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First-Principles Studies of MoF₆ Absorption on Hydroxylated and Non-Hydroxylated Metal Oxide Surfaces and Implications for Atomic Layer Deposition of MoS₂

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Abstract

Significant interest in two-dimensional transition metal dichalcogenides has led to numerous experimental studies of their synthesis using scalable vapor phase methods, such as chemical vapor deposition (CVD) and atomic layer deposition (ALD). ALD typically allows lower deposition temperatures, and nucleation of chemical precursors requires reactions with surface functional groups. A common first-principles method used to study ALD modeling is the calculation of activation energy for a proposed reaction pathway. In this work we calculated the partial charge densities, local density of states (LDOS), Bader charge analysis, adsorption energies, and charge density difference using density functional theory (DFT) to investigate the nucleation of MoF₆ on three oxide surfaces, including Al₂O₃, HfO₂, and MgO. Our findings indicate that hydroxyl groups (OH) help lower the reaction barrier during the first half-cycle of MoF₆ and promote the chemisorption of a precursor on the oxide substrates. This discovery is supported by the formation of highly ionic MF_x (M = metal, x = 1, 2, 3) bonds at the oxide surfaces. By comparing surfaces with and without hydroxyl groups, we highlight the importance of surface chemistry.

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Keywords: first-principles calculations, atomic layer deposition, transition metal dichalcogenides

1. Introduction

Due to their atomic structures and unique properties, there has been tremendous interest in semiconducting two-dimensional (2D) materials, especially transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs), which have a composition MX₂ (M = transition metal, X = chalcogen), with a range of band gaps[1] and unique properties[1-7]. An interesting feature of certain TMD materials is the shift of electronic bands when transitioning from bulk to monolayer[1, 8]. Specifically, monolayer MoS₂ becomes a direct band gap semiconductor with a gap of 1.8 eV, whereas its bulk phase has an indirect band gap of 1.3 eV[1, 8]. Due to its novel physical and chemical properties, 2D MoS₂ has drawn attention for its wide range of applications[9] such as electrocatalysis[10-13], photocatalysis[14-17], batteries[18-21], biological applications[22-25], sensors[26-31], and electronic devices[1, 32-35].

2D-MoS₂ has been grown via chemical vapor deposition (CVD), but the high substrate temperatures[36-38] and lack of self-limiting growth[39, 40] have prompted further investigations into alternative methods, such as atomic layer deposition (ALD). Unlike more common CVD techniques, the highly reactive precursor gases for ALD are introduced

sequentially into the reactor and never mixed simultaneously[41]. This results in two half-reactions created by each precursor species and its respective surface. The reactions are limited by the number of available surface sites. Sequential cycling of the precursors limits the growth during cycles, and results in precise atomic thickness control. In semiconductor device manufacturing, low k dielectric materials are used for interconnect or “Back End of the Line” applications. Their low melting temperatures restrict the process temperature to around 400 °C[42]. In CVD of TMDs, the substrate temperature is typically much higher than this upper limit, making it impractical for integration into semiconductor device fabrication[43]. However, ALD can operate at a much lower temperature making it feasible[41].

A number of studies have reported the ALD processes of TMDs, such as MoS₂ and WS₂, using a variety of precursors[44-58]. Most of these processes yield amorphous as-deposited films, which can be crystallized upon annealing. One such process uses MoF₆ and H₂S to grow amorphous MoS₂ at 200 °C[52, 53]. The initial half reaction of this process introduces MoF₆ to an oxide surface (e.g., atomic layer deposited aluminum oxide, Al₂O₃). Critically, this first half reaction controls the nucleation of the film, only forming a three-atom thick monolayer. Complementary to in situ quartz crystal microbalance (QCM) and Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy characterization, density functional theory (DFT) calculations can be employed to gain insight into various reaction pathways that occur during initial ALD growth[59]. Specifically, DFT can not only explore potential reaction pathways efficiently but also investigate precursor-substrate interactions and quantify electron exchange[60, 61]. Here, we report the use of DFT method to investigate the electronic interactions of a single MoF₆ precursor and three surfaces, including Al₂O₃, HfO₂, and MgO. These oxide materials are widely used in the semiconducting industry ranging from optical applications[62], high- k gate dielectrics[63], to catalysis[64]. To simulate the surface reactions, the bulk structures of the substrates were cleaved to expose both oxygen and metal atoms in the vacuum. Recent DFT studies on ALD have found that hydroxylated SiO₂ can facilitate MoS₂ growth[65, 66]. Hydroxyl groups also facilitate ALD of Si[67], Hf[68], ZnO[69], and more[70]. Building from this insight, we explored nucleation reactions on surfaces without hydroxyl groups (non-hydroxylated) and those with hydrogen atoms terminating the oxygen atoms (hydroxylated). The results indicated that hydroxyl groups are crucial for the nucleation of MoS₂ on these oxide surfaces.

2. Methods

We employed DFT calculations using the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP)[71] and Perdew-Burke-Enzerhof (PBE)[72] pseudopotentials with the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) exchange correlation functions. Projector-augmented wave (PAW) pseudopotentials were used. In order to improve the accuracy of the calculations, a cut-off energy of 400 eV was chosen, and residual forces were reduced to 0.01 eV/atom. A vacuum greater than 15 Å was introduced to mitigate spurious interactions. The surfaces were cleaved from relaxed bulk structures, and supercells were generated to increase surface area and underwent another full relaxation. A Γ -centered 5x5x1 k-point mesh was implemented on all surfaces during geometry optimization.

Our initial results and cited literature indicated that ALD simulations converged within a reasonable timeframe when both metal and O atoms terminated at the surface, thus the (110), (100), and (100) surfaces for HfO₂ [73], MgO[74-76], and Al₂O₃ [77, 78] respectively were cleaved from their bulk counterparts. Dimensions and images of the relaxed surfaces were generated using the VESTA[79] program, and are provided in the Supplementary Information. The potential reactivities of surfaces with and without hydroxyl groups were compared by calculating partial charge densities. Next, an MoF₆ precursor was introduced at least 5 Å above the surfaces and underwent a full geometry optimization. To investigate the electronic interactions between precursor and surfaces, local density of states (LDOS) was calculated. The rotationally invariant LSDA+U[80] on site coulombic potentials of 4.38 eV and 4.0 eV were included for the Mo and Hf atoms respectively, and a denser 10x10x1 k-point mesh was implemented. To quantify and compare MoF₆ interactions between the hydroxylated and non-hydroxylated surfaces, Bader charge analysis was employed. Bader charge analysis quantifies the degree of chemical interaction between atoms[81], and is a quantitative method that allows us to study the effect of hydroxyl groups on precursor decomposition[60, 61]. Finally, the adsorption energy of the MoF₆ precursor was calculated to determine the degree of physisorption or chemisorption. The adsorption energy (E_{ads}) was calculated, as follows:

$$E_{ads} = E_{total\ system} - E_{surface} - E_{MoF_6}$$

where $E_{total\ system}$ is the total energy of the surface with precursor, $E_{surface}$ is the total energy of a surface, and E_{MoF_6} is the total energy of a single isolated MoF₆ precursor.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Surface Reactivity

To explore surface reactivities, the partial charge densities of the initial surfaces were computed. In Figure 1, the partial charge densities are projected along the a axis for the non-hydroxylated Al_2O_3 , HfO_2 , and MgO substrates. The color scale shows charge density integrated for each material from -1 eV to the Fermi energy. This energy range examines the edge states of the valence band, where electrons participate in chemical bonding. The calculated partial charge densities for the non-hydroxylated surfaces demonstrate the chemically stable surfaces. The charge densities are uniform in each surface and localized around the lattice atoms of all three substrates. The contour lines indicate the regions of equal partial charge densities. Our results suggest that the non-hydroxylated surfaces are not highly reactive. They cannot facilitate MoF_6 deposition, because the charge densities are distributed evenly around the atoms.

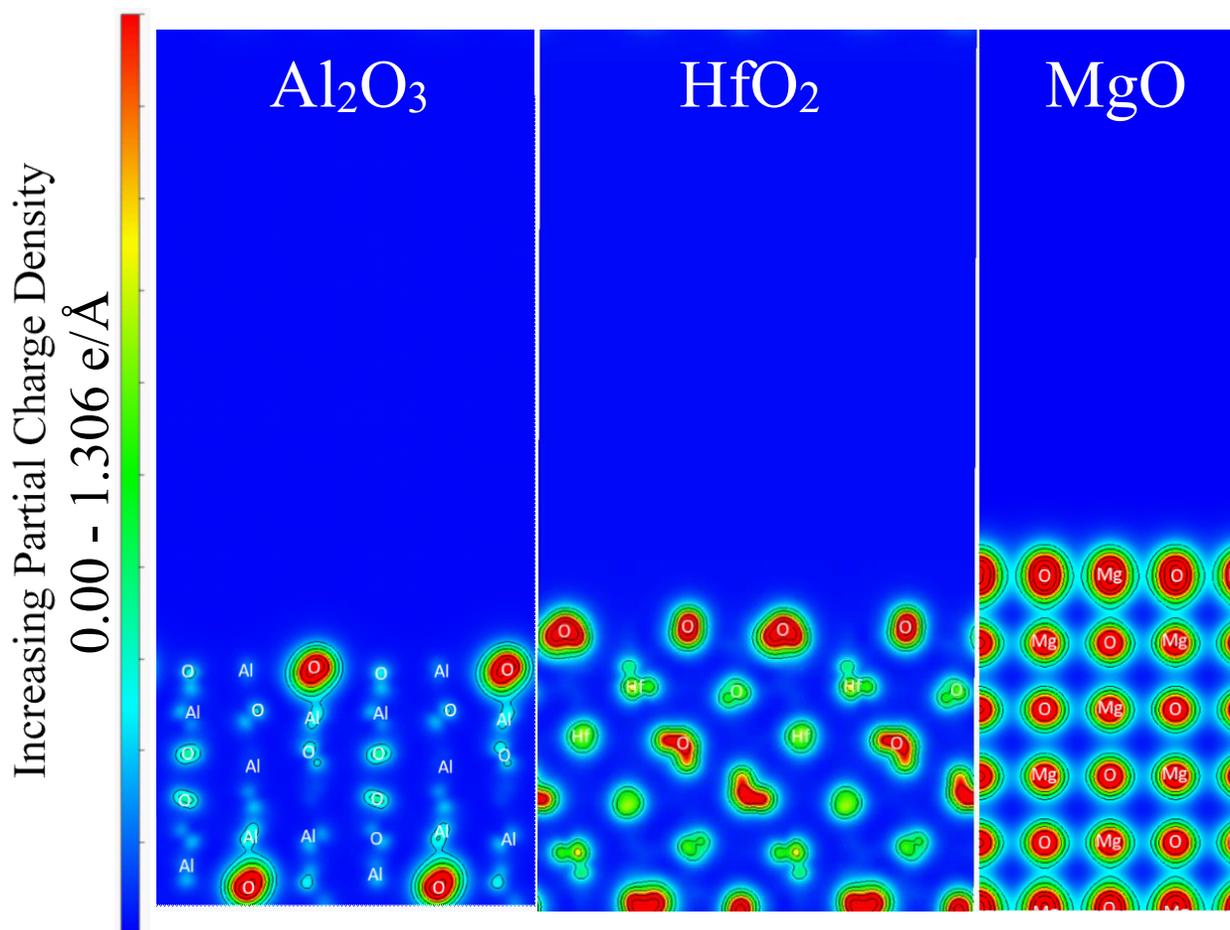


Figure 1. A cross section of the partial charge densities projected along the a axis for the non-hydroxylated Al_2O_3 , HfO_2 , and MgO substrates from -1 eV to the Fermi energy (color online).

Adding hydroxyl groups clearly changes the profile of partial charge densities. Figure 2 plots the partial charge densities along the a axis for the hydroxylated Al_2O_3 , HfO_2 , and MgO substrates from -1 eV to the Fermi energy, where the densities are concentrated at the surfaces. The profile at the surface varies across substrates. The partial charge densities for hydroxylated Al_2O_3 substrate is localized in small “pockets” close to the O atoms at the surface, and the same phenomenon is observed with the HfO_2 substrate. The electron “pockets” extend to the OH groups, but they are concentrated at the terminating Hf atoms. The partial charge densities for MgO contains a uniform electron cloud extending across the hydroxyl groups at the surface. Our results highlight the importance of the hydroxyl groups,

which could redistribute electrons at the surfaces. Hydroxyl groups appear to increase the reactivity of the surface and provide an increase in electron density. Furthermore, the electrons become delocalized, which could promote the chemical bonding of the MoF_6 precursor to the surface.

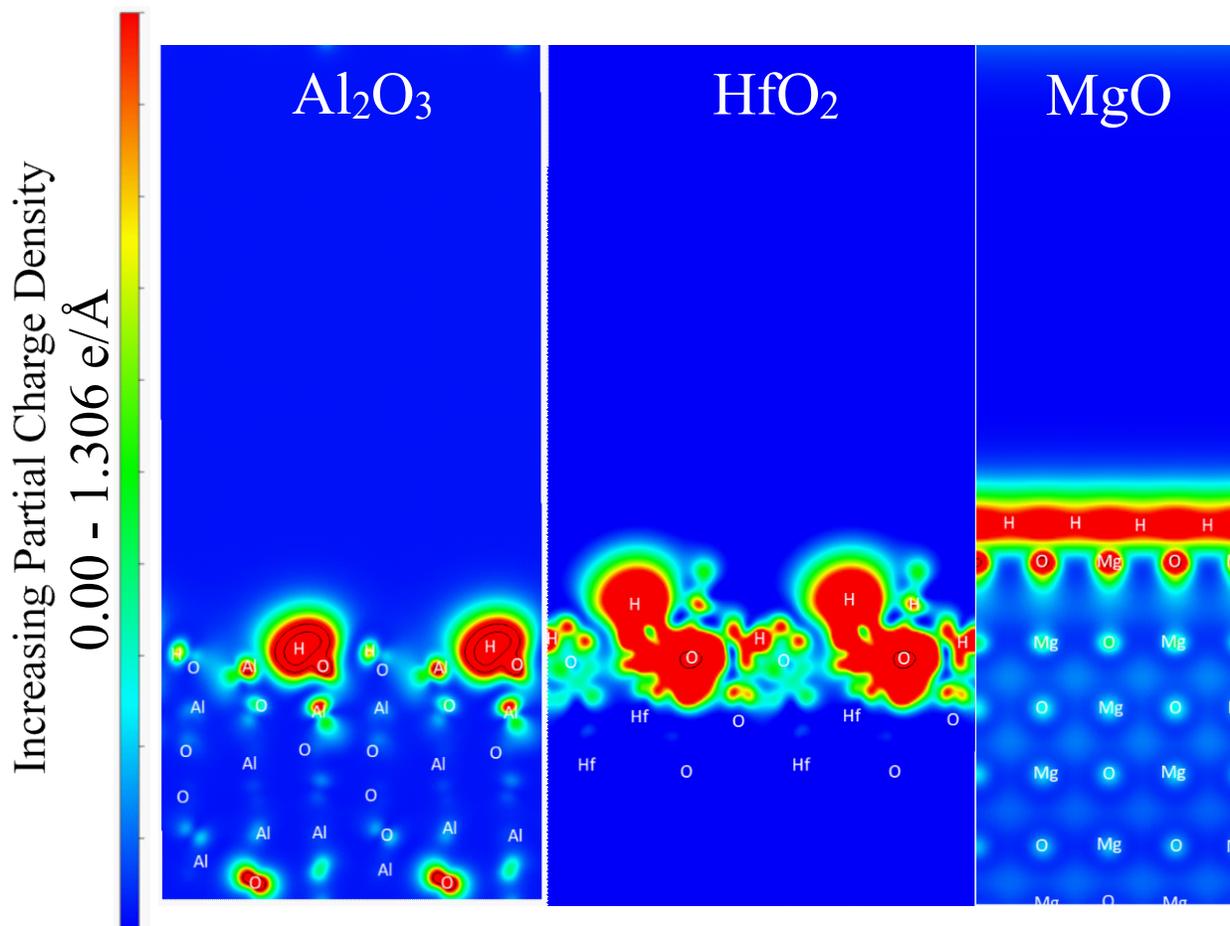


Figure 2. A cross section of the partial charge densities projected along the a axis for the hydroxylated Al_2O_3 , HfO_2 , and MgO substrates from -1 eV to the Fermi energy (color online).

3.2 Precursor Adsorption

To understand the interactions between the non-hydroxylated substrates and the precursor, a single MoF_6 molecule was introduced into the system and underwent a full geometry relaxation. There was no significant structural distortion on any of the surfaces. The LDoS was calculated for each substrate to explore bonding characteristics and electronic interactions. Figure 3 splits the electronic contributions of the surface (in red) and precursor (in blue) for all three non-hydroxylated substrates. The Fermi energy is shifted to 0, and negative energy E states below the Fermi energy are primarily occupied by the surface. The surfaces do not have overlapping states with the MoF_6 precursor at the Fermi energy. These findings suggest little electronic interaction between the non-hydroxylated surfaces and the MoF_6 precursor. Physisorption is the dominant surface mechanism for the non-hydroxylated surfaces. Later sections will quantify these interactions[82].

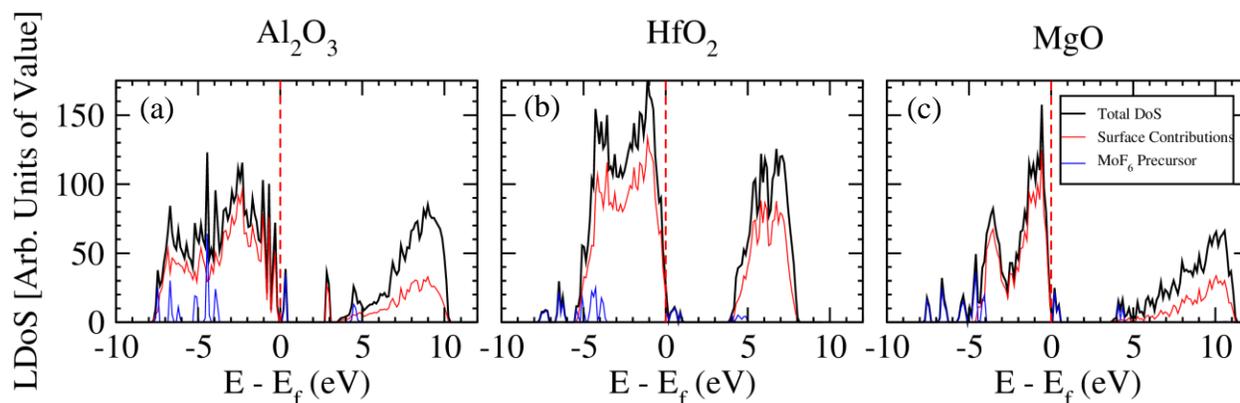


Figure 3. The LDOS for the fully relaxed MoF₆ above the non-hydroxylated (a) Al₂O₃, (b) HfO₂, and (c) MgO substrates. The legend applies to all three substrates.

The partial charge density calculations suggest that the presence of hydroxyl groups enhances the surface reactivity. The LDOS for each hydroxylated substrate with the MoF₆ precursor is plotted in Figure 4, revealing the electronic interactions during deposition. We hypothesized that the electron “pockets” above the hydroxylated Al₂O₃ and HfO₂ substrates in Figure 2 would promote chemical reactions. Figure 4 (a) and (b) show small mid gap states forming below the Fermi energy, and the broadening of the LDOS peaks, which indicates hybridization and chemical bond formation[82]. The hydroxylated MgO substrate in Figure 4 (c) demonstrates similar behavior, however, the MoF₆ precursor creates two small mid gap states, above and below the Fermi energy, and the surface also contributes to these mid gap states.

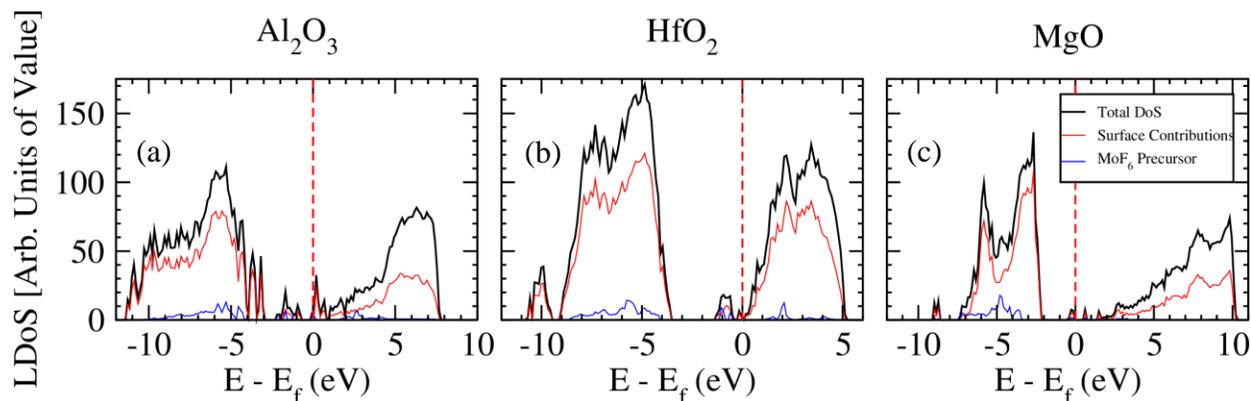


Figure 4. The LDOS for the fully relaxed MoF₆ above the (a) Al₂O₃, (b) HfO₂, and (c) MgO hydroxylated substrates. The legend applies to all three substrates.

In comparison between Figures 3 and 4, the LDOS results for the non-hydroxylated substrates do not show an overlap at the Fermi energy, suggesting no chemical interaction. The LDOS results for the hydroxylated substrates demonstrate the strong surface-precursor interactions stemming from the formation and overlapping of mid gap states. Specifically, Figures 4 (a) and (b) indicate that the surface and precursor both contribute to the states at and near the Fermi energy and show increased bond hybridization, resulting in a strong precursor-surface chemisorption interaction. Figure 4 (c) has fewer overlapping states at the Fermi energy between the surface and precursor. Overall, these mid gap states are derived from the precursor, so further investigation is needed to quantify the physisorption and chemisorption interactions. The LDOS calculations for the non-hydroxylated and hydroxylated substrates reveal two important findings. The first is that non-hydroxylated substrates experience physisorption with the precursor and little electronic interaction. The second is that the hydroxylated surfaces hybridization occurs, leading to chemisorption.

3.3 Electronic Interaction Between Precursor and Surface

The partial charge densities reveal that hydroxylated substrates have an increased surface reactivity and confirm our hypothesis that hydroxyl groups facilitate chemical reactions with MoF₆. The LDoS results suggest precursor-surface physisorption on the non-hydroxylated substrates and precursor-surface chemisorption on the hydroxylated substrates. To better quantify the interactions, we employed Bader charge analysis and calculated the adsorption energies of the precursor on three surfaces. Both can serve as the methods to discern between physical versus chemical interactions as well as quantify the strength of adsorption[81]. Table 1 lists the Bader charge analysis and adsorption energies for the non-hydroxylated and hydroxylated substrates with a single MoF₆ precursor. The Δ Bader is calculated by subtracting the hydroxylated Bader charge values by the non-hydroxylated Bader charge values.

Table 1. The calculated Bader charge analysis for the non-hydroxylated and hydroxylated substrates in presence of a single MoF₆ precursor. A negative Bader charge value means the atomic species is donating valence electrons while a positive value means the atomic species is gaining valence electrons. The adsorption energy of a single MoF₆ precursor E_{ads} is also calculated to quantify the strength of the interaction.

| Atomic Species | Al ₂ O ₃ | | | HfO ₂ | | | MgO | | |
|---|--------------------------------|--------------|----------------|------------------|--------------|----------------|------------------|--------------|----------------|
| | Non-hydroxylated | Hydroxylated | Δ Bader | Non-hydroxylated | Hydroxylated | Δ Bader | Non-hydroxylated | Hydroxylated | Δ Bader |
| | Bader Charge | | | Bader Charge | | | Bader Charge | | |
| Mo | -2.75 | -1.53 | 1.22 | -2.46 | -1.94 | 0.51 | -2.44 | -2.09 | 0.35 |
| F | 0.45 | 0.70 | 0.25 | 0.47 | 0.63 | 0.16 | 0.44 | 0.62 | 0.18 |
| F | 0.45 | 0.92 | 0.46 | 0.42 | 0.62 | 0.20 | 0.44 | 0.62 | 0.18 |
| F | 0.46 | 0.86 | 0.40 | 0.50 | 0.70 | 0.19 | 0.58 | 0.79 | 0.21 |
| F | 0.46 | 0.85 | 0.39 | 0.57 | 0.69 | 0.12 | 0.53 | 0.81 | 0.28 |
| F | 0.47 | 0.85 | 0.39 | 0.47 | 0.70 | 0.23 | 0.53 | 0.79 | 0.26 |
| F | 0.45 | 0.71 | 0.25 | 0.49 | 0.72 | 0.24 | 0.44 | 0.61 | 0.17 |
| Total F | 2.75 | 4.88 | 2.13 | 2.93 | 4.07 | 1.14 | 2.95 | 4.24 | 1.29 |
| E_{ads} (eV/MoF₆) | -0.07 | -9.95 | | -0.45 | -6.42 | | -0.57 | -20.56 | |

For complete physisorption we would expect the sum of the Bader charges for the six F atoms from the precursor to be equal to the Bader charge of the central metal Mo atom. Thus, the Mo atom would distribute its available electrons to the surrounding F atoms, and weak van der Waals forces would hold the precursor to the surface. In Table 1, Total F is the sum of the Bader charge for the F atoms from the MoF₆ precursor. The Bader charge for the metal Mo atom is more negative above the non-hydroxylated surfaces than the hydroxylated surface and is equal to the sum Bader charge for the F atoms. These results indicate Mo-F bonds in the precursor are stronger than the chemical bonds formed between the F atoms and the non-hydroxylated surfaces, suggesting physisorption. The opposite trend is observed above the hydroxylated surfaces. The Mo atom above the hydroxylated surface has a less negative Bader charge than the non-hydroxylated surface, and the sum Bader charge for the F atoms also increases. The Mo-F bonds become weaker while the F-surface bonds become stronger, suggesting chemisorption. We attribute the formation of the F-surface bonds due to the electrons contributed by the hydroxylated surfaces.

Chemisorption occurs with the hydroxylated surfaces, because the Bader charge for the F atoms becomes more positive and the metal Mo becomes less negative. To further determine the magnitude of chemisorption, we calculated the adsorption energies in Table 1. The adsorption energy is negative above the non-hydroxylated and hydroxylated surfaces, which implies that for all systems the precursor will be adsorbed to the surface. However, the adsorption energy varies greatly between the non-hydroxylated and hydroxylated surfaces. The adsorption energies for the MoF₆ precursor above the non-hydroxylated surfaces are all less than 0.50 eV/MoF₆. This result, coupled with the LDoS in Figure 3 and Bader charge in Table 1, confirms our hypothesis that physisorption is the dominant mechanism on these non-hydroxylated surfaces. Conversely, the adsorption energies of the MoF₆ precursor above the hydroxylated Al₂O₃,

HfO₂, and MgO are -9.95 eV/MoF₆, -6.42 eV/MoF₆, and -20.56 eV/MoF₆, respectively. We attribute the extremely negative adsorption energy for MoF₆ on hydroxylated MgO to the H₂ gas that forms above the surface as seen in SI 4. These significantly more negative adsorption energies, coupled with the hybridization in the LDoS in Figure 4 and Bader charge analysis in Table 1, indicate chemisorption, caused by the changes in the surface electronic properties in the presence of hydroxyl groups.

To map the location and redistribution of the electron densities, the charge density difference is plotted in Figure 5 for the non-hydroxylated and hydroxylated Al₂O₃ with a single MoF₆ precursor. The charge density difference is calculated using the equation provided in the Supplementary Information and supplies the residual charge density for the electrons contributing upon adsorption. Blue and yellow regions indicate a gain or loss of electrons, respectively. Upon the adsorption of MoF₆, the non-hydroxylated Al₂O₃ reveals an increase in charge density (blue isosurfaces) between the bonds of the Mo-F atoms while there is a decrease in charge density (yellow isosurfaces) at the bonds between the F atoms and surface (Figure 5 (a)). The charge density at the surface redistributes around the surface Al atoms, but it does not appear to participate in bonding. These findings indicate that the non-hydroxylated surface has a weak interaction with a MoF₆ precursor, evidencing that physisorption occurs. The hydroxylated Al₂O₃ surface in Figures 5 (b) shows a sharp contrast in charge density. Upon the adsorption of MoF₆, there is a large increase in the charge density between the surface and F atoms (blue isosurfaces) that extends to the metal Mo atom. This drastic increase in the charge density suggests the covalent bonding characteristics observed during the ALD process. The partial charge density findings are consistent with the HfO₂ and MgO substrates, and those partial charge density plots can be found in the Supplementary Information.

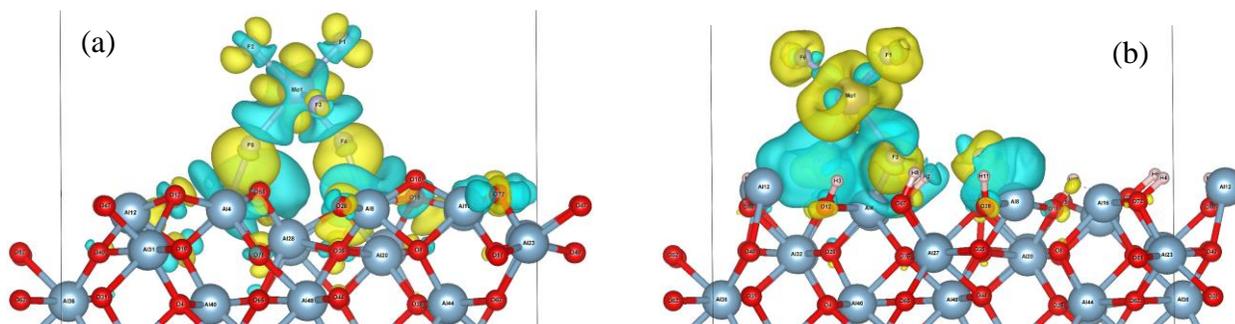


Figure 5. Charge density difference for the non-hydroxylated (a) and hydroxylated (b) Al₂O₃ with MoF₆. The yellow and blue regions indicate a loss and gain of electrons, respectively. The plotted charge density difference highlights the covalent behavior that forms with hydroxylated surfaces.

3.4 Discussions

Our work highlights the importance of hydroxyl groups in consistent with prior DFT works[65, 67-70, 83]. Hydroxyl groups control the first half-cycle for ALD of MoS₂. Treated Al₂O₃, HfO₂, and MgO substrates without hydroxyl groups are less reactive and do not appear to facilitate deposition. Precursor-surface chemisorption is observed on the hydroxylated substrates, but the precursor bonds do not form with the hydroxyl groups. Differences between the oxide surfaces could also play an important role in deposition. While all three oxides have high melting temperatures and large band gaps the crystal structures vary. The highly ionic MgO has a cubic structure where the valence states of Mg and O are 2⁺ and 2⁻ respectively. The Mg and O exchange electrons and form inherently strong Mg-O bonds. The addition of hydroxyl groups at the surface could break these inherently strong bonds and facilitate deposition. The valence state of HfO₂ is similar to MgO. The valence states of Hf and O are 2⁺ and 2⁻ respectively, but HfO₂ has a distinctly different crystal structure. HfO₂ has a more complicated bonding structure with 7-coordinated Hf atom centers. ALD on HfO₂ could depend on the surface termination due to the number of O atoms, and therefore hydroxyls. The Al₂O₃ substrate has valence states of 3⁺ and 2⁻ for Al and O respectively, which resulted in a different bonding structure. Al₂O₃ was extremely sensitive to the hydroxyl groups, and two F atoms dissociated onto the surface. The 3⁺ valence state of Al helped form highly ionic AlF₃.

This work is unique because we identify highly ionic MF_x-surface bonds during the first half cycle of MoF₆. We attribute this to an increase in the electron densities around the Mo atom of the precursor and the surface O atoms which forms chemical bonds. For the MoF₆ precursor, a low operation temperature (i.e., or a high hydroxyl

concentration) could result in the ionic MF_x surface bonds that appear to be a driving thermodynamic factor and potentially could control nucleation. Ultimately, Mo-O bonds are present in experimental growth, and they play an important role forming low dimensional MoS_2 . We propose that the formation of Mo-O bonds is controlled by the hydroxyl concentration. Hydroxyl groups and their densities can vary surface reactivity and change surface chemistry, leading to a controlling nucleation of ALD. The quality of the grown films is dependent on the choice of substrate. Our computational results indicate that an area-selective ALD can be achieved through surface chemistry modification.

4. Conclusions

We present a comprehensive first-principles study of the substrates with and without hydroxyl groups for ALD of MoS_2 using MoF_6 on Al_2O_3 , HfO_2 , and MgO . DFT-based methods were used to calculate quantum interactions during the first half-cycle with MoF_6 in order to gain detailed insight into the nucleation process. We studied the precursor and surface interactions by calculating their partial charge densities, LDoS, Bader charge analysis, and adsorption energies. The partial charge densities reveal that the surfaces become more reactive in the presence of hydroxyl groups. The surface composition also affects the partial charge density distribution. The LDoS results demonstrate that the non-hydroxylated surfaces have little to no electronic interactions with the MoF_6 precursor while the hydroxylated surfaces experience some degree of bond hybridization. The Bader charge analysis quantitatively demonstrates that the non-hydroxylated surfaces form a weak interaction with the precursor through physisorption while the hydroxylated surfaces strongly interact with the MoF_6 precursor through chemisorption. Finally, the calculated adsorption energies highlight this difference. Substrates without hydroxyl groups have low adsorption energies of -0.45, -0.57, and -0.07 eV/ MoF_6 for HfO_2 , MgO , and Al_2O_3 , respectively. Coupling these low adsorption energies with their respective LDoS calculations and Bader charge values, we suggest that physisorption is the dominant mechanism on the non-hydroxylated surfaces. Conversely, the adsorption energies of the fully hydroxylated surfaces increase to -9.95, -6.42, and -20.56 eV/ MoF_6 for Al_2O_3 , HfO_2 , and MgO , respectively. Coupling their respective LDoS calculations, Bader charge values, and adsorption energies with the charge density difference figures, we suggest that chemisorption is the dominant mechanism above hydroxylated surfaces. Our study also highlights the importance of substrate choice and how different substrates react with the precursor, and indicate the potential for area-selective ALD.

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