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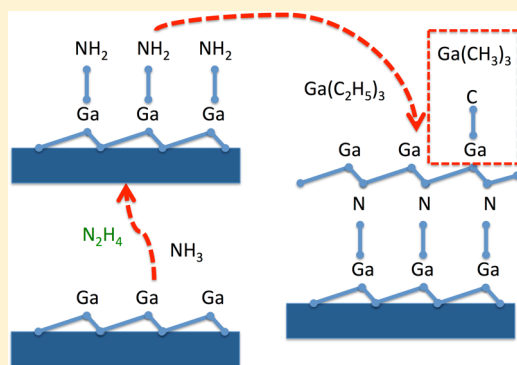
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# Reaction Pathways of GaN (0001) Growth from Trimethylgallium and Ammonia versus Triethylgallium and Hydrazine Using First Principle Calculations

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**ABSTRACT:** Gallium nitride (GaN) is a wide bandgap semiconductor with many important applications in optoelectronics, photonics, and both high power and high temperature operation devices. Understanding the surface deposition mechanisms and energetics for different precursors is essential to improving thin-film crystalline quality and growth process requirements for extended engineering applications. Here, we use ab initio calculations to study the reaction mechanisms of GaN thin film growth on (0001) surface from ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ ) and hydrazine ( $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$ ), nitrogen precursors, and trimethylgallium (TMG) and triethylgallium (TEG), gallium precursors. We find that the initial dehydrogenation of  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  is more facile than that of  $\text{NH}_3$ , at 1.15 versus 13.61 kcal/mol, respectively, and that neighboring adsorbed surface hydrogens reduce the barriers for further decomposition of  $\text{NH}_2$  and  $\text{NH}$ . We also find that the growth of nitrogen layers is a reaction-limited process rather than diffusion-limited at low adsorbate coverage. On the other hand, the deposition of Ga on a nitrogen rich surface via TMG is limited by the abstraction reaction of the second methyl ( $\text{CH}_3$ ) group in TMG, with a barrier of 42.54 kcal/mol. The mechanisms of adsorption of TMG and TEG are different, whereas TMG dissociatively chemisorbs releasing one methane group, the beta-hydrate elimination ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{H}$ ) in TEG is favored through surface interactions (without chemisorption) at a comparable energy barrier to the first  $\text{CH}_3$  dissociation in TMG. This does not suggest a more favorable thermodynamic route to low-temperature growth, but it does favor TEG for avoiding the explicit abstraction or insertion of C groups during metalorganic chemical vapor deposition (MOCVD) or atomic layer deposition (ALD) techniques.



## I. INTRODUCTION

Gallium nitride (GaN) is a wide band gap material (direct band gap of 3.4 eV), with high breakdown field, high thermal and chemical stability, and high saturation drift velocity.<sup>1–10</sup> The combination of these properties makes it an ideal material for extended use in light emitting diodes (LEDs), laser diodes (LDs), photonics and high-power and high-temperature operation devices.<sup>1–11</sup> However, extended applications have been hindered by the challenges involved in producing high-quality crystalline films due to the significant lattice mismatches when growing on common substrates such as sapphire, GaAs and SiC.<sup>12,13</sup> Albeit the use of buffer layers has minimized the lattice mismatch effects (e.g., AlN), improved quality, epitaxially grown GaN films requires full understanding of the growth parameters and mechanisms.<sup>14–16</sup> Despite numerous experimental and theoretical studies, the GaN growth mechanisms remain controversial because of the complex surface reactions (particularly through the nonadduct route shown in Figure 1).

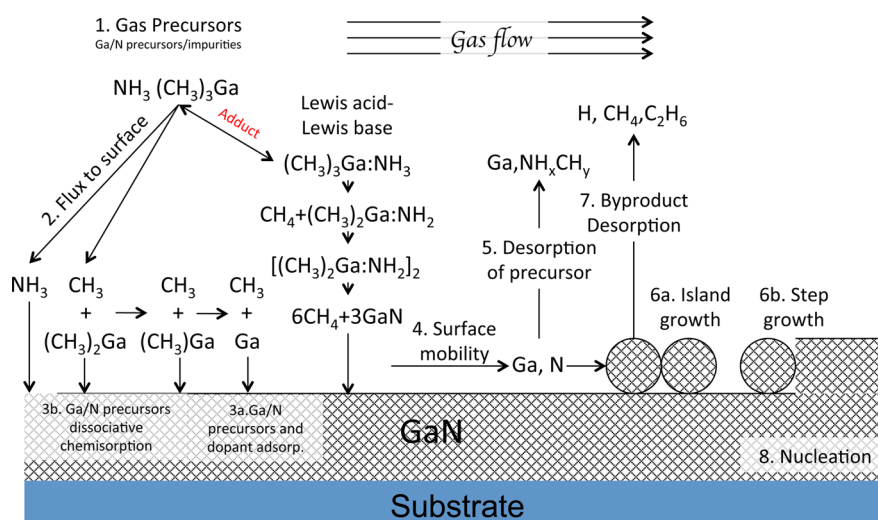
GaN thin films can be synthesized experimentally through various methods including metal–organic vapor phase epitaxy (MOVPE),<sup>17</sup> molecular beam epitaxy (MBE),<sup>18</sup> sputtering processes,<sup>19</sup> and supersonic gas jet assisted vapor deposition.<sup>20,21</sup> The quality of GaN films depend significantly on the deposition method. MOVPE is known to grow the best quality

of GaN to date. However, this process requires very high temperatures (1000 °C) to dissociate nitrogen from its precursor, typically  $\text{NH}_3$ .<sup>6</sup> As a consequence of the high temperature significant lattice mismatch occurs between the substrate and the grown film, because of a significant difference in the thermal expansion coefficients.<sup>6</sup> This also leads to other undesired effects such as metal desorption, diffusion, and segregation.<sup>6</sup> Thus, it is desirable to reduce the GaN growth temperature to produce high quality thin film for engineering applications. However, most experiments<sup>22,23</sup> have found that the growth of GaN thin films at low temperature (<500 °C) leads to unwanted amorphous phases and that crystallinity improves as the deposition temperature increases.

Computational fluid dynamics and kinetic Monte Carlo simulation methods have been used to steer the design, optimization, and troubleshooting of GaN growth processes.<sup>24,25</sup> However, the efficacy of such models is limited by the availability of accurate kinetics information, particularly associated with the chemical reaction mechanisms and energetics of growth as a function of temperature. Density

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**Figure 1.** Gallium nitride growth pathways (flux, surface chemistry, surface mobility, byproduct removal, and growth) from trimethylgallium and ammonia.

functional theory (DFT) calculations have also been widely used to examine GaN surface models. In particular, the GaN (0001) surface and its coverage with H and N atoms has been extensively studied.<sup>26–34</sup> The gas phase and surface reactions using ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) and trimethylgallium (TMG) as precursors have also been studied using ab initio finite cluster simulations.<sup>1,35–37</sup> The gas phase reactions are well summarized and documented in previous studies.<sup>1</sup> However, a complete study of the surface reaction mechanisms, including chemisorption of reactive species from the gas-phase, decomposition and recombination reactions on the surface, and thin film growth reactions (see Figure 1) is absent due to the large number of gas-phase species that can adsorb onto the surface under different experimental conditions.<sup>1</sup>

In this paper, we use first-principles quantum mechanics (DFT) to examine the GaN (0001) surface chemical reactions using different precursors, namely, ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) and hydrazine (N<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>) nitrogen sources, and trimethylgallium (TMG) and triethylgallium (TEG) gallium sources. The binding energies for NH<sub>3</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> and the corresponding decomposed species are calculated, as well as the transition pathways for the decomposition reactions, hydrogen transfer events that facilitate the decomposition reactions, and the diffusion barriers for surface migration of the decomposed species. We examine the TMG surface reactions mechanism on an N-rich surface, and we compare it with the beta-hydrate elimination reactions of TEG in the gas phase. Our results provide important clues into the mechanisms of GaN thin film growth and points out the key steps that need to be addressed for low substrate temperature growth.

## II. COMPUTATIONAL METHODS

For periodic calculation, we applied the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) exchange–correlation functional implemented in the VASP package,<sup>38–40</sup> using the projector-augmented wave method<sup>41</sup> to account for the core–valence interactions. We focused on the GaN (0001) polar surface. The Ga 3d electrons are treated as core electrons. To examine the surface reactions of NH<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, we used a periodic slab of five double layers of GaN, 15 Å of vacuum between the slabs, and a (2 × 2) surface unit cell. A (3 × 3 × 1) Monkhorst–Pack

grid for k-point sampling was used for this surface model. To simulate the TMG surface reaction, we rotated the unit cell to make “a” along (21 $\bar{3}$ 0) direction and “b” along (01 $\bar{1}$ 0) direction. Then we made a (2 × 2) rotated cell with four double layers along (0001) direction. Here, we define the double layer as one Ga–N layer of thickness half c-lattice constant. This corresponds to eight Ga atoms for each double layer. Only the gamma point was sampled in the Brillouin zone for this model. The atoms in the bottom layer were passivated with fractionally charged (0.75e) H atoms. Only the top two double layers were allowed to relax. Relaxation of the third double layer leads to an energy difference that is less than 0.001 eV with respect to the system with only the top two layers relaxed, and hence, the latter was chosen as an accurate and computationally efficient model. We used a kinetic energy cutoff of 400 eV for the plane wave expansions in periodic calculations. The convergence criteria were set to a 1 × 10<sup>−5</sup> eV energy difference for solving the electronic wave function and a 1 × 10<sup>−2</sup> eV/Å force for geometry optimization. Dipole corrections and surface spin-polarization were allowed in all calculations because of the experimentally observed polar nature of the GaN(0001) surface. Spin polarization is needed to account for possible changes in spin state as reactions occur on the surface.

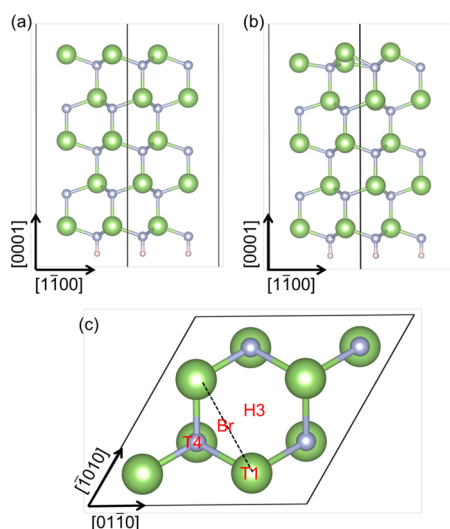
To examine the beta hydride elimination reaction, we carried out finite cluster QM calculations in Jaguar<sup>42</sup> using the PBE functional and lacv3p++ G(d,p) basis set. We used the PBE functional to allow direct comparisons with the periodic calculations. The transition states were validated to have exactly one negative eigenvalue of the Hessian. We then followed the minimum energy path to identify and connect reactants and products.

To identify transition states and to calculate activation barriers in the periodic slab model for N<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub> decomposition reactions as well as N<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub> (x = 0, 1; y = 0–3) diffusion, we used the climbing image nudged elastic band method (CINEB)<sup>43</sup> with five intermediate images between the reactions’ initial and final states. To examine the TMG reaction transition state and reaction barrier on the N-rich surface, we used the dimer transition state search method.<sup>44</sup> The obtained transition states were verified by vibrational analysis that confirm only one imaginary frequency. The dynamical matrix

was determined by displacing each ion of 0.15 Å in the direction of each Cartesian coordinate and from the corresponding forces. Only the top two layers are relaxed in the vibrational analysis, without loss of chemical accuracy.

### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**III-1. Nitrogen Species on GaN (0001) Surface.** *III-1-1. Bare GaN (0001) Surface Model.* We first examine the chemical reactions of nitrogen precursors ( $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$ ) on a bare Ga surface where the Ga dangling bonds are partially filled with 3/4 electrons. GaN (0001) surface reconstruction had been widely examined experimentally and computationally.<sup>26–30</sup> We started with a  $(2 \times 2)$  bare Ga surface, as shown in Figure 2a, and displaced half the surface Ga atoms



**Figure 2.** Simulation model of GaN (0001) surface: (a) side view for the no reconstruct surface; (b) side view for the reconstruct surface; (c) the top view. The Ga, N, and H atoms are shown by green, gray, and white balls, respectively.

downward. This structure was minimized to obtain a reconstructed surface, as shown in Figure 2b. The reconstructed surface is 0.13 J/m<sup>2</sup> lower in energy than the unreconstructed surface. For the reconstructed surface, half of the Ga atoms move inward and below the N layers and form sp<sup>2</sup> type bonds in a nearly planar structure with three nitrogen atoms. However, the other half of Ga atoms remain in the tetrahedral bonding formation, as the unconstructed surface. Although there is no current experimental evidence, previous DFT studies found similar GaN (0001) surface reconstruction, where the surface energy is ~12–16 J/m<sup>2</sup> lower in total energy.<sup>45,46</sup> This surface reconstruction is also similar to those in previously reported QM studies on InN (0001) surface.<sup>47</sup>

*III-1-2.  $\text{N}_x\text{H}_y$  ( $x = 1, 2$ ;  $y = 0-4$ ) Binding Energy.* Binding energies of  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  species and their fragments on GaN (0001) surface were computed as

$$E_{\text{bind}} = E_{\text{sur-mol}} - E_{\text{surf}} - E_{\text{g-mol}} \quad (1)$$

where  $E_{\text{sur-mol}}$  corresponds to the total energy of molecular species on the surface,  $E_{\text{surf}}$  is the total energy of the reconstructed surface, and  $E_{\text{g-mol}}$  is the energy of the corresponding molecules in gas phase. A negative value of  $E_{\text{bind}}$  indicates an exothermic process. Table 1 lists the binding

energies of  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_2$ ,  $\text{NH}$ ,  $\text{N}$ , and  $\text{H}$  at 0.25 ML coverage at the various binding sites indicated in Figure 2c.

**Table 1.** Binding Energy (Unit: kcal/mol) of  $\text{N}_{x=1,2}\text{H}_{y=0-4}$  Species on the Pure Ga Surface

species	T1	T4	H3	Br
$\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$	−33.44	...	...	−38.05
$\text{NH}_3$	−32.75	...	...	...
$\text{NH}_2$	−84.17	...	...	−89.70
$\text{NH}$	...	−114.15	−129.83	...
$\text{N}$	...	−109.99	−127.29	...
$\text{H}$	−75.18	...	...	...

$\text{NH}_3$  was only found to be stable at the top (T1) site with an  $E_{\text{bind}}$  of −32.75 kcal/mol, which is stronger than  $\text{NH}_3$  bonded to InN surface of −20.06 kcal/mol.<sup>47</sup> The resulting Ga–N and N–H bond lengths are 2.10 and 1.03 Å, respectively, and the H–N–H angles are 108.6°, 108.7°, and 111.2°.

In contrast,  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  was found to be stable at T1 and bridge (Br) sites, with an  $E_{\text{bind}}$  of −33.24 kcal/mol and −38.05 kcal/mol, respectively. On the T1 site, one of N atom in  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  is bonded to surface Ga with the Ga–N bond length of 2.11 Å. The N–N bond tilted upward with a Ga–N–N angle of 112.3° and a N–N bond length of 1.44 Å, which coincides with the single N–N bond length. For the Br site, the N–N bond is parallel to the Ga surface and two N atoms are bonded to two surface Ga atoms. In this geometry, the Ga–N and N–N bond lengths are 2.33 and 1.46 Å, respectively. The corresponding N–H bond lengths are 1.03, 1.05, and 1.06 Å. The H–N–H angle is 110.0°, which is slightly larger than that of a gas phase system (107.2°). The H–N–N–H torsion angles are 47.1° and 72.6°, compared with the corresponding gas phase angles of 30.4° and 87.2°.  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  bound on a Br site is shown in Figure 3d.

$\text{NH}_2$  binds stably to T1 and Br sites, with binding energies of −84.17 kcal/mol and −89.70 kcal/mol, respectively. In the T1 configuration, the N of the  $\text{NH}_2$  molecule is 1.90 Å away from the surface Ga. The N–H bond lengths are 1.02 Å and the H–N–H angle is 109.7°, which differs slightly from the gas phase values of 1.04 Å and 102.1°. In the bridging configuration,  $\text{NH}_2$  is adsorbed between two Ga atoms with the two H atoms pointing upward. The N–H and Ga–N bond lengths in this configuration are 1.03 and 2.13 Å, respectively, and the H–N–H angle is 108.0°. The Br site is energetically more stable by 5.53 kcal/mol than the T1 site.

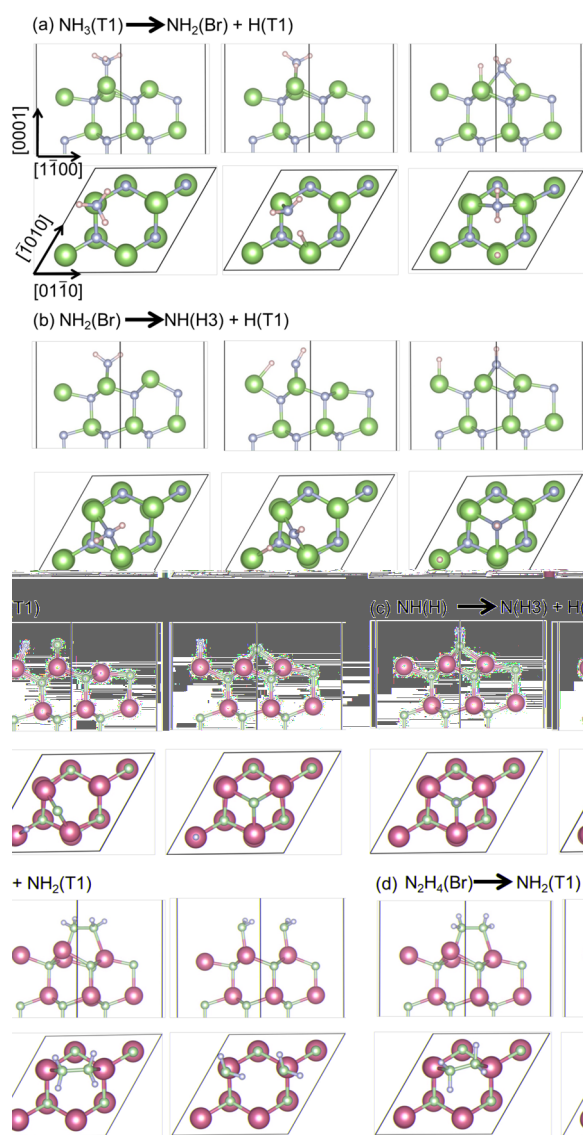
For  $\text{NH}$ , the hollow (H3) site was found to be energetically most favorable with a binding energy of −129.83 kcal/mol. In this configuration, N forms three bonds with the surrounding Ga atoms with a Ga–N bond length of 2.10 Å and an N–H bond length of 1.03 Å, which is slightly shorter than the gas phase value of 1.05 Å. The T4 site was found to be energetically least favorable by 15.68 kcal/mol due to the steric repulsion from subsurface N.

N binding is energetically more favorable on the H3 site, with a binding energy of −127.29 kcal/mol. In this geometry, the Ga–N bond length is 2.03 Å.

Finally, the only stable adsorption site for H atoms was found to be the T1 sites, with a binding energy of −75.18 kcal/mol referenced to hydrogen atom. In this geometry, the Ga–H bond length is 1.58 Å.

We find that the adsorption energies for  $\text{N}_x\text{H}_y$  ( $x = 0, 1$ ;  $y = 0-3$ ) becomes more negative as the number of H atoms





**Figure 3.**  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  dehydrogenation reaction mechanism on Ga (0001) surface. The initial (left), transition (center), and the product (right) states are viewed from side and top. The Ga, N, and H atoms are represented by green, gray, and white balls, respectively.

decreases. Also, the distance from the N atoms to the surface Ga atoms decreases with a smaller number of H atoms in the molecule, indicating a stronger interaction of the dehydrogenated species with the surface. The N and NH species have the lowest surface binding energy on H3 site, which is consistent with recent experimental observations that the  $2 \times 2$  surface reconstruction after growth under N-rich conditions is associated with N adatoms in the H3 configuration.<sup>48</sup> The binding energy of  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  on Br sites is more negative (by 5.3 kcal/mol) than  $\text{NH}_3$  on T1 sites, indicating that the  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  will adsorb easier into the Ga surface than  $\text{NH}_3$ . Therefore, we confirm that  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  leads to higher N yield than  $\text{NH}_3$  for GaN thin film growth, which is consistent with experimental observation that GaN growth could happen at significant lower temperature using  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  as N source than using  $\text{NH}_3$ ,<sup>49</sup> and we contend that it enables a lower growth temperature by virtue of the larger binding energy than ammonia.

**III-1-3.  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  Decomposition Reactions on the GaN (0001) Surface.** To confirm which is the better nitrogen

precursor for the GaN thin film growth, we examined the  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  decomposition reactions on the GaN (0001) surface. We first study the  $\text{NH}_3$  decomposition reactions starting from a stable T1 site. The geometries of initial, final, and transition states are shown in Figure 3a, and the reaction barriers and heat of reactions are listed in Table 2. We find that the  $\text{NH}_3$  is

**Table 2.  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  Surface Decomposition Reactions (Unit: kcal/mol) on the Ga Surface<sup>a</sup>**

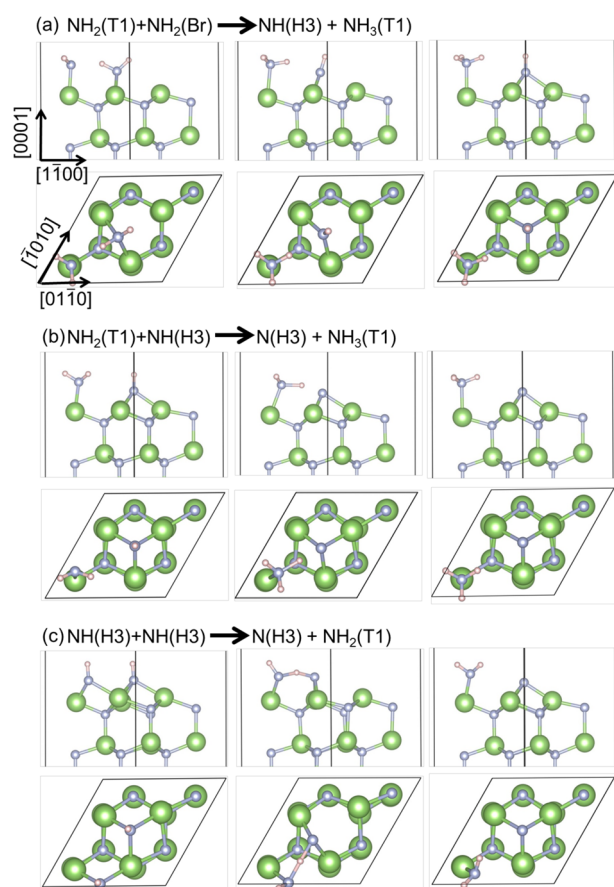
reactions	reaction barrier	heat of reaction
$\text{NH}_3(\text{T1}) \rightarrow \text{NH}_2(\text{Br}) + \text{H}(\text{T1})$	13.61	−16.37
$\text{NH}_2(\text{Br}) \rightarrow \text{NH}(\text{H3}) + \text{H}(\text{T1})$	21.68	−14.99
$\text{NH}(\text{H3}) \rightarrow \text{N}(\text{H3}) + \text{H}(\text{T1})$	70.79	36.90
$\text{N}_2\text{H}_4(\text{Br}) \rightarrow 2\text{NH}_2(\text{T1})$	1.15	−50.96
$\text{NH}_2(\text{T1}) + \text{NH}_2(\text{Br}) \rightarrow \text{NH}_3(\text{T1}) + \text{NH}(\text{H3})$	13.61	11.07
$\text{NH}_2(\text{T1}) + \text{NH}(\text{H3}) \rightarrow \text{NH}_3(\text{T1}) + \text{N}(\text{H3})$	36.67	27.44
$\text{NH}(\text{H3}) + \text{NH}(\text{H3}) \rightarrow \text{NH}_2(\text{T1}) + \text{N}(\text{H3})$	22.83	2.31

<sup>a</sup>The first four reactions correspond to the reactions described in Figure 3 in sequence, and the last three reactions correspond to the reactions described in Figure 4 in sequence.

decomposed to one H on the T1 site and one  $\text{NH}_2$  on the bridge site with the reaction barrier of 13.61 kcal/mol. At the transition state, the  $\text{NH}_3$  molecule is pushed to the Br site and the N–H bond stretches from 1.04 to 1.48 Å. This is an exothermic reaction releasing 16.37 kcal/mol of energy. Subsequently, the  $\text{NH}_2$  is decomposed to NH on a H3 site and H on a T1 site with a reaction barrier of 21.68 kcal/mol (Figure 3b). At the transition state, the N–H bond is stretched to 1.58 Å. This is also an exothermic reaction that releases 14.99 kcal/mol in energy. Finally, the NH is decomposed to one N on an H3 site and an H on a T1 site (Figure 3c). This reaction has a high barrier, 70.79 kcal/mol, and corresponds to an endothermic process that absorbs 36.90 kcal/mol in energy.

We then examined the  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  decomposition reaction starting from the most stable Br site. The initial, final, and transition state geometries are shown in Figure 3d. At the transition state, the N–N bond rotates to align along the Ga–Ga bond before bond breaking. Then,  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  decomposes in two  $\text{NH}_2$  on the T1 sites with a reaction barrier of 1.15 kcal/mol, releasing 50.96 kcal/mol of energy. The small decomposition reaction barrier confirms that the  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  decomposes readily on the GaN (0001) surface, and the much larger 50.96 kcal/mol energy release, compared to  $\text{NH}_3$  decomposition, indicates it is a better precursor for low-temperature growth of GaN. The very low barrier of hydrazine decomposition is due to its N lone pair interacting with and bonding with the empty orbital of a surface Ga. This is consistent with the previous DFT study of the hydrazine decomposition on Rh (111) and Ir(111) surface, where its N–N bond strength is dramatically decreased when compared to the gas phase molecule.<sup>50,51</sup>

The large kinetic barriers for  $\text{NH}_2$  and NH decomposition reactions as discussed above imply that the formation of active N species may limit the growth process. However, we find that the presence of neighboring  $\text{NH}_2$  and NH species lowers the corresponding reaction barriers through hydrogen transfer. Figure 4 shows the initial, final, and transition state geometries of hydrogen transfer reactions. The calculated reaction barriers and heat of reactions are summarized in Table 2. In the first reaction (Figure 4a), H is transferred from one  $\text{NH}_2$  on a Br site to a neighboring T1 site to yield NH at the H3 site and



**Figure 4.** Side and top views of the initial (left), transition (center), and the final (right) states for reactions involving H transfer between adsorbed molecules on the GaN (0001) surface. Green, gray, and white balls represent the Ga, N, and H atoms, respectively.

$\text{NH}_3$  at the T1 site. The barrier for this reaction is 13.61 kcal/mol, which is 8.07 kcal/mol lower than the barrier for  $\text{NH}_2$  decomposition by hydrogen dissociation. Active N species, on the other hand, can be produced in reactions between NH and  $\text{NH}_2$  at H3 and T1 sites, respectively, or two NH molecules at H3. The barriers for these processes are 36.67 and 22.83 kcal/mol, respectively, which are significantly lower than the barrier for the NH dissociation process. If  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  is used as the nitrogen precursor, it not only decomposes into two  $\text{NH}_2$  to improve the N yield, compared to  $\text{NH}_3$ , but it could also provide the H transfer source to facilitate the decomposition reactions. Thus, we contend that  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  is a better and more amenable to low-temperature growth nitrogen precursor than  $\text{NH}_3$ .

**III-1-4. Nitrogen Species Surface Diffusion.** To check how the diffusion of species affects the GaN growth process, we calculated diffusion barriers for  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_2$ , NH, N, and H between their stable sites (as listed in Table 3). From surface chemistry experiments and first-principles calculations, we conclude that reactions with energy barriers of up to 15 kcal/mol can proceed below 100 °C. We find that NH and  $\text{NH}_2$  mobility will occur on substrate temperatures below 100 °C with the maximum barrier of 17.53 from H3 site to T4 site, which allows for the H transfer reactions to take place. N atoms diffusing from an H3 site to a T4 site, with an energy barrier of 27.9 kcal/mol, will require temperatures in the order of 150°–200 °C, as well as  $\text{NH}_3$  and H mobility from a T1 site to a T1 site (21.45 and 20.98 kcal/mol, respectively). Overall, the

**Table 3. Decomposed Species and  $\text{NH}_3$  Diffusion Barriers (Unit: kcal/mol) on the Ga Surface<sup>a</sup>**

N species	diffusion barrier
$\text{NH}_3$ (T1= $\rightarrow$ T1)	21.45
$\text{NH}_2$ (T1= $\rightarrow$ Br)	0.69
$\text{NH}_2$ (Br= $\rightarrow$ T1)	6.23
$\text{NH}_2$ (Br= $\rightarrow$ Br)	9.69
NH (H3= $\rightarrow$ T4)	17.53
NH (T4= $\rightarrow$ H3)	1.84
N (H3= $\rightarrow$ T4)	27.90
N (T4= $\rightarrow$ H3)	10.84
H (T1= $\rightarrow$ T1)	20.98

<sup>a</sup>The terms in parentheses correspond to the diffusion paths defined in Figure 2.

relatively low diffusion barriers indicate that the N layer growth process is primarily a reaction-limited process as opposed to a diffusion-limited process under low surface coverage conditions.

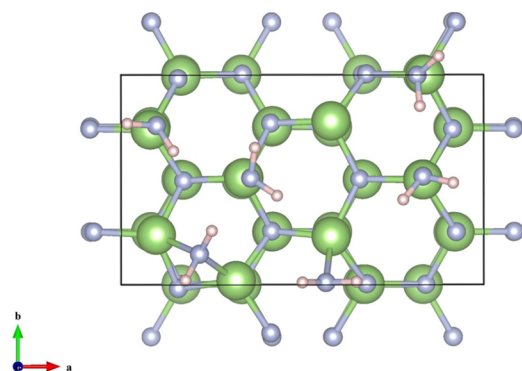
**III-1-5. Discussion on Nitrogen Growth Process.** Our current simulations focus on the bare Ga surface. Previous studies constructed the phase diagram of GaN (0001) surface in an ammonia environment and based on the chemical potential of hydrogen and nitrogen to show the structural properties of GaN surfaces under conventional growth conditions (i.e., high temperature).<sup>33,50</sup> Here, we are more interested in the low-temperature growth, where  $\text{NH}_3 + 3\text{NH}_2$  is most favored when using ammonia as N precursor.<sup>52</sup> On the other hand, we find that if  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  is used as the N precursor it is readily decomposed to  $\text{NH}_2$ , which indicates that the most stable surface should be  $\text{NH}_2$  rich for the low temperature growth conditions.

In addition to the effects described under conventional experimental growth condition, recent DFT studies also show that the adsorption energy on the GaN (0001) surface depends on the position of the Fermi level because of possible charged surface states.<sup>53–55</sup> Specifically, the adsorption energy is not affected if there is no charge transfer process, whereas the adsorption energy depends on the energy of the surface state pinning Fermi level at the surface when there charge transfer occurs. For the nonpinned Fermi level at the surface, the adsorption energy depends on the bulk doping in the bulk.<sup>54</sup> It would be interesting, but beyond the scope of this article, to examine how this affects the growth process when using  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  as the N precursor.

Recently, Kempisty et al. reconstructed the phase diagram of GaN(0001) surface in an ammonia environment considering the possible charged surface states.<sup>55</sup> In particular, they divided the configuration space into three zones of differently pinned Fermi levels: at the Ga broken bond state for dominantly bare surface (region I), at the valence band maximum (VBM) for the  $\text{NH}_2$  and H-covered surface (region II), and at the conduction band minimum (CBM) for the  $\text{NH}_3$ -covered surface (region III). Our study examines the bare Ga surface conditions (i.e., analogous to region I in the work from Kempisty and co-workers). It would also be interesting to study the surface state effects for the  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  molecule for an  $\text{NH}_2$  covered surface, and this will be considered for a future publication.

**III-2. Gallium Species on the N Rich Surface.** **III-2-1. GaN (0001) Nitrogen Surface Model.** To examine the Ga layer growth, we consider TMG and TEG as the gallium

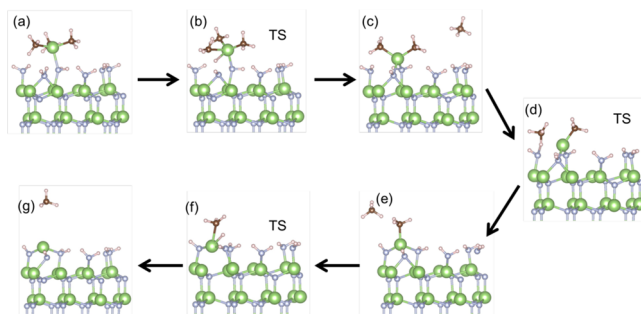
precursors. The larger size of these precursors required a larger surface model, and hence, we rotated the hexagonal lattice and made “a” along (21 $\bar{3}$ 0) direction, “b” along (01 $\bar{1}$ 0) direction, which led to a (0001) surface with 8 Ga sites for each double layer. The surface structure during GaN growth can be very complex and highly dependent on the experimental temperature growth conditions.<sup>52</sup> To simplify our simulation model, without sacrificing chemical accuracy, we focus on exploring the low energy reconstructed surfaces that satisfy the ECR at  $T = 0$  conditions. These structures correspond to the temperature lower-bound geometries for GaN growth.<sup>52</sup> Because each surface Ga is partially filled with 3/4 of an electron, the surface has a total of 6 electrons. The growth nitrogen layer should balance these 6 surface electrons based on the Electron Counting Rule (ECR). Thus, any combinations of N species with 6 electrons could grow on this gallium layer, for example, 6NH<sub>2</sub>, 3NH, or 2N. Based on the above surface binding energy calculation, the lowest surface energy will be NH or N on the H3 site. However, only two N would fit on the surface for a total binding energy of  $-254.83$  kcal/mol compared to having 6NH<sub>2</sub> with a total binding energy of  $-498.58$  kcal/mol. Consequently, we chose the lowest energy surface for an N layer to have 6NH<sub>2</sub> adsorbed species. This surface was annealed at 600 K within 4 ps in quantum molecular dynamics, and minimized in energy, which led to 4 NH<sub>2</sub> on T1 sites and 2NH<sub>2</sub> on Br sites as shown in Figure 5. The next section discusses the



**Figure 5.** Simulation model of GaN (0001) surface with 6NH<sub>2</sub> species (the top view). This model is used to examine the TMG surface reactions.

TMG reactions on this 6NH<sub>2</sub> surface. Van de Walle and Neugebauer<sup>50</sup> define the lowest chemical potential N surface for GaN(0001) to be 6NH<sub>2</sub> + 2NH<sub>3</sub>. We assume for an ALD or CVD GaN growth process that H will be abstracted, via H radicals, from NH<sub>3</sub> to form NH<sub>2</sub>. If this occurs for the 6NH<sub>2</sub> + 2NH<sub>3</sub> surface, the decomposition route must satisfy the electron counting rule (ECR). We chose 6NH<sub>2</sub> because it corresponds to the minimum energy system that maximizes the number of low coordination N, while satisfying the ECR. This is the most likely surface when using N<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> as N precursor.

**III-2-2. TMG Growth Mechanism.** The TMG surface reaction mechanism on NH<sub>2</sub> sites of a GaN (0001) surface is shown in Figure 6, and the reaction barriers and heat of reactions are listed in Table 4. Initially, the TMG molecule is physical adsorbed on the top of an NH<sub>2</sub> (T1 site, shown in Figure 6a) with heat of reaction of  $-5.51$  kcal/mol. The distance between the TMG Ga and the surface N in NH<sub>2</sub> is 2.272 Å, which is 14% longer than the crystal Ga–N bond



**Figure 6.** TMG decomposition reactions pathways on the N rich Ga (0001) surface. (a) is the initial state with TMG on surface, (b) (d) (f) are transition states, (c) is the intermediate state with DMG on surface, (e) is the intermediate state with MMG on surface. The CH<sub>4</sub> will be removed in the next step as it forms and is released to gas phase.

**Table 4. TMG Surface Reactions (Unit: kcal/mol) on 6NH<sub>2</sub> Bonded Ga (0001) Surface<sup>a</sup>**

reactions	reaction barrier	heat of reaction
TMG(S) $\Rightarrow$ DMG(S) + CH <sub>4</sub> (G)	29.50	$-23.49$
DMG(S) $\Rightarrow$ MMG(S) + CH <sub>4</sub> (G)	42.54	$-2.3$
MMG(S) + H(G) $\Rightarrow$ Ga(S) + CH <sub>4</sub> (G)	29.70	$-7.91$

<sup>a</sup>(S) represents the surface states, and (G) represents the gas phase states.

(1.992 Å). This indicates a weak interaction of the N lone pair with the empty orbital of Ga as TMG physically adsorbs on the NH<sub>2</sub>.

Then, one CH<sub>3</sub> reacts with a H from a bridged NH<sub>2</sub> to release one CH<sub>4</sub> from surface with reaction barrier of 29.5 kcal/mol and a heat of reaction of  $-23.49$  kcal/mol. In the corresponding transition state, shown in Figure 6b, the N–H bond in NH<sub>2</sub> stretches from 1.026 to 1.508 Å. Meanwhile, the Ga–C bond is stretched from 2.035 to 2.296 Å, and the distance between C and H decreases from 2.643 to 1.302 Å. The TMG is then chemical adsorbed on the surface NH<sub>2</sub> because the Ga–N bond decreases from 2.272 to 2.058 Å. After this occurs, a dimethylgallium (DMG) forms on the N-rich surface, connected to one NH<sub>2</sub> on T1 site and one NH on Br site, as shown in Figure 6c.

It then follows that one CH<sub>3</sub> from the DMG reacts with the H on NH<sub>2</sub> (T1 site) to form another CH<sub>4</sub> with a reaction barrier of 42.54 kcal/mol and a heat of reaction of  $-2.3$  kcal/mol. In the corresponding transition state, shown in Figure 6d, the N–H bond in NH<sub>2</sub> stretches from 1.026 to 1.577 Å, the Ga–C bond increases from 2.024 to 2.370 Å, and the C–H bond decreases from 2.480 to 1.268 Å. Another CH<sub>4</sub> is released into the gas phase and a monomethylgallium (MMG) forms on a T4 site, bonded to three surface nitrogen atoms, as shown in Figure 6e. We note that this T4 site corresponds to the precise Ga layer growth site and that no diffusion is necessary for the Ga layer growth under this mechanism.

The H source for the methyl abscission reaction in the previous steps comes from the surface N species. The last CH<sub>3</sub> from the MMG is too far from the surface H to react and release a final methane group. Thus, a gas phase H is needed to abstract the CH<sub>3</sub> and form CH<sub>4</sub>, resulting in a bare surface Ga. This reaction has a reaction barrier of 29.70 kcal/mol, which is similar to the cost of TMG decomposing on a surface into DMG. At the corresponding transition state, shown in Figure



6f, the distance between C and a gas phase H needs to be 1.376 Å, and the distance between Ga and a gas phase H should be 1.902 Å. The final snapshot after this reaction is shown in Figure 6g.

The highest reaction barrier in this TMG reaction growth is the decomposition of DMG to MMG with an energy barrier of 42.54 kcal/mol. This means that an additional source of nonthermal energy is needed to grow crystalline GaN at low substrate temperatures (e.g., ultrashort laser pulses, shaped optical laser pulses, low-energy electron beams, among other options).

**III-2-3. TEG Growth Mechanism.** Triethylgallium (TEG) had also been experimentally used in the GaN and GaAs growth.<sup>56,57</sup> The grown GaN layers using triethylgallium as a precursor exhibited superior electrical and optical properties and a lower carbon impurity concentration.<sup>56</sup> This led us to study the reaction mechanism of TEG in the GaN growth process. We find that there are two possible reaction mechanisms for TEG in growing GaN: (1) beta hydride elimination ( $C_2H_4+H$ ) and (2) direct desorption of  $C_2H_5$  (similar to the TMG growth mechanism).<sup>57</sup> The calculated reaction barrier of direct desorption of the first  $C_2H_5$  on the electron-balanced  $NH_2$  rich surface is 27.3 kcal/mol. This is similar to direct desorption of  $CH_3$  of TMG as showed above. For simplicity, we assume that the reaction mechanism and barrier for desorption of  $C_2H_5$  is comparable to the  $CH_3$  desorption when using TMG for GaN growth. Hence, we focus on the beta hydride elimination reactions and compare them with the TMG reactions reported above. We examined the beta-hydride elimination from a finite gas phase cluster using ab initio QM because we believe the electron balanced  $NH_2$  surface may not involve this reaction.

The three steps for beta hydride elimination of TEG are shown in Table 5 including the reaction barrier and heat of

**Table 5. TEG Beta-Hydride Elimination Reactions (Unit: kcal/mol) in Gas Phase Using PBE Functional**

reactions	reaction barrier	heat of reaction
$GaEt_3 \Rightarrow GaEt_2 + C_2H_4$	30.00	26.10
$GaHEt_2 \Rightarrow GaH_2Et + C_2H_4$	55.12	25.85
$GaH_2Et \Rightarrow GaH_3 + C_2H_4$	80.03	26.69

reaction. The first  $C_2H_4$  dissociation reaction has a reaction barrier of 30.0 kcal/mol with the heat of reaction of 26.10 kcal/mol. This reaction has a similar energy barrier as  $CH_4$  dissociation from TMG on a Ga surface. This indicates that for TEG, both  $C_2H_4$  formation by beta-hydride elimination and by direct desorption of  $C_2H_5$  may happen in the growth process, which is consistent with existing experimental observations.<sup>51</sup> The second  $C_2H_4$  dissociation reaction from diethylgallium (DEG) has a much higher reaction barrier of 55.12 kcal/mol, with a heat of reaction of 25.85 kcal/mol. The third  $C_2H_4$  dissociation reaction from monoethylgallium (MEG), has an even higher barrier of 80.03 kcal/mol with a heat of reaction of 26.69 kcal/mol. The high-energy barrier  $C_2H_4$  release reaction from DEG and MEG on this particular N-rich surface does not bluntly favor the use of TEG over TMG for GaN growth at low substrate temperatures. Nonetheless, experimental observations seem to suggest that the beta-hydride elimination reactions may be promoted (i.e., lower barriers) by increasing the Ga coverage on the surface<sup>51</sup> and that TEG leads to a reduction in the number of carbon

impurities and defects. Studying the benefits of using TEG as precursor, instead of TMG, for defect-reduction in GaN growth is beyond the scope of this paper.

#### IV. SUMMARY

We have examined the reaction mechanisms involved in GaN growth with different nitrogen and gallium precursor molecules, including  $NH_3$ ,  $N_2H_4$ , TMG, and TEG using ab initio QM calculations. We report on the binding energies, reaction barriers, and transition states of  $N_2H_4$  and  $NH_3$  decomposition on Ga (0001) surfaces, as well as on the effects of hydrogen transfer from the nearby species on the decomposition kinetics. We find that  $N_2H_4$  has larger binding energy than  $NH_3$  (~6 kcal/mol) to Ga, hence it is likely to happen at lower substrate temperatures, and that it offers a higher N yield for on a Ga-rich surface. We also find that initial  $NH_3$  and  $N_2H_4$  dissociation into  $NH_2$  can proceed at low substrate temperatures (<100 °C) thanks to a low energy barrier (13.61 and 1.15 kcal/mol, respectively) and that further  $NH_2$  decomposition to NH and eventually to N is favored by the hydrogen transfer from near neighboring N species on the surface. Nonetheless,  $NH_2$  decomposition to NH and NH to N is likely to require additional input energy. Overall, we contend that the mobility of N species on a Ga (0001) surface may proceed, for the most part, at low substrate temperatures (<100C) and that the deposition of nitrogen layers in GaN is a reaction-limited process under low surface coverage conditions. For the gallium precursors, we find that the abstraction of secondary  $CH_3$  groups through surface H from TMG is the rate-limiting process in GaN growth with this precursor (with a barrier of 42.54 kcal/mol) and that beta-hydride elimination for TEG on N-rich surfaces has comparable energy barriers to the reactions of  $CH_3$  desorption during TMG adsorption. Notwithstanding, we contend that due to the beta-hydride elimination, TEG favors growth with reduced C impurities over TMG.

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##### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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