Resolving impurities in atomic layer deposited aluminum nitride through low cost, high efficiency precursor design

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Abstract

A heteroleptic amidoalane precursor is presented as a more suitably designed candidate to replace trimethylaluminum (TMA) for atomic layer deposition of aluminum nitride (AIN). The lack of C-Al bonds and the strongly reducing hydride ligands in AIH₂(NMe₂) (**1**) were specifically chosen to limit impurities in target aluminum nitride (AIN) films. Compound **1** is made in a high yield, scalable synthesis involving lithium aluminum hydride and dimethylammonium chloride. It has a vapour pressure of 1 Torr at 40 °C and evaporates with negligible residual mass in thermogravimetric experiments. Ammonia (NH₃) plasma and **1** in an atomic layer deposition (ALD) process produced crystalline AIN films above 200 °C with an AI:N ratio of 1.04. Carbon and oxygen impurities in resultant AIN films were reduced to <1% and <2%, respectively. Compared to the industrial standard trimethylaluminum, this rationally designed precursor can improve film quality and reduce material cost by up to 2 orders of magnitude.

Introduction

Aluminum nitride (AIN) is an important wide bandgap (6.2 eV) semiconductor which has applications as a dielectric layer and in light-emitting diodes.¹ Due to increasingly small and non-trivial device morphologies, atomic layer deposition (ALD) is a valuable and necessary thin film deposition technique to employ for next generation microelectronic devices. ALD is a subset of chemical vapour deposition (CVD), but distinctly only employs surface-limited and self-terminating chemical reactions that allow precise thickness control down to the Ångström level.

Trimethylaluminum (TMA) is a commonly used precursor to deposit aluminum oxide (Al₂O₃) and AlN, but it has the significant drawback of having direct carbon-aluminum bonds. Many processes using TMA report carbon impurities in deposited films on the order of 3-6%,²⁻⁴ which originate from the direct metal-carbon bonds present in this precursor.³ Although TMA is readily available and well-studied, it does not deposit films with acceptably low impurities; this is an aspect of thin film deposition that can be improved through better precursor design

ALD processes in general should aim to employ precursors that are not only volatile and that contain target atoms, but that are designed to promote the most effective surface chemistry to produce low impurity films as efficiently as possible. The introduction and use of compound **1** in this work demonstrates the importance of smart precursor design to optimize ALD processes and results.

This study emphasizes the importance of ligand-metal bonding in a precursor. The inclusion of metal-nitrogen bonds and the elimination of metal-carbon bonds at the precursor design phase is an intuitive way to deposit 13-nitride films with low carbon contamination, rather than making accommodations to reduce impurities during deposition process development. We initially used TMA as a template to design a homoleptic analogue, replacing all methyl grounds with amide ligands; tris(dimethylamido)aluminum(III) was used to deposit Al₂O₃ by ALD with C contamination of less than 1%.⁵ The evolution of this precursor design is presented herein: the desire to incorporate hydride ligands came from a synthetic effort to minimize oxygen incorporation during AlN film

growth while maintaining a straightforward synthetic pathway to precursor production, resulting in the target precursor AlH₂(NMe₂) (**1**). We hypothesized that this precursor could provide reducing surface conditions to allow the growing AlN film to resist oxidation during film growth.

Experimental

Compound **1** was synthesized in an N₂-filled glovebox using an adapted literature procedure from 1960.⁶ Dimethylammonium chloride (Me₂NH₂Cl) was dried under vacuum and ether was dried over 4 Å sieves prior to use. Lithium aluminum hydride (LiAlH₄) (4.20 g, 109 mmol) was added to a 250 mL round-bottomed flask with ~75 mL of ether and stirred with a magnetic stir bar. Me₂NH₂Cl (8.60 g, 105 mmol) was cooled (-35 °C), then added scoop-wise to the LiAlH₄ suspension. The mixture bubbled vigorously upon sequential additions and the resultant solution stirred overnight at room temperature. The solution was filtered through a medium fritted filter and the volume was reduced under vacuum to produce a white solid (6.25 g, 81% unpurified yield).

Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) experiments were performed using a TGA Q500 tool in an N₂ filled glovebox. The sample Pt pan was loaded with ~10 mg of precursor and the furnace was heated at a rate of 10 $^{\circ}$ C/min to 500 $^{\circ}$ C.

Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) experiments were performed on a TA Instruments DSC Q10 tool. A sample of 0.200-0.500 mg of **1** was prepared in a sealed aluminum pan in an N₂-filled glovebox. The sample of **1** and a blank reference pan were heated at a rate of 10 °C/min to 400 °C.

ALD experiments were performed on a hot-wall Picosun R-200 tool with a Litmas remote plasma source. The operating pressure was maintained at 4 mbar under a continuous flow of N_2 (99.999%), which was also used as a purge gas. NH₃ plasma as the co-reagent was pulsed for 12 s at a power of 2800 W. AlN films were deposited on 2.5 cm x 2.5 cm Si coupons.

PANalytical EMPYREAN MRD XRD with a Cu-anode X-ray tube and 5-axis (x-y-z-v-u) sample stage operating at 45 kV and 40 mA was used in grazing-incidence X-ray diffraction

(GIXRD) mode with 0.5° incident angle to analyze film crystallinity. Stress and strain were estimated using GIXRD data for diffraction peaks; values of $\sin^2 \psi$ and ε were obtained using X'Pert Stress software. Kratos AXIS Ultra DLD X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) equipped with an Ar sputtering source (0.5 keV) was used to analyze film composition. CasaXPS was used to analyze XPS data. High-resolution scans were fitted by Gaussian-Laurentius functions and Shirley background. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were collected using a LEO 1550 tool operating at 10 kV in coordination with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) for compositional analysis.

Results and discussion

Compound **1** has been modified from a TMA and subsequent homoleptic amide framework for the sake of logic, simplicity, and low expense, while additionally building in the potential for the existence of a reducing environment during film deposition. It is the intended design that this will affect the surface chemistry during AIN growth, and that the quality of AIN films produced should be a direct reflection of the use of this precursor. The synthesis of **1** employs lithium aluminum hydride (LiAlH₄) and dimethylammonium chloride (Me₂NH₂Cl), two very inexpensive and readily available starting materials. The reaction proceeds with the evolution of hydrogen gas and the precipitation of lithium chloride, both of which act as thermodynamic driving forces for the reaction to go to completion:

 $LiAIH_4 + Me_2NH_2CI \rightarrow AIH_2(NMe_2) + 2 H_2 + LiCI$

This adapted 60-year-old preparation is elegant and straightforward, preceding the invention of ALD itself by almost a decade, and easily produces a precursor that is valuable for this application. Compound **1** is a non-pyrophoric solid that can be synthesized in two hours at a materials cost of \$1.26 per gram, without the need for further purification. The high crude yield and low cost of reactants, as well as the straightforward one-pot, single step synthesis makes compound **1** an accessible and inexpensive ALD precursor. The TGA ramp experiment for **1** (Figure 1) demonstrates that it is a volatile and thermally stable precursor. The volatilization curve shows an exponential mass loss with no visible signs of decomposition and negligible residual mass. Its 1 Torr temperature was calculated to be 40 °C using mass loss derivative data.⁷ Generally, precursors that generate 1 Torr of vapour pressure lower than 100 °C are considered very volatile and easy to use in a variety of ALD processes. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) characterization showed an exotherm at 210 °C that is likely attributed to decomposition of **1**. With a 1 Torr vapour pressure of 40 °C, this gives a thermal range in which to establish an ALD process of 170 °C, allowing **1** flexibility in process development.



Figure 1: TGA ramp of compound **1**, showing a low onset of volatilization and 1.3% residual mass.

Deposition of AIN from **1** was straightforward using an ammonia plasma as the second precursor. The saturation curve for **1** in ALD experiments to produce AIN is presented in Figure 2a. Saturative growth – the defining characteristic of an ALD deposition – was observed after 8 s of exposure of **1** at temperatures of 150 and 200 °C with a growth per cycle (GPC) of approximately 4 Å. This GPC is notably higher than previous AIN ALD reports and lies just outside the lattice parameters for hexagonal AIN,⁸ considering measurement error. Experiments run at 100 °C do not exhibit saturative ALD behaviour, which can be attributed to precursor condensation at the surface.

SEM micrographs (Figure 2c-d) show that ALD-grown AIN films are uniform and dense. Experiments performed at 100 °C (Figure 2a) show droplets present on the surface, which confirms that precursor condenses on the substrate at lower deposition temperatures. Measurements of AIN deposited at 200 °C demonstrated an AI:N ratio of 1.04, indicating near stoichiometric AIN.



Figure 2: a) Saturation curve for **1** in ALD process with NH₃ plasma, and SEM micrographs of AlN films deposited at b) 100 °C, c) 150 °C, d) 200 °C, and e) 250 °C.

Figure 3a shows GIXRD data for AIN films deposited between 100 °C and 250 °C after 500 cycles of deposition. Films deposited at 200 and 250 °C showed the strongest peaks corresponding to crystalline hexagonal AIN; both the (100) and (002) peaks were observed. These peaks were also visible for the samples deposited at 150 °C, but with lower intensity. Crystallinity of these AIN

films was seen to increase both with increased deposition temperature and number of cycles; low temperature depositions (100 °C) do not appear to be crystalline, and crystallinity of AIN films grown was not observed after only 200 deposition cycles, even at higher deposition temperatures. When AIN was deposited on SiC (shown in the left inset of Figure 3a), films were not epitaxial, though their crystallinity improved, and a very strong (103) peak was observed.



Figure 3: a) GIXRD plot of deposited AIN films (left inset for AIN deposited on SiC), b) $\sin^2 \psi$ vs. ϵ plot to calculate film strain, c) XPS survey scan of AIN film deposited at 200 °C and inset high-resolution scans for AI 2p and N 1s.

Film composition was studied by XPS (Figure 3c) after sputtering to clean incidental contamination from the surface and showed very low impurity levels. High-resolution peaks were fitted for Al 2p at 74.7 and 75.5 eV as representing Al–N and Al–O bonds, respectively, while the N 1s spectrum was fitted for N–Al and N–O bonds at 397.9 and 399.4 eV. Importantly, for AlN deposited at 200 °C (Al:N ratio of 1.04), the observed impurity levels of carbon and oxygen were 0.7 and 1.7%, respectively. This indicates that metal-nitrogen and metal-hydride bonds designed into the precursor successfully respectively reduced carbon and oxygen contamination in AlN films. This is especially noteworthy when other processes using TMA and NH₃ plasma have employed plasma pulse lengths of 40 seconds ^{9–12} in order to reduce impurities in AlN films.

Other AIN films deposited from TMA using both ammonia and hydrogen plasmas showed similar impurity levels to films deposited from **1** and ammonia plasma,¹³ which supports the hypothesis that the inclusion of the hydride ligands in the design of **1** would help direct the surface chemistry. The effect of including hydrogen radicals in the plasma to maintain a reducing atmosphere and scavenge impurities at the deposition surface showed the same effect on surface chemistry as using hydride ligands in compound **1**. This is a gratifying result, since it further demonstrates that judicious precursor design can be an effective tool for process design, and that a thoughtfully designed precursor alone can improve material properties. These significant improvements can be made without increasing deposition time or reagents due to the addition of a second plasma pulse.

Finally, the stress and strain of the AIN films were estimated using GIXRD data from an ε – $\sin^2 \psi$ plot using a previously reported method,¹³ shown in Figure 3b. The positive slope of 6090 ppm indicates a tensile strain of 0.61% and tensile stress was calculated as a range between 1.50 and 1.67 GPa;^{8,13} it is expected for tensile strain and stress to exist in these AIN films due to their large lattice mismatch compared to the Si substrate. Upcoming work will focus on mobility and charge carrier measurements for AIN depositions on semi-insulating SiC (SI-SiC), where it is expected that results will be positively influenced due to the high quality, low-impurity films deposited using compound **1**.

Conclusions

This work emphasizes the importance of developing thoughtfully designed alternative precursors to TMA for Al-based ALD. The new ALD precursor $AIH_2(NMe_2)$ (1) produces excellent AIN films in a process with NH_3 plasma with measured carbon impurities significantly lower than many processes reported using TMA due to the Al-N bonds designed into the precursor, as well as reduced oxygen contamination due to the employment of the hydride ligand.

Using a TMA framework is an excellent way to design and synthesize alternative precursors better suited to AIN deposition by ALD. AlH₂(NMe₂) (**1**) is easy to synthesize on a lab scale (tens of grams) in less than two hours at a materials cost of \$1.26 (CAD) per gram without any requirements for further purification. On an "industry" scale (on the order of kilograms), this precursor could be synthesized for \$0.67 per gram based on given catalog prices for starting materials. This is significant in comparison to the cost of TMA, which is available for purchase (25 g in a bubbler) from Sigma Aldrich at a cost of \$2440 (\$62 per gram). Although this comparison strictly highlights the materials cost difference between these two precursors, it emphasizes the fact that employing **1** as an ALD precursor compared to TMA can be significantly more accessible on the basis of upfront materials cost, ease and safety of synthesis and use, as well as the demonstrated high quality of films produced. Compound **1** is a non-pyrophoric solid and could potentially be easier to handle than TMA on an industrial scale. It is especially important to consider the GPC of AIN achieved using **1**, which is three to four times higher than what is achieved using TMA.

A simple shift away from TMA towards **1** has shown that if smart precursor design becomes an integral step of developing new deposition processes, the quality of ALD-grown films and their subsequent applications can be improved. Precursors should be synthesized to be maximally effective and efficient, and using **1** to deposit AIN is a demonstration of how well this can work.

Conflicts of Interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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