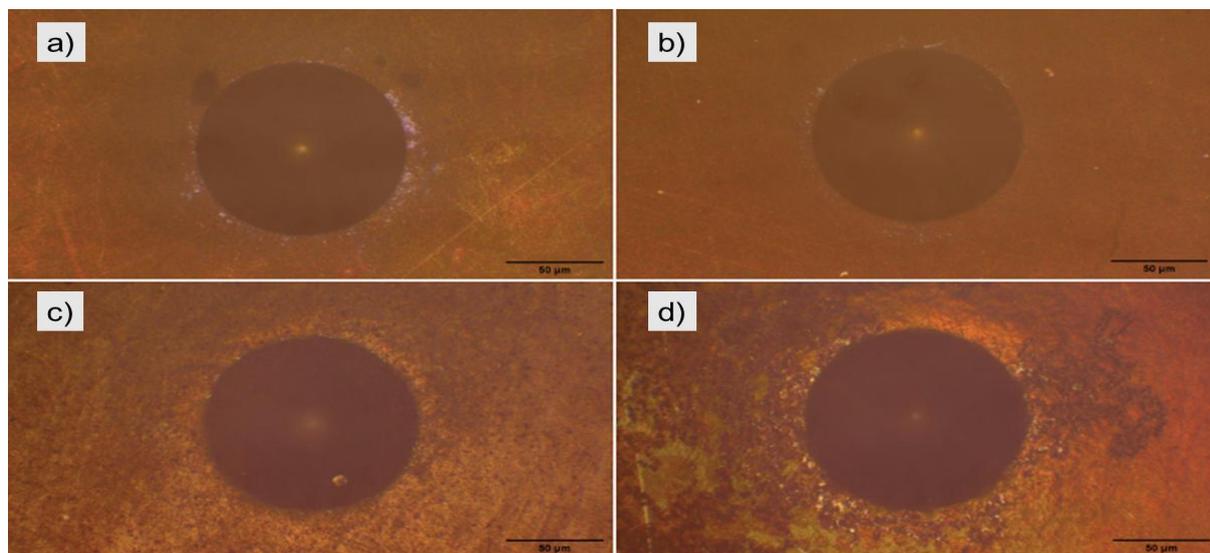


Figure 7 - Adhesion test with Molybdenum cage with Molybdenum, Titanium, Steel and Copper cover.

#### IV. CONCLUSIONS

Cathodic cage deposition proved to be an efficient technique for obtaining thin metal oxide films with varied properties. By using a molybdenum cage with a titanium lid, it was possible to deposit TiO<sub>2</sub> films with a significant increase in thickness and an improvement in the microhardness of the substrate, indicating potential for applications in areas requiring high resistance to wear.

The use of a molybdenum cage and lid enabled the deposition of MoO<sub>3</sub> films with a homogeneous morphology and crystalline structure, demonstrating the versatility of the technique in obtaining films with specific properties. The inclusion of elements such as iron and copper in the lids, in addition to influencing the composition of the films, altered the thickness of the films and the hardness of the layer.

The results obtained highlight the importance of carefully selecting materials and deposition conditions to obtain films with the desired properties. Cathodic cage deposition opens up new perspectives for surface engineering and the development of functional materials with diverse applications, such as electronic devices, sensors and protective coatings.

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