

**Electrical properties of Si-doped GaN prepared using pulsed sputtering**

2 Yasuaki Arakawa<sup>1</sup>, Kohei Ueno<sup>1</sup>, Hideyuki Imabeppu<sup>1</sup>, Atsushi Kobayashi<sup>1</sup>, Jitsuo Ohta<sup>1,2</sup>,  
3 and Hiroshi Fujioka<sup>1,3</sup>

4 <sup>1</sup>*Institute of Industrial Science, The University of Tokyo, 4-6-1 Komaba, Meguro, Tokyo,*  
5 *153-8505, Japan*

6 <sup>2</sup>*PRESTO, Japan Science and Technology Agency (JST), 4-1-8 Honcho, Kawaguchi, Saitama*  
7 *332-0012, Japan*

8 <sup>3</sup>*ACCEL, Japan Science and Technology Agency (JST), 5 Sanbancho, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo*  
9 *102-0075, Japan*

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11 In this study, we investigated the basic electrical properties of Si-doped wurtzite  
12 GaN films prepared using a low-temperature pulsed sputtering deposition (PSD) process. We  
13 found that the electron concentration can be controlled in the range between  $1.5 \times 10^{16}$  and  
14  $2.0 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . For lightly Si-doped GaN ( $[\text{Si}] = 2.1 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ), the room temperature  
15 (RT) electron mobility was as high as  $1008 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ , which was dominantly limited by  
16 polar optical phonon scattering. Moreover, we found that heavily Si-doped GaN prepared  
17 using PSD exhibited an RT mobility as high as  $110 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$  at an electron concentration of  
18  $2 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , which indicated that the resistivity of this film was almost as small as those of  
19 typical transparent conductive oxides such as indium tin oxide. At lower temperatures, the  
20 electron mobility increased to  $1920 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$  at 136 K, and the temperature dependence was  
21 well explained by conventional scattering models. These results indicate that Si-doped GaN

prepared using PSD is promising not only for the fabrication of GaN-based power devices but

2 also for use as epitaxial transparent electrode materials for nitride based optical devices..

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GaN has excellent material characteristics for use in power devices, including a high breakdown voltage, high saturation velocity, and high thermal stability. Recent advances in bulk GaN growth technology have facilitated the development of vertical power devices such as Schottky barrier diodes [1,2], p-n junction diodes [3,4], and trench metal-oxide-semiconductor field-effect transistors [5]. One of the key methods used to fabricate these devices is a light n-type doping of GaN with a low residual impurity concentration of the order of  $10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  or less. Despite intensive research efforts, the performance of GaN-based power devices has remained insufficient because of an immature epitaxial growth process. The most common method, metal organic chemical vapor deposition (MOCVD), inherently results in GaN that is contaminated by carbon, oxygen, and silicon atoms originating from the metal-organic precursors, susceptor, and reactor walls. The extent of contamination complexly depends on the growth conditions, including the growth temperature, III/V ratio, gas flow rate, and reactor pressure [6]. In particular, several studies on MOCVD have reported an undesirable increase in carbon concentration in GaN with increasing TMGa flow rate [7] or growth rate [8]. By contrast, a new growth technique called pulsed sputtering deposition (PSD) has recently attracted much attention. Recent progress in PSD has enabled the growth of device-quality group-III nitrides at much lower temperatures than those used in a conventional MOCVD process [9-12]. PSD is also a suitable method for growing high-purity GaN because its growth system does not contain carbon or hydrogen atoms in the

source material. In fact, we demonstrated the growth of high-purity p-type GaN with a high

2 room temperature (RT) hole mobility of  $34 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ . This is attributed to a reduction in the

3 amounts of residual impurities such as oxygen, hydrogen, and carbon, which should also be

4 useful for the growth of n-type GaN [13].

5 In this study, we investigated how the electrical properties of GaN prepared by PSD

6 depend on the Si doping concentrations using temperature-dependent Hall-effect

7 measurements.

8 Growth of 1- $\mu\text{m}$ -thick Si-doped GaN films was performed by PSD with pulsed

9 magnetron sputtering sources in an  $\text{N}_2/\text{Ar}$  atmosphere. The Si doping concentration in GaN

10 was controlled from  $2 \times 10^{16}$  to  $2 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  by varying Si vapor flux from a solid state

11 single crystalline Si source. Heavily Si-doped samples ( $[\text{Si}] > 1 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) were grown on

12 Fe-doped GaN on sapphire prepared by MOCVD with a latter-half threading dislocation

13 density of  $10^8 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ . Lightly Si-doped samples ( $[\text{Si}] < 1 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) were grown on

14 Fe-doped bulk GaN substrates prepared by hydride vapor phase epitaxy with threading

15 dislocation densities on the order of  $10^6 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ . The concentration of Si dopants in GaN was

16 evaluated by secondary ion mass spectroscopy (SIMS). Details of the growth method have

17 been reported elsewhere [9-14]. To fabricate van der Pauw structures, we processed all of the

18 samples into cloverleaf patterns by photolithography and inductively coupled

19 plasma-reactive-ion etching. Ohmic contacts were then formed with Ti/Al/Ti/Au

(20/60/20/50 nm) as electrodes. Temperature-dependent Hall-effect measurements were

2 performed using a ResiTest 8400 (Toyo Corp.) with a liquid-N<sub>2</sub>-cooled temperature-variable

3 sample holder. The analytical protocol was based on American Society for Testing and

4 Materials standard F76 [15]; the Hall scattering factor was unity.

5 Figure 1 shows the RT electron mobilities  $\mu_e$  of Si-doped PSD GaN as a function of

6 the electron concentration  $N_e$ . The RT electron concentration was controlled in the

7 concentration range between  $1.5 \times 10^{16}$  and  $2.0 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  by Si doping. As the Si doping

8 concentration decreased, the RT electron mobility reached  $1008 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$  at an electron

9 concentration of  $1.5 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . On the other hands, the most heavily doped sample with a

10 Si concentration of  $2 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  exhibited an electron mobility as high as  $110 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ .

11 These results indicate that the resistivity of this film was almost as small as those for typical

12 transparent conductive oxides such as indium tin oxide (ITO). It can be noted that the

13 mobility of  $110 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$  is much higher than that for ITO, which should lead to smaller

14 free-carrier light absorption. These data indicate that the pulse-sputtered Si-doped GaN is a

15 potential transparent electrode material for nitride based optical devices. We also note that the

16 fabrication of such a highly conductive Si-doped GaN material by MOCVD has not been

17 previously reported.

An S-shaped increase in the electron mobility with decreasing electron concentration

2 is clearly observed. This trend can be empirically fit using the Caughey–Thomas equation

3 [16]:

$$4 \quad \mu(N) = \mu_{\min} + \frac{\mu_{\max} - \mu_{\min}}{1 + \left(\frac{N}{N_g}\right)^\gamma}, \quad (1)$$

5 where  $\mu_{\max}$ ,  $\mu_{\min}$ , and  $N_g$  are the fitting parameters,  $\gamma$  is unity for an n-type semiconductor,

6 and  $N$  is the doping concentration with an assumption of  $N = N_e$  for simplicity. As evident

7 in Fig. 1, the experimentally obtained data were well fitted by this model with the parameters

8  $\mu_{\max} = 1035 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ ,  $\mu_{\min} = 130 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ , and  $N_g = 3.0 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . Mnatsakanov *et al.*

9 also summarized the relationship between electron mobility and electron concentration in

10 MOCVD-grown Si-doped GaN using the same model and extracted fitting parameters as  $\mu_{\max}$

11  $= 1000 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ ,  $\mu_{\min} = 55 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ , and  $N_g = 2.0 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . The obtained  $\mu_{\max}$  for

12 PSD-grown samples was greater than or equal to the values for the state-of-the-art

13 MOCVD-grown samples [17].

14 Figures 2(a) and (b) show the temperature dependence of electron concentration and

15 mobility, respectively, for Si-doped GaN between 77 and 300 K. For highly Si-doped

16 samples ( $[\text{Si}] > 8 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ), almost no temperature dependence in the electron

17 concentration exists, as evident in Fig. 2(a). In this doping range, the electron mobility is also

18 independent of the temperature at Si doping concentrations as high as  $2 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , as

shown in Fig. 2(b). We also observed that almost all Si atoms were active as n-type dopants in GaN, even at a Si concentration as high as  $2 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . This result indicates that any self-compensation effect [18] and/or the undesirable formation of silicon nitride [19], which are undesirable for heavy Si doping by MOCVD, were negligible in the case of GaN grown using PSD.

For samples doped with lower concentrations of Si ( $[\text{Si}] < 1 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ), the experimental data related to the temperature dependence of electron concentrations was well fitted under a charge neutrality condition as a non-degenerate n-type semiconductor. The Si doping concentration obtained from the fitting well agreed with the SIMS results. The estimated activation energy of the Si dopant varied from 21 to 24 meV with decreasing Si doping concentration; this behavior is explained by the Coulomb interaction of ionized donors. The details of the fitting results will be summarized elsewhere. With respect to the temperature dependence of the electron mobilities of the samples doped with lower Si contents ( $[\text{Si}] < 1 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) shown in Fig. 2(b), the highest peak mobility was  $1920 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at 136 K for the lightly Si-doped sample ( $[\text{Si}] = 2 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ). We also observed that the peaks of the electron mobility were shifted toward lower temperatures. This phenomenon is explained by the reduction in the ionized impurity scattering rate with decreasing Si doping concentration. The detailed scattering mechanism is discussed later.

Next, we focus on the electron transport properties of Si-doped GaN with the highest

2 electron mobility in Fig. 2(b). Figures 3(a) and (b) show a reflection high-energy electron  
 3 diffraction (RHEED) pattern and a  $5 \times 5 \mu\text{m}^2$  atomic force microscopy (AFM) surface image  
 4 of lightly Si-doped GaN ( $[\text{Si}] = 2 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) grown on the bulk GaN substrate. A clear  
 5 streaky RHEED pattern is observed in Fig. 3 (a), which indicates that the growth of Si-doped  
 6 GaN using PSD proceeded in the two-dimensional growth mode. Figure 3(b) shows an  
 7 atomically flat step-and-terrace structure with a step width of approximately  $1 \mu\text{m}$ . The root  
 8 mean square of the surface roughness on the terraces was as low as  $0.5 \text{ nm}$ . This AFM data  
 9 corresponds well with the streaky RHEED pattern.

10 Figure 3(c) shows the detailed temperature dependence of electron mobility between  
 11 78 and 400 K and the calculated electron mobility limited by interactions of electrons with  
 12 impurities, lattice defects, and lattice vibrations. According to Matthiesen's rule, the electron  
 13 mobility is expressed as  $1/\mu_{total} = \sum_i 1/\mu_i$ , where  $\mu_{total}$  and  $\mu_i$  are the total electron mobility  
 14 and the electron mobility limited by each scattering process, respectively. For the calculation,  
 15 expressions for the scattering-limited electron mobilities are taken from the following  
 16 references: ionized impurity [20], neutral impurity [21], dislocation [22], polar optical  
 17 phonon [20], acoustic deformation potential [20], and piezoelectric scattering [21]. We  
 18 assumed that the effects of other scatterings, such as non-polar optical phonon scattering, are  
 19 negligible on electron mobility. All parameters are defined in Table II. Figure 3(c)



1 qualitatively clarifies the contribution of each scattering mechanism for temperature

2 dependence of the experimental electron mobility. This calculation result reveals that the RT  
3 electron mobility of PSD-grown Si-doped GaN is mainly limited by polar optical phonon  
4 scattering. By contrast, at temperatures below 200 K, the ionized impurity scattering became  
5 dominant. Reducing the concentration of compensating acceptors is important for further  
6 improving the electron mobility in PSD-grown Si-doped GaN. Using high-quality bulk GaN  
7 substrates with a low threading dislocation density is also important because the highest  
8 low-temperature electron mobility was attained for the sample grown on a substrate with a  
9 very low threading dislocation density of  $5 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-2}$  [25].

10 In summary, we have grown n-type GaN films with Si dopant concentrations on the  
11 order ranging from  $10^{16}$  to  $10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  by PSD. The relationship between the RT electron  
12 concentration and mobility, as analyzed by the Caughey–Thomas model, revealed  $\mu_{\max}$  and  
13  $\mu_{\min}$  extracted electron mobilities of 1035 and  $130 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ , respectively. For lightly  
14 Si-doped GaN ( $[\text{Si}] = 2 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ), the RT electron mobility was  $1008 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ , which  
15 was dominantly limited by polar optical phonon scattering. With a reduction in temperature,  
16 electron mobility increases; the peak mobility was  $1920 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$  at 136 K, which is mainly  
17 limited by ionized impurity scattering. We also observed that heavily Si-doped GaN prepared  
18 by PSD exhibited an RT mobility as high as  $110 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$  at an electron concentration of  $2$   
19  $\times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , which indicates that the resistivity of this film was almost as small as those of

typical transparent conductive oxides such as ITO. Because the electron mobility of the GaN

2 films is higher than those of the transparent conductive oxides, Si-doped GaN prepared by

3 PSD is a promising epitaxial transparent electrode material for nitride based optical devices.

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## Figures

2 Figure 1. The relationship between electron concentration and electron mobility of  
3 PSD-grown Si-doped GaN. The open blue circles and the red solid line represent the  
4 experimental data and the fitting result obtained using the Caughey–Thomas model [16],  
5 respectively.

6  
7 Figure 2. Temperature dependence of (a) electron concentration and (b) electron mobility in  
8 PSD-grown Si-doped GaN. In Fig. 2(a), for lower Si-doped samples ( $[\text{Si}] < 1 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ),  
9 the fitting results based on a charge neutrality condition were also shown in solid lines.

10  
11 Figure 3. (a) RHEED pattern and (b)  $5 \times 5 \mu\text{m}^2$  AFM surface image of lightly Si-doped GaN  
12 ( $[\text{Si}] = 2 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) grown on the bulk GaN substrate. (c) The temperature dependence of  
13 the experimental electron mobility in lightly Si-doped GaN ( $[\text{Si}] = 2 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ), the  
14 calculated electron mobilities limited by individual scattering mechanism, and the total  
15 electron mobility obtained on the basis of Matthiesen's rule.

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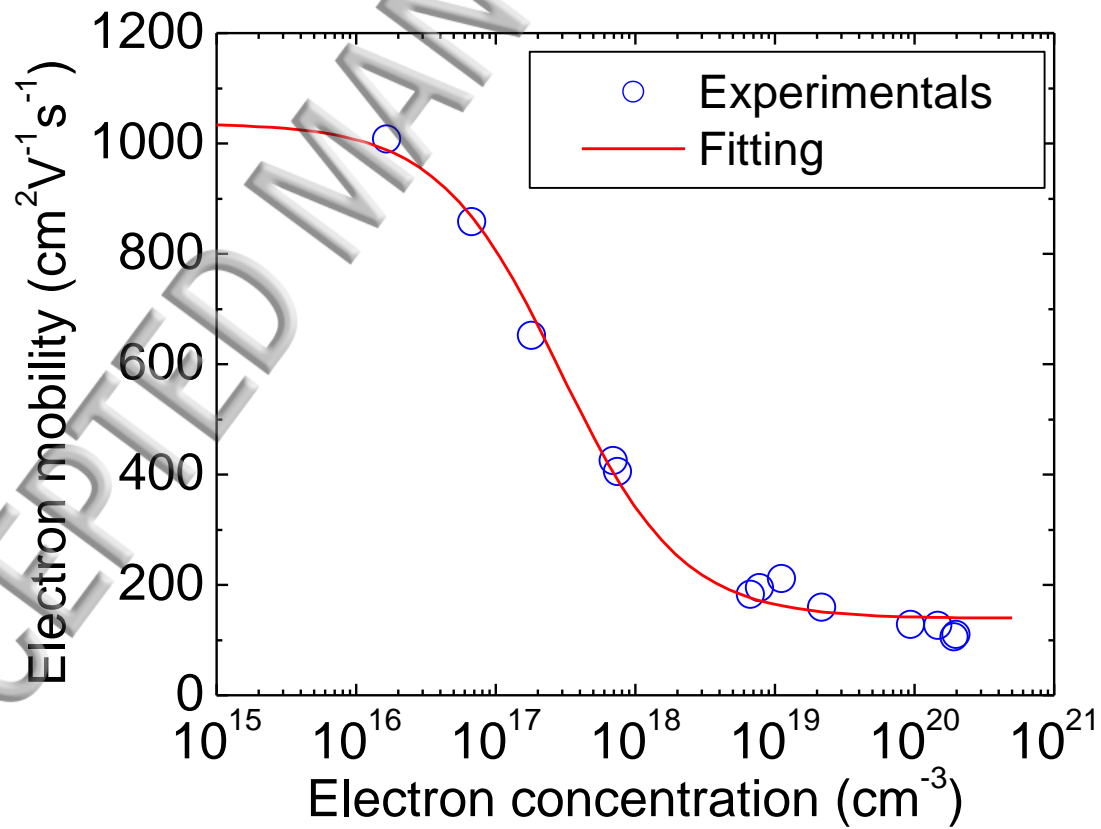
Table I. Material parameters for the calculation of the electron mobilities limited by the

2 individual scattering mechanism.

Parameter	Literature value
Effective mass	0.22 [24]
Static dielectric constant	9.5 [25]
High frequency dielectric constant	5.15 [23]
Longitudinal elastic constant (GPa)	371 [21]
Transversal elastic constant (GPa)	126 [21]
Acoustic deformation potential (eV)	9.2 [23]
Polar phonon Debye temperature (K)	1057 [23]
Distance between acceptor-like trap centers along a dislocation (Å)	5.185 [21]

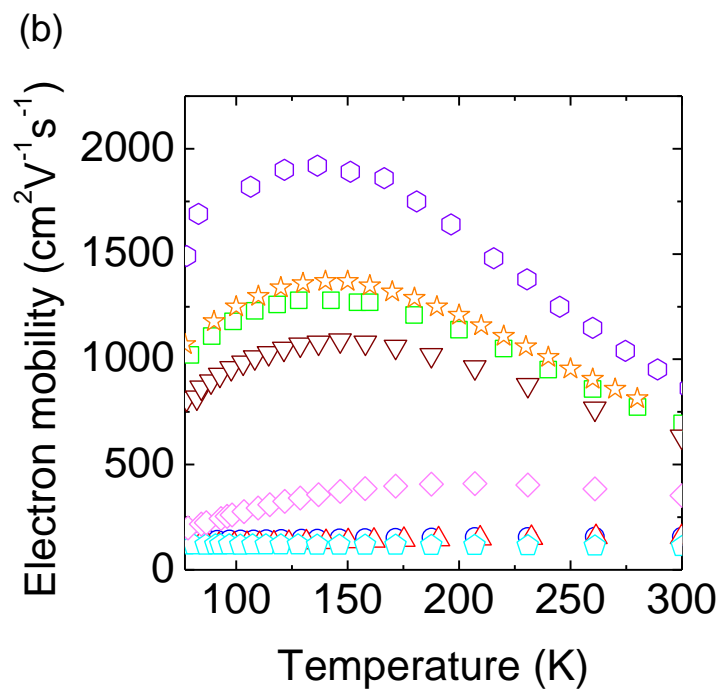
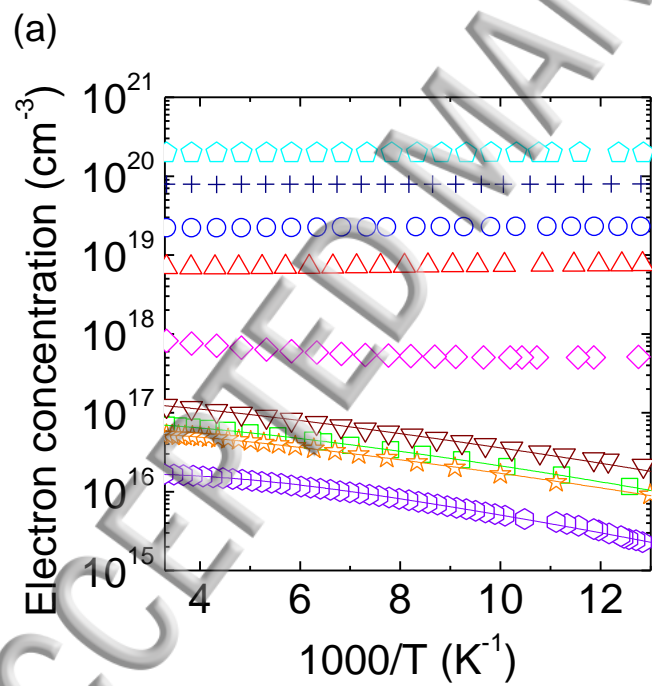
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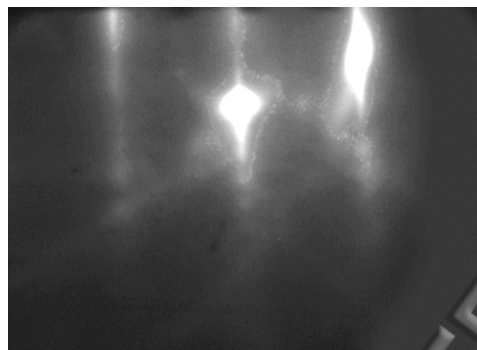
Y. Arakawa *et al.*, Figure 1



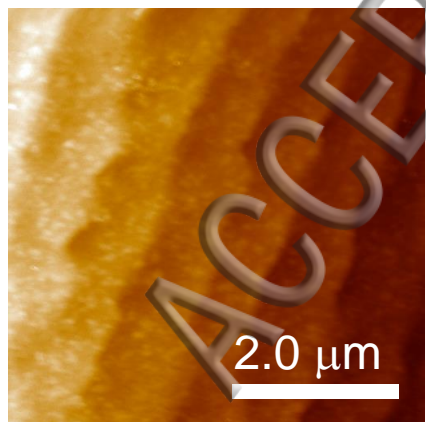


Y. Arakawa *et al.*, Figure 2

(a)

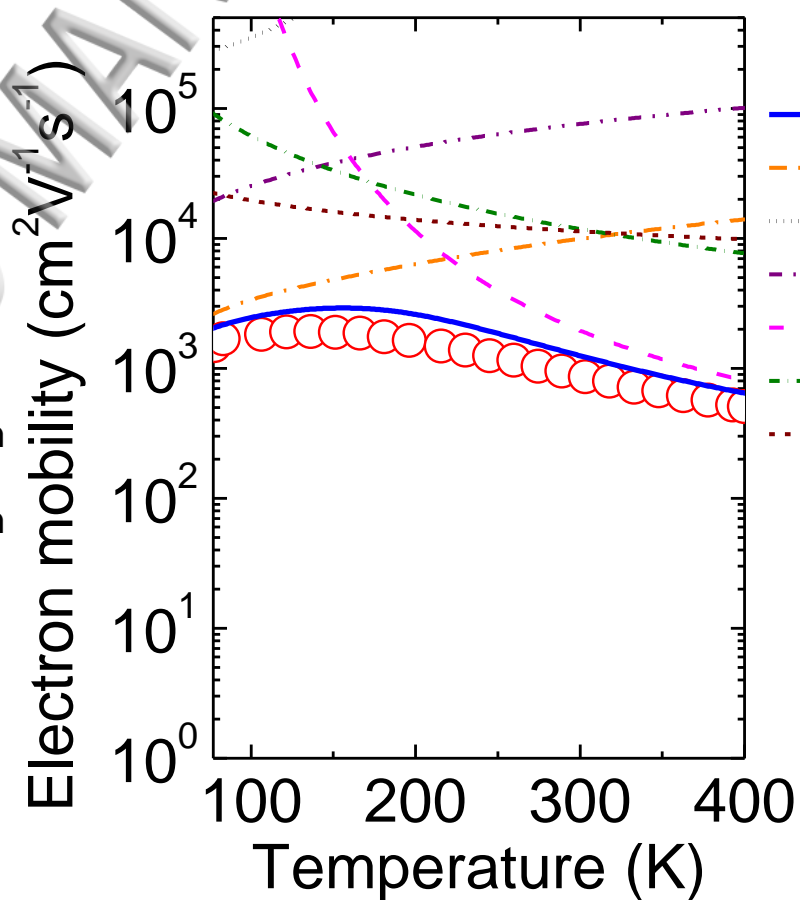


(b)



16.0 nm  
12.8 nm  
9.6 nm  
6.4 nm  
3.2 nm  
0.0 nm

(c)



- Experimental
- Calculation
- - - Ionized impurity
- ⋯ Neutral impurity
- · - · Dislocation
- - - Polar optical phonon
- · - · Acoustic D. P.
- ⋯ Piezoelectric

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