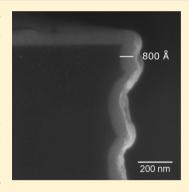


# Atomic Layer Deposition of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> Films Using Trimethylgallium and Ozone

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ABSTRACT: In this manuscript, we demonstrate a new process for the atomic layer deposition (ALD) of gallium oxide (Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) thin films using trimethylgallium (TMGa) and ozone. We evaluated a variety of oxygen sources for Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD using TMGa but found that only ozone was effective. We explored the mechanism for Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD using in situ quartz crystal microbalance, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy, and quadrupole mass spectrometry studies. We found that TMGa dissociatively adsorbs onto the Ga2O3 surface to form  $Ga(CH_3)_2$  surface species and liberate ~20% of the methyl ligands as  $CH_4$ . Next, the ozone reacts with these methyl species to form hydroxyl and formate surface groups and liberate CH2O. We prepared ALD Ga2O3 films on Si(100) and fused SiO2 substrates and analyzed the films using a variety of techniques. We found the Ga2O3 growth to be selflimiting with a growth rate of ~0.52 Å/cycle between 200 and 375 °C. Moreover, the Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films were stoichiometric, free of residual carbon, and exhibited properties similar to bulk Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Scanning electron microscopy revealed smooth films with good step coverage over



trench structures, and X-ray diffraction showed that the films were amorphous as-deposited but crystallized to β-Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> upon annealing at 900 °C.

KEYWORDS: gallium oxide, atomic layer deposition, trimethylgallium, ozone, FTIR, quartz crystal microbalance

#### INTRODUCTION

Gallium oxide (Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) thin films have been utilized in a wide variety of applications, including phosphors, 1-4 transparent conducting oxides (TCOs),<sup>5,6</sup> gas sensors,<sup>7-9'</sup> and passivating dielectrics for GaAs-based electronics.<sup>10–12</sup> With such varied applications, a number of techniques have been developed for depositing Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> thin films, including evaporation, <sup>13,14</sup> sputtering, 13,15 pulsed laser deposition, 5,6 chemical vapor deposition (CVD), 16-18 and atomic layer deposition (ALD). 19-24 In particular, ALD provides a number of advantages for preparing Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films. ALD utilizes iterative, self-saturating precursor exposures to deposit thin films in a well-controlled, monolayer-by-monolayer fashion. As a result, ALD enables precise thickness control, high uniformity in both thickness and composition over large areas, and excellent step coverage. Furthermore, ALD is typically conducted at lower temperatures than CVD, thus enabling thermally sensitive substrates, such as polymers, to be coated.

One of the most important attributes for ALD precursors is high volatility.<sup>25</sup> This quality is particularly important for coating high aspect ratio or porous substrates and for scaling the ALD process to larger areas. Although Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD processes have previously been demonstrated using Ga-(acac)<sub>3</sub>,  $^{19,20}$  ((CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>GaNH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>3</sub>,  $^{21}$  Ga<sub>2</sub>(N(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>)<sub>6</sub>,  $^{22,23}$  and a Ga alkoxide,<sup>24</sup> all of these precursors must be heated to achieve an adequate vapor pressure. In contrast, trimethylgallium (TMGa) has a very high vapor pressure of 227 Torr at room temperature.<sup>26</sup> Additionally, TMGa is chemically similar and analogous to trimethylaluminum (TMA), which is considered a model precursor for Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD.<sup>27</sup> It is therefore somewhat surprising that there have been no reports using TMGa for Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD, although TMGa has been utilized for Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> CVD at high temperatures<sup>28</sup> and as a dopant in the ALD of Ga-doped ZnO thin films.<sup>29</sup>

In this work, we demonstrate the suitability of TMGa for the ALD of high quality Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films. Although a number of different oxygen sources were explored, only ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) permitted Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD with TMGa. We used in situ quartz crystal microbalance (QCM),<sup>30,31</sup> Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR),<sup>32–36</sup> and quadrupole mass spectrometry (QMS)<sup>30,37</sup> studies to develop an understanding of the surface reactions at work during Ga2O3 ALD. With suitable ALD process conditions established by the in situ studies, we deposited Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films on Si(100) and fused SiO<sub>2</sub> substrates. The properties of these films were then characterized using scanning electron microscopy (SEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), spectroscopic ellipsometry, optical spectroscopy, Rutherford backscattering spectroscopy (RBS), and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS).

#### EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

ALD was conducted in a custom, viscous flow reactor with the reaction zone consisting of a heated, 5 cm diameter, stainless steel tube.<sup>31</sup> The pressure within the reactor was maintained at ~1 Torr using a 300 sccm flow of ultra high purity (UHP, 99.999%) nitrogen carrier gas. Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD was conducted using TMGa (99+%, Strem Chemicals, Inc.) as the Ga source. TMGa was dosed through a 100  $\mu$ m diameter

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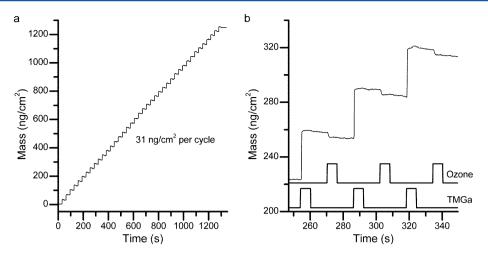


Figure 1. (a) QCM data recorded during 40 cycles of  $Ga_2O_3$  ALD using TMGa- $O_3$  at 350 °C with the timing sequence 6–10–6–10. (b) Expanded view of QCM data during 3 cycles of  $Ga_2O_3$  ALD where the individual TMGa and  $O_3$  exposures are indicated by the lower traces.

orifice to achieve a TMGa partial pressure of ~20 mTorr within the reactor. A variety of oxygen sources were screened, including  $H_2O$ ,  $H_2O_2$  (30 wt % in  $H_2O$ ), isopropanol,  $O_2$ ,  $O_3$ , and  $H_2O/O_2$  mixtures. The liquid precursor vapors ( $H_2O$ ,  $H_2O_2$ , and isopropanol) were all dosed at room temperature through a needle valve. Ozone was generated by flowing UHP oxygen (99.999%) through an ozone generator (Lab-113, Pacific Ozone) at 400 sccm while keeping the pressure within the generator at 2–3 psi. The ozone generator output was approximately 8 wt %  $O_3$  in  $O_2$ . The  $O_3$  and  $O_2$  were introduced into the reactor through a 200  $\mu$ m diameter orifice at a backing pressure of 1 atm. The  $Ga_2O_3$  ALD timing sequences are expressed as:  $t_1$ – $t_2$ – $t_3$ – $t_4$ , where  $t_1$  is the TMGa exposure time,  $t_3$  is the oxygen source exposure time, and  $t_2$  and  $t_4$  are the respective purge times, with all times in seconds.

In situ QCM studies were conducted using a modified Maxtek Model BSH-150 sensor head loaded into the ALD reactor tube with y-12.5° cut GaPO<sub>4</sub> sensor crystals (R-20, Piezocryst Advanced Sensorics Gmbh). The y-12.5° cut GaPO<sub>4</sub> crystals are temperature compensated at 240 °C and enable QCM measurements with enhanced stability at temperatures greater than 200 °C. $^{39}$  The mass changes per unit area were calculated by measuring the frequency shifts and applying the Sauerbrey equation.  $^{39}$ 

In situ QMS measurements were conducted with a differentially pumped QMS (Stanford Research Systems, Model RGA300) located downstream from the sample position and separated from the reactor by a 35  $\mu$ m orifice. In order to detect species with  $m/e \sim 28$ , the carrier gas was changed to UHP Ar (99.999%) for these studies. Additionally, no samples were loaded into the reactor during these studies, so just the surface area of the reactor tube is responsible for the reaction products observed.

In situ FTIR studies of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD were conducted in transmission mode using a Nicolet 6700 FTIR spectrometer (Thermo Scientific) and a smaller reactor that is similar to those described previously. 32,40 The FTIR reactor utilized gate valves that were closed during the precursor exposures to prevent growth on the CsI windows. Substrates for FTIR measurements were prepared by pressing a nanopowder into a stainless steel grid.<sup>41</sup> The grids were fabricated using photochemical machining (Fotofab, Inc.) and were 50  $\mu$ m thick with 50  $\mu$ m bars and 200  $\mu$ m square openings. Depending upon the FTIR features of interest, either ZrO<sub>2</sub> (<100 nm diameter) or SiO<sub>2</sub> (10-20 nm diameter) nanopowders were utilized. ZrO2 is relatively transparent from 4000 to 800 cm<sup>-1</sup> while SiO<sub>2</sub> is relatively transparent from 4000 to 1400 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1000-500 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The nanopowder-filled grid was mounted into a stage that could be heated to 500 °C. This stage was then loaded into the FTIR reactor such that the IR beam passed through the center of the grid. During in situ FTIR measurements, the substrate temperature was maintained by the heated stage, while the

reactor walls were maintained at 200  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  to prevent precursor condensation.

ALD Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films were deposited onto Si(100) and fused SiO<sub>2</sub> substrates and then characterized by a variety of techniques. The film thickness and optical properties were determined by fixed angle spectroscopic ellipsometry (alpha-SE, J. A. Woollam Co.) using a Cauchy model to fit the ellipsometric data. SEM images were acquired using a Hitachi S4700 with a field-emission electron source and secondary electron detectors. Cross-sectional SEM measurements of cleaved specimens were utilized to confirm the ellipsometric thickness measurements. The morphology and step coverage of the Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films were assessed by imaging films deposited onto micromachined Si substrates with trenches of varied aspect ratios. The crystallinity of the as-deposited and annealed Ga2O3 films was determined by XRD (D8 Advance, Bruker). Annealing to enhance the film crystallinity was conducted in a quartz tube furnace under a flowing UHP Ar atmosphere. The film composition and density were measured by RBS measurements conducted by Evans Analytical Group. The RBS measurements were conducted using a 2.275 MeV He<sup>2+</sup> ion beam with a backscattering angle of 160° and a grazing angle of 96°. Residual carbon within the Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> film was assessed by XPS spectra acquired by Evans Analytical Group. The film surface was first sputtered with a 4 keV Ar+ source to remove adventitious carbon and enable sampling of the "bulk" film composition. Optical spectroscopy measurements were performed in transmission mode using a UV-vis-NIR spectrophotometer (Cary 5000, Varian, Inc.). For these measurements, the ALD Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> films were deposited onto both sides of fused SiO<sub>2</sub> substrates, and the measurements were referenced to an uncoated fused SiO2 substrate.

# ■ RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In situ QCM Measurements. In situ QCM measurements were conducted at reaction temperatures between 250 and 350 °C to evaluate different oxygen sources and processing conditions for  $Ga_2O_3$  ALD. Prior to each experiment, the QCM crystal was first coated with ~5 nm ALD  $Al_2O_3$  using alternating exposures to TMA and  $H_2O$  in order to achieve a reproducible starting surface for the  $Ga_2O_3$  ALD nucleation and growth. In all cases, a mass gain was observed during the first TMGa exposure onto the fresh  $Al_2O_3$  surface, presumably due to the facile chemisorption of the TMGa onto the Al–OH surface hydroxyls. However, sustained mass gains during repeated  $Ga_2O_3$  ALD cycles were only observed with ozone as the oxygen source. Apparently, the  $H_2O_3$  isopropanol,  $O_2$ , and  $H_2O/O_2$  mixtures are not sufficiently reactive with the TMGa-terminated surface, even at 350 °C. Consequently,

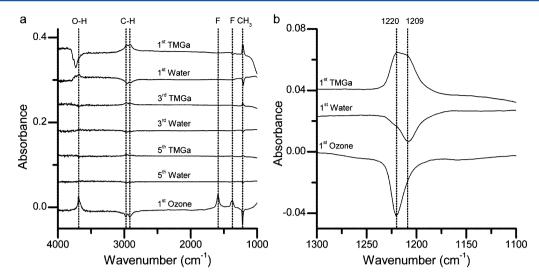


Figure 2. (a) In situ FTIR difference spectra following 1, 3, and 5 TMGa- $H_2O$  exposures and one  $O_3$  exposure at 350 °C. (b) Enlarged image of symmetric  $CH_3$  deformation feature during first TMGa- $H_2O$  cycle and first  $O_3$  exposure. Initial feature due to TMGa adsorption on  $Al_2O_3$  surface consists of peaks at 1209 and 1220 cm<sup>-1</sup>.  $H_2O$  exposure removes only the peak at 1209 cm<sup>-1</sup>, whereas  $O_3$  exposure removes the peak at 1220 cm<sup>-1</sup>.

ozone is the only suitable oxygen source for  $Ga_2O_3$  ALD using TMGa. However, an  $O_2$  plasma may work for the plasma-assisted ALD (PEALD) of  $Ga_2O_3$  using TMGa.

Figure 1a shows the mass versus time recorded by QCM during 40 cycles of alternating TMGa-O3 exposures beginning on an Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> surface using the timing sequence 6-10-6-10 at a deposition temperature of 350 °C. The growth is highly linear at 31 ng/cm<sup>2</sup>/cycle with no indication of inhibited growth on the initial Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> surface. Assuming the  $\beta$ -Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> bulk density of  $5.88 \text{ g/cm}^3$ , this mass gain corresponds to a growth rate of 0.53Å/cycle. Figure 1b shows an expanded view of three consecutive Ga2O3 ALD cycles. There is an average mass gain of 34.4 ng/cm<sup>2</sup> with each TMGa exposure and a mass loss of 3.4 ng/cm<sup>2</sup> with each ozone exposure, yielding a net mass gain of 31 ng/cm<sup>2</sup> for each complete Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD cycle. These mass changes provide insight into the adsorption of TMGa onto the Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> surface. On the basis of the ligand-exchange mechanism typically observed for metal alkyls on hydroxylated surfaces, 42,43 we propose that the TMGa reacts with OH surface species to lose x CH3 ligands as CH4 according to

$$x - OH(s) + Ga(CH_3)_3(g)$$
  
 $\rightarrow (-O -)_x Ga(CH_3)_{3-x}(s) + xCH_4(g)$  (1)

This mechanism assumes that  $\operatorname{CH}_4$  is the only gas phase product formed when TMGa reacts with the surface, which was confirmed by in situ QMS measurements as described below. Using the relationship  $R = \Delta m/\Delta m_1$ , where  $\Delta m$  is the mass change for one complete cycle and  $\Delta m_1$  is the mass change upon TMGa adsorption, the amount of  $\operatorname{CH}_3$  ligands released, x, can be determined. On the basis of eq 1,  $\Delta m = (1/2 \operatorname{Ga}_2 \operatorname{O}_3) = 93.72$  and  $\Delta m_1 = (\operatorname{Ga}) + (3-x)(\operatorname{CH}_3) - x(\operatorname{H}) = 114.72 - 16x$ . From Figure 1, R = 0.88 and x = 0.51, which implies that fewer than 1 of the 3  $\operatorname{CH}_3$  ligands is released during TMGa adsorption. This relatively small release of  $\operatorname{CH}_3$  ligands is consistent with the preferential formation of dimethylgallium species on the surface, as has previously been reported for TMGa adsorption on silica 44 and alumina 45 surfaces.

In situ FTIR Measurements. Both the  $TMGa-H_2O$  and  $TMGa-O_3$  processes were characterized using FTIR at a temperature of 350 °C. Prior to the FTIR measurements, the

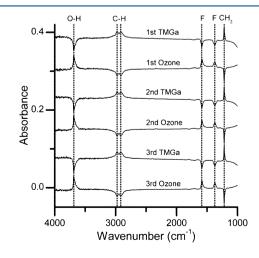
nanopowder-filled grid was allowed to equilibrate at the deposition temperature under flowing UHP  $N_2$  for approximately 1 h and was then passivated with 5 cycles of  $Al_2O_3$  ALD using TMA and  $H_2O$ . The FTIR measurements are presented as difference spectra to accentuate the changes resulting from subsequent exposures. A spectrum was recorded after each precursor exposure, and the difference spectrum was generated by subtracting the previous spectrum. Consequently, positive absorbance features indicate the formation of new surface species, whereas negative absorbances indicate the removal of surface species.

The difference spectra over the first five TMGa-H<sub>2</sub>O exposures are shown in Figure 2a. With the first TMGa exposure onto the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated surface, positive absorbances appear as broad peaks at 2975, 2915, and 1215 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The 2975 and 2915 cm<sup>-1</sup> features can be attributed to antisymmetric and symmetric C-H stretching modes, respectively, and the 1215 cm<sup>-1</sup> feature can be attributed to a symmetric CH<sub>3</sub> deformation mode. The negative absorbance at 3730 cm<sup>-1</sup> is attributed to the removal of hydroxyl groups. These features are all consistent with previously reported spectra for the adsorption of TMGa onto a hydroxylated Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> surface.<sup>45</sup> With the first H<sub>2</sub>O exposure, positive absorbances emerge corresponding to the repopulation of hydroxyl groups and negative absorbances appear corresponding to the removal of CH<sub>3</sub> ligands. However, the magnitude of the changes after the first H<sub>2</sub>O exposure are smaller than the corresponding changes observed with the first TMGa exposure, suggesting that the CH<sub>3</sub> ligands are only partially removed by H2O. This pattern continues during subsequent TMGa-H<sub>2</sub>O exposures, and by the fifth cycle, practically no absorbance changes were observed. Evidently, successive TMGa-H<sub>2</sub>O exposures leave behind CH<sub>3</sub> ligands that eventually passivate the surface and prevent the adsorption of TMGa. This behavior is consistent with our QCM measurements that showed a significant mass gain during the first TMGa exposure onto an Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> surface, but progressively smaller mass gains with repeated TMGa-H<sub>2</sub>O exposures. These FTIR measurements confirm the finding from QCM that Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD is not possible using alternating TMGa-H<sub>2</sub>O exposures.

Careful inspection of the CH<sub>3</sub> deformation feature (Figure 2b) reveals some clues regarding the lack of sustained Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> growth with H<sub>2</sub>O. The initial CH<sub>3</sub> deformation feature at 1215 cm<sup>-1</sup> is actually a superposition of two peaks at 1220 and 1209 cm<sup>-1</sup>. H<sub>2</sub>O exposures remove only the peak at 1209 cm<sup>-1</sup>. As a result, it is the remaining CH<sub>3</sub> groups associated with the 1220 cm<sup>-1</sup> peak that cause the surface passivation. The exact nature of these two types of CH<sub>3</sub> groups remains unclear. One possibility is that TMGa dissociates on the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> surface to form dimethylgallium species and Al-CH<sub>3</sub> species. 45 As with conventional Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD, the Al-CH<sub>3</sub> bonds are easily removed by H<sub>2</sub>O, whereas the Ga-CH<sub>3</sub> bonds persist and passivate the surface. Alternatively, in analogy with TMA adsorbed onto an Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> surface, the 1220 and 1209 cm<sup>-1</sup> features may be associated with monomethylgallium and dimethylgallium features, respectively. 46 As with adsorbed TMA, the dimethyl species may be more reactive and removed by the first H2O exposure, while the monomethyl species are less reactive and remain on the surface. In any case, the persistent peak at 1220 cm<sup>-1</sup> indicates that surface methyl species prevent Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD

The bottom trace in Figure 2a reveals that after 5 cycles of TMGa-H<sub>2</sub>O, a single ozone exposure produced significant absorbance changes. The negative C–H stretching features at 2915 and 2975 cm<sup>-1</sup> and the negative Ga-CH<sub>3</sub> symmetric deformation feature at 1220 cm<sup>-1</sup> demonstrate the removal of CH<sub>3</sub> surface groups by ozone. This finding is consistent with our QCM observation that ozone is an effective oxygen source for Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD with TMGa. Additionally, ozone exposure resulted in positive absorbances at 3686 cm<sup>-1</sup> that correspond to surface hydroxyl groups and at 1586 and 1372 cm<sup>-1</sup> that correspond to formate groups. These formate groups persist even with ozone exposures of many minutes, indicating their relative stability on the surface. Surface formate groups have also been observed following the ozone exposures for Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD using TMA and ozone.

Figure 3 shows difference spectra recorded after successive TMGa and  $O_3$  exposures. The consistent and repeated changes in absorbance associated with the O–H, C–H, formate (F), and CH<sub>3</sub> spectral features signal the exchange of surface functional groups expected for self-limiting surface chemistry. Furthermore, these difference spectra demonstrate that the



**Figure 3.** In situ FTIR difference spectra following consecutive TMGa-O $_3$  exposures at 350  $^{\circ}$ C.

stable formate groups formed during the ozone exposures are successfully removed during the subsequent TMGa exposures.

To verify the net growth of  $Ga_2O_3$  with repeated TMGa- $O_3$  exposures, we utilized a  $SiO_2$  nanopowder substrate that is transparent in the  $800-500~\rm cm^{-1}$  region, where the bulk  $Ga_2O_3$  modes are expected to appear. Figure 4a shows that the FTIR absorbance (referenced to the initial substrate) in the  $800-500~\rm cm^{-1}$  region increased with increasing  $Ga_2O_3$  ALD cycles, and Figure 4b shows that the integrated absorbance of the  $Ga_2O_3$  bulk modes increased linearly with ALD cycles as expected for layer-by-layer growth.

In situ OMS Measurements. OMS studies were conducted to identify the gaseous products of the TMGa and ozone surface reactions at 350 °C. In these experiments, the TMGa and O<sub>3</sub> precursors were each pulsed twice in succession in order to differentiate the QMS signals resulting from products of the ALD surface reactions from background QMS signals at the same mass to charge (m/e) ratio. We first performed a survey of all m/e values between 10 and 50. On the basis of this survey and the known cracking patterns, we determined that  $CH_4$  (m/e = 15) and  $CH_2O$  (formaldehyde, m/e = 29 and 30) were the only significant gaseous products formed during Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD. As shown in Figure 5, CH<sub>4</sub> was the primary product observed during the TMGa exposures, whereas CH2O was the primary product observed during the ozone exposures. The release of CH<sub>4</sub> is consistent with the dissociative adsorption of TMGa onto the Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> surface and is similar to the CH<sub>4</sub> released during the TMA exposures for Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD using TMA and O<sub>3</sub>.<sup>40</sup> Consistent with the QCM and FTIR measurements, CH<sub>4</sub> was only observed during TMGa exposures that followed an ozone exposure, because the other oxygen sources left the surface passivated with CH<sub>3</sub> ligands and prevented the adsorption of TMGa and the associated release of CH4.

The release of CH<sub>2</sub>O during the ozone exposures can be explained by the following surface reaction:

$$\begin{aligned} & Ga - CH_3(s) + 2O_3(g) \\ & \to Ga - OH(s) + CH_2O(g) + 2O_2(g) \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

in which  $O_3$  reacts with  $CH_3$  ligands to form surface hydroxyls and  $CH_2O$ . We postulate that  $O_2$  is formed in eq 2, but it was not possible to verify this hypothesis by QMS given the enormous background signals from  $O_2$  during the  $O_3$  exposures. The  $CH_2O$  shown in eq 2 can desorb and become entrained in the carrier gas flow so that it is sensed by the QMS, or the  $CH_2O$  can readsorb onto the  $Ga_2O_3$  to form a surface formate species. This mechanism is consistent with the FTIR results, in that it results in the formation of both hydroxyls and formates. Furthermore, previous FTIR studies have demonstrated the formation of surface formates via the exposure of metal oxides to  $CH_2O$ .  $^{4O,48,49}$ 

**Growth of ALD Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> Films.** To evaluate the process conditions for saturated, self-limited growth, we deposited  $Ga_2O_3$  films with varied TMGa and ozone exposure times at both 250 and 350 °C, and the film thicknesses were subsequently measured by ellipsometry. The TMGa saturation was assessed by using the timing sequence of x-5-6-5, whereas the ozone saturation was assessed using the timing sequence of 0.5-5-x-5. As shown in Figure 6a, the  $Ga_2O_3$  growth rate saturated with TMGa exposures as small as 0.5 s. However, the growth rate at 250 °C was  $\sim 20\%$  lower than at 350 °C. Figure 6b shows that the  $Ga_2O_3$  growth rate at 350 °C

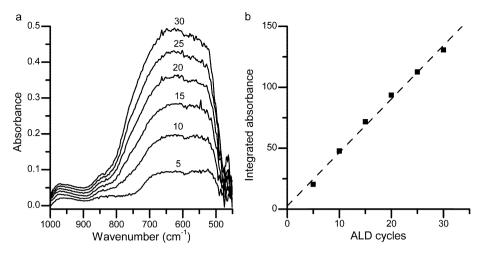
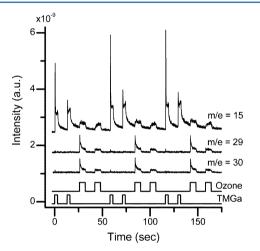


Figure 4. (a) In situ FTIR spectra acquired after 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, and 30 complete TMGa-O<sub>3</sub> ALD cycles at 350 °C referenced to the initial substrate spectrum. (b) Integrated absorbance of spectra in Figure 4a over the range 500–800 cm<sup>-1</sup> versus the number of TMGa-O<sub>3</sub> ALD cycles.



**Figure 5.** In situ QMS measurements during  $Ga_2O_3$  ALD using TMGa and  $O_3$  where the individual precursor exposures are indicated by the lower traces.

saturated at 0.52 Å/cycle using ozone exposure times as short as 3 s, whereas the growth rate at 250 °C required longer ozone exposures of at least 12 s to achieve a saturated growth rate of 0.52 Å/cycle. On the basis of the more rapid ozone saturation achieved at the higher temperature, we believe that the ozone reaction with the TMGa-terminated surface is the rate-limiting step for  $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$  ALD. Moreover, the lower apparent saturation growth rate at 250 °C in Figure 6a is explained by the subsaturating 6 s ozone exposures used for these measurements.

Figure 7 shows the  $Ga_2O_3$  growth rate as a function of deposition temperature using a fixed TMGa- $O_3$  timing sequence of 0.5-5-6-5. The  $Ga_2O_3$  growth rate is nearly constant at 0.52 Å/cycle between 300 and 375 °C. The reduced growth rates observed below 300 °C are attributable to the slower ozone reactions, such that 6 s ozone exposures were insufficient to achieve saturation. However, by utilizing much longer ozone exposures, 24 s at 250 °C and 72 s at 200 °C, it was possible to achieve saturated growth at these reduced temperatures. The reduced growth rates above 375 °C may result from the thermal decomposition of the TMGa or ozone precursors upstream of the sample substrates. For example, the onset of reduced growth rate is consistent with the onset of

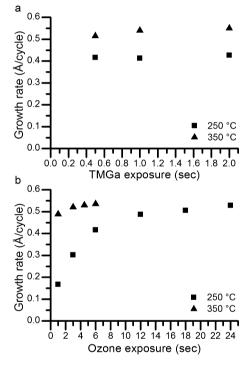
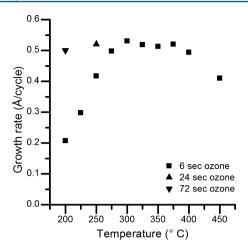


Figure 6.  $Ga_2O_3$  growth rate at 250 and 350 °C as a function of (a) TMGa and (b)  $O_3$  exposures.

TMGa decomposition that has been previously reported. S0-52 Lastly, the  $Ga_2O_3$  growth rate of 0.52 Å/cycle measured by ellipsometry at 350 °C is very similar to the value of 0.53 Å/cycle determined from the QCM measurements. This close agreement lends confidence to both measurements and indicates that the ALD  $Ga_2O_3$  has a similar density as bulk  $\beta$ - $Ga_2O_3$ .

It is interesting to note that the  $Ga_2O_3$  growth rate of 0.52~Å/cycle is significantly less than the typically observed 1.0-1.2~Å/cycle for TMA- $H_2O^{27}$  or 0.8~Å/cycle for TMA- $O_3^{53}$  at similar temperatures. Steric hindrance might explain this difference. TMA adsorbs onto ALD  $Al_2O_3$  by losing  $\sim 50\%$  of its  $CH_3$  ligands. In contrast, our QCM measurements demonstrated that TMGa loses only  $\sim 17\%$  of its  $CH_3$  groups upon adsorption onto  $Ga_2O_3$ . The steric hindrance imposed by the remaining  $CH_3$  ligands may block the chemisorption of



**Figure 7.**  $Ga_2O_3$  growth rate as a function of the deposition temperature for fixed TMGa exposures of 0.5 s and variable ozone exposures.

additional TMGa and result in a lower  $Ga_2O_3$  growth rate compared to the analogous  $Al_2O_3$  ALD process. Alternatively, the lower growth rate may be attributed to the reduced reactivity of TMGa relative to TMA. Previous studies of TMGa adsorption onto metal oxide surfaces demonstrate reduced reactivity toward bridging oxygen sites compared to TMA. As a result, TMA may have more reactive sites available per cycle (both surface hydroxyls and bridging oxygen sites) and a correspondingly higher growth rate. However, it should be noted that these studies of TMGa adsorption were conducted at 20 °C and not the elevated temperatures being used for ALD, so direct comparison is difficult.

It is also instructive to compare the TMGa-O<sub>3</sub> process with previously reported  $Ga_2O_3$  processes utilizing  $Ga(acac)_3$  and  $Ga_2(N(CH_3)_2)_6$ . The  $Ga(acac)_3$  process exhibits a narrow temperature window of 350–375 °C and a growth rate of 0.22 Å/cycle, <sup>19,20</sup> whereas the  $Ga_2(N(CH_3)_2)_6$  process exhibits a temperature window of 150–270 °C and a growth rate of 1 Å/cycle. <sup>21–23</sup> At high temperatures, the TMGa process offers clear advantages over the  $Ga(acac)_3$  process, with a higher growth rate and larger temperature window. A direct comparison with the  $Ga_2(N(CH_3)_2)_6$  process is less clear. Because of their differing temperature windows, these processes can best be considered complementary.

Lastly, the temperature window for  $Ga_2O_3$  ALD is particularly important when considering the deposition of doped or mixed  $Ga_2O_3$  films for applications such as TCOs, phosphors, and GaAs dielectrics. Such deposition requires compatible temperature windows between  $Ga_2O_3$  and dopant ALD processes. For  $Ga_2O_3$ , this window is primarily 300-375 °C for reasonable ozone exposure times ( $\leq 6$  s). However, as demonstrated above, this temperature window can be extended to lower temperatures by using longer ozone exposures.

Properties of ALD Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> Films. To characterize the properties of ALD Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, we deposited films onto Si(100) and fused SiO<sub>2</sub> substrates at 350 °C using a timing sequence of 0.5-5-3-5. The composition of the ALD Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was evaluated by RBS using a 100 Å Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> film deposited onto Si(100). RBS showed that the films were stoichiometric asdeposited and had the expected Ga:O atomic ratio of 2:3 with no carbon within the 4 at% detection limit for RBS. The density of the ALD  $Ga_2O_3$  was determined by RBS to be  $6.31 \times 10^2$ atoms/cm<sup>3</sup>. Using the known thickness of 100 Å from ellipsometry, the Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> film density is 5.5 g/cm<sup>3</sup>, which is slightly lower than the  $\beta$ -Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> bulk density of 5.88 g/cm<sup>3</sup>. As will be demonstrated below, the ALD Ga2O3 films are amorphous as-deposited, and this accounts for the lower density. Because of the limited ability of RBS to detect residual carbon within the film, XPS analysis was also conducted. After sputtering into the Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> film, XPS spectra revealed only Ga and O and no detectable carbon within the film. As a result, we conclude that the films are free of residual carbon from the ALD process.

The film morphology and conformality were characterized by SEM using 800 Å thick  $Ga_2O_3$  films deposited onto micromachined Si substrates with trenches 1.2  $\mu$ m wide and 13  $\mu$ m deep (aspect ratio = 11). As shown in Figure 8, the  $Ga_2O_3$  films are smooth and featureless, and they coat the entire trench structure. The  $Ga_2O_3$  thickness decreases from 800 Å at the top of the trench to 550 Å at the bottom of the trench. The lower apparent growth rate at the bottom of the trench may result from thermal decomposition of the ozone at these relatively high growth temperatures<sup>54</sup> and would likely improve by using larger ozone exposures. For comparison,  $Ga_2O_3$  films deposited concurrently in trenches 5  $\mu$ m wide and 17  $\mu$ m deep (aspect ratio = 1.8) on the same micromachined substrate exhibited perfect conformality.

The phase of the ALD Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was evaluated using XRD of 800 Å thick Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films deposited on fused SiO<sub>2</sub>. As shown in

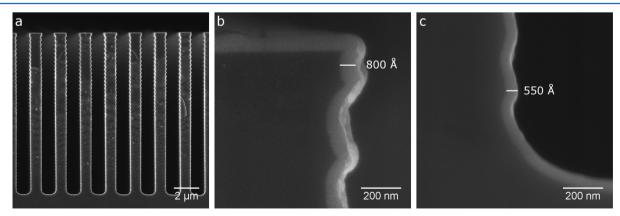
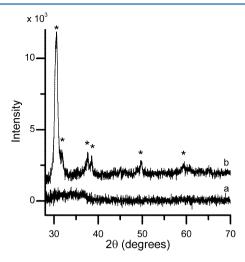


Figure 8. SEM images of 800 Å  $Ga_2O_3$  film deposited onto high-aspect-ratio silicon trenches to assess the conformality of the ALD process: (a) overview of trench structure, (b) top corner of trench with 800 Å  $Ga_2O_3$  thickness, and (c) bottom of trench with 550 Å  $Ga_2O_3$  thickness.

Figure 9, the as-deposited films were amorphous and exhibited no observable diffraction peaks, which is similar to ALD Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>



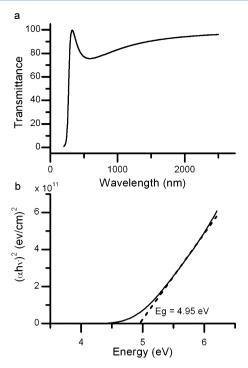
**Figure 9.** X-ray diffraction data from 800 Å  $Ga_2O_3$  film deposited onto fused  $SiO_2$  with TMGa-O<sub>3</sub> at 350 °C. (a) As-deposited, and (b) after annealing at 900 °C under Ar. Diffraction peaks assigned to  $\beta$ -Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> are indicated by the star symbols.

films prepared using  $Ga(acac)_3^{19,20}$  and  $Ga_2(N(CH_3)_2)_6^{21-23}$ . After annealing at 900 °C for 20 min under Ar, the films exhibited diffraction peaks characteristic of  $\beta$ -Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.

The optical properties of the as-deposited Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films were determined using ellipsometry and optical transmittance measurements. Fitting the ellipsometric measurements from the ALD Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films using a Cauchy model provided the refractive index as a function of  $\lambda$ :  $n(\lambda) = 1.844 + 0.01249/\lambda^2 +$  $0.000463/\lambda^4$  with n = 1.88 at 589 nm. These refractive index values are very similar to those reported for  $Ga_2O_3$  films prepared by other methods and to bulk  $Ga_2O_3$ . So  $Ga_2O_3$  films shown in Figure 10, optical transmittance revealed that the Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> thin films are highly transparent between 300 and 2500 nm. The optical bandgap,  $E_{g'}$  of the  $Ga_2O_3$  film was determined using the relationship  $\alpha h \nu = B(h\nu - E_g)^n$ , where  $\alpha$  is the absorption coefficient as a function  $h\nu$ , B is a constant, and n depends on the type of transition.<sup>57</sup> For these films, the best fit is obtained with n = 1/2, which is consistent with a direct bandgap. The  $E_{\rm g}$  is determined by plotting  $(\alpha h \nu)^2$  versus energy and extrapolating the linear portion of the curve to zero. As shown in Figure 10b, this analysis reveals a bandgap of 4.95 eV, which is consistent with previous measurements of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> thin films deposited using other methods and bulk Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. The excellent transmittance and high bandgap of the Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films makes them well-suited to both TCO and phosphor applications.

## CONCLUSIONS

We have demonstrated a new process for the ALD of highquality  $Ga_2O_3$  thin films using TMGa and ozone. In situ QCM, FTIR, and QMS measurements revealed a growth mechanism in which TMGa dissociatively adsorbs onto the  $Ga_2O_3$  surface to form  $Ga(CH_3)_2$  surface species and liberates ~20% of the methyl ligands as  $CH_4$ . Next, the ozone reacts with these methyl species to form hydroxyl and formate surface groups and liberate  $CH_2O$ . In contrast,  $Ga_2O_3$  ALD using TMGa and  $H_2O$  was not possible because the surface became poisoned by surface methyl species after only a few cycles and these methyl



**Figure 10.** Optical transmittance measurements from 800 Å  $Ga_2O_3$  film deposited onto both sides of a fused  $SiO_2$  substrate. (a) Transmittance of  $Ga_2O_3$  referenced to a fused  $SiO_2$  substrate background, and (b) determination of the optical bandgap of 4.95 eV by fitting the optical absorption data.

species could not be removed by  $H_2O$ . Alternating exposures to TMGa and ozone yielded a growth rate of 0.52 Å/cycle for deposition temperatures between 200 and 375 °C. The  $Ga_2O_3$  growth rate decreased at higher temperatures due to precursor thermal decomposition, and larger ozone exposures were required to achieve saturation at temperatures below 300 °C because of the slow ozone kinetics. Analysis of  $Ga_2O_3$  films deposited with the TMGa- $O_3$  process showed that the films are stoichiometric, free of residual carbon, and possess properties similar to bulk  $Ga_2O_3$ . Lastly, the  $Ga_2O_3$  ALD process exhibits a temperature window that is compatible with many complementary ALD processes, which should enable various doped  $Ga_2O_3$  films for applications including TCOs, phosphors, and dielectrics.

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# Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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