

1 **Microstructures and properties of new Sn-Ag-Cu lead-free solder**  
2 **reinforced with Ni-coated graphene nanosheets**

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17 **Abstract**

18 This paper deals with microstructures and properties of SAC305 lead-free solder  
19 reinforced with graphene nanosheets (GNS) decorated with Ni nanoparticles  
20 (Ni-GNS). These Ni-coated GNS nanosheets were synthesized by an *in-situ* chemical  
21 reduction method. After morphological and chemical characterization, Ni-GNS were  
22 successfully integrated into SAC305 lead-free solder alloy with different weight  
23 fractions (0, 0.05, 0.1 and 0.2wt %) through a powder metallurgy route. The obtained  
24 composite solders were then studied extensively with regard to their microstructures,  
25 wettability, thermal, electrical and mechanical properties. After addition of Ni-GNSs,  
26 cauliflower-like (Cu, Ni)<sub>6</sub>Sn<sub>5</sub> intermetallic compounds (IMCs) were formed at the  
27 interface between composite solder joint and copper substrate. Additionally, blocky  
28 Ni<sub>3</sub>Sn<sub>4</sub>-GNS hybrids were also observed homogeneously distributed in the composite

29 solder matrices. Composite solder alloys incorporating Ni-decorated GNSs  
30 nanosheets showed slightly reduced electrical resistivity compared to the unreinforced  
31 SAC305 solder alloy. With an increase in the amount of Ni-GNS, the composite  
32 solders showed an improvement in wettability with an insignificant change in their  
33 melting temperature. Mechanical tests demonstrated that addition of 0.2 wt% Ni-GNS  
34 would result in 19.7% and 16.9% improvements in microhardness and shear strength,  
35 respectively, in comparison to the unreinforced solders. Finally, the added Ni-GNS  
36 reinforcements in the solder matrix were assessed with energy-dispersive X-ray  
37 spectroscopy, scanning electron microscopy and Raman spectroscopy.

38 **Key words:** Ni-coated graphene oxide; Lead-free solder; Wettability; Melting  
39 temperature; Mechanical properties; Raman spectrum

## 40 1. Introduction

41 Usage of lead in electronics packaging industry has been largely limited because  
42 it poses a threat to the environment as well as people's health. As a result, lead-free  
43 solders have gained a rapid development opportunity. Since the alloy system of  
44 eutectic SAC (Sn-Ag-Cu) has outstanding mechanical strength, reliability and  
45 solderability, it is widely acknowledged as the material with greatest potential among  
46 those Pb-free solders [1]. Nevertheless, due to the demand for high-performance  
47 electronics and the recent miniaturization trend, the need for new electronic  
48 interconnecting material which has high robustness and stability is increasing a lot [2].  
49 Hence, in order to fulfil the higher requirements resulted from the current needs of  
50 electronic industry; the properties of those existing materials of Sn-Ag-Cu Pb-free  
51 solders should be further improved.

52 In order to promote the performance of a traditional solder alloy, it is potentially  
53 feasible to prepare composite solder by introducing foreign reinforcements into the  
54 matrix of the solder alloy. A lot of researchers have widely investigated the influence  
55 of different foreign reinforcements (such as carbon-based materials, ceramics and

56 metals) on the microstructural evolution as well as mechanical and physical properties  
57 of solders [3-7]. Due to special chemical and physical features, the carbon-based nano  
58 material (e.g. grapheme and carbon Nanotube) have attracted enormous attention of  
59 people as an outstanding reinforcement [8-14]. As a result, researches of different  
60 fields tend to choose carbon-based nano materials as the reinforcement to form  
61 composites [15-18]. Recently, researchers have made a lot of attempts to study the  
62 influence brought by carbon-based nano materials' incorporation on the properties of  
63 solder alloy [19-21]. Kumar et al. reported that introduction of Single-wall carbon  
64 nanotube (SWCNT) improved mechanical and melting property of SAC solders [19].  
65 Hu et al. [20] prepared a Sn-Zn-Bi/GNS composite solder using a mechanical mixing  
66 approach. They reported that the microhardness and shear strength of solder alloys  
67 were considerably improved after GNS addition. In addition, the growth rate of IMC  
68 in Cu/ composite solder interface was decreased under aging condition. Using a  
69 powder-metallurgy processing route, a SAC305/ GNS composite solder was  
70 developed by Liu et al. [21]. This composite solder showed an increase in ultimate  
71 tensile strength (UTS) but a decrease in the coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE).

72 However, the added reinforcements, especially non-wettable ones (usually  
73 including ceramics and carbon-based materials) are often found to be expelled from a  
74 molten solder during a reflow process [22]. To solve this problem and improve the  
75 retained ratio of the added reinforcement in the solder matrix, researchers attempted  
76 to form a "bridge" between the reinforcement and solder matrix. Some metal  
77 nanoparticles (such as Au and Ni) are regarded as ideal "bridge materials" since they  
78 are apt to react with Sn-based solder alloys to form IMCs during a soldering process.  
79 Silica nanoparticles with an Au layer were synthesized by Mokhtari et al. [23]; they  
80 reported that this core-shell structural reinforcement could be wetted by molten solder.  
81 Yang et al. [24-25] studied the effect of carbon nanotubes with Ni coating (Ni-CNTs)  
82 on mechanical properties and microstructures of solder alloys. Their experimental  
83 results indicated that addition of Ni-CNTs contributed to improvement of  
84 performance of solder alloys.

85 To date, however, there were no reports on the effect of Ni-modified graphene on

86 performance of lead-free solder alloys. In this study, in view of exceptional physical  
87 and chemical characteristics of graphene, multi-layer graphene nanosheets were thus  
88 chosen as the basic reinforcement that also served as a carrier for Ni plating. Ni was  
89 chosen as the “bridge material” since it could form IMCs by reacting with molten  
90 Sn-based solders during soldering process. In addition, it is also widely reported that  
91 an appropriate addition of Ni had a positive effect on microstructure and service  
92 performance of solder alloys [26-27].

93 To understand the effect of Ni-GNS composite reinforcement on performance of  
94 the SAC305 solder alloy, an attempt was made to synthesize Ni-GNS reinforcement  
95 as well as fabricating SAC305/Ni-GNS nano-composite solders. Further, both the  
96 microstructures and physical and mechanical properties of these composite solders  
97 were studied in detail. The existence of the doped reinforcement particles in the solder  
98 matrix was also confirmed in this work.

## 99 **2. Materials and experimental procedures**

### 100 *2.1 Materials*

101 96.5Sn–3Ag–0.5Cu (wt. %) alloy powder with average particle diameter of  
102 35 $\mu$ m, were purchased from Beijing Compo (China). The multi-layer graphene  
103 nanosheets provided by JCNANO Materials Tech (China) with size of 3-10 $\mu$ m and  
104 thickness of 5-10 nm, were used as the carrier for Ni plating.

### 105 *2.2 Electroless Ni plating*

106 In this study, the synthesis of Ni-GNS process included three steps: (1) ultrasonic  
107 dispersion, (2) sensitization and activation, and (3) electroless Ni plating. All these  
108 three steps are shown in a schematic diagram in Fig 1.

109 In order to improve the dispersion of GNS nanosheets in chemical reagents, the  
110 as-purchased GNS nanosheets were first ultrasonically dispersed in ethanol solution  
111 (step 1). After that, the nanosheets were further sensitized and activated subsequently



112 in  $\text{SnCl}_2$  (10g/L) and  $\text{PdCl}_2$  (0.5g/L) solutions (step 2). In the Ni-plating process (step  
113 3),  $\text{NiSO}_4$  was used as a source of  $\text{Ni}^{2+}$  while  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$  was a reducing agent. After  
114 Ni plating, the Ni-coated GNSs were filtered in a centrifugal filter and dried in a  
115 vacuum furnace at  $50^\circ\text{C}$  for 24 h. The components of the plating solution are listed in  
116 Table1 together with experimental conditions. Morphology characterization of  
117 Ni-coated graphene nanosheets was performed with a FE-SEM (Sirion 200) system  
118 together with an Energy Disperse Spectroscopy (EDS).

### 119 *2.3 Synthesis of nanocomposite solders*

120 In order to prepare composite solders, SAC305 Pb-free solder powders were  
121 mixed homogeneously with Ni-GNS nanosheets which have different weight fractions  
122 (0%, 0.05%, 0.10% and 0.20%) in a planetary ball mill for 20 hours at speed of  
123 180r/min. Specifically, to avoid impurities (especially, other metal elements)  
124 introduced from milling jar or milling balls, the super-hard zirconia milling jar and  
125 balls were employed as the milling media. Then, the ball-milled mixture was  
126 uniaxially compacted into solder billets before sintered in a vacuum atmosphere.  
127 Finally, those solder billets which had been sintered were rolled into the solder foils,  
128 the thickness of which was  $200\mu\text{m}$ . For the convenience of mechanical, wettability  
129 and microstructural analysis, these solder foils were further formed into solder balls  
130 ( $800\mu\text{m}$  in diameter) in a reflow oven. Additionally, the as-rolled solder foils and the  
131 as-sintered solder billets were subjected to electrical and thermal testing.

### 132 *2.4 Characterization methods for composite solder*

133 For microstructural observation, solder balls were firstly mounted in epoxy  
134 before grinding and polishing. The metallographic etching reagent is constituted by  
135 the mixture of ethanol and hydrochloric acid (99.5 vol. % ethanol and 0.5 vol. %  
136 hydrochloric acid). The newly formed IMCs at the interface (or in the solder matrices)  
137 were observed using an environmental scanning electron microscope (ESEM Quanta  
138 200).

139 Differential scanning calorimeter (DSC) was employed to determine the melting  
140 points of plain and composite solders. The solder foils whose weight ranges from 5mg  
141 to 10mg are used as specimens for DSC testing. The heating rate during the test was  
142 10°C/min, and the highest heating temperature reached up to 250°C. A four-point  
143 probe system was employed to measure the electrical resistivity of different solders.  
144 The as-sintered solder billets with dimension of 24 × 8 × 10mm were used as samples  
145 in electrical resistivity test. The dimension of sample was much larger than probe  
146 spacing; in this way, testing precision can be guaranteed. In accordance with previous  
147 researches, the testing current was set within the range of 100mA-1A. In order to  
148 measure the wettability of solders, the contact angle between copper substrate and  
149 solder was tested. For wettability analysis, solder balls were placed on a polished Cu  
150 plate with no-wash flux and heated to a temperature of 250°C. After solidification, the  
151 contact angles were measured by a camera in the contact angle tester. For each solder,  
152 five specimens were tested, so that the reliability of the data could be ensured.

153 The micro-hardness of solder alloys was tested using a Vickers hardness tester  
154 (MXT-CXT) at room temperature. The applied testing load was 100g while the dwell  
155 time was 20s. Thirty samples were tested for each solder system with the maximum  
156 and the minimum values were discarded. The above mentioned solder balls (with a  
157 diameter of 800µm) were also used for shear test. These solder balls, with help of a  
158 reflow oven, were welded onto an experimental chip with copper soldering pads (the  
159 diameter of which was 600µm). The ball shear test was performed on a push-pull  
160 tester (DAGE 4000-plus, Nordson Co. Ltd., U.S.). The shear height was 50µm while  
161 the shear speed was 25µm/s. After shear test, the fractography of samples were also  
162 studied using the ESEM (Quanta200) system. Additionally, by using Raman  
163 spectrometer (RAMAN), EDS and FE-SEM, the shear-fractured surface of solder  
164 balls were also studied, so as to verify the existence of the Ni-GNS in the solder  
165 matrices.

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167

168

### 169 3. Results and discussion

#### 170 3.1 Characterization of Ni-GNSs

171 As shown in Fig 2a, folds and wrinkles were observed on the surface of initial  
172 multi-layer GNSs, which are characteristic features of thin 2-D graphene [28]. After  
173 Ni plating, the surface of graphene nanosheets (see Fig 2b) exhibited a grainy  
174 morphology. From the magnified images (Figs. 2c and d), it can be seen that Ni  
175 nanoparticles with an average diameter of 100 nm were successfully deposited on the  
176 surface of GNSs. Results of EDS indicated weight fractions of C and Ni in the chosen  
177 location (marked in Fig, 2d) - 6.03% and 78.88%, respectively. This result helped to  
178 confirm the existence of Ni nanoparticles on the GNS surface; the elements N and O  
179 appeared in the EDS spectrum might be caused by residual reagents and oxidation.

#### 180 3.2 Microstructural characterization

181 From microstructures of both plain and composite solders under as-soldered  
182 condition (Fig. 3), it can be easily found that there are considerable differences in the  
183 morphology of IMCs formed at the solder/Cu interface in different solders. For the  
184 plain SAC solder sample, the short-rod like  $\text{Cu}_6\text{Sn}_5$  IMCs can be observed at the  
185 interface, produced by the Sn-Cu reaction during the soldering process. However,  
186 morphologies of IMCs at composite solders/Cu interfaces were altered after the  
187 doping of Ni-GNS. As can be seen in Figs. 3b-d, morphology of these IMCs  
188 manifested a transformation, from the short-rod like to a cauliflower-like. The EDS  
189 spectrum of a chosen interfacial location (shown in Fig. 3d) indicated that these newly  
190 formed IMCs consisted of Sn, Ni and Cu. In addition, it was also found that thickness  
191 of IMCs formed at the interfaces was also changed. In order to measure it, an image  
192 software (Image J) was employed, and the obtained results are presented in Table 2. It  
193 can be seen that the thickness magnitude of IMCs was proportional to the amount of  
194 Ni-GNS added. For instance, thickness of IMCs in the composite solder reinforced  
195 0.2Ni-GNS achieved  $5.93 \pm 0.63 \mu\text{m}$ , in contrast to  $4.25 \pm 0.72 \mu\text{m}$  in the plain SAC  
196 solder. It has reported that the apparent activation energy of  $(\text{Cu},\text{Ni})_6\text{Sn}_5$  was 34.6  
197 kJ/mol, which is much lower than that of  $\text{Cu}_6\text{Sn}_5$  (58.6 kJ/mol) [29]. Moreover, it was

198 reported that the diffusion coefficients of Cu atoms and Ni atoms in liquid Sn were  
199  $1.8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$  and  $2.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ , respectively [30]. These findings indicate that  
200  $(\text{Cu,Ni})_6\text{Sn}_5$  can easier be formed compared to  $\text{Cu}_6\text{Sn}_5$ . Essentially speaking, the  
201 formation of interfacial IMC mainly controlled by diffusion mechanism. In the  
202 present study, it is believed that a part of Ni nanoparticles depositing on GNSs  
203 nanosheets arrived at the solder/Cu interface, leading to the formation of  $(\text{Cu,Ni})_6\text{Sn}_5$   
204 IMC. Therefore, the variations of IMCs in morphology and thickness might be  
205 attributed to the diffusion of Ni that introduced from the added Ni-GNS.

206 In addition to the microstructural variation at the solder/Cu interface,  
207 microstructures in the composite solder matrix also exhibited some differences. By  
208 comparing the microstructural images shown in Fig. 3, two main features can be  
209 easily observed in the composite solder matrix—coarse  $\text{Ag}_3\text{Sn}$  IMCs and the newly  
210 formed blocky IMCs. A change in the grain size of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{Sn}$  IMCs was also measured  
211 with the software and the results are presented in Table 2. Apparently, the grain size  
212 of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{Sn}$  exhibited an increasing trend, from  $1.22 \pm 0.34 \mu\text{m}$  in the plain SAC solder to  
213  $2.35 \pm 0.46 \mu\text{m}$  in the 0.2Ni-GNS composite solder. The variation in the grain size of  
214  $\text{Ag}_3\text{Sn}$  IMCs might be a result of the change in undercooling during solidification,  
215 caused by the doping of Ni-GNSs.

216 Newly formed blocky IMCs in the composite solder matrix were also studied.  
217 These IMCs shaped as spheres or short rods (Fig. 3b-d) were formed in the matrix  
218 after addition of Ni-GNSs. In particular, with an increase in the amount of Ni-GNSs  
219 added (from 0 to 0.2 wt. %), these IMCs demonstrated an increase both in their  
220 quantity and volume. In order to further understand the distribution and components  
221 of these IMCs in the solder matrix, a representative SEM image of the  
222 SAC/0.2Ni-GNS solder alloy with corresponding EDS analysis is presented in Fig. 4.  
223 From the SEM image it can be found that these IMC phases (mentioned above) with a  
224 dark colour (their average size was  $5.32 \pm 1.83 \mu\text{m}$ ), were relatively uniformly  
225 distributed in the solder matrix. The EDS spectrum revealed that the weight fraction  
226 of Ni, Cu and Sn in the chosen position were 2.69%, 22.75% and 50.9% respectively,  
227 this result helped to prove that the IMCs were of the  $(\text{Cu, Ni})_6\text{Sn}_5$  phase. A similar  
228 IMC phase was reported by Yang et al. [25] when studying the properties of  
229 SAC/CNT-Ni composite solder.

230 Moreover, it is also worth noting that appearance of C atoms in the EDS  
231 spectrum (Fig. 4b), which can be seen as an evidence of GNS reinforcements. Hence,

232 there is a reason to believe that the deposited Ni nanoparticles were not completely  
233 broken away from GNS surfaces during the soldering process. As depicted in Fig. 5,  
234 Ni nanoparticles tend to act as a “bridge” linking GNSs and the solder matrix by  
235 forming Ni-containing IMCs. This process would eventually improve the retained  
236 ratio of GNSs in the solder joint. The influence of deposited Ni nanoparticles on  
237 IMCs composition and the retained ratio of nanosheets in the solder alloy will be  
238 further studied in our future research.

### 239 *3.3 DSC test results*

240 Fig. 6 illustrates the DSC results of both the plain solder and the composite  
241 solders incorporated with Ni-GNS reinforcements. It is evident that all endothermic  
242 peaks were appeared within the range of 219.25°C to 220.12°C. This result indicates  
243 that the melting point of the solder alloy can hardly be influenced when the weight  
244 fraction of Ni-GNS is relatively small. In addition, it can also be known from  
245 Lindermann criterion that a material’s melting point is one of its inherent features,  
246 which is determined by inter-atomic distance and the atomic mean-square  
247 displacements [31]. In this study, however, the balance the inter-atomic distance and  
248 the atomic mean-square displacements of solder alloy could hardly be changed by  
249 adding a small quantity of Ni-GNS reinforcements. Therefore, the appropriate  
250 addition of Ni-GNS will not limit the applicability of the SAC305/ Ni-GNS solder  
251 alloy by affecting its melting point significantly.

### 252 *3.4 Resistivity of plain SAC and reinforced solders*

253 The results of the electrical-resistivity measurements for SAC solders with  
254 various concentrations of Ni-GNS reinforcement are presented in Fig. 7. The test data  
255 of show a slight decrease in electrical resistivity with an increasing amount of  
256 Ni-GNSs. According to previous studies, volume fraction, shape, size, and type of  
257 reinforcements are main factors that largely determine the electrical resistivity of a  
258 composite material [32-35]. According to the rule proposed by Matthiessen [36], the  
259 total electrical resistivity of a material consist of three parts, including deformation

260 resistivity, thermal resistivity and impurity resistivity. Through influencing the lattice  
261 scattering and impurity scattering, these three types of resistivities would disturb the  
262 normal motions of electrons so as to affect the electrical resistivity of a material.  
263 However, compared with monolithic solder alloys, the electrical resistivity of a  
264 composite solder alloy is mainly determined by impurity resistivity. Specifically, the  
265 reinforcements in composite conductive systems often work as the centers for electron  
266 scattering. Accordingly, the electrical resistivity of the composite system would be  
267 significantly influenced when the volume fraction of reinforcements is relatively high.

268 In this study, there was little difference between electrical resistivities of the  
269 plain solder and the Ni-GNS-reinforced composite solders. This phenomenon can be  
270 interpreted based on the effect of reinforcement's electrical resistivity and the amount  
271 of Ni-GNSs added. On the one hand, the electrical resistivities of Ni ( $\sim 6.84 \mu\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$ )  
272 and GNSs ( $\sim 10 \mu\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$ ) are both much smaller than that of the SAC solder ( $12.9$   
273  $\mu\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$ ). Thus, addition of Ni-GNSs helped to lower electrical resistivity of the  
274 composite solder. On the other hand, as mentioned above, the volume fraction of  
275 reinforcement also has a considerable effect on resistivity of composites. However, in  
276 this study, relatively small amounts of Ni-GNSs used as reinforcement could hardly  
277 affect significantly the resistivity of the studied solder systems.

### 278 *3.5 Wettability measurement*

279 The wettability of a solder alloy is a critical property that used to evaluate the  
280 bonding quality between solder and substrate. Generally, in the process of soldering,  
281 solder alloy which has smaller contact angle on the substrate also provide much more  
282 dependable interconnection [37]. As shown in Fig. 8, the measured contact angle  
283 decreased with addition of Ni-GNS (from  $37.5^\circ$  for the plain SAC solder to  $32.6^\circ$  for  
284 the SAC with 0.2 wt. % Ni-GNSs). These test results indicate that introduction of  
285 Ni-GNS reinforcement improved wettability of the composite solders. This may be  
286 attributed to the fact that added Ni-GNS nanoparticles accumulated at the interface  
287 between the molten solder and the flux during soldering; thereby lowering the

288 interfacial surface energy. This process decreases the interfacial tension between the  
289 flux and the solder, resulting in formation of a smaller contact angle.

### 290 3.6 Mechanical properties: Microhardness and Shear strength

291 Since micro-hardness is closely related to the abrasion or wearing resistance of  
292 solder alloys, micro-hardness is usually regarded as one main item to evaluate the  
293 mechanical performance of solder alloys. Generally, factors which determine the  
294 microhardness of solder alloys mainly include microstructures, dislocation motion,  
295 chemical composition and processing temperature [38]. Fig.9 shows the average  
296 microhardness for the 0.05, 0.1 and 0.2 wt% SAC/ Ni-GNS composite solder alloys  
297 and the plain SAC samples. It is evident that the composite solder alloy display an  
298 increase in the microhardness values with increasing weight fraction of Ni-GNS.  
299 Compared with the plain SAC solder (12.2HV), the average microhardness of  
300 composite solder alloy increased up to 19.7% (reached 14.6HV) with 0.2 wt. %  
301 Ni-GNS addition. Herein, the classical dispersion strengthening theory can be  
302 employed to give explanation for the improvement in micro-hardness [39]. Based on  
303 the theory, the added foreign particles are likely to affect the deformation behaviours  
304 of solder alloys by impeding dislocation motions and grain-boundary sliding, which in  
305 turn increase the microhardness [40]. Such a phenomenon is widely known as *pinning*  
306 *effect*, which could explain the strengthening mechanism of composite materials. In the  
307 present study, the reinforcing Ni-GNSs in a core-shell form (the core is GNS while  
308 the outer shell is newly formed  $(\text{Ni, Cu})_6\text{Sn}_5$  IMCs), were found uniformly dispersed  
309 in the solder matrix (see Fig. 4a). This uniformly distributed composite reinforcement  
310 can serve as enhancing phases, inhibiting effectively mechanical deformation.

311 In addition to the micro-hardness test, ball shear test is another common  
312 approach to evaluate the reliability of a solder joint. In this study, ball shear test was  
313 also carried out to measure the shear strength of both plain and composite solder  
314 joints. Fig.10 shows the average shear strength and the standard deviations of the  
315 Ni-GNS doping composite solder alloys and the plain SAC samples. It can be



316 observed that the average shear strength of SAC/Ni-GNS composite solder joints was  
317 obviously higher than that of the plain SAC solder joints. In particular, the average  
318 shear strength of the 0.2 wt% Ni-GNS incorporating composite solder joint reached  
319 58.4MPa, compared with 48.8MPa of plain SAC solder joints. The enhancement in  
320 shear strength can also be attributed to the newly formed (Ni, Cu)<sub>6</sub>Sn<sub>5</sub> IMC and the  
321 uniformly distributed Ni-GNS in the composite solder matrix. In addition, it is  
322 expected that the excellent intrinsic mechanical strength of GNS nanosheets also  
323 made a considerable contribution to the improvement in shear strength.

### 324 *3.7 Fracture analysis*

325 After the ball shear test, the shear-fractured surfaces were further observed using  
326 an ESEM system to understand the failure behaviors of solder joints. Fig.11a-d show  
327 the morphologies of the fractured surfaces of both plain and composite solder joints. It  
328 can be observed that the plain SAC solder joint (Fig.11a) presents a brittle fracture  
329 pattern with a relatively smooth surface. In contrast, a ductile fracture pattern with  
330 more dimples and more rough morphology was obtained on the fractured surface of  
331 composite solder joints. Specifically, the roughness of fractured surface increases with  
332 the addition amount of Ni-GNS nanosheets increases. This transformation in fracture  
333 mode may directly benefit from the homogeneously distributed Ni-GNS nanosheets in  
334 the solder matrix.

### 335 *3.8 Verification of Ni-GNSs reinforcement in composite solder*

336 Verification of existence, actual position and characterisation of structural  
337 attributes of reinforcements in the solder matrix are the main focus of research into  
338 composite solders. As the most effective tool to characterize the carbon-based  
339 materials, Raman spectroscopy was employed to identify and validate the doped  
340 Ni-GNSs in the composite solder. It was reported previously [41-42] that shear  
341 fractures often occur at the interface between intermetallic phase and Sn-rich phase in  
342 Sn-based solder matrix. In addition, according to a previous study concerning the

343 location of the reinforcement added in the solder matrix, reinforcements are more  
344 likely aggregated at IMC surface or phase interfaces [43]. Hence, the added Ni-GNSs  
345 could possibly be found at shear-fracture areas. In this study, the shear-fractured  
346 surfaces of solder joints were observed so as to verify the existence of the added  
347 Ni-GNSs. A typical SEM image taken from a fracture surface (Fig. 12a) demonstrates  
348 that there are some sheet-like substances embedded in the solder matrix.

349 According to the EDS spectrum (Fig. 12b), carbon and nickel atoms were present  
350 in the chosen position, with weight ratios of 8.74% and 1.18%, respectively. To  
351 identify these sheet-like substances, Raman spectroscopy was employed to further  
352 analyse the area of aggregation of these sheets; the obtained Raman spectrum is  
353 shown in Fig. 13. In this spectrum three peaks are notable:  $1363\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $1586\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  
354  $2720\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , characteristic to GNS [44]. Thus, the Raman spectrum together with the  
355 results of the SEM and EDS analyses confirmed the presence of the Ni-GNSs  
356 reinforcements in the matrices of the composite solders. In addition, the element  
357 contents of C and Ni shown in Fig. 12b are highly consistent with the EDS result  
358 provided in Fig. 4b. This finding could strongly corroborates the view that the  
359 deposited Ni nanoparticles were transformed into  $(\text{Ni, Cu})_6\text{Sn}_5$  and finally stay at the  
360 surface, or in the vicinity, of GNS sheets.

#### 361 **4. Conclusions**

362 GNS nanosheets decorated with Ni nanoparticles (Ni-GNS) were prepared with  
363 the chemical reduction method, which were subsequently added as reinforcement to  
364 SAC305 through a powder metallurgy route to form composite solders. On the basis  
365 of characterization of Ni-GNSs and analyses of the microstructures as well as physical  
366 and mechanical properties of the synthesized composite solders, the primary results of  
367 this study can be summarized as follows:

- 368 1) Ni nanoparticles with diameter of approximately 100 nm were successfully  
369 deposited on the surface of graphene nanosheets, so as to obtain the  
370 composite reinforcement— Ni-GNSs.

- 371 2) With addition of Ni-GNSs in the solder matrix, morphology of IMCs at the  
372 solder/Cu interface was changed from short-rod like to cauliflower-like;  
373 thickness of this interfacial IMCs was proportional to the amount of Ni-GNSs  
374 added, which could be explained by diffusion of Ni. In addition, uniformly  
375 dispersed blocky  $(\text{Ni}, \text{Cu})_6\text{Sn}_5$  as well as the coarse  $\text{Ag}_3\text{Sn}$  IMCs were  
376 observed in the solder matrix after addition of Ni-GNSs.
- 377 3) Only insignificant decline in electrical resistivity of Ni-GNS doped composite  
378 solders was found related to lower resistivity of Ni and GNS. There was also  
379 a negligible change in the melting point in Ni-GNS-reinforced solders, since  
380 nanosheets were added in relatively small amounts. However, the change in  
381 contact angle indicated that addition of nanoparticles enhanced wettability of  
382 the solder.
- 383 4) The improvements in both the microhardness and the shear strength due to the  
384 addition of the Ni-decorated graphene nanosheets were observed which can  
385 be directly attributed to the uniform dispersion of the  $(\text{Ni}, \text{Cu})_6\text{Sn}_5$  in the  
386 solder matrix.
- 387 5) The added Ni-decorated graphene nanosheets were found on the fracture  
388 surfaces after mechanical testing. The results obtained with EDS and Raman  
389 spectroscopy confirmed the existence of Ni-GNSs in the solder matrix.

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517 **List of Figures**

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- 518 Fig. 1 Schematic of preparation of Ni-decorated nanosheets
- 519 Fig. 2 (a) Intinal GNSs, (b) as-prepared Ni-GNSs, (c) magnified micrographs of Area  
520 A; (d) magnified micrographs of Area B; (e) EDS pattern of chosen location
- 521 Fig. 3 Microstructures near interfaces of Cu substrate with SAC (a),  
522 SAC/0.05Ni-GNS (b), SAC/0.1Ni-GNS (c) and SAC/0.2Ni-GNS (d) solders
- 523 Fig. 4 (a) Representative image of distribution of  $(\text{Cu, Ni})_6\text{Sn}_5$  in SAC/0.2Ni-GNS  
524 solder matrix; (b) corresponding EDS spectrum in chosen location
- 525 Fig. 5 Supposed forms of Ni-GNS in solder matrix before (a) and after (b) soldering
- 526 Fig. 6 DSC curves for different solders: (a) SAC; (b) SAC/0.05Ni-GNS; (c)  
527 SAC/0.1Ni-GNS; (d) SAC/0.2Ni-GNS
- 528 Fig. 7 Effect of volume fraction of Ni-GNSs on electrical resistivity of SAC solders
- 529 Fig.8 Effect of volume fraction of Ni-GNSs on contact angles of SAC alloys
- 530 Fig. 9 Effect of volume fraction of Ni-GNSs on microhardness of nanocomposite  
531 solders
- 532 Fig. 10 Effect of volume fraction of Ni-GNSs on shear strength of nanocomposite  
533 solders
- 534 Fig.11 SEM of fracture surfaces of SAC solder joints with different fractions of  
535 Ni-GNS reinforcement (in wt.%): (a) 0; (b) 0.05; (c) 0.1; (d) 0.2
- 536 Fig.12 (a) Typical SEM image of Ni-GNS agglomeration located at bottom of dimple  
537 after shear test, (b) corresponding EDS spectra for selected area marked in (a)
- 538 Fig. 13 Raman spectrum of chosen area in Fig. 12 (a)

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546 **List of Tables**

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547 **Table 1** The components of plating solution and experimental condition548 **Table 2** Average thickness of IMCs at interfaces and average grain size of Ag<sub>3</sub>Sn

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**Table 1** The components of plating solution and experimental condition

<b>Bath composition</b>		<b>Plating condition</b>	
NiSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O	25 g/L	pH	10
N <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub> ·H <sub>2</sub> O	30 g/L	Temperature (T)	90°C
Sodium tartrate	10 g/L	Ultrasonic power	90 W
Sodium citrate	30 g/L	Time	30 min
(NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	50 g/L	GNS powder	0.5 g/L
NH <sub>3</sub> ·H <sub>2</sub> O	5%		

**Table 2** Average thickness of IMCs at interfaces and average grain size of Ag<sub>3</sub>Sn

Sample	Addition (wt. %)	Average thickness of IMC ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Average size of Ag <sub>3</sub> Sn ( $\mu\text{m}$ )
SAC	Nil	4.25 $\pm$ 0.72	1.22 $\pm$ 0.34
1	0.05	4.59 $\pm$ 0.65	1.39 $\pm$ 0.47
2	0.1	5.24 $\pm$ 0.48	1.68 $\pm$ 0.53
3	0.2	5.93 $\pm$ 0.63	2.35 $\pm$ 0.46

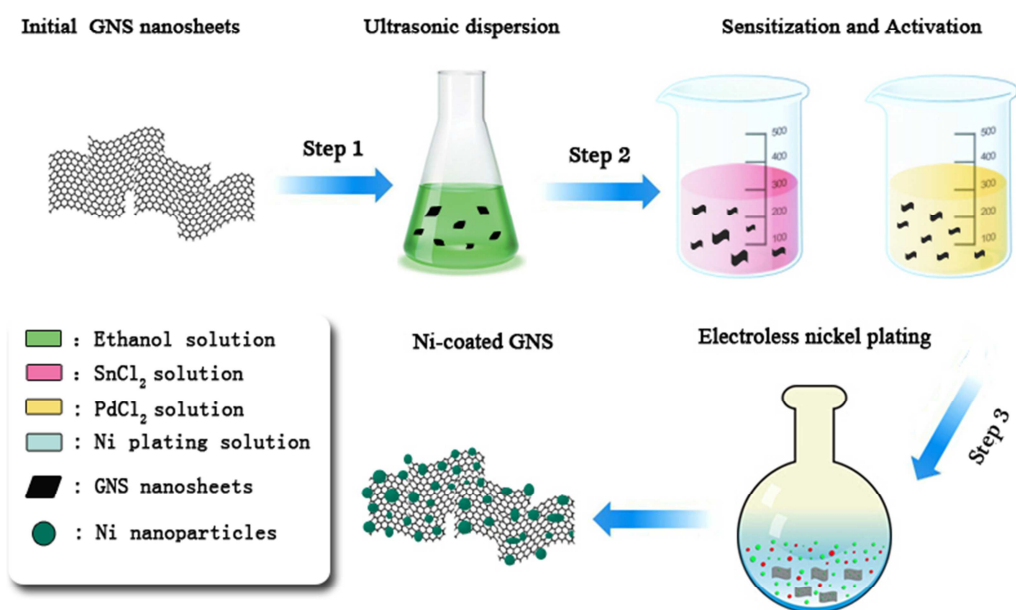


Fig. 1 Schematic of preparation of Ni-decorated nanosheets

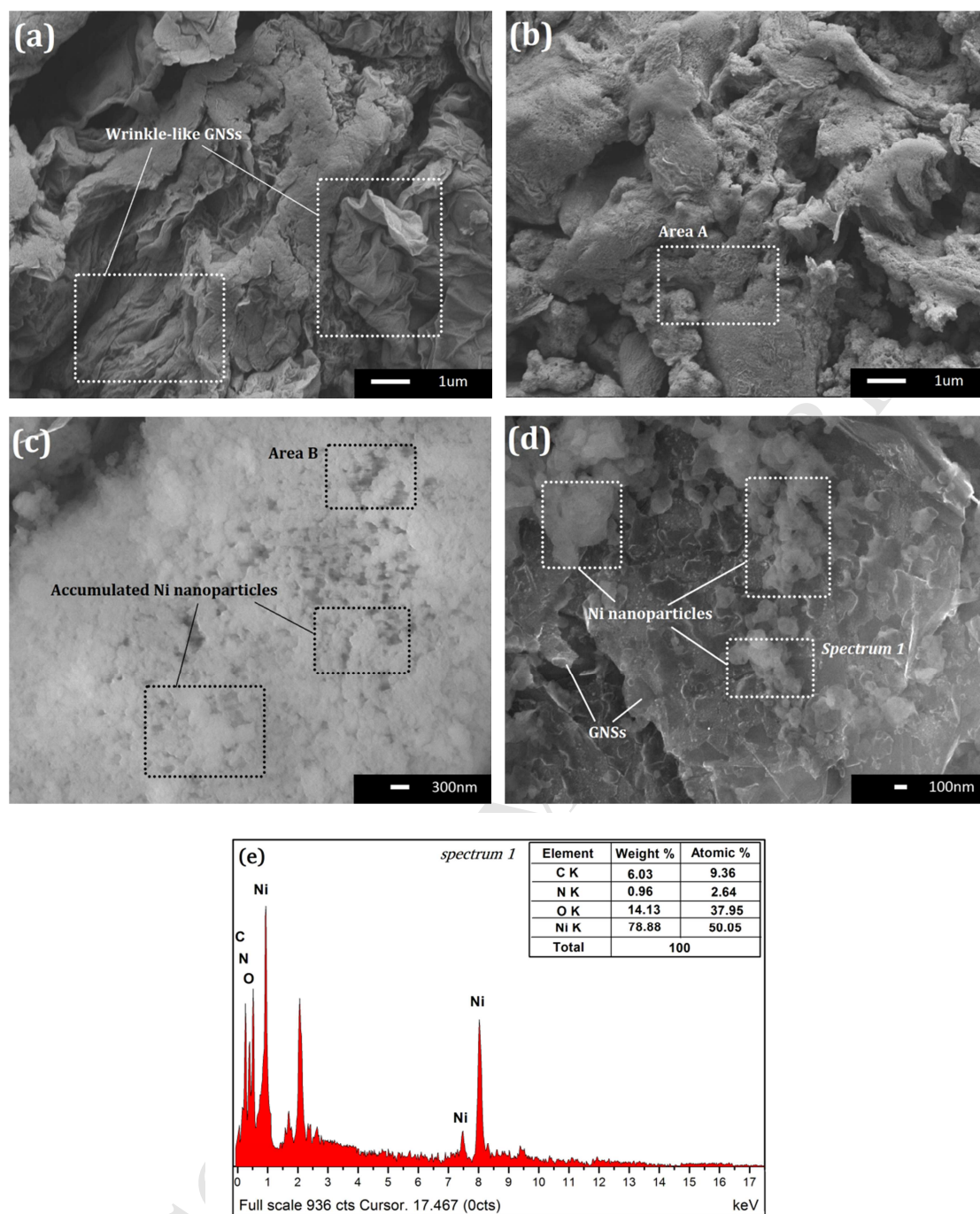


Fig. 2 (a) Intinal GNSs, (b) as-prepared Ni-GNSs, (c) magnified micrographs of Area A; (d) magnified micrographs of Area B; (e) EDS pattern of chosen location



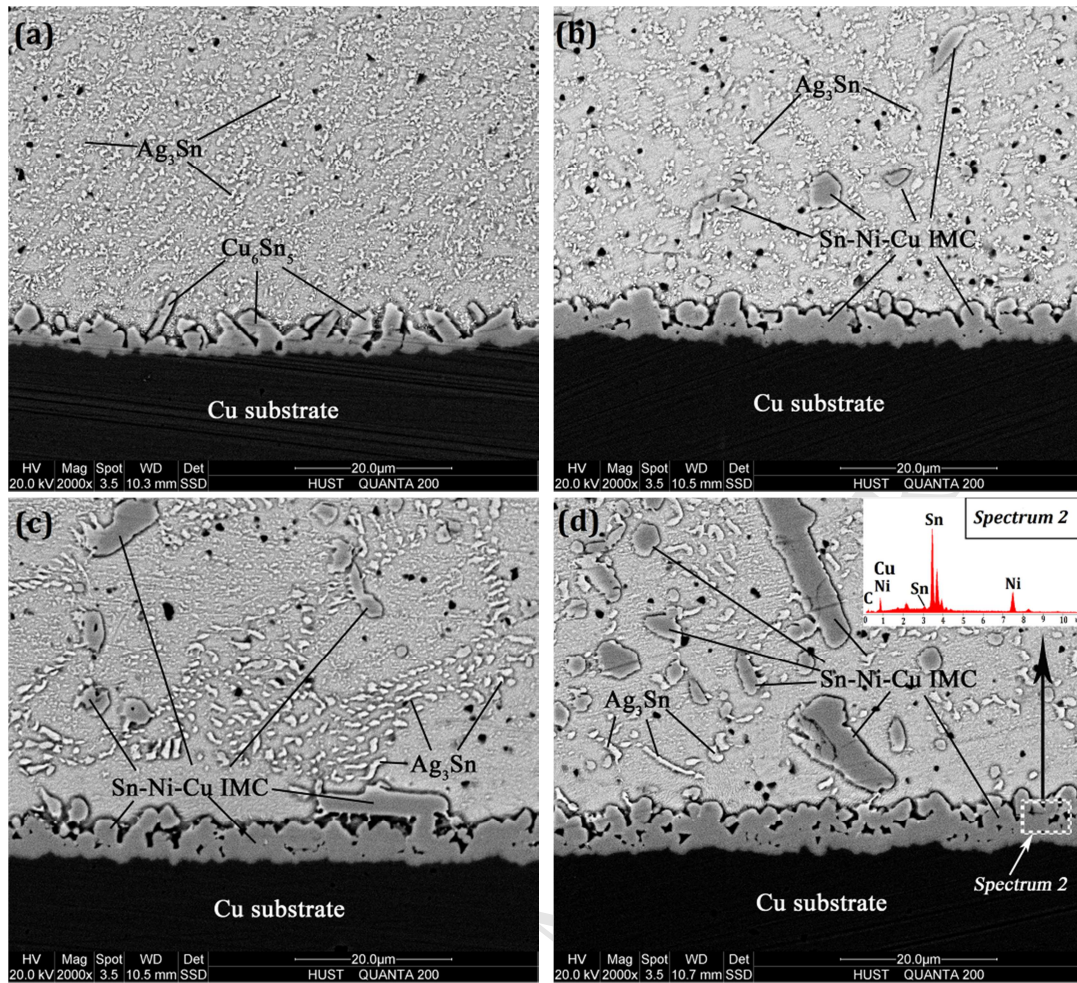


Fig. 3 Microstructures near interfaces of Cu substrate with SAC (a), SAC/0.05Ni-GNS (b), SAC/0.1Ni-GNS (c) and SAC/0.2Ni-GNS (d) solders



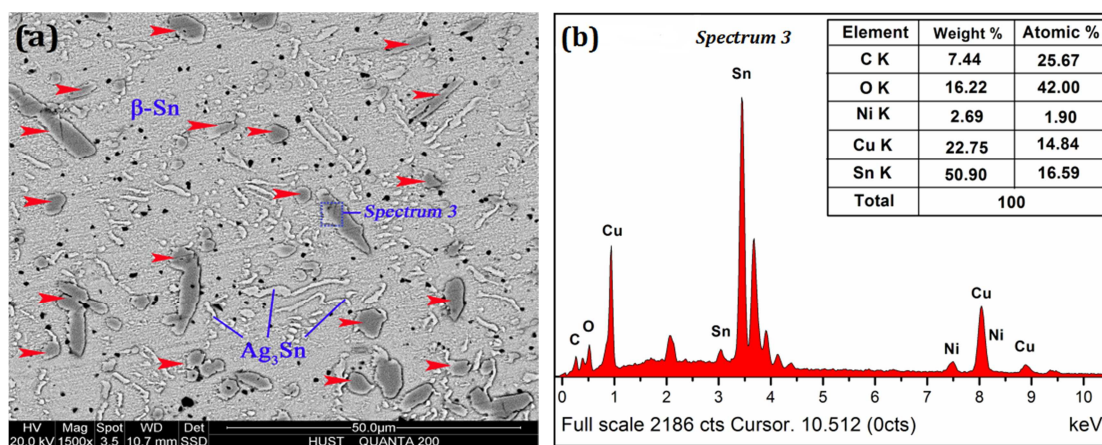


Fig. 4 (a) Representative image of distribution of  $(\text{Cu, Ni})_6\text{Sn}_5$  in SAC/0.2Ni-GNS solder matrix; (b) corresponding EDS spectrum in chosen location

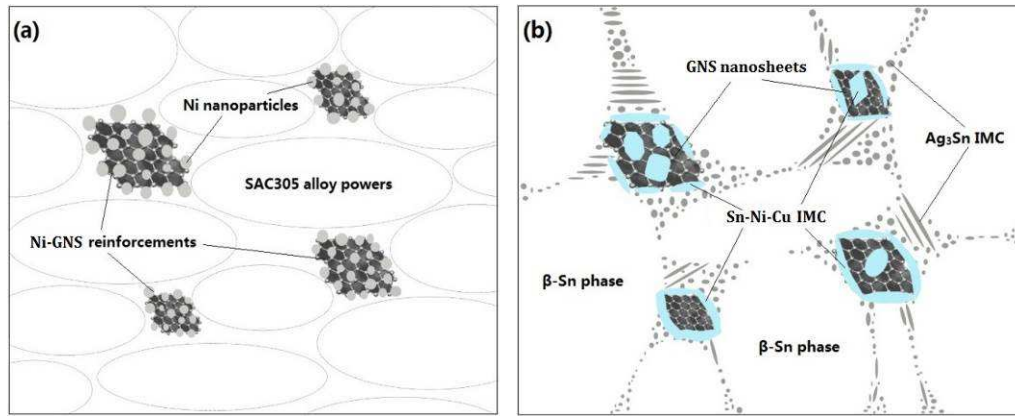


Fig. 5 Suggested forms of Ni-GNS in solder matrix before (a) and after (b) soldering

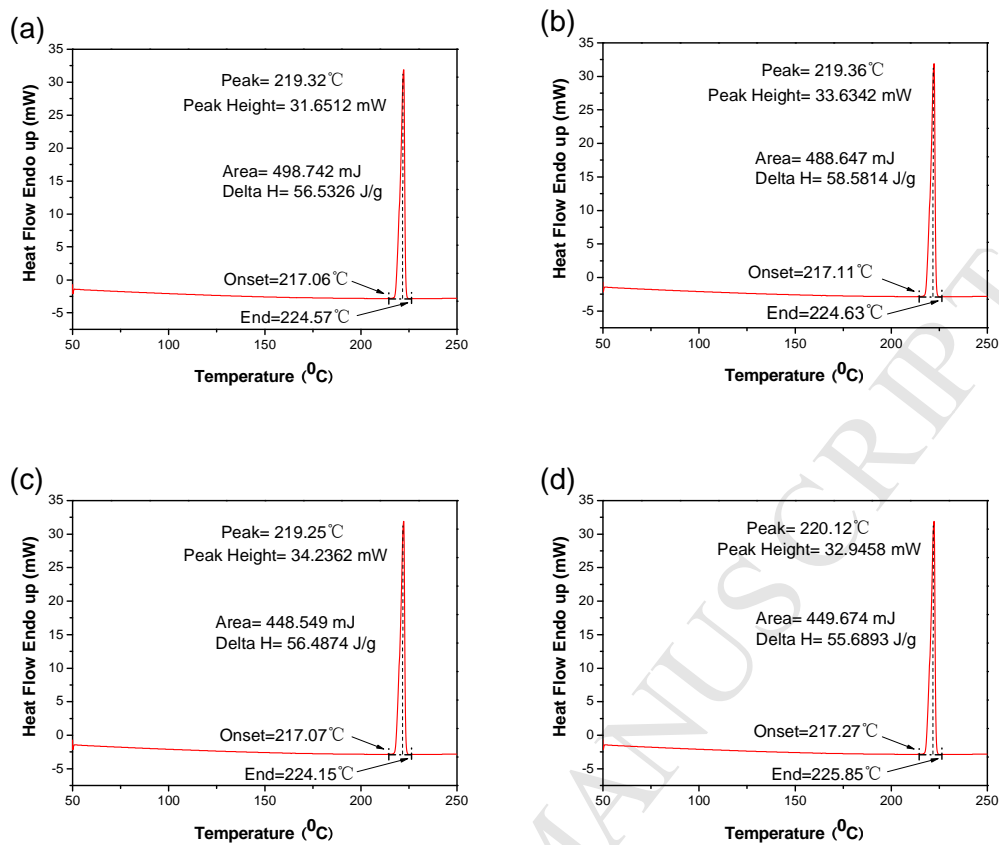


Fig. 6 DSC curves for different solders: (a) SAC; (b) SAC/0.05Ni-GNS; (c) SAC/0.1Ni-GNS; (d) SAC/0.2Ni-GNS

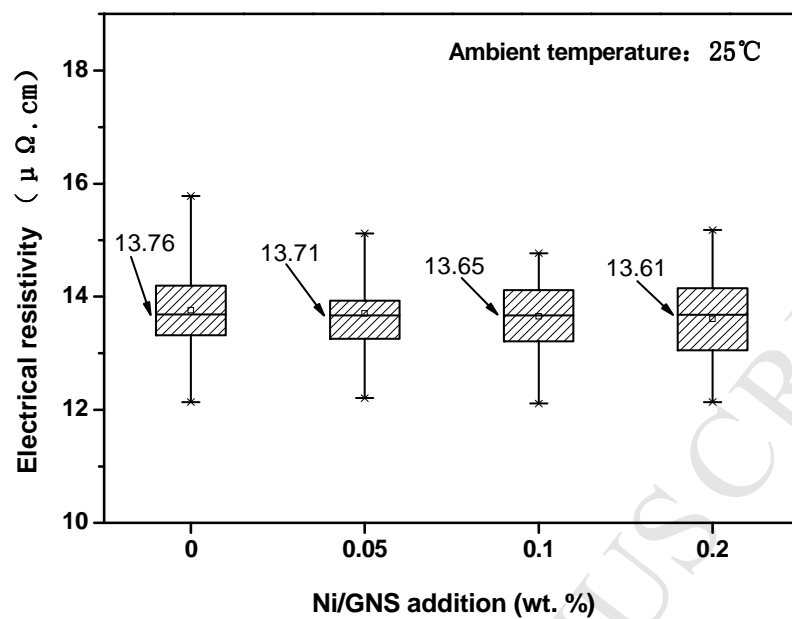


Fig. 7 Effect of volume fraction of Ni-GNSs on electrical resistivity of SAC solders

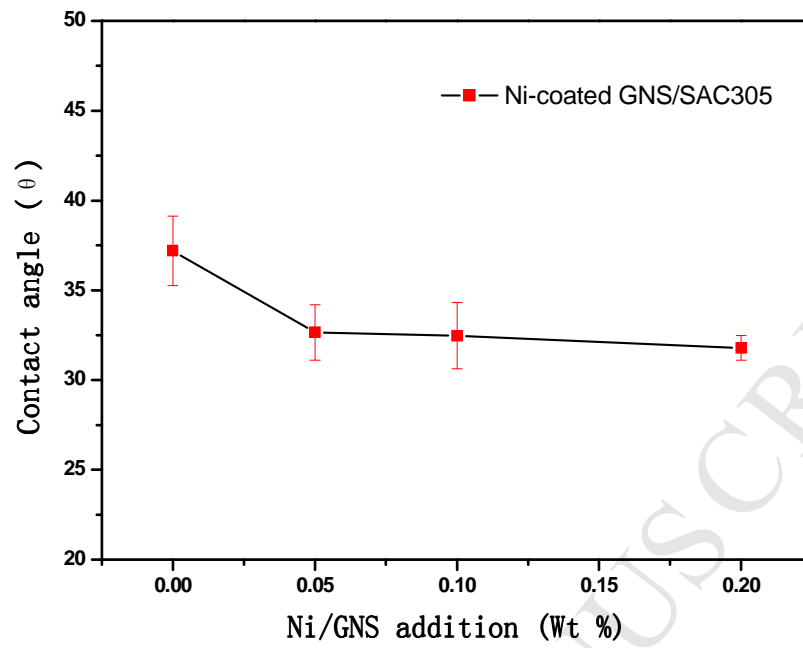


Fig.8 Effect of volume fraction of Ni-GNSs on contact angles of SAC alloys

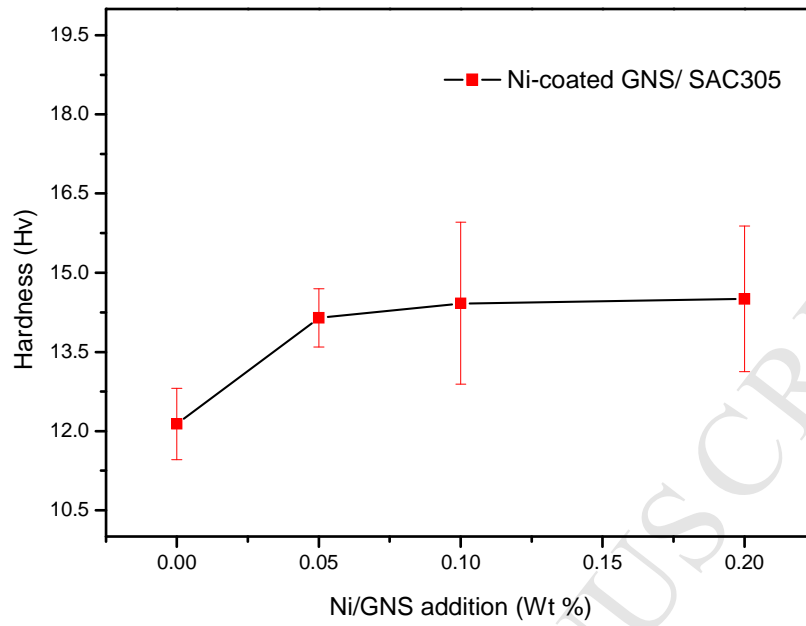


Fig. 9 Effect of volume fraction of Ni-GNSs on microhardness of nanocomposite solders

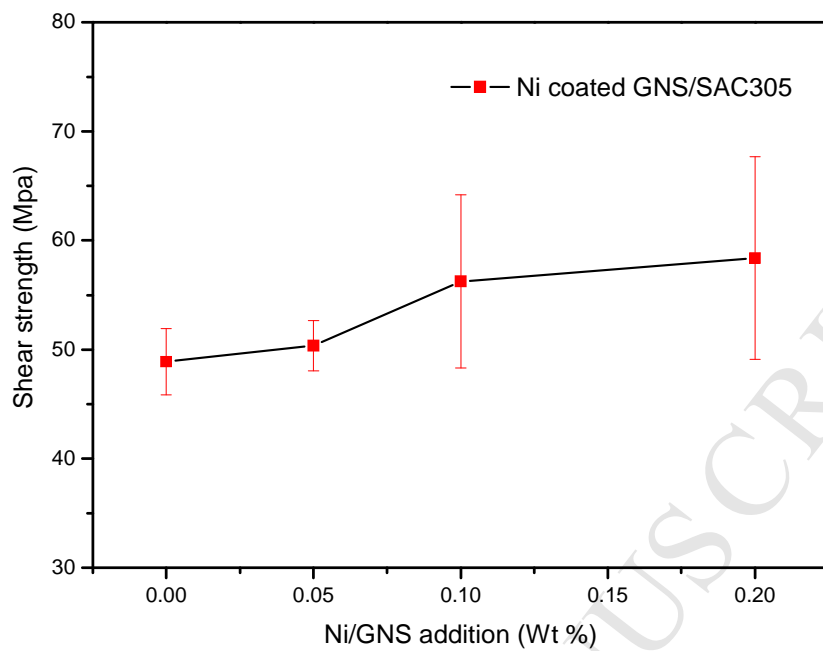


Fig. 10 Effect of volume fraction of Ni-GNSs on shear strength of nanocomposite solders



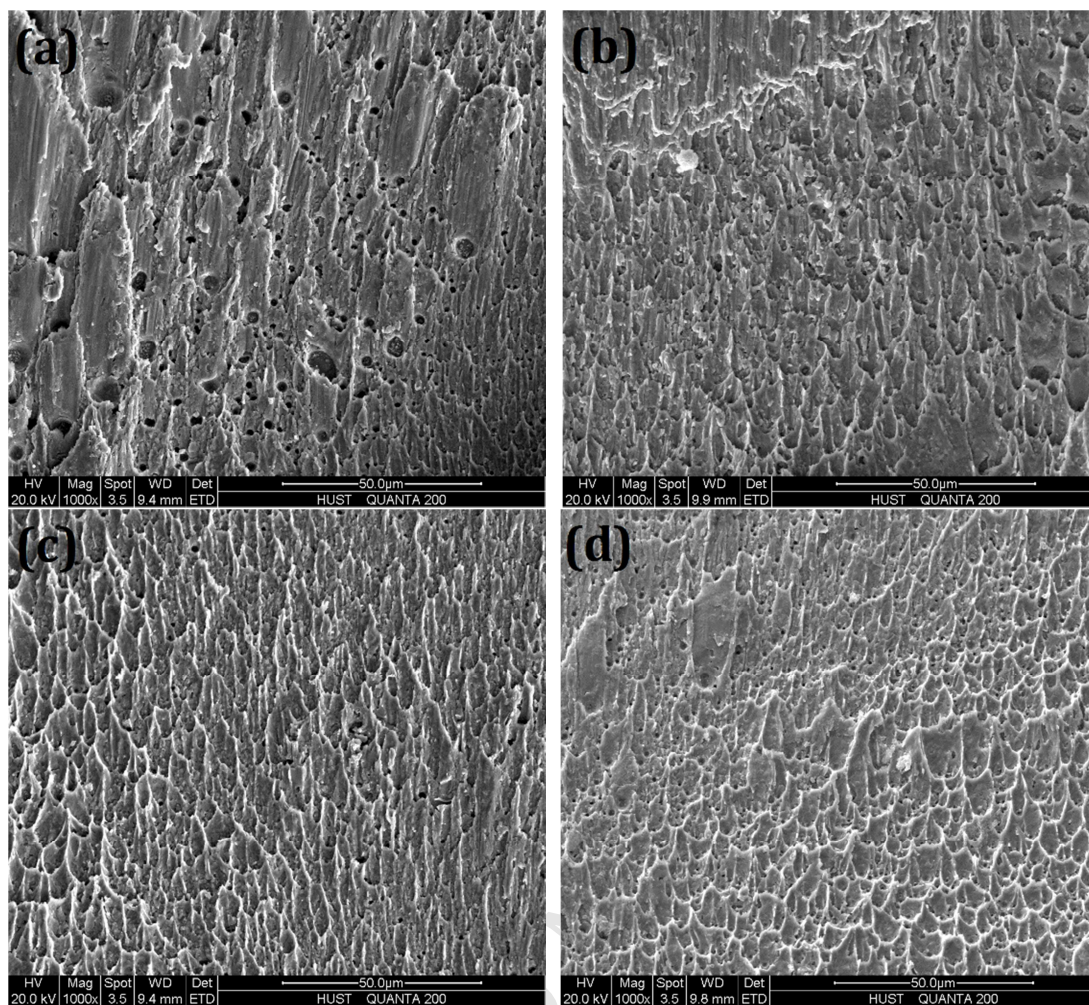


Fig.11 SEM of fracture surfaces of SAC solder joints with different fractions of Ni-GNS reinforcement (in wt.%): (a) 0; (b) 0.05; (c) 0.1; (d) 0.2

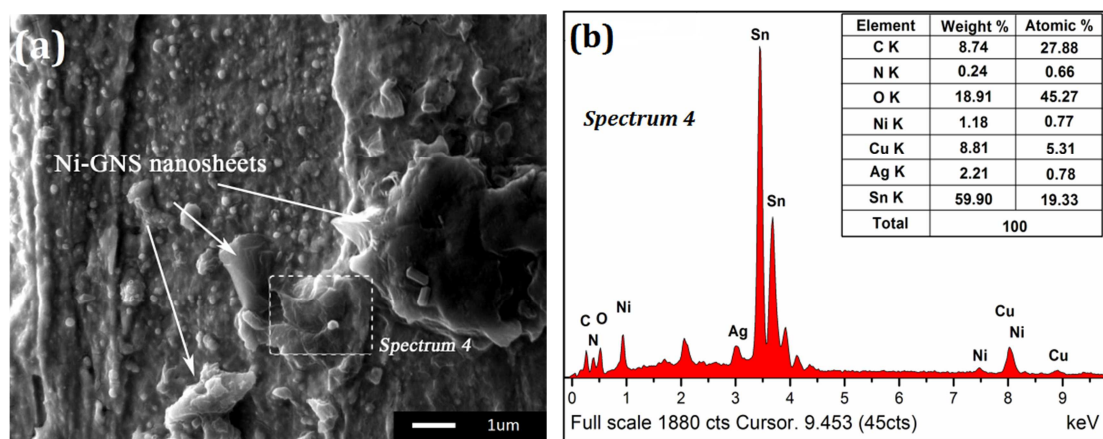


Fig.12 (a) Typical SEM image of Ni-GNS agglomeration located at bottom of dimple after shear test, (b) corresponding EDS spectra for selected area marked in (a)

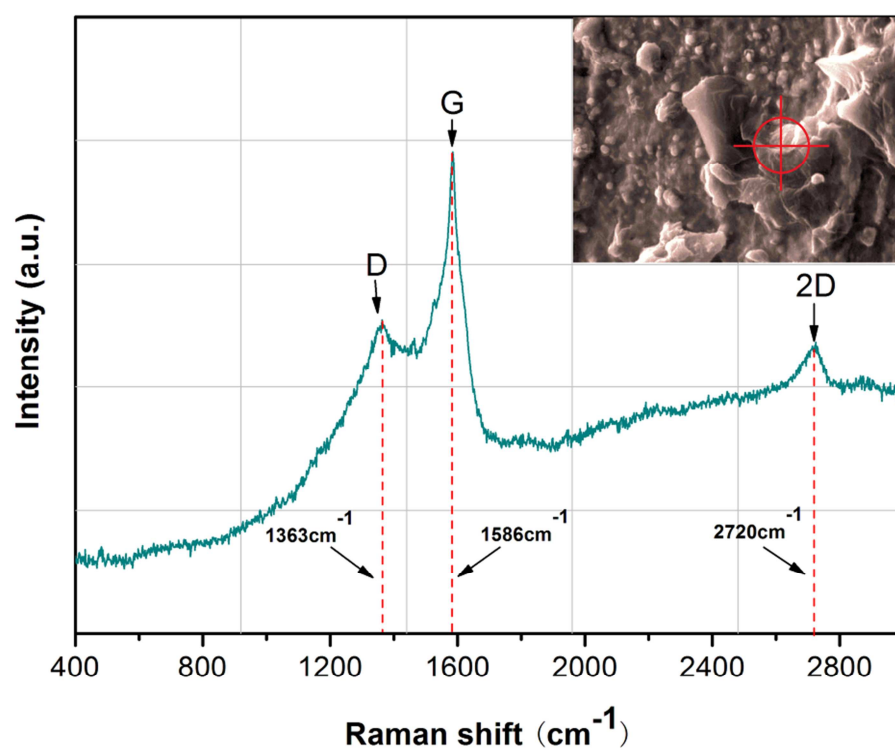


Fig. 13 Raman spectrum of chosen area in Fig. 12 (a)

## Highlights

1. Ni-coated graphene (Ni-GNS) composite reinforcement was prepared by electroless plating method.
2. Ni-GNS/SAC305 composite solders were further prepared through powder metallurgic route.
3. Microstructures, solderability and mechanical properties of this newly made composite solder were extensively studied.
4. The existence and distribution of the added reinforcement were confirmed.