Thickness and Morphology Dependent Electrical Properties of ALD-Synthesized MoS2 FETs

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MoS₂ is a layered 2D semiconductor with thickness-dependent electrical properties. Often, 6–12 nm of MoS₂ are advised to be used as the channel material in field-effect transistors (FETs) for achieving an optimal device electrical performance. However, this notion is based on exfoliated MoS₂ flakes that cannot be employed for large-area and wafer-scale applications. In this work, the thickness-dependent electrical properties of atomic layer deposition (ALD)-based MoS₂ FETs are studied. A two-step approach is used for the synthesis of MoS₂, wherein large-area and thickness-controlled MoO₃ films are initially grown using plasma-enhanced (PE-)ALD and subsequently sulfurized in H₂S gas. The number of MoO₃ PE-ALD cycles is varied systematically to obtain MoS₂ films with a thickness range of 1–10 nm. Current–voltage (I–V) characterization of the fabricated MoS₂ FETs with various channel thicknesses reveals that ≈1.2 nm MoS₂ suffices in attaining the best device electrical performance. Scanning transmission electron microscopy imaging elucidates that the synthetic MoS₂ films are polycrystalline and the resultant ≈1.2 nm of MoS₂ are not completely continuous. The empty areas in the polycrystalline MoS₂ network can serve as locations for side contact formation, leading to substantial improvements in the device metrics fabricated from such ultrathin MoS₂ films.

1. Introduction

Over the past decade, layered and 2D transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDCs) have drawn significant scientific attention as potential material candidates for next generation of nanoelectronic devices and circuits, beyond complementary metal-oxide-semiconductor.[3–6] Among the 2D TMDCs with semiconducting properties, MoS₂ is one of the most extensively studied materials, due to its abundance and its intriguing electronic features.[7,8] Field-effect transistors (FETs) based on MoS₂ have showcased unique device figures of merit, namely a high current density (I_DON) in the order of 700–1135 μA mm⁻¹,[9–11] a low sub-threshold swing close to thermionic limits (≈60 mV dec⁻¹),[12,13] a high ON/OFF current ratio in the range of 10⁷–10⁹,[14–17] high reliability,[18] and low variability.[19] One key feature of MoS₂ (and most of the other 2D TMDC semiconductors) is its layer-dependent band structure that enables tuning the electronic properties of this material. For example, bulk MoS₂ (more than eight layers) shows an indirect band gap (E_g) of 1.2 eV, whereas a single layer (monolayer) MoS₂ exhibits a direct E_g of 1.9 eV.[19–21] Such a dependence on the number of layers has been shown to strongly affect the MoS₂ FET device metrics, including its mobility,[22–28] electrical conductivity and conductance, [24,29,30] contact resistance (R_s) as well as the Schottky barrier height (SBH).[31] Based on the experimental evidences, ≈6–12 nm of MoS₂ is proposed as the optimal channel thickness to be employed in FETs.[22,23]

To date, the majority of reports covering the thickness dependent MoS₂ electrical properties are based on pristine flakes, prepared by mechanical exfoliation (cleavage). Because MoS₂ layers are held together by weak interlayer van der Waals (vdW) interactions, multilayers or even a monolayer of MoS₂ can be obtained via exfoliation. However, a precise control over the number of MoS₂ layers and its ultimate thickness may not be very straightforward using this technique. In addition, exfoliated MoS₂ flakes are not suitable for large-area and wafer-scale applications. Therefore, scalable synthesis methods such as metal-organic (MO-) chemical vapor deposition (CVD) have been employed for the preparation of MoS₂. These techniques deliver high quality MoS₂ films over large areas.[32–35] However, the high thermal budget which is typically used in their processes (high growth temperature and/or long duration) can be
a concern for the semiconductor industry. In addition, during the (MO)-CVD process, the MoS2 films are sometimes grown on substrates which are not compatible with conventional technologies (e.g., sapphire). As a result, the as-synthesized MoS2 films need to be transferred to industry-compatible substrates (e.g., SiO2/Si). The transfer process can damage MoS2 or induce undesired contaminations on/into the films.[38,39]

In recent years, atomic layer deposition (ALD) has also received interest for the growth of MoS2,[40–42] and other 2D TMDCs.[43–45] ALD is a transfer-free and low temperature cyclic technique for the deposition of thin films over large areas. This deposition method is based on sequential and self-limiting surface reactions,[46,47] whereby the film composition, thickness, uniformity, and conformality (for high aspect ratio features) can be well controlled. However, the MoS2 films grown by ALD (or any other synthetic method) unavoidably contain point/line defects, dislocations and vacancy states to some extent.[48–51] Therefore, one primary research question is whether the thickness of synthetic MoS2 films would influence its electrical properties in a similar way as observed for the exfoliated flakes or not. Earlier reports on synthetic-based MoS2 films, prepared by CVD[52] or by sulfurizing magnetron sputtered MoO3,[53] show that the number of MoS2 monolayers influences its electrical properties. However, a broad range of MoS2 thicknesses are not covered in these studies.

In this paper, we use a two-step plasma-enhanced (PE-)ALD-based approach for the growth of MoS2 films, with demonstrated thickness-control down to sub-monolayer regime.[44,45] Initially, series of MoOx films with a variety of thicknesses are grown using PE-ALD. Then, these films are sulfurized in H2S gas. Employing this approach improves the crystallization degree of the final MoS2 films,[45] compared to the direct PE-ALD of MoS2.[40] In addition, it allows us to still benefit from the ultimate thickness-control feature of PE-ALD in the resultant MoS2 films, which may not be fully achieved by some other synthesis methods such as CVD. We evaluate the thickness dependence of our MoS2 film electrical properties through the fabrication and current–voltage (I–V) characterization of back-gate FETs. Furthermore, we investigate the MoS2 film microstructure, coverage and morphology by top-view scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) imaging. Our findings highlight the importance of independently re-evaluating the optimum channel thickness for the synthetic-based MoS2 FETs. They also show that the influence of the MoS2 film morphology on the final device electrical properties should not be underestimated.

2. Results and Discussion

2.1. The As-Synthesized MoS2 Films

A series of MoOx films were initially grown by means of PE-ALD at 50 °C and subsequently sulfurized in H2S gas at 900 °C for 45 min. Using this synthesis approach, monolayers and multilayers of MoS2 with an interlayer spacing of ≈0.6 nm can be achieved. Details of the MoS2 film specifications and processing conditions are published in a previous work.[45]

The thicknesses of the initial MoOx films were controlled by the number of PE-ALD cycles, which were ranging from 10 to 160 cycles. In situ spectroscopic ellipsometry (SE), it was found that there is a linear relation between the MoOx film thickness and the number of PE-ALD cycles (saturated growth). The growth per cycle (GPC) of the MoOx films was therefore determined to be ≈0.6 Å at 50 °C. Based on this GPC, a MoOx thickness range of ≈0.6–12.4 nm was obtained for 10–160 PE-ALD number of cycles. After the sulfurization process, the thicknesses of the final MoS2 films were measured using ex situ SE. A thickness extent of ≈1.2–9.8 nm MoS2 was obtained for 20–160 PE-ALD cycles of initial MoOx. Overall, the final MoS2 films were thinner than the initial MoOx counterparts. This is most likely due to the MoOx sublimation[49] that can occur during the sulfurization process at elevated temperatures. A summary of both the MoOx and MoS2 thicknesses are provided in Table S1 in the Supporting Information. To validate the SE data for ultrathin films of MoS2, atomic force microscopy (AFM) line-profiles are measured. The results are shown in Figure S1 in the Supporting Information, revealing that the MoS2 thickness values obtained from the SE measurements are reasonably in accordance with the AFM measurements.

A general quality inspection of the as-synthesized MoS2 films was performed using Raman and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The Raman data are shown in Figure 1a for various MoS2 thicknesses (initial MoOx number of PE-ALD cycles). The

![Figure 1](image-url)
measurements clearly confirm the presence of the two characteristic MoS$_2$ vibrational modes ($A_{1g}$ and $E_{12g}$) even for the ultrathin MoS$_2$ films. The Mo 3d core level spectrum of the entire MoS$_2$ thickness series, obtained from the XPS measurements, is also provided in Figure 1b. The peak binding energies were calibrated with respect to the C 1s adventitious carbon peak, set to 284.8 eV. As can be clearly seen, the major Mo 3d doublet peaks (related to the Mo$^{4+}$ oxidation state (MoS$_2$)) are present for all the studied cases. The Mo 3d$_{5/2}$ core level binding energies are in the range of 229.7–229.8 eV and the Mo 3d$_{3/2}$ in the range of 232.8–232.9 eV. Signature of the S 2s core level is also discernible at 226.8–226.9 eV. All of these binding energy ranges are in accordance with what is often reported in the literature for the Mo 3d spectrum of MoS$_2$.[37,51,56] In addition, no significant concentration of the Mo 3d in Mo$^{6+}$ oxidation state is detected, implying that the MoO$_x$ films are efficiently sulfurized upon their exposure to the H$_2$S gas. For further clarifications, the fitted Mo 3d and O 1s spectra of the 20-, 60- and 160-cycle cases are provided in Figure S2a,b in the Supporting Information. The efficient sulfurization of the MoS$_2$ films obtained from this approach is also further verified by cross-sectional STEM imaging, provided in a previous work.[45]

2.2. Device $I$–$V$ Analysis

To evaluate the MoS$_2$ electrical performance, back-gate FETs with different MoS$_2$ thicknesses were fabricated and characterized. An optical microscopy image of these devices are shown in Figure 2a. In our previous studies, we optimized the Ti/Au contacts[57] and the dielectric capping layer on $\approx$3.7 nm thick MoS$_2$ channels (60 cycles of initial MoO$_x$). Therefore, we consider the devices made from $\approx$3.7 nm MoS$_2$ as the reference case throughout our $I$–$V$ analyses. Furthermore, the MoS$_2$ films obtained from 10 cycles of initial MoO$_x$ were too resistive and by no means measurable when employed in FETs. As a result, this channel thickness is excluded from our device electrical characterization.

Figure 2b,c shows the transfer curves ($I_{DS}$–$V_{GS}$) of the fabricated MoS$_2$ FETs with different channel thicknesses (number of initial MoO$_x$ PE-ALD cycles) in linear and semilog scales, respectively. The data are normalized to the channel width of 1 µm. As can be seen in Figure 2b, the ON-state current ($I_{ON}$) is the highest for the devices made from 20 and 30 cycles of initial MoO$_x$. The OFF-state current ($I_{OFF}$) is better visible in Figure 2c, which is the lowest only for the 15- and 20-cycle cases.

To further elucidate the MoS$_2$ FET electrical characteristics, statistical measurements were performed on the fabricated devices. Figure 3a shows the average $I_{ON}$ as a function of the initial MoO$_x$ PE-ALD number of cycles and MoS$_2$ thickness. The data are obtained by measuring three-four devices at different locations on each sample. As can be seen from the plot, upon reducing the MoS$_2$ thickness or the initial MoO$_x$ number of deposition cycles from 60 (reference) down to 15, a non-monotonic trend is observed. $I_{ON}$ increases at least one order of magnitude and reaches 10.0 µA µm$^{-1}$ for the devices with 30 cycles of initial MoO$_x$. Then, it drops to 0.5 µA µm$^{-1}$ for the devices with 15 cycles of initial MoO$_x$. On the other side of the spectrum, thicker MoS$_2$ channels demonstrate a degraded $I_{ON}$, as compared with the reference.

The mean maximum field-effect mobility ($\mu_{FE}$) is also provided in Figure 3b. This value can be extracted from the following equation[58]

$$\mu_{FE} = (L / W)(g_m / (C_{ox}V_{DS}))$$

In Equation (1), $L$ and $W$ are the length and width of the channel, $g_m$ is the transconductance, and $C_{ox}$ is the back-oxide
can be derived from the slope of the transfer curve (at each measured $V_{DS}$) and $C_{ox}$ from the following equation\[58\]

$$C_{ox} = \frac{\varepsilon_{SiO_{2}} \varepsilon_{o}}{t_{ox}}$$\(2\)

In Equation (2), $\varepsilon_{SiO_{2}}$ and $\varepsilon_{o}$ are the SiO$_2$ relative dielectric constant and vacuum permittivity, respectively, and $t_{ox}$ is the SiO$_2$ thickness. Similar to the mean $I_{ON}$, the mean maximum $\mu_{FE}$ shows a nonmonotonic trend with varying the channel thickness. As can be seen from Figure 3b, for the devices with only 30 cycles of initial MoO$_x$ (equal to $\approx 1.6$ nm MoS$_2$) the mean maximum $\mu_{FE}$ reaches $\approx 0.8$ cm$^2$/V s, which is at least eight times more than the reference case. On the other hand, for the devices with thicker MoS$_2$ films, $\mu_{FE}$ falls substantially below that of the reference. Such a nonmonotonic trend for $\mu_{FE}$ has also been observed previously by Das et al.\[22,23\], Li et al.\[28\] and Lin et al.\[24\] in exfoliated-based MoS$_2$ FETs which were not capped by any dielectric layer.

Das et al. have proposed a resistor network model for explaining the observed nonmonotonic behavior of $\mu_{FE}$\[23\]. Based on their findings, for less than 6 nm of MoS$_2$, $\mu_{FE}$ is mainly degraded by Coulombic scattering. In fact, the screening efficiency against the Coulombic scattering potentials is relatively low in ultrathin MoS$_2$ films of only a few monolayers, and the scattering rates are high\[28\] especially if no dielectric capping layer is employed\[14,59-61\]. For such cases, there are not many outer layers present to shield the bottom MoS$_2$ layers from the interfacial Coulombic scattering sources (e.g., substrate surface dangling bonds, charged impurities and environmental adsorbates). Furthermore, bottom MoS$_2$ layers are considered as the most electrically active layers in back-gate device geometry. As a result, when a few layer MoS$_2$ is not well protected, a degraded device performance can be observed.

For more than 12 nm of MoS$_2$, Das et al. highlighted the role of interlayer resistance ($R_{int}$)\[21,62\] as the dominating mobility degrading mechanism. Because layers in a multilayer MoS$_2$ are held together by weak vdW interactions, a tunneling barrier is present in between the individual layers. This barrier contributes to the total resistance and negatively influences the carrier transport from the source/drain contacts to the lower layers of MoS$_2$. $R_{int}$ is estimated to be 2.0 k$\Omega$ $\mu$m between two layers of MoS$_2$\[63\]. Therefore, Das et al. suggested an optimal thickness window of 6–12 nm of MoS$_2$ for harvesting the most from the
MoS2-based FETs. This advice is often followed by the research community. However, using the proposed thickness range for our synthetic MoS2 films led to a highly degraded device electrical behavior, as evidenced from Figure 3a,b.

Based on our analyses, only ≈1.2–1.6 nm of MoS2 is adequate for achieving the most optimal ON-state performance in our fabricated devices, pin-pointing the principal differences between the exfoliated-based MoS2 flakes and the synthetic-based counterparts. In addition to the actual dissimilarities between the MoS2 preparation methods in our study and that of Das et al., it is important to mention that we grew a dielectric capping layer of AlOx/HfOx (5/25 nm) on our devices. The dielectric capping layer is well-known for suppressing the Coulombic scattering on/in MoS2[60] and inducing dopants to the MoS2 conduction band minimum (Eg)[9,17,64] partially explaining the observed device performance improvements for our relatively thin MoS2 channels.

Figure 3c statistically illustrates the mean I_{OFF}. Overall, reducing the initial MoOx number of deposition cycles from 160 to 15 improves I_{OFF} by nearly two orders of magnitude. As can be seen, I_{OFF} drops from 26.8 nA μm^{-1} (for the devices with 160 cycles of initial MoOx) down to 0.3 nA μm^{-1} (for the devices with both 20 and 15 cycles of initial MoOx). This is first because by scaling down the MoS2 thickness, the back-gate electrostatic control over the channel increases. Therefore, the gate can more efficiently deplete the channel in the OFF-state regime, as it has especially better control over the dopants induced by the dielectric capping layer from the top.[65,66] Second, the MoS2 Eg is known to increase with reducing its number of monolayers, due to quantum confinement effects[67] As a result, the band edge position of MoS2 changes with respect to the Ti/Au contact work function, leading to a higher SBH for thinner MoS2 films.[13] In the OFF-state regime, the carrier injection from the contacts to MoS2 is mainly governed by thermionic emission from the Schottky barrier[62,65] (which is higher for thinner MoS2 films[13]) partly explaining the I_{OFF} reduction with reducing the MoS2 thickness. The OFF-state current dependence on Eg also has been observed previously for ultrathin (=2 nm) disordered Si channels in thin-film transistors, where I_{OFF} is shown to be related to Eg by an exponentially decaying factor.[68]

Finally, the average ON/OFF current ratios are displayed in Figure 3d. As can be seen, this ratio maximizes only for the devices with 20 cycles of initial MoOx (equal to ≈1.2 nm MoS2). For these cases, the ON/OFF current ratio improves two orders of magnitude (as compared with the reference) and reaches more than 2 × 10^4. Therefore, ≈1.2 nm of MoS2 is considered as the most optimal channel thickness for our fabricated FETs.

The double sweep transfer curve of the most optimal case is also compared with respect to the reference, as shown in Figure 4. In addition to the enhanced device metrics for the ≈1.2 nm thick MoS2 FETs, the threshold voltage (V_T) shifts to more negative values, implying an increase in the n-type doping concentration of MoS2 by reducing its thickness (while maintaining the OFF-state current to low values).

The repeatability of the data provided in Figure 3 is worthwhile being investigated as well. Therefore, a second set of MoS2 FETs from 20, 60, and 80 cycles of initial MoOx were fabricated and characterized. The obtained values for the device metrics are similar to what is shown in Figure 3 as the first set, and the devices with ≈1.2 nm MoS2 (60 cycles of initial MoOx) again outperform the reference. See Section S4 in the Supporting Information and the associated discussion.

2.3. STEM Analysis for Ultrathin MoS2

To further elucidate the observed trends for the devices made from ultrathin MoS2 channels, the microstructure, morphology, and the surface coverage of such films were evaluated. For this purpose, STEM imaging was performed on the MoS2 films with 10, 15, and 20 PE-ALD cycles of initial MoOx.

Figure 5a–c displays high angle annular dark field (HAADF) top view STEM images of the resultant MoS2 films, for the as-mentioned number of initial MoOx PE-ALD cycles. Selected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns, acquired from ≈0.6 μm diameter areas, are also provided as the inset.

In Figure 5a, the MoS2 film obtained from sulfurizing 10 cycles of PE-ALD MoOx exhibits quite a uniform and almost continuous surface coverage, with few small pinholes (dark areas). In addition, two closed and continuous rings are observed in the SAED pattern, implying that many nanosized crystals are contributing to the film texture. Both the surface coverage and the film crystallinity are more evident in a higher resolution STEM image, provided in Figure 5d. On average, the grain size does not exceed above 20 nm. This is more clearly shown in Figure S4a,b of the Supporting Information.

On the other hand, the MoS2 film obtained from sulfurizing 15 cycles of PE-ALD MoOx demonstrates a percolated network[69] of crystallites, as evidenced in Figure 5b. The detection of brighter rings in the SAED pattern also reveals that the film is more crystalline than the 10-cycle case, although the resultant MoS2 fails to completely cover the entire SiO2 substrate. In addition, the concentric rings are less continuous, implying that less grains are present in the selected area, as the average grain size becomes larger for the 15-cycle case than the 10-cycle counterpart. For better visualizing the film morphology, a higher resolution HAADF-STEM image is also provided in Figure 5e. As can be seen, despite the incomplete surface.
coverage, the grain domains are still connected. In addition, the average grain size slightly increases compared with the 10-cycle case. The latter is more clearly displayed in Figure S4c,d of the Supporting Information.

Considering the MoS\textsubscript{2} film obtained from sulfurizing 20 cycles of PE-ALD MoO\textsubscript{x} (Figure 5c,f), the polycrystalline network expands further than the 15-cycle case. The fraction of dark areas on the substrate also reduces while the grain domains still maintain their connection. See Figure S4e,f in the Supporting Information for higher magnification STEM images. Moreover, the average grain size increases, as apparent from the discontinuous nature of the rings in the SAED pattern. With further increasing the number of initial MoO\textsubscript{x} deposition cycles to 60, a fully closed and polycrystalline MoS\textsubscript{2} film can be achieved upon the sulfurization process, where grain domains expand to an average size of 70 nm. The 60-cycle case is not shown here, as it has already been studied in our previous work.\cite{45}

We do also take note that before the sulfurization process, the initial PE-ALD MoO\textsubscript{x} films (grown at 50 °C) are all amorphous and fully/uniformly cover the SiO\textsubscript{2} substrates.\cite{70}

In addition to the HAADF-STEM images, the STEM-energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) elemental mappings of Mo and S are provided in Figure 6. The analysis confirms that the MoS\textsubscript{2} layer formed after sulfurizing 10 cycles of PE-ALD MoO\textsubscript{x} covers the SiO\textsubscript{2} substrate quite homogeneously and has only few pinholes. By increasing the number of MoO\textsubscript{x} deposition cycles to 15 and 20, the surface coverage of the final MoS\textsubscript{2} film initially reduces then increases again. The elemental mappings of the 15- and 20-cycle cases also verify that the dark areas in the images are empty spots with no Mo or S, above the EDX detection limit. This is further elucidated in the Supporting Information. See Figure S5 in the Supporting Information and the associated discussion.

To elaborate the STEM observations, one can realize few transitions with regards to the MoS\textsubscript{2} film texture. By sequentially increasing the number of initial MoO\textsubscript{x} PE-ALD cycles, first, a homogeneous ultrathin MoS\textsubscript{2} film of nanosized crystals (10-cycle case) then, a percolated network of crystallites (15- and 20-cycle cases) and finally, a fully closed polycrystalline MoS\textsubscript{2} film (60-cycle case) is achieved upon the sulfurization process. To clarify the observed texture evolution, we hypothesize that the two following mechanisms can concurrently take place when the PE-ALD grown MoO\textsubscript{x} films are exposed to H\textsubscript{2}S gas at elevated temperatures: MoO\textsubscript{x} sublimation\cite{54} and MoO\textsubscript{x} sulfurization.\cite{50} The former is known to start at temperatures above 470 °C.\cite{54}

For ultrathin layers of MoO\textsubscript{x} (10-cycle case which leads to a monolayer MoS\textsubscript{2}\cite{45}), all the Mo atoms are situated on the substrate surface. Therefore, it is presumed that the entire MoO\textsubscript{x} film reacts with H\textsubscript{2}S and sulfurizes, leading to an almost continuous, polycrystalline and ultrathin MoS\textsubscript{2} film with few small pinholes. The noted pinholes are most likely originating from the minor MoO\textsubscript{x} sublimation during the synthesis process.\cite{54}

For thicker MoO\textsubscript{x} films (15- and 20-cycle cases), not all the Mo atoms reside on the substrate surface any longer, and H\textsubscript{2}S gas needs to diffuse through the inner layers and react with them.\cite{50} Therefore, in the beginning of the process, only the top layer MoO\textsubscript{x} sulfurizes. The underlying MoO\textsubscript{x} which is not directly exposed to H\textsubscript{2}S, partly sublimes and leaves through the sulfurized top surface. This causes the film to break up and

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**Figure 5.** a–c) STEM images in high angle annular dark field (HAADF) mode for ultrathin MoS\textsubscript{2} films obtained from 10, 15, and 20 cycles of initial PE-ALD MoO\textsubscript{x}. The inset of each image corresponds to the selected area electron diffraction pattern (SAED), acquired from ≈0.6 μm diameter areas, (d-f) are higher magnification mode HAADF-STEM images for the as-mentioned cases.
form the observed percolated network. For the 60-cycle case, the MoO$_x$ sublimation rate is most likely not high enough to result in the film dewetting, and sulfurization is dominating. Therefore, as reported in our previous work,[45] a closed MoS$_2$ film is achieved.

The STEM imaging assessments bring our attention to several notable points with regards to the electrical performance of our ultrathin MoS$_2$ FETs. In the MoS$_2$ films obtained from sulfurizing 10 PE-ALD cycles of MoO$_x$, many nanosized crystals are contributing to the texture (Figure 5a-inset,d). However, the grain domain sizes are maximum 20 nm (Figure S4a,b, Supporting Information). This explains our failure in demonstrating a working FET for the 10-cycle case, as the MoS$_2$ films with only 20 nm crystalline domains are generally highly resistive. After sulfurizing 15 PE-ALD cycles of MoO$_x$, a percolated MoS$_2$ network with slightly bigger crystalline domains than the 10-cycle case is obtained (Figure 5b,e), which are well-connected (Figure S4c,d, Supporting Information). A working FET could be demonstrated. However, the device metrics are not as intriguing as to when the initial MoO$_x$ PE-ALD cycles increase to 20 (Figure 3a–d), pinpointing the importance of MoS$_2$ surface coverage at least up to some extent (Figure 5c,f) as well as the expansion of grain domains for attaining a decent device performance.

The MoS$_2$ films obtained from sulfurizing 20 PE-ALD cycles of MoO$_x$ led to the most optimal device electrical performance (lowest achieved $I_{OFF}$ and second-best $I_{ON}$) among all the studied cases. However, such ultrathin MoS$_2$ films are polycrystalline and not continuous. It is presumed that in addition to the grain size increase, formation of side contacts to MoS$_2$ from the film discontinuous regions (during the metallization step of the device processing) plays a role in the observed device electrical improvements. A combination of side and top contact geometry is known to improve the overall electrical performance of the MoS$_2$ FETs.[71–74] In the case of MoS$_2$ obtained from 20 PE-ALD cycles of MoO$_x$, we benefit from the open empty areas in the polycrystalline network. These spots seem to serve as locations for the formation of side contacts (in addition to the top contacts) once Ti/Au is evaporated. Therefore, compared to our reference case (with $\approx$3.7 nm thick MoS$_2$) the ON-state device metrics improve substantially when $\approx$1.2 nm MoS$_2$ (20 cycles of initial MoO$_x$) is employed as the channel.
Altogether, the electrical properties of synthetic-based MoS$_2$ FETs demonstrate a strong dependence on the MoS$_2$ film morphology (parallel to the MoS$_2$ thickness) which should not be underestimated when analyzing the $I$–$V$ results. Unlike the exfoliated counterparts, only $\approx 1.2$ nm of MoS$_2$ is sufficient for obtaining the most optimal device electrical performance.

3. Conclusions

To conclude, our work shows that with varying the PE-ALD cycles of MoO$_x$, the final MoS$_2$ film thickness can be precisely controlled, and the electrical properties of the fabricated MoS$_2$ FETs can be tuned. By reducing the MoS$_2$ thickness down to $\approx 1.2$ nm (reducing the PE-ALD cycles of MoO$_x$ down to 20) the device metrics improve substantially. From the electrical standpoint, these observed improvements are partly associated with the higher degree of gate electrostatic control over thinner MoS$_2$ channels, which specifically manifests itself in the device OFF-state regime. An in-depth analysis of the film microstructure provides further insights into the electrical observations and reveals that the thickness dependent electrical properties of the fabricated MoS$_2$ FETs are also highly governed by a morphological effect. Utilization of only $\approx 1.2$ nm MoS$_2$ leads to the best device electrical performance. Such ultrathin synthesized MoS$_2$ films are shown to be discontinuous. The discontinuous nature of ultrathin MoS$_2$ can allow for side contact formation once the metallic contacts are evaporated, partly explaining the observed ON-state improvements in the device figures of merit. Our findings highlight that an independent re-evaluation of the observed ON-state improvements in the device figures of merit provides further insights into the electrical observations and reveals that the thickness dependent electrical properties of ultrathin MoS$_2$ can allow for side contact formation once the metallic contacts are evaporated, partly explaining the observed ON-state improvements in the device figures of merit.

4. Experimental Section

MoS$_2$ Synthesis: The MoS$_2$ films were synthesized by a two-step approach, whereby large-area MoO$_x$ films of various thicknesses (deposition cycles) were initially deposited using PE-ALD.[70] in an Oxford instruments ALD reactor (FlexAl) at 50 °C, on highly doped ($p^+$) Si substrates which were thermally coated with $\approx 285$ nm SiO$_2$. The as-deposited MoO$_x$ films were then sulfurized in H$_2$S/Ar (10%/90%) atmosphere at 900 °C for 45 min, in a home-built tube furnace. The entire details of the film synthesis conditions and other specifications, such as the film morphology, thickness and interlayer spacing (measured by AFM and cross-sectional STEM respectively) as well as photoluminescence data for ultrathin layers of MoS$_2$ are reported in a previous study.[43]

Film Thickness Measurement: During the PE-ALD of MoO$_x$, in situ SE (J.A. Woollam Co., Inc. M-2000FI, 0.75–5 eV) was performed, to measure the film thickness and the GPC. After the sulfurization process, the obtained MoS$_2$ film thicknesses were once more inspected by ex situ SE (J.A. Woollam Co., Inc. M-2000D, 1.25–6.5 eV). The collected data for both in situ MoO$_x$ and ex situ MoS$_2$ SE measurements were analyzed with Complete EASE software and its embedded fitting models ($\alpha$u, for MoO$_x$ and B-spline for MoS$_2$). It was noted that the thickness data obtained by the SE measurements are reasonably in accordance with the results from the AFM measurements that are already reported in the previous work.[43] The AFM line-profile of the ultrathin MoS$_2$ films are also provided in Figure S1 in the Supporting Information, for further confirmation.

General MoS$_2$ Film Inspections: The quality of the as-synthesized MoS$_2$ films of various thicknesses was inspected using Raman and XPS analyses. The setup used for the Raman analysis was Renishaw InVia confocal Raman microscope, equipped with a 514 nm laser, an integrated switchable grating of 600 or 1800 lines mm$^{-1}$ and a charge coupled device detector. During the Raman scans, five accumulations with an acquisition time of 10 s were taken, using a laser power of $< 0.2$ mW focused on a $\approx 1 \mu$m region. For the XPS analysis, Thermo Scientific K-alpha KAI066 spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) with a monochromatic Al Kx X-ray radiation source ($hv = 1486.6$ eV) was utilized. An X-ray beam spot size of 400 μm, at a take-off angle of 60° and a pass energy of 50 eV were selected for the measurements. An electron flood gun was also used for correcting the nonuniform and differential charging on the samples. The acquired spectra were chemically quantified and deconvoluted with Avantage software. All the peak binding energies were calibrated with respect to the C 1s adventitious carbon peak (284.8 eV).

Characterization of MoS$_2$ FETs: Back-gate FETs were fabricated for series of MoS$_2$ thicknesses using standard electron beam lithography (EBL). An organic resist (poly(methyl methacrylate)) (PMMA) A4, 950 K was initially spin-coated on MoS$_2$ films for 60 s, with a spin speed of 4000 rpm and eventually baked on a hot plate for 5 min at 180 °C. EBL was then employed for defining the contact windows using RAITH micrograph (EBPG 5150), followed by a development step in a resist developer solution (methyl isobutyl ketone/isopropyl alcohol, [1:3] ratio) to dissolve/open the exposed regions. Next, 5/95 nm of Ti/Au was evaporated using an e-beam evaporator at room temperature, with a deposition rate of 1 Å s$^{-1}$ and a base pressure of $\approx 4 \times 10^{-7}$ mbar (near ultrahigh vacuum). Based on a previous work,[71] 5/95 nm of Ti/Au is found to be the most optimal thickness combination for the contacts to the ALD-based MoS$_2$. After metallization, a standard lift-off process was pursued for contact delineation. This was done by overnight submerging the samples into acetone and subsequently removing the Ti/Au together with PMMA from the unexposed areas. For defining the channel regions and isolating the individual device blocks, a second EBL patterning/development was required. These steps were followed by dry etching the MoS$_2$ with SF$_6$/O$_2$ plasma gas mixture of 16/4 sccm flow rates for 20 s, at room-temperature and a pressure of 22.5 mTorr, with a forward power of 25 W, in an Oxford Instruments Reactive Ion Etching reactor. The PMMA was then completely removed by soaking the samples again into acetone. Finally, the fabricated devices were capped with 5/25 nm of thermal ALD AlO$_x$/PE-ALD HfO$_x$[79] grown at 100 °C (in the FlexAl reactor).

Electrical Characterization: The electrical performance of the back-gate MoS$_2$ FETs with different channel thicknesses was evaluated on a 500 nm long and 1 μm wide channel dimensions. The current voltage ($I$–$V$) measurements were performed in a cryogenic probe station (Janis ST-500) at room temperature and a base pressure of $\approx 1.9 \times 10^{-8}$ mbar, connected to a Keithley 4200-semiconductor characterization system parameter analyzer.

Structural Characterization: The microstructure, morphology, and surface coverage of the MoS$_2$ films were evaluated by STEM imaging. For this purpose, a JEOL atomic resolution microscope 200 F operated at 200 kV and equipped with a 100 mm$^2$ Centurio silicon drift detector EDX spectroscopy detector was employed. Electron transparent SiN TEM windows coated with $\approx 5$ nm ALD SiO$_2$ were used as the imaging substrates, on which various MoS$_2$ thicknesses were grown with a similar synthesis method as mentioned above.

Supporting Information

Supporting Information is available from the Wiley Online Library or from the author.
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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Data Availability Statement

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

Keywords

atomic layer deposition (ALD), current–voltage (I–V) characterization, field-effect transistors (FETs), MoS2, scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM)

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