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**Novel Polymer Thin Film Process Using Supercritical Carbon Dioxide as an
Environmentally Green Solvent**

A Thesis Presented

by

Peter Gin

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in Partial Fulfillment of the

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Peter Gin

We, the thesis committee for the above candidate for the
Master of Science degree, hereby recommend
acceptance of this thesis.

Tadanori Koga – Thesis Advisor

Assistant Professor, Materials Science and Engineering

Michael Dudley - Chairperson of Defense

Professor, Materials Science and Engineering

Jon Sokolov – Committee Member

Professor, Materials Science and Engineering

This thesis is accepted by the Graduate School

Lawrence Martin
Dean of the Graduate School

Abstract of the Thesis

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The utilization of supercritical fluids (SCFs) has recently become prominent in a number of polymer processes such as inducing the ordering of block copolymer templates, synthesizing nanoporous material, and spatially distributing nanoparticles in a matrix. For such processes, conventional techniques have relied heavily on the use of toxic organic solvents such as chloroform and toluene. In contrast, certain SCFs, such as supercritical carbon dioxide (scCO₂), have been distinguished as a “green” alternative because they are nontoxic, nonflammable, and inexpensive. Furthermore, the easily attainable critical temperature and pressure ($T_c=31.3$ °C and $P_c=7.38$ MPa, respectively) make it an ideal solvent choice for polymers that degrade at low temperatures. In the following, I describe the research characterizing the effects of scCO₂ on polymer thin films and brushes, specifically their swollen structures. This was achieved using multiple tools including, Neutron Reflectivity, X-Ray Scattering, and various microscopy techniques. I also present and recommend on-going and future work.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Supercritical carbon dioxide as a solvent for polymers

Environmentally benign supercritical fluids, such as supercritical carbon dioxide (scCO₂) are well regarded and studied as an alternative to conventional organic solvents used in polymer processing. CO₂ is nonflammable and nontoxic in all phases, making it considerably less harmful than solvents in its class. Organic solvents used in polymer processes are often costly to procure and difficult to dispose of, whereas CO₂ is readily available, through practices such as carbon capture, and may be released into the atmosphere or recycled after processing. Supercritical CO₂ has been shown to be a practicable, green choice for processes such as inducing self assembly of block copolymer templates [1], formation of nanoporous films [2, 3], and spatial implantation of nanoparticles in polymer matrices [4], of which are traditionally achieved using organic solvents or excess thermal energy. Supercritical fluids are known to produce annealing type effects on polymer thin films at modest conditions. [5, 6] The supercritical phase occurs as a result of elevated temperature and pressure above their respective critical points, as seen in Fig. 1-1, at which point the fluid exhibits highly penetrable gas-like diffusivity characteristics coupled with liquid-like density. For CO₂, the critical temperature, T_c is 31.3 C and critical pressure, P_c is 7.38 MPa. Comparatively, the supercritical phase for CO₂ is more readily attainable than other fluids; i.e. H₂O (T_c = 374.2, P_c = 22.06) [7]. Variation in temperature and pressure of supercritical fluids enables the ability to control density dependent solvent properties [8]. Consequently, only small manipulations are necessary to induce physical as well as thermodynamic and transport properties of the polymer. This highly tunable nature effectively makes supercritical fluids a “universal” solvent for polymers. Because of the novel features of scCO₂, we wish to further develop a better understanding of the processing abilities of this green solvent, especially for polymer thin films. We will try to achieve this by systematically testing and measuring: (i) the physical changes induced by scCO₂ for various polymer systems, (ii) the effect of scCO₂ on the film’s thermal and mechanical properties, and (iii) the effectiveness of additives, i.e. pre-solvents and cross-linkers for enhancing the abilities of scCO₂. In doing so, it may further propel SCFs as a more valid environmentally friendly alternative to organic solvents for polymer thin film processing.

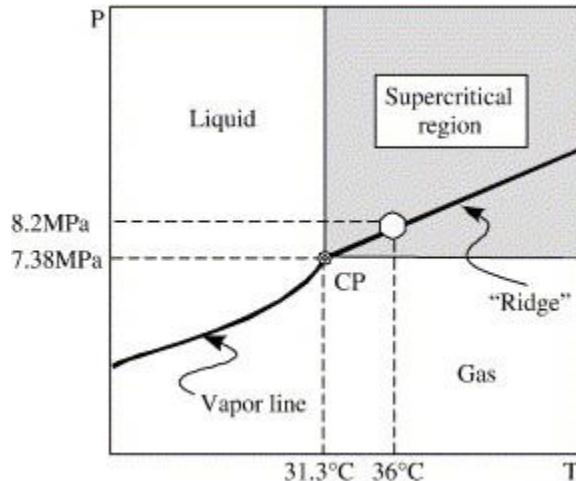


Figure 1-1. The location of the supercritical regime and density fluctuation ridge for CO₂

1.2 Solvent quality of supercritical carbon dioxide for polymers

Good miscibility between the supercritical fluid and polymer enhances swelling effects. “CO₂-philic” polymers are known to have favorable free energies of mixing with

CO₂. As a result, the compound can be dissolved in CO₂ under relatively moderate conditions ($T < 100$ °C and $P < 50$ MPa) [18]. When exposed to scCO₂, this class of polymer exhibits a significant degree of swelling. Unfortunately, the class of polymers that are CO₂-philic is very limited. Highly fluorinated or silicone based polymers are examples of just a hand-few of polymers that can be processed with CO₂ easily. The effectiveness of a solvent is determined by its ability to adequately dissolve one material while leaving other materials unaffected. To effectively dissolve a polymer, the solvent must overcome van der Waals forces due to intermolecular polarities in the long chained molecules. This is accomplished when both the solvent and solute are miscible with one another due to strong molecular attractions. Weak attraction to the solvent will not cause the polymer molecules to separate, as they are more attracted to each other. Solubility may be presented using numerous scales. The most applicable and commonly used system is the Hildenbrand solubility parameter. The Hildenbrand solubility parameter δ is a numerical value defined as the square root of the cohesive energy density

$$\delta = \sqrt{c} = \sqrt{\frac{\Delta H - RT}{V_m}} \quad (1.1)$$

where c is the cohesive energy density, ΔH is the heat of vaporization, R is the gas constant, T is the temperature, and V_m is the molar volume. This numerical system allows for the grouping of similar solvents of comparable internal energies. Components with similar Hildenbrand solubility parameters will be attracted to one another and would be miscible. Consequently, a group of solvents with similar solubility parameters may dissolve the same polymer. Polymers which cannot be dissolved exhibit swelling behavior in precisely the same manner. The extent of swelling in polymers is greatest when the differences in the Hildenbrand values are low. Supercritical CO₂ as a solvent is not able to dissolve polymers but as a result of molecular attraction to the polymer can produce this swelling effect [19].

1.3 “Density fluctuating” supercritical carbon dioxide

According to the molecular dynamics simulation of a two-dimensional Lennard–Jones fluid, scCO₂ is composed of high-density and low-density regions, resulting in density fluctuations, as seen in Fig. 1-2 [24]. As the critical point of a fluid is approached, the correlation length and the isothermal compressibility, κ_T , deviate [25]. The density fluctuations, $\langle(\Delta N)^2\rangle/\langle N\rangle$, witnessed can then be expressed by using κ_T :

$$\langle(\Delta N)^2\rangle/\langle N\rangle = (N/V)\kappa_T k_B T, \quad (1.2)$$

where N is the number of molecules in the corresponding volume V , k_B is the Boltzman constant, κ_T is the isothermal compressibility, and T is the thermodynamic absolute temperature [25]. If the κ_T values are known as a function of temperature and pressure, we can describe the thermodynamic behavior in $\langle(\Delta N)^2\rangle/\langle N\rangle$ of SCFs. Fig. 1-3a shows the $\langle(\Delta N)^2\rangle/\langle N\rangle$ values of CO₂ under the isothermal conditions near the critical point. The κ_T values

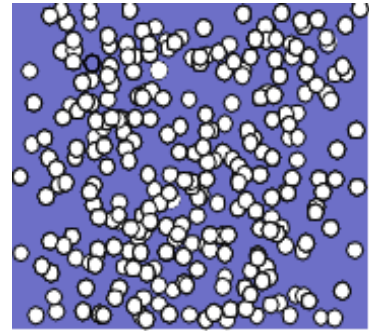


Figure 1-2. Molecular distribution in SCFs shows density fluctuations

were obtained using the equation of state of CO₂ given by Huang et al. [26]. From the figure we can see that the characteristic features of the density fluctuations in the supercritical region are: (i) there is a peak in each lateral curve, (ii) the amplitude of the fluctuations seems to diverge as the critical point is approached, and (iii) the width of the peak broadens with increasing pressure [27]. By extrapolating, the locus of the peaks in the $\langle(\Delta N)^2\rangle / \langle N\rangle$ curves forms a “ridge” of the density fluctuations, as shown in Fig. 1-1. The ridge separates the more liquid-like and more gas-like regimes in the supercritical region. Along the ridge, the maximum or minimum of various physical quantities of SCFs, related to the second derivatives of the Gibbs free energy, such as isothermal compressibility, thermal conductivity, and partial molar volumes, is witnessed.

1.4 Novel features of density fluctuating scCO₂ for polymer thin films

1.4.1 Processing amorphous polymer thin films using Supercritical Carbon Dioxide

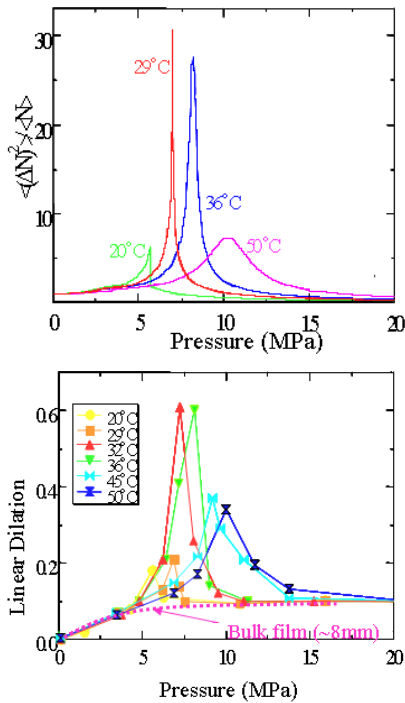


Figure 1-3. (a) Maximum density fluctuations of CO₂ under isobaric conditions corresponds directly to (b) the maximum linear dilatation

Anomalous swelling in scCO₂ was investigated by Sirard et al. using in situ spectroscopic ellipsometry on PDMS and polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA) [11]. Our previous work explored swelling maxima of amorphous polymer thin films supported on inorganic substrates using in situ neutron reflectivity [10, 12]. From the studies, it has been concluded that the anomalous swelling behavior occurs along the density fluctuation ridge [14, 15]. At ridge conditions, excess CO₂ at the polymer / CO₂ interface can diffuse readily through amorphous films of thicknesses less than 10R_g causing anomalous swelling. Swelling in the films resulted in low density films free of any visible voids.

Using neutron reflectivity, concentration profiles were obtained for amorphous polymers of varying CO₂ miscibility. Analysis of the profiles reveals that anomalous swelling occurs primarily as result of interfacial effects, namely at the polymer/ CO₂ interface.

1.4.2 Polymer Brushes in density fluctuating Supercritical Carbon Dioxide

Similar studies were performed to investigate the swelling behavior of end-grafted brush polymers [16-18]. Polymer brushes are formed if the monomer density in an end-grafted polymer layer becomes sufficiently large causing the chains to stretch away from the surface. Because one end of the polymer chain is tethered to the substrate, Koga et al explored whether this confinement of the chain ends leads to a different conformation than that of the free-chain situation in scCO₂. The equilibrium brush structure is determined by a balance between the interactions that promote stretching of the polymer chains and the associated loss of chain conformational entropy [17]. In addition, because polymer brushes can stretch without being removed from the substrate even in a good solvent, the solvent quality of density fluctuating scCO₂ could be investigated on the basis of the chain conformation perpendicular to the grafting surface [18]. Using in-situ NR, a quantitative study of the solvent quality of scCO₂ was performed near the locus of maximum density inhomogeneity. The NR study showed that the solvent quality of density fluctuating scCO₂ for deuterated polystyrene (dPS) was still poor at the ridge condition where the excess swelling (~30%) occurred.

1.4.3 The Effect of Polymer Elasticity and Crystallinity on Swelling

From the theories of Flory and Huggins, polymer chain length and chain flexibility, significantly influence the entropy of mixing. The mixing of polymers with solvents is said to be more favorable as the chain size decrease because the entropy of mixing is greater. Flexible chains were also described as producing greater entropy of mixing, and stiff chains tended towards phase separation in mixtures. Similarly, comparisons of swelling behavior between glassy and rubbery amorphous polymer thin films have shown that the magnitude of anomalous swelling subsequent to scCO₂ exposure is also a function of initial elasticity [12]. Accordingly, it is believed that to witness maximum density dilation, the polymer must exist in a rubbery state. In crystalline polymers, it was found that the extent of crystallization can affect anomalous behavior. Li et al. reports an unusually small degree of swelling in crystalline polyethylene oxide (PEO) analogous to the higher solubility of CO₂ in amorphous PEO reported by Weidner et al [20, 21]. The anomalous maxima, though evident, is significantly suppressed by the crystalline structure. The ability for scCO₂ to swell polymer thin films is a function of the fluid's ability to fully penetrate the film at the interface and diffuse throughout. For crystalline thin films, its rigid structure is believed to retard this behavior, thus swelling is less pronounced.

1.5 Research Objectives

As discussed in the aforementioned, the degree of anomalous swelling is affected by the confinement of the polymer, its miscibility with the solvent, polymer elasticity, and the crystal structure. There is currently an incomplete understanding of how each factor influences the swelling phenomena. The objectives of this research are therefore to

systematically develop a better understanding of the effects of scCO₂ on a variety of polymer thin films and brushes using three approaches: (i) study the conformation of a confined CO₂-philic fluorinated polymer in scCO₂, (ii) enhancing the swelling of immiscible semi-crystalline polymer thin films in scCO₂ using an intermediate solvent, (iii) tuning the density-dependent properties of the polymer by introducing molecular level porosity.

When a polymer film is exposed to scCO₂ at the onset of the critical point, at the density fluctuation ridge, anomalous swelling will occur. For polymer brushes, of which the chain ends are chemically grafted to a solid surface, the confinement of the ends may lead to a different conformation than of the non-tethered situation in scCO₂. Koga et al. showed that the anomalous swelling of glassy polymer brushes in immiscible scCO₂ is similar to that observed in the unanchored analogous, even at the density fluctuation ridge [18]. Ivkov et al. showed that by using a theta solvent, the degree of swelling in the polymer films are enhanced compared to a poor solvent [22]. To understand systematically the effect of solvent quality on excess swelling in polymer brushes, we explore the conformation of CO₂-philic fluorinated polymers at varying solvent qualities, and at the density fluctuation ridge.

In order to increase the swelling ability of crystalline polymers, it is necessary to improve the polymer-CO₂ miscibility. In most crystalline and semi-crystalline polymers the amount of intermolecular forces holding the molecules together are much greater than their attraction to scCO₂. It is possible though to use a secondary medium as a precursor to scCO₂. According to solvent mixture theory, the Hildebrand value of a mixture of two solvents is the average of each individual solvent by volume [19]. Rather than creating a mixture of solvents, it may be possible to utilize each solvent individually to achieve the desired result.

Polymer thin films exhibit thickness dependent properties such as glass transition temperature, wetting, and phase equilibrium [20, 23]. Properties such as diffusivity, viscosity, and dielectric constant, on the other hand, are density dependence. Density fluctuating scCO₂ has the ability to modify both the thickness and the density of polymer thin films. High penetrable and dense CO₂ at ridge conditions can diffuse throughout the film enabling the polymer to swell. The swollen structure of the film can be captured by using a quenching process. Highly pressurized CO₂ is removed by quick evaporation into the atmosphere leaving the polymer films in a vitrified state. Consequently, the thickness of the processed films is increased. Molecular scale porosity within the film is also a byproduct of the caused by the inhomogeneous concentration of CO₂ at the ridge. The finite porosity has been shown to effectively lower the density of the polymer film.

1.6 Research Approach and Organization

This report discusses novel methods for utilizing scCO₂ for the processing of polymer thin films and brushes. We investigated a number of polymer systems (amorphous homopolymer, semi-crystalline homopolymer, and brush polymer) supported on silicon substrates fabricated using different methods, including spin casting and chemical vapor deposition. Thicknesses of films and brushes were typically below 1000 Angstroms of various molecular weights.

Polymer systems were exposed to scCO₂ in a high pressure cell. The body of the high-pressure cell was machined from 4340 steel. Sapphire was selected for the optical window material because of high transparency for neutrons. Furthermore, sapphire has high tensile strength (elastic limit 448 MPa), resistance to corrosion, high-energy damage threshold, and low absorbance. Two cylindrical sapphire windows (2.4 cm in thick, o.d. 5 cm) were installed for transmitting the incident beam and for receiving the reflected beams. The sealing was achieved by a combination of Teflon and a nylon gasket placed between the sapphire windows. The cell had a volume of about 10 mL and a maximum pressure rating of 140.0 MPa. CO₂ used in this study has a purity of 99.9%. CO₂ was loaded into the cell by means of a hand-operated syringe pump (HIP Equip.) to the desired pressure. Prior to pressurization, the air space is purged with the gas at low pressure. Figure 2b shows the general experimental arrangements for experiments. CO₂ pressure inside the cell was monitored by using an OMEGADYNE pressure transducer (TH-1) with a pressure gauge meter (INFS-0001-DC1). The temperature of the cell was controlled by a temperature controller (CAL Controls) equipped with heaters that were installed on the outer side of the cell and a thermocouple (Rama Co.). The temperature of the system was controlled with an accuracy of ± 0.1 °C, and the stability of pressure during the measurements was less than $\pm 0.2\%$.

The behaviors of the polymers were investigated using high energy neutron and X-ray spectroscopic techniques. For the polymer brush systems, in situ neutron reflectivity was used to project the effects of density fluctuations on the solubility of scCO₂. The conformation and swelling of the polymer were also investigated to determine the role of CO₂-philicity in processing with scCO₂. From the reflectivity profiles, thickness, scattering length density, and interfacial width/ roughness, of the polymer could be determined. Density profiles were modeled to project changes in polymer concentration as a function of the CO₂ solvent quality.

Various X-ray techniques were utilized to examine polymer thin films prior to and subsequent to scCO₂ exposure. The quick evaporation of CO₂ from the high pressure cell to atmospheric pressure allows us to maintain the film's swollen structure. The films are stable at room temperature which allows us to use techniques such as x-ray reflectivity and grazing incidence diffraction to probe the properties enhanced by scCO₂. X-ray reflectivity profiles provide insight into deviations of the film's thickness, density, and interfacial properties after exposure to scCO₂.

For our investigations on the enhancing the density dependent properties of polymer thin films, spectroscopic ellipsometry is employed. The ellipsometry measurements yielded changes in the film's thickness and the polymer's index of refraction (nf). The difference witnessed in nf can be used to correlate changes in the density dependent properties of the polymer.

Atomic force microscopy (AFM) is a powerful tool used to probe the topography of films. Three-dimensional topographical images of the films were produced to insure that no void or other dewetting structures were formed. From the images, cross-sectional analysis and surface roughness measurements were also performed to visually inspect the effects of scCO₂ on the film quality.

Chapter 2 of this report focuses on our neutron reflectivity study of CO₂-philic brush polymers. Because fluorinated polymers are miscible in CO₂, an in situ study is ideal to examine the configuration of polymer chains while exposed to the solvent. The

tunability of super critical fluids allows us to adjust the solvent quality of CO₂ such that a comparison with recent theory can be performed. Variation of the brush height with solvent quality is modeled using experimental measures of density profiles. Density fluctuating scCO₂ is also investigated to determine if concentration inhomogeneity affects solvent quality.

The studies in Chapter 3 examine the prospect of using an organic solvent in conjunction with scCO₂ to process and enhance swelling in crystalline and semi-crystalline polymer thin films. Crystal structure is evaluated using GID. An organic solvent is chosen based on its solubility with the polymer. Film thicknesses were characterized by XR before and after processing. Density profiles extracted from the reflectivity are examined to determine density changes in the film. We report the ability of scCO₂ to create low density polymer thin films by introducing molecular level porosity to semi-crystalline polymers. This study focuses on density dependent properties, specifically, index of refraction and dielectric constant. We examine spectroscopic ellipsometry measurements for changes in refractive index induced by scCO₂. The ability to create ultra-low dielectric constant thin films is also examined. The effect of molecular level porosity on the mechanical and thermal properties of the low density film is studied using Shear Modulation Force Microscopy (SMFM) and Mass Spectroscopy respectively.

Finally, the major conclusions from the above research are presented in Chapter 4. Future work regarding the stability of polymer thin films after processing with scCO₂ at high temperatures is discussed. The unified scCO₂ process will also be examined for its validity to enhance swelling in amorphous glassy polymer films.

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Chapter 2: Swollen Structures of CO₂-philic Polymer Brushes in Density Fluctuating Supercritical Carbon Dioxide.

The utilization of supercritical carbon dioxide (scCO₂) has recently become prominent in a number of polymer processes, and has been distinguished as a “green” alternative to conventional techniques using toxic organic solvents. We subsequently established new methodology that facilitates enhanced swelling, i.e. as much as 30-60 %, in a wide variety of polymer thin films, specifically when the bulk polymers have very poor miscibility with CO₂. However, it is unclear whether this anomalous behavior, which occurs within a narrow set of operating conditions, called the “density fluctuation ridge”, is specific for CO₂ immiscible polymers or if it can be witnessed in polymers of different inherent miscibilities. We aim to further apply our technique to “CO₂-philic” polymers in order to determine the role of inherent miscibility on the extent of excess swelling in polymer thin films. In this presentation, we describe the use of in situ neutron reflectivity (NR) to examine polymer enhanced swelling in density fluctuating scCO₂. We report the swelling behavior of semi-crystalline and amorphous poly {2-(perfluorooctyl)ethyl acrylate} brushes, which are not only highly miscible with scCO₂ but also an ideal system for the study of chain conformations by varying the solvent quality of scCO₂.

2.1 Introduction

A significant challenge that hinders the prospect of scCO₂ as a valid alternative to organic solvents is that many nonvolatile compounds are immiscible in CO₂. CO₂ has no dipole moment and has a low polarizability per volume which causes little interaction between the compounds¹. These weak repulsive forces are not sufficient enough to overcome the attractive van der Waals forces between the molecules to induce solvation. One approach to enhance CO₂ solubility to induce larger repulsive forces between the polymer chains making the contact with solvent more favorable. Densely packed polymer chains will repel from each other breaking van der Waals forces. A stable method for creating compact polymer layers is to permanently graft the chain ends to a substrate surface². Once the monomer packing density becomes sufficiently large at the grafted surface, the polymer chains will stretch to avoid contact with neighboring chains and form a polymer brush.

The equilibrium polymer brush conformation is ultimately determined by interactions that promote chain stretching, which dissects the van der Waals forces between the particle cores, and favorable free energies of mixing with the solvent. Polymers with low cohesive energy densities and low surface tension are said to be CO₂-philic because their free energies of mixing are negative³. This limited class of polymers includes fluorinated polymers. This high solubility of fluorinated polymers in both liquid and supercritical CO₂ provides an excellent opportunity to examine the extent of enhanced solubility of end-grafting fluorinated polymer brushes. The combination of repulsive forces between the densely tethered chains and the tendency of the fluorinated polymer to maximize favorable contacts with good solvent molecules should contribute to increase solubility in scCO₂. The best marker for the enhancement will be an increase in the swelling behavior compared to the free-chain situation. Neutron reflectivity (NR) will be used to evaluate this change. The large penetration depth and resolution inherent with neutrons makes NR an ideal tool for determining the *in situ* thickness, composition, and interfacial structure of polymer thin films immersed in fluids or gases under high pressure in thick-walled vessels. In addition, the segment density profile can be projected using NR. Previous work has shown that both the magnitude of the brush height and the approximated fit of the density profile are good indicators of solvent quality. Karim et al. showed that Toluene is a good solvent for end grafted polymer PS-SiCl₃ using neutron reflectivity. The solvent quality of scCO₂ for brush polymers was also investigated. Koga et al. showed that scCO₂ is poor solvent for deuterated-PS at various CO₂ densities including at the density fluctuation ridge. At high CO₂ density conditions, Sirard et al. was able to reach a near theta solvent for deuterated-PDMS.

For this study, poly[2-(perfluorooctyl)ethyl acrylate] (PFA-C₈) was end grafted onto a clean silicon substrate. The high solubility of PFA-C₈ in scCO₂ can be attributed to the weak intermolecular interactions associated with the high electronegativity and low polarizability of the perfluoroalkyl groups. The polymer has a glass transition temperature of 52 °C and exhibits a mesomorphic/isotropic phase transition temperature because of the long fluoroalkyl side chain crystallization at ~77 °C⁴. Recent studies have shown the viability of both liquid and scCO₂ as a coating solvent for PFA-C₈. Kim et al. were able to deposit highly uniform films of low RMS roughness (≈2 nm) with thicknesses in the range of 7–30 nm. They were able to demonstrate that dramatic differences between the solubility properties of different polymers can affect the

morphology and uniformity of films formed using liquid and supercritical carbon dioxide as a solvent. Highly uniform films of PFA-C₈ can be used in a wide array of applications including biocompatible coatings for medical devices, resists for bio-array device fabrication, or in the area of self-cleaning applications.

The objective of this chapter is to study the swelling behavior of fluorinated brush polymers at different solvent qualities and at the density fluctuation ridge. The highly tunable nature of supercritical fluids allows it to transition continuously from gas-like to liquid-like through modest changes in temperature and/or pressure. Because polymer brushes can stretch without being removed from the substrate, tuning the solvent quality of CO₂, by varying the concentration, allows us to manipulate the chain extension and conformation. Furthermore, because of the high CO₂-philicity of fluorinated polymers, the solvent range can extend from non-solvent conditions to above theta solvent, as the density of CO₂ increases. We further examine the solvent quality of CO₂ along the density fluctuation ridge, where the maximum solvent concentration inhomogeneity is defined, on the basis of determining the effect on the absolute solubility of scCO₂. In situ NR experiments were used to measure the thickness and surface concentration profiles of the fluorinated brushes as a function of the solvent quality.

2.2 Experimental Section

Neutron Reflectivity

Specular reflectivity measurements were performed on the NG7 neutron reflection spectrometer at the National Institute of Standards and Technology with a wavelength (λ) of 4.76 Å and a $\Delta\lambda/\lambda$ value of 2.5%. NR profiles were obtained as a function of wave-vector transfer $q_z = 4\pi\sin\theta/\lambda$, where θ is the angle of incidence and reflection of the neutron beam with the silicon-solvent interface. The high-pressure cell, described in chapter one, was designed and built by High Pressure Equipment Co. (Pennsylvania) specifically for these experiments. The incident neutron beam entered through one sapphire window in the cell, transverses through the edge of the silicon single crystal, reflected from the silicon-polymer-solvent interface with the reflected beam through the crystal again and finally exited through the opposite window to the detector. The stabilities of the temperature and pressure of the cell were ± 0.1 °C and $\pm 0.2\%$, respectively. The isothermal condition at 36 °C was maintained over pressures ranging from 0.1 to 14 MPa for the PFA-C₈ brushes. After each pressure change, the exposure time before data collection was approximately 1 h. The time necessary to collect the NR profiles, ranged between 50 to 80 minutes. The background scattering from pure CO₂ was also recorded simultaneously as a function of pressure because it is known to be a measure of the density fluctuations. After subtracting the background scattering intensity, we analyzed the data by comparing the observed reflectivity profiles with calculated ones based on model density profiles with three fitting parameters - film thickness, scattering length density (SLD), and interfacial roughness between the polymer and CO₂ - assuming a hyperbolic-tangent density function at the interface². To fit the data, a three layered model was compiled consisting of native silicon oxide (SiOx), PFA-C₈ brush layer, and solvent atmosphere. The real space density profiles were constructed with optimized fit parameters to best fit the data. The density profile PFA-C₈ brush was generated from

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(z) &= \phi_s [1 - (z/h)^2]^\alpha, z < h, \\ \phi(z) &= 0, z > h,\end{aligned}\tag{2.1}$$

where the main fit parameters are ϕ_s the polymer volume fraction at the silicon oxide surface, h the cutoff thickness of the profile, and α the “profile exponent” .

2.3 Results and Discussion

2.3.1 Neutron Reflectivity. Neutron scattering length density (NSLD) profiles were constructed from the best fits of the NR profiles seen in Figure 1. These profiles were subsequently converted to polymer volume fraction profiles. The NSLD of the binary mixture PFA-C₈ /CO₂ system is defined by

$$(\text{NSLD})_{\text{mix}}(z) = \phi(z)_{\text{PFA-C}_8} (\text{NSLD})_{\text{PFA-C}_8} + (1 - \phi(z)_{\text{PFA-C}_8}) (\text{NSLD})_{\text{CO}_2}\tag{2.2}$$

here $(\text{NSLD})_{\text{mix}}(z)$ is the NSLD of the mixture at a distance z from the substrate, $(\text{NSLD})_{\text{PFA-C}_8}$, and $(\text{NSLD})_{\text{CO}_2}$ are the pure component NSLD's of PFA-C₈ and CO₂, respectively, and $\phi(z)_{\text{PFA-C}_8}$ is the volume fraction of PFA-C₈ at a distance z from substrate. To ensure conservation of mass, the volume fraction profiles are calculated such that same amount of grafted polymer remains at all solvent concentrations. The resulting profiles can be seen in Fig. 2-1. At the initial atmospheric conditions, the NR profiles could be simply fit using a step function, where $\alpha \sim 0$. This suggests a highly concentrated, uniform profile throughout the thickness of the brush in a non-solvent. However, because of the solubility of PFA-C₈ in CO₂, it was not possible to satisfactorily fit the full set of data points under varying solvent densities using a simple step function. Consequently, under CO₂ conditions, it was necessary to introduce a “tail” to the profile in order to fit the data. The tail is modeled using a convolution of a normalized Gaussian of full width at half maximum Δ (tail width) in a region spanning nearly $\pm 2 \Delta$ about the cutoff length. The volume fraction profiles indicate that as the CO₂ density increases, the regions near the solvent/brush interface become more parabolic in shape as the brush dissipates into the solvent. Good fits were obtained with uniform concentrations in the polymer layer for the non-solvent condition and no preferential adsorption of either CO₂ or polymer at the Si substrate.

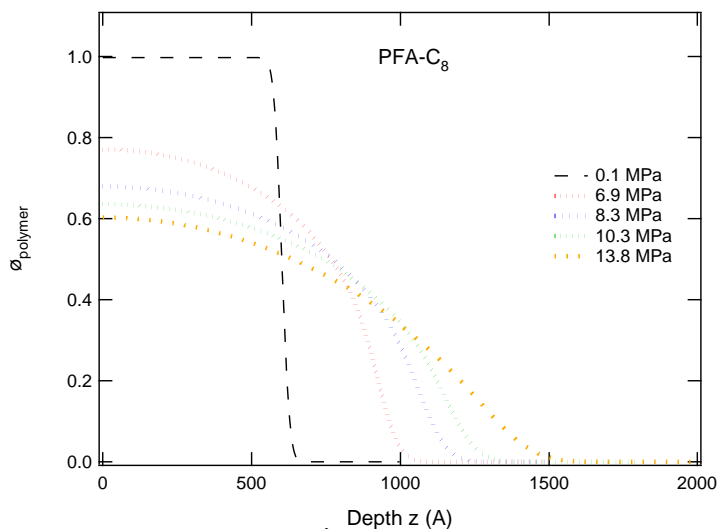


Figure 2-1. Polymer volume fraction $\phi(z)$ as a function of distance from the grafting surface in air and in CO₂ at 6.9 MPa, 8.3 MPa, 10.3 MPa, and 13.8 MPa, under isothermal conditions (36 C)

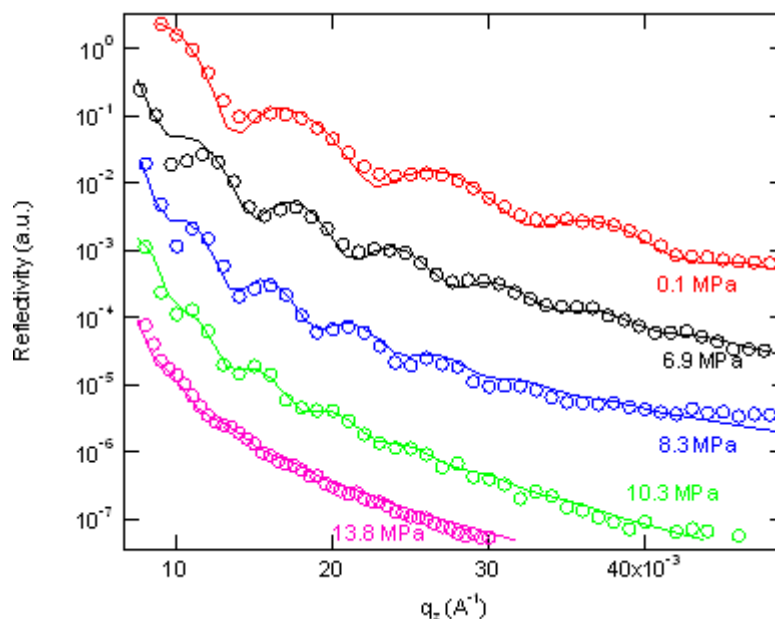


Figure 2-2. Neutron reflectivity profiles under isothermal conditions (36 C) for PFA-C₈ in air and in CO₂ at 6.9 MPa, 8.3 MPa, 10.3 MPa, and 13.8 MPa. For clarity, the profiles are offset by various orders of magnitude.

2.3.2 Brush Swelling. Next, we consider the overall brush swelling with varying solvent quality. Figure 2-2 shows the experimental neutron reflectivity profiles from the brush in a poor solvent (air) and in a good solvent (CO₂) in a pressure range between 6.9 and 13.8 MPa at isothermal conditions (36 C). From the reflectivity profile, the brush height (h) can be estimated $h \sim 2\pi/\Delta q$, where Δq is the distance between successive peak oscillations, for both the dry thickness of the brush and in CO₂ atmosphere. For the non-solvent case of a dry brush in air, the brush height h is ~ 600 Å. It is evident from the reflectivity that the separation distances of the fringes decrease subsequent to exposure to the solvent. This occurrence is noticeable at all of the generated pressures, with Δq decreasing at each elevated pressure experiment. From the estimation, the brush height increases or swells as a result of scCO₂ exposure. The corresponding heights the PFA-C₈ brush, calculated from the best fit of the NR profiles changed to 950 Å at 6.9 MPa, 1100 Å at 8.3 MPa, 1200 Å at 10.3 MPa, and 1400 Å at 13.8 MPa. Near the bulk theta pressure of CO₂, the brush height $h_{\theta} \sim 1100$ Å. This pressure closely corresponds to the maximum CO₂ density fluctuation at 36 C. The thicknesses of the PFA-C₈ brushes normalized by its theta value h/h_{θ} , attained from the best fit of NR profiles, are plotted as a function of the reduced pressure variable, $\rho = (P - \theta)/P$, shown in Figure 2-3.

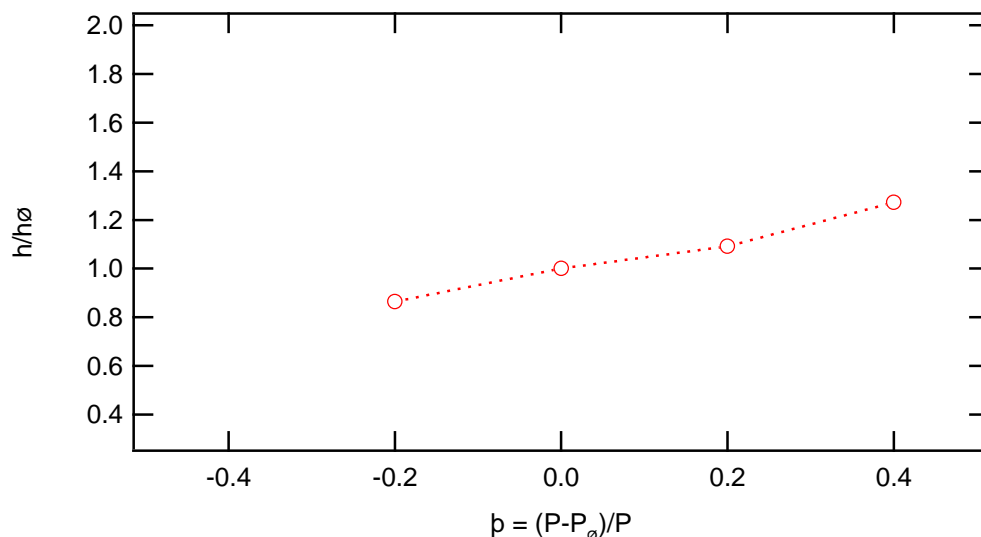


Figure 2-3. Solvent quality dependence of brush height normalized by its θ value, $h_0 = 1100 \text{ \AA}$ in reduced pressure parameters, p . Here $p_0 = 8.3 \text{ MPa}$ corresponds to the brush height at approximately the θ value.

Figure 2-4 shows the pressure dependence of linear dilation (S_f) for the PFA-C₈ brush, which was calculated with the equation $S_f = (L - L_0)/L_0$, where L and L_0 are the measured thicknesses of the swollen and unswollen polymer brushes, respectively. From the figure, a noticeable anomalous peak is present at the density fluctuation ridge. The degree of excess swelling however is less significant compared to previous studies that show very large anomalous swelling behavior for CO₂ insoluble films. One possible explanation for the small excess swelling is that CO₂ penetration is hindered by the semi-crystalline nature of PFA-C₈. Near the surface of film, PFA-C₈ exhibits a high density area where molecular chains assemble in hexagonal packing normal to the substrate⁵. The rigid structures at the surface are likely to perturb the anomalous swelling at the density fluctuation ridge as it has been shown that this phenomenon is principally a surface effect.

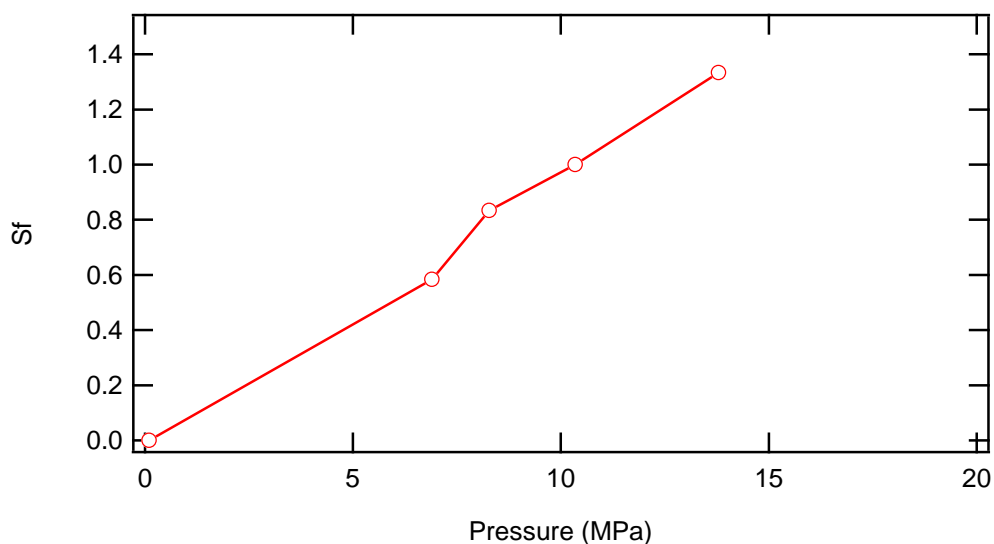


Figure 2-4. Pressure dependence of S_f for PFA-C₈ brush at $T = 36 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$

At higher pressures, where density fluctuations can be ignored, the PFA-C₈ chains extend over 100% from their initial thickness. Qualitatively, this means that the polymer chains are extending themselves to maximize favorable contacts with the atmosphere. For immiscible polymers, the films remain collapsed away from the ridge, even at high pressures. Therefore, by increasing by the CO₂ pressure, the density is elevated, resulting in increased solvent quality for PFA-C₈. It is noteworthy that reducing the solvent quality to $\alpha \sim 0$ by depressurization of CO₂, causes contraction of the brush back to the dry thickness, which suggest a reversible swelling phenomenon.

According to the self-consistent field (SCF) theory^{6, 7}, in the limit of infinitely long chains, for a good solvent the profile exponent $\alpha = 1$ and for a θ solvent $\alpha = 0.5$. We see Fig 2-5, as the concentration of CO₂ increases, the value of α increase from $\alpha \sim 0$ (in air) past $\alpha = 0.5$ and approach $\alpha = 1.0$. Solvent quality improves at 6.9 MPa, but remains in the poor solvent regime. Near theta-solvent conditions are reached at 8.3 MPa and tend towards the good solvent regime when the CO₂ pressure is at 10.3 MPa. At 13.8 MPa, the highest pressure where specular reflectivity fringes are still noticeable, $\alpha = 0.8$. As the density of CO₂ increases beyond this point, the large roughness at the solvent/brush interface hinders specular reflection such that no recognizable fringes necessary to fit the profiles are present.

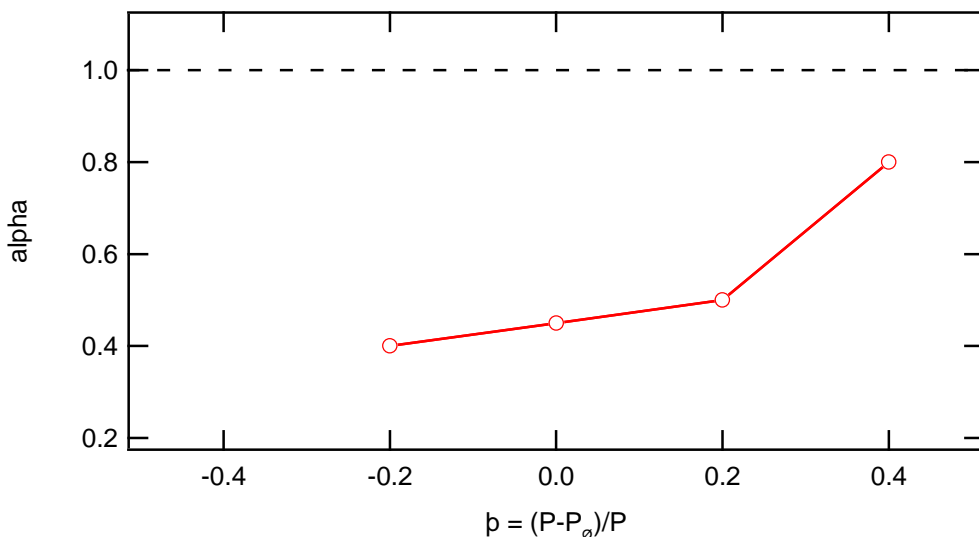


Figure 2-5. Variation of profile exponent α as a function of the reduced pressure variable ρ . The horizontal dashed line corresponds to the SCF prediction of α for a good solvent.

2.3.3 Interfacial Structure. Finally, we discuss the variation of the tail or interfacial width as a function of solvent quality. Figure 2-6 depicts the solvent quality dependence of the normalized interfacial width (Δ/Δ_θ). Near the theta pressure of CO₂, the width of the brush tail, $\Delta_\theta \sim 65$ Å. Under non-solvent conditions, the interface between the solvent and brush is sharp, $\Delta \sim 21$ Å. This is consistent with the numerical calculations of the SCF lattice model, which states that the shape of the brush profile in a poor solvent is box like. Qualitatively, this means that there is not enough attraction between the polymer and solvent to overcome the interchain interactions. As a result, the brush does not diffuse into the solvent, but rather remained concentrated uniformly

throughout the profile. Conversely, as the CO₂ pressure and thus solvent quality increased, the parabolic tail encompassed a larger portion of total brush width due to strong interaction between the chains and solvent. This leads to a diluted interface and less distinguishable brush and CO₂ regions. The width of brush tail is very sizable in the good solvent regime. The large interfacial width at higher CO₂ densities indicates that PFA-C₈ is soluble in CO₂.

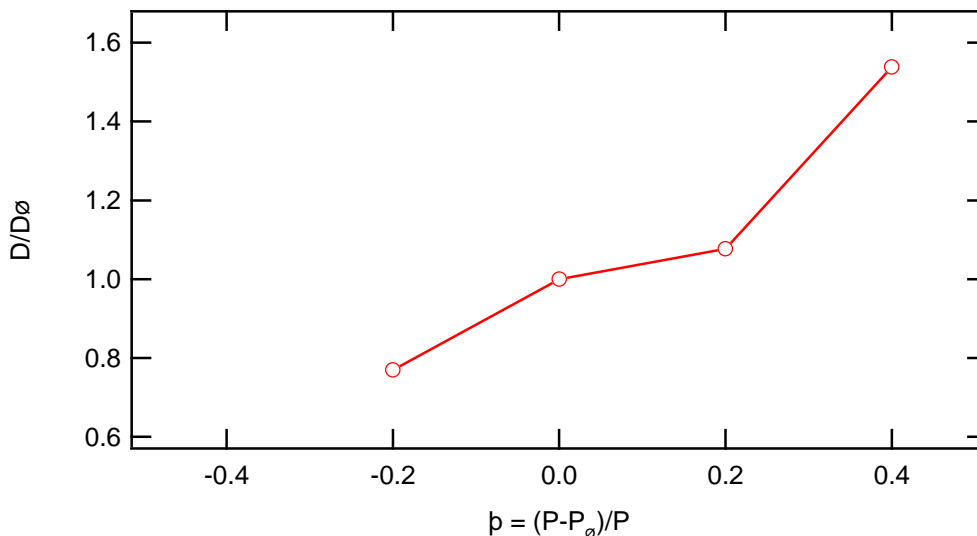


Figure 2-6. Solvent quality dependence of brush interfacial width Δ normalized by its θ value as a function of the reduced pressure variable, ρ . Here $\Delta_\theta = 65 \text{ \AA}$ corresponds to the brush height at approximately the θ value.

2.4 Conclusion

The swelling behavior and density profiles of end-grafted PFA-C₈ brush in supercritical CO₂ were measured using in-situ neutron reflectivity. By varying the CO₂ density, the solvent quality was tunable over a nearly complete range from non-solvent conditions, past θ -solvent, and into the good solvent regime. As the solvent quality improved, the polymer volume fraction profiles subsequently evolves from block profiles to more parabolic profiles as the non-tethered chain ends extend into the solvent to maximizes favorable contacts. The thicknesses and interfacial widths also increase as the CO₂ densities increase. The extents of these changes are much more significant than for previous studies of polymer brushes in compressible solvents because of the miscibility of PFA-C₈ in CO₂. The tethered ends of the brush also contribute to maximum chain extension, as the polymer chains can stretch without being removed from the substrate unlike the free-chain situation in scCO₂. However, the anomalous swelling at the density ridge is suppressed by crystalline structures near the surface of the film. Further study of this observation will be presented in the following chapters.

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Chapter 3: Introduction of molecular scale porosity into semicrystalline polymer thin films using supercritical carbon dioxide

We report supercritical carbon dioxide scCO_2 technology used for forming a large degree of molecular scale porosity in semicrystalline polymer thin films. The following three steps were integrated: (i) pre-exposure to an organic solvent which melted crystalline structures but did not cause a decrease in thickness, (ii) scCO_2 exposure under the unique conditions where the anomalous absorption of CO_2 occurred, and (iii) subsequent quick evaporation of CO_2 to preserve the swollen structures. This unified process resulted in homogenous low-density polyphenylene vinylene films (a 15% reduction in density) with the sustained structure for at least 6 months at room temperature.

3.1 Introduction

With the continuous drive and demand for higher performance integrated circuits coupled with increased portability requirements, novel approaches towards the development of new low-dielectric constant (low- k) materials must be investigated. According to the National Technology Roadmap, the next generation of interlayer dielectric materials for microelectronics must have an ultra low-dielectric constant ($k < 2.0$) with thicknesses of less than 650 Å [1]. In addition, the materials must meet the stringent process and reliability requirements such as thermal stability, good mechanical properties, good adhesion, etc. Excluding the incorporation of fluorine to lower material's polarity, the only way to achieve such low- k is by lowering the density of the materials by introducing nanometer sized pores into an initially low- k material²⁻⁵.

Recently, we have developed a new “green” process to create low-density amorphous polymer thin films with a large degree of molecular scale porosity using supercritical carbon dioxide (scCO₂, $T_c = 31.3$ °C and $P_c = 7.38$ MPa)⁶. The formation of the low-density films have been achieved by the novel features of scCO₂: (i) anomalous expansion of the spun-cast films induced by density fluctuations near the critical point of scCO₂⁷, and (ii) subsequent quick evaporation of CO₂ with the polymer thin films in the vitrified state to preserve the swollen structures⁶. In addition, the latter one enables us to dry the film completely, leading to the “non-solvent” process for polymer thin films. Hence, the scCO₂ process offers us to create the molecular scale porosity near room temperature without further processing of the polymer with corrosive solvents or heat treatments that may oxidize the polymer or damage the substrate.

The object of this chapter aims to further extend the developed scCO₂ process to semicrystalline polymers, which are much more robust and resistant to degradation than amorphous homopolymer films, and to produce new ultra low- k polymer thin films needed for future microelectronics. The challenge is that the solubility of scCO₂ with semicrystalline polymers is typically poor due to rigid crystalline structures that prevent CO₂ molecules from penetrating into a polymer matrix^{8,9}. To overcome the preventive nature of the crystalline structures, we redesigned the scCO₂ process by optimizing “pre-exposure” to an organic solvent that facilitates the melting of crystalline structures allowing CO₂ molecules to fully penetrate and diffuse throughout the film, but does not dissolve the polymer. In addition, if the organic solvent can be dissolved in scCO₂, it can be completely removed from the film by the same quick evaporation of scCO₂.

3.2 Experimental Section

The model semicrystalline polymer used was poly-phenylene vinylene (PPV) due to its initial low- k ($k=2.6$), high temperature stability (up to 450°C in N₂ ambient) and easy film preparation. PPV thin films were prepared via chemical vapor deposition (CVD) by vapor phase pyrolysis of α,α' -dibromo-*p*-xylene onto silicon wafers¹⁰. The conversion of the precursor film was performed by vacuum annealing at $T=250$ °C for measured times (10-40 min). All experiments were initially performed on films with a measured thickness of approximately 400 Å. For PPV films, toluene ($\geq 95\%$ A.C.S. reagent) was chosen as the pre-exposure solvent for its inability to dissolve PPV quickly, and its ability to dissolve in scCO₂ readily¹¹. As will be discussed later, we found that the pre-exposure time of 1 hour was adequate for our purpose. The films after the pre-exposure were then quickly placed into the high-pressure cell and exposed to scCO₂ for 24 h under the

density fluctuation ridge condition ($T = 36\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $P = 8.2\text{ MPa}$), where the anomalous excess swelling is induced^{6,7}, and subsequently depressurized to atmospheric pressure within 10 s to preserve the swollen structures of the polymer films using the vitrification process ($T_g \sim 220^{\circ}\text{C}$).

3.3 Results and Discussion

Firstly, we demonstrate the validity of toluene as the pre-exposure solvent. A grazing incidence diffraction (GID) technique, which is sensitive to crystalline structures within a film, was utilized for this purpose. The GID measurements were conducted at the x10B beamline of the National Synchrotron Light Source (NSLS), Brookhaven National Laboratory (BNL) using a photon energy of 14 keV, i.e., x-ray wavelength (λ) of 0.87 \AA . Figure 1 shows the GID profiles before and after pre-exposure to toluene. The pre-exposure was carried out just before the GID experiments. The glancing angle of incidence was set to 0.2° , which is just above the critical angle of $\sim 0.14^{\circ}$ for PPV, in order to determine the crystal structure within the entire film. Prior to immersion in toluene, we could see the multiple Bragg peaks assigned to (110), (210), (120), and (410) lattice planes, indicating the existence of the crystalline domains within the film¹². However, when the sample was

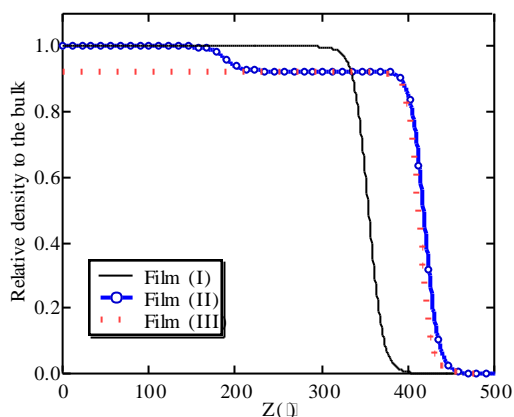


Figure 3-2. Density profiles of the films (I), (II) and (III) obtained from the best-fits to the XR data.

performed at the same NSLS beamline. Fig. 3-2 summarizes the density profiles for the as-prepared film without pre-exposure, hereafter defined as “film (I)”, the film with

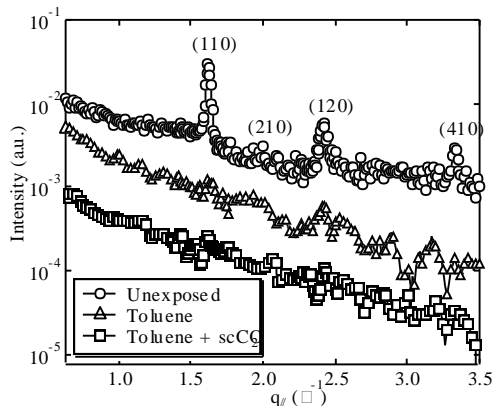


Figure 3-1. GID profiles for the PPV films without and with toluene exposure, and the film (III). The (hk0)s correspond to the miller indices for the PPV crystal structure.

pre-exposed to toluene, this definitive crystal structure was no longer recognizable in the GID profile, as shown in Fig. 3-1. In addition, ellipsometry results proved no changes in the film thickness between the pre-exposed and unexposed films. It should be noted that longer pre-exposure times of more than 3 h caused a slight decrease in the film thickness, indicating that the film was partially dissolved. Consequently, we set the pre-exposure time for the PPV films to be 1 h to melt the crystal structures completely, but not to affect the film thickness.

Next, we discuss the effect of the pre-exposure to the scCO_2 treatment by using X-ray reflectivity (XR) measurements

exposure to only scCO₂, hereafter defined as “film (II)”, and the film with the unified process (i.e., the combination of toluene and scCO₂ exposure), hereafter defined as “film (III)”¹³. The dispersion (δ) value in the x-ray refractive index obtained from the best-fits to the XR data, which is proportional to the density of a film, was converted into the density of the film relative to the bulk by using the measured dispersion value of the untreated PPV film ($\delta=1.37\times 10^{-6}$). In the case of the film (II), the initial thickness, $L_0=350\text{ \AA}$, has increased to $L=450\text{ \AA}$, which corresponds to a linear dilation, $S_f=(L-L_0)/L_0=0.20$. At the same time, the film has a low-density layer of approximately 200 \AA formed at the polymer/air interface, corresponding to a 15% decrease in the density compared to the untreated one or the bulk with a relatively sharp interface of approximately 40 \AA and a uniform layer of bulk density beneath. Thus, it is clear that the penetration depth of density fluctuating scCO₂, which causes the anomalous swelling, is limited to the surface area. On the other hand, we found that the density of the film (III) decreased by 15%, whose magnitude was the same as the film (II), but *throughout* the entire film. This enhanced penetration power of scCO₂ is attributed to the melting of the crystalline regimes in the film. In addition, atomic force microscopy (AFM) images in a series of $100\times 100\mu\text{m}$ scans across the film (III), as seen in Fig. 3-3, proved that the surface appeared flat with the root-mean-square (rms) roughness of approximately 30 \AA between the polymer and air layer, which is consistent with the XR result which gave us the rms roughness of $21\pm 4\text{ \AA}$. Furthermore, small-angle x-ray scattering (SAXS) experiments with reflection geometry, which is a powerful tool used to characterize pore-size distributions at the nanometer scale¹⁴, showed no significant differences in the SAXS profiles between the films (I) and (III) (the data is not shown here). Hence, we postulate that a large degree of molecular scale porosity, which can't be detected by these experimental techniques, is introduced into the entire film with the unified process, leading to the formation of the homogenous low-density PPV film. It should be emphasized that the unified process used for this study allowed us to create homogenous PPV films with thicknesses of up to 700 \AA .

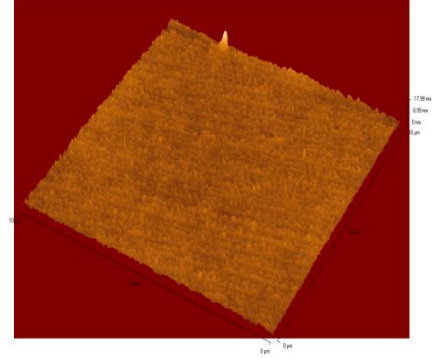


Figure 3-3. AFM 3-dimensional images show a flat surface absent of large voids and pores.

Finally, we discuss the physical, mechanical, and thermal properties of the homogenous low-density PPV film. It is known that a reduction in density of an amorphous polymer is associated with reductions in index of refraction (n_f). As shown in Fig.1, we confirmed that the low-density PPV film (III) did not have any crystalline structures within the film. We therefore measured the changes in optical and electrical properties by using a VASE Research Spectroscopic Ellipsometer (M-44, J.A. Wollam Co, Lincoln, NE) based on a biaxial Cauchy model¹⁵. Figure 3-4(a) shows the indices of refraction for the films (I) and (III). From the figure we can see that there is a significant decrease (12%) in n_f for the film (III) over the entire range of the wavelength (600 nm–742 nm). Interestingly, this change corresponds to a 23% dielectric constant decrease owing to the relationship of $k\sim n_f^2$. Therefore, we can conclude that relative to the bulk ($k\sim 2.6$), the low-density PPV film (III) has the low- k value of ~ 2.0 .

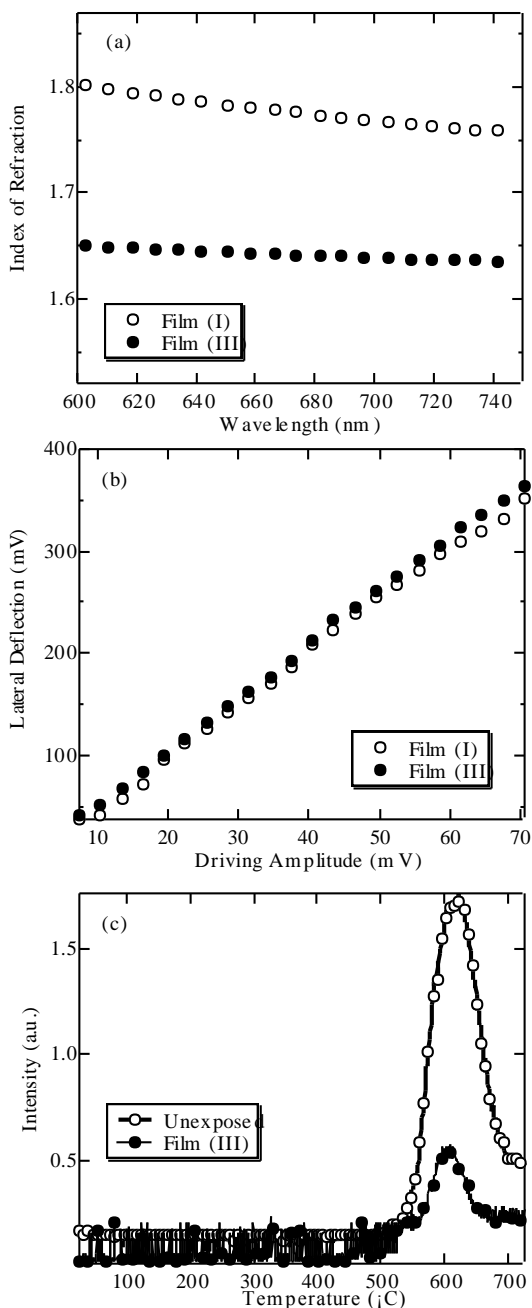


Figure 3-4. Optical, mechanical, and thermal properties of the low-density PPV (III): (a) Index of refraction vs. wavelength; (b) Lateral deflection (ΔX) vs. the drive amplitude; (c) Continuous mass spectra of toluene fragment mass taken during temperature ramping. Note that the untreated sample exhibits the higher intensity because of the larger initial thickness of the prepared film (650 Å).

achieved. We found that molecular level porosity introduced in the film is responsible for the reduction in density, optical index of refraction, and dielectric constant, but does not

The advantage of introducing molecular level porosity is the ability to maintain the material's inherent mechanical properties. To investigate the mechanical properties of the low-density film, shear modulation force microscopy (SMFM)¹⁶ using a Digital Instruments Dimension 3000 (Veeco Co. Plainview, NY) was utilized. Figure 3-4(b) shows the lateral deflection (ΔX) of the films (I) and (III) as a function of the driving amplitude at room temperature¹⁷. It is clear that there is no change in the slope, which corresponds to the surface modulus of the film¹⁶, between the films (I) and (III). Consequently, it is reasonable to conclude that the porosity introduced has no sacrificial effect on the mechanical properties of the low-density PPV film.

The thermal degradation property of the film (III) was also studied by means of *in situ* Mass spectroscopy using MILA-3000 mini lamp cold wall annealing system (ULVAC/Sinku-Riko, Inc., Chigasaki, Japan) connected to a differentially pumped Residual Gas Analyzer RGA-300 (Stanford Research Systems Inc., Sunnyvale, CA)¹⁰. Figure 3-4(c) shows the spectra for the unexposed film and film (III) taken during dynamic heating at a rate of 20 °C/min up to 800 °C. A large peak in intensity indicates the release of significant amounts of toluene owing to the film degradation¹⁰. Thus, the peak initiation (approximately at 500°C) remains unchanged before and after the unified process, proving that the low-density film (III) still imparts the high thermal stability inherent to the material.

3.4 Conclusion

With the novel methodology of using supercritical carbon dioxide as a green solvent, a significant reduction in the dielectric properties of PPV films was

influence the high performance thermal and mechanical properties. We believe that this unified scCO₂ process could be relevant to all polymers regardless of the degree of crystallinity, facilitating the use of scCO₂ for the formation of molecular scale porosity to be used as scaffolds for interdisciplinary applications as well.

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Chapter 4: Conclusions and Recommendations for Future Work

In closing, a summary of the results of the research is presented. Observations that were made along the way will seed the growth of future work. Recommendations for future research are proposed.

4.1 Conclusions

The performance of polymer thin films may be categorized in three ways, mechanical, thermal, and electric. It has been shown that, as the film thickness decreases to the order of the polymer's R_g , the properties of the film deviate from the bulk equivalent. Thermal properties such as glass transition temperature, electric and optoelectronic properties such as dielectric constant influence design and fabrication, and ultimately determine the application and performance of the polymer. Structural stability of the thin film is also considered a crucial mechanical property necessary after processing. For the industrial applications, the tolerance for the thickness of the films may fall in the range of only a few nanometers. It is critical that significant changes in film thickness are detected and accounted for. It is ultimately beneficial that polymer thin films remain in an equilibrium state. However, some external influences may prevent this occurring. Traditional polymer processing using organic solvents and vacuum annealing at high temperatures may lead to a thermodynamically non-equilibrium state.

In order for $scCO_2$ to be more widely considered as a valid technique for polymer processing, we must ensure that the enhanced properties are both controllable and maintainable. Ideally this concerns controlling the molecular scale porosity in thin films, and being able to maintain it for the polymers intended application. We have shown that by using $scCO_2$ we can induce molecular level porosity and capture this low density structure by quickly purging the universal solvent from the polymer. Because $scCO_2$ induces polymer chain stretching, the byproduct is a swollen film that is encompassed with residual stresses. As CO_2 is quenched to preserve the structure, stress is encapsulated in the film. Therefore the fabricated product remains in a meta-stable state. Once thermal energy is applied, relaxation of the polymer chains will occur. As a result, the swollen film collapses and tends towards its initial film thickness. This is undesirable because the attained low density properties using $scCO_2$ processing are lost when the film is placed at elevated temperatures. For applications such as low-dielectric films in integrated circuits, it is necessary to have a high level of thermal stability. For these reasons, we must find a way to stabilize and preserve the structures formed using $scCO_2$.

4.2 Future Work

One foreseeable method of stabilizing polymer films at high temperatures is with a cross-linking agent. Cross-linking is a long established method for restricting the mobility of individual polymer chains by chemically joining two or more molecules by covalent or ionic bonds. This process has been used to inhibit the formation of crystalline structures in polymers, and to limit chain extension under loading. Because of this newly formed network of bonds, chemically cross-linked polymers impart higher thermal and mechanical resistance. It may be possible then to cross-link polymer thin films that have been processed in $scCO_2$ in order to prevent the collapse of films at higher temperatures.

This is extremely beneficial for polymer applications, such as integrated circuits, where high thermal and mechanical performance is necessary.

To test the validity of using a cross-linking reagent to preserve the swollen structures initiated by scCO₂ in polymer thin films, we must observe the behavior of the films in a high temperature environment. Of particular importance are changes in film's thickness and density because of dependent properties such as electron mobility. From our previous study, we were able to produce an ultra low index of refraction and dielectric constant polymer thin film on an inorganic substrate by using scCO₂ as a green solvent. The swelling induced by the solvent created a uniform low density region throughout the entire film. Using X-ray Reflectivity, we can determine changes and thickness and extrapolate the density profiles of the polymer films. We wish to show that even after annealing at high temperatures, the cross-linked films are still homogenous and low density, unlike films that were processed only with scCO₂. It is also necessary to show that the mechanical performance of the films is not degraded. This is important from a practical aspect i.e. the use of scCO₂ processes for industrial applications.

Our initial experiments were performed on styrenic elastomers, SEBS, poly(styrene-ethylene-butylene-styrene), and SBS, poly(styrene-butadiene-styrene), triblock copolymers. These polymers exhibit a large degree of excess swelling at the density fluctuation ridge which can be easily preserved when the solvent is removed. The films were spun cast from polymer solutions of varying concentration with a dispersed photoinitiated cross-linker (1 and 10 polymer weight %). The films were exposed to density fluctuating scCO₂ for 2 hours to induce swelling. The solvent was quickly removed to freeze the structure of the film. Immediately after, the films were cured under ultraviolet light to polymerize the photoinitiator. The samples were subsequently placed in a vacuum oven at temperatures exceeding the glass transition of the polymer to allow the polymer chains to reach configurational equilibrium.

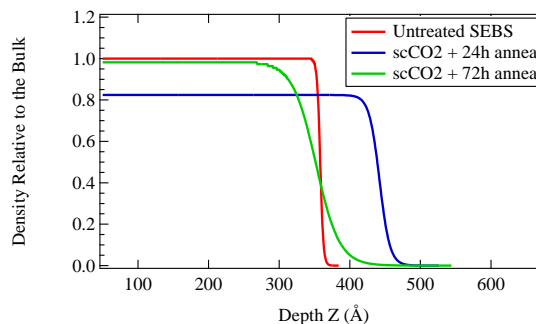


Figure 4-1. Density profiles extrapolated from XR treated above its glass transition temperature (160 °C) for 24 h and 72 h.

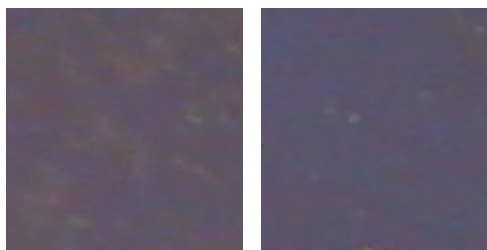


Figure 4-2. (a) SEBS thin film with 1 weight % cross-linker exhibits dewetting structure after 72 h annealing. (b) 10 weight % cross-linker films are homogenous after 72 h annealing

XR measurements for the polymer thin films containing 1 weight % cross-linker showed that even after annealing at high temperatures for 24 h, the films processed with scCO₂, are still low density, as seen in Fig. 4-1. However, after longer annealing periods (72 h) the low density layer is less pronounced, and the thickness reduces towards the measured as-spun thickness. Visual inspection also reveals an unstable film, as signs of film “dewetting” are evident, Fig. 4-2(a). In the case of the polymer thin films spun with 10 weight % photoinitiator, no signs of dewetting can be seen visually, Fig. 4-2(b). This difference

may occur because in the first case, (1 weight % cross-linker) there is an insufficient amount of cross-linker to form a strong polymer network. However in the second case, the larger percentage cross-linker allows for increased bonding between polymer chains, and thus a strong network. This occurrence points to a thermally stable film, even at temperatures above the polymer's glass transition for an extended period of time, when the concentration of cross-linker is high. It is important then to perform a more in depth study on the concentration dependence of the cross-linker on the film's temperature stability. Initial studies have also shown that the cross-linker concentration has a significant detrimental effect on the film's swelling behavior, as seen in Fig. 4-3. As a result, we need to optimize the cross-linking process such that the swelling ratio of the film is maximized while keeping the integrity of the film intact at high temperatures.

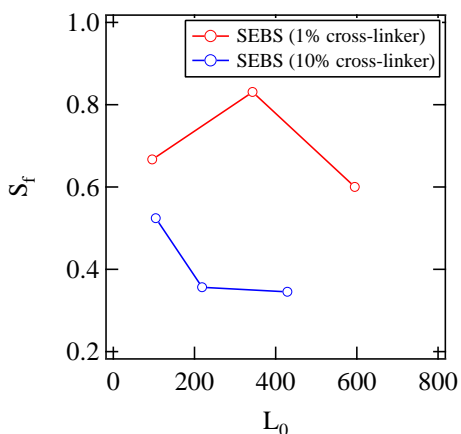


Figure 4-3. Swelling ratios of SEBS thin films containing 1 and 10 weight % cross-linker after exposure to $scCO_2$ for 2 h.

bulk polymers have very poor miscibility with CO_2 [1]. Because the functional form of the swelling amplitude exactly follows that of the calculated long-range density fluctuations as a function of temperature and pressure, it is believed that the long-range density fluctuations directly control the absolute solubility of supercritical $scCO_2$. The important question arises whether the anomalous solvent quality is universal for all SCFs. This is important from two aspects, one being from an academic point of view, i.e. determining the origins of the anomalous solubility in density fluctuating solvents, and the other from a practical aspect, i.e. determining the feasibility of other SCFs as other universal solvents.

In this regard, we would like to use various supercritical fluids of different molecular composition and molecular interaction to determine the differences in the behavior of density fluctuating SCFs and consequently, the enhanced solvent quality. Of particular interest is supercritical Trifluoromethane ($scCF_3H$, $T_c=26.1\text{ }^\circ C$ and $P_c=4.9MPa$) because CF_3H molecules are highly interactive due to a very strong dipole moment (1.65 Debye) [2]. The polymers used in this study will be both glassy, (deuterated polystyrene and deuterated polymethylmethacrylate), and rubbery (deuterated polybutadiene, and deuterated styrene-butadiene random copolymer) films, spun-cast onto Si substrates, in order to make the comparison between the swelling behaviour of these films in non-polar $scCO_2$ [3].

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