

**Building Blocks for 3D Integrated Circuits:  
Single Crystal Compound Semiconductor Growth  
and Device Fabrication on Amorphous Substrates**

by

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*To all of material and abstract consciousness  
that have shaped me until today*

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## Abstract

Building Blocks for 3D Integrated Circuits: Single Crystal Compound Semiconductor Growth and Device Fabrication on Amorphous Substrates

by

Debarghya Sarkar

Committee: Prof. Rehan Kapadia (Chair), Prof. Michelle Povinelli,

Prof. Jayakanth Ravichandran, Prof. Han Wang

Over the past five decades, the world has made rapid technological progress supported by the advancement in solid-state electronics and photonics. Referred to as the Moore's Law, the fundamental mechanism for making a better microprocessor chip has been the reduction of footprint of individual operational units (field effect transistors), thus increasing the chip functionality and performance by increasing planar density. However, there is an impending problem. Improving integrated circuits by device miniaturization is coming to an end, since device miniaturization is reaching its fundamental physical limit. A potential novel approach for continued improvement is a three dimensional (3D) multifunctional integrated circuit. However, there are several challenges associated with fabricating a 3D IC, and this dissertation is aimed at experimentally establishing the viability of potential solutions to some of the fundamental problems. Those are: (i) the ability to integrate single crystal semiconductors on an amorphous buffer, (ii) at a temperature below 400 °C so that underlying active layers are not affected, and (iii) to be able to fabricate high-performance devices out of them.

A recently introduced non-epitaxial growth technique called thin film – vapor liquid solid growth that showed the ability to grow large area grain size (10-100 μm) polycrystalline film on metal foils, has been adopted as the primary material growth method. It has been first generalized to be integrable on any substrate including amorphous and crystalline dielectrics (*i.e.* not just limited to metals), and its geometrical constraints from a thermodynamic perspective are established. This has allowed for a wide variety of compound semiconductor materials (III-Vs and IV-Vs) to be able to be grown as templates upto tens of micron in lateral dimension on a wide variety of technologically relevant substrates. Extensive photoluminescence measurements and analyses have been performed, which indicate excellent optoelectronic performance comparable to that of commercial single crystal InP wafer. Temperature dependent photoluminescence, Hall mobility, and electron back-scatter diffraction studies demonstrate the ability to grow high quality single crystal III-Vs below 400 °C on amorphous substrates including on flexible substrates such as polyimide. Room temperature Hall mobility reaching 6000 cm<sup>2</sup>/V-s for InAs grown at 300 °C on HfO<sub>2</sub>, and contact-resistance limited FET mobility of 500 cm<sup>2</sup>/V-s for InP grown on SiO<sub>2</sub>, have been shown: one of the highest values so far for any material family directly grown on an amorphous dielectric. A scalable platform for obtaining artificial synapses has been demonstrated by modulation of oxide-semiconductor interface trap occupancy in InP nanowire FETs. Finally, selective growth of MOCVD epitaxial layers on these single crystal templates have been briefly studied as precedents to obtain ultra-high performance devices on the back-end of CMOS chips.

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# Chapter 1

## A Brief Summary of my Research

My Ph.D. research has been centered on materials and device innovation as potential candidates for future three dimensional integrated circuits (3D ICs). This chapter of my dissertation highlights the main research results in a comprehensive but relatively high-level narrative. Following chapters build on the highlights mentioned here, and give an in-depth fine-detailed-technical description of the experiments and their outcomes.

### 1.1 3D Integrated Circuits: Why? What? How?

Let us start with the question: *why do we need 3D integrated circuits?*

Over the past five decades, the world has witnessed rapid technological growth driven by progress in computational ability. This increase in the operational bandwidth has been engineered by integrating a higher number of operational units per unit area of the microprocessor chip by reducing the size of each operational unit, called Field Effect Transistor devices (FETs). Famously referred to as the Moore's Law,<sup>1</sup> this trend of making a better microprocessor chip by incorporating larger number of FETs, has been successfully followed for multiple consecutive generations of chip design (Figure 1.1). However, there is an impending problem. Improving integrated circuits by device miniaturization is coming to an end, since device miniaturization is reaching its fundamental physical limit. A potential novel approach for continued improvement is a three dimensional (3D) multifunctional integrated circuit.

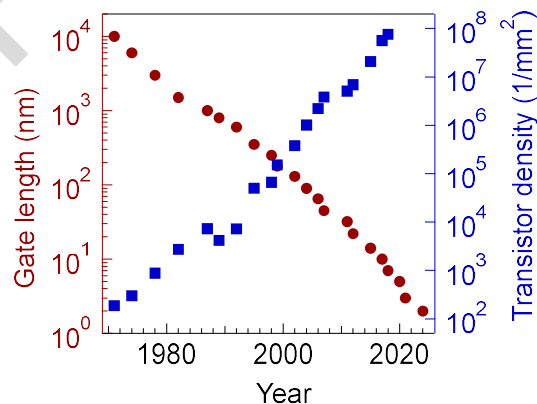


Figure 1.1: Historical trend of increasing device density and reducing device dimension. Data from [en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Moore%27s\\_law](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Moore%27s_law) and [.../Transistor\\_count](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transistor_count)

*What can be a zeroth order description of of a 3D IC architecture?*

A representative cartoon of a 3D multifunctional integrated circuit is shown in Figure 1.2. Essentially, there would be multiple functional circuits for logic, communication, and memory operations stacked on top of each other in the same chip. One may think of it as a vertically stacked motherboard with different circuits performing modular functions (logic, memory, etc.) in the same chip, instead of different modular chips performing their functions and communicating across the present-day motherboard. It is important to have 3D to get higher density of integration (versus state-of-the-art 2D integration). And it is important to integrate multiple materials to achieve multiple functionalities, since each material is ideally suited for unique applications. Silicon has been the backbone material for the semiconductor industry all along due to early advantages in manufacturing processes. But it is far from being the ideal semiconductor material considering performance of devices. Compound semiconductors are a general class of materials that have electronic and optoelectronic properties far superseding that of silicon, but have not quite found their way into mainstream electronic devices because of economic disadvantage in traditional growth processes and difficulty in efficient integration.

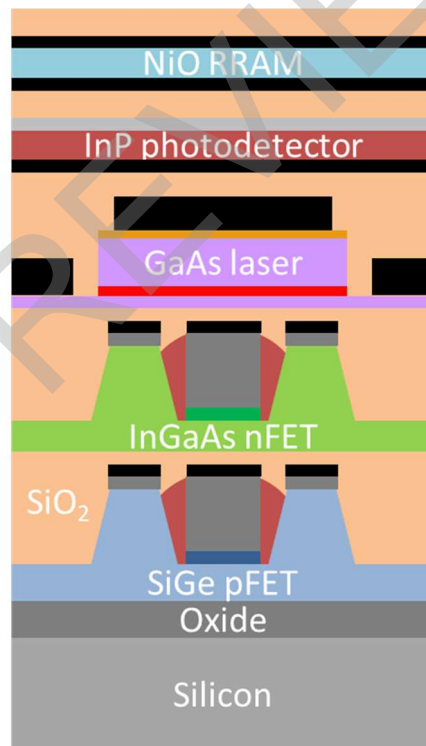


Figure 1.2: Schematic representation of a potential 3D IC stack.

*So how can we fabricate such a structure?*

There are several challenges associated with fabricating a 3D IC so that no commercial 3D IC exists today despite this idea being there for literally decades. This dissertation is aimed at solving some of the most fundamental problems to help pave the way forward. Those are:

- (i) we need to integrate single crystal semiconductors on an amorphous buffer,
- (ii) at a temperature below 400 °C so that underlying active layers are not affected, and
- (iii) we should be able to fabricate high-performance devices out of them.

## 1.2 Epitaxial lift-off and transfer

The most widely used approach towards that currently followed, is some variant of this method called *epitaxial growth and transfer*.<sup>2</sup> In this case, semiconductor layers are epitaxially grown on lattice matched substrates, and through multiple steps, transferred to the host substrate on which devices are fabricated (Figure 1.3). This is successfully followed in many academic setups and in some commercial applications, but there are also some well-known important drawbacks: the process is expensive, is not scalable over large areas required for industrial production, and has access to limited materials stemming from lattice matching and suitable release-process constraints.

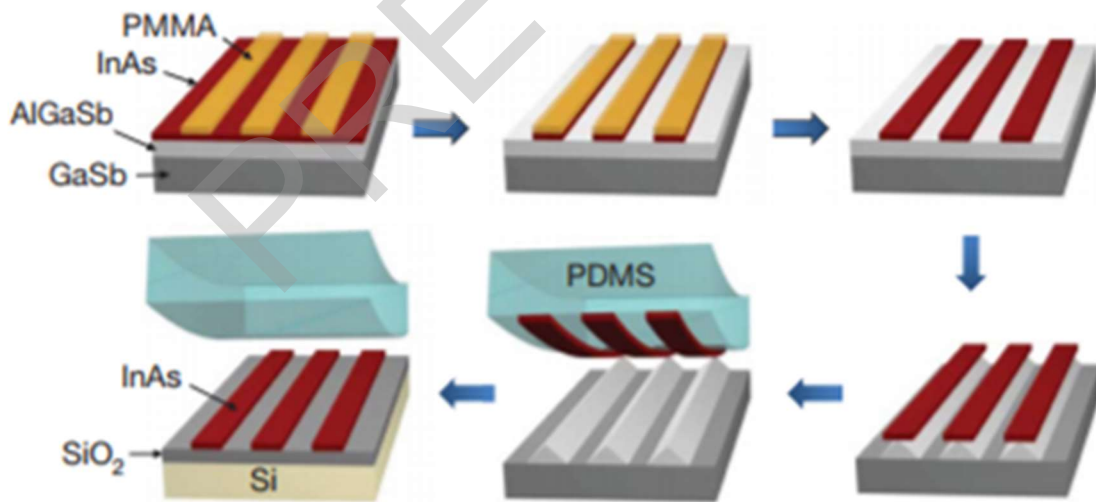


Figure 1.3: Integration of high performance devices by epitaxial lift-off and transfer. Reproduced with permission from [2]. Copyright 2010, Springer Nature.

### 1.3 Direct non-epitaxial growth?

Alternatively, can we directly grow single crystal materials on amorphous materials instead? The traditional methods for semiconductor growth such as *metal-organic chemical vapor deposition* (MOCVD) and *molecular beam epitaxy* (MBE) would give single-crystalline growth only when grown on single-crystal substrates. On the other hand, these methods would give a polycrystalline material (Figure 1.4) when grown on a buffer layer which is inherently amorphous.<sup>3</sup> Poly-crystalline materials would give device performance that are orders of magnitude lower than that of their single-crystalline counterparts. This is the most important roadblock that has prevented efficient integration of multifunctional high-performance devices in the past.

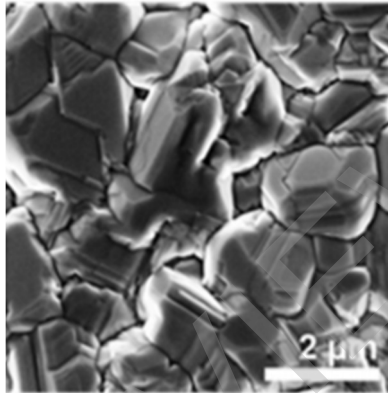


Figure 1.4: Polycrystalline InP by MOCVD directly on amorphous Mo foil. Reproduced with permission from [3]. Copyright 2012, American Institute of Physics.

### 1.4 Thin Film – Vapor Liquid Solid growth

On the other hand, a novel growth technique was recently developed, called thin film vapor-liquid-solid,<sup>4, 5</sup> where it was shown that large area single crystal indium phosphide (InP) with grain size of the order of 100 μm to 1 mm can be grown on refractory metal foils (Figure 1.5). This was the first step towards growth of crystalline compound semiconductor film on a non-epitaxial substrate.

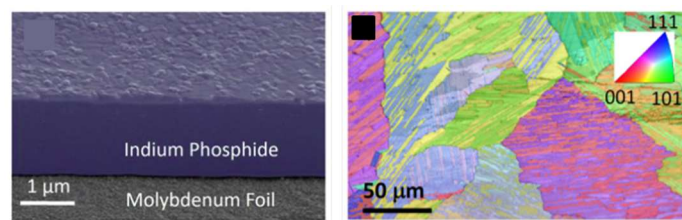


Figure 1.5: Ultra-large-grain size polycrystalline InP by TF-VLS directly on amorphous Mo foil. Reproduced with permission from [4]. Copyright 2013, Springer Nature.

How is it done? Well, as represented in Figure 1.6 (a), indium (In) is first deposited on molybdenum (Mo) foil, and capped with silicon dioxide ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ). This is then taken to the furnace and heated to a growth temperature of 450-800 °C, where In is molten. Phosphorus (P) is introduced in the vapor phase which percolates through the  $\text{SiO}_2$  capping layer, and gradually saturates liquid In. As it gets slightly supersaturated, InP is precipitated. Now, once the first InP nucleus forms, a depletion region of P is created around it driven by the high diffusivity of P in liquid In, such that the concentration of P in that region is always below the solubility of P in liquid In, and no InP is nucleated in this region. The second InP nucleus forms a distance away from the first, of the order of 100  $\mu\text{m}$  to 1 mm, determined by the P flux and the initial In thickness.

The plot in Figure 1.6 (b) is an experimental verification of this model, where it is seen that the nucleation density reduces with lower P flux, thereby giving rise to larger grain sizes. This work was pioneered by Kapadia *et. al.* at UC Berkeley.

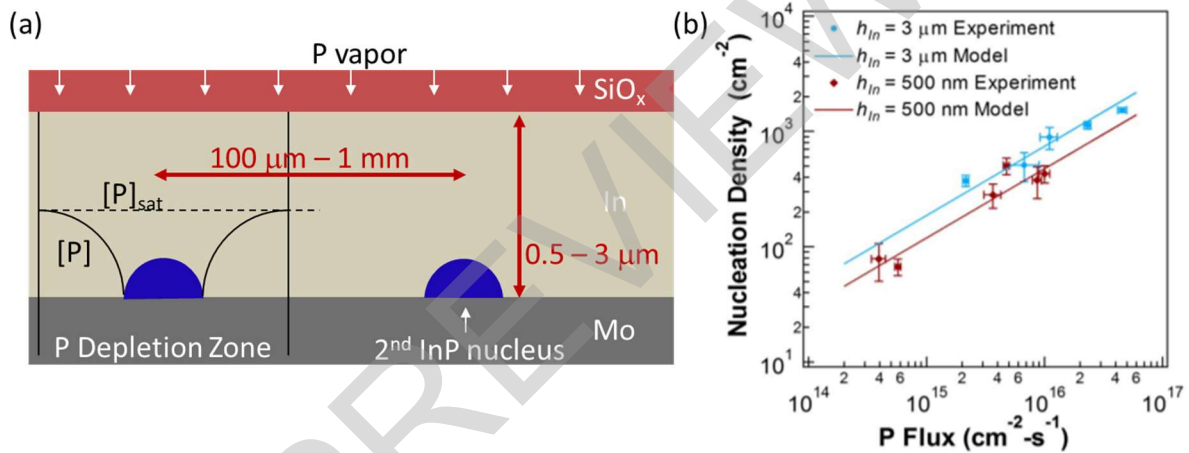


Figure 1.6: (a) Schematic of controlled grain size in TF-VLS growth. (b) Experimental verification of nucleation model. Reproduced with permission from [4]. Copyright 2013, Springer Nature.

## 1.5 Templated Liquid Phase (TLP) growth

Then it was proposed that if we pattern the indium so that the lateral dimension is less than a typical depletion length, each pattern will form only a single crystal.<sup>6</sup>

### 1.5.1 Single Crystal Compound Semiconductor mesas on Diverse Substrates

Building on that, my research efforts first demonstrated growth of single crystal compound semiconductor mesas on diverse substrates.<sup>7</sup>

Schematically shown in Figures 1.7 (a-d), we start with patterns of In capped with SiO<sub>2</sub> on a substrate. This is then taken to the growth furnace and heated to the growth temperature in presence of phosphine (PH<sub>3</sub>). The PH<sub>3</sub> flux is controlled to ensure single nucleation in each pattern, which with time, gradually grows as a single crystal to achieve single crystal InP in each pattern. Figures 1.7 (e-h) are a sequence of SEM images of InP nucleating in a pool of In, gradually growing as a single crystal until the entire pattern is transformed to InP, so that the entire pattern is a single InP crystal (which in this case, is 6 μm diameter). Although InP is used to describe this process, it may be noted that it's not just InP that can be grown by this process. In fact we have grown many different materials, and on a wide variety of substrates, as shown in Table 1.1.

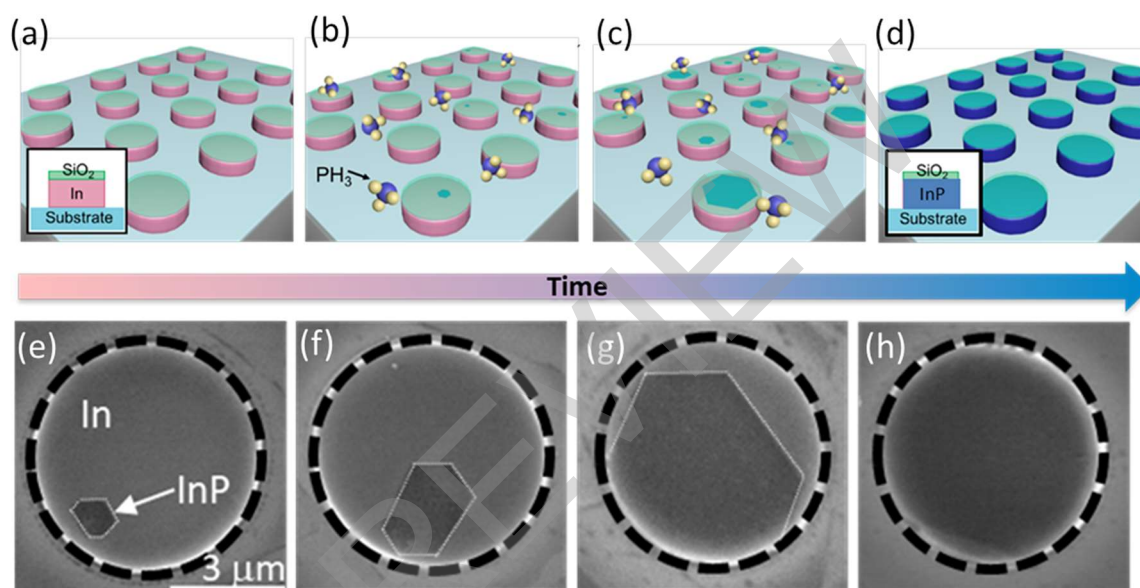


Figure 1.7: (a) Schematic of TLP growth of InP on any substrate. (b) Representative SEM of InP nucleating and growing in a pool of indium. Reproduced with permission from [7]. Copyright 2018, American Chemical Society.

<b>Materials</b>	<b>Substrates</b>
III-V binary: InP, GaP, InAs	Refractory Metals: Mo, W
III-V ternary: In <sub>x</sub> Ga <sub>1-x</sub> P	Amorphous: MoO <sub>x</sub> , SiO <sub>2</sub> , Si <sub>3</sub> N <sub>4</sub> , Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> , TiO <sub>2</sub> , ZrO <sub>2</sub> , HfO <sub>2</sub>
IV-V binary: SnP, Sn <sub>4</sub> P <sub>3</sub>	Crystalline: Gd <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> , Er <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> , SrTiO <sub>3</sub>
Heterojunction: InP/Sn <sub>4</sub> P <sub>3</sub>	2-D: Graphene
	Polymer: Polyimide

Table 1.1: Different materials grown by TLP method on different substrates.



As representative examples, Figures 1.8 (a-c) are some experimental results, showing growth of different stoichiometries of indium gallium phosphide, different stoichiometries of tin phosphide, as well as an atomically sharp lateral heterojunction between InP and Sn<sub>4</sub>P<sub>3</sub>.

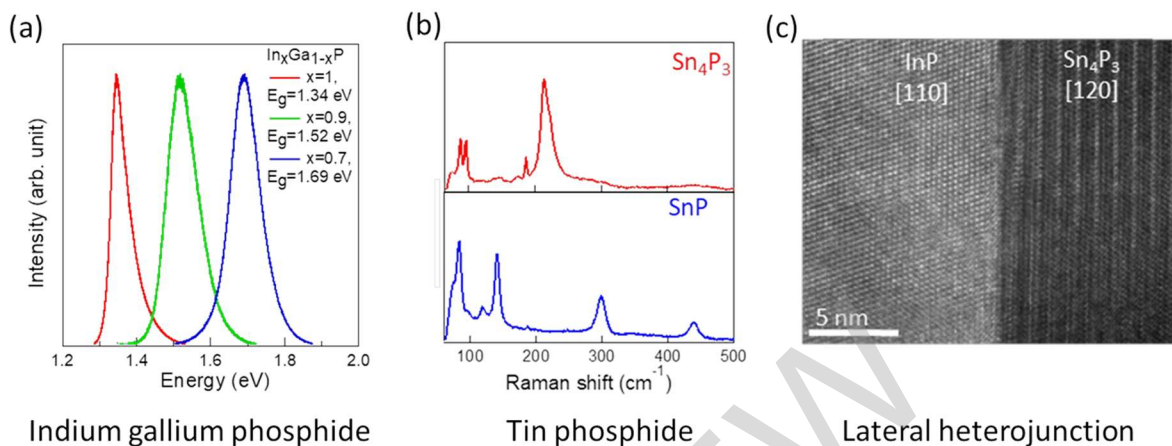


Figure 1.8: (a) In-Ga-P, (b) Sn-P, (c) InP-Sn<sub>4</sub>P<sub>3</sub> lateral heterojunction grown by TLP method. Reproduced with permission from [7]. Copyright 2018, American Chemical Society.

Also, Figures 1.9 (a-c) are transmission electron microscope images showing InP grown on crystalline Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub>, and 2D graphene.

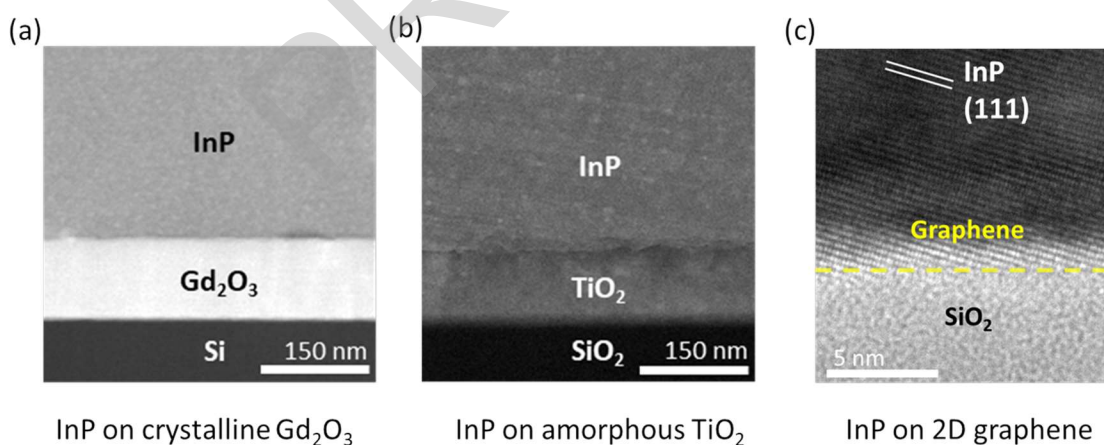


Figure 1.9: InP grown on (a) crystalline Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, (b) amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub>, (c) 2D graphene. Reproduced with permission from [7] (Copyright 2018, American Chemical Society) and [9] (Copyright 2018, American Vacuum Society)



### 1.5.3 Large Area (>100 $\mu\text{m}$ ) Single Crystal

Moving forward, we worked on expanding the area of the crystal, *e.g.* the mesas in Figure 1.10 (a) are over 100  $\mu\text{m}$  in length and 5  $\mu\text{m}$  in width. As evident by electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD) inverse pole figure imaging in Figure 1.10 (b) (i-vi), each mesa is represented by a single color, and is therefore a single crystal.

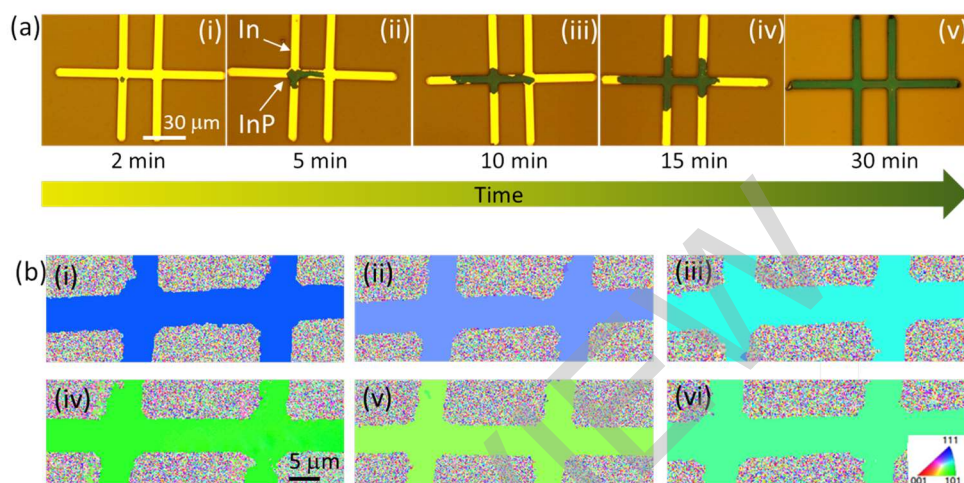


Figure 1.10: (a) InP growing as a single crystal in a Hall element structure, (b) single crystallinity indicated by EBSD.

### 1.5.4 Crystal Quality Analysis of TLP InP

Figure 1.11 is a collage of representative (scanning) transmission electron microscopy (S)TEM images of TLP InP. Figure 1.11 (a) shows InP growing directly on graphene transferred on  $\text{SiO}_2$ . The selective area electron diffraction (SAED) in Figure 1.11 (b) and the high resolution TEM in Figure 1.11 (c) indicate the high crystalline quality of the grown films. However, it may also be noted that given the stacking fault energy for III-Vs is low, these grown films often have multiple stacking faults as shown in Figure 1.11 (d) and twinning present within the crystals as in Figure 1.11 (e).

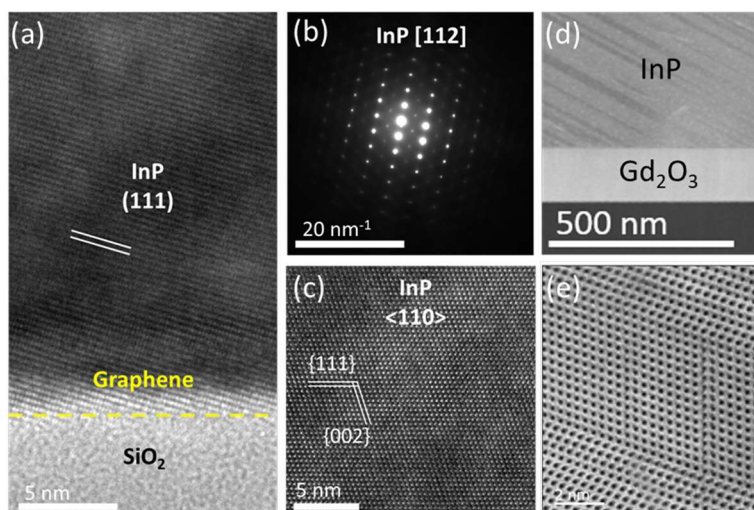


Figure 1.11: (a) STEM image of InP on graphene transferred to SiO<sub>2</sub>, (b) SAED and (c) STEM image of InP on TiO<sub>2</sub>, (d) Stacking faults in InP on Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, (e) Twinning in InP on HfO<sub>2</sub>.

### 1.5.4 Surface roughness of TLP materials

As seen in Figure 1.12, the typical surface roughness of the grown films can be controlled to within 1-2 nm RMS roughness. This is mainly determined by the initial indium film roughness, which is controlled by evaporating indium at relatively low rates and with the samples connected to a liquid nitrogen cooled stage to reduce surface mobility of incident In atoms.

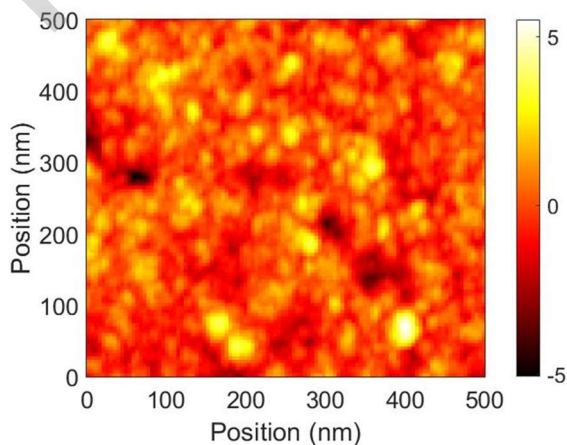


Figure 1.12: AFM map of representative TLP InP surface.

### 1.5.5 Dewetting of Liquid Indium on Diverse Substrates

Before we go forward, it may be better to take a step back and recognize that the translation from growth on metals to growth on dielectrics is actually non-trivial. Compared to this flat film of InP on Mo (Figure 1.13 (a)), when similarly tried to be grown on SiO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 1.13 (b)), it doesn't stay flat. When patterned on molybdenum oxide (MoO<sub>x</sub>), it stays as intended (Figure 1.13 (c)), but forms holes when done on dielectric surfaces (Figure 1.13 (d)). The reason is that most substrates are “indium-phobic” causing In to dewet when it's molten.

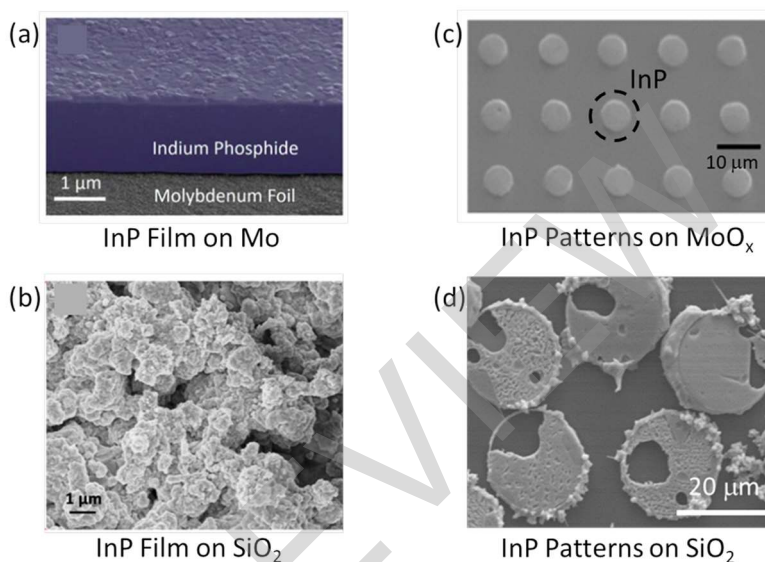


Figure 1.13: Representative InP growth on different substrates before wetting control.

To understand this better, we worked on a thermodynamic model, where we calculated the Gibbs free energy of formation of two different structures: one wetting *i.e.* without void (Figure 1.14 (a)), and one dewetting, *i.e.* with void (Figure 1.14 (b)). When we subtract one from the other, we get the Gibbs free energy of formation of the void, and plot it as a function of void radius ( $r$ ) for different template radii ( $R_T$ ). As can be seen here (Figure 1.14 (c)), that for a given initial thickness of In ( $h$ ), there is finite probability of void formation, and a thermodynamically stable size of voids. On the other hand, no stable void formation would occur for templates below a certain size for the given indium thickness. In other words, liquid templates would always wet a given substrate once they are above a critical aspect ratio.