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Local Control over Nucleation of Epitaxial Thin Films by Seed Layers of Inorganic Nanosheets

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Nanosheets of $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ and $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ were synthesized and transferred onto Si substrates by Langmuir–Blodgett deposition. Using pulsed laser deposition, SrRuO₃ films were formed on top of these samples. The underlying nanosheets determined both the morphology and crystallographic orientation of the films. SrRuO₃ grew preferentially in the $[110]_{pc}$ direction on $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets, while growth proceeded in the $[001]_{pc}$ direction on $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets (pc refers to the pseudocubic unit cell of SrRuO₃). Besides macroscopic control over the out-of-plane crystal direction, single crystal orientations were measured by electron backscatter diffraction on the level of individual nanosheets, indicating that epitaxial growth



was achieved on the nanosheets as imposed by their well-defined crystal lattices. The nanosheets also had a clear effect on the magnetic properties of the films, which showed anisotropic behavior only when a seed layer was used. A monolayer consisting of a mixture of both types of nanosheets was made to locally control the nucleation of SrRuO₃. In this context, SrRuO₃ was used as model material, as it was used to illustrate that nanosheets can be a unique tool to control the orientation of films on a (sub-) micrometer length scale. This concept may pave the way to the deposition of various other functional materials and the fabrication of devices where the properties are controlled locally by the different crystallographic orientations.

KEYWORDS: inorganic nanosheets, pulsed laser deposition, anisotropy, mixed orientation, controlled nucleation, ferromagnetic perovskite, SrRuO₃

INTRODUCTION

In thin film laboratories, the structure-property relations of various materials are studied. One particular approach to control the properties of a thin film is by changing its crystallographic orientation. For example, Tebano et al. showed that for films with thicknesses in the range from 3 to 12 nm, La_{0.67}Sr_{0.33}MnO₃ was insulating on (001) oriented LaAlO₃ but behaved as a metal on (110) oriented LaAlO₃.¹ Also, the magnetization characteristics of several manganites were reported to vary with the orientation of the substrate.²⁻⁴ In the field of ferroelectrics, the ferroelectric activity of a material can be tuned by changing its orientation.⁵⁻⁸ For instance, the ferroelectric response of epitaxial films of Nd-doped Bi₄Ti₃O₁₂ could be tuned down to the point were ferroelectricity was completely suppressed by using differently oriented SrTiO₃ substrates.8 A third example of a field where the structure and properties of films were found to vary markedly with the orientation of the substrate is that of nanocomposites made by pulsed laser deposition (PLD). These nanocomposite films are generally formed by self-assembly processes that take place during the simultaneous deposition of two immiscible phases. $^{9-12}$

The previous examples show that the crystallographic orientation is an important parameter that determines the properties of a film. The reason can be found in geometric constraints defined by the unit cell^{5–8} but may also be different. For instance, strain imposed by the substrate,^{1–4} or anisotropies in the interfacial, surface, or elastic energies, may play a crucial role.^{9–12} In all of the examples, the orientations of the films were completely determined by the lattices of the single crystalline substrates. A versatile method to control the orientation of a film on a smaller scale than the typical dimensions of a substrate has so far not been proposed. If such control would be possible, functional films could be designed where certain position dependent properties are determined by the orientations of the crystallites. Thus, an extra degree of freedom would become available for the fabrication of materials with advanced local functionalities.

In this paper, we propose that different types of nanosheets can be used to locally control the nucleation of a film. The concept to use nanosheets for epitaxial growth was first introduced by Kikuta and co-workers in 2007.¹³ They showed that the texture of LaNiO₃ and Pb(Zr_{0.3}Ti_{0.7})O₃ on glass plates could be controlled by the introduction of a seed layer of Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ nanosheets. The films, which were made by chemical solution deposition, showed improved ferroelectric

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properties compared to films made without the nanosheet layer. Later, Shibata et al. used sol–gel processes to deposit textured films of $SrTiO_3$, TiO_2 , and ZnO on glass substrates containing monolayers of $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ or MnO_2 nanosheets.¹⁴ Also, PLD was used to form films with certain orientations, even on plastic substrates.^{15–17}

In these previous studies, crystalline nanosheets were deposited on amorphous substrates in order to imitate costly single crystal substrates. The, in general, unsurpassed quality of films on single crystal substrates could not be mimicked, though, since the films were in-plane randomly oriented. In this work, we show that nanosheets can be a unique tool to control the nucleation of films on a level that can not be attained on single crystal substrates. In brief, the influence of Ca2Nb3O10 and Ti_{0.87}O₂ nanosheets on the nucleation and properties of SrRuO₃ is discussed. SrRuO₃ is a conductive perovskite that is ferromagnetic typically below ~160 K.18 The model material was selected mainly because strong magnetic anisotropy was expected.¹⁹⁻²³ PLD was used to grow the films on Si substrates, most of which were pre-coated with a single layer of nanosheets. The morphology and crystallographic orientation of these films were controlled by the type of nanosheets that covered the substrates. Epitaxial growth was illustrated and explained by lattice matching with the underlying nanosheets together with continuation of the oxygen octahedral backbones, as illustrated by the graphical abstract. Anisotropic magnetic properties were found when a layer of nanosheets was present but not when SrRuO₃ was directly deposited on a Si substrate. The two types of (sub-)micrometer-sized nanosheets were also combined on a single substrate to locally control the orientation of SrRuO₃. This experiment illustrates that nanosheets can be used to create films with position dependent properties that are determined by the local crystallographic orientations.

EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

Materials. Anhydrous K_2CO_3 (\geq 99%) was purchased from Fluka; CaCO₃ (ACS reagent, chelometric standard), Nb₂O₅ (99.99%, trace metals basis), and MoO₃ (> 99.5%, ACS reagent) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich; TiO₂ (\geq 99%, technical) and Li₂CO₃ (\geq 99%, purum) were purchased from Riedel-de Haën; nitric acid (65 % *w*/w in water) and tetrabutylammonium hydroxide (40 % *w*/w in water) were provided by Acros Organics and Alfa Aesar, respectively. Ultrapure water with a resistivity of 18.2 MΩ·cm was used, and all chemicals were used as received, without additional purification. Single crystal boron doped (100) silicon wafers (grown by the Czochralski process) were purchased from Okmetic and (001) and (110) oriented SrTiO₃ substrates were purchased from CrysTec GmbH. A stoichiometric target of SrRuO₃ was obtained from Praxair electronics.

Preparation of the Nanosheets. $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ and $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets were prepared similar to the procedures of references 24 and 25. Both types of nanosheets were obtained by solid state calcination followed by cation exchange to achieve exfoliation. $KCa_2Nb_3O_{10}$ was prepared by mixing $K_2CO_3/CaCO_3/Nb_2O_5$ in molar ratios of 1.10/4.00/3.00 and annealing in a capped alumina crucible (100 mL Coors ordered from Sigma-Aldrich) at 1200 °C using the procedure of Table 1. $K_{0.8}[Ti_{1.73}Li_{0.27}]O_4$ was made by intimate grinding of $K_2CO_3/TiO_2/Li_2CO_3/MoO_3$ in molar ratios of 1.00/1.04/0.081/0.76 and calcination in a closed Pt crucible at 1150 °C following the procedure of Table 1. Formation of large crystallites of $K_{0.8}[Ti_{1.73}Li_{0.28}]O_4$ was realized under the conditions mentioned in Table 1 by formation of a liquid flux of K_2MoO_4 that was dissolved in water and filtered out after calcination.

Both layered compounds were stirred in nitric acid to interchange K^+ with H^+ and form $HCa_2Nb_3O_{10}\cdot 1.5H_2O$ and $H_{1.07}Ti_{1.73}O_4\cdot H_2O$. Approximately 20 g of $KCa_2Nb_3O_{10}$ was placed in a 1 L, 5 mol·L⁻¹

Table 1. Annealing Sequences Used in a Chamber Furnace (Carbolite) for Solid State Synthesis of the Parent Compounds (A Holdback Temperature of 20 °C Was Used)

powder	ramp rate (° $C \cdot min^{-1}$)	temp. °C	duration (h)
KCa ₂ Nb ₃ O ₁₀	5	800	4
	0.5	1200	10
	5	25	
$K_{0.8}[Ti_{1.73}Li_{0.28}]O_4$	3	1150	0.5
	0.1	950	
	5	25	

solution and was stirred with a stirring magnet at 300 rpm for 72 h. Similarly, about 10 g $K_{0.8}[\rm Ti_{1.73}Li_{0.27}]O_4$ was stirred in nitric acid (500 mL, 2 mol·L⁻¹) for 96 h. The latter dispersion was allowed to sediment every 24 h after which the solution was removed by decantation and replaced by a fresh one. After protonation, both powders were filtered by vacuum filtration (Whatman 1450-055) and washed with a copious quantity of water (10 times).

To obtain $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets, 0.4 g of $HCa_2Nb_3O_{10}\cdot 1.5H_2O$ was suspended in 100 mL water and 480 μ L of the 40 % commercial aqueous solution of tetrabutylammonium hydroxide (exfoliation agent) was added. The $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets were formed by adding 0.3 g of $H_{1.07}Ti_{1.73}O_4\cdot H_2O$ and 635 μ L exfoliation agent to 200 mL water. Both solutions were shaken vigorously for 1 min after preparation and then kept on a rocking shaker. To increase stability, the solution containing $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets was diluted 9 times after 14 days of exfoliation and the solution containing $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets was diluted 3.3 times after 21 days. Prior to making these stock solutions, the solution containing $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets was stirred until all of the precipitate had dispersed in the solution, while the other solution was decanted 30 min after it had been removed from the rocking shaker.

Langmuir–Blodgett Deposition. The silicon wafers with native oxide layer were cut into pieces of about 1×1.5 cm². The substrates were first cleaned on a hot plate at 250 °C with a jet of supercritical CO₂ and then in an oxygen plasma cleaner (Harrick plasma) at 30 W for 15 min. A KSV minimicro double-barrier Langmuir trough with a vertical lifting configuration was used to deposit the nanosheets on the substrates.

Three types of monolayers were deposited on the substrates, that is, $Ti_{0.87}O_2,\ Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ and a mixture of both types of nanosheets. For the samples with a dense packing and in the case of $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets, depositions were performed at a surface pressure Π = 20 mN·m⁻¹. A 12.3 times dilution of the stock solution was used for these depositions. Without further diluting the stock solution of $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets and by using Π = 14 mN·m⁻¹, a high coverage of nanosheets was obtained. In the case when a mixture of both types of nanosheets was desired, 10 mL of each stock solutions was mixed with 30 ml water. The resulting solution was added to the Langmuir trough 15 min after its preparation and a deposition was performed at Π = 17.5 mN·m⁻¹. The isotherms showing the surface pressure versus compression and atomic force microscopy images of the resulting monolayers can be found in the Supporting Information.

Pulsed Laser Deposition of Strontium Ruthenate. $SrRuO_3$ films were deposited by pulsed laser deposition using the conditions of Kuiper et al.²⁶ All depositions were performed in a 1:1 O₂ and Ar environment of 0.30 mbar. The substrate temperature was controlled by a thermocouple inside the heater at 670 °C.

The laser beam was produced by a 248 nm KrF excimer laser (LPXPro from Coherent, Inc.) with a typical pulse duration of 20 to 30 ns. A square mask of 55.9 mm² with rounded corners was used to select the most homogeneous part of the laser beam. The laser was then focused on the stoichiometric SrRuO₃ target to a spot size of 1.8 mm². The voltage was adjusted to yield a laser fluence of 2.1 J·cm⁻² on the target. The laser repetition rate was set at 1 Hz and the target to substrate distance was kept at 5 cm.

The target was pre-ablated at 5 Hz for 6 min to remove possible surface contaminations. All depositions were carried out for 60 min,

yielding a layer thickness of 34 ± 7 nm. After deposition, the samples were allowed to cool to room temperature at a maximum rate of 20 °C·min⁻¹ in an environment of 100 mbar O₂.

Analysis and Characterization. The topography of the samples was analyzed with a Dimension Icon atomic force microscope (Bruker AXS) using the standard tapping mode option. For selected samples, the relative coverage of nanosheets on the substrates was determined. In these cases, atomic force microscopy scans were made on at least seven different locations on the sample. The data were subsequently processed using Gwyddion 2.29 and the resulting images were analyzed by ImageJ 1.45s to obtain a value for the relative coverage of nanosheets.

Crystallographic information was obtained with a D8 Discover diffractometer (Bruker AXS). Electron backscatter diffraction was performed on a Merlin field emission microscope (Zeiss) equipped with an angle selective backscatter detector. The electron backscatter diffraction data were analyzed by assuming a cubic SrRuO₃ crystal structure. In addition, an ultra-high vacuum Orion Plus helium ion microscope (Zeiss) equipped with an Everhardt–Thornley detector (to record images based on secondary electrons) was used.

The samples were cut to sizes of $17 \pm 2 \text{ mm}^2$ after which magnetization measurements were conducted on a vibrating sample magnetometer (Physical Properties Measurement System by Quantum Design). The magnetic moments were determined as a function of the magnetic field and temperature, with the magnetic field applied parallel and perpendicular to the surfaces of the samples. The error bars and deviations used in this article all represent a confidence of 95% (two times the standard deviation).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Influence of Nanosheets on the Morphology of Strontium Ruthenate. As can be seen from the tapping mode atomic force microscopy (TM-AFM) images in Figure 1, the topography of SrRuO₃ was influenced by the underlying nanosheets. On the parts of the substrates that were not covered by nanosheets, larger and more separated grains were found than on the areas that did contain nanosheets. This observation is corroborated by the values for the root mean square (RMS) roughness. For SrRuO₃ on Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ nanosheets, Ti_{0.87}O₂ nanosheets, and parts free from nanosheets, the RMS roughnesses were $R_q = 5.8$ nm, 4.4 nm, and 11 nm, respectively. These values are significantly larger than those measured for SrRuO₃ deposited on single crystalline substrates such as (001) SrTiO₃ (SrRuO₃ deposited on this substrate using the same conditions had an RMS roughness of $R_{\alpha} = 0.24$ nm; see Supporting Information). Note that the AFM images of Figure 1 were made on samples with a relative sparse distribution of nanosheets. The reason to show these images is that the different morphologies of SrRuO₃ on and off the nanosheets are well visible. Similar film morphologies were obtained on densely packed monolayers of nanosheets (see Supporting Information), which were used for all further analysis and characterization.

Marked differences were observed between the morphologies of the films on $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ and $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets. The films on $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets (Figure 1a,b) were atomically smooth but contained deep trenches that formed a maze of nanostructures that meandered over the substrate. The trenches preferentially ran into two directions on a single nanosheet. This observation is also illustrated by the inset in Figure 1b, which shows the existence of fourfold symmetry in the two dimensional slope distribution analysis of the AFM image. The symmetry in the slope distribution analysis is a strong indication for epitaxy on the $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets, where facets follow preferred crystallographic planes of SrRuO₃. On





Figure 1. TM-AFM height images of SrRuO₃ deposited on Si substrates containing nanosheets. (a, b) $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets used as seed layer; (c, d) $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets used. The inset in part b shows the slope distribution analysis from the corresponding AFM height image. The height profiles in part e were measured on the lines in parts b (upper red line) and d (lower blue line).

 ${\rm Ti}_{0.87}{\rm O}_2$ nanosheets the SrRuO₃ layer had a typical grain structure in which no such symmetry could be found (Figure 1c,d). Regardless of the type of nanosheets that was used, the morphologies of the films were not significantly influenced by changing the deposition pressure between 0.03 and 0.6 mbar, or the substrate temperature between 600 and 700 °C.

The observed strong variation in morphologies may be explained both by thermodynamic and kinetic considerations. Kinetically, roughness is determined by surface chemistries (e.g., surface charges, contaminations, or dislocations), which may affect sticking coefficients or diffusivities during deposition.^{26,27} Thermodynamically, roughness can be caused by stress or by large surface or interfacial energies.²⁸

X-ray diffraction and electron backscatter diffraction results discussed below indicated epitaxial growth of SrRuO₃ on the individual (single crystalline) nanosheets. Relatively large lattice mismatches between the nanosheets and SrRuO₃ and consecutive large elastic strain from registry of the two lattices led to rapid development of stress and may explain roughening of these films. The lattice mismatch for (001)_{pc} oriented growth of SrRuO₃ ($a_{pc} = 3.928$ Å) on Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ nanosheets ($a_c = 3.86$ Å) is +1.7 %. The mismatch for (110)_{pc} oriented growth of SrRuO₃ on Ti_{0.87}O₂ nanosheets (a = 3.76 Å, b = 2.97 Å) is +4.3% parallel to the *a*-axis and -6.9% parallel to the *b*-axis of

the nanosheets. (labels pc and c refer to a pseudo-cubic and cubic unit cell, respectively). For comparison, the lattice mismatch is +0.6% with SrTiO₃. The excessive growth of crystallites that was observed in between the nanosheets may be explained by suppression of nucleation due to absence of a periodic potential in the amorphous oxide layer on Si.

Large interfacial energies may also have caused roughening of the films. In particular, the $(110)_{\rm pc}$ oriented film may have coarsened due to anisotropy in the surface energy. Generally in perovskite oxides, the $(001)_{\rm c}$ planes have the lowest surface energy.^{29–32} The fact that the $(001)_{\rm pc}$ oriented crystallites on Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ nanosheets had atomically smooth surfaces and square-shaped facets, indicates that SrRuO₃ forms no exception to this generality. Therefore, the $(110)_{\rm pc}$ oriented film may have preferentially formed $(001)_{\rm pc}$ surface planes, thereby increasing its roughness. This theory is further enforced by the high roughness that was measured on the film deposited on (110) SrTiO₃ ($R_{\rm q}$ = 3.5 nm).

Influence of Nanosheets on the Orientation of Strontium Ruthenate. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) data in Figure 2a shows the result of $\theta - 2\theta$ scans on different films. The bottom curve was obtained from a sample where SrRuO₃ was deposited directly on a silicon substrate, the middle curve was obtained when a layer of Ti_{0.87}O₂ nanosheets with a relative coverage of 96.3 ± 0.9 % was used and the top curve was



Figure 2. (a) XRD patterns of SrRuO₃ deposited on silicon (yellow curve) on silicon containing a monolayer of $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets (blue curve, multiplied by a factor of 10) and on silicon containing $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets (red curve, × 100). The black lines above the graph indicate the theoretical positions of the diffraction spots of bulk SrRuO₃ and Si. The rocking curve in part b was made on the sample containing $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets ($2\theta = 46.28^{\circ}$), the rocking curve in part c was made on the sample containing $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets ($2\theta = 32.26^{\circ}$). The curve in part b was fitted with a single Gaussian function, while two Gaussian functions were used to fit the curve in part c (the background was fitted with a linear function).

obtained with a seed layer of Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ nanosheets having a relative coverage of 95.7 \pm 1.6%. When SrRuO₃ was directly deposited on silicon, no significant peaks other than those from the substrate were found. When Ti_{0.87}O₂ nanosheets were used, the strongest peak was found at $2\theta = 32.3^{\circ}$. A rocking curve was made at this angle by scanning ω in a window of 18° (Figure 2b). The full width at half maximum (FWHM) of this curve was 3.4°. A different orientation was measured on Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ nanosheets, where peaks were observed at $2\theta = 22.7^{\circ}$ and 46.3°. In this case an additional peak was observed at $2\theta = 44.4^{\circ}$, having an intensity of 4% compared to the peak at $2\theta = 46.3^{\circ}$ had a FWHM of 1.3° (Figure 2c).

Control over crystallographic orientation by nanosheets is illustrated by the fact that film peaks were observed only when SrRuO₃ was deposited on nanosheets. The absence of film peaks in the case where SrRuO₃ was directly deposited on silicon can be explained by the lack of preferred orientation in this case, together with the absolute amount of material in our films. The peak observed for the film on $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets is matching well with the $(110)_{pc}$ orientation of SrRuO₃. Also, the $(001)_{pc}$ and $(002)_{pc}$ planes of SrRuO₃ diffract at angles where the two main peaks were found for the film on $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets.³³ The ω rocking curves further confirmed preferred orientations of the crystallites when deposited on nanosheets. Thus, preferred out-of-plane orientations of the films were confirmed when interlayers of nanosheets were present.

The observed preferential out-of-plane orientation was in both cases expected from the lattice matching with the underlying nanosheets. After all, pseudo-cube on cube epitaxy of $SrRuO_3$ on $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets is most likely in the $[001]_{pc}$ direction, while the rectangular structure of the Ti_{0.87}O₂ nanosheets will most likely promote growth in the [110]_{pc} direction. Besides, epitaxy is likely in these directions because then the oxygen octahedra of the films and nanosheets are aligned, resulting in a continuous octahedral backbone through the nanosheets and films. The FWHM of the two rocking curves are significantly different, suggesting that the crystallites were more strongly oriented on $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ than on $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets. This observation was also in accordance with our expectations, since the lattice mismatch between Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ and SrRuO₃ is significantly smaller than the mismatch between Ti_{0.87}O₂ and SrRuO₃.

The positions of the peaks for both SrRuO₃ on Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ and $\mathrm{Ti}_{0.87}\mathrm{O}_2$ nanosheets indicate that the films were free from strain ($d_{001} = 3.91$ nm and $d_{110} = 2.77$ nm). Most probably, elastic relaxation was accommodated by a large number of dislocations and grain boundaries in the films, which is in line with the observed morphologies, as discussed above. Another cause for release of strain may be found in the 'flexible nature' of the nanosheets, which may have resulted in a relaxed film on a strained seed layer.¹⁷ A rational condition for the latter explanation is that the nanosheets should not clamp to the substrate at the high deposition temperatures. Fractions of the film on Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ nanosheets may have been compressively strained, as that would explain the presence of the small peak $(d_{002} = 2.04 \text{ nm})$. It is possible that a fraction of SrRuO₃ was strained by the unilamellar nanosheets or by thicker crystallites that had not been completely exfoliated into unilamellar sheets.

Magnetic Anisotropy. Temperature dependent magnetization measurements showed anisotropy when either a layer of $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ or $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets was used, but not when



Figure 3. Magnetic hysteresis curves of $SrRuO_3$ films at 20 K, 120 K, and 160 K. The data were obtained from $SrRuO_3$ on (a) $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets, (b) $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets, and (c) silicon without a layer of nanosheets. The data represented by the closed symbols were obtained by applying the magnetic field parallel to the plane of the surface, while the field was applied out of the plane for the data represented by the open symbols. The curves were obtained after extracting the diamagnetic background signals from the silicon substrates.



Figure 4. Temperature dependency of the saturation magnetization of $SrRuO_3$ on (a) $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets, (b) $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets, and (c) silicon without nanosheets. The in-plane measurements (closed circles) and out-of-plane measurements (open circles) were fitted to Brillouin functions calculated from Weiss theory of ferromagnetism. With the assumption of zero external field and for different angular momenta (*J*), the theoretical curves were fitted (up to 155 *K*) to the data. Best fits were produced for different values of *J* by an iterative process, where alternately the absolute saturation magnetization ($I_{S,abs}$) and the Curie point (T_C) were varied. $I_{S,abs}$ and T_C where then chosen from the fit with the lowest least squares. Brillouin curves are shown for J = 1, 4 and ∞ , where *J* increases in the direction of the arrow.

SrRuO₃ was directly deposited on Si (Figures 3 and 4). For both films on nanosheets, the easy axis was parallel to the surfaces. Fits of the saturation magnetization versus temperature to theoretical Brillouin functions with J = 1, 4, and ∞ showed that all data were best followed by the Langevin functional dependency (i.e., $J = \infty$). Ferromagnetic behavior was measured up to ~160 K in all three cases (Figures 4 and 5). The only exception was found when the field was applied in the plane of the surface for the case of SrRuO₃ on Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ nanosheets, where the Curie temperature was ~6 K lower.

The anisotropy in the magnetic response for films deposited on nanosheets clearly illustrates that the control over orientation had a significant effect on the properties of the films and was therefore of magnetocrystalline nature. In contrast to these results, the preferred direction of magnetization was measured to be out-of-plane when SrRuO3 was deposited under the same conditions on (110) and (001) oriented SrTiO₃ substrates (see Supporting Information). The SrRuO₃ films on SrTiO₃ were compressively strained while those on nanosheets were free from strain. Due to the strong spin-orbit coupling in SrRuO₃₁ strain has a substantial effect on the magnetization. This was previously observed for SrRuO₃ on both (110) and (001) oriented SrTiO₃, where the strain was tuned between compressive and tensile by the introduction of a buffer layer.^{34,35} In both of these cases, the easy axis rotated into the plane of the surface after changing the strain from



Figure 5. Coercive field as a function of temperature for $SrRuO_3$ deposited on silicon containing $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$, $Ti_{0.87}O_2$, and no nanosheets. The data obtained with the field applied in the plane of the surface are represented by closed symbols, while the open symbols represent data obtained with the field applied out-of-plane. The solid lines are fits to a third order function and serve only to guide the eye.

compressive to tensile. Besides by strain, the direction of the easy axis may have been influenced by the roughness. Our films were found to be rougher on the nanosheets than on the $SrTiO_3$ substrates. The preference for out-of-plane magnetization due to the surface anisotropy may have been reduced because of the higher roughness of $SrRuO_3$ on the nanosheets. It is noted that on a macroscopic scale, our $SrRuO_3$ films were randomly oriented in the surface plane, because the nanosheet templates were also randomly oriented. On the other hand, the orientations of the films on the single crystalline substrates were

fixed in all directions. The two classes of films were therefore essentially different and only for this reason differences in the magnetization behavior are expected.

The measured Curie temperatures are close to the value measured for bulk SrRuO₃ ($T_C \approx 165$ K).¹⁸ When SrRuO₃ is strained, for example, by clamping on a substrate, the Curie temperature decreases. For example, Gan et al. found a Curie temperature of 150 K for SrRuO₃ on a (001) oriented SrTiO₃ substrate and showed that this temperature could be increased by 10 K after decoupling the film from the substrate.³⁶ With respect to this study, the comparatively high Curie temperatures found in this work form yet another indication of relaxation of our films. The deviant value for the Curie temperature of SrRuO₃ on Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ nanosheets may be explained by assuming that this film was partly strained, which is in line with the side peak observed in the XRD spectrum of Figure 2.

Signatures of high concentrations of defects were seen from the magnetization measurements, for instance by the high coercivity as plotted in Figure 5 and the large switching areas in the hysteresis curves of Figure 3. These observations can be explained by a large number of free poles, which add up to the magnetostatic energy of the system. Free poles are formed both at the grain boundaries and at imperfections (e.g. dislocations) inside the grains, the latter ones cause pinning of the domains during domain wall motion resulting in an increase of the coercive force (compared to films with less imperfections). We note that the magnetic characterization is in accordance with the AFM and XRD analyses, as all results indicate an abundance of grain boundaries and imperfections in the films. The coercive field was significantly lower when SrRuO3 was deposited on Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ than when it was deposited on Ti_{0.87}O₂ nanosheets. This observation is also in agreement with the XRD data, which indicated that crystal growth was controlled to a higher extent by Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ than by Ti_{0.87}O₂ nanosheets.

The large concentration of defects and high roughness may explain the observed classical magnetic behavior by the Langevin functional dependency. Furthermore, the absence of a preferred in-plane orientation may have caused the total of all magnetic spins in our films to show classical rather than quantum mechanical behavior. Note that a vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM) is sensitive only for the complete magnetization of a sample. Therefore, no conclusions can be drawn on the magnetic behavior of SrRuO₃ on individual nanosheets.

Control over the Crystallographic Orientation on a Single Substrate. One of the great promises of nanosheets is that different kinds can be deposited on a single substrate to locally control the orientation of a film deposited thereon. To illustrate this concept, a mixture containing both $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ and $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets was made and transferred onto a single substrate. On top of this monolayer, $SrRuO_3$ was deposited.

After the deposition of nanosheets, a densely packed monolayer with a relative coverage of 95.7 \pm 2.0 % was obtained (Figure 6). The two types of nanosheets could be distinguished in the AFM height images by their respective heights (Ti_{0.87}O₂ nanosheets have a thickness of 0.75 nm, while Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ nanosheets are 1.44 nm thick³⁷). From the contrast in height, the relative coverage of Ti_{0.87}O₂ nanosheets was determined to be 69.6 \pm 2.3% and the relative coverage of Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ to be 26.1 \pm 2.8%. After PLD, both AFM (Figure 6b) and helium ion microscopy images (Figure 7) showed two clearly distinct surface morphologies on the SrRuO₃ film. Both

1.2 1.4

1.6 1.8 2.0

length (µm)

Figure 6. TM-AFM height images of a monolayer of mixed $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ and $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets on silicon (a) before and (b) after deposition of SrRuO₃. The height profiles of the lines drawn in parts a and b are shown in part c.

0 nm

C

height (nm)

0.3

0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 1.0



Figure 7. Helium ion microscopy images of SrRuO₃ on mixed $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ and $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets on silicon. Two different regions are shown that are characteristic for SrRuO₃ on (a) $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ and (b) $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets (acceleration voltage was 35 kV, working distance was 5.5 mm and sample tilt was 20°).

a smooth layer containing trenches (typical for films on $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ nanosheets) and more regular grains (typically observed on $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets) were observed.

In the XRD spectrum (Figure 8), both peaks corresponding to the $(00l)_{pc}$ and $(hh0)_{pc}$ planes were found. The FWHM of the two peaks were a bit larger than those found when SrRuO₃ was deposited on a substrate with just one of the two



Figure 8. (a) XRD patterns of SrRuO₃ on silicon containing both $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ and $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets. Rocking curves b and c were obtained with 2θ fixed at respectively 46.30° and 32.36°. Both rocking curves were fitted with two Gaussian functions.

nanosheets. However, also in this case the rocking curve on the $(110)_{pc}$ planes was significantly broader than that on the $(002)_{pc}$ planes. Assuming that the shapes of the two rocking curves were independent of the rocking direction, the volumes (V) under the two curves were estimated by eq 1. This equation was obtained after taking a volume integral over the Gaussian function (I_0 is the intensity at the center of the curve). In a powder diffractogram, the relative intensities of the $(002)_{pc}$ and $(110)_{pc}$ peaks are 35 % and 100 %, respectively.³³ After correcting for these values, the relative amounts of SrRuO₃ in the two particular orientations were estimated to be respectively 83% and 17%. This result is another indication that the crystallographic orientation was significantly less well controlled on the Ti_{0.87}O₂ nanosheets than on the Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ nanosheets.

$$V = \frac{\pi I_0 \text{FWHM}^2}{4 \cdot \ln 2} \tag{1}$$

{110}

{110}

(001)

{111}

0

{111}

Part of the sample was mapped by electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD), the results of which are shown in Figure 9.

2 µm

Y {001}

Y {001}

d

e



Areas with a clear $(001)_{pc}$ orientation were present, as can be seen from the inverse pole figure map of the direction perpendicular to the surface (z). More interestingly, the inverse pole figure map of a parallel (x) direction showed that the individual $(001)_{pc}$ oriented areas had a single orientation parallel to the plane of the surface. On the areas where no strong $(001)_{pc}$ orientation was observed, the grains were mostly oriented with the $(110)_{pc}$ planes parallel to the surface. The preference, however, was less clear in these areas than in the areas which showed a $(001)_{pc}$ orientation. Two different areas were selected for which a single underlying nanosheet was expected (the areas are highlighted in the Supporting Information). The two pole figures in Figure 9d and e were constructed from the resolved diffraction patterns obtained from these areas. A preferred $(001)_{pc}$ orientation is observed in Figure 9d, while Figure 9e mainly shows $(110)_{pc}$ oriented SrRuO₃.

The inverse pole figure maps and pole figures demonstrate that the orientation of the crystallites was controlled both parallel and perpendicular to the direction of growth. Particularly, the two pole figures clearly show that both $(001)_{pc}$ and $(110)_{pc}$ oriented SrRuO₃ had a single preferential orientation in all directions. This observation forms a strong indication for epitaxy, where the crystallographic orientations in the film were determined by the underlying nanosheets. The preference was clearer for the $(001)_{pc}$ oriented part than for the $(110)_{pc}$ oriented part. The difference is partly explained by the higher roughness of the film in the $(110)_{pc}$ oriented areas, which led to a smaller band contrast in the diffraction patterns (Figure 9a). Besides, stronger deviations from the $(110)_{pc}$ orientation were also indicated by the XRD patterns. Nevertheless, the single crystal orientations that were most clearly demonstrated by the two pole figures indicate that SrRuO₃ grew epitaxially on both Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ and Ti_{0.87}O₂ nanosheets.

The magnetic characterization of the film on the mixed nanosheets is shown in Figure 10. We expect the magnetization



Figure 10. Magnetic characterization of SrRuO₃ on silicon containing both Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ and Ti_{0.87}O₂ nanosheets. Magnetic hysteresis loops are shown for 20, 120, and 160 K in image (a). Image (b) shows the saturation magnetization versus temperature, together with fits to Brillouin functions (*J* increases in the direction of the arrow from 1 to 4 to ∞). The coercive field is plotted versus temperature in image (c), where the third order fits serve to guide the eye. Open symbols represent measurements in which the magnetic field was applied perpendicular to the surface of the sample, while closed symbols are used for the data that was obtained with the magnetic field applied parallel to the surface.

properties of this sample to be the convolution of SrRuO₃ on Ca₂Nb₃O₁₀ and Ti_{0.87}O₂ nanosheets. Markedly, the preference for the magnetization parallel to the surface plane was less pronounced than when only one of the two types of nanosheets was used. This difference was probably caused by small experimental variations during the fabrication and measurements of the samples.

Since only data about the complete magnetization of a sample can be obtained with a VSM, local variations within samples could not be mapped. Since the orientation of $SrRuO_3$ is controlled locally by the different nanosheets, we postulate that the film had position dependent magnetic properties that were determined by the type of nanosheet under the film. The relative distribution of the two kinds of nanosheets was

completely random in this case, and we are currently working on methods to control the positioning of nanosheets on a substrate. Such control may pave the way to advanced functional films where the properties are controlled locally by the crystallographic orientation.

CONCLUSIONS

Inorganic nanosheets of Ca2Nb3O10 and Ti0.87O2 were placed on silicon substrates and used to control the nucleation of SrRuO₃ during growth by PLD. The nanosheets proved to influence both the crystallographic orientation and magnetic properties of the films. Magnetic anisotropy was measured when SrRuO₃ was deposited on one of the two nanosheets but not when it was deposited directly on a silicon substrate. The typical dimensions of nanosheets allow to control the orientations of films on much smaller length scales than what is typically achieved on single crystalline substrates. This concept was explored by formation of SrRuO₃ films on a mixed monolayer comprising both types of nanosheets. Compared to single crystalline substrates, nanosheets are still considered inferior because of poor control over their dimensions, shape, positioning, and orientations. However, nanosheets may offer unique advantages over costly single crystalline substrates. For example, previous work proves that nanosheets can be placed on all sorts of (amorphous) substrates to gain control over the crystallinity of films deposited thereon. With this article, we aim to show that another advantage is the local control over the nucleation of material, which allows tailoring the properties of a material on a (sub-)micrometer scale. Possibly, such control will be having important implications in various fields and will prove useful for applications in data storage and microelectromechanical systems (MEMS).

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

Surface pressure versus compression isotherms and AFM images of densely packed $Ca_2Nb_3O_{10}$ and $Ti_{0.87}O_2$ nanosheets before and after deposition of SrRuO₃. Analysis and magnetic characterization of SrRuO₃ on (001) and (110) oriented SrTiO₃. EBSD band contrast image showing the two areas from which pole figures were constructed. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org/.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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