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Atomically Thin Al₂O₃ Films for Tunnel Junctions

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Metal-insulator-metal tunnel junctions are common throughout the microelectronics industry. The industry standard AlO₃ tunnel barrier, formed through oxygen diffusion into an Al wetting layer, is plagued by internal defects and pinholes which prevent the realization of atomically thin barriers demanded for enhanced quantum coherence. In this work, we employ in situ scanning tunneling microscopy along with molecular-dynamics simulations to understand and control the growth of atomically thin Al₂O₃ tunnel barriers using atomic-layer deposition. We find that a carefully tuned initial H₂O pulse hydroxylated the Al surface and enabled the creation of an atomically thin Al₂O₃ tunnel barrier with a high-quality M-I interface and a significantly enhanced barrier height compared to thermal AlO₃. These properties, corroborated by fabricated Josephson junctions, show that atomic-layer deposition Al₂O₃ is a dense, leakage-free tunnel barrier with a low defect density which can be a key component for the next generation of metal-insulator-metal tunnel junctions.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Metal-insulator-metal (M-I-M) tunnel junctions are fundamental building blocks for microelectronics including magnetic tunnel junctions for spintronics and fast-access nonvolatile magnetic memory, and Josephson junctions (JJs) for particle detectors, magnetic field sensors, and qubits for quantum computation. The performance of M-I-M tunnel junctions depends critically on the quality of the insulating tunnel barrier [1]. Considering native oxides can naturally form on the surface of most metals, producing an atomically thin, uniform, and pinhole-free tunnel barrier represents a major challenge in the research of M-I-M tunnel junctions. In Nb-Al/AlO₃/Nb JJs, for example, an ultrathin (<1 nm) tunnel barrier is the key to preserving phase coherence across the superconducting Nb electrodes, since the critical current ($I_c$) through the JJ exponentially decays with the barrier thickness [2]. Thermal oxidation has been the industry standard to produce AlO₃ tunnel barriers for JJs through in situ oxygen diffusion into an Al wetting layer [Fig. 1(a)] [3]. However, this diffusion-mediated process has difficulty achieving a uniform tunnel barrier with a well-defined thickness [4]. Despite successful commercial applications of these JJs in devices such as superconducting quantum interference devices and voltage standards, two-level defects (TLDs) in the AlO₃ tunnel barrier are one of the major sources of decoherence in superconducting qubits [5].

Atomic-layer deposition (ALD) is a promising alternative for the synthesis of atomically thin tunnel barriers for high-performance M-I-M tunnel junctions. ALD is a chemical vapor process that utilizes self-limited surface reactions to grow films one atomic layer at a time [Fig. 1(b)]. Specifically, ALD Al₂O₃ consists of a series of alternating precursor pulses of H₂O and trimethylaluminum which react at the sample’s surface [6]. This process results in a fully oxidized, uniform, and pinhole-free Al₂O₃ film with atomic-scale thickness control. In addition, its reduced bulk loss tangent implies that JJs with ALD Al₂O₃ tunnel barriers may have a significantly reduced TLD density [7]. However, precise ALD growth and nucleation on metals remains challenging. The M-I-M tunnel-junction electrode and tunnel-barrier deposition must be carried out in situ.
without breaking vacuum to avoid native oxides. ALD nucleation on inert metal surfaces, such as Pt and Au, can be completely frustrated for the first 30–50 cycles of alternating precursor pulses, whereas for reactive metals, such as Al, even in situ–deposited films can acquire an interfacial layer (IL) of AlOₓ up to approximately 2 nm thick [8–10]. In a previous work, fabricated Nb-Al/AlₓOᵧ/Nb JJs using in situ ALD of AlₓO₃ had an IL > 0.5 nm in thickness, which was attributed to poor vacuum pressure (approximately 500 m Torr) during sample transfer and pre-ALD sample heating [9,11,12]. This IL prevented the realization of truly atomically thin tunnel barriers and led to poor-quality JJs. Herein, we resolve these challenges by performing the sample transfer and pre-ALD heating under high vacuum (HV) and report a successful fabrication of atomically thin ALD AlₓO₃ tunnel barriers. In situ scanning tunneling spectroscopy (STS) is employed to probe the growth mechanisms and physical properties of the ALD AlₓO₃ tunnel barriers and JJs are fabricated to illustrate the viability of ALD AlₓO₃ tunnel barriers for M-I-M tunnel junctions.

II. EXPERIMENTAL

For samples which underwent in situ STS characterization, a bilayer of Nb (20 nm)/Al (7 nm) is magnetron sputtered onto a Si/Au (50 nm) substrate which is mechanically clamped to the sample stage to serve as the ground contact for the scanning tunneling microscope (STM) from RHK Technology. The Au is thermally evaporated onto an updoped Si wafer with a native oxide. An ex situ atomic force microscope measures its surface roughness to be approximately 1.2 nm. Immediately following the Al sputtering, an aluminum-oxide tunnel barrier is formed by either thermal oxidation or ALD. For the thermal-oxidation samples, ultrahigh purity 99.993% O₂ is introduced to the sputtering chamber for an oxygen exposure of 1150, 1020, and 42 torr s, respectively. The samples with ALD tunnel barriers are transferred to a preheated ALD chamber and then heated for 75 or 15 min to a temperature of 200–220 °C. Following sample heating, reagents H₂O and trimethylaluminum are pulsed into the ALD chamber for 1–3 s with a purge step between pulses to deposit the ALD AlₓO₃ tunnel barriers.

After tunnel-barrier fabrication, the samples are transferred under HV, in situ, to the STM chamber which has a pressure of approximately 2 × 10⁻¹⁰ Torr. A single mechanically cleaved Pt-Ir STM tip is used for all STS studies. Constant height I-V and dI/dV spectroscopy are taken simultaneously using the lock-in amplifier method with a voltage modulation of 100 mV at 1 kHz. The tunnel-barrier height is estimated by the intersection of two bisquare-method linear fits to ln(dI/dV) similar to the method reported in Ref. [13]. The end points for this linear fit are determined by eye. One line fits the band-gap regime, and the other fits the conduction band. This ln(dI/dV)

linear-fit method is chosen over I-V or (dI/dV)/(I/V) fit methods for its insensitivity to high noise in STS spectra [14,15]. Approximately 40–80 dI/dV spectra are taken on each sample >100 nm apart from one another in order to get reasonable statistics on the sample’s surface.

The ab initio molecular-dynamics simulations for the initial water activation pulse use a 2 × 2 supercell of face-centered-cubic Al (111) under constant equilibrium volume and temperature and adopted Bohn-Oppenheimer molecular dynamics as implemented in VASP [16–18]. The canonical ensemble simulations employ the London dispersion correction using the van der Waals density functional of Langreth and Lundqvist [19] with a high-plane-wave energy cutoff of 450 eV to ensure high precision. The electronic and ionic convergence criteria used are 10⁻⁴ and 10⁻³ eV, respectively. Energy barrier and reaction pathways are investigated using the climbing-image-nudge elastic-band method [20] as implemented in the QUANTUM ESPRESSO code [21].

Nb-Al/ALD-AlₓOᵧ/Nb trilayers are fabricated in a homemade deposition system, which integrates ultrahigh vacuum (UHV) sputtering and ALD in situ. For comparison, traditional thermally oxidized Nb-Al/AlₓOᵧ/Nb trilayers are also fabricated. The Nb films are sputtered at 1.7 nm/s to minimize the formation of NbOₓ from trace oxygen. The sputtering chamber has a base pressure of approximately 10⁻⁷ Torr or better and the sample stage is chilled-water cooled to approximately 10 °C. The bottom Nb is 150 nm, and the top Nb is 50 nm. Samples with ALD and Nb tunnel barriers are transferred in situ to the preheated ALD chamber, and heated for 75 min under HV. The wafer design used to investigate the quality of tunnel barriers contains 12 square junctions of four different sizes ranging from 4 μm × 4 μm to 10 μm × 10 μm and is fabricated using the self-aligned niobium trilayer process described in Ref. [23]. The JJ’s dc current-voltage characteristics (IVC) are measured at 4.2 K in a liquid-helium storage dewar.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. In situ scanning tunneling spectroscopy and molecular-dynamics simulations

ALD is a low-vacuum process that is incompatible with UHV required for both physical vapor deposition of functional electrodes and in situ characterization using STM. To address this issue, an integrated sputtering-ALD-STM system is developed to allow for UHV deposition of metals, UHV STM characterization of surfaces and interfaces, and HV (10⁻⁶ – 10⁻⁷ Torr) in situ sample transportation between the chambers [22]. This HV transport minimizes the metal electrode’s exposure to trace gases and hence IL formation. An additional challenge to avoid IL formation is the sample heating time required to bridge the temperature difference between sputtering at 10–14 °C and ALD at 200–220 °C. To address this challenge, the samples are inserted into a preheated ALD chamber for different
times and dynamically heated to 200–220 °C under HV. Specifically, two dynamic heating times of 75 and 15 min are presented in this work to illustrate the importance of controlling this procedure in order to achieve a clean interface between the Al and ALD Al₂O₃ tunnel barrier.

In Fig. 2(a), STS $dI/dV$ spectra are taken in situ at room temperature on Nb/Al bilayer structures which are exposed to these two dynamic heating times. The spectrum for the 75-min heated sample [Fig. 2(a)(I)] resembles that of a highly defective tunnel barrier. In fact, it has characteristics similar to the thermal AlOₓ tunnel barrier (discussed later in Fig. 3) [24,25]. In contrast, the spectrum for the 15-min heated sample [Fig. 2(a)(II)] closely matches the conductive spectrum measured from a calibration sample that is directly transferred to the STM chamber after Al sputtering without going through any heating [inset of Fig. 2(a)(II)]. These spectra suggest that HV and short exposure between physical vapor deposition and ALD are critical to the minimization of IL formation.

To initiate the ALD Al₂O₃, the Al wetting layer is exposed to a H₂O pulse to hydroxylate its surface. In order to understand the kinetics of this hydroxylation process, the behavior of H₂O on the Al surface is investigated using ab initio molecular dynamics and climbing-image-nudge elastic-band simulations. When only one H₂O molecule [i.e., without H₂O molecules in proximity] is present on the Al surface, H₂O dissociation into OH⁻ is thermodynamically unfavorable, as shown in Fig. 2(b)(I, II). However, when multiple H₂O molecules are present on the Al (111) surface, dissociation occurs after just a few picoseconds [Fig. 2(b)(III, IV)]. A proton transfer between nearby H₂O molecules creates OH⁻ and H₃O⁺, followed by H₃O⁺ dissociation into H₂O_ad and H₃O_ad. We find this reaction to be net exothermic with an approximately 0.5-eV energy barrier (see the Supplemental Material [26]). These simulations suggest that the H₂O areal density from the H₂O pulse is crucial to facilitating an efficient hydroxylation reaction which will form a uniform monolayer of OH⁻ on the Al surface. The stability of these OH⁻ groups is also critical as dissociation into O and H_ads could lead to oxygen diffusion into the Al wetting layer and IL formation. Fortunately, these OH⁻ groups do not readily dissociate at typical ALD temperatures of approximately 200 °C. However, this dissociation may become
In order to experimentally probe this hydroxylation process, one cycle of ALD Al₂O₃ is performed on an Al wetting layer with an initial H₂O pulse of variable duration. Figure 2(a)(III) depicts a representative $dI/dV$ spectrum for a one-cycle ALD Al₂O₃ tunnel barrier with an initial H₂O pulse of 2 s in duration. The inset of Fig. 2(a)(III) shows the corresponding I-V curve. This $dI/dV$ spectrum displays a well-defined tunnel barrier with a barrier height $E_b$ of approximately 1.56 eV and indicates that an atomically thin tunnel barrier [Fig. 2(a)(III), schematic] can be obtained using this UHV physical vapor deposition–ALD approach on a clean Al wetting layer [Fig. 2(a)(II), schematic] through careful control of the ALD growth in order to minimize IL formation [Fig. 2(a)(I), schematic].

Figure 2(c) reveals the one-cycle ALD Al₂O₃ coverage on the Al wetting layer as the initial H₂O pulse duration is varied from 1 to 3 s. The ALD Al₂O₃ coverage is defined as the percentage of STS spectra, taken from random locations on the sample, which show a sharp conduction-band onset and an $E_b$ consistent with ALD samples of a higher cycle number (see Fig. 3). The ALD Al₂O₃ surface coverage increases from approximately 54% at a 1-s pulse duration to approximately 93% at a 2-s duration. These experimentally observed time frames suggest that long initial H₂O pulses, on the order of seconds, are required for H₂O molecules, adsorbed to the Al surface, to reach a high-enough areal molecular density for an efficient dissociation into OH⁻ to occur. Interestingly, longer H₂O pulses are found to be detrimental to the ALD Al₂O₃ surface coverage. The remaining, non-ALD, spectra on the Al surface are either conductive or have very high noise and are unstable under the STM electric field. While the nature of these non-ALD, nonconductive spectra remains to be a topic of further investigation, we speculate that very-long H₂O pulses may lead to H₂O clusters instead of monolayer formation on the Al surface. These clusters may slow down or prohibit uniform surface hydroxylation.

In addition to its paramount role in nucleation, the hydroxylation of the Al wetting layer prevents oxygen from diffusing into the Al to form an IL during the ALD process. This argument is supported by the $dI/dV$ characteristics and $E_b$ observed for the thermal AlOₓ and the ALD Al₂O₃ tunnel barriers. The $dI/dV$ spectra for a thermal AlOₓ tunnel barrier of approximately 1.3 nm, in estimated thickness [12], is shown alongside a ten-cycle ALD Al₂O₃ tunnel barrier with a comparable thickness of approximately 1.2 nm in Fig. 3. The ALD Al₂O₃ spectrum has a significantly sharper conduction-band onset than the thermal AlOₓ spectrum, suggesting that the ALD Al₂O₃ tunnel barrier has a much more ordered and less-defective internal structure [12,24,25,28]. This improved internal structure is corroborated by the higher ALD Al₂O₃ $E_b$ shown in Fig. 3(b). Specifically, $E_b$ values of approximately 1.00 and 1.42 eV are observed for the ALD Al₂O₃ tunnel barriers with 75-min heating and 15-min heating, respectively, whereas the thermal AlOₓ counterpart is just approximately 0.67 eV. Other groups have reported similar thermal AlOₓ $E_b$ values [12,29]. In addition, the ALD Al₂O₃ samples with 15 min of heating have a band gap of approximately 2.5 eV. This high band gap is remarkable because it is comparable to the ultrathin (approximately 1.3 nm) epitaxial Al₂O₃ band gap [30]. The ALD Al₂O₃ tunnel barrier also displays a hard-breakdown-type behavior under the STM electric field which is typical for epitaxial Al₂O₃ thin films [31]. In great contrast, the thermal AlOₓ tunnel barriers break down in a soft-breakdown manner due to defect migration within the barrier [24,25,31–34]. We should note that the 75-min heated samples display both types of breakdown, which is
consistent with the thin IL found in Fig. 2(a). However, the absence of soft breakdown in the ALD Al₂O₃ tunnel barrier with 15-min heating can be taken as an indicator that no significant IL is present on its metal-insulator interface.

It is also particularly interesting that the ALD Al₂O₃ $E_b$ value is maintained as the number of ALD cycles $N$ varied from one to ten [Fig. 3(b)]. This trend is particularly demonstrated in the ALD Al₂O₃ samples with 15-min heating (blue) and further indicates that a significant metal insulator IL is not present, as an IL would have disproportionately affected the samples with smaller $N$’s by lowering their $E_b$ values. For the ALD Al₂O₃ samples with 75-min heating (black), an IL is confirmed by the slight $E_b$ reduction of 0.11 eV as $N$ is reduced to one and two from larger values. An additional effect of this IL is demonstrated by the $E_b$ improvement as the sample heating time is reduced from 75 min (black line) to 15 min (blue line). Nevertheless, this overall ALD Al₂O₃ $E_b$ consistency with thickness is remarkable because it illustrates that the ALD process can produce high-quality Al₂O₃ down to the atomically thin limit. In contrast, the thermal AlOₓ $E_b$ has a significant thickness dependence in the lower nominal thickness range, although a value of 0.67 eV is maintained at 0.6–1.3-nm thickness. This $E_b$ thickness dependence is reflected by the dramatic increase in critical current density $J_c$ observed in JJs with thermal AlOₓ tunnel barriers as the oxygen exposure drops below approximately $10^3$ Pa s, or 0.4 nm in thickness [2,12]. Furthermore, a complete tunnel barrier is not even formed in this regime as the tunneling current is dominated by pinholes.

### B. Josephson junction characterization

To demonstrate how this ALD Al₂O₃ tunnel barrier performs in a demanding MIMTJ application, JJs are fabricated and their IVCs measured at 4.2 K. The IVC of a five-cycle junction with a designed area of $10 \mu m \times 10 \mu m$ is shown in Fig. 4(a). This IVC has a

![Image](a)

(a) The $I$-$V$ characteristics of a five-ALD cycle $10 \mu m \times 10 \mu m$ Josephson junction at $T = 4.2$ K are shown which display a very low leakage current. The bias current waveform is triangular at 5 Hz and is ramped up linearly from zero to 0.6 mA, then from 0.6 mA to −0.6 mA, and finally from −0.6 mA to zero. (b) The critical current density $J_c$ as a function of the ALD cycle, or equivalently thickness, which follows the expected exponential dependence (solid line). The inset shows a chip with 12 JJs with areas ranging from $5 \mu m \times 5 \mu m$ to $10 \mu m \times 10 \mu m$. (c) The magnetic field dependence of the average switching current is shown for a similar five-cycle JJ processed from the same batch. The magnetic field and switching current have been normalized to the field at the first minimum (12 Oe) and the switching current at the central maximum ($76 \mu A$). (d) The measured switching current distributions of a ten-cycle junction at $T = 0.76$ K and 1.17 K. The lines are calculated switching current distributions based on thermal activation theory.
low subgap leakage current and is highly nonlinear—as expected for superconductor-insulator-superconductor tunnel junctions. The small current step at $V = \Delta / e$ of the IVC is most likely caused by Andreev reflection at the interface between the bottom Nb electrode and the 7-nm Al wetting layer of the Nb-Al/Al$_2$O$_3$/Nb structure [35], and not due to transport through pinholes, as discussed in Ref. [36]. The superconducting gap voltage is $V_g \equiv 2\Delta / e \approx 2.6$ mV and does not depend on $N$. In addition, the $IR_n$ versus voltage $V$, where $R_n$ is taken to be the dynamic resistance at 5 mV, is nearly identical for JJs with different $N$, indicating good reproducibility in our junction fabrication process. These JJs are of considerably higher quality than ALD Al$_2$O$_3$ JJs fabricated in our previous work which had a dramatic critical current, $I_c$, suppression due to charge-scatter sites in the metal insulator IL [11].

Recently, by measuring the dependence of the JJ’s critical current density on oxygen exposure, a proxy for tunnel-barrier thickness $d$, the thermal AlO$_x$ tunnel barrier $E_b$ was found to be approximately 0.64 eV [12,37]. Notice that it is very difficult to calibrate the relationship between thickness $d$ and oxygen exposure. In contrast, due to the self-limited, very difficult to calibrate the relationship between thickness $d$ and oxygen exposure, a proxy for tunnel-barrier height determined from the best fit is $G_n$ versus $d_{\text{ALD}}$.

$$G_n = G_0 \exp \left( -\frac{\sqrt{2m_eE_b}}{\hbar} d_{\text{ALD}} \right),$$  

where $m_e$ is the electron mass, $\hbar$ is the Planck constant, and $G_0$ is the specific conductance for $d_{\text{ALD}} = 0$. The tunnel-barrier height determined from the best fit is $E_b = 1.10 \pm 0.06$ eV. This $E_b$ value agrees well with our STS measurements.

Ideal tunnel junctions require a uniform tunnel barrier with no microscopic pinholes. Pinholes lead to subgap leakage current and a distorted magnetic field dependence on $I_c$. The magnetic field dependence of the critical current $I_c(H)$ for a five-cycle junction is shown in Fig. 4(c). Complete $I_c$ suppression at the first minimum and a symmetric shape is observed. The applied magnetic field $H$ is in the plane of the junction ($x$-$y$ plane) and parallel to the vertical edges of the 7 $\mu$m $\times$ 7 $\mu$m junction (although a small misalignment cannot be ruled out). This symmetric behavior is consistent with a uniform insulating tunnel barrier with negligible leakage current and pinholes [38].

A denser tunnel barrier should have fewer atomic-scale TLDs. TLDs have been identified as one of the major sources of decoherence for superconducting qubits, which are considered one of the strongest candidates for the implementation of scalable quantum computing [39]. It has been observed that TLDs embedded inside the oxide tunnel barrier and/or at the superconductor-oxide interface can couple strongly to Josephson qubits. These TLDs lead to splitting in the transition energy spectrum of the qubit, large fluctuations in $I_c$, and distortions in the junction’s switching current distribution $P_{sw}(I)$ [40–42]. Therefore, $P_{sw}(I)$ can be used as a diagnostic tool for the detection of TLDs in tunnel barriers which couple strongly to the junction. Figure 4(d) shows the experimental $P_{sw}(I)$ which is obtained using the conventional time-of-flight technique [43–45] with a constant current sweeping rate of 5 mA/s in a very well-filtered and shielded cryostat suitable for coherent quantum dynamics of Josephson qubits [45,46]. In order to reduce the effect of self-heating, a 7 $\mu$m $\times$ 7 $\mu$m, ten-ALD cycle junction with a very low critical current density of $J_c = 9.7$ A/cm$^2$ is selected for the $P_{sw}(I)$ measurements. The critical current of the junction, $I_c = 4.757 \pm 0.003$ $\mu$A, is determined by fitting the measured $P_{sw}(I)$ to the prediction from thermal activation theory with the critical current as the adjustable parameter [43–45]. The junction’s shunt capacitance is estimated to be $C \approx 2.2$ pF from the 45 fF/µm$^2$ specific capacitance of low-$J_c$ Nb JJs and the junction’s nominal area [47]. Typical $P_{sw}(I)$ curves obtained at $T = 0.76$ K and 1.17 K are shown in Fig. 4(d). The measured distributions agree very well with those calculated from thermal activation theory. The absence of anomalies in the $P_{sw}(I)$ distributions is consistent with a lack of TLDs which couple strongly to the junction in the tunnel barrier and/or at the superconductor-oxide interface.

IV. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In summary, an in situ STS study is carried out to understand the nucleation mechanisms of ALD Al$_2$O$_3$ on an Al wetting layer. We find that a well-controlled hydroxylation of the Al wetting layer, through a carefully controlled first H$_2$O pulse, is the key to enabling the creation of an atomically thin ALD Al$_2$O$_3$ tunnel barrier which is of significantly higher quality than the industrial standard thermal AlO$_x$ tunnel barrier. Specifically, the ALD Al$_2$O$_3$ tunnel barrier has a high $E_b$ of 1.42 eV which is maintained as the barrier thickness is varied in the range of 0.12–1.2 nm. Furthermore, this ALD Al$_2$O$_3$ tunnel barrier has a band gap of approximately 2.5 eV and exhibits hard electrical breakdown behavior similar to high-quality epitaxial Al$_2$O$_3$ thin films. In contrast, the thermal AlO$_x$ tunnel barrier has a low $E_b$ of approximately 0.67 eV only in the barrier thickness range exceeding 0.6 nm. At smaller thicknesses, enhanced soft electrical breakdown occurs and the $E_b$ decreases. Finally, the pre-ALD exposure of the Al surface in the ALD chamber, even in high vacuum, is found to be critical and must be minimized to prevent AlO$_x$ IL.
formation which leads to a reduced $E_b$, especially at smaller barrier thicknesses. This result demonstrates the viability of the ALD process to create an atomically thin Al$_2$O$_3$ tunnel barrier which has a significantly denser, less defective internal structure than thermal Al$_2$O$_3$—as demanded for the next generation of high-performance $M-I-M$ tunnel junctions.

Acknowledgments


J. S. W., J. Z. W., and S. Y. H. designed the experiment. J. S. W. prepared the samples for STS, and A. E. prepared JJs with the assistance of Melisa Xin. J. S. W. performed STS characterization and T. P. G., A. E. M. G., F. F. S., H. K. X., and R. T. L. carried out JJ characterization. R. S. did the simulations. All authors contributed to discussions of the results. J. S. W., S. Y. H., S. P. Z., R. S., and J. Z. W. led the effort in the development of the manuscript.

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