



# Suppression of B2 phase in $\text{Pd}_z\text{Cu}_{1-z}$ alloy thin films

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## ABSTRACT

Thin films of pure metals and alloys can adopt phases that differ from those of the corresponding bulk alloy phase diagram. In the bulk,  $\text{Pd}_z\text{Cu}_{1-z}$  adopts a B2 phase (CsCl structure) for  $0.35 < z < 0.55$ , in spite of the fact that pure Pd and Cu both have face centered cubic (FCC) bulk crystal structures. Herein, we demonstrate that this transition to the B2 phase is suppressed in thin film  $\text{Pd}_z\text{Cu}_{1-z}$  alloys with thickness  $< 6$  nm. Spatially resolved X-ray photoemission spectroscopy was used to map the Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  core level shifts (CLS,  $\Delta E_{\text{CLS}}^{\text{Cu}}(z)$ ) across a  $\text{Pd}_z\text{Cu}_{1-z}$  composition spread alloy film (CSAF) as a function of both composition and film thickness. In the FCC phase, the Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  binding energy decreases monotonically across the range  $z = 0 \rightarrow 1$ . At  $T < 873$  K, there is an additional discontinuous CLS over the composition range of the B2 phase,  $0.35 < z < 0.55$ . Thus, the Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  CLS can be used to distinguish between the B2 and FCC phases. After annealing the  $\text{Pd}_z\text{Cu}_{1-z}$  CSAF to 700 K, the bulk B2 phase was observed at film thicknesses  $> 6$  nm. However, at film thicknesses in the range 4–6 nm, only the FCC phase was observed. Stabilization of the FCC phase for films that are  $< 6$  nm thick may be due, in part, to surface energy effects.

## 1. Introduction

Multicomponent alloy nanomaterials have potential utility in many fields (e.g. catalysis, sensing, optics, membranes and sorbents) [1–5]. One of the most exciting characteristics of multicomponent alloy nanoparticles is that they can adopt phases that are different from those of the bulk alloy at the same composition. For instance, bimetallic mixtures of AgNi, AgPt and AuPt, have broad composition ranges over which they are immiscible in the bulk; however they form solid solutions at the nanoscale regime [6–9]. The same phenomenon can be observed in alloy thin films. Herein, we refer to these as dimensionally stabilized phases, wherein alloy phases,  $\text{A}_z\text{B}_{1-z}$ , in nanoscale morphologies are determined by both composition,  $z$ , and dimension,  $d$ . These dimensionally stabilized alloy phases can serve as the basis for design of materials with properties that could not be predicted or obtained from bulk alloys. The experimental approach to determining the phase behavior of materials across composition and size space,  $(z, d)$ , can be time-consuming, requiring the preparation and characterization of a large set of samples with discrete size and composition. Herein, we use Composition Spread Alloy Films (CSAFs) having a composition spread in one direction and a thickness gradient in another to identify a new dimensionally stabilized phase of the  $\text{Cu}_z\text{Pd}_{1-z}$  binary alloy.

Comprehensive study of the properties of nanoscale alloy materials

can be accelerated by use of high-throughput methods based on materials libraries that span both size and composition space. High-throughput methods have evolved rapidly over the past decade, allowing a systematic approach to preparation, characterization, and measurement of functional properties on different types of materials libraries in a rapid and efficient fashion [10–14]. CSAFs are materials libraries based on thin alloy films that have lateral composition gradients allowing one to create all possible compositions of a binary alloy ( $\text{A}_z\text{B}_{1-z}$ ,  $z = 0 \rightarrow 1$ ) or ternary alloy ( $\text{A}_x\text{B}_y\text{C}_{1-x-y}$ ,  $z = 0 \rightarrow 1$  and  $y = 0 \rightarrow 1-z$ ) in a single film. Over the past decade, CSAFs have been used frequently as libraries for high-throughput studies of alloy properties [15–17]. In this work, we use a variant on the CSAF which spans both alloy composition and film thickness, in order to study alloy nanomaterials. Fig. 1 illustrates a binary  $\text{A}_z\text{B}_{1-z}$  CSAF with a composition gradient in the vertical direction and a linear thickness gradient,  $d$ , in the horizontal direction. This CSAF can be used to map  $\text{Cu}_z\text{Pd}_{1-z}$  alloy properties across  $(z, d)$  space with arbitrarily high resolution.

### 1.1. $\text{Pd}_z\text{Cu}_{1-z}$ bulk phase diagram

Palladium is widely used for catalysts, electrodes, sorbents, and membranes. Palladium is employed in membranes for separation or purification of hydrogen [18], as well as in sorbents for warm gas clean-

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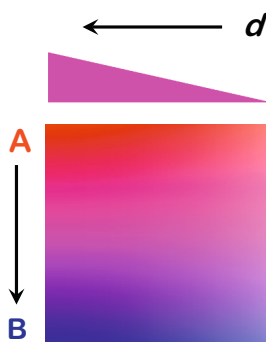
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**Fig. 1.** Binary  $A_zB_{1-z}$  CSAF with a linear thickness,  $d$ , gradient in the horizontal direction and a composition,  $z$ , gradient along the vertical direction.

up of coal derived syngas [19–21]. In these applications, Pd is often alloyed with secondary components such as Cu and Ag to provide mechanical stability and sulfur tolerance during operation [22–29]. Both Pd and Cu have face centered cubic (FCC) bulk structures. However, at temperatures  $< 873$  K, the  $Pd_zCu_{1-z}$  bulk phase diagram exhibits a B2 phase (ordered BCC lattice with Pd and Cu in a CsCl structure) across a broad composition range of  $0.35 < z < 0.55$  [26,30]. This B2 phase impacts the performance of  $Pd_zCu_{1-z}$  alloy membranes used for hydrogen purification and in membrane reactors for hydrogenation catalysis. The bulk hydrogen permeance of  $Pd_zCu_{1-z}$  in the  $0.35 < z < 0.55$  composition range is roughly an order of magnitude higher in the B2 phase than in the FCC phase [31]. If the formation of the B2 phases were suppressed in ultrathin  $Pd_zCu_{1-z}$  alloy membranes, this functional advantage would be lost [32]. It has also been shown that the rate of  $H_2$  dissociation on the  $Pd_{0.47}Cu_{0.53}$  surface is much higher on the surface of the FCC phase than on the B2 phase [33,34]. If the FCC phase can be stabilized in  $Pd_zCu_{1-z}$  alloy nanoparticles at  $T < 873$  K, the performance of nanoparticulate  $Pd_zCu_{1-z}$  hydrogenation catalysts could be greatly improved over the activity of larger particles of the same composition.

Correlation of structure and function at the nanoscale requires phase determination in nanoscale morphologies. An experimental methodology based on the use of Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  core level binding energies as measured using x-ray photoemission spectroscopy (XPS) has been developed recently for determining the phase behavior of  $Pd_zCu_{1-z}$  alloys [34,35]. This makes use of a high-throughput approach using spatially

resolved XPS on a  $Pd_zCu_{1-z}$  CSAF to map the Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  core level shifts (CLS) in binding energy relative to the  $2p_{3/2}$  binding energy in pure Cu,  $\Delta E_{CLS}^{Cu}(z) = E_{2p}^{Cu}(z) - E_{2p}^{Cu}(0)$ . The CLS is sensitive to the alloy phase, exhibiting a discontinuous shift across the FCC-B2-FCC phase boundaries because these are order-disorder transitions [34]. Density functional theory calculations have shown that the Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  binding energy is sensitive to the number of Cu atoms in the nearest neighbor shell of the Cu atom from which the electron is photoemitted. The Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  binding energy shifts discontinuously across the phase boundary because the FCC phase is a random solid solution in which Cu atoms can be nearest neighbors while Cu atoms in the ordered B2 phase have no Cu atoms in their nearest neighbor shell. Thus, measurement of the Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  CLS across  $0.35 < z < 0.55$  can be used to distinguish between the ordered B2 phase and disordered FCC phase. One of the important advantages of using XPS for phase analysis is that it allows determination of the structure/phase of nanomaterials and in the near surface (1–2 nm) regions of bulk alloys; morphologies in which structure determination is not easy.

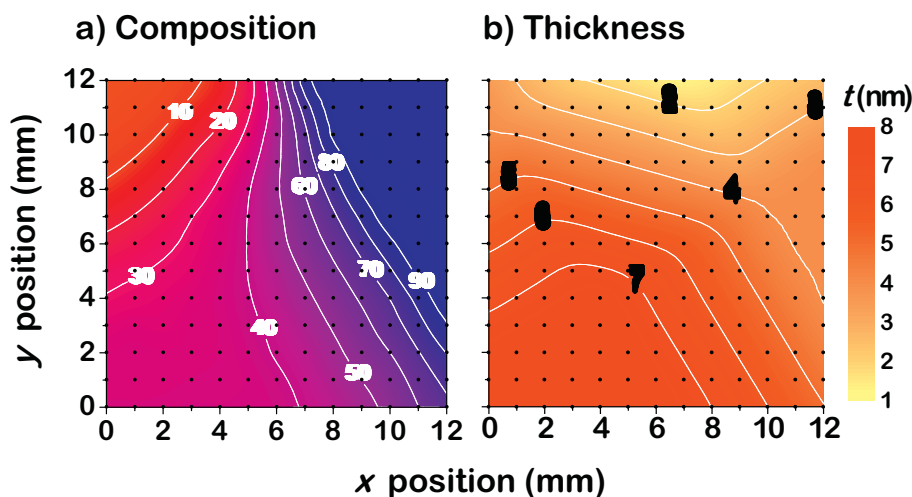
The work described herein uses Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  CLS measurements to study the phases present in ultra-thin ( $< 8$  nm)  $Cu_zPd_{1-z}$  CSAFs. In continuous films that are  $< 6$  nm thick, the B2 phase disappears. This may be attributed, in part, to the fact that surface energy difference between the FCC and B2 phases acts to stabilize the FCC phase relative to the B2 phase once the film thickness drops to  $< 6$  nm.

## 2. Experimental methods

### 2.1. $Pd_zCu_{1-z}$ CSAF preparation

A rotatable shadow mask CSAF deposition tool developed in house was used for creation of the  $Pd_zCu_{1-z}$  CSAFs with both composition and thickness gradients [36]. The two pure components were deposited simultaneously from independent electron beam evaporators (Mantis Deposition, Inc.) directed at the  $14 \times 14$  mm<sup>2</sup> Mo substrate. Two independent shadow masks are positioned between the wide-aperture (5 mm diameter) e-beam sources and the substrate such that the flux from each source has a linear gradient across a  $\sim 7$  mm wide band spanning the deposition substrate. The flux along one edge of the band is zero and increases to a maximum at the other edge of the band. The orientations of the rotatable shadow masks control the direction of the flux gradient from each source resulting a complex composition-thickness distribution across the substrate surface (Fig. 2).

The deposition substrate was a  $14 \times 14 \times 2.5$  mm<sup>3</sup> piece of



**Fig. 2.** a) Contour map of Pd composition,  $z(x,y)$ , across the  $Pd_zCu_{1-z}$  CSAF library, as measured using XPS at points on a  $13 \times 13$  grid with 1 mm spacing. b) Thickness map,  $d(x,y)$ , across the  $Pd_zCu_{1-z}$  CSAF determined from EDX measurements of the thicknesses of Pd and Cu in the thickest regions combined with the known composition distribution obtained using XPS.

polycrystalline Mo substrate polished to a roughness of  $< 3$  nm (Valley Design Corp). Mo was chosen to minimize interdiffusion between the CSAF components and the substrate during heating [26,37,38]. The substrate surface was sputter cleaned by a 2 kV Ar<sup>+</sup> beam with  $\sim 10$  mA emission current for 20 min to remove any contaminants or oxide and then annealed at 700 K for 1 h in ultrahigh vacuum (UHV). The CSAF was deposited after the Mo substrate had cooled to room temperature under UHV conditions ( $\sim 3 \times 10^{-7}$  Pa). The deposition rate for each source was calibrated with a Maxtek quartz crystal microbalance to give a flux of  $\sim 0.2$  nm per min. Deposition for 20 min generated a Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF with a thickness gradient from  $d = 1 \rightarrow 8$  nm and a composition gradient from pure Cu to pure Pd,  $z = 0 \rightarrow 1$ . Note that the deposition geometry results in a composition-thickness map (Fig. 2) that is more complex than the orthogonal distribution implied by Fig. 1.

## 2.2. EDX characterization of thickness on Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF

After deposition, the Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF was transferred to a Tescan Vega 3 scanning electron microscope (SEM) with an Oxford Instruments X-mas 80 mm<sup>2</sup> detector for energy dispersive x-ray spectroscopy (EDX) analysis. The CSAF component concentration distribution was characterized by EDX spectra taken at 169 points on a  $12 \times 12$  mm<sup>2</sup> grid of points spaced by 1 mm across an area centered on the  $14 \times 14$  mm<sup>2</sup> Mo substrate. At each measurement point, the 11.24 keV SEM electron beam was rastered across a  $50 \times 50$  μm<sup>2</sup> area to obtain an EDX spectrum over an x-ray energy of 0–10 keV. The thickness of the Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> alloy film was  $< 10$  nm, but the EDX characterization depth is  $> 300$  nm [39]. Assuming that the sampled volume consists of a homogenous Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> film on an infinitely thick Mo substrate, the INCA ThinFilmID software was used to quantify the concentrations of Pd, Cu, O, C and Mo at each analysis point and to determine the thickness of the Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF.

## 2.3. XPS mapping of composition and phase

The Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF library was transferred to a ThetaProbe® surface analysis system (ThermoFisher Scientific Inc.) for spatially resolved XPS measurements after heating to temperatures of 300, 600 and 700 K in a vacuum of  $\sim 10^{-7}$  Pa. Al K<sub>α</sub> radiation (1486.6 eV) from a monochromated X-ray source was focused to a 200 μm diameter spot size and used to obtain XP spectra at 169 discrete points on a  $12 \times 12$  mm<sup>2</sup> grid of points spaced by 1 mm and centered on the  $14 \times 14$  mm<sup>2</sup> Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF. The XP spectra were collected across 10 eV binding energy ranges centered on the Cu 2p<sub>3/2</sub>, Pd 3d<sub>3/2</sub> and Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> peaks. The XP spectra were collected with an analyzer pass energy of 100 eV with a 0.1 eV step size and 0.1 s dwell time. The XPS peak area and position were determined by performing the Thermo “Smart” background subtraction and peaking fitting with a fixed 30% Lorentzian and 70% Gaussian shape using the Thermo Advantage Processing software. The atomic composition was calculated by applying Thermo sensitivity factors to the peak areas.

## 2.4. Composition distribution model and thickness gradient of Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF

A Composition Distribution Model (CDM) has been developed based on the deposition geometry of the RSM-CSAF deposition tool, and assuming that each alloy component is deposited as a wedge in real space starting from zero along one line across the substrate and increasing linearly to a maximum value along a parallel line [38]. After determining the thickness distribution parameters of the Pd and Cu wedges (zero-line orientation, wedge width and maximum molar thickness of each component) by fitting to the 169 XPS-measured compositions collected on the grid spanning a  $12 \times 12$  mm<sup>2</sup>, the composition and component thickness at all real space locations on the CSAF can be predicted using the CDM. The best-fit CDM was defined by

the set of thickness distribution parameters for each component which minimized the difference between the CDM-predicted composition and XPS-measured composition for all 169 points measured on the surface of the Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF. The CDM then serves as the map for estimation of composition,  $z$ , and thickness,  $d$ , at all points on the CSAF.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Composition and thickness map for Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF

A combination of XPS and EDX measurements was used to determine the composition map,  $z(x,y)$  (Fig. 2a), and thickness map,  $d(x,y)$  (Fig. 2b), across the physical dimensions of the Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF. The Pd and Cu compositions were measured at each point using the Pd 3d<sub>3/2</sub> and Cu 2p<sub>3/2</sub> XPS peaks. Prior work has shown that XPS provides a good estimate of the bulk composition of Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAFs [16,26]. For each alloy component,  $i = \text{Pd or Cu}$ , the molar areal concentrations,  $c_i$ , at the thickest portions of the wedges were determined using EDX to be  $c_{\text{Pd}}^{\text{max}} = 446 \pm 3$  μmol/m<sup>2</sup> and  $c_{\text{Cu}}^{\text{max}} = 545 \pm 3$  μmol/m<sup>2</sup>. The physical thicknesses of each component,  $d_i$ , at the thickest portions of the wedge were calculated to be  $d_{\text{Pd}}^{\text{max}} = 3.95 \pm 0.03$  nm and  $d_{\text{Cu}}^{\text{max}} = 3.87 \pm 0.02$  nm based on Eq. (1):

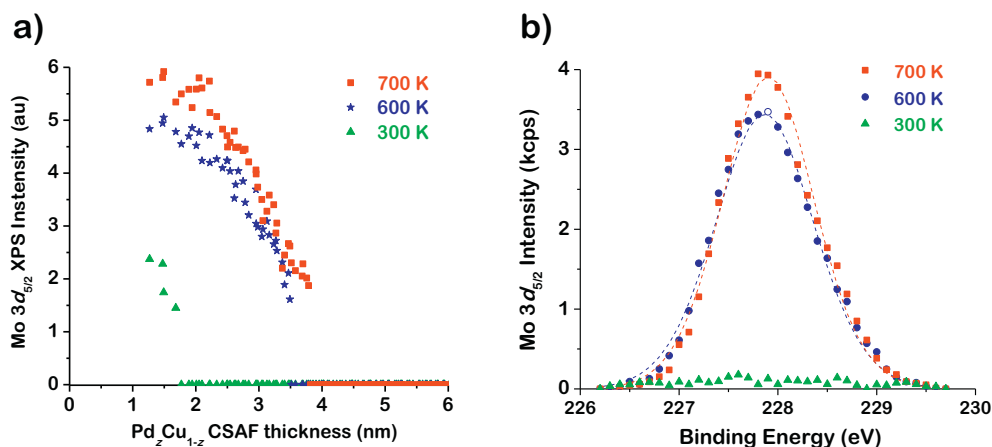
$$d_i = \frac{c_i \times M_i}{\rho_i} \quad (1)$$

where  $M_i$  and  $\rho_i$  are the molar masses and volumetric mass densities of each component, respectively. The maximum thicknesses,  $d_{\text{Pd}}^{\text{max}}$  and  $d_{\text{Cu}}^{\text{max}}$ , and the composition map,  $z(x,y)$ , were then used to parameterize a concentration distribution model (CDM) which describes the physical distribution of each component across the CSAF as a wedge with a maximum thickness plateau at one edge and a linear decrease to a zero thickness at the other edge [38]. This is consistent with the expected distribution based on the film deposition method and with EDX-based composition measurements made on thicker CSAFs [26,36,38]. The map of Pd composition determined from the CDM is illustrated in Fig. 2a. The difference between the CDM predicted Pd compositions and those determined from XPS measurements ( $\epsilon_{\text{Pd}} = z_{\text{Pd}}^{\text{CDM}} - z_{\text{Pd}}^{\text{XPS}}$ ) is  $1.1 \pm 1.0$  at.% where the uncertainty represents one standard deviation. The error arising from the surface segregation after annealing at 700 K is within 1.5 at.% of the bulk composition over the entire composition range of the Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF [26]. The thickness maps for each alloy component can be determined from Eq. (1) using the concentrations predicted from the CDM as shown in Fig. 2a. Fig. 2b illustrates the map of total film thickness,  $d(x,y)$ , spanning the range 1.3 to 7.8 nm.

### 3.2. Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> film dewetting from Mo substrate

After the composition and thickness of the Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF were characterized at room temperature, it was annealed at 600 K and 700 K for 30 mins. For CSAFs that are  $\sim 100$  nm thick, annealing at temperatures in this range is sufficient to achieve crystalline films that have phases identical to those of the bulk phase diagram [26,34]. This annealing does not cause dewetting of Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> films with thickness  $d \approx 100$  nm. However, over-annealing of thinner films can result in dewetting from the substrate, driven by lowering of the total free energy of the surfaces and interfaces of the film and substrate [40]. Dewetting of thinner films occurs at lower temperatures and shorter times than dewetting of thick films. These issues limit the temperatures at which the CSAFs can be used.

Dewetting of Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAFs is detected by the appearance of the substrate Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> XPS signals after annealing. The evidence for Pd<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> film dewetting from the Mo substrate is provided in Fig. 3a, where the Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> peak area is plotted as a function of initial film thickness as deposited at 300 K, and after annealing at 600 K and 700 K for 30 mins. The Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> XP spectra (binding energy = 227.9 eV) collected from a point with an initial film thickness of 2.5 nm are



**Fig. 3.** a) Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> peak area measured as a function of CSAF thickness and b) background-subtracted Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> peak spectra at a film thickness of 2.5 nm at 300 K, and after annealing for 30 mins at 600 K, and 700 K. The discontinuous increases in Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> peak area at 3.5 and 3.8 nm after heating to 600 and 700 K, are clear evidence of CSAF dewetting from the Mo substrate.

illustrated in Fig. 3b. Fig. 3a shows that no Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> signal was observed at initial Pd<sub>z</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF thicknesses > 1.7 nm as deposited at 300 K. After annealing at 600 K for 30 min there is a discontinuous appearance of the Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> signal at an initial CSAF thickness of 3.5 nm, followed by an increase in the signal with decreasing initial thickness. After annealing at 700 K for 30 min, the onset of Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> signal occurs at an initial thickness of 3.8 nm and the Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> signal at  $d < 3.5$  nm increases by ~20% over its intensity following the 600 K anneal. These data provide clear evidence of CSAF dewetting as a result of annealing, but only at films with initial thicknesses  $d \leq 4$  nm.

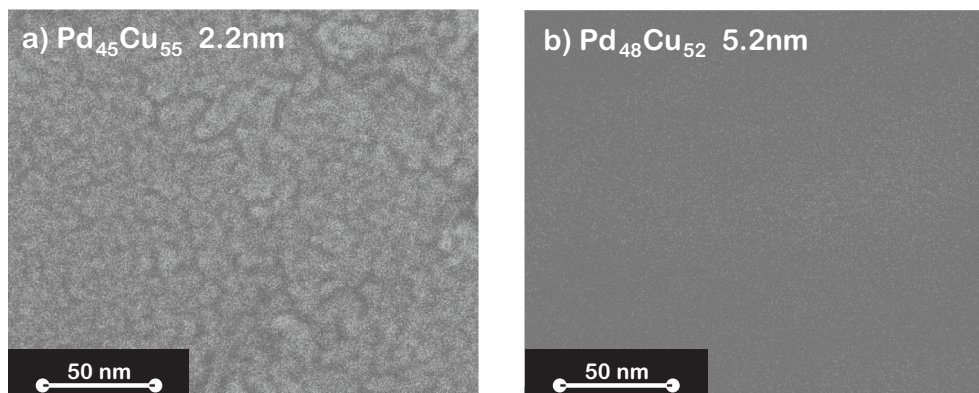
Further evidence of CSAF dewetting in regions with an initial thickness < 4 nm is revealed by SEM images obtained after annealing at 700 K for 30 min (Fig. 4). These were obtained from regions of the CSAF with similar compositions, Pd<sub>0.45</sub>Cu<sub>0.55</sub> and Pd<sub>0.48</sub>Cu<sub>0.52</sub>, but initial thicknesses of  $d = 2.2$  and 5.2 nm. The micrograph of the 2.2 nm film in Fig. 4a reveals contrast variation across the image whereas, the image of the thicker 5.2 nm film in Fig. 4b reveals virtually no contrast. Coupled with the appearance of the Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> XPS signal (Fig. 3a), this indicates that heating to 700 K for 30 min has resulted in dewetting of the 2.2 nm thick CSAF and the formation of structures with length scale on the order of 10 nm separated by darker regions that presumably expose the Mo substrate. The image in Fig. 4a is representative of those obtained from all regions of the CSAF with thickness < 4 nm after annealing at 700 K for 30 min. In contrast, the featureless micrograph (Fig. 4b) of the 5.2 nm thick region is representative of those from parts of the CSAF with initial thickness > 4 nm. The lack of contrast, coupled with the lack of Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> XPS signal (Fig. 3) indicates that heating to

700 K for 30 min has not resulted in dewetting of the CSAF with initial thicknesses > 4 nm.

### 3.3. Thickness-dependent phases of Pd<sub>z</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> thin films

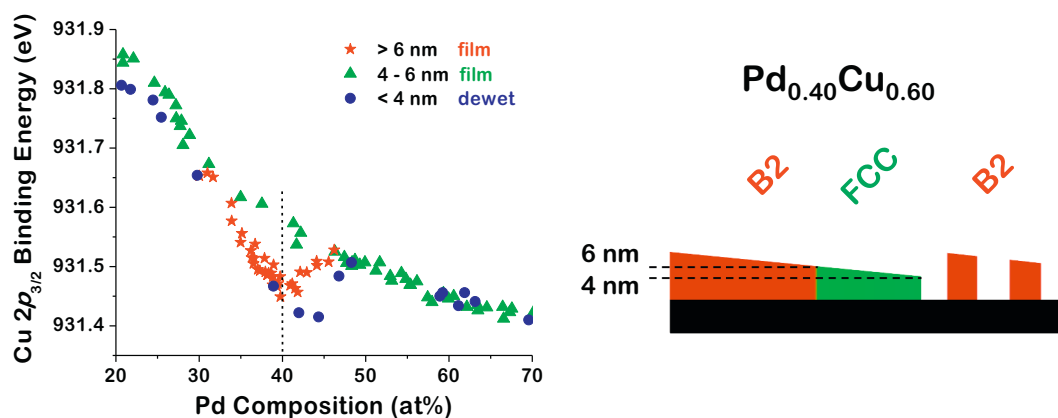
Mapping the Cu 2p<sub>3/2</sub> CLS across Pd<sub>z</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAFs has been used previously to map composition-dependent phase behavior in thick Pd<sub>z</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> and CuAuPd alloys [34,35]. Across a ~100 nm thick Pd<sub>z</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF annealed at 700 K, the Cu 2p<sub>3/2</sub> CLS relative to that of pure Cu,  $\Delta E_{CLS}^{Cu}(z) = E_{2p}^{Cu}(z) - E_{2p}^{Cu}(0)$ , decreases monotonically with increasing  $z$  while the alloy is in the FCC phase. However there is an additional discontinuous CLS over the composition range  $0.35 < z < 0.55$ , in which the alloy adopts the B2 phase. Because XPS can detect signal from materials of < 1 nm thickness, the Cu 2p<sub>3/2</sub> CLS is ideal for detecting the FCC-B2 phase transition in ultra-thin Pd<sub>z</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> alloy films; alloy morphologies whose phases can be difficult to determined using other methods.

The key result of this work is that XPS has shown that Pd<sub>z</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> films in the thickness range 4–6 nm do not exhibit the B2 phase observed in thicker films and in the bulk. In other words, for film thicknesses  $d < 6$  nm the FCC phase of Pd<sub>z</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> with  $0.35 < z < 0.55$  is dimensionally stabilized with respect to the B2 phase. Fig. 5a shows the Cu 2p<sub>3/2</sub> CLS versus  $z$  at initial film thickness  $d < 4$  nm, in the range  $4 < d < 6$  nm and  $d > 6$  nm after the Pd<sub>z</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF was annealed at 700 K. The additional CLS associated with the B2 phase is observed over the composition range  $0.35 < z < 0.55$  for film thicknesses  $d > 6$  nm [26,34]. When the film thickness falls in the range  $4 < d < 6$  nm, the



**Fig. 4.** SEM images (17.5 keV electron beam energy) of the Pd<sub>z</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF after annealing at 700 K for 30 min. (a) A dewetted region of the Pd<sub>z</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> CSAF with  $z = 0.45$  and an initial thickness of  $d = 2.2$  nm. (b) A region of continuous Pd<sub>z</sub>Cu<sub>1-z</sub> film with  $z = 0.48$  and an initial thickness of  $d = 5.2$  nm.





**Fig. 5.** a) Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  binding energy measured versus Pd (at.%) after annealing the CSAF at 700 K for 30 min. Binding energies are grouped by film thickness:  $< 4$  nm, 4–6 nm, and  $> 6$  nm. b) Illustration of the thickness dependent phase behavior for  $\text{Pd}_{0.40}\text{Cu}_{0.60}$ . Films that are  $< 4$  nm have dewetted and the Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  peak exhibits the discontinuous CLS with composition that is indicative of the B2 phase. In the range 4–6 nm the CLS is absent, indicative of the FCC phase at all compositions. At  $> 6$  nm the CLS associated with the B2 phase is evident.

Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  binding energy decreases monotonically with increasing  $z$ , exhibiting no discontinuity over the composition range  $0.35 < z < 0.55$  and indicating the presence of only the FCC phase. This result is consistent with prior measurements and simulations of Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  CLS on bulk  $\text{Pd}_z\text{Cu}_{1-z}$  samples annealed at 1000 K such that they adopted the FCC phase across the entire distribution range [41]. Note that at these thicknesses, the  $\text{Pd}_z\text{Cu}_{1-z}$  CSAFs are continuous films and stable against dewetting.

An additional feature of our XPS data is that it indicates that for film morphologies generated by dewetting, the B2 phase is restabilized for compositions in the range  $0.35 < z < 0.55$ . Fig. 5a reveals that the CLS associated with the B2 phase over the composition range  $0.35 < z < 0.55$  reappears at a film thickness  $< 4$  nm, the thickness below which the Mo  $3d_{5/2}$  XPS signal reveals that the  $\text{Pd}_z\text{Cu}_{1-z}$  CSAF has dewetted from the Mo substrate. It is likely that dewetting allows the film to thicken locally to  $d > 6$  nm, at which the B2 phase is still stable (Fig. 5b).

#### 4. Discussion

The question to be addressed is the source of the energetic stabilization of the FCC phase over the B2 phase as the thickness of the film decreases to  $d < 6$  nm. For a given phase of the film, the surface energy per unit area is independent of film thickness, however, the contribution of the bulk energy per unit area of the film decreases linearly with thickness. The bulk lattice parameter of the BCC phase of  $\text{Pd}_{0.5}\text{Cu}_{0.5}$  is 0.301 nm, corresponding to a density of 73 atoms/nm<sup>3</sup> [42,43]. The lattice parameters for Cu and Pd in their FCC phases are 0.362 nm and 0.389 nm, respectively. Vegard's law predicts a lattice parameter of 0.375 for  $\text{Pd}_{0.5}\text{Cu}_{0.5}$  in the FCC phase, corresponding to a density of 75 atoms/nm<sup>3</sup>; almost identical to that of the B2 phase. Computational simulations of  $\text{Pd}_{0.5}\text{Cu}_{0.5}$  in the FCC phase estimate a slightly lower density of 72 atoms/nm<sup>3</sup> [42,43]. In other words, all indications are that the densities of  $\text{Pd}_{0.5}\text{Cu}_{0.5}$  in the FCC or the bulk equilibrium B2 phase do not differ significantly and, therefore, that in thin films a transition between the two phases would result in only a  $\sim 1\%$  change of film thickness.

Recent Density Functional Theory simulations of bulk  $\text{Pd}_{0.5}\text{Cu}_{0.5}$  in the FCC and B2 phases indicate that the B2 phase is stabilized by 1.9 kJ/mol-atom relative to the FCC phase. The observed phase transition can be rationalized, if the surface energy of the FCC phase is lower than that of the B2 phase. Given that the packing densities of the FCC surfaces are higher than those of the B2 phase, this seems like a reasonable assumption. Given that the densities of the FCC phase and the B2 phase of  $\text{Pd}_{0.5}\text{Cu}_{0.5}$  are both  $\sim 73$  atoms/nm<sup>3</sup>, the difference in the bulk energies

of a 6 nm thick films in the B2 and FCC phases is 1.2 J/m<sup>2</sup>. This implies that in thin film and at 6 nm thickness the FCC phase will become stabilized relative to the B2 phase, if the FCC surface energy is 1.2 J/m<sup>2</sup> less than that of the B2 phase.

The surface energies of  $\text{Pd}_{0.5}\text{Cu}_{0.5}$  in its B2 and FCC phases are not known, to our knowledge. One point of comparison for discussion of the role of surface energy in the stabilization of the FCC phase of  $\text{Pd}_{0.5}\text{Cu}_{0.5}$  in thin film form are the surface energies of the different crystal phases of pure metals. These have been estimated using density function theory methods and tabulated recently in the Crystalium database [44]. The close-packed (111) surfaces of Cu and Pd have surface energies of 1.31 J/m<sup>2</sup> and 1.34 J/m<sup>2</sup>, respectively. Of the low Miller index FCC surfaces, the (110) plane is the least densely packed and for Cu and Pd these have energies of 1.56 J/m<sup>2</sup> and 1.59 J/m<sup>2</sup>, respectively. In these cases, the packing density reduces the surface energy by 0.25 J/m<sup>2</sup>. This estimate of the potential contribution of surface energy to stabilization of the FCC phase of  $\text{Pd}_{0.5}\text{Cu}_{0.5}$  in thin film form comes up short of the 1.2 J/m<sup>2</sup> that is estimated on the basis of density functional theory estimates of the bulk energies. However, it does demonstrate that the surface energy is in the right order of magnitude to contribute significantly to the dimensional stabilization of the FCC phase of  $\text{Pd}_{0.5}\text{Cu}_{0.5}$ .

#### 5. Conclusion

High-throughput synthesis and characterization methodologies were implemented to determine the phase behavior of  $\text{Pd}_z\text{Cu}_{1-z}$  alloy films spanning both composition and thickness. This approach has served to demonstrate the value of the XPS CLS as a means to explore the dimensional dependence of alloy phase diagrams and to identify a dimensionally stabilized phase of  $\text{Pd}_z\text{Cu}_{1-z}$ . Alloy phases are most commonly determined using x-ray diffraction (XRD) or HR-TEM. XRD is difficult to perform on thin films and nanoscale morphologies, but the XPS based CLS method applied in this work provides a tool that is well-suited to the nanoscale regime. Spatially resolved XPS mapping of the Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  CLS has successfully differentiated the ordered B2 and random FCC phases found over various ranges of composition and film thickness. The Cu  $2p_{3/2}$  CLS works to differentiate these phases because the FCC-B2-FCC phase transitions are order-disorder transitions that result in discontinuous changes in the number of Cu atoms in a Cu nearest neighbor shell. In particular, at a film thickness  $< 6$  nm, the FCC phase is stabilized over the composition range,  $0.35 < z < 0.55$ , where the ordered B2 phase exists in bulk. We also observed that  $\text{Pd}_z\text{Cu}_{1-z}$  CSAF dewets the Mo substrate at thicknesses  $< 4$  nm, resulting in a morphology with a local thickness  $> 6$  nm and the reappearance of the B2

phase in the composition region  $0.35 < z < 0.55$ . These results reveal an interplay between phase change (FCC-B2) and morphology change (dewetting) in response to reduction in  $\text{Pd}_z\text{Cu}_{1-z}$  film thickness. They suggest that sufficiently small  $\text{Pd}_z\text{Cu}_{1-z}$  alloy NPs would have an FCC structure over the composition range  $0.35 < z < 0.55$ .

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