



Title	Formation of high-quality $\text{SiO}_2/\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3(001)$ MOS structures: The role of post-deposition annealing
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## Formation of high-quality SiO<sub>2</sub>/β-Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>(001) MOS structures: the role of post-deposition annealing

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We investigated the effect of post-deposition annealing on the electrical characteristics of SiO<sub>2</sub>/β-Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>(001) MOS structures. While oxygen annealing effectively improves the interface properties, it induces acceptor defects in Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, leading to a decrease in net donor density. With the combination of oxygen and nitrogen annealing, carrier compensation was suppressed, and a low interface state density of about  $1 \times 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ eV}^{-1}$  was obtained near the conduction band edge of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. High immunity against positive gate bias stress was also confirmed.

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Gallium oxide ( $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ ) is an ultra-wide bandgap semiconductor that shows promise for next-generation power electronics and solar-blind deep ultraviolet photodetectors<sup>1)–5)</sup>. Among the confirmed polytypes ( $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\epsilon$ ), the monoclinic  $\beta$ - $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$  is the most stable, with a large bandgap energy of 4.9 eV. The major advantage of  $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$  over other wide bandgap semiconductors is the availability of the melt growth process, which can produce large, uniform substrates at a lower cost compared with vapor growth techniques.  $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$  metal-oxide-semiconductor field-effect transistors (MOSFETs) are attractive for power switching applications. Typically,  $n$ -channel power MOSFETs (e.g., DMOSFETs<sup>6)</sup>) have a  $p$ -type body layer, whose surface is inverted to  $n$ -type by the application of a gate voltage in the on-state of the devices. In the off-state, the depletion layer vertically extends from the  $p$ - $n$  junction to a thick  $n$ -type drift layer to withstand high voltage. However, obtaining  $p$ -type conductivity in  $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$  is challenging due to the presence of self-trapping holes (hole polarons)<sup>7)–9)</sup>, the high effective mass of holes<sup>10),11)</sup>, and a high abundance of Ga interstitials under  $p$ -type conditions<sup>12)–14)</sup>. Despite the lack of  $p$ -type doping, various power devices, including depletion-mode<sup>15),16)</sup> and enhancement-mode MOSFETs<sup>17),18)</sup>, MOS junction FETs<sup>19)</sup>, and superjunction-equivalent MOSFETs<sup>20)</sup>, have been demonstrated for  $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ . The choice of dielectrics is particularly important for achieving high performance, stability, and reliability of MOS devices. Aluminum oxide ( $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ) is the best-studied dielectric for  $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ <sup>21)–26)</sup>, but it suffers from small band offsets (1.5–1.6 eV for the conduction band and 0.7 eV for the valence band<sup>27)</sup>) and Ga diffusion into the dielectric during thermal annealing<sup>22)</sup>. Given the wide bandgap of  $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ , silicon dioxide ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ) would be a better dielectric to ensure sufficiently large band offsets<sup>28)</sup>.  $\text{SiO}_2$  also has advantages in terms of its high thermal stability. In addition to the deposition process of dielectrics, a key factor in optimizing MOS structures is post-deposition annealing (PDA). Although there are few reports on the improvement of  $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$  MOS structures by PDA<sup>29),30)</sup>, the practical role of PDA has not been well studied. To establish a method for obtaining a high-quality interface between  $\text{SiO}_2$  and  $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ , the role of PDA should be further investigated.

In the present study, we extensively studied the effect of oxygen ( $\text{O}_2$ ) and nitrogen ( $\text{N}_2$ ) PDA on the electrical characteristics of  $\text{SiO}_2/\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3(001)$  MOS structures. We investigated the dependence on annealing temperature and examined the effectiveness of a two-step annealing treatment (i.e.,  $\text{O}_2$  annealing followed by  $\text{N}_2$  annealing) on the device characteristics. In particular, we focused on the impact of PDA on the interface properties, bulk carrier density, and reliability of the MOS structures. We aim to develop a strategy for forming a high-quality  $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$  MOS structure.

Figure 1 illustrates the fabrication process flow of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS capacitors.  $\beta$ -Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>(001) epilayers with a donor density of approximately  $1 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  were used in this study. After wet cleaning the samples with methanol, acetone, and piranha solution, SiO<sub>2</sub> films were deposited using plasma-enhanced chemical vapor deposition (PECVD). Under a radiofrequency (RF) power of 30 W and pressure of 79 Pa, a gas mixture of tetraethyl orthosilicate (TEOS) and O<sub>2</sub> was introduced into the PECVD chamber, and SiO<sub>2</sub> was deposited at a substrate temperature of 400°C. The samples were then subjected to O<sub>2</sub> or N<sub>2</sub> annealing at 600–1000°C for 30 min, or a combination of these annealing conditions. Finally, nickel (Ni) gate electrodes and aluminum (Al) back contacts were formed by vacuum evaporation to fabricate the MOS structures. Table I summarizes the names and capacitance equivalent SiO<sub>2</sub> thickness of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS structures prepared in this study. In addition, a reference Schottky barrier diode without a SiO<sub>2</sub> film was also prepared to investigate the bulk properties of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. All electrical measurements were conducted at room temperature.

Figure 2 shows the bidirectional capacitance-voltage ( $C$ - $V$ ) characteristics of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS capacitors measured at a probe frequency of 1 MHz: (a) samples with and without O<sub>2</sub> annealing and (b) those with N<sub>2</sub> annealing or combined O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> annealing. As shown in Fig. 2(a), the as-deposited sample exhibited a large  $C$ - $V$  hysteresis due to a high number of interface traps. While O<sub>2</sub> annealing at 600°C resulted in an even degraded characteristic indicating trap formation at the interface, the situation was improved after annealing at 1000°C. Although high-temperature O<sub>2</sub> annealing was effective in reducing the traps, a relatively large hysteresis remained even after annealing at 1000°C. With additional N<sub>2</sub> annealing, the situation improved significantly (Fig. 2(b)). In particular, after O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> annealing at 1000°C, a steep  $C$ - $V$  characteristic with minimal hysteresis was obtained. On the contrary, the sample with N<sub>2</sub> annealing at 1000°C alone resulted in a limited improvement. These results suggest that the combination of O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> annealing is effective in reducing interface traps in SiO<sub>2</sub>/Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS structures. A slight negative shift in the  $C$ - $V$  characteristic was confirmed, which is likely due to the presence of positive fixed charges at the interface. Since the maximum capacitance varies among the samples without a clear trend with respect to the PDA conditions, the variation is mainly attributed to the differences in the deposited SiO<sub>2</sub> thickness (Table I). In addition to the maximum capacitance, we found that the minimum capacitance also depends on the sample conditions (Figs. 2(a) and (b)). This indicates that PDA affects the donor concentration in bulk Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.

We then evaluated the net donor density from the  $1/C^2$ - $V$  characteristics of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS capacitors in the deep-depletion range. The donor density as a function of depth from the

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1 SiO<sub>2</sub>/Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> interface is shown in Fig. 3. Initially, the as-deposited sample showed a doping  
2 profile identical to that of a Schottky diode formed directly on the epilayer surface (as-epi.).  
3 This indicates that SiO<sub>2</sub> formation by PECVD has a limited impact on donor density. This is  
4 likely due to the low-temperature deposition, which should be favorable in suppressing  
5 unwanted defect formation in bulk Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> due to the thermal budget. The slight increase in  
6 density observed in deeper Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> is likely due to imperfect doping control during the epitaxy  
7 process. After O<sub>2</sub> annealing at 1000°C, an order-of-magnitude decrease in donor density was  
8 observed. Since oxygen interstitials act as deep acceptors in Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>12)–14)</sup>, this suggests that  
9 oxygen diffuses into the Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> during O<sub>2</sub> annealing, leading to a reduction in donor density  
10 via the carrier compensation effect. The formation of oxygen interstitials is preferred in  
11 Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> because they have quite low formation energies especially under oxygen-rich and *n*-  
12 type conditions<sup>12)–14)</sup>. However, the diffusion barrier of oxygen atoms in the [100] direction  
13 in β-Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> has been experimentally determined to be as high as (3.2 ± 0.4) eV<sup>31)</sup>. Thus, a  
14 crystal orientation dependent or a defect mediated diffusion process is responsible for  
15 explaining the oxygen diffusion on the μm scale. Another possibility is the formation of  
16 gallium vacancies during O<sub>2</sub> annealing, which also act as deep acceptors in Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>12)–14)</sup>. The  
17 formation of gallium vacancies is favored under an oxygen-rich condition because it  
18 corresponds to a gallium-poor condition<sup>12)–14)</sup>. In fact, their formation during O<sub>2</sub> annealing  
19 is experimentally discussed as the cause of the resistivity increase observed in β-Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>32)</sup>.  
20 Although further studies are needed to clarify the origin of the deep acceptors, a clear  
21 recovery of donor density towards its initial values was observed with additional N<sub>2</sub>  
22 annealing (Fig. 3). With N<sub>2</sub> annealing at 1000°C after O<sub>2</sub> annealing, the doping profile of the  
23 as-deposited sample was reproduced. Note that the differences in the profiles of as-epi., as-  
24 depo., N<sub>2</sub>-1000°C, and O<sub>2</sub>-1000°C→N<sub>2</sub>-1000°C samples are small and well within the  
25 experimental variation. In bulk Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, it has also been reported that O<sub>2</sub> annealing reduces  
26 donor density, while N<sub>2</sub> annealing is effective in suppressing carrier compensation<sup>33)</sup>. Thus,  
27 additional N<sub>2</sub> annealing appears to reduce the deep acceptors in Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Overall, the  
28 combination of O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> annealing not only improves interface properties (Fig. 2(b)) but  
29 also suppresses unwanted carrier compensation caused by acceptor-type defects (Fig. 3).

30 To further assess the interface properties, we evaluated the interface state density (*D*<sub>it</sub>)  
31 using the high (1 MHz)-low method. Note that the *D*<sub>it</sub> distribution is evaluated by taking into  
32 account the SiO<sub>2</sub> thickness of each sample and the results are not affected by the variation in  
33 the thickness. Figure 4 shows the energy distribution of *D*<sub>it</sub> for Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS capacitors. To  
34 determine the trap energy level (*E*<sub>c</sub> − *E*), the donor density value is needed. Since the donor

1 density varies with depth for the samples in this study (Fig. 3), we assumed the donor density  
2 at depth of approximately 0.5  $\mu\text{m}$  from the interface for each sample. As shown in Fig. 4, the  
3 as-deposited sample exhibited a relatively high  $D_{it}$  of about  $7 \times 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ eV}^{-1}$  at  $E_c - E = 0.2$   
4 eV. However,  $D_{it}$  was reduced to about  $(3-4) \times 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ eV}^{-1}$  after either  $\text{O}_2$  or  $\text{N}_2$  annealing  
5 at  $1000^\circ\text{C}$ . The combination of  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2$  annealing resulted in further improvement of  $D_{it}$   
6 ( $\sim 1 \times 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ eV}^{-1}$ ). This result aligns well with the  $C-V$  measurements (Fig. 2), indicating  
7 the effectiveness of combined  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2$  annealing in improving interface properties.

8 Finally, we investigated the reliability of the MOS structures in response to charge  
9 injection into the  $\text{SiO}_2$  film. Specifically, a constant gate voltage stress corresponding to an  
10 oxide field of  $+4 \text{ MVcm}^{-1}$  was applied to the MOS structures for up to 2000 s, and  $C-V$   
11 characteristics were repeatedly measured to monitor any changes. Here, the stress field was  
12 determined for each sample from the over drive voltage, i.e.,  $(V_G - V_{FB})/t_{\text{OX}}$ , where  $V_G$ ,  $V_{FB}$ ,  
13 and  $t_{\text{OX}}$  are the gate voltage, the flatband voltage, and the  $\text{SiO}_2$  thickness, respectively. Figure  
14 5(a) shows the measurement results for typical samples. While the as-deposited sample  
15 exhibited significant drift in the characteristics under stress, the sample with combined  $\text{O}_2$   
16 and  $\text{N}_2$  annealing showed substantially less drift. The flatband voltage drift ( $\Delta V_{FB}$ ) as a  
17 function of stress time was quantified for the fabricated samples, as summarized in Fig. 5(b).  
18 The as-deposited sample exhibited a large  $\Delta V_{FB}$  of about 8 V after 2000 s of stress.  $\text{O}_2$   
19 annealing at  $600^\circ\text{C}$  resulted in an even larger drift ( $\sim 11 \text{ V}$ ), indicating that low-temperature  
20 oxidation induces near-interface traps. When the annealing temperature was increased to  
21  $1000^\circ\text{C}$ , a much smaller drift ( $\sim 3 \text{ V}$ ) was observed, likely due to trap passivation. The sample  
22 with combined  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2$  annealing exhibited a drift of less than 2 V. Thus, the combination  
23 of  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2$  annealing effectively improves reliability. Since the reliability is also improved  
24 by  $\text{N}_2$  annealing alone, thermal effects are likely responsible for the improved reliability.

25 In conclusion, we investigated the impact of PDA on the electrical characteristics of  
26  $\text{SiO}_2/\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3(001)$  MOS structures. While  $\text{O}_2$  annealing was effective in improving the  $C$ -  
27  $V$  characteristics to some extent, we found that it leads to a decrease in net donor density in  
28  $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ , indicating the formation of deep acceptor defects, likely due to oxygen interstitials  
29 or gallium vacancies. However, by performing  $\text{N}_2$  annealing in addition to  $\text{O}_2$  annealing, the  
30 donor density recovered to its initial values observed after the epitaxial growth of  $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ .  
31 The combination of  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2$  annealing resulted in a very low  $D_{it}$  of approximately  $1 \times 10^{11}$   
32  $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{ eV}^{-1}$  near the conduction band edge ( $E_c - E = 0.2 \text{ eV}$ ) of  $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ , while a slight negative  
33 shift in the  $C-V$  characteristics due to positive fixed charges was observed after the  
34 improvement. On the contrary,  $\text{O}_2$  or  $\text{N}_2$  annealing alone resulted in limited improvement in

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1 the  $D_{it}$  (about  $(3-4) \times 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ eV}^{-1}$ ). Gate bias stress measurements also confirmed high  
 2 immunity against positive gate bias for the sample with combined  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2$  annealing.  
 3 Since high immunity was also achieved by  $\text{N}_2$  annealing alone, the improved reliability is  
 4 mostly due to thermal effects. After all, the two-step annealing treatment is effective in  
 5 reducing the  $D_{it}$  values and improving the reliability of  $\text{SiO}_2/\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3(001)$  MOS structures.

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$\beta$ -Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> epilayers used in this study were provided by Novel Crystal Technology, Inc.

### **AUTHOR DECLARATIONS**

#### **Conflict of Interest**

The authors have no conflicts to disclose.

### **DATA AVAILABILITY**

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.



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## Figures

Table I. Names and SiO<sub>2</sub> thickness of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS structures prepared in this study. The SiO<sub>2</sub> thickness was evaluated from the maximum capacitance of MOS capacitors.

Fig. 1. Fabrication process flow of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS capacitors.

Fig. 2. Bidirectional  $C$ - $V$  characteristics of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS capacitors measured at a frequency of 1 MHz: (a) samples with and without O<sub>2</sub> annealing, and (b) those with N<sub>2</sub> annealing or combined O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> annealing.

Fig. 3. Net donor density in Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> evaluated from the  $1/C^2$ - $V$  characteristics of Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS capacitors in the deep-depletion range as a function of depth from the SiO<sub>2</sub>/Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> interface. The result for the Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> Schottky diode formed on the epilayer is also shown (as-epi).

Fig. 4. Energy distribution of  $D_{it}$  for SiO<sub>2</sub>/Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS capacitors evaluated using the high (1 MHz)-low method.

Fig. 5. (a) Change in the  $C$ - $V$  characteristics of SiO<sub>2</sub>/Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS capacitors under positive gate bias stress ( $E_{ox} = +4 \text{ MVcm}^{-1}$ ). The stress was applied for up to 2000 s. (b) Flatband voltage drift ( $\Delta V_{FB}$ ) as a function of stress time for SiO<sub>2</sub>/Ga<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS capacitors.

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Table I

Sample Name	SiO <sub>2</sub> Thickness [nm]
as-depo.	35.0
O <sub>2</sub> -600°C	37.1
O <sub>2</sub> -1000°C	37.6
O <sub>2</sub> -1000°C→N <sub>2</sub> -600°C	32.5
O <sub>2</sub> -1000°C→N <sub>2</sub> -800°C	37.1
O <sub>2</sub> -1000°C→N <sub>2</sub> -1000°C	41.5
N <sub>2</sub> -1000°C	37.0

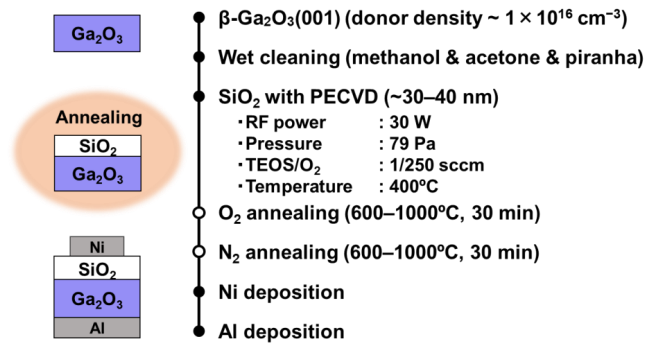


Fig. 1

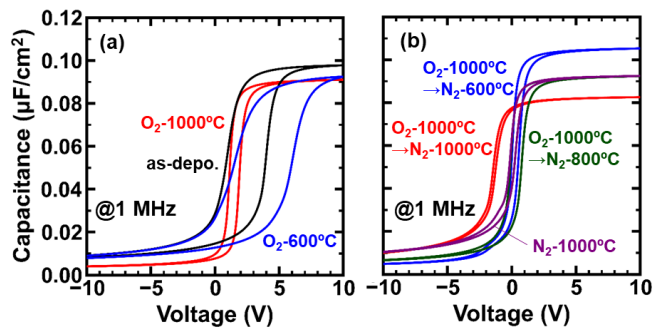


Fig. 2

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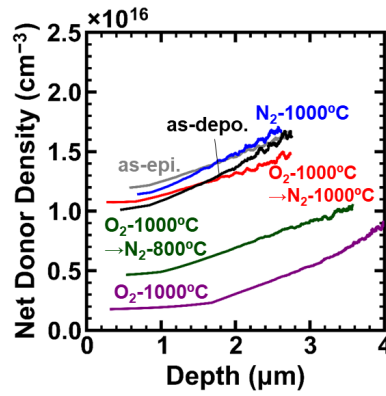


Fig. 3

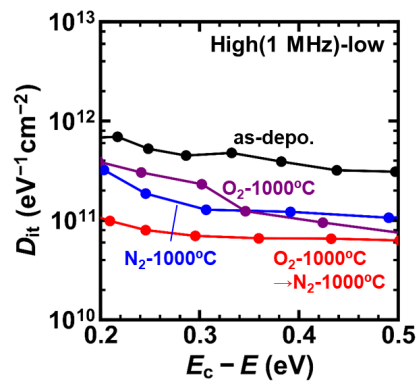


Fig. 4

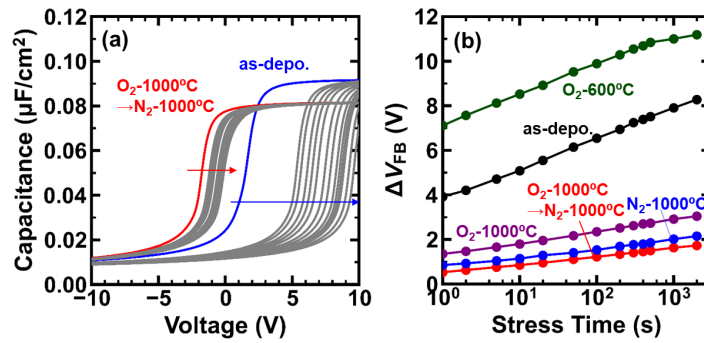


Fig. 5