



A Solution Based Route to GaAs Thin Films from As(NMe₂)₃ and GaMe₃ for Solar Cells

Journal:	<i>RSC Advances</i>
Manuscript ID:	RA-ART-11-2014-013902.R1
Article Type:	Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	07-Jan-2015
Complete List of Authors:	Sathasivam, Sanjayan; University College London, Chemistry Arnepalli, Ranga Rao; Applied Materials Inc., Blackman, Christopher; University College of London, Department of Chemistry Singh, Kaushal; Applied Materials Inc., Visser, Robert; Applied Materials Inc., Carmalt, Claire; University College London, Department of Chemistry

1 **A Solution Based Route to GaAs Thin Films from As(NMe₂)₃ and GaMe₃ for Solar**
2 **Cells**

3

4

5 Sanjayan Sathasivam,^a Ranga R. Arnepalli,^b Kaushal K. Singh,^b Robert J. Visser,^b
6 Christopher S. Blackman,^a Claire J. Carmalt^{a*}

7

8 ^aMaterials Chemistry Research Centre, Department of Chemistry, University College
9 London, 20 Gordon Street, London, U.K. WC1H 0AJ

10

11 ^bApplied Materials Inc., 3225 Oakmead Village Drive, M/S 1240 P.O. Box 58039,
12 Santa Clara, California 95052-8039, USA

13

14 **Abstract**

15

16 The novel deposition of GaAs thin films on glass substrates from a solution based
17 route involving the aerosol assisted chemical vapour deposition (AACVD) of
18 As(NMe₂)₃ and GaMe₃ dissolved in toluene is reported. The gallium arsenide films
19 were analysed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM), X-ray powder diffraction
20 (XRD), energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy
21 (XPS) and Raman spectroscopy. Powder XRD showed that cubic polycrystalline
22 GaAs had been deposited with films grown at the higher temperatures having a Ga to
23 As ratio of 1:1. EDX mapping, XPS depth profiling and SIMS showed that the films
24 contained low levels of contaminants. The method described shows the formation of
25 GaAs films with increasing crystallinity and stoichiometry reaching unity with
26 increasing deposition temperature.

27

28 **Keywords:** gallium arsenide, AACVD, solution processing, photovoltaics

29

30 Introduction

31 The search for new routes to semiconducting materials continues to attract
32 considerable attention, despite the many advances that have resulted in the
33 semiconductor-based revolution in electronic devices.¹ The use of solution processes
34 as a method to reduce processing costs for the development of electronic devices is
35 attracting interest for a wide range of applications.^{2,3} Gallium arsenide (GaAs) is a
36 semiconductor with a direct band gap of 1.43 eV that finds applications in
37 photovoltaics and optoelectronic devices.^{4,5} Recently, thin film GaAs solar devices
38 have been reported with an efficiency of 28.8% which are superior to those achieved
39 for silicon based devices (amorphous silicon - efficiency of 20.1%; crystalline silicon
40 - 25.0%).⁶ The greater device performance is a result of GaAs having high electron
41 mobility and its resistance to heat and radiation.^{4,7,8} Furthermore, the bandgap for
42 GaAs is close to the optimum bandgap (1.34 eV) for solar conversion for a single
43 junction solar cell.^{9,10} Unfortunately, the high cost of fabricating GaAs devices has
44 limited the use of GaAs photovoltaics to space and military applications only.

45 Formation of these devices currently involves epitaxial methods, including molecular
46 beam epitaxy (MBE) and metal organic chemical vapour deposition (MOCVD),
47 utilising expensive substrates such as germanium and GaAs. The deposition methods
48 typically use dual source precursors, such as trimethylgallium (GaMe_3), which is a
49 pyrophoric liquid and the highly toxic arsine gas, AsH_3 .¹¹ Single-source precursors,
50 including $[\text{Me}_2\text{GaAs}(\text{H})^t\text{Bu}]_2$,¹² $[\text{R}_2\text{GaAs}^t\text{Bu}_2]_2$,¹³ ¹⁴ and $[\text{nBu}_2\text{Ga}(\text{□}-$
51 $\text{As}^n\text{Bu}_2)_2\text{Ga}^n\text{Bu}_2]_2$ ¹⁵ have been reported as potential alternatives to the dual source
52 routes. Alternatively, different gallium and arsenic precursors have been studied.
53 Carbon contamination from the arsenic precursor is a major problem when depositing
54 GaAs films, hence trialkyl arsines are generally avoided as they are a source of carbon
55 in the film. Alternatives to AsH_3 include liquid precursors, such as tertbutylarsine,
56 which is still highly toxic, and tris(dimethylaminoarsine), $\text{As}(\text{NMe}_2)_3$.^{16,17}

57 Tris(dimethylaminoarsine) is a liquid precursor that is used in many MOCVD
58 techniques due to its low volatility and low relative decomposition temperature
59 compared to tertbutyl arsine and arsine.¹⁷ Furthermore, the precursor is lacking in
60 carbon and hence is not a source of carbon contamination in the deposited films. For
61 example, GaAs films have been grown with undetectable carbon levels at 450 °C
62 using trimethylgallium as the gallium source via metal organic MBE.¹⁸ The major

63 decomposition products of $\text{As}(\text{NMe}_2)_3$ have been found to be dimethylamine,
64 hydrogen and aziridine.¹⁹

65 Here, we present the use of $\text{As}(\text{NMe}_2)_3$ with GaMe_3 in a simple solution-based, one-
66 pot, technique to deposit GaAs thin films via aerosol assisted chemical vapour
67 deposition (AACVD). The films were grown on glass and the deposition of GaAs on
68 amorphous substrates is still relatively limited.^{20,21} The AACVD technique is a
69 solution based process which relies on the solubility of the precursors, rather than its
70 volatility and control of the resulting morphology of the films can be achieved which
71 can influence the properties of the resulting film.²² This technique has been used to
72 produce high quality films for electrical and optical applications.^{22,23,24} AACVD
73 operates at atmospheric pressure and therefore expensive equipment is not required.
74 The one-pot route involving two commercially available precursors, $\text{As}(\text{NMe}_2)_3$ and
75 GaMe_3 , removes the need to isolate the precursor before deposition.

76
77

78 **Experimental Section**

79 *Caution! Trimethylgallium and tris(dimethylamino)arsine are pyrophoric and must be*
80 *handled in an inert atmosphere. In addition, tris(dimethylamino)arsine is toxic and*
81 *must be handled with care. All experiments must be carried out in a fume cupboard.*

82 Trimethylgallium (SAFC Hightech - 99.999%) and tris(dimethylamino)arsine (Strem
83 Chemicals Inc. - 99%) was used as received. Toluene (Alfa Aesar) was dried
84 (Anhydrous Engineering) and stored under alumina columns.

85 To form the precursor solution $\text{As}(\text{NMe}_2)_3$ (1.08 g, 5.2 mmol) was dissolved in
86 toluene (10 mL) at $-78\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. GaMe_3 (0.4 g, 3.5 mmol) was dissolved in toluene (10 mL)
87 at $-78\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The $\text{As}(\text{NMe}_2)_3$ in toluene solution was added dropwise to the
88 GaMe_3 /toluene solution and the solution allowed to reach room temperature before
89 deposition was carried out at 450, 500 and 550 $^\circ\text{C}$.

90

91 The precursor solution for all AACVD depositions was placed in a glass bubbler and
92 aerosolised by use of a Vicks ultrasonic humidifier (model number: 4022167500175).
93 Nitrogen (BOC - 99.9%) carrier gas was used as supplied. Depositions were carried
94 out on SiO_2 coated float-glass that was cleaned using petroleum ether ($60\text{-}80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) and
95 propan-2-ol and dried in air prior to use. The glass substrates were ca. 90 mm x 45 mm

96 x 4 mm in size. The heating of the glass substrate to the desired temperature was
97 carried out under nitrogen gas and two-way taps were used to divert the nitrogen
98 carrier gas through the bubbler. After all the precursor solution had passed through the
99 chamber the taps were turned to allow only N₂ gas flow through the bypass tap. This
100 was maintained until the reaction chamber temperature falls below 100 °C. The N₂ gas
101 was stopped and the glass substrates were removed. The N₂ gas flow rate was
102 controlled by a calibrated flow meter positioned before the gas enters the bypass
103 bubbler. The total deposition time was in the region of 50 – 80 min.

104 A graphite block containing a Watlow cartridge heater was used to heat the glass
105 substrate. The temperature of the substrate was monitored by a Pt–Rh thermocouple.
106 Post deposition the films were safe to handle. Coated substrates were handled and
107 stored in air. Large pieces of glass (ca. 4 cm x 2 cm) were used for X-ray powder
108 diffraction but the coated substrate was cut into ca. 1 cm x 1 cm squares for
109 subsequent analysis by SEM and EDX.

110 X-ray diffraction (XRD) was carried out using a microfocus Bruker GAADS powder
111 X-ray diffractometer with a monochromated Cu K_α (1.5406 Å) source. Raman
112 spectroscopy was performed using a Renishaw 1000 spectrometer equipped with a
113 514.5 nm laser. Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy was measured on a JOEL JSM-
114 6301F Field Emission instrument with acceleration voltage of 20 kV, the Ga atom%
115 was derived from Ga-K_α line (9243 eV) and the As atom% derived from the As K_α
116 line (1053 eV). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was carried out using a
117 Thermo Scientific K-Alpha instrument with monochromatic Al-K_α source to identify
118 the oxidation state and chemical constituents. High resolution scans were obtained for
119 the Ga (3d), As (3d), O (1s) and C (1s) at a pass energy of 40 eV. The peaks were
120 modelled using CasaXPS software with binding energies adjusted to adventitious
121 carbon (284.5 eV). SEM images were taken on a JOEL JSM-6301F Field Emission
122 instrument with acceleration voltage of 5 kV. Images were captured using SEMAfore
123 software. For both SEM and EDX samples were cut to 10 mm x 10 mm coupons and
124 coated with a fine layer of gold (SEM) and carbon (EDX) to avoid charging. HRTEM
125 and EDX mapping was carried out on Titan 80-300 TEM with EDX at CAMCOR
126 service at the University of Oregon. SIMS was carried out by Evans analytical group,
127 Santa Clara, California.

128
129
130

131 **Results and discussion**

132

133 Polycrystalline thin films of GaAs were deposited on glass substrates from AACVD
134 of As(NMe₂)₃ and GaMe₃ in toluene at 450, 500 and 550 °C with a carrier gas flow
135 rate of 0.5 Lmin⁻¹. The two precursors were mixed at reduced temperature (-78 °C)
136 and then allowed to warm to room temperature in the AACVD bubbler before the
137 deposition was started. In order to achieve a stoichiometry close to GaAs in the
138 resulting films a 1.5:1 ratio of As(NMe₂)₃ : GaMe₃ was required (Table 1). Increasing
139 the amount of As(NMe₂)₃ (greater than a 1.5:1 ratio) did not result in any change in
140 film stoichiometry. The film grown at 450 °C was substoichiometric in spite of a 1.5:1
141 ratio of As(NMe₂)₃ : GaMe₃ in the precursor solution.

142 The films deposited under these conditions were smooth, continuous and appeared
143 grey/blue in colour under reflected light. They were adherent to the substrate, passing
144 the Scotch TapeTM test but were scratched by stainless steel and brass stylus as
145 expected for GaAs films. Electrical measurements carried out using a two-point probe
146 revealed electrical resistance in the MΩ region therefore indicating the films were
147 insulating at room temperature, as expected for pristine GaAs.²⁵

148

Film	Temperature / °C	Toluene / mL	As(NMe ₂) ₃ / mmol	GaMe ₃ / mmol	Gallium / Atm%	Arsenic / Atm%
1	450	20	5.2	3.5	63	37
2	500	20	5.2	3.5	54	46
3	550	20	5.2	3.5	52	48

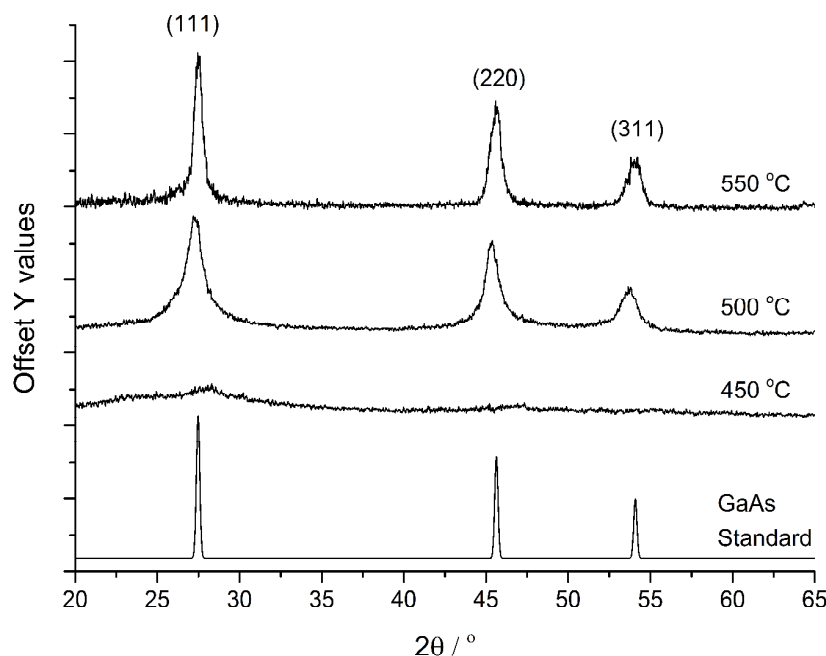
149

150 **Table 1: Conditions for the deposition of GaAs films on glass substrates and composition**
151 **of the films from EDX.**

152 Although the mechanism of the AACVD reaction was not studied in detail previous
153 solution based studies have shown that the reaction of As(NMe₂)₃ and GaMe₃ results
154 in initial formation of the adduct, [GaMe₃{As(NMe₂)₃}], followed by ligand transfer
155 forming species, of the type [Me₂GaNMe₂]₂, [MeAsNMe₂]₂ and
156 [GaMe₃{AsMe(NMe₂)₂}].²⁶ Similar observations have been also been reported for the
157 reactions of AlMe₃ with Me₂AsNMe₂, MeAs(NMe₂)₂ and As(NMe₂)₃.^{27,28} Therefore,

158 it is likely that similar reactions and ligand rearrangements are taking place in the
159 AACVD bubbler prior to deposition.

160 All of the films showed only the formation of cubic polycrystalline GaAs (Figure 1),
161 with peaks corresponding to cubic GaAs (111), (220) and (311) observed at 27.3°,
162 45.4°, and 53.7° 2θ respectively. The films grown at 450 °C were only very weakly
163 diffracting, either due to the films being very thin or the temperature of 450 °C being
164 too low to crystallise GaAs.



165
166 **Figure 1: The XRD patterns for the GaAs films grown at 450 °C, 500 °C and 550 °C via**
167 **the AACVD reaction of As(NMe₂)₃ and GaMe₃.**

168 The films grown at 500 and 550 °C showed more intense diffraction peaks in the
169 XRD pattern compared to those grown at 450 °C and an estimate of the crystallite size
170 (Table 2) in each of the films calculated *via* the Scherrer equation,^{29,30} showed that
171 films grown at 550 °C had an average crystallite size (10 - 12 nm) twice as large as
172 those grown at 500 °C (5 - 7 nm).

173

174

175

176

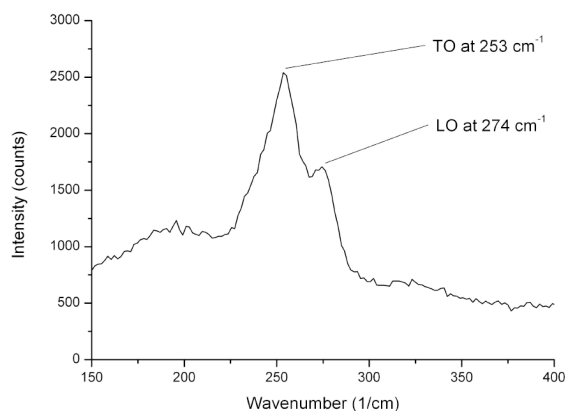
Film grown at 500 °C					
hkl	Bragg Angle / 2θ	Peak width / °	Instrument resolution/°	Corrected peak width / °	Diameter /nm
111	27.5	1.84	0.08	1.76	5
220	45.8	1.21	0.055	1.155	7
311	54.2	1.68	0.065	1.615	6
Film grown at 550 °C					
hkl	Bragg Angle / 2θ	Peak width / °	Instrument resolution/°	Corrected peak width / °	Diameter /nm
111	27.5	0.93	0.08	0.85	10
220	45.7	0.75	0.055	0.695	12
311	54.1	0.97	0.065	0.905	10

177

178

Table 2: The crystallite size of films grown at 500 and 550 °C.

179 Raman spectroscopy data showed the two bands expected for cubic GaAs (Figure 2)
 180 for all films. These are a longitudinal optical phonon mode at 274 cm^{-1} and a doubly
 181 degenerate transverse optical TO phonon mode at 253 cm^{-1} , which corresponds with
 182 literature values for bulk GaAs, although there is a red shift.³¹ The deviation from the
 183 literature values could be due to strain in the GaAs lattice arising from growth of the
 184 films on amorphous glass substrates. In addition, the polycrystalline nature of the
 185 films has resulted in peak broadening due to the breakdown of the $q=0$ selection rules
 186 that occur when long range order (i.e. crystallinity) is lost.³²
 187



188

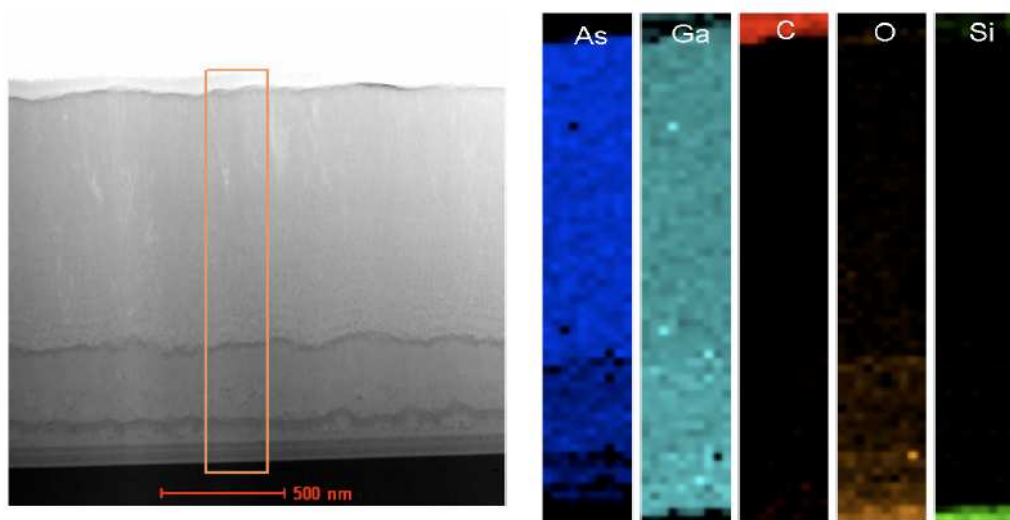
189

Figure 2: Raman spectrum of a GaAs film grown at 500 °C.

190 In order to obtain compositional analysis of the resulting GaAs films, energy
191 dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis was used. EDX showed that the only elements
192 present were gallium, arsenic and oxygen. The oxygen is likely due to contamination
193 on the surface of the films due to the formation of a native oxide layer consisting of
194 arsenic and gallium oxides (*vida supra*), which is a common on GaAs surfaces.³³
195 Films grown at 450 °C were non-stoichiometric (Table 1) with a gallium excess of
196 ~25 atm%, however EDX analysis showed roughly equal amounts of Ga and As were
197 present in the films grown at 500 and 550 °C.

198 EDX mapping (Figure 3) was carried out from the surface through to the substrate,
199 which indicated that oxygen (and carbon) was indeed present mainly on the surface of
200 the film (shown by the absence of colour in the figure). However, some oxygen was
201 detected in the region near the substrate, where the arsenic content was also low,
202 suggesting gallium oxide is present here. This maybe due to the diffusion of oxygen
203 from the glass substrate into the film. The gallium to arsenic ratio was uniform
204 throughout the bulk of the film indicating that Ga is only bound to As in the form of
205 GaAs, except in the vicinity of the surface and the substrate.

206

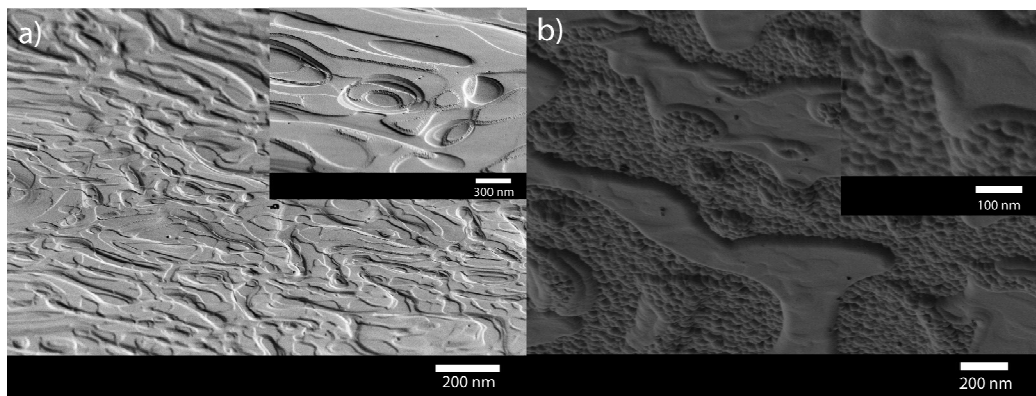


207
208
209

Figure 3: EDX mapping of a GaAs film grown at 500 °C.

210 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was used to study the morphology of the GaAs
211 films (Figure 4). SEM showed that the films were compact with featured morphology
212 resulting from island type growth occurring in the deposition. At the higher
213 temperature of 550 °C, SEM indicates the formation of larger and more defined

214 features (Figure 4 a,b). Side-on SEM was used to determine the thickness of the
215 resulting films, the film deposited at 500 °C had a film thickness ranging between 1 to
216 2 μm whereas the 550 °C film was thicker at a range of 3 to 4 μm (see supporting
217 information). A thickness gradient was observed such that the films were slightly
218 thicker nearer to the inlet of the AACVD reactor

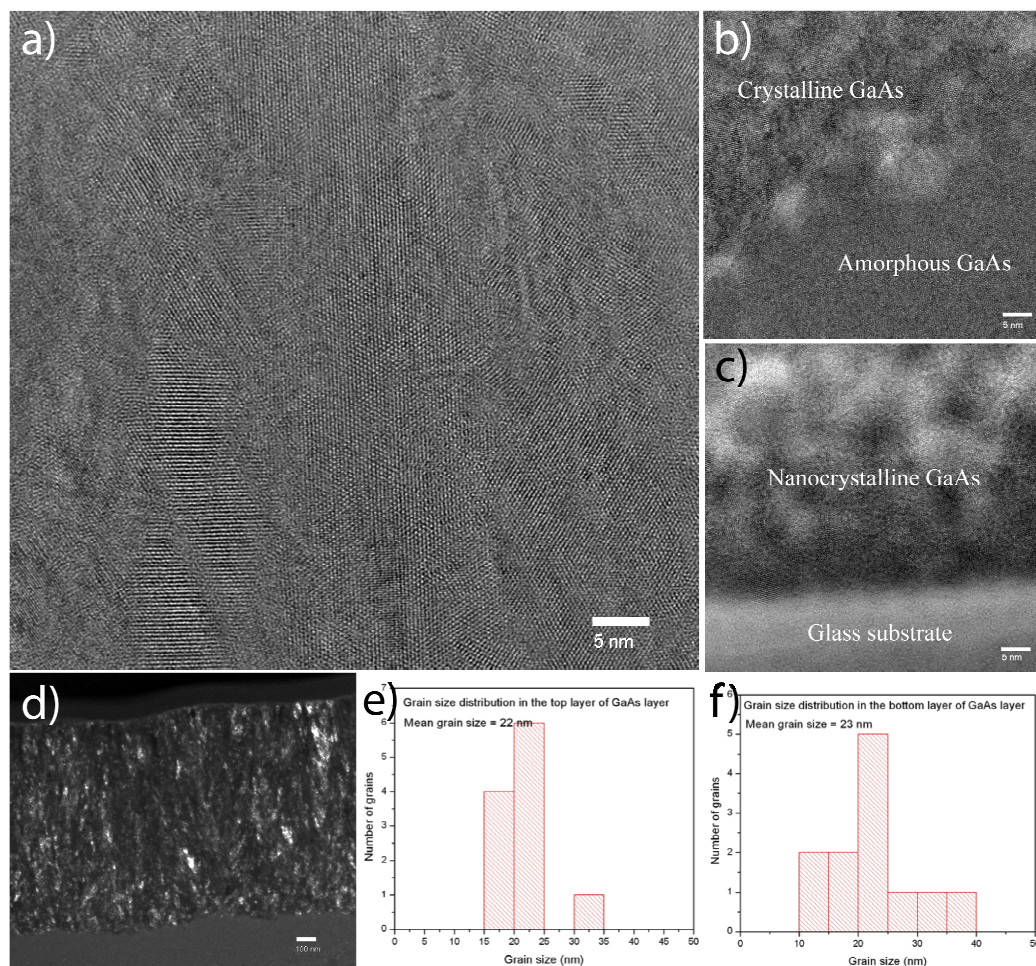


219
220

221 **Figure 4: SEM images of the crystalline GaAs films grown *via* AACVD from $\text{As}(\text{NMe}_2)_3$**
222 **and GaMe_3 at a) 500 °C and b) 550 °C**

223

224 The grain size distribution and polycrystallinity of the films was investigated using
225 high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) (Figure 5). The darkfield
226 HRTEM image (Figure 5d) suggests that there is minimum or no columnar growth
227 since there was an absence of convex features on the top region of the film. This
228 indicates that there are grain boundaries in both the vertical and lateral directions.
229 Further evidence for this can be seen from the top down HRTEM image of the films,
230 which shows the presence of grain boundaries typical of polycrystalline films (Figure
231 5a-c). Amorphous regions within the films were also observed in the top down
232 HRTEM, especially near the glass substrate, as well as nanocrystalline GaAs in some
233 regions of the film.



234

235

236

237

238

Figure 5: HRTEM data for GaAs films grown at 500 °C. (a) Darkfield TEM image of the film (b) top down TEM image (c) image showing nanocrystalline GaAs regions (d) image showing crystalline and amorphous GaAs regions (e) grain size distribution in the top region of the film (f) grain size distribution in the bottom region of the film.

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

The crystallite size distribution was calculated from the HRTEM data for both the bottom and top layers of the films, which were found to be similar (Figure 5e-f). The top layer of the films have an average crystallite size of 22 nm, whereas the bottom layer have an average size of 23 nm. It is worth noting that the crystallite size from HRTEM is larger than those obtained from the Scherrer equation – 6 nm (Table 2) which is not unexpected since the grain size estimation via the Scherrer equation has a larger error associated with it compared with direct determination methods, such as HRTEM.

247

248

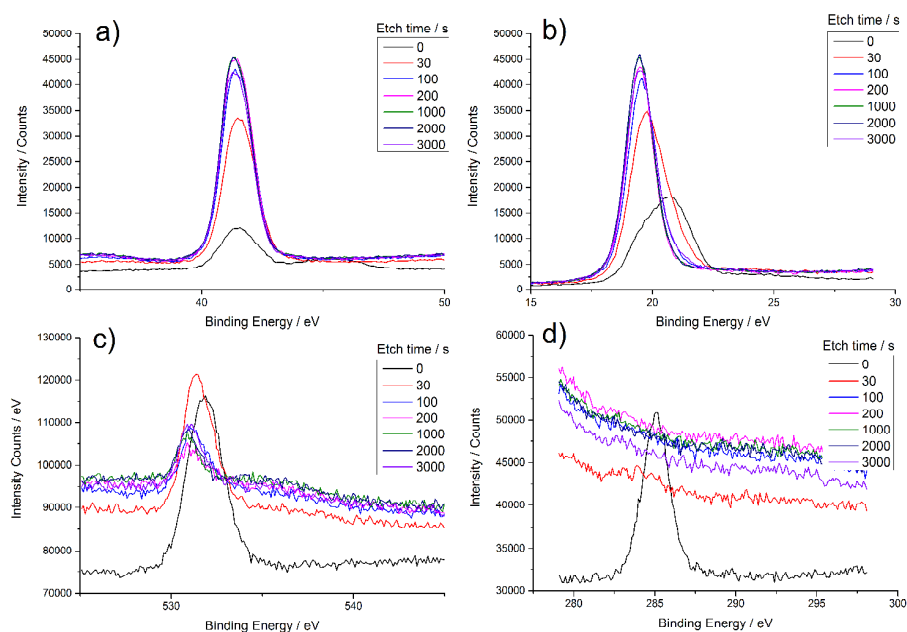
249

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was carried out on the films deposited at 500 °C to determine the extent of oxygen and carbon contamination within the depth of the film. XPS showed the presence of Ga, As, C and O. The Ga 3d peaks were

250 resolved to show the presence of two Ga^{3+} environments corresponding to GaAs at
251 $3d_{5/2}$ binding energy of 19.7 eV and Ga_2O_3 $3d_{5/2}$ binding energy 20.8 eV. These match
252 well with binding energy previously reported for GaAs and Ga_2O_3 .^{34,35} The As 3d
253 peak was de-convoluted to three different As $3d_{5/2}$ and $3d_{3/2}$ peaks corresponding to
254 As in the form of GaAs at 41.1 eV and AsO and As_2O_3 at 42.4 and 44.5 eV,
255 respectively.³⁶ Three environments for the O 1s peak were observed, corresponding to
256 Ga_2O_3 at 531.0 eV and As_2O_3 at 531.9 and 533.0 eV. These results are expected for
257 the surface of GaAs, which is prone to the formation of the native oxide.

258 An XPS depth profiling study was carried out (Figure 6) and showed that the oxygen
259 and carbon contamination is largely surface bound, as indicated by the EDX mapping
260 and consistent with literature reports.³³ The oxide peak observed in the As 3d spectra
261 disappears after 30 seconds of sputtering, showing that the oxygen is only surface
262 contamination. The gallium peak corresponding to GaAs is the only peak observed
263 after 30 seconds of sputtering, suggesting that the gallium oxide is surface segregated.
264 From the EDX mapping, some oxygen contamination was observed near the bottom
265 of the film by the substrate, although this was not observed in the XPS results
266 presumably due to the sputtering not penetrating deep enough into the film even after
267 3000 seconds.

268



269

270 **Figure 6: XPS depth profile of a) As 3d b) Ga 3d, c) O 1s, d) C 1s for the film grown via**
271 **AACVD at 500 °C.**

272

273 Secondary ion mass spectroscopy (SIMS) was carried out to determine any low level
274 of oxygen or carbon contamination in the GaAs films. SIMS showed that for these
275 films, the carbon concentration was 3.41×10^{20} atoms cm^{-3} and remains constant
276 through the film. The concentration of oxygen was found to be 4.66×10^{21} atoms cm^{-3}
277 from the top surface to ~ 2.4 mm into the film. It then increases to 4.37×10^{23} atoms
278 cm^{-3} when the substrate is reached due to diffusion of oxygen from the substrate.

279 These results are consistent with the EDX mapping and show that although the level
280 of O and C are low they are too high for application in photovoltaic devices. Current
281 work is investigating the reduction of C and O within the film as well as producing
282 films with columnar growth for solar application. However, the method described
283 herein involves a straightforward one-pot solution based technique that is easily
284 scalable and the formation of GaAs films with good crystallinity and stoichiometry is
285 possible.

286

287

288 **Conclusions**

289

290 The novel deposition of polycrystalline GaAs films on glass substrates has been
291 achieved from the AACVD of a one-pot solution of commercially available
292 presursors, $\text{As}(\text{NMe}_2)_3$ and GaMe_3 in toluene. Films were stoichiometric when the
293 $\text{As}(\text{NMe}_2)_3$ and GaMe_3 ratio in the AACVD solution was 1.5 to 1 and were relatively
294 low in carbon and oxygen contaminations as determined by cross sectional EDX
295 mapping. SEM micrographs showed the films to have a structured morphology due to
296 the high CVD growth rate. Further work is being undertaken in the group to reduce
297 contamination and to produce films with less featured morphology that can be used
298 for a photovoltaic device.

299

300 **Acknowledgements**

301 Applied Materials Inc. are thanked for funding and a studentship (SS). Dr. Ghazel
302 Saheli is thanked for XPS depth profiling.

303
304
305

References

- [¹] M. Graetzel, R. A. J. Janssen, D. B. Mitzi, E. H. Sargent, *Nature*, **2012**, 488, 304.
- [²] A. C. Arias, J. D. Mackenzie, I. McCulloch, J. Rivnay, A. Salleo, *Chem. Rev.* **2010**, 110, 3.
- [³] T. Shimoda, Y. Matsuki, M. Furusawa, T. Aoki, I. Yudasak, H. Tanaka, H. Iwasawa, D. Wang, M. Miyasaka, Y. Takeuchi, *Nature*, **2006**, 440, 783.
- [⁴] J. S. Blakemore, *J. Appl. Phys.*, **1982**, 53, R123.
- [⁵] W. W. Bett, F. Dimroth, G. Stollwerck, O. V. Sulima, *Appl. Phys. A*, **1999**, 69, 119.
- [⁶] M. A. Green, K. Emery, Y. Hishikawa, W. Warta, E. D. Dunlop, *Prog. Photovolt: Res. Appl.*, **2013**, 21, 1.
- [⁷] J. Yoon, S. Jo, I. S. Chun, I. Jung, H. S. Kim, M. Meitl, E. Menard, X. Li, J. J. Coleman, U. Paik, J. A. Rogers, *Nature*, **2010**, 465, 329.
- [⁸] A. R. Gobat, M. F. Lamorte, G. W. McIver, *IRE Trans. Military Elec.*, **1962**, 20.
- [⁹] C. W. Cheng, K. T. Shiu, N. Li, S. J. Han, L. Shi, D. K. Sadana, *Nat. Commun.*, **2013**, 4, 1577.
- [¹⁰] W. Shockley, H. J. Queisser, *J. Appl. Phys.* **1961**, 32, 510.
- [¹¹] H. M. Manasevit, W. I. Simpson, *J. Electrochem Soc.*, **1969**, 116, 1725.
- [¹²] S. Sathasivam, R. R. Arnepalli, K. Bhaskar, K. Singh, R. Visser, C. Blackman, C. J. Carmalt, *Chem. Mater.* 2014, submitted.
- [¹³] A. H. Cowley, R. A. Jones, *Angew. Chem., Int. Engl.*, **1989**, 75, 101.
- [¹⁴] M. A. Arif, B. L. Benac, A. Cowley, R. Geerts, R. A. Jones, A. Jones, K. B. Kidd, C. M. Nunn, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1988**, 110, 6248.
- [¹⁵] F. Cheng, K. George, A. L. Hector, M. Jura, A. Kroner, W. Levason, J. Nesbitt, G. Reid, D. C. Smith, J. W. Wilson, *Chem. Mater.*, **2011**, 23, 5217.
- [¹⁶] M. A. Malik, M. Afzaal, P. O'Brien, *Chem. Rev.* **2010**, 110, 4417.
- [¹⁷] C. J. Carmalt, S. Basharat, *Comprehensive Organometallic Chemistry III*, R. M. Crabtree and D. M. P. Mingos (Eds), **2007**, Volume 12, p1-34. Elsevier.
- [¹⁸] D. A. Bohling, C. R. Abernathy, K. F. Jensen, *J. Crystal Growth*, **1994**, 136, 118.
- [¹⁹] B. Q. Shi, C. W. Tu, *J. Electronic Materials*, **1999**, 28, 43.
- [²⁰] M. Imaizumi, M. Adachi, Y. Fujii, Y. Hayashi, T. Soga, T. Jimbo, M. Umeno, *J. Cryst. Growth*, **2000**, 221, 688.
- [²¹] R. R. Campomanes, J. H. Dias da Silva, J. Vilcarromero, L. P. Cardoso, *J. Non-Cryst. Solids*, **2002**, 299-302, 788.
- [²²] P. Marchand, I. A. Hassan, I. P. Parkin, C. J. Carmalt, *Dalton Trans*, **2013**, 9406.
- [²³] C. E. Knapp, G. Hyett, I. P. Parkin, C. J. Carmalt, *Chem. Mater.*, **2011**, 23, 1719.
- [²⁴] L. G. Bloor, J. Manzi, R. Binions, I. P. Parkin, D. Pugh, A. Afonja, C. S. Blackman, S. Sathasivam, C. J. Carmalt, *Chem. Mater.*, **2012**, 24, 2864.
- [²⁵] Z. Synowiec, D. Radziejewicz, I. Lindert-Zborowska, *Advanced Semiconductor Devices and Microsystems.*, ASDAM 2000 Third International Euro Conference, 2000, 289, 293
- [²⁶] S. Sathasivam, PhD thesis, University College London 2012.
- [²⁷] L. K. Krannich, C. L. Watkins, D. K. Srivastava, *Polyhedron*, **1990**, 9, 289.
- [²⁸] C. J. Thomas, L. K. Krannich, C. L. Watkins, *Polyhedron*, **1993**, 9, 89.
- [²⁹] P. Scherrer, *Gottinger Nachrichten Gesell.*, 1918, **2**, 98
- [³⁰] S. J. S. Qazi, A. R. Rennie, J. K. Cockcroft, M. Vickers, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, **2009**, 338, 105.
- [³¹] G. Abstreiter, E. Bauser, A. Fischer, K. Ploog, *Appl. Phys.* **1978**, 16, 345
- [³²] I. D. Desnica, M. Ivanda, M. Kranjčec, R. Murri, N. Pinto, *J. Non-Crystalline Solid*, **1994**, **170**, 263.
- [³³] A. C. Adams, B. R. Pruniaux, *J. Electrochem Soc.*, 1973, **120**, 408.
- [³⁴] P. A. Bertrand, *J. Vac. Sci. Technol.*, **1981**, 18, 28.

-
- [³⁵] S. Basharat, C. J. Carmalt, R. Binions, R. Palgrave, I. P. Parkin, *Dalton Trans*, **2008**, 591.
- [³⁶] G. Leonhardt, A. Berndtsson, J. Hedman, L. Klasson, R. Nilsson, *Phys. Status Solidi B.*, **1973**, 60, 241.