Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Thin Solid Films

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/tsf

Effect of substrate-enhanced and inhibited growth on atomic layer deposition and properties of aluminum–titanium oxide films



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ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 3 July 2015 Received in revised form 7 January 2016 Accepted 13 January 2016 Available online 15 January 2016

Keywords: Titanium dioxide Aluminum oxide Solid solutions Atomic layer deposition Structure

ABSTRACT

Atomic layer deposition of aluminum–titanium oxide films from different precursor combinations was investigated. In addition to well-known TiCl₄–H₂O, AlCl₃–H₂O and Al(CH₃)₃–H₂O ALD processes, combination of hydrogen-free TiCl₄–O₃ and AlCl₃–O₃ processes was used. Most of the films were grown at 350 °C because this temperature ensured reliable growth of TiO₂ and Al₂O₃ in all processes combined. The films were deposited using supercycles that contained 1–60 successive cycles for deposition of TiO₂ followed by 1–3 cycles for deposition of Al₂O₃. The films were amorphous, when 15 or less TiO₂ cycles per Al₂O₃ cycle were applied in a supercycle, and contained anatase when \geq 30 TiO₂ cycles were applied. A marked increase in the Al deposition per cycle was observed with the increase of the number of TiO₂ cycles per supercycle from 0 to 5–10. With the further increase of the number of TiO to TiO to TiO to the precursor combination used. The Ti deposition per cycle depended, in turn, on the precursor system used for deposition of Al₂O₃ layers. Deposition of Ti was most significantly hindered on Al₂O₃-rich surface deposited from AlCl₃–O₃ and markedly enhanced on Al₂O₃ deposited from Al(CH₃)₃–H₂O. In addition, the phase composition markedly influenced the growth rate of both components as well as the mean growth rate and surface roughness of the films.

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1. Introduction

Atomic layer deposition (ALD) is a thin-film preparation technique based on successive self-limited surface reactions allowing deposition of uniform thin films even on substrates with very complex surface profiles [1–5]. Potentially, the method could ensure also a very precise and simple thickness control arising from the dependence of the film thickness on the number of ALD cycles, which contain certain successions of precursor pulses. The dependence of surface reactions on the material and structure of surfaces frequently causes, however, enhancement or inhibition of deposition in the initial stages of ALD [6–8] and leads to marked uncertainty in thickness control, especially in the case of very thin films.

For doping of thin films or deposition of solid solutions in ALD processes, layers of different materials are usually deposited on each other in order to obtain required overall composition of a thin film [4, 5,9–12]. It is obvious that in this approach, the character of a material growth on another material may significantly influence the mean composition of the film. It has been demonstrated, for instance, that in ALD of Al-doped TiO₂ (ATO) films from titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP), trimethylaluminum (TMA) and O₃ at 250 °C, the deposition of Al is enhanced and Ti is inhibited compared with the deposition of these elements in ALD of undoped oxides [9]. As a result, the growth of ATO films is slower than the growth of undoped TiO₂ [9] while the Al concentration in the films exceeds the value, which could be expected by taking into account the ratio of ALD cycles and the growth rates of undoped TiO₂ and Al₂O₃ in corresponding ALD processes. A similar effect has been observed in deposition of ATO films from titanium tetraethoxide, TMA and H₂O [10]. In a very recent study on ALD of ATO [12], we observed even more complex dependence of the Al amount deposited in an AlCl₃–O₃ ALD cycle on the amount of TiO₂ deposited before applying this cycle. First the Al amount increased with increasing number of TiCl₄–O₃ ALD cycles applied before the AlCl₃–O₃ cycles but then started to decrease when the number of TiCl₄–O₃ cycles exceeded 15. These results demonstrate that processes influencing the composition of solid solutions deposited in ALD processes might be complex and could significantly depend on the precursor combinations used.

The goal of the present paper is to characterize the background of these effects in more detail and, in particular, investigate the influence of precursor combination on the composition of ATO films. The study was stimulated by the results, which had revealed very promising performance of ATO as a high-permittivity dielectric in capacitor structures [4,11,13] suitable for dynamic random access memories. Moreover, different combinations of TiO₂, Al₂O₃ and ATO thin and ultrathin films have several other potential applications ranging from resistive-switching random access memories [14] to optical [15,16] and anticorrosion coatings [17–19]. In addition to well-known TiCl₄–H₂O, AlCl₃–H₂O and TMA-H₂O ALD processes, we characterize combination of hydrogenfree TiCl₄–O₃ and AlCl₃–O₃ processes [6,12,20,21], which could have







advantages in applications that require low concentration of residual hydrogen in the films [21–23].

2. Experimental

The films studied in this work were grown in a low-pressure flowtype ALD reactor (Fig. 1) using TiCl₄ together with AlCl₃ or TMA as the metal precursors, H_2O or O_3 as the oxygen precursor and N_2 (99.999%) as the carrier and purge gas. In all cases, an ALD cycle was started with a metal precursor pulse and continued with a purge of the reaction zone with pure carrier gas, oxygen precursor pulse and another purge. In order to obtain sufficient precursor pressures, the AlCl₃ source temperature was set at 100 °C while TiCl₄, TMA and H₂O sources were kept at room temperature (22 \pm 3 °C). O₃ was generated from O₂ (99.999%) in a BMT Messtechnik 802N ozone generator. Ozone concentration measured with BMT Messtechnik 964 analyzer at the reactor inlet was 200–230 g/m³ at the normal pressure. Optimum process time parameters were determined from data of guartz crystal microbalance (QCM) measurements. The precursor pulse durations were chosen to be 0.5 s for TiCl₄ and 2 s for H₂O in the TiCl₄-H₂O process, 2 s for TiCl₄ and 5 s for O₃ in the TiCl₄-O₃ process, 5 s for AlCl₃ and 2 s for H₂O in the AlCl₃-H₂O process, 3 s for TMA and 2 s for H₂O in the TMA-H₂O process, and 10 s for AlCl₃ and 5 s for O₃ in the AlCl₃–O₃ process. The purge durations were set at 2 s after each metal precursor pulse and 5 s after the oxygen precursor pulse. In all cases studied, these process time parameters allowed reliable self-limited ALD-type growth of thin films.

The substrate temperature at which the films were grown, T_G , ranged from 150 to 450 °C. Most of the experiments were performed, however, with films grown at 350 °C. As demonstrated in earlier studies, this temperature ensured ALD of high-quality TiO₂ and Al₂O₃ in all processes combined in this work [2,12,20]. In order to obtain doped films and solid solutions, the films were grown using supercycles that contained 1–60 successive cycles for deposition of TiO₂ followed by 1–3 successive cycles for deposition of Al₂O₃. Dependently on the number of cycles in a supercycle, the number of supercycles was varied from 8 to 750. The total number of cycles applied for deposition of films ranged from 450 to 1550.

The mass thickness and elemental composition of the films were measured by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) spectroscopy method using ZSX400 (Rigaku) spectrometer. From the quantitative amounts of elements determined by XRF, the number of supercycles used for deposition of each film and the number of ALD cycles applied for deposition of each component oxide, the mean amounts of Ti and Al deposited per supercycle and cycle were calculated. For calibration of the measurement procedure, we used binary TiO₂ and Al₂O₃ films with known thicknesses and densities determined by the X-ray reflection (XRR) method. It is worth mentioning that differently from the QCM measurements that could also be used for characterization of mass changes during the ALD processes [24–29], the XRF data allowed determination of the mass of each element deposited during the film growth. Moreover, at the thicknesses of films studied in this work, the accuracy of the XRF measurements was markedly higher than that of typical QCM studies, especially at deposition temperatures exceeding 200–250 °C. Finally, the XRF method is free of artifacts, which are related to uncertainty in determination of surface exchange reactions [28] or etching of the existing film with a precursor supplied [29] and therefore markedly reduce the reliability of the QCM studies.

Grazing incidence X-ray diffraction (XRD) and Raman spectroscopy methods were applied for structure studies while the thickness and surface roughness were determined from XRR patterns. All XRD and XRR studies were carried out on Smartlab (Rigaku) X-ray analyzer using CuK α radiation. For Raman spectroscopy studies, Renishaw in Via spectrometer was employed. In addition, refractive indices for a series of films with different compositions were determined using GES5E (Sopra-Semilab) spectroscopic ellipsometer.

3. Results and discussion

In order to characterize the growth of component oxides, the surface mass density of elemental Ti and Al deposited in a supercycle and in a cycle were determined using the corresponding amounts of Ti and Al measured by XRF in the films. Figs. 2 and 3 demonstrate that the number of TiO₂ cycles applied in a supercycle significantly influenced the mean amount of Al as well as Ti deposited in a single ALD cycle. The deposition rate of Al as well as the mean deposition rate of Ti was higher on TiO₂ than on Al₂O₃ deposited in AlCl₃-based processes (Figs. 2 and 3). The results also show that there was no typical nucleation delay in the deposition of TiO₂ after the Al₂O₃ cycle because already in the first TiO₂ cycle, significant deposition rate of Ti was obtained (Fig. 3). During the first 10–15 cycles, however, the deposition of Ti was relatively slow and increased markedly only after applying more than 15 cycles. This kind of effect has been reported for other ALD processes too [8,24,25] and attributed to the transition from amorphous to crystalline growth. Similar explanation can be proposed for the results shown in Figs. 2 and 3. Indeed, the films were amorphous, when the number of TiO₂ cycles applied in a supercycle did not exceed 15 and started to crystallize when \geq 30 TiO₂ cycles were applied (Fig. 4). An interesting result was that in the initial stage of deposition, the growth rate was lower in the TiCl₄– O_3 process than in the TiCl₄– H_2O process (Fig. 3) but after applying 30 cycles the deposition rate of Ti in the TiCl₄–O₃ process became comparable to that obtained in the $TiCl_4-H_2O$ process (Figs. 2 and 3). Thus, crystallization more significantly influenced the growth of TiO₂ from TiCl₄ and O₃.

The behavior of the TiO_2 deposition from $TiCl_4$ and H_2O after applying of a TMA- H_2O cycle (Fig. 3) was even more interesting. Unexpectedly high Ti deposition per cycle was obtained in the first TiO_2 cycle.

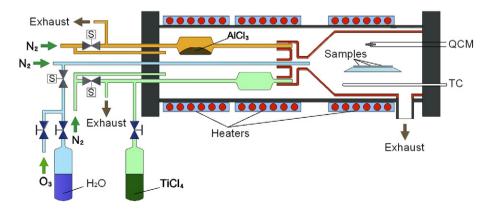


Fig. 1. Schematic layout of ALD reactor set up for deposition of ATO films in TiCl₄–O₃–AlCl₃–O₃ and TiCl₄–H₂O–AlCl₃–H₂O processes. For measurement and control of substrate temperatures and for real-time studies of deposition processes thermocouple (TC) and quartz crystal microbalance (QCM), respectively, were applied.

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