## As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>/GaAs, a new amorphous/crystalline heterojunction for the III-V semiconductors

E. Yablonovitch, T. J. Gmitter, and B. G. Bagley
Bell Communications Research, Navesink Research Center, Red Bank, New Jersey 07701-7040

(Received 25 May 1990; accepted for publication 5 September 1990)

Much of the technology of our era is based on the  $SiO_2/Si$  amorphous/crystalline heterojunction interface. Now it appears that  $As_2S_3/GaAs$  amorphous/crystalline heterojunctions show some technological promise. We have found that properly prepared  $As_2S_3/GaAs$  interfaces can have reasonably good electronic quality. The interfacial recombination velocity is  $\approx 15\,000$  cm/s at flat band, which results in a  $\sim 100$ -fold reduction of perimeter recombination currents in p-n junction mesas. This can be important on heterojunction transistor emitter-base perimeters, solar cell and light-emitting diode perimeters, and for reducing mirror facet recombination in semiconductor lasers.

Much of the technology of our era is based on the SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si amorphous/crystalline heterojunction interface. The hallmark of electronic interfacial science is the low density of electronically active defects at the surface of the semiconductor. Additionally, the amorphous layer acts as a diffusion barrier to encapsulate and protect the highly perfect interface. For III-V semiconductors there has been no similar material system available.

We have now found that properly prepared  $As_2S_3/GaAs$  amorphous/crystalline interfaces can have reasonably good electronic quality.  $As_2S_3$  is an excellent glass, very difficult to devitrify, with a band gap of  $\approx 2.4$  eV. It is insoluble in water and is a rather durable material which can make a permanent surface passivation on the III-V semiconductors. Some properties of  $As_2S_3$  glass are listed in Table I. As in the case of the  $SiO_2/Si$  interface, the materials processing history of the interface is equally important as its chemical composition in reducing the electronically active defect density. In this letter we will present some processing protocols which have allowed us to create interfaces with an interfacial recombination velocity of  $\approx 15\,000$  cm/s at flat band, about a 100-fold improvement over ordinary GaAs surfaces.

The key to our experimental approach has been the contactless laser-pumped minority-carrier lifetime probe.<sup>2</sup> This inductively coupled radio frequency bridge allows rapid contactless monitoring of interfacial electronic quality on partially processed wafers. Since we can measure interfacial quality within about a minute, our empirical, Edisonian approach can actually be quite efficient. We feed minority-carrier lifetime information directly back into the material preparation. Therefore we can quickly converge onto an excellent quality interface. Using this philosophy we have discovered a number of interesting electronic interfaces on Si (Ref. 3) and the III-V's.<sup>4,5</sup>

In these experiments, a Q-switched doubled Nd:YAG laser injects carriers into a 2- $\mu$ m-thick Al<sub>0.5</sub>Ga<sub>0.5</sub>As/GaAs/Al<sub>0.5</sub>Ga<sub>0.5</sub>As double heterostructure. The minority-carrier lifetime bridge reads out directly in terms of carrier density versus time after injection, as shown in Fig. 1(a). The slow exponential decay at densities below  $10^{17}$ /cm<sup>3</sup> is due to nonradiative recombination centers.<sup>2</sup> After the top layer of Al<sub>0.5</sub>Ga<sub>0.5</sub>As is selectively removed in HF acid, the

carrier density decay in Fig. 1(d) is much faster due to nonradiative recombination on the oxidized GaAs surface.

At this point, any one of a number of surface chemical processing sequences may be invoked in order to restore the interfacial quality. We had previously discovered<sup>4</sup> that a class of inorganic sulfides [Li<sub>2</sub>S, (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>S, Na<sub>2</sub>S·9H<sub>2</sub>O, etc.] were quite effective for this purpose. Nevertheless, their range of applicability was severely limited since the exposed GaAs surfaces would eventually deteriorate over time. Accordingly we have sought a form of sulfide chemistry which would produce a permanent heterojunction-type interface. As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> glass seemed an excellent choice, but it was necessary to find a processing protocol that maintained the best possible interfacial quality. Table II is the result of an extensive series of experimental runs as monitored by the minority-carrier lifetime bridge.

After the usual oxidative cleaning and rinsing procedures, the coating steps are (5) and (6) in Table II. The GaAs is soaked in a 0.16 M  $As_2S_3$  dissolved in concentrated NH<sub>4</sub>OH, with methanol added as a wetting agent. Then the wafer is simply spun dry, leaving a film of  $As_2S_3$ ,  $\sim 100$  nm thick. Alternatively the solution may be permitted to dry without spinning, leaving a thick layer of  $As_2S_3$ . The final three steps, (7), (8), and (9) are for the purpose

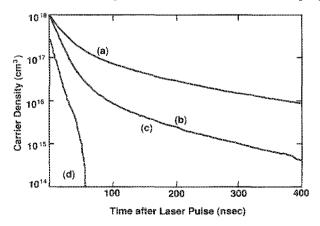


FIG. 1. Decay of carrier density in an  $Al_{0.5}Ga_{0.5}As/GaAs/Al_{0.5}Ga_{0.5}As$  double heterostructure excited by delta function optical injection at t=0. (a) The intact original double heterostructure. (b)  $As_2S_3/GaAs/Al_{0.5}Ga_{0.5}As$  double heterostructure immediately after preparation by the procedure in Table II. (c) The same sample after being aged on the shelf for four months. (d) The same sample with an exposed oxidized GaAs surface.

TABLE I. Some properties of As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> glass.

Band gap	2.4 eV
Refractive index	2.6
Crystal melting point	315 ℃
Glass transition temp.	~195 °C
Resistivity	$10^{18}~\Omega~{ m cm}$
Soluble in	conc. NH <sub>4</sub> OH

of annealing to form a dense, structurally interconnected network glass of  $As_2S_3$ . It is essential that the annealing tube be entirely purged of air *before* heating it. The resulting glass is relatively impermeable, so that the interface electronic quality is protected permanently. The annealing should be done with care, since the vapor pressure of  $As_2S_3$  can be significant at temperatures of 300 °C and above.

The effect of the protocol in Table II on the carrier density decay curves of an  $As_2S_3$ -coated double heterostructure is shown in Fig. 1(b). The strong laser pulse substantially flattens the bands, reducing the effects of band bending<sup>4,6</sup> on the surface recombination velocity. A careful accounting of band bending effects on the curve in Fig. 1(b), similar to Ref. 4, yields a surface recombination velocity  $S_0 \approx 1.5 \times 10^4$  cm/s at flat band.

After aging on the shelf for four months the structure was tested again, resulting in Fig. 1(c). This overlaid perfectly on Fig. 1(b), so only one curve could be shown. We have conducted accelerated aging tests, for example 15 min at 225 °C in air, with no deterioration. We believe the durability of the  $As_2S_3/GaAs$  electronic interface is limited only by diffusion through the  $As_2S_3$  glass.

We tried other methods of making  $As_2S_3/GaAs$ . Simply evaporating  $As_2S_3$  onto GaAs did not improve the surface electronic quality over that of an oxidized GaAs surface. This was in spite of cleaning the GaAs surface with  $(NH_4)_2S$  prior to loading into the evaporator. This shows that processing history is the essential variable in establishing a worthwhile  $As_2S_3/GaAs$  interface, but it would be speculative to invoke a specific physical mechanism. A prior study<sup>7</sup> of lateral electrical transport in  $As_2S_3$  thin films on semiconductors, employed simple evaporation as the preparation method.

After the original discovery<sup>4</sup> of the sulfide surface passivations on GaAs, the first application<sup>8</sup> was directed toward perimeter currents at the emitter-base junction of heterojunction bipolar transistors. Perimeter recombination currents are also known to degrade the efficiency of solar cells.<sup>9</sup> Furthermore, some evidence has now accumulated, <sup>10</sup> that mirror facet recombination currents are responsible for local heating and catastrophic optical damage<sup>11</sup> in semiconductor lasers. Accordingly, we have applied the As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> glass to diode mesas in order to measure the perimeter recombination currents at the edges of a *p-n* junction.

The particular mesa structure which we investigated is shown in Fig. 2. The wafer had originally been grown for making conventional double-heterostructure diode lasers. The behavior of other types of diode structures should be similar, however.

A series of circular diodes were mesa etched to have

TABLE II. An optimal processing sequence for As<sub>7</sub>S<sub>3</sub>/GaAs.

- (1) Oxidize GaAs surface in 1:8:500 (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>:H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>:H<sub>2</sub>O).
- (2) De-ionized water rinse, flowing, 30 s.
- (3) Soak 5 min in (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>S, 22% conc.
- (4) De-ionized water rinse, flowing, 20 s.
- (5) Soak 5 min in 0.16 M As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> dissolved in conc. NH<sub>4</sub>OH mixed 2:1 with CH<sub>3</sub>OH, as a wetting agent.
- (6) Spin dry at 2500 rpm.
- 7) Load into cold furnace tube under flowing forming gas, 10 min.
- (8) Place tube in furnace and anneal for 2 min at 290-300 °C under flowing gas. The vapor pressure of As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> at the annealing temperature is significant. Over-annealing will cause the As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> layer to be lost by sublimation.
- (9) Remove tube from furnace and cool quickly down to room temperature

diameters 500, 100, and 60  $\mu$ m. Following Stellwag *et al.*, <sup>12</sup> the forward current-voltage (*I-V*) characteristic is expected to be of the following form:

$$I = I_1(e^{qV/kT} - 1) + J_{nA}A(e^{qV/nkT} - 1) + J'_{nP}P(e^{qV/nkT} - 1),$$
(1)

where  $I_1$  is the diffusion saturation current,  $J_{nA}$  is the arearelated forward recombination current density (A/cm²),  $J'_{nP}$  is the perimeter-related recombination current density (A/cm), A is the area of the diode, and P is its perimeter. By measuring the forward I-V characteristics below 1 V, we could safely neglect the  $I_1$  diffusion current component. We concentrated on separating out the area- and perimeter-related recombination current contributions.

The current-voltage curves on three different diode diameters are shown in Fig. 3. The data are reasonably well represented by a diode quality factor n=2, for both the oxide-coated perimeter and the  $As_2S_3$  glass-coated perimeter. The oxidized perimeter was created by the 1:8:500 ( $H_2SO_4:H_2O_2:H_2O$ ) etch, which had been used to lithographically define the mesas. Current flow on the  $As_2S_3$ -passivated diodes is markedly reduced from the oxide-covered diodes in Fig. 3. This shows that, even for 500  $\mu$ m diameters, perimeter currents were a dominant contribution to the oxide-coated diodes in this range of bias. Naturally, such current leakage would be even more severe in smaller diodes.

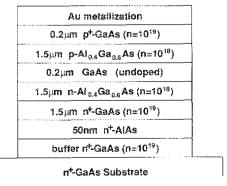


FIG. 2. Mesa diode on which the current-voltage measurements were made, before being coated with  $\mathrm{As_2S_3}$ .

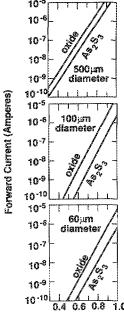


FIG. 3. Forward current-voltage characteristics on mesa diodes of three different diameters. The oxide-coated diodes are dominated by perimeter recombination leakage, while the As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>-coated diodes experience bulk recombination current almost exclusively.

Forward Bias (Volts)

In fitting the curves of Fig. 3, the bulk area-related forward recombination current density,  $J_{nA}$ , was taken to be identical for both perimeter compositions. Our best fit for bulk current was  $J_{nA} = 7.8 \times 10^{-11} \text{ A/cm}^2$ . The corresponding determination of the perimeter-related recombination current density on oxide-coated edges was  $J'_{nP} = 2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ A/cm}$ . Within our experimental precision, the perimeter leakage on the As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>-coated diodes was too small to measure! We were only able to place an upper limit on the As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>-coated perimeter leakage current density, which was  $J'_{nP} \lesssim 2 \times 10^{-14} \text{ A/cm}$ , 100 times less than an oxidized GaAs surface.

This As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> glass coating was recently 13 applied to heterojunction bipolar transistors with a corresponding improvement in electrical characteristics. Our results also have implications for semiconductor lasers and lightemitting diodes. A laser requires a forward bias voltage equal to the band-gap energy, 1.4 eV. At that forward bias the perimeter leakage current on oxidized GaAs becomes  $J'_{nP}[\exp(qV/2kT)-1]\approx 1$  A/cm of length on the periphery. In semiconductor lasers the lateral edges are frequently resistively isolated from the injection region, but the mirror facets generally experience the full forward injection voltage. A leakage current of 1 A per centimeter of oxidized facet length can contribute noticeably to the threshold current of certain low-threshold lasers. It is possible that a freshly cleaved (110) facet may have less surface recombination. On exposure to air however, it would eventually and inevitably degrade to the level of recombination current we have measured on our oxidized perimeters. These results should stand as a caution to those who model or fabricate semiconductor lasers. If the lateral edge isolation is inadequate, then the laser can draw very large nonradiative currents indeed.

A sensible microscopic model of the perimeter leakage, based upon Shockley-Read-Hall kinetics, is  $J'_{nP} = qn_i S_0 L$ , where q is the electronic charge,  $n_i$  is the intrin-

sic carrier density, and L is the width of the depletion zone on the surface, where  $n \sim p$ . If the center of the depletion zone is 20 nm wide, then it implies that the flat-band recombination velocity at the oxidized surface is  $S_0 = 3.5 \times 10^6$  cm/s. This model would place an upper limit of  $S_0 \lesssim 35\,000$  cm/s at the As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>-coated GaAs interface. Such an upper limit is consistent with our direct  $S_0 = 15\,000$  cm/s measurement from Fig. 1.

Among the interesting questions, just as for any heterojunction system, is the valence-band offset between As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> and GaAs. Reference 7 claimed a type II band alignment, although this seems unlikely based on our small measured interfacial recombination velocity.

We have emphasized perimeter passivation on bipolar devices, but there might be metal insulator semiconductor field-effect transistor (MISFET) applications as well. We have made a few such transistors, but we were troubled by pinholes in the insulating  $As_2S_3$  film itself. An auxiliary polyimide layer was needed to prevent pinhole short circuits. The  $As_2S_3$  has a resistivity  $\sim 10^{18}~\Omega$  cm, which is more than adequate. We also made channel conductivity measurements, similar to Ref. 6, finding that the interface charge was  $Q = 6 \times 10^{11}$  negative charges per cm<sup>2</sup> in pitch darkness. This level was in between the  $(NH_4)_2S$  and  $Na_2S \cdot 9H_2O$ -coated results in Ref. 6.

As explained in Ref. 1, the As<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> glass tolerates variable stoichiometry. We prepared compositions with a 10% excess of sulfur by including some (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>S into the solution of step 5 in Table II. None of the electronic properties which we could measure were affected.

We would like to thank W. K. Chan for some transistor experiments, L. T. Florez for growing the samples, and M. R. Melloch of Purdue for discussions and for providing their *I-V* curves prior to publication.

R. Zallen, The Physics of Amorphous Solids (Wiley, New York, 1983);
 N. F. Mott and E. A. Davis, Electronic Processes in Non-Crystalline Materials, 2nd ed. (Clarendon, Oxford, 1979).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> E. Yablonovitch and T. J. Gmitter, in *Proceedings of the Symposium on Diagnostic Techniques for Semiconductor Materials and Devices*, edited by T. J. Shaffner and D. K. Schroeder (The Elechemical Society, Pennington, NJ, 1988), Vol. 88-20, p. 207.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>E. Yablonovitch, D. L. Allara, C. C. Chang, T. J. Gmitter, and T. B. Bright, Phys. Rev. Lett. **57**, 249 (1986).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>E. Yablonovitch, C. J. Sandroff, R. Bhat, and T. J. Gmitter, Appl. Phys. Lett. **51**, 439 (1987).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>E. Yablonovitch, H. M. Cox, and T. J. Gmitter, Appl. Phys. Lett. 52, 1002 (1988).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>E. Yablonovitch, B. J. Skromme, R. Bhat, J. P. Harbison, and T. J. Gmitter, Appl. Phys. Lett. **54**, 555 (1989).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>Yu. G. Fariver, A. I. Bairamov, and T. D. Dzhafarov, Sov. Phys. Semicond. 19, 795 (1985).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>C. J. Sandroff, R. N. Nottenburg, J.-C. Bischoff, and R. Bhat, Appl. Phys. Lett. **51**, 33 (1987).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>P. D. DeMoulin, S. P. Tobin, M. S. Lundstrom, M. S. Carpenter, and M. R. Melloch, IEEE Electron. Device Lett. EDL-9, 368 (1988).

H. Brugger and P. W. Epperlein, Appl. Phys. Lett. 56, 1049 (1990).
 H. Kawanishi, H. Ohno, T. Morimoto, S. Kaniewa, N. Miyauchi, H.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> H. Kawanishi, H. Ohno, T. Morimoto, S. Kaniewa, N. Miyauchi, H. Hayashi, Y. Akagi, Y. Nakajima, and T. Hijikata, SPIE Proc. 1219, 31 (1990).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup>T. B. Stellwag, M. R. Melloch, M. S. Lunstrom, M. S. Carpenter, and R. F. Pierret, Appl. Phys. Lett. 56, 1658 (1990).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> H. L. Chuang, M. S. Carpenter, M. R. Melloch, M. S. Lundstrom, E. Yablonovitch, and T. J. Gmitter, Appl. Phys. Lett. 57, 2113 (1990).