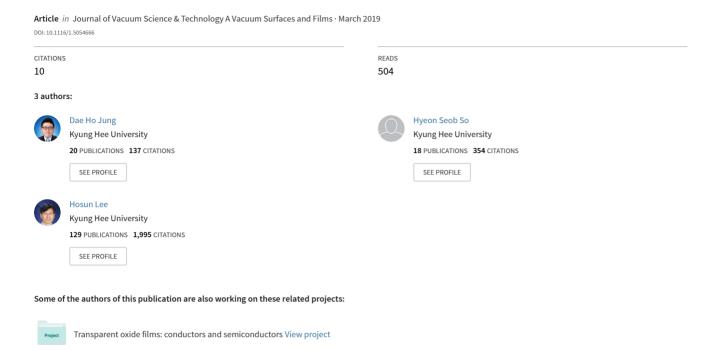
Structural and electrical properties of transparent conductor SrVO3 thin films grown using radio frequency sputtering deposition



Structural and electrical properties of transparent conductor SrVO₃ thin films grown using radio frequency sputtering deposition

Dae Ho Jung, Hyeon Seob So, and Hosun Lee

Citation: Journal of Vacuum Science & Technology A 37, 021507 (2019); doi: 10.1116/1.5054666

View online: https://doi.org/10.1116/1.5054666

View Table of Contents: https://avs.scitation.org/toc/jva/37/2

Published by the American Vacuum Society



Structural and electrical properties of transparent conductor SrVO₃ thin films grown using radio frequency sputtering deposition

Dae Ho Jung, Hyeon Seob So, and Hosun Lee^{a)}
Department of Applied Physics, Institute of Natural Sciences, Kyung Hee University, Yong-In 17104, Republic of Korea

(Received 1 September 2018; accepted 4 January 2019; published 22 January 2019)

Transparent conductor SrVO₃ thin films were grown on (LaAlO₃)_{0.3}(Sr₂AlTaO₆)_{0.7} (LSAT), SiO₂/Si, LaAlO₃, and sapphire substrates using RF magnetron sputtering deposition with commercial SrVO₃ targets at temperatures as low as 400 °C. Considering the complex phases of SrVO₃ material systems, the growth temperature and sputtering gases were optimized and precisely controlled to yield a transparent and conductive SrVO₃ phase. The authors used a mixed gas atmosphere of Ar and H₂ during growth for reduction. Structural and morphological properties of all SrVO₃ films were investigated using x-ray diffraction (XRD), high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM), and scanning electron microscopy. XRD and HRTEM showed a highly crystalline cubic phase of SrVO₃ films. In addition, HRTEM showed that a superstructure along the [100] direction could be formed due to Jahn-Teller distortion in the cubic phase of SrVO₃ films. The authors obtained a resistivity of $0.2 \times 10^{-3} \Omega$ cm, mobility of $1.82 \text{ cm}^2/(\text{V s})$, and carrier concentration of $1.57 \times 10^{22} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ for SrVO₃/LSAT films. Optical transmittance was measured as 88% at a photon wavelength of 633 nm for 39-nm-thick SrVO₃ films. Using x-ray photoemission spectroscopy (XPS) and its depth profile analysis, the authors investigated chemical compositions and binding energies of Sr, V, and O atoms in SrVO₃ films, and their depth profiles. The authors found a correlation between the resistivities and XPS binding energy spectra for SrVO₃ films as functions of film thickness and substrates. Published by the AVS. https://doi.org/10.1116/1.5054666

I. INTRODUCTION

Highly conductive and yet highly transparent materials can be used for applications such as electric devices, displays, and energy devices. However, the two characteristics of transparency and conductivity are mutually exclusive and it is difficult to find transparent conductors that use electrons and holes as charge carriers. In general, the resistivity of thin films is higher than that of bulk materials due to the surface scattering of electron carriers. Transparent electrodes are used for optoelectronics devices. Presently, ITO films are the most widely used transparent electrodes. Furthermore, $SnO_2:X$ (X: F, Sb) and ZnO:X (X: Al, Ga) are also used for transparent conducting oxide (TCO) materials. These TCO materials have a band gap energy larger than 3 eV and are transparent in the visible spectral range, and their resistivities are less than $10^{-3} \Omega$ cm.

To increase the performance of the TCO, it is necessary to increase the carrier concentrations, while maintaining a high mobility. ITO films have high transparency and high conductivity. However, the element indium (In) is becoming scarcer and its resistivity is high in ultrathin films due to increased surface scattering. Therefore, we need new TCO materials. SnO₂ films are cheap and chemically stable whereas their resistivities are high and processing temperature is relatively high. ZnO films have excellent electrical and optical properties, comparable to those of ITOs, whereas they are chemically unstable and are vulnerable to acid and alkalinity. Recently, transition metal oxides (TMO) were proposed as promising

Metallic SrVO₃ crystals have a cubic perovskite structure, and the lattice parameter is a = 3.842 Å. Valance bands of SrVO₃ crystals originate from oxygen 2p orbitals. Vanadium 3d orbitals are split into e_g group (duplet state) and t_{2g} group (triplet state) due to the crystal field effect.⁴ Here, the t_{2g} group forms the conduction band. The interband transition is weak in the visible spectral range. SrVO₃ forms a simple Fermi liquid system. The electrons are strongly correlated and spectral weight transfer occurs. The imaginary dielectric function of SrVO₃ films is still as large as 1 in the 1.2–2.7 eV spectral range, and ultrathin films less than 30 nm are required for greater than 90% transmittance in the visible range. Since the mean free path of electron carriers in the SrVO₃ films is 5.6 nm, 4 low resistivity persists in ultrathin (\approx 10 nm) SrVO₃ film.

Growth of cubic phase SrVO₃ films was carried out using various growing methods, including hydride MBE, ^{4,5} pulsed laser deposition (PLD), ^{6,7} electron-beam evaporation, ^{8,9} and chemical vapor deposition. ¹⁰ There are few reports on sputtering deposition of cubic phase SrVO₃ films. ¹¹ We note that Sharma *et al.* grew orthorhombic SrVO₃ films, which were both transparent and highly resistive, using sputtering deposition. ¹²

Several substrates have been used to grow SrVO₃ films: (LaAlO₃)_{0.3}(Sr₂AlTaO₆)_{0.7} (LSAT),^{4–6} LaAlO₃ (LAO),¹³ SrTiO₃,^{7,14,15} Si,¹⁶ and yttria-stablized zirconia (YSZ)/Si.¹³

TCO materials.^{3,4} Zhang *et al.* proposed TMO as transparent conductors such as SrVO₃ and CaVO₃ films.⁴ These perovskite oxide materials have strongly correlated electrons. Their carrier electron masses increase due to renormalization, and SrVO₃ and CaVO₃ films become transparent in the visible spectral range with low screened plasma energy (<1.33 eV).

a)Electronic mail: hlee@khu.ac.kr

LSAT substrates have similar lattice constants to SrVO₃ films, and SrVO₃ films grown on LSAT substrates showed the best electrical and optical properties compared to other substrates. ^{4,5} Commercial SrVO₃ targets are composed of a Sr₂V₂O₇ phase, and a high growth temperature under vacuum deposition or H₂ gas is needed for a reducing environment to grow cubic phase SrVO₃ films. ^{5,10} Hybrid MBE methods require high temperature growth, as high as 900 °C, as well as appropriate stoichiometry of the SrVO₃ film for high conductivity. ¹⁷ However, Jung *et al.* ¹¹ reported that Sr deficiency (Sr_{0.9}VO₃) was required and low temperature growth as low as 10 °C can be used for the growth of high conductivity SrVO₃ films.

Sputtering growth of $SrVO_3$ films has not been reported so far in the literature. Furthermore, using commercial $SrVO_3$ targets (actually $Sr_2V_2O_7$ targets) is very desirable for the sputtering growth of $SrVO_3$ films because of low cost and simple growth methods, which is essential for industrial applications.

In this work, we used a RF magnetron sputtering deposition method to grow transparent conductor SrVO₃ films on various substrates in a mixture of Ar and H₂ gas using a commercial Sr₂V₂O₇ target. We investigated the structural, optical, and electrical properties of SrVO₃ films. We found a correlation among resistivity, V⁴⁺/V⁵⁺ ratio, and the composition gradients in Sr, V, and O atoms as a function of SrVO₃ film thicknesses. We found that almost lattice-matched LSAT substrates provided the lowest resistivity values and high optical transmittance for SrVO₃ films at a growth temperature as low as 400 °C. We found a superstructure along the [100] direction, which could be formed due to Jahn-Teller distortion in the cubic phase of SrVO₃ films.

II. EXPERIMENT

SrVO₃ thin films with thicknesses between 39 and 90 nm were grown on a-plane, c-plane, r-plane, and m-plane sapphire, Si, SiO₂/Si, LAO, and LSAT substrates under identical conditions by sputtering deposition using commercial SrVO₃ targets (99.5 wt. %). Nominal SrVO₃ targets from RNDKOREA (Republic of Korea) and LTS Research Laboratories, Inc. (USA) were used. The targets were actually composed of a Sr₂V₂O₇ phase. Considering the complex phases of the SrVO₃ material system, the growth temperature and sputtering gas atmosphere were optimized and precisely controlled to yield conductive SrVO₃ films of cubic phase. Sputtering pressure was set at 6 mTorr with 25% $H_2/(Ar + H_2)$ gas. The flow rate was 10–20 sccm. SrVO₃ films were grown at 350–500 °C. After sputtering, SrVO₃ films were annealed. We note that only Sr₂V₂O₇ phase was grown using Ar or a mixture of Ar and O_2 gas.

The structural and morphological properties of all $SrVO_3$ films were studied using Θ - 2Θ x-ray diffraction (XRD) spectroscopy, grazing incidence of angle x-ray diffraction (GIXRD), high-resolution field-effect scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM), and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM). Θ - 2Θ XRD was performed for $SrVO_3$ films using standard XRD equipment. GIXRD was measured to enhance XRD signals from $SrVO_3$ films with Cu $K\alpha$ x-ray line

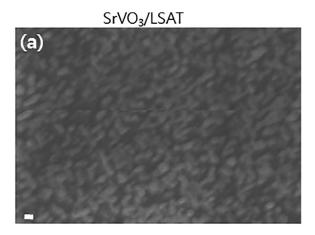
(wavelength 1.5406 Å) using an x-ray diffractometer (Model: SmartLab, Rigaku). Resistivities were measured using a Keithley 4200-SCS system. Hall mobilities (μ_{Hall}) and carrier concentrations (N_{Hall}) were determined via Hall effect measurements (Model: H-50, MMR) in the Van der Pauw configuration. The electronic structure, atomic compositions, and depth profiles of SrVO₃ films were investigated using x-ray photoemission spectroscopy (XPS) (Model: K-Alpha, Thermo Electron). The incident x-ray photon source was Al K α line (1486.6 eV). Surface morphologies of the SrVO₃ thin films were investigated via FE-SEM (Model: Merlin, Carl Zeiss). Cross-sectional HRTEM data were also measured (Model: JEM-2100F, JEOL). Raman scattering spectra were measured by using a McPherson 207 spectrometer equipped with a nitrogen-cooled charge-coupled-device array detector. SrVO₃ films were excited by a 488 nm diode laser with a power less than 0.5 mW to minimize heating effects.

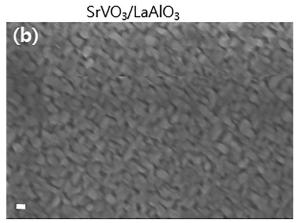
III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 1 shows the FE-SEM images of SrVO₃ films grown on (a) (100) LSAT, (b) (100) LaAlO₃, and (c) SiO₂/Si substrates. In Fig. 1(a), SrVO₃ films grown on LSAT substrates showed grains with sizes of 88×88 nm. In Figs. 1(b) and 1(c), SrVO₃ films grown on LaAlO₃ and SiO₂/Si substrates showed grains with size of 74×74 nm and 85×85 nm, respectively.

Figures 2(a)-2(f) show the GIXRD pattern of SrVO₃ films grown on LSAT substrates with the film thickness: (a) 39 nm, (b) 51 nm, (c) 64 nm, (d) 77 nm, (e) 90 nm, and (f) SiO₂/Si substrates, and Figs. 2(g) and 2(h) show the (210) lattice parameter and the size of nanocrystallites, respectively.

We found a (210) GIXRD peak at 2θ (d₍₂₁₀₎) = 52.44° $(1.744 \text{ Å}), 52.52^{\circ} (1.742 \text{ Å}), 53.07^{\circ} (1.724 \text{ Å}), 53.67^{\circ}$ (1.706 Å), and 53.50° (1.713 Å) for the film thickness of 39, 64, 51, 77, and 90 nm, respectively, as shown in Fig. 2(g). The average error bar was ± 0.002 Å. The same peak was measured at 53.17° (1.722 Å) for SrVO₃/SiO₂/Si. SrVO₃/LSAT films showed a single phase for all the films except the 51 nm-thick films in Fig. 2(b). The SrVO₃ film of 51 nm thickness in Fig. 2(b) showed 28.88° and 55.01° peaks in addition to the (210) 52.52° peak. The 28.88° peak arose from either a tetragonal Sr₂V₂O₇ (204) phase or orthorhombic SrVO₃ (020) phase. The 55.01° peak arose from the orthorhombic SrVO₃ (311) peak. The decrease of (210) lattice parameters with increasing film thickness may be due to the decrease of oxygen deficiency or other defects. Or it could be due to strain relaxation with increasing film thickness. Using XRD, Rey et al. measured the (210) lattice parameters as 1.723 and 1.717 Å for SrVO_{2.88} and SrVO₃, respectively. 19 Brahlek et al. also reported that the lattice constants were minimized when defect densities were lowest and SrVO₃ was stoichiometric.¹⁷ In this sense, the 77-nm-thick SrVO₃ film has the fewest defect densities, i.e., the highest stoichiometry [Fig. 2(g)]. The lattice parameters for bulk $SrVO_3$ crystals are $a = 3.842 \,\text{Å}$ for cubic phase, 4 and a = 6.156 Å, b = 7.701 Å, c = 5.367 Å for orthorhombic phase. 12





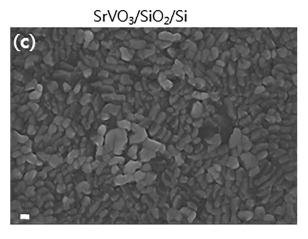


Fig. 1. FE-SEM images of SrVO₃ films (thickness: 77 nm) grown on (a) LSAT, (b) LaAlO₃, and (c) SiO₃/Si substrates. The marker size denotes 100 nm.

Figure 2(h) shows the size of the nanocrystallites estimated from the FWHM of the (210) XRD peak. The Scherrer equation was employed as follows:

$$d = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \,, \tag{1}$$

where K is the shape factor (= 0.9), λ is the x-ray wavelength of the Cu K α line, β is the FWHM in radians, θ is the Bragg angle, and d is the mean nanocrystallite size. The nanocrystallite size was about 8 nm up to 51 nm film thickness, and then decreased abruptly to approximately 4.5 nm as the film

thickness increased further, as shown in Fig. 2(h). The average error bar was ± 0.3 nm. Since the grain sizes shown in Fig. 1 were an order of magnitude larger than the nanocrystallite size measured with XRD, the grains must be composed of smaller nanocrystallites.

We found a mixture of cubic and orthorhombic phases from SrVO3 films grown on SiO2/Si, namely, 28.97° (020), 43.59° (212), 49.27° (123) for orthorhombic SrVO3 phases; 53.17° (210) for cubic SrVO3 phases; and 55.29° (330) for the orthorhombic Sr2V2O7 peaks may be identified as a tetragonal phase of Sr2V2O7 such as 28.97° (204), 43.59° (2010), and 49.27° (1 1 13). Since orthorhombic phases of SrVO3 films are insulating, we expect that SrVO3 films grown on SiO2/Si will have higher resistance than SrVO3 films grown on LSAT. XRD showed that LSAT substrates had a dominant (400) phase with minor phases of (222), (442), and (420) (not shown here).

Figure 3 shows the HRTEM image of SrVO₃ films grown on LSAT with 90 nm film thickness: (a) cross-sectional HRTEM data and fast Fourier transform (FFT) transform from (b) Region 1 and (c) Region 2 in (a). Figure 3 shows highly crystalline SrVO₃ films grown on LSAT with (b) FFT pattern of cubic phase of ABO₃ cubic structure and (c) FFT pattern of super-structured cubic phases. We note that the satellite peaks in Fig. 3(c) arose from the formation of a super structure along the [200] direction of SrVO₃ phase. Using GATAN analysis software, we determined the direction of FFT spots, as in Fig. 3(b). We found lattice parameters of 2.771 Å (Region 1) and 2.755 Å (Region 2) for a (110) cubic SrVO₃ phase. We observed lattice parameters (100) 3.969 Å and (110) 2.773 Å from LSAT substrates using HRTEM (not shown here).²² According to FFT images of both SrVO₃ films and LSAT substrates, the SrVO₃ film orientation was [100] direction, considering the orientation of the LSAT substrate. We note that the lattice parameter 3.969 Å (100) of the LSAT substrate is larger than the reference value of 3.870 Å.²³ However, the XRD data of the LSAT substrate in this work provided the lattice parameter of (100) LSAT substrate as 3.858 Å, which is similar to the reference value. HRTEM is a local probe whereas XRD is a nonlocal probe. The large lattice parameter of 3.969 Å (100) of the LSAT substrate which was measured using HRTEM should be a local phenomenon and could be due to either local interface strain or local expansion of lattice constant due to oxygen vacancy.

Figure 4 shows (a) the binding energy spectra of vanadium ions for $SrVO_3$ films with various thicknesses measured using XPS, and the depth profiles of $SrVO_3$ films (thickness: 77 nm) grown on (b) LSAT, (c) SiO_2/Si , and (d) LAO. We found that the V^{5+} valence state transformed to V^{4+} as the $SrVO_3$ film thicknesses increased. The valence state of the V atom in stoichiometric $SrVO_3$ films should be V^{4+} . The V^{5+} valence state is attributed to the $Sr_2V_2O_7$ phase. It appears that the surface layers of $SrVO_3$ films were oxidized to the $Sr_2V_2O_7$ phase. The binding energy of V decreased from $516.83 \, eV$ (39 nm, V^{5+}) to $516.30 \, eV$ (77 nm, V^{4+}) as the film thickness increased. The XPS depth profiles in Fig. 4(b) show that $SrVO_3$ films grown on LSAT substrates

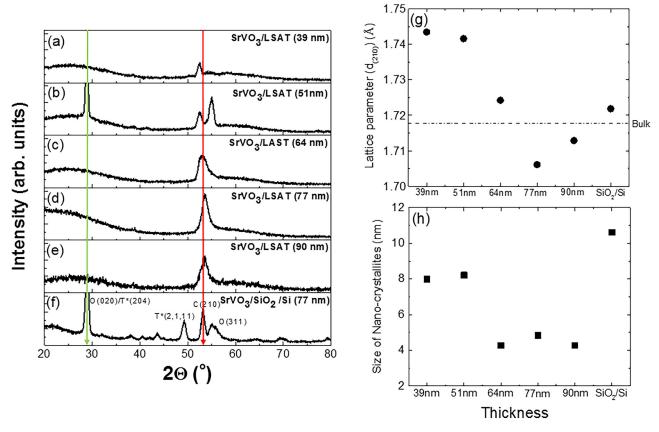


Fig. 2. GIXRD pattern of SrVO $_3$ films grown on LSAT films of thickness: (a) 39 nm, (b) 51 nm, (c) 64 nm, (d) 77 nm, (e) 90 nm, and (f) SiO $_2$ /Si substrates. (g) and (h) show the (210) lattice parameter and nanocrystallite size, respectively, as a function of SrVO $_3$ films thickness. The error bars were ± 0.002 Å and ± 0.3 nm, respectively. In (f), C and O denote cubic and orthorhombic phases, respectively, of the SrVO $_3$ film, and T* denotes tetragonal phase of the Sr $_2$ V $_2$ O $_7$ film. In (g), dashed line denotes bulk value.

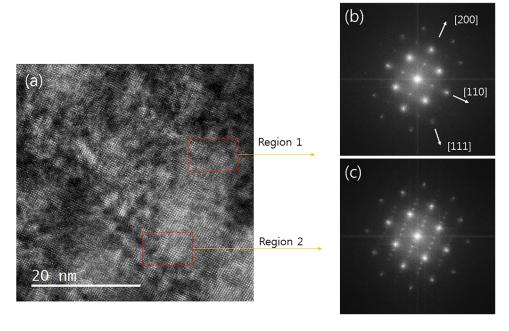


Fig. 3. HRTEM images of SrVO₃ films grown on LSAT with 90 nm thickness: (a) cross-sectional HRTEM data and FFT transform from (b) Region 1 and (c) Region 2 in (a).

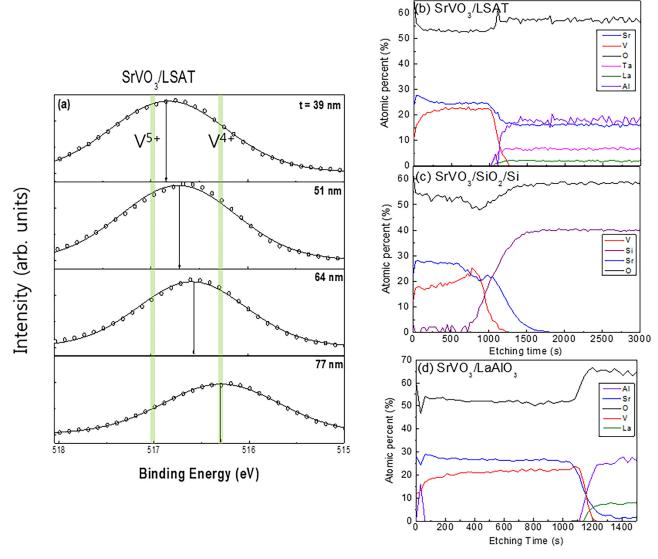


Fig. 4. (a) Binding energy spectra of vanadium ions for $SrVO_3/LSAT$ films with various thicknesses measured using XPS, and the depth profiles of $SrVO_3$ films (thickness: 77 nm) grown on (b) LSAT, (c) SiO_2/Si , and (d) $LaAlO_3$ substrates.

showed homogeneous distribution of SrVO₃ compositions and sharp interfaces between SrVO₃ films and LSAT substrates. However, we found an oxidized surface layer of about 10 nm. Furthermore, the surface composition of SrVO₃ films was V deficient with excess Sr. In Fig. 4(c), SrVO₃ films grown on SiO₂/Si substrates showed excess Sr and V deficiencies compared to SrVO₃ films grown on LSAT, as in Fig. 4(b), and showed a Sr_xSi_vO phase near interfaces. The Sr_xSi_vO_z phase near the interface is consistent with the literature. 11,15,26 Ishiwara and Jyokyu²⁶ reported that SrVO₃ films directly grown on Si form an insulating interface phase of SiSrO₃ because of Si diffusion and depletion of V atoms. Ritums et al. 13 used a YSZ buffer layer on an Si substrate to prevent the formation of an insulating Sr_xSi_vO_z interface phase. In Figs. 4(c) and 4(d), SrVO₃ films grown on SiO₂/Si (LAO) substrates showed large (small) composition gradients for Sr, V, and O atoms in the layer. Sr content had the most significant composition gradient in SrVO₃ films grown on SiO₂/Si substrates, as in Fig. 4(c). Note that SrVO₃ films grown on LAO substrates showed sharp interfaces between $SrVO_3$ films and the LAO substrates, similar to $SrVO_3$ films grown on LSAT substrates.

Figure 5 shows (a) the substrate dependence of resistivities for SrVO₃ films, (b) the thickness, and (c) the growth temperature dependence of resistivities for SrVO₃ films grown on LSAT substrates. For evaluating substrate and growth temperature dependence, the SrVO₃ film thickness was fixed at 77 nm. In Fig. 5(b), the resistivity was lowest for SrVO₃ films with a thickness of 64 nm grown on LSAT substrates at 400 °C. A growth temperature of 500 °C did not show a noticeable improvement of resistivity values. As shown in Fig. 5(a), various substrates were used to grow low resistivity SrVO₃ films; LSAT, SiO₂/Si, c- (a-, m-, r-plane) sapphire, TiO₂ (anatase phase)/Si, and LAO substrates. The smallest resistivity was $0.20 \times 10^{-3} \Omega$ cm for LSAT. In comparison, the resistivities were $3.29 \times 10^{-3} \Omega$ cm for SiO₂/Si and $4.03 \times 10^{-3} \Omega$ cm for LAO substrates. For SrVO₃ films with a 77 nm thickness, we measured resistivity as

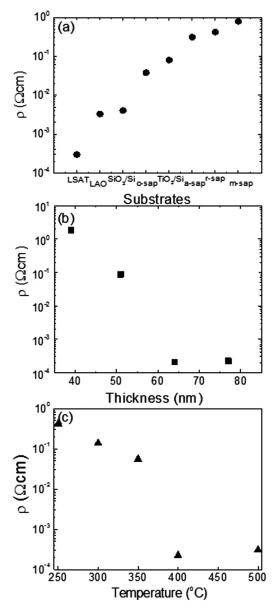


Fig. 5. (a) Substrate dependence of resistivities for SrVO₃ films, (b) thickness, and (c) growth temperature dependence of resistivities for SrVO₃ films grown on LSAT substrates.

 $\rho = 0.22 \times 10^{-3} \ \Omega$ cm, mobility as $\mu = 1.82 \ \text{cm}^2/(\text{V s})$, and carrier concentration as $N = 1.57 \times 10^{22} \text{cm}^{-3}$ using Hall effect measurements. In Table I, we summarized the electrical properties of SrVO₃ films and bulk materials grown using various methods in the literature. ^{4,5,7,14,15} The lowest resistivity values were obtained using hydride MBE, PLD, or laser MBE with LSAT or SrTiO₃ substrates.

Figure 6 shows the transmittance of SrVO₃ films grown on LSAT substrates with various film thicknesses in the visible spectral range. Transmittance in Fig. 6 reached approximately 88%, 78%, 68%, and 57% at the photon wavelength of 633 nm for SrVO₃ films with thicknesses of 39, 51, 64, and 77 nm, respectively. The transmittance of SrVO₃/LSAT films was normalized with respect to that of the LSAT substrate. Transmittance was suppressed for energies below 400 nm (i.e., above 3.1 eV), marking the onset of

strong interband optical transitions. We note that the transmittance of LSAT substrates is 80%.

We need SrVO₃ films with thickness less than 39 nm to achieve a transmittance greater than 90% at 633 nm, because of the rather large extinction coefficient k (k \approx 0.23 at λ = 500 nm) value in the visible range for SrVO₃ films. Because of the small mean free path of electron carriers in SrVO₃ films, small resistivity values persist even below 10 nm. We note that transmittance is reduced by decreasing the film thickness in several p-type TCOs such as SnO, TaIrGe, and boron phosphide, because they have weak absorption in the visible range. 32

Raman spectra showed no peaks from SrVO₃ films and showed only peaks from LSAT substrates (not shown here). This phenomenon is consistent with Raman selection rules which require no Raman-active peaks in SrVO₃ films.³³

The satellite peaks for SrVO₃ films, shown in Fig. 3(c), may arise from Jahn-Teller distortion in SrVO₃ films. Oxygen defects may cause change of valences of vanadium atoms which can induce crystal fields and generate Jahn-Teller distortion.³⁴ The Jahn-Teller distortion may have induced distortion of cubic unit cells in SrVO₃ and produced spontaneous formation of superstructures which have periodicities of four to five unit cells. In general, Jahn-Teller distortions occur in e_g systems such as perovskite manganites (e.g., $La_{1/3}Ca_{2/3}MnO_3$). ^{35,36} However, weak Jahn-Teller distortion are found in perovskite vanadates such as YVO3, LaVO₃, and SrVO₃ even though they are t_{2g} systems.^{37–39} According to HRTEM data [Fig. 3(c)], cubic SrVO₃ may have been transformed into an orthorhombic system possibly due to Jahn-Teller distortion or ordering of oxygen vacancies. More detailed HRTEM study are currently in progress to understand more accurately the origin of satellite structures. Jahn-Teller distortion is accompanied with distortion of MO₆ bonds along bond direction (i.e., along M-O direction) in e_g systems. In t_{2g} system, Jahn-Teller distortion is associated with the distortion in planar MO₄ squares, where the distortion occurs off the M-O bond direction.³⁹ Jahn-Teller distortion in ultrathin SrVO₃ films were proposed using density functional theory by Gupta et al.³⁴

XPS analysis of vanadium ion valence states for $SrVO_3$ films in Fig. 5(a) shows that the increase of the valence state ratio of V^{4+}/V^5+ is correlated with the decrease of resistivities with increasing $SrVO_3$ film thickness, as in Fig. 5(b). This phenomenon may be attributed to the amorphous $Sr_2V_2O_7$ phase (or orthorhombic $SrVO_3$ phase) that is dominant at the surface of thin " $SrVO_3$ " films, the proportion of crystalline $SrVO_3$ phase increases with increasing thickness, and the $SrVO_3$ phase is dominant for 77-nm-thick $SrVO_3$ films. This explains why the thicker $SrVO_3$ films show a lower resistivity than thinner films (Fig. 6).

The XPS depth profile analysis in Figs. 5(b) and 5(c) shows that the depth profile of SrVO₃ compositions is constant for LSAT substrates whereas those of LAO and SiO₂/Si substrates are depth-dependent. The composition gradients of Sr, V, and O atoms were negligible for SrVO₃/LSAT, were largest for SrVO₃/SiO₂/Si, and were moderate for SrVO₃/LAO. A large composition gradient means inhomogeneity of

Table I. Electrical properties of the bulk and thin film SrVO₃ at 300 K in the literature.

$\rho \\ (\times 10^{-3}\Omegacm)$	$\frac{N}{(\times 10^{22} \text{ cm}^{-3})}$	$\mu \\ [cm^2/(V s)]$	Substrate	Growth method	Reference
0.22	1.57	1.82	LSAT	Sputtering deposition	This work (thickness 77 nm)
0.03	2.26	9.0	LSAT	Hydride MBE	4
0.12	2.18	3.05	LSAT	PLD	6
0.045	3.25	0.81	SrTiO ₃	PLD	15
0.117	3.0	1.9	LSAT	Pulsed electron-beam deposition	9
0.11			LaAlO ₃	PLD	13
0.28			SrTiO ₃	PLD	27
0.34			Si	E-beam evaporation	8
0.05			SrTiO ₃	Laser MBE	14
2.5				Solid reaction (bulk)	28
0.222				Solid reaction (bulk)	29
41.8				Solid reaction (bulk)	30
0.75				Solid reaction (bulk)	31

SrVO₃ films and excess or deficiency of Sr, V, and O atoms compared to the stoichiometric SrVO₃ films. ¹⁸ In the case of LSAT substrates, SrVO₃ films and LSAT substrates were almost lattice-matched and high-quality SrVO₃ films grew without severe misfit strain. Therefore, SrVO₃/LSAT showed the smallest resistivity among SrVO₃/LAO and SrVO₃/SiO₂/Si [Fig. 5(a)]. Note that SrVO₃/SiO₂/Si produced an insulating Sr_xV_yO phase rather than a SrVO₃ phase in the interface; thus, the resistivity increased with the increase of Sr_xV_yO phase content.

In Fig. 4(a), the binding energy of V decreased from 516.83 eV (39 nm, V^{5+}) to 516.30 eV (77 nm, V^{4+}) as the film thickness increased. XPS is a surface-sensitive probe because it measures the kinetic energy of emitted electrons by incident x-ray. About 10 nm from the surface can be probed using XPS. It seems that surface oxide ($Sr_2V_2O_7$) layer thickness decreased with increasing $SrVO_3$ film thickness. Then, the volume ratio of the surface oxide layer to the main layer will decrease with increasing film thickness.

We measured resistivity as $\rho = 0.22 \times 10^{-3} \Omega$ cm, mobility as $\mu = 1.82$ cm²/(V s), and carrier concentration as

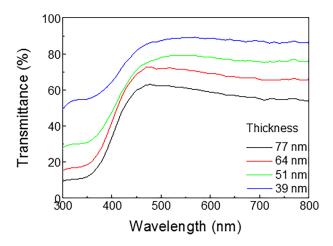


Fig. 6. Transmittance spectra of $SrVO_3$ films grown on LSAT substrates with various film thicknesses in the visible spectral range.

 $N = 1.57 \times 10^{22} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ using Hall effect measurements for SrVO₃ films with 77 nm thickness grown using RF sputtering deposition methods. The resistivity value is comparable to those of PLD-grown SrVO₃ films of Boileau et al., whereas the resistivity value is an order of magnitude larger than the resistivity of $0.03 \times 10^{-3} \Omega$ cm obtained for SrVO₃ films grown using hybrid MBE. 4,5 Boileau et al. 6 maintained that high-quality SrVO₃ films can be grown with temperatures as low as 400 °C using PLD, and that a front-end-of-line application such as TCO may be possible. Sputtering deposition method is a general-purpose deposition method and is widely used in industries because of its simplicity. This work shows that sputtering deposition of SrVO₃ films grown at 400 °C can be comparable to more sophisticated PLD-grown films, which expands the potential applications of SrVO₃ films as TCO materials.

IV. CONCLUSION

We grew transparent conductor SrVO₃ films on various substrates with commercial Sr₂V₂O₇ targets using RF magnetron sputtering deposition. We used a 25% H₂ and Ar mixed gas atmosphere during growth to obtain SrVO₃ films from Sr₂V₂O₇ targets via reduction. The lowest resistivity value of $0.20 \times 10^{-3} \Omega$ cm was obtained using almost latticematched LSAT substrates at a growth temperature of 400 °C with SrVO₃ film thickness of 64 nm. Resistivity values of 3.29×10^{-3} and $4.03 \times 10^{-3} \Omega$ cm were obtained for SiO₂/Si and LaAlO₃ substrates, respectively. Superstructures comprised of four or five unit cells were found using HRTEM and were attributed to Jahn-Teller distortion. Using x-ray photoemission spectroscopy and its depth profile analysis, we found correlation among the resistivities, V^{4+}/V^{5+} valence state ratio, and composition gradients of Sr, V, and O atoms. This work demonstrates that high-quality SrVO₃ films can be grown on LSAT substrates at temperatures as low as 400 °C as TCO films for use in high throughput and low cost indiumfree transparent electrodes.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

H.L. was supported by the National Research Foundation of Korea (No. NRF-2016R1D1A1B03930725). H.L. thanks Jong Soo Rhyee at Kyung Hee University and Woo Seok Choi at Sungkyunkwan University for discussion on Jahn-Teller distortion.

- ¹Q. Zhou, Z. Ji, B. B. Hu, C. Chen, L. Zhao, and C. Wang, Mater. Lett. **61**, 531 (2007)
- ²T. Minami, MRS Bull. **25**, 38 (2000).
- ³X. Zhang, L. Zhang, J. D. Perkins, and A. Zunger, Phys. Rev. Lett. 115, 176602 (2015).
- ⁴L. Zhang *et al.*, Nat. Mater. **15**, 204 (2016).
- ⁵J. A. Moyer, C. Eaton, and R. Engel-Herbert, Adv. Mater. 25, 3578 (2013).
- ⁶A. Boileau, A. Cheikh, A. Fouchet, A. David, R. Escobar-Galindo, C. Labbé, P. Marie, F. Gourbilleau, and U. Lüders, Appl. Phys. Lett. 112, 021905 (2018).
- ⁷B. Bérini, V. Demange, M. Bouttemy, E. Popova, N. Keller, Y. Dumont, and A. Fouchet, Adv. Mater. Interface 3, 1600274 (2016).
- ⁸B. K. Moon and H. Ishiwara, J. Cryst. Growth **162**, 154 (1996).
- ⁹M. Gu, S. A. Wolf, and J. Lu, Adv. Mater. Interface 1, 1300126 (2014).
- ¹⁰D. L. Ritums, N. J. Wu, D. Liu, Q. Zhong, Y. M. Chen, X. Zhang, P. C. Chou and A. Ignatiev, *ISAF '96. Proceedings of the Tenth IEEE International Symposium on Applied Ferroelectrics* East Brunswick, NJ, 18–23 August 1996 (IEEE, Piscataway, NJ 1996), pp. 417–420.
- ¹¹D. W. Jung, H. J. Park, C. Kwak, B. Ryu, and K. H. Lee, U.S. patent no. US 9,659,681 B2 (23 May 2017).
- ¹²A. Sharma, M. Varshney, W. C. Lim, H.-J. Shin, J. P. Singh, S. O. Won, and K. H. Chae, Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys. 19, 6397 (2017).
- ¹³D. L. Ritums, N. J. Wu, X. Chen, D. Liu, and A. Ignatiev, AIP Conf. Proc. **420**, 672 (1998).
- ¹⁴H. Nagata, T. Tsukahara, M. Yoshimoto, and H. Koinuma, Thin Solid Films 208, 264 (1992).
- ¹⁵A. Fouchet et al., Mater. Sci. Eng. B **212**, 7 (2016).
- ¹⁶H. Nagata, Thin Solid Films **224**, 1 (1993).
- ¹⁷M. Brahlek, L. Zhang, C. Eaton, H.-T. Zhang, and R. Engel-Herbert, Appl. Phys. Lett. **107**, 143108 (2015).
- ¹⁸Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards, International Center for Diffraction Data, No. 81-0119.

- ¹⁹M. J. Rey, Ph. Dehaudt, J. C. Joubert, B. Lambert-Andron, and M. Cyrot, J. Solid State Chem. 86, 101 (1990).
- ²⁰Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards, International Center for Diffraction Data. No. 32-1267.
- ²¹Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards, International Center for Diffraction Data, No.71-1593.
- ²²C. Eaton, J. A. Moyer, H. M. Alipour, E. D. Grimley, M. Brahlek, J. M. LeBeau, and R. Engel-Herbert, J. Vac. Sci. Technol. A 33, 061504 (2015).
- ²³T. N. Nunley, T. I. Willett-Gies, J. A. Cooke, F. S. Manciu, P. Marsik, C. Bernhard, and S. Zollner, J. Vac. Sci. Technol. A 34, 051507 (2016).
- ²⁴G. Silversmit, D. Depla, H. Poelman, G. B. Marin, and R. De Gryse, J. Electron Spectrosc. Relat. Phenom. 135, 167 (2004).
- ²⁵T. Miruszewski, B. Kamecki, M. Łapiński, and J. Karczewski, Mater. Chem. Phys. 212, 446 (2018).
- ²⁶H. Ishiwara and K. Jyokyu, Jpn. J. Appl. Phys. **30**, L2059 (1991).
- ²⁷Q.-R. Li, M. Major, M. B. Yazdi, W. Donner, V. H. Dao, B. Mercey, and U. Lüders, Phys. Rev. B **91**, 035420 (2015).
- ²⁸V. Giannakopoulou, P. Odier, J. M. Bassat, and J. P. Loup, Solid State Commun. **93**, 579 (1995).
- ²⁹P. Dougier, J. C. C. Fan, and T. J. B. Goodenough, J. Solid State Chem. 14, 247 (1975).
- ³⁰Y. C. Lan, X. L. Chen, and M. He, J. Alloys Compd. **354**, 95 (2003).
- ³¹T. Maekawa, K. Kurosaki, and S. Yamanaka, J. Alloys Compd. 426, 46 (2006).
- ³²L. Hu *et al.*, Adv. Electon. Mater. **4**, 1700476 (2018).
- ³³H. Makino, I. H. Inoue, M. J. Rozenberg, I. Hase, Y. Aiura, and S. Onari, Phys. Rev. B **58**, 4384 (1998).
- ³⁴K. Gupta, P. Mahadevan, P. Mavropoulos, and M. Ležaić, Phys. Rev. Lett. 111, 077601 (2013).
- ³⁵P. G. Radaelli, D. E. Cox, L. Capogna, S.-W. Cheong, and M. Marezio, Phys. Rev. B **59**, 14440 (1999).
- ³⁶A. J. Millis, Nature **392**, 147 (1998).
- ³⁷T. Mizokawa, D. I. Khomskii, and G. A. Sawatzky, Phys. Rev. B **60**, 7309 (1999).
- ³⁸H. Meley, Karandeep, L. Oberson, J. de Bruijckere, D. T. L. Alexander, J.-M. Triscone, Ph. Ghosez, and S. Gariglio, APL Mater. 6, 046102 (2018)
- ³⁹S. Maekawa, T. Tohyama, S. E. Barnes, S. Ishihara, W. Koshibae, and G. Khaliullin, *Physics of Transition Metal Oxides* (Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 2004).