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碩士論文

透明非晶態氧化鋅錫搭配無銦電極之薄膜電晶體



**Transparent Amorphous Zn-Sn-O Thin Film Transistors
with Indium Free Electrodes**

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中華民國一百零一年七月

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由於銮價不斷的上漲，氧化薄膜電晶體中無銮的材料逐漸受到重視。本文著墨於無銮的非晶態氧化鋅錫薄膜電晶體的薄膜特性、光學特性、電性特性、穩定度以及抗蝕刻特性的研究，同時也與氧化銮鎳鋅薄膜電晶體做比較與討論。為了實現整個元件都無銮，在透明電極材料上使用氧化鋁鋅做為源極與漏極搭配氧化鋅錫薄膜電晶體的特性也做了完整的研究與比較。

實驗結果顯示氧化鋅錫電晶體因為有低的有效電子質量與較高的載子濃度，所以有較高的載子移動率，且在穩定度上因為氧化鋅錫有較大的電負度，所以在正偏壓應力與高溫下有較高的穩定性。而抗刻蝕力的結果顯示氧化鋅錫的抗蝕刻性是氧化銮鎳鋅的 8.4 倍，這將有利於濕式蝕刻的製程。本研究的結果指出無銮的非晶態氧化鋅錫薄膜電晶體有潛力作為高性能非晶態氧化物的薄膜電晶體。

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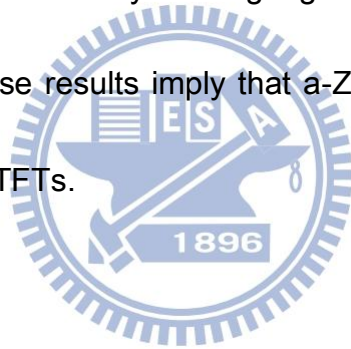


Abstract

Oxide thin film transistors (TFTs) based on Indium-free materials are in high demand due to the price of In increase substantially. To solve those issues, zinc oxide (ZnO) based semiconductor materials are introduced and studied. Present study aims to develop the In-free metal oxide TFTs and discusses the characteristics of amorphous Zn-Sn-O (a-ZTO) TFTs, including thin film qualities, optical properties, electrical properties, stabilities, and etching resistance. Also, the comparisons of a-ZTO and amorphous In-Ga-Zn-O (a-IGZO) TFTs are presented. To realize the In-free TFTs, the


a-ZTO TFTs with transparent conductive oxide Al-Zn-O (AZO) is used as source and drain electrodes.

The electrical results demonstrate that the mobility of a-ZTO TFT is higher than a-IGZO TFT, because a-ZTO has the lower effective mass and the higher carrier concentration. A-ZTO has the higher electronegativity in stronger metal oxide bonding than a-IGZO that result in better stability under a temperature bias stressing. A-ZTO has a factor of 8 higher in etching resistance compared to that of a-IGZO, thus, more easily forming high quality patterns definition in wet etching process. These results imply that a-ZTO TFT is promising to be high performance In-free TFTs.



誌謝

經過一番的努力，碩士的生涯總算要告一段落了。很慶幸能夠在謝漢萍老師和黃乙白老師的實驗室中做研究，實驗室提供了充足的資源，老師以及學姐也給予了很大的自由度可以做自己想做的實驗。研究的過程中學習到了很多關於發掘問題、研究問題、解決問題的能力，與別人合作的過程中也學會了很多團隊精神與待人處事的道理。感謝黃老師當初在我還是備取的時候大膽的收我進實驗室；感謝謝老師在投影片製作的指導和英文口與簡報的要求，讓我在這方面的能力進步不少。

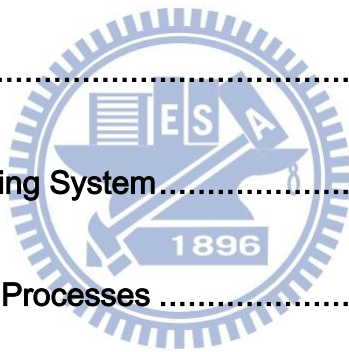


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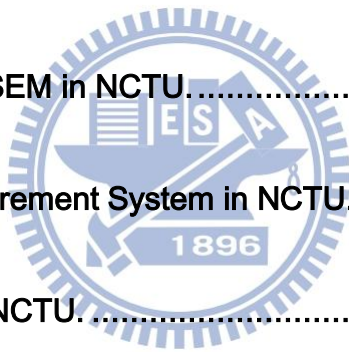


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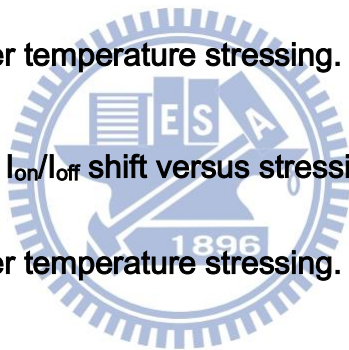
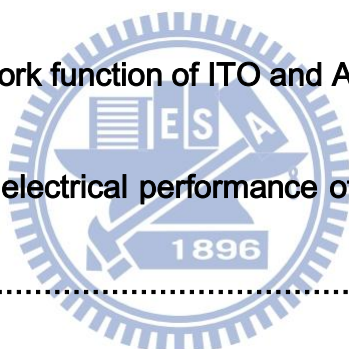


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Chapter 1

Introduction

1-1. Background of Thin Film Transistors (TFTs)

In this technological era, a variety of sophisticated electronic components are growing popular. The development of flat panel displays is particularly important because displays play a bridge between human and electronic components. In order to achieve high-performance displays, such as ultra definition (3840x2160) TV [1], transparent displays [2], and flexible displays [2], the active matrix driver circuit and the backlight module need to improve.

A thin film transistor (TFT) is a metal-oxide-semiconductor field effect transistor (MOSFET) fabricated on an insulator substrate by employing all thin film constituents. Conventional TFTs are composed of a semiconductor layer, a gate insulator layer, and electrode terminals. The TFTs are particular form of field-effect transistors by depositing the active layer with a thin film semiconductor. A TFT device consisted of three terminals is shown in Figure 1-1. The gate (G) terminal acts as a switch to control the transistor to open or close in a circuit then, the current flows from drain (D) to source (S) which is

originated from the drift of electron carriers. There are four structures for TFTs, including staggered, inverted staggered, coplanar, and inverted coplanar TFTs, as shown in Figure 1-2. The classification of the structures is convenient to define by the stacked order of the gate electrode, gate insulator (GI), active layer, and source/drain electrodes.

The world's first TFT using cadmium sulfide (CdS) as active layer has been successfully developed by Weimer in 1962 [3]. Afterward, other kinds of semiconductors such as cadmium selenide (CdSe) [4] and indium antimonide (InSb) [5] as the channel materials were used in the TFT devices.

At 1970s, liquid crystal displays (LCDs) were developed and the concept of active-matrix drive circuit was emerged; therefore, TFT technology was then attracted a lot of the attention of researchers. In 1979, amorphous silicon (a-Si) as channel layer of TFTs technology obtained widespread attention and commercial applications [6,7]. In the 1990s, the organic semiconductor as active layer (OTFTs) began to develop and be utilized in active-matrix organic light-emitting diode displays (AM-OLEDs) [8,9,10,11].

TFTs researches were developed rapidly over the past decade including the investigations of device performance, production cost, and manufacturing processes. Researchers focus gradually shifted from a-Si to other materials,

for example, amorphous oxide semiconductors (AOSs). The AOS TFTs have many benefits including high mobility, low process temperature, high transmittance, and large-area uniformity. In response to TFTs having large number of applications on the flat panel displays, the transparent conducting oxides (TCOs) as the TFT's electrode were discussed.

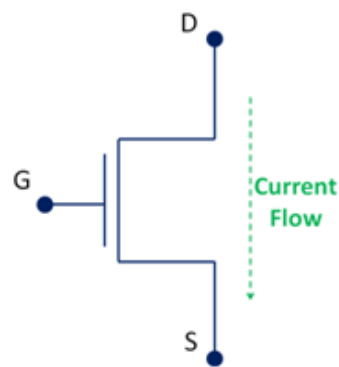


Fig. 1-1 The schematic of a TFT.

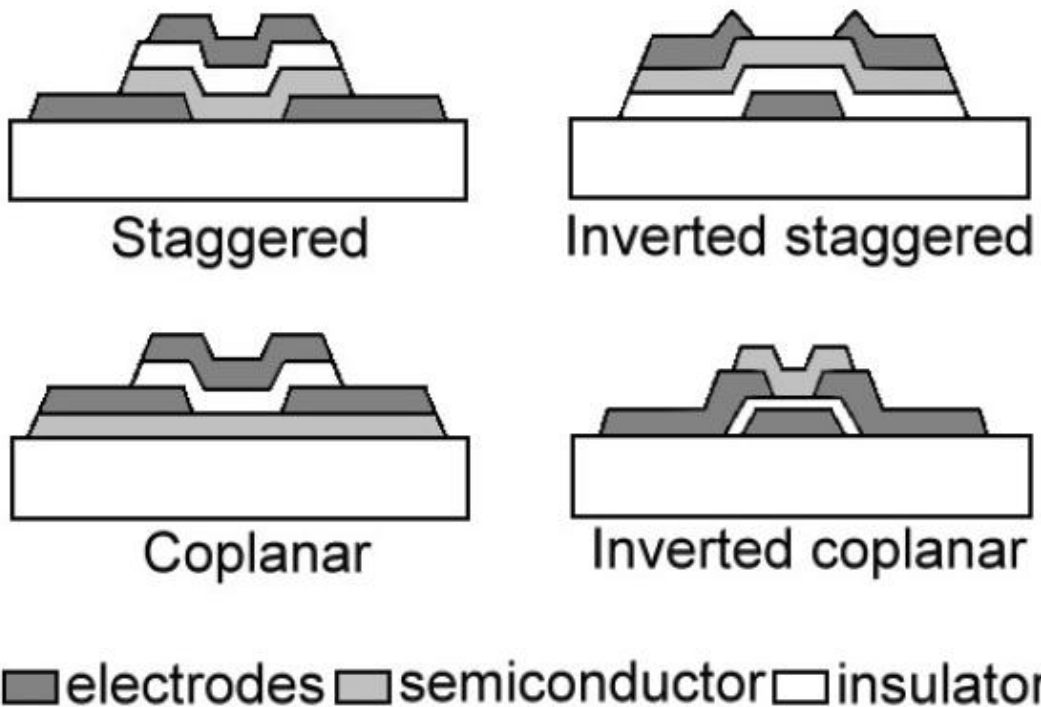


Fig. 1-2 Four kinds of structures for TFTs.

1-2. Development of TFTs

The development history of TFT had been investigated over 50 years. This section introduces the development of channel materials in TFTs, including the Si TFTs, OTFTs, and the AOS TFTs.

Silicon Semiconductors

The course of development of Si TFT devices has experienced monocrystalline silicon (c-Si) [12], a-Si [6,7], polycrystalline silicon (p-Si) [13], and microcrystalline silicon (μ -Si) [14]. The c-Si is not conducive to apply on microelectronics technology because of the nature of hard and brittle at room temperature. A hydrogenated a-Si (a-Si:H) exhibits the large area uniformity for TFTs, solar cells, sensors, and other electronic devices. A-Si is the mainstream material for present TFTs. However, there are some issues of a-Si TFTs in the active-matrix-driven devices. The large resistance of on-state and the low field-effect mobility for a-Si TFTs do not match the requirement for future displays [15]. On the other hand, stability should be improved for a-Si TFT since it is easy to form the photo-carrier under visible light [16]. To solve these difficulties, p-Si as the substitute of a-Si is proposed. Heave doping is easy for p-Si, so ion implantation was used in p-Si TFTs to form the heavily

doped p-Si source and drain electrodes. The parasitic capacitance between drain, source, and gate can be reduced by self-alignment technique, resulting in higher field-effect mobility, faster response time. Nevertheless, p-Si TFTs have some issues including large off-state current, low uniformity, and high process temperature.

Organic Semiconductors

The first organic TFTs were demonstrated by Koezuka in 1978 [17]. Compared with inorganic TFTs, organic semiconductor materials possesses the benefits such as simple processes, light weight, low cost and flexibility.

The current issues of OTFTs are the existence of a large number of defect states thich cause low carrier concentration, the impact of the external environment results in lower stability, etc [18]. These drawbacks of OTFTs limit the applications in the display industry.

Amorphous Oxide Semiconductors

In recent years, in order to solve the issues of Si TFTs and OTFTs, the amorphous oxide semiconductor (AOS) TFTs was developed. AOS TFTs have several features that are attractive for flat-panel displays and large-area

integrated circuits [19]. The advantageous of AOS TFTs are summarized as follows:

1. **Wide processing temperature window** : By choosing an appropriate chemical composition, AOSs form stable amorphous phases with high crystallization temperatures ($> 500\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$); and, the various electrical properties can be achieved by adjusting the process temperature.
2. **Low processing temperature** : AOS TFTs exhibit satisfactory operation characteristics even fabricated at room temperature, and this will facilitate the production of flexible displays.
3. **Low operating voltage** : Oxides have electronic structures specific to the ionic chemical bonds, and they form much fewer defect states in the band gap compared to conventional covalent semiconductors such as Si. The lower defect density allows a small subthreshold swing (SS) value of 0.1 V/decade and low operation voltages of $< 5\text{ V}$.
4. **Large carrier mobility** : AOS TFTs exhibit the field effect mobility above $10\text{ cm}^2/\text{Vs}$, which is more than one order of magnitude compared to traditional a-Si TFTs.
5. **Simple electrode structure and low off current** : Si-based field-effect transistors require a p–n junction for the source and drain electrodes to

suppress inversion operation and the consequent increase the off current.

Since AOS TFTs do not exhibit inversion p-channel operation, simple metallic contacts may be used for source and drain electrodes without increasing the off current.

6. **Easy of fabrication** : The features such as the possibility of low-temperature fabrication, insensitivity to gate insulator, the simple electrode structure and the wide flexibility of processing temperature, allow easy fabrication of AOS TFTs. The conventional sputtering methods can be adopted for AOS TFTs [20, 21].

7. **Excellent uniformity and surface flatness** : AOS TFTs exhibit excellent uniformity and surface flatness (< 0.3 nm) owing to the amorphous structure, and this property facilitates the production of large-size displays [22].

8. **High transparency in visible light** : most of the AOS materials have high optical band gap (> 2.6 eV) which have more than 80% transmittance in visible light, and this facilitates the production of transparent displays.

Due to above-mentioned advantages, the AOS TFTs are promising for next-generation displays. The comparisons of a-Si TFTs, p-Si TFTs, OTFTs, and AOS TFTs are summarized in Table 1-1.

Tab. 1-1 The characteristics of p-Si, a-Si, organic, and AOS materials

	p-Si	a-Si	organic	AOS
Stability	Excellent	Good	Bad	Good
Uniformity	Bad	Good	Good	Good
Mobility (cm²/Vs)	>80	~1	~1	>10
Leakage current	High	Low	Low	Lowest
Processing temperature	High	Low	Low	Low
Flexibility	No	No	Good	Good
Transmittance	Low	Low	High	High

1-3. Application of TFTs

The TFTs array driven LCD (TFT-LCD) technology is developing rapidly in recent years, TFT-LCD becomes the mainstream technology for the display industry. The cross section structure shown in Figure 1-3 is a standard TFT-LCD panel. In the each pixel of TFTs array, ITO electrode connected to drain, signal line and gate. In the display, a TFT plays the role of the switch which adjusts the input voltage and changes the transmittance of the liquid crystal, thus achieving the purpose of image display. Contrast, brightness,

color, gray scale, power consumption, and response time of LCDs are improved by using the active matrix backplane.

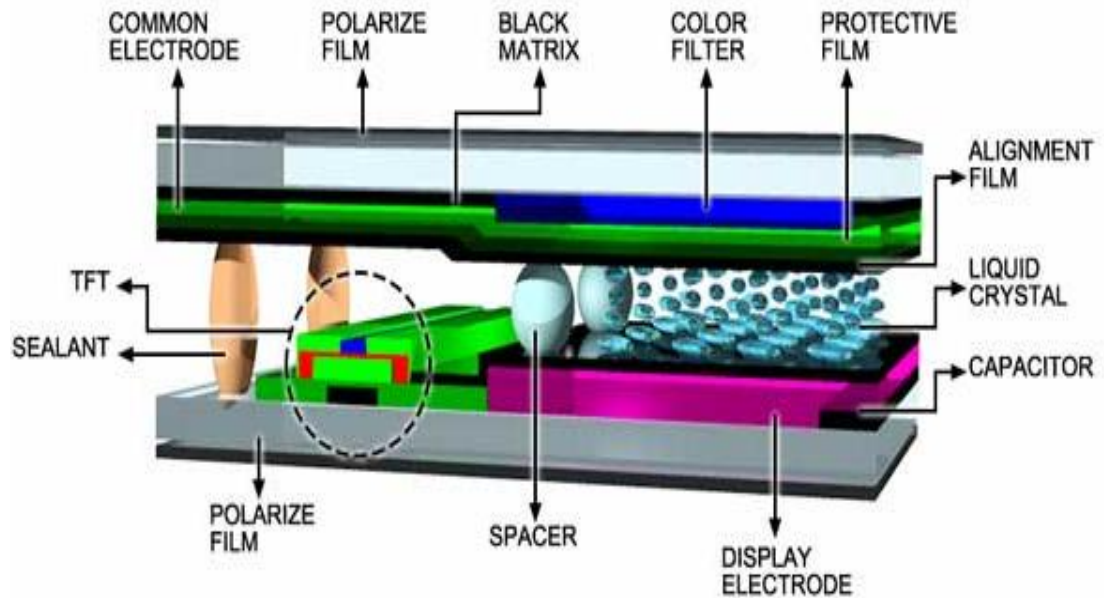


Fig. 1-3 Cross section structure diagram of the TFT-LCD panel [23].

The circuit schematic of OTFT-driven AMOLED pixel is demonstrated in Figure 1-4 [24]. The circuit structure includes two TFTs and one capacitor C_s , called an OLED pixel unit. The TFT_1 is a switching device to control a single pixel and the TFT_2 as drive device to control current flow through OLED is used to adjust the brightness. Therefore, to achieve high brightness requirements, developing high mobility TFT is an effective way.

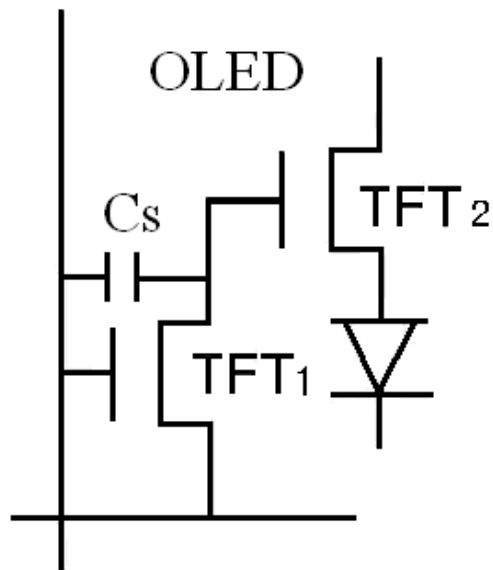


Fig. 1-4 The circuit schematic of an AMOLED pixel [24].

In last decade, AOS TFTs with lots of advantages are developed by the displays industry. Manufacturers demonstrated different products using oxide TFTs as shown in Figure 1-5. Samsung Mobile Display reported a 6.5 inch flexible AMOLED driven by a-IGZO TFTs. The TFTs deposited on polyimide substrate shows no deterioration when bended down to radius (R) = 3mm [25], and the annealing was conducted at 220 °C . AU Optronics (AUO) demonstrated 32 inch prototype OLED TV using a-IGZO TFTs at FPD International 2011 as show in Figure 1-5 [26]. These prior arts indicated that oxide TFTs-based devices can realize next generation displays.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 1-5 Photographs of (a) 6.5 inch flexible full-color top emission AMOLED panel with a-IGZO TFTs as back plane [25] and (b) 32 inch prototype OLED TV driven by a-IGZO TFTs [26].



1-4. Motivations and Objective

There are some issues of a-Si TFTs, p-Si TFTs, and OTFTs, including low mobility, high fabrication temperature, low stability, and high cost that cannot meet the demands of high-performance displays. Therefore, the development of the oxide TFT devices has become important because it lays the foundation for future high-performance displays.

Indium-gallium-zinc-oxide (IGZO) is the most commonly discussed AOS material. However, a-IGZO has the drawback of being expensive indium (In) which is a rare (6000 metric tons worldwide in 2006) and expensive element.

In addition, as the demand of In increases for flat-panel displays and solar cells, causing the price increase substantially. Figure 1-6 shows the price charts of In, Zn, Sn, and Al, respectively [27]. As can be seen in Figure 1-6, the price of In is around 25 times higher than the price of Sn. Moreover, some studies report that the price of In will exceed 2000 USD/kg in the near future [27]. For these reasons, the In-free and low cost substitute materials: zinc oxide (ZnO) and tin oxide (SnO₂) have attracted many attentions recently. Previous studies presented that Zn-Sn-O (ZTO) has high transmittance, wide band gap, good uniformity and high mobility; thus, a-ZTO has the potential as a material to replace a-IGZO. The present study aims to develop the non-rare earth metal oxide TFTs, discussions of the characteristics of a-ZTO TFTs, including thin film qualities, optical properties, electrical properties, and stabilities. The comparisons with the a-IGZO TFTs are presented in this thesis. Additionally, to replace the In rich based TCO, ZnO based conductors such as AZO proposed as alternative materials are also studied to construct the In-free TFTs.

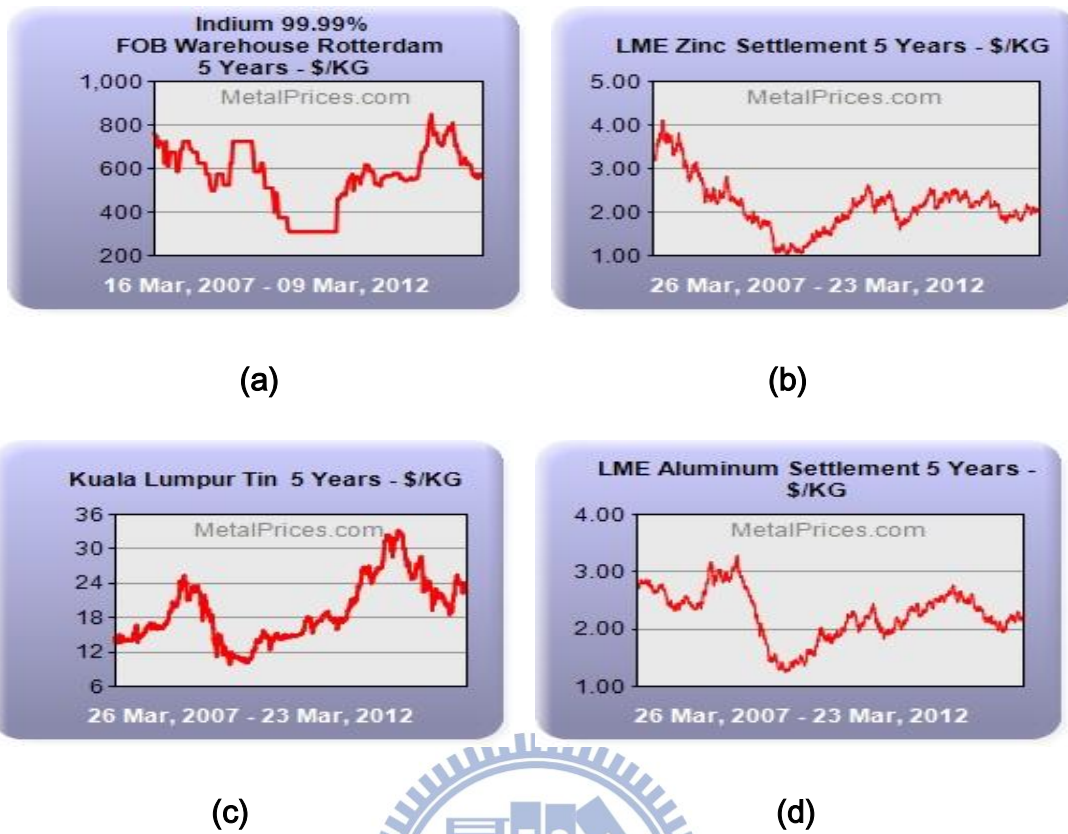


Fig. 1-6 Price charts of (a) indium, (b) zinc, (c) tin, and (d) aluminum, respectively [27].

Another issue of a-IGZO is etching resistance. Etching process is much reliable and preferred for generating fine patterns in electronics manufacturing. In contrast to dry etching, wet etching results in higher performance, lower cost, and larger area in mass-production [28]. In a process of fabricating AOS-based TFTs that are generally composed of multi-layers of transparent oxides to form a “thoroughly transparent” electronic device, the etching rates of those layers to be patterned individually must be known in advance. However, some

researches reported that etching resistance of a-IGZO is too low [29], which can result in lower etching rate selectivity between a-IGZO and TCOs electrodes. To solve this issue, we proposed and studied the etching resistance of a-ZTO to improve the low etching selectivity of AOS TFTs.

1-5. Thesis Organization

This thesis is organized as follows: The operation principle of TFTs, electrical properties of TFTs, carrier transporting mechanism in AOS, and the extraction method of TFTs device parameters are described in **Chapter 2**. The experimental schemes and methods are presented in **Chapter 3**. In **Chapter 4**, the optical properties of a-ZTO, thin film transfer characteristics including stabilities of a-ZTO TFTs, and etching resistance of a-ZTO thin film are discussed. The comparisons of a-ZTO/a-IGZO and ITO/AZO TFTs are also proposed, respectively. Finally, conclusions and future works are summarized in **Chapter 5**.

Chapter 2

Principle and Characterization

2-1. Introduction

The operation principles of TFTs are introduced. The electrical properties of TFTs will then be illustrated. Next, the carrier transporting mechanism in AOS is presented. Finally, the extraction method of electrical parameters such as threshold voltage (V_{th}), sub-threshold swing (SS), field-effect mobility (μ_{FE}), and I_{on}/I_{off} are defined.



2-2. Operation Principle of TFTs

The operation principle and the structure of TFTs are similar to the metal-oxide-semiconductor field-effect transistors (MOSFETs). The TFTs are categorized to n-type and p-type TFTs, and the majority carriers are electrons in the n-type channel. On the other hand, the majority carriers are holes in the p-type channel. To elucidate the operation mechanism, an n-type and bottom-gate-top-contact TFT configuration is plotted in Figure 2-1.

When no bias voltage exerts on the gate, the carriers uniformly distribute

in the channel layer. Since the intrinsic carrier concentration is low; the electrical conductivity of the channel layer and the current between source and drain are very small. A lot of electrons at the surface between gate insulator and channel layer are induced when exerting a positive bias on gate. Meanwhile, conductivity of the semiconductor is improved greatly to form a conductive channel. On the other hand, exerting a negative bias on gate depletes the carriers at channel layer. By applying different gate voltage, the interface of channel layer and gate insulator can be either charge accumulation or also charge depletion. Thus, adjusting the different gate voltage may modulate the carrier concentration in channel layer.

When a bias voltage exerted to gate (V_{GS}) is less than turn-on voltage (V_{on}), channel layer does not form a conductive channel, and hence no current is generated. It is called the off state as shown Figure 2-2 (a) [30]. When V_{GS} is larger than V_{on} , carriers in channel layer are induced by electric field that are forming a conductive channel and generating the drain to source current (I_{DS}). When the drain voltage (V_{DS}) is small, the channel is in the accumulated state that is called linear region as can be seen in Figure 2-2 (b). When V_{DS} increased gradually, the thickness of channel becomes asymmetric due to the electric field effect, and the thickness of channel in drain end is smaller than

the one in source end. When V_{DS} reaches the saturation voltage, the carriers disappear and channel is just pinch-off in drain end. If V_{DS} is increased over the saturation voltage, the TFT is in saturation region as illustrated in Figure 2-2 (c).

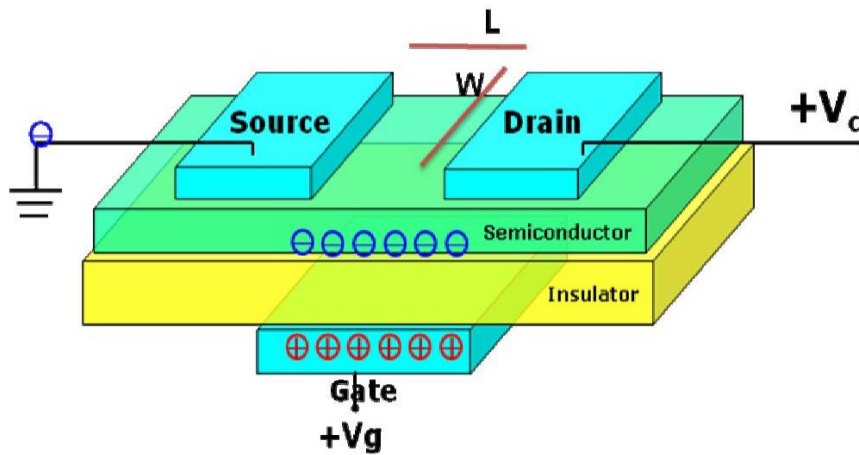


Fig. 2-1 A bottom-gate-top-contact TFT structure.

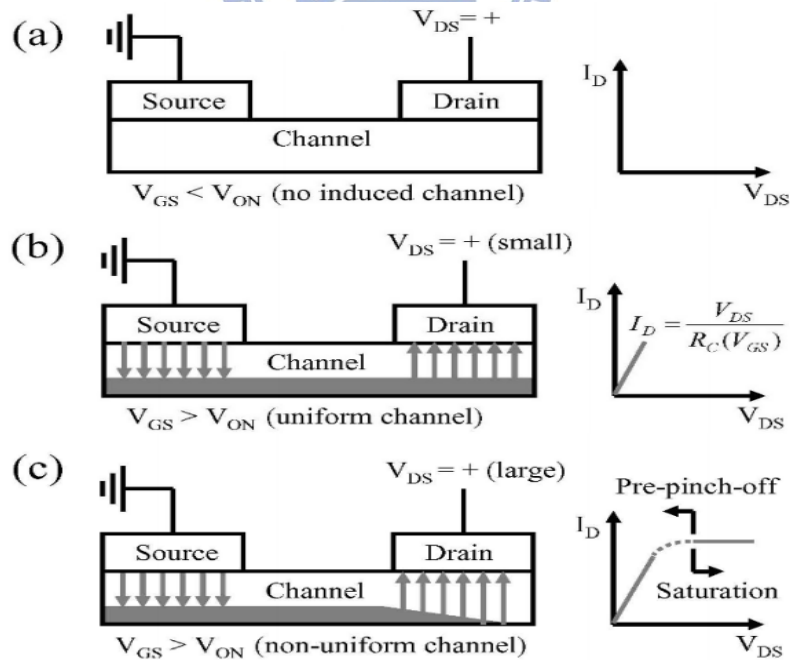


Fig. 2-2 Operation principle of TFTs (a) off state region, (b) linear region, and (c) saturation region, respectively [30].

2-3. Electrical Properties of TFTs

The standard parameters of the TFTs include channel width (W), channel length (L), and capacitance per unit area of the gate insulator (C_{OX}). In the linear region ($V_{DS} \ll V_{GS} - V_{th}$) [31], the drain current is directly proportional to the drain voltage and can be written as:

$$I_{DS} = \frac{1}{2} \mu_{FE} C_{OX} \frac{W}{L} [(V_{GS} - V_{th})V_{DS} - V_{DS}^2] \quad (2-1)$$

where μ_{FE} is field-effect mobility. V_{th} is denoted as the smallest applied gate voltage that causes a non-negligible increasing in drain current for a given drain voltage. When the drain voltage increases and exceeds the relational expression of $V_{DS} \equiv V_{GS} - V_{th}$, the drain current is constant with increasing the drain voltage and this condition is called the saturation region. The drain current can be expressed by Eq. 2.2.

$$I_{DS} = \frac{1}{2} \mu_{FE} C_{OX} \frac{W}{L} (V_{GS} - V_{th})^2 \quad (2-2)$$

2-4. Carrier Transporting Mechanism in AOS

The mobility of a-Si:H ($\sim 1 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$) [6,7] is much smaller than that of single crystalline Si ($> 80 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$) [12,13] due to the intrinsic chemical bonding nature. The average carrier transportation paths in covalent-type

semiconductors, such as a-Si:H, consist of strongly directive sp^3 orbitals. The bond angle fluctuation significantly alters the electronic levels, causing high density of deep tail-states, as shown in Figure 2-3 [32].

In contrast, transparent oxides constituting of heavy post transition metal cations with the $(n-1) d^{10}ns^0$ electron configuration, where $n \geq 5$, are the transparent AOS (TAOS) candidates having large mobilities comparable to those of the corresponding crystals. The electron pathway in oxide semiconductor is primarily composed of spatially spread ns orbitals with an isotropic shape, as shown in Figure 2-3. The direct overlap among the neighboring ns orbital is possible. The degree of overlap of the ns orbital is insensitive to the distorted metal-oxygen-metal bonding. This feature shows why the Hall mobility of AOS is similar to the corresponding crystalline phase, even under the room temperature deposited of thin-films.

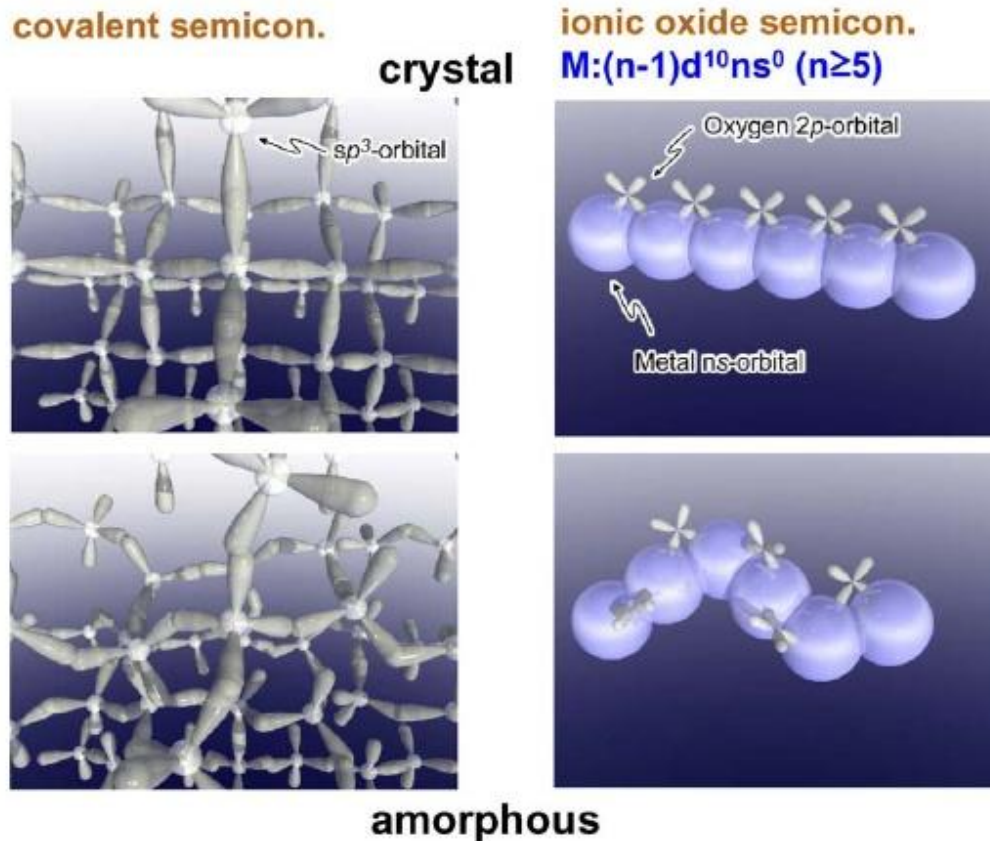


Fig. 2-3 Schematic of orbital drawing of electron pathway (conduction band bottom) in conventional silicon-base semiconductor and ionic oxide semiconductor [32].

2-5. Methods of Parameter Extraction

The methods of typical parameters extraction such as threshold voltage (V_{th}), subthreshold swing (SS), On/Off current ratio (I_{on}/I_{off}) and field effect mobility (μ_{FE}) from device characteristics are described. The I_{DS} is plotted against V_{GS} for various V_{DS} as shown in Figure 2-4. The extraction methods

will then be described in detail.

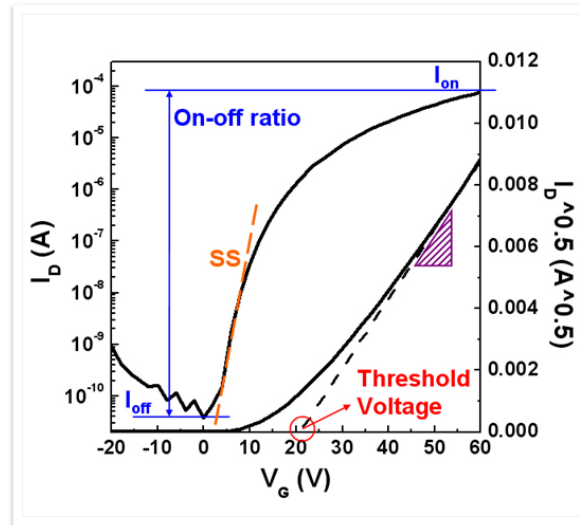


Fig. 2-4 Conventional n-type TFTs transfer characteristics.

2-5.1 Determination of the Threshold Voltage (V_{th})

Plenty of methods are available to determine V_{th} which is one of the most important parameters of semiconductor devices. The intercept of the extend line in $\sqrt{I_D}$ - V_G diagram is adopted and based on the transformation formula of I_D - V_G in saturation region as shown in Eq. 2-2. V_{th} depend on the conductive degree of channel layer, trap density in the interface of channel/gate insulator layer, and the contact quality of electrodes/channel layer.

2-5.2 Determination of the Sub-Threshold Swing (SS)

Subthreshold swing (SS) is a typical parameter to describe the control ability of gate toward channel which is the speed of turning the device on and off. It is defined as the gate voltage required to increase and decrease the drain current by one order of magnitude. SS is related to the process, and it is irrelevant to device dimensions. SS can be lessened by substrate bias since it is affected by the total trap density including interfacial trap density and bulk density. In this study, SS is defined as one-half of the gate voltage required to decrease the threshold current by two orders of magnitude (from 10^{-7}A to 10^{-9}A). The threshold current is specified as the drain current when the gate voltage is equal to V_{th} . SS is evaluated from the TFTs transfer characteristic in the sub-threshold regime, using the following formula:

$$SS = \left(\frac{d \log(I_D)}{d V_{GS}} \right)^{-1} \quad (2-3)$$

2-5.3 Determination of Field-Effect Mobility (μ_{FE})

The field-effect mobility (μ_{FE}) means the average moving speed of the carrier under electric field. μ_{FE} indicates the ability of carrier mobility in semiconductors. Typically, μ_{FE} is derived from the transconductance (g_m) at low drain voltage ($V_D = 0.1 \text{ V}$) [33]. If V_D is much smaller than $V_G - V_{th}$, then $V_D \ll V_G - V_{th}$ can be approximated as $V_G > V_{th}$, therefore, Eq. (2-1) can be rewritten as

Eq. 2-4.

$$I_{DS} = \mu_{FE} C_{OX} \frac{W}{L} (V_{GS} - V_{th}) V_{DS} \quad (2-4)$$

Transconductance is defined as

$$g_m = \left. \frac{\partial I_D}{\partial V_{GS}} \right|_{V_D = \text{const.}} = \mu_{FE} C_{OX} \frac{W}{L} V_{DS} \quad (2-5)$$

Thus,

$$\mu_{FE} = \frac{L}{W V_{DS} C_{OX}} g_m \quad (2-6)$$

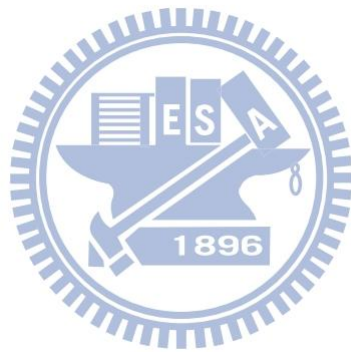
2-5.4 I_{on}/I_{off}

I_{on}/I_{off} is defined as the ratio of maximum on-current and minimum off-current of drain current (I_D), which illustrates the modulation capability of the device current. High I_{on}/I_{off} represents not only the large turn-on current but also the small off current (leakage current). I_{on}/I_{off} affects AMLCD gray levels (the bright to dark state number) directly. There are many factors affect I_{on}/I_{off} such as carrier concentration, dimension of channel width/length, interface state, and ohmic contact.

2-6. Summary

The a-ZTO thin film is an In-free material that has a potential to reduce the cost. Therefore, a-ZTO TFTs have the potential to replace a-IGZO TFTs. For

practical applications, the thin film characteristics and electrical properties must be studied and analyzed.



Chapter 3

Experimental Methods

3-1. Introduction

The device fabrication and processing parameters are described. The principle of RF sputtering system will be described. Afterward, the fabrication facilities and the process flow are introduced. At last, the analytical methods and tools are illustrated.



3-2. Principle of Sputtering System

Magnetron radio frequency (RF) sputtering is the most important tool of thin film deposition in this work. RF sputtering uses high-frequency power to prevent the charges accumulated in the target. Furthermore, the magnetron is used to modulate the electron moving path, which improves plasma collision frequency.

The RF sputtering can be used to sputter both insulator and conductive targets, since the charge does not build up on the surface of the target. A schematic diagram of a typical RF sputtering system is shown in Figure 3-1.

The high vacuum sputtering system in NCTU is placed in class 10K clean room as shown in Figure 3-2.

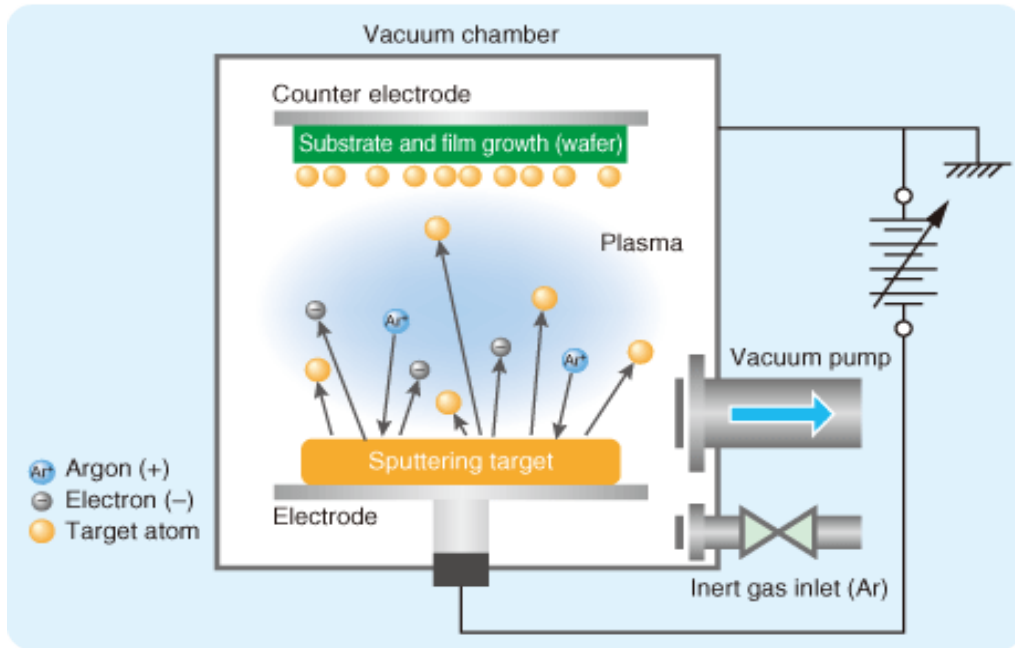


Fig. 3-1 Typical RF sputtering system.



Fig. 3-2 The Sputtering system in NCTU.

Firstly, the substrate is placed in a vacuum chamber with the source material, named a target, and the working gases (such as argon (Ar) or oxygen (O₂)) are introduced at low pressure (typically between 1mTorr and 10 mTorr). Gas plasma is struck using an RF power source, causing the gas to become ionized. The ions are accelerated towards the surface of the target, causing atoms of the source material to break off from the target in vapor form and condense on the substrate. A lower working pressure increases the mean free path which results in the deposited species having more energy to diffuse along the substrate surface in order to find the lowest energy state possible.



3-3. Device Fabrication Processes

In this experiment, an n-type (antimony doping) Si wafer with 100nm thick thermal SiO₂ was selected to represent the gate electrode and insulator layer, respectively. The active layer and source/drain electrodes were deposited by the RF magnetron sputter at room temperature (RT), respectively. The flowcharts of the fabrications are shown in Figure 3-4 and the deposition details of each procedure are described in the following sections.

3-3.1 Substrate Cleaning

Firstly, the 3cm x 3cm wafer was cleaned by DI water for 10 minutes. Then, the wafer is placed in a container with acetone and ultrasonic vibration for 30 minutes to remove organic pollution. The wafer was then placed in another container with isopropanol (IPA) and ultrasonic vibration for 30 minutes to remove acetone. Finally, nitrogen (N₂) jet was used to purge dry the wafer and then put the wafer in an oven at 120 ° C for 10 minutes.

3-3.2 Active Layer Deposition

N-type (antimony doping) silicon wafer as the gate electrode with 100 nm thick thermal SiO₂ as the gate insulator layer were used to reduce the gate insulator interface trapping issue. Shadow masks were used to define the pattern of active layer. Meanwhile, the active layer of 50-nm-thick a-ZTO and a-IGZO were deposited by RF magnetron sputtering with the ZnSnO₃ target (ZnO : SnO₂ = 1:1) and the In₂Ga₂ZnO₇ target (In₂O₃ : Ga₂O₃ : ZnO = 1:1:1) at RT, respectively.

The a-ZTO film was deposited at RF power= 80 W, working pressure = 3 mTorr and Ar flow rate= 10 sccm; the a-IGZO film was deposited at RF power= 80 W, working pressure = 3 mTorr, gas flow rate of Ar and O₂ equal to 10 and

0.6 sccm, respectively.

3-3.3 Electrode Deposition

The 40-nm thick ITO or AZO as the source and drain electrodes were patterned by means of shadow mask in RF magnetron sputter system with the background pressure about 3×10^{-6} Torr. The ITO electrodes were deposited at RF power = 50 W, 3 mTorr, and Ar flow rate of 10 sccm, while the AZO electrodes were deposited at RF power = 80 W, 3 mTorr, and gas flow rate of argon and oxygen of 10 and 0.5 sccm, respectively.

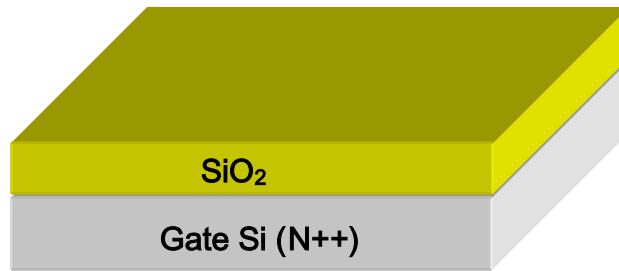
3-3.4 Post Annealing Process

After deposited channel layer and source/drain electrodes, the atmospheric anneal furnace in nitrogen ambience was performed to rearrange the a-ZTO structure. The experimental conditions were controlled at 450 °C and N₂ atmospheric environment. The total annealing time was 1 hr. Figure 3-3 shows the instrument of atmospheric anneal furnace.



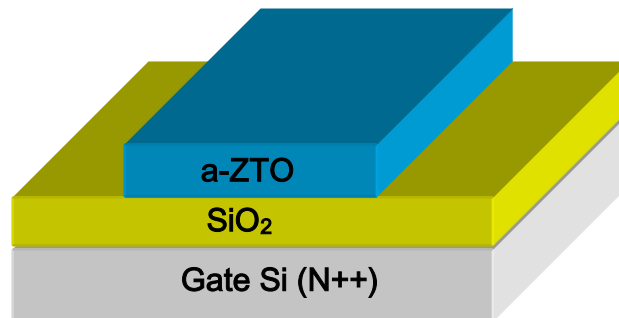
Fig. 3-3 Atmospheric anneal furnace.





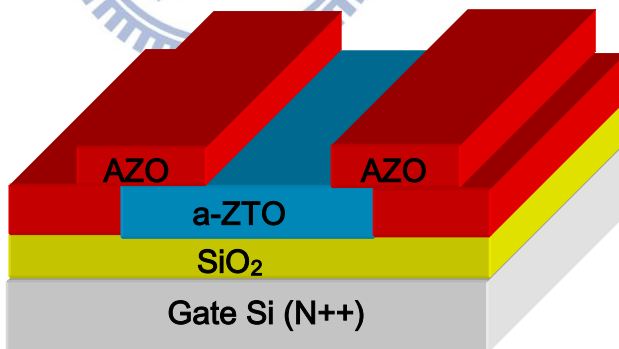
1

Clean the N++ Si substrate that with thermal oxide



2

Sputtering a-ZTO channel layer



3

Sputtering AZO source and drain

4

Annealing

Fig. 3-4 Flowchart of a-ZTO TFTs fabrication.

3-4. Thin Film Analysis

3-4.1 Measurement of Optical Properties

The transmittance spectrum and optical properties of the AOSs and TCOs were carried out by the UV-VIS spectrophotometer (Lambda 950). Diagrams of the components of a spectrometer are shown in Figure 3-5. A beam of light from a visible or UV light source is passed through slits, mirrors, and a diffraction grating. The intensity of the reference beam, which is original light source, is defined as I_0 . The intensity of the sample beam is defined as I . The transmittance T can be presented as $T = \frac{I}{I_0}$ and then the other parameters such as absorption coefficient and optical band gap also can be derived.

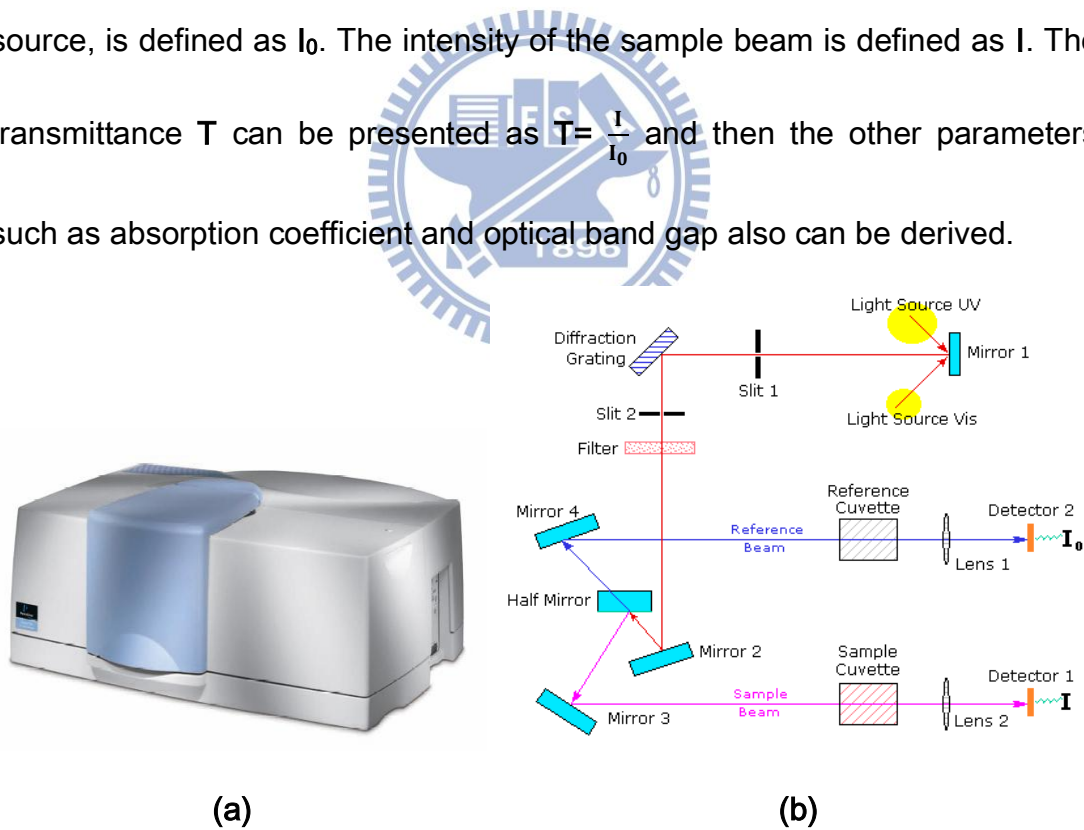


Fig. 3-5 (a) UV-VIS spectrophotometer at NCTU and (b) schematics of UV-VIS spectrophotometer.

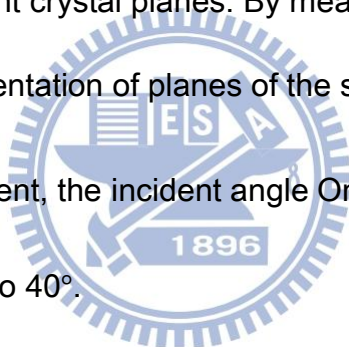
3-4.2 X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)

Bede, D1 High resolution X-ray diffraction (XRD) is mainly for identifying the crystalline phases and determining the orientation as well as the grain size. In XRD, a collimated beam of monochromatic X rays strikes a specimen and is diffracted by crystal planes. By Bragg's law,

$$\lambda = 2d\sin\theta$$

We can calculate the spacing between planes, d , from the wavelength of incident X-ray, λ , and the diffraction angle, 2θ , which is scanned to pick up diffraction from the different crystal planes. By measuring the X-ray profile and further calculation, the orientation of planes of the specimen can be obtained.

In the XRD measurement, the incident angle Omega is 0.5° and scanning 2θ is swept from 20° to 40° .



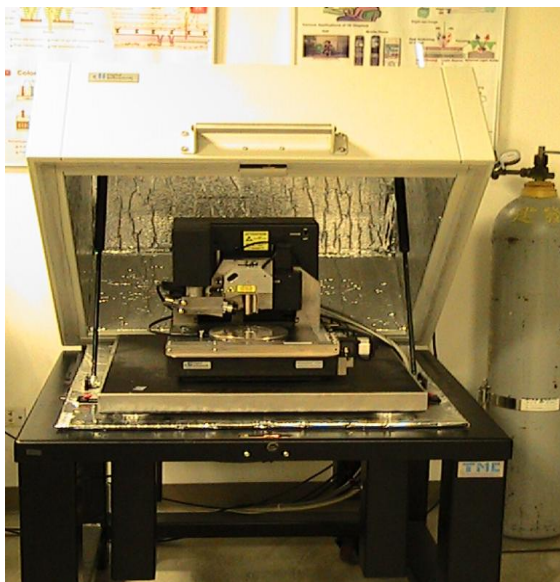
3-4.3 Surface Morphology

The Digital Instruments Dimension 3100 atomic force microscope (AFM) was used to characterize the step height and roughness. Besides, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was used to measure the thickness and cross sectional view of thin films. The schematics of AFM and SEM are shown in Figure 3-6.

The mechanical contact force and van der Waals forces will be introduced

between a probe in AFM and sample surface. By analyzing the two forces, the information of sample surface can be obtained.

In SEM, when the high-energy electrons (10 kV) bombard the sample, the interactions between the electrons and the sample generate the responses. By collecting and analyzing the responses and signals, the surface morphology is obtained.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 3-6 (a) AFM and (b) SEM in NCTU.

3-4.4 Carrier Concentration and Mobility of Thin Films

The HMS-3000 Hall Effect Measurement System was used to measure majority carrier concentration, carrier mobility, and resistivity of thin film. The Hall effect is the induction of a transverse voltage in a current carrying

conductor when the conductor is exposed to a magnetic field that lies perpendicular to current flow. The carrier concentration (n) and the Hall mobility (μ_H) are related to the induced Hall voltage (V_H) by the following equations:

$$\mu_H = \frac{V_H l}{V_0 w B_y} \quad (3-1)$$

and

$$n = \frac{I_x B_y}{q d V_H} \quad (3-2)$$

where V_0 is the voltage across the sample, w the width of the sample, B_y the applied magnetic field strength, l the length of the sample, d the thickness of the sample, q the carrier charge and I_x the current applied. The schematic of Hall Measurement System is shown in Figure 3-7.

In Hall measurement, the magnetic field and current were applied with 0.58 T and 50 nA, respectively. The thickness of samples was 50 nm and measured at room temperature.



Fig. 3-7 Hall Effect Measurement System in NCTU.

3-4.5 Etching Rate

Etching rate of thin films is determined by the following steps:

1. The 50-nm a-ZTO and a-IGZO films were deposited on glass, respectively.
2. The original transmittance (**T**) of a-ZTO and a-IGZO was carried out by the UV-VIS spectrophotometer, and then the transmittances are converted into the absorption coefficient (**α**) by Beer-Lambert law as shown in Eq. (3-3)

$$T = e^{-\alpha z} \quad (3-3)$$

where **z** is original film thickness

3. The glass with a-ZTO and a-IGZO film was etched by dilute hydrochloric acid (HCl, about 0.39 M) for 1 to 500 seconds, respectively.
4. UV-VIS spectrophotometer was utilized to obtain the transmittance of etched film **T'**. The thickness of etched film **z'** of a-ZTO/a-IGZO was evaluated by following formula after the **T'** and **α** were obtained.

$$z' = \frac{-1}{\alpha} \ln (T') \quad (3-4)$$

5. The etching rates of a-ZTO and a-IGZO were carried out by $\frac{z - z'}{\text{Etching time}}$.

3-5. Device Measurements

3-5.1 Electrical Characteristics

The electrical transfer properties and output characteristics of devices were measured by a semiconductor parameter analyzer (Keithley 4200) in the dark at RT, as shown in Figure 3-8. By applying the voltage on gate and drain, the I-V transistor curves of TFTs were measured. In the output characteristic (I_{DS} - V_{DS}), V_{DS} is conventionally swept from 0 V to 30 V at the step V_{GS} to measure the corresponding I_{DS} . In the transfer characteristic (I_{DS} - V_{GS}), V_{GS} are conventional swept from -10 V to 30 V.

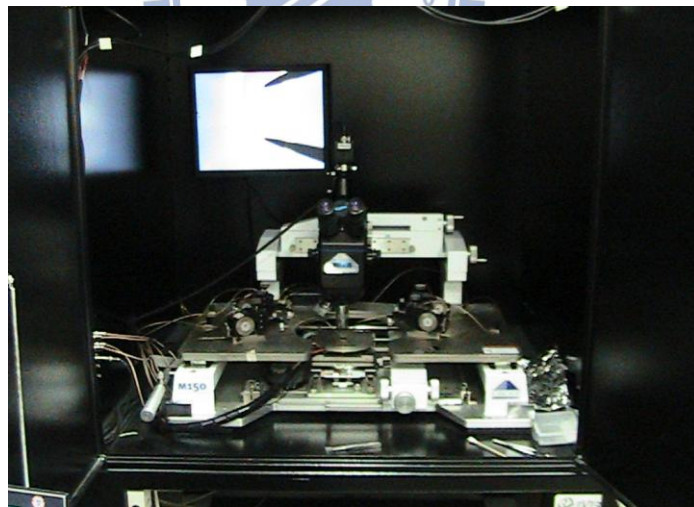


Fig. 3-8 Keithley 4200 of NCTU.

3-5.2 Stability Analysis

Bias stressing may leads to instabilities such as charge trapping and,

possibly, defect formation in the AOS TFTs, in the gate insulator (GI), or at the active layer/GI interface [34,35]. It might also be expected that an increased temperature or a simultaneous exposure of a device to both bias stressing could lead to enhanced or additional instabilities. In this work, we investigate the electrical stability under 1) positive bias stress (PBS), 2) negative bias stress (NBS), and 3) temperature stress (TBS). The PBS and NBS stressing were applied for 5000 seconds with $V_{GS}= 20$ V and $V_{GS}= -20$ V, respectively. The temperature stressing were applied for 5000 seconds with $V_{GS}= 20$ V at 80 °C.



3-6. Summary

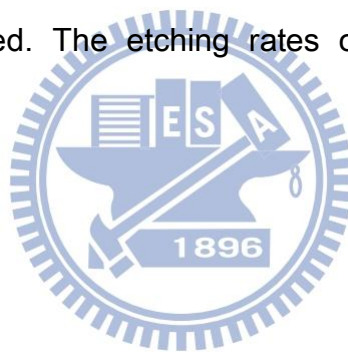
The a-ZTO/a-IGZO TFTs with ITO/AZO electrodes were fabricated. The analytic details of a-ZTO/a-IGZO thin film including optical properties, surface morphology, carrier concentration, and etching rate were presented. The performance and stabilities of different TFTs are examined by Keithley 4200 semiconductor analyzer. Also, the measurement conditions were introduced. All of the experimental results and discussions will be summarized in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4

Results and Discussions

4-1. Introduction

The thin film performances of a-ZTO and a-IGZO including deposition rate, optical properties, and surface morphology are introduced. The electrical characteristics of a-ZTO/a-IGZO TFTs with ITO/AZO electrodes are compared and discussed. The etching rates of a-ZTO and a-IGZO are analyzed.

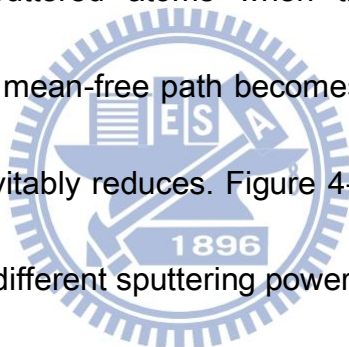


4-2. Analysis of Thin Films

4-2.1 Deposition Conditions

Firstly, the deposition rate of a-ZTO is estimated in the beginning of this experiment. Figure 4-1 (a) shows the deposition rate of a-ZTO varies with different sputtering pressures. As the figure depicts, the sputtering rate is linearly decreased with the pressure as it is increased from 3 to 10 mTorr. With the sputtering pressure increases from 3 to 10 mTorr, the deposition rate

decreases from 1.87 to 1.14 nm/min. As the chamber pressure is decreased, the mean-free paths of ZnO and SnO₂ sputtered atoms become longer and lead the sputtered atoms to reach the substrate surface more easily. In the reactive sputtering process, the sputtered particles tend to collide with the sputtering gas atoms, which change the transport motion of sputtered particles, causing atoms to arrive at the substrate surface with different kinetic energies. On the other hand, the particles presented in the chamber are proportional to the collisions among sputtered atoms when the sputtering pressure is increased. Therefore, the mean-free path becomes shorter and the efficiency of the deposition rate inevitably reduces. Figure 4-1 (b) shows the deposition rate of a-ZTO varies with different sputtering powers. The increased sputtering power contributes directly to the increment in the number of a-ZTO molecules in the chamber. The deposition rate is also increased with the sputtering power. Thus, the deposition rate of a-ZTO is increased in response to the rise of sputtering power. With the sputtering power is increased from 50 to 80 W, the deposition rate is raised from 1.27 to 3.24 nm/min.



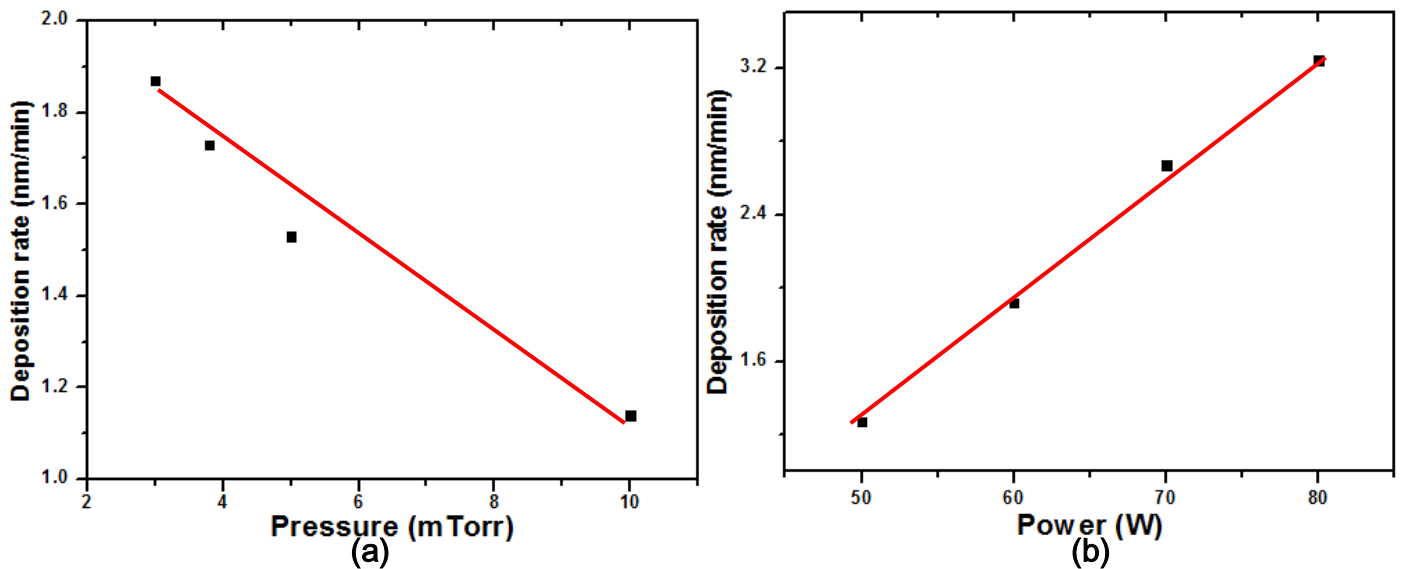


Fig. 4-1 Deposition rate of a-ZTO varied with different sputtering (a) pressure and (b) power.

4-2.2 Optical Properties

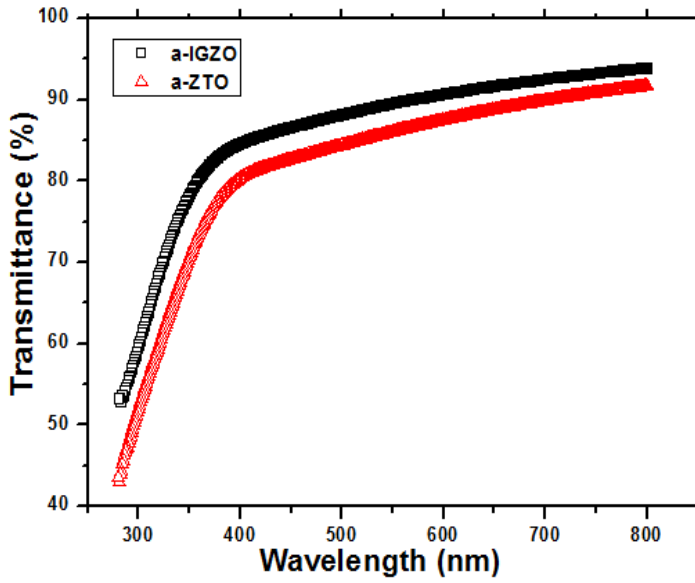
To confirm the optical properties of a-ZTO and a-IGZO, the UV-VIS spectrophotometer measurement was performed. The transmittance spectra of a-ZTO and a-IGZO films of 50 nm in thickness are shown in Figure 4-2. The average transmittance in the visible wavelength range (400~700 nm) of a-ZTO and a-IGZO films are 87.25% and 90.53%, respectively. Both a-ZTO and a-IGZO films are in good transparent.

To estimate the energy gap of amorphous thin films, several experimental methods are developed [36,37]. The most common methods are based on absorption coefficient measurements. The energy gap obtained by means of

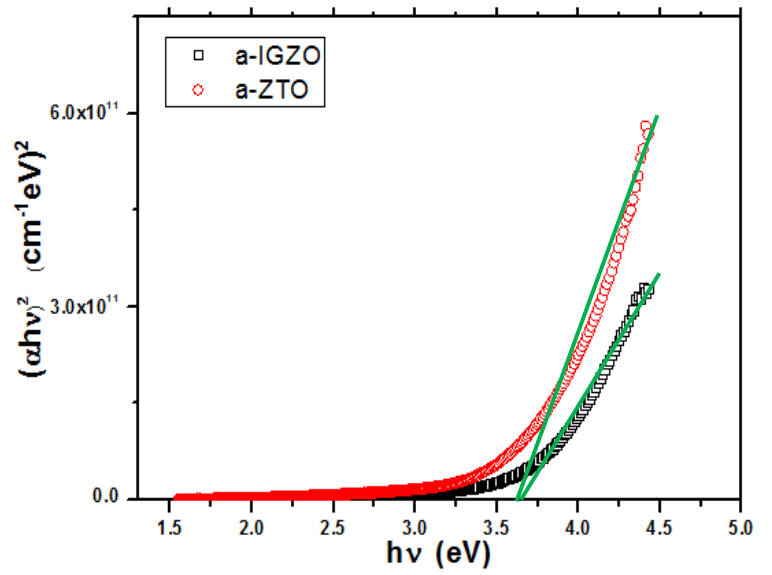
absorption coefficient measurements is known as “optical gap” (E_{opt}). One of the standard empirical methods to obtain the optical gap value is the Tauc method, which is proposed by J.Tauc [38]. In this model, a relationship of the optical gap E_{opt} and absorption coefficient α of thin film is defined according to Eq 4-1.

$$\alpha h\nu = (\text{const.})(h\nu - E_{opt})^r \quad (4-1)$$

where the $h\nu$ denotes photon energy, the value of the exponent r denotes the nature of the transition mode including direct and indirect transitions. In the a-ZTO and a-IGZO, r has a value of 1/2 for the direct transition. Above relationship is valid for parabolic conduction and valence bands near the band gap. The E_{opt} value is obtained by linearly extrapolating the plot of $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ vs. $h\nu$ and finds the intersection with the abscissa. As shown in Figure 4-2, the E_{opt} values of a-ZTO and a-IGZO are 3.63 eV and 3.66 eV, respectively. The optical properties of a-ZTO and a-IGZO thin films are summarized in Table 4-1.

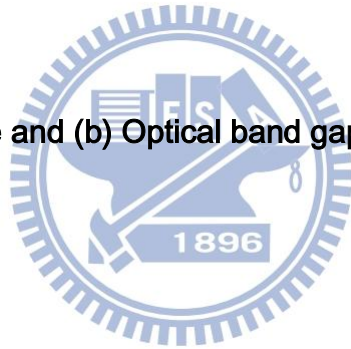


(a)



(b)

Fig. 4-2 (a) Transmittance and (b) Optical band gap of 50-nm thick a-ZTO and a-IGZO film.



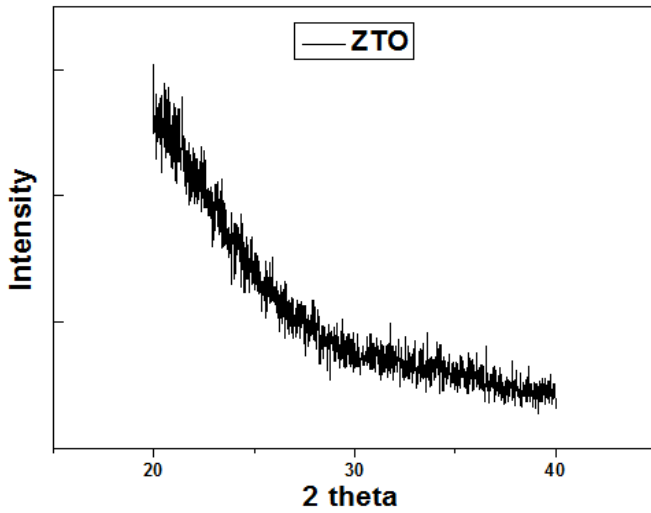
Tab. 4-1 Optical properties of a-ZTO and a-IGZO thin film.

	Average Transmittance (%)	Optical Band Gap (eV)
a-ZTO	87.25	3.63
a-IGZO	90.53	3.66

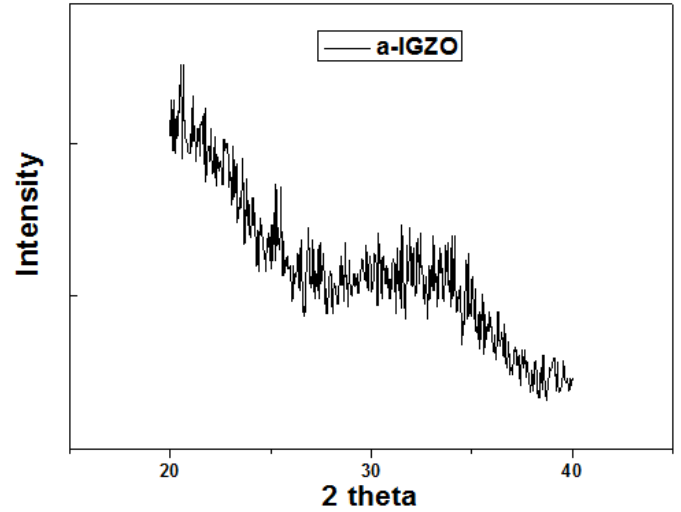
4-2.3 Crystalline Phase and Surface Morphology

The XRD patterns show the crystalline phase of ZTO and IGZO thin films. A 50-nm thick a-ZTO and a-IGZO films were deposited and then annealed in 450 °C. As shown in Figure 4-3, any sharp ring or spots are not observed, indicating that the films are amorphous.

On the other hand, the surface properties of a-ZTO and a-IGZO films were investigated by AFM and SEM, respectively. The AFM and SEM results are shown in Figures 4-4~4-6. The AFM and SEM images show a clear and uniform surface morphology. There were no grains or grain boundaries due to its amorphous nature. Also, there is no pin hole in both a-ZTO and a-IGZO thin films. It is known that the amorphous films have the advantage of large-area uniformity, low interface state density and low electronic-defect domain [69]. The root-mean-square surface roughness (R_{rms}) of a-ZTO and a-IGZO was about 0.379 nm and 0.375 nm, respectively. These results indicate that a uniform, amorphous film can be prepared by RF sputtering deposition.

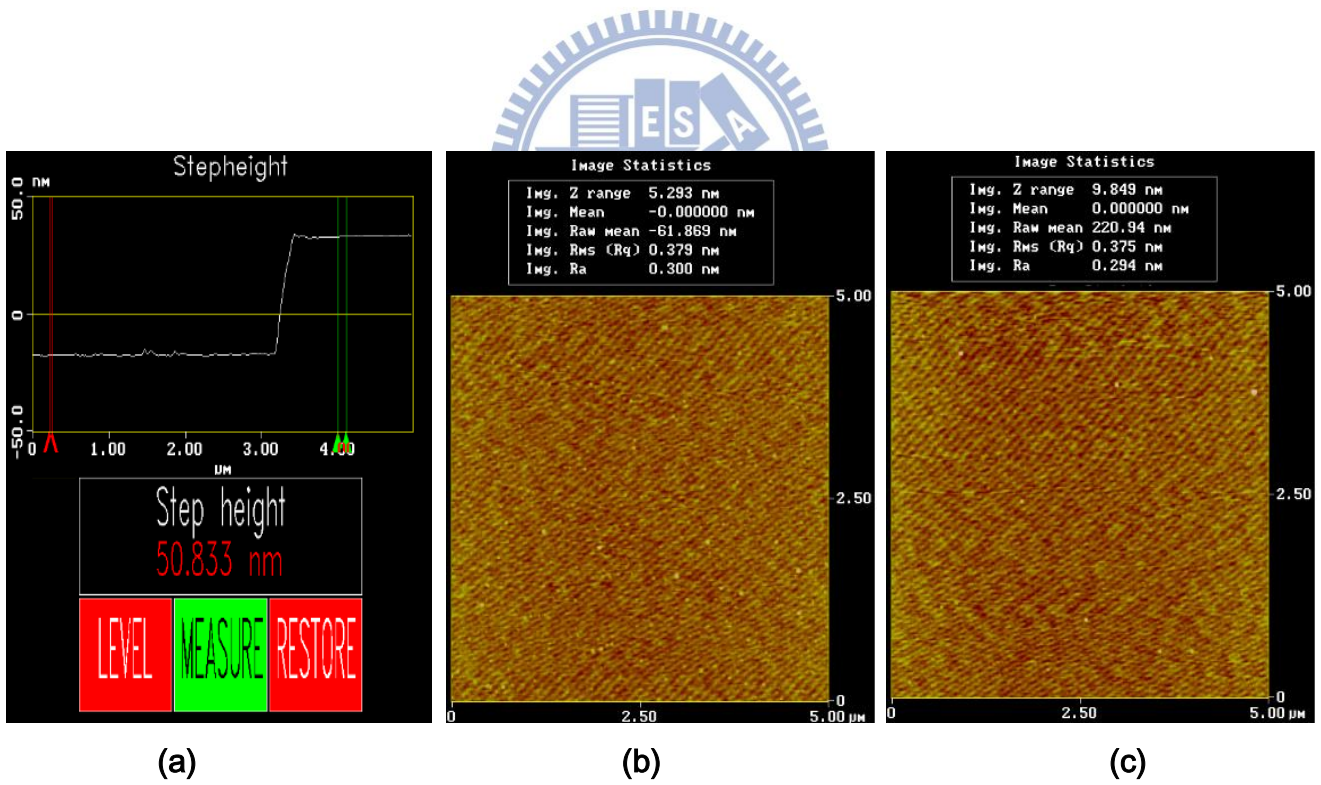


(a)



(b)

Fig. 4-3 XRD results of (a) ZTO and (b) IGZO thin films.

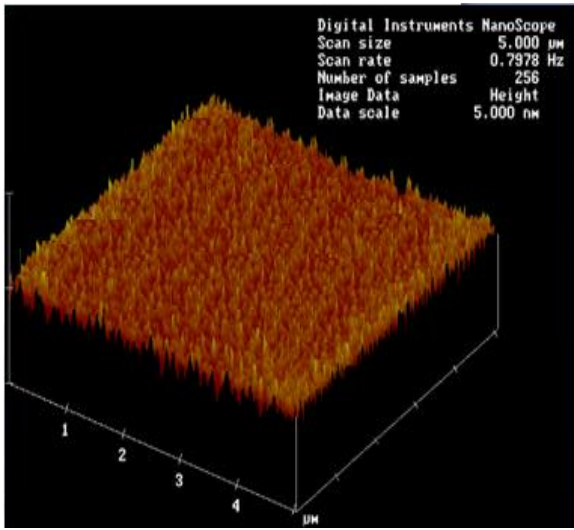


(a)

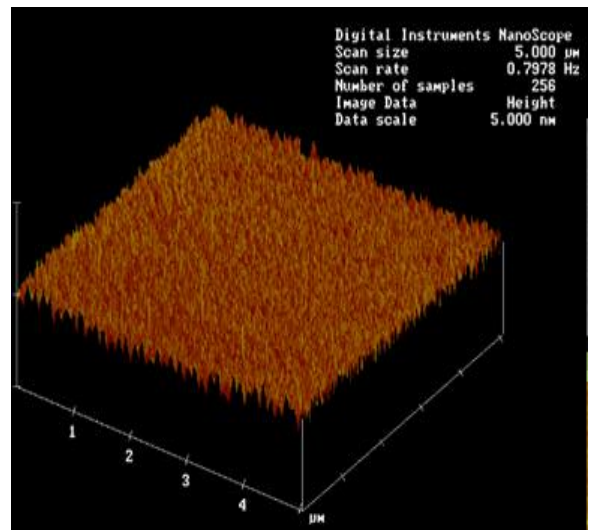
(b)

(c)

Fig. 4-4 (a) Step height of a-ZTO thin film, roughness of (b) a-ZTO and (c) a-IGZO.

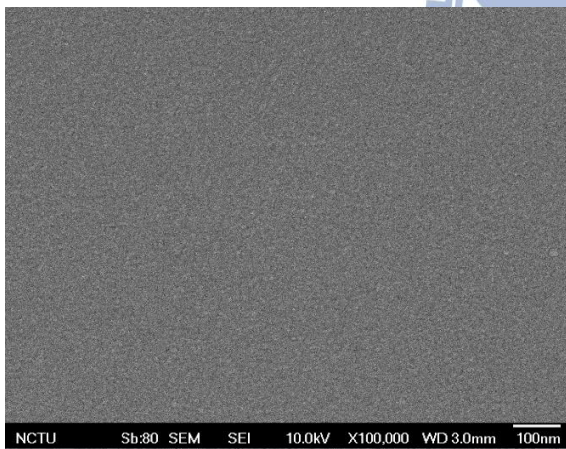


(a)

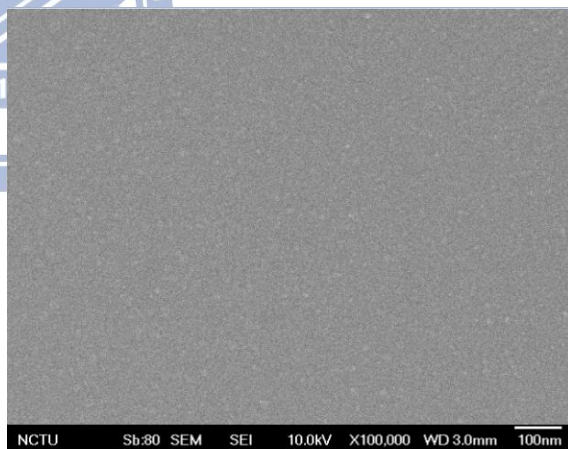


(b)

Fig. 4-5 3D surface morphology of (a) a-ZTO and (b) a-IGZO.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 4-6 SEM results: surface morphology of (a) a-ZTO and (b) a-IGZO thin film.

4-2.4 Hall Measurement

The Hall measurement can obtain the thin film qualities including hall mobility, resistivity, and carrier concentration. All the parameters of 50 nm-thick a-ZTO and a-IGZO are summarized in Table 4-2.

Tab. 4-2 Hall measurement of a-ZTO and a-IGZO thin film.

	Mobility (cm ² /Vs)	Resistivity (Ωcm)	Carrier concentration (cm ⁻³)
a-ZTO	53.7~61.3	4.3~7.9 E2	6×10 ¹⁸ ~2×10 ²⁰
a-IGZO	31.7~36.1	2.7~8.5 E2	10 ¹⁶ ~10 ¹⁸



4-3. Comparisons of a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFTs

4-3.1 Electrical Characteristics of a-ZTO TFTs

The a-ZTO TFTs were deposited at RF power= 80 W, working pressure of 3 mTorr and Ar flow rate=10 sccm; the a-IGZO TFTs were deposited at RF power= 80 W, working pressure = 3 mTorr, gas flow rate of Ar and O₂ equal to 10 and 0.6 sccm, respectively. Transfer characteristics of a-ZTO TFTs and a-IGZO TFTs are shown in Figure 4-7. The gate bias swept from -10 V to 30 V.

The drain-source voltage (V_{DS}) was set to be 10 V. The channel width (W) and length (L) of the a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFTs were 1000 μm and 200 μm , respectively. The 40-nm-thick ITO as source and drain electrodes were used in a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFTs. It is observed that the a-ZTO TFTs exhibit V_{th} of 1.23 V, μ_{FE} of 9.29 cm^2/Vs , SS of 0.91 V/decade, and I_{on}/I_{off} of 1.46×10^7 . In contrast, V_{th} , μ_{FE} , SS, and I_{on}/I_{off} of a-IGZO TFTs are 1.08 V, 6.73 cm^2/Vs , 0.66 V/decade, and 6.53×10^6 , respectively. Most of electrical characteristics are similar for these two TFTs. However, the mobility of a-ZTO TFT is even higher than a-IGZO TFT. This improvement is attributed to two major factors: the lower effective mass; and the higher carrier concentration of thin film.

Previous literatures reported the effective mass of a-ZTO and a-IGZO were 0.15 to 0.3 m_e (m_e is the rest mass of electron) [39] and 0.34 m_e [40], respectively. A simple model gives the approximate relation between effective mass and mobility:

$$\mu = \frac{q}{m_e^*} \bar{\tau} \quad (4-2)$$

where q is elementary charge, m_e^* is the carrier effective mass, and $\bar{\tau}$ is the average scattering time in electric field. This relation indicates that the larger effective mass causes a lower mobility. On the other hand, the carrier concentrations of a-ZTO and a-IGZO are $6 \times 10^{18} \sim 2 \times 10^{20}$ [39] and $10^{16} \sim 10^{18}$

cm⁻³ [40], respectively. It is reported that the mobility is increased with increasing carrier concentration and it can be explained by a grain boundary scattering model [32,41]. These results indicate that a-ZTO TFTs show the potential of high mobility TFTs.

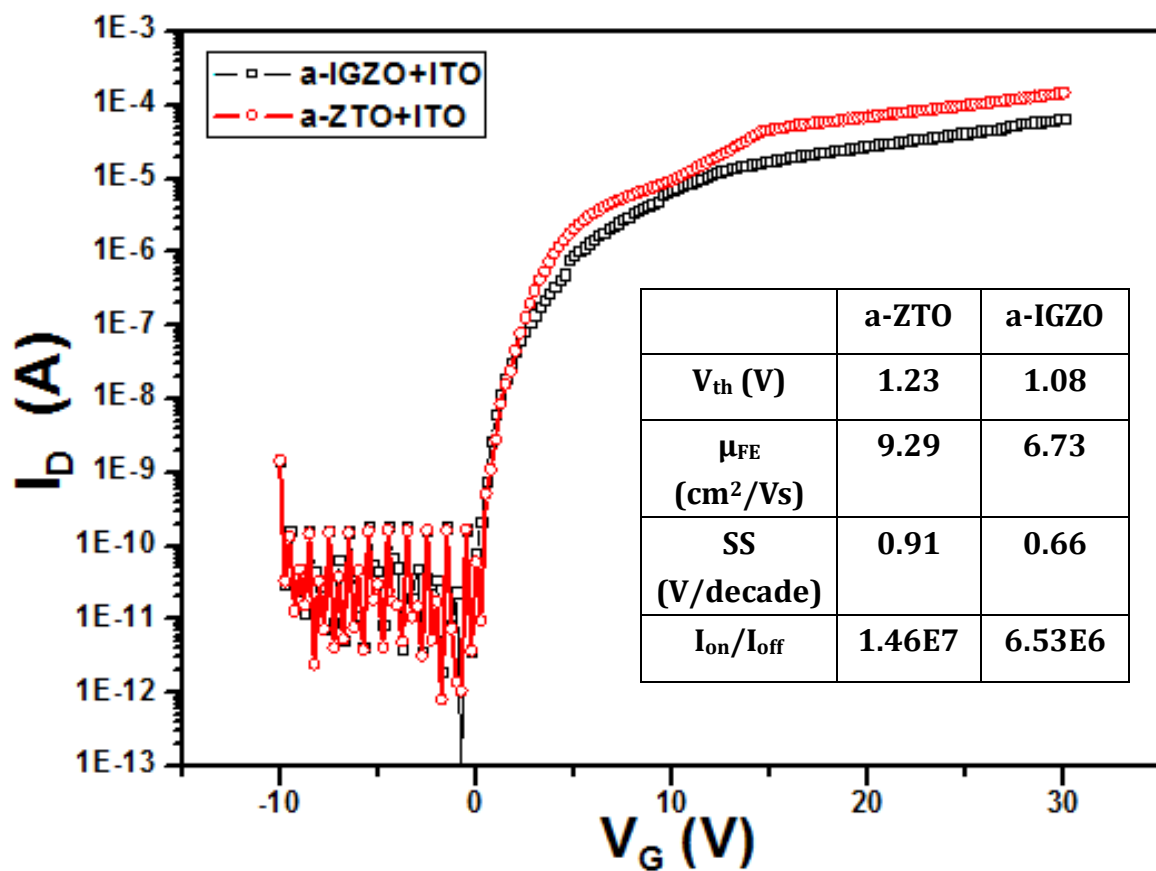


Fig. 4-7 Transfer characteristics of a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFTs in saturation region where $V_{DS}=10V$.

4-3.2 Transfer Characteristics under Positive Bias Stressing (PBS)

In AMOLED's, the TFTs are not only used as switches but also as current drivers for pixels. In this case, long-term stability under bias stressing plays a pivotal role for TFTs because a shift of V_{th} concomitantly leads to a change of the individual pixel brightness. Therefore, the influence of bias stressing on TFTs must be considered. The transfer characteristics variation of the a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFTs under PBS at RT in the dark box are shown in Figure 4-8. The PBS was stressed at $V_{GS}= 20$ V and $V_{DS}= 20$ V up to 5000 seconds. A positive V_{th} shift, with little or no change in SS, μ_{FE} , and I_{on}/I_{off} was observed. The V_{th} , μ_{FE} , SS, and I_{on}/I_{off} shift versus stressing time are summarized in Figure 4-9.

As can be seen in Figure 4-9, ΔV_{th} is positive. The mechanisms responsible to the ΔV_{th} in AOS TFTs are (1) electron trapping in the channel/gate insulator layer and (2) channel/ambient interactions. The first mechanism means the channel electrons tunnel into the empty trap states in the gate insulator, resulting in the positive shift of V_{th} . On the other hand, it is well known that metal oxides are sensitive to molecules in the ambient atmosphere [42,43,44,45]. The bias stressing can lead to field-induced

adsorption of O₂ and desorption of H₂O. Previous researches report that the oxygen in the environment causes the positive V_{th} shift under PBS [46,47]. The adsorbed O₂ onto the surface of a metal oxide is an acceptor-like molecule by following reaction:



The negatively charged oxygen [O₂]⁻ was adsorbed on the channel during the positive gate bias was applied. The buildup of negative space charges [O₂]⁻ easily repelled conduction electrons in channel, resulting in positively shifting of V_{th} with increasing the duration of PBS.

The measurements of ΔV_{th} for a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFTs have the same value of 5.45 V. These results indicate both of a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFT have the same stability under PBS.

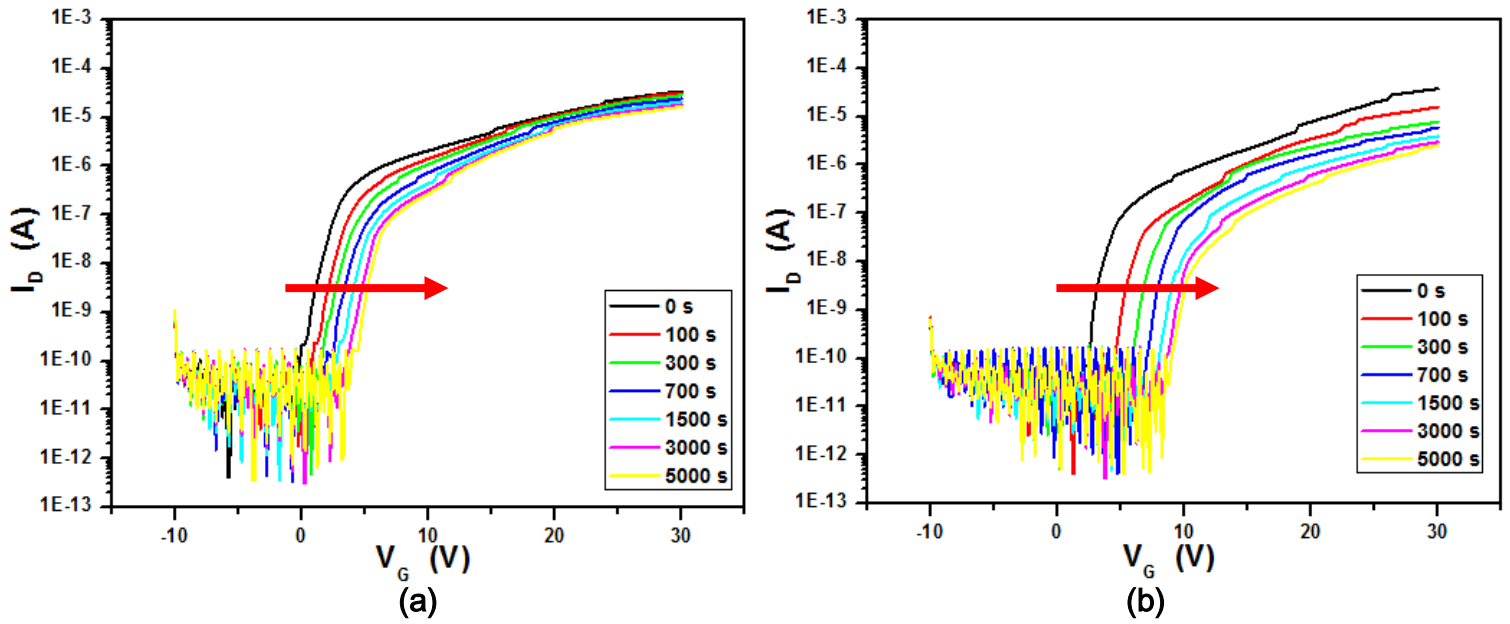


Fig. 4-8 Transfer characteristics of (a) a-ZTO and (b) a-IGZO TFT in saturation region $V_{DS}=10$ V under positive bias stressing $V_{DS}=V_{GS}=20$ V at RT in the dark

box.

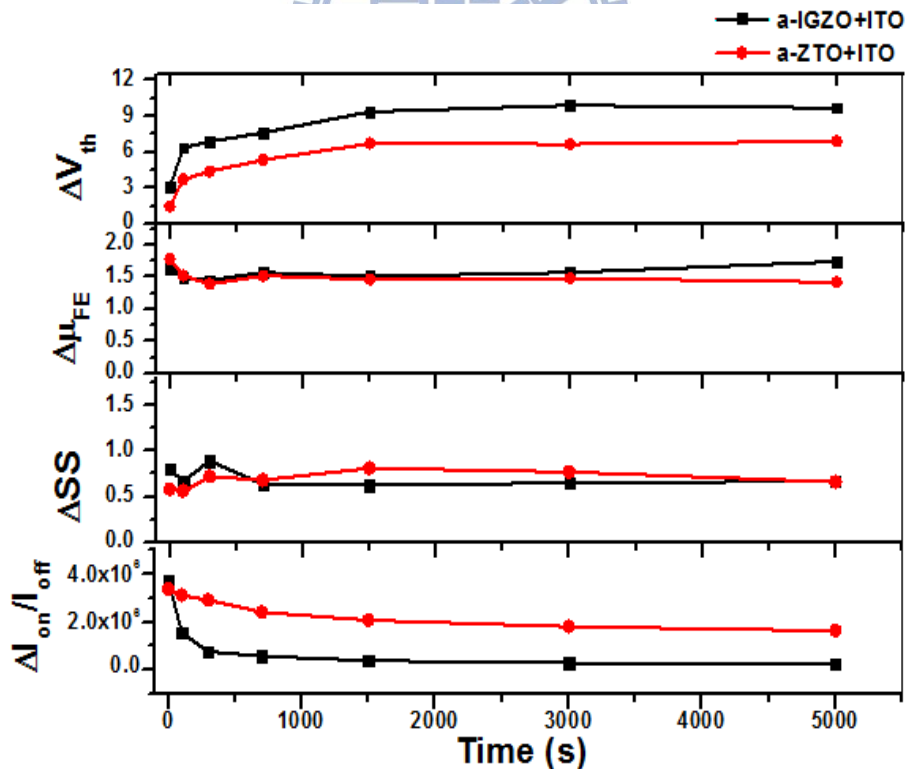


Fig. 4-9 V_{th} , μ_{FE} , SS, and I_{on}/I_{off} shift versus stressing time for a-ZTO/a-IGZO

TFTs by a positive bias stress.

4-3.3 Transfer Characteristics under Temperature Stressing (TBS)

Bias temperature instability (BTI) is recognized as one of the most serious concern in the reliability of TFT technologies [48]. The stabilities of a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFT under high temperature operation were investigated. TBS was stressed at 80°C with $V_{GS}= 20$ V and $V_{DS}= 20$ V for 5000 seconds. The transfer characteristics variation of the a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFTs under TBS in the dark box are shown in Figure 4-10 and summarized in Figure 4-11. The stabilities are similar between TBS and PBS results, V_{th} shift positively and slight change in SS , μ_{FE} , and I_{on}/I_{off} . However ΔV_{th} under TBS is larger than that under PBS and this is due to the thermally activated effect [49]. The stretched-exponential equation for the ΔV_{th} is defined as:

$$\Delta V_{th} = \Delta V_{th0} \left\{ 1 - \exp \left[- \left(\frac{t}{\tau} \right)^\beta \right] \right\} \quad (4-4)$$

where ΔV_{th0} is ΔV_{th} at infinite time, τ represents the characteristic trapping time of carriers, t is the stressing time, and β is the stretched exponential exponent. β is linearly proportional to temperature by the equation of $\beta = \frac{T_{st}}{T_0} - \beta_0$, where T_{st} is the stress temperature. T_0 is related to the energy parameters of the charge trapping process, although the physical meaning of β_0 is not clarified. Therefore, as the stressing temperature increases, β

increases, resulting in larger ΔV_{th} [50].

The measurements of ΔV_{th} under TBS for a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFTs were 6.79 V and 9.03 V, respectively. Those differences in stability may be due to the impact of ambient effects, defect creation, or electron trapping near interface between the gate insulator and the channel layer. Generally, the major electronic transfer carriers of IGZO and ZTO were oxygen vacancies of In-O and Sn-O, respectively [51,52]. The electronegative of Sn and In were 1.96 and 1.78, respectively, derived from the Pauling scaling. The higher electronegativity in stronger metal oxide bonding results in the dissociation energy of Sn-O (565 kJ/mol) is higher than In-O (318 kJ/mol) [70]. For those reasons, the stronger bonding of Sn-O can reduce the external influences such as channel/ambience effect and electron trapping at gate insulator/channel interface. Consequently, the stability of a-ZTO TFTs is improved compared to a-IGZO TFTs. In summary, compared to a-IGZO TFTs, a-ZTO TFTs exhibits a stable property and hence a-ZTO is a suitable material as the active layer.

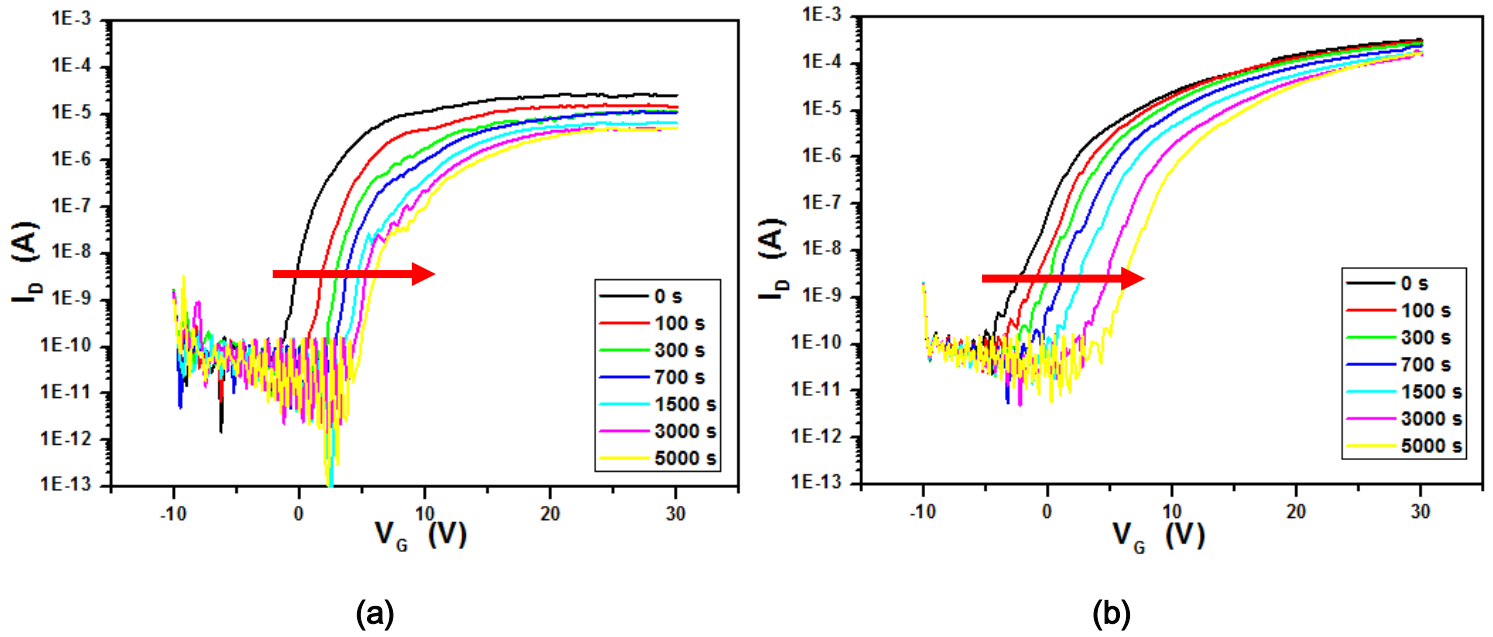


Fig. 4-10 Transfer characteristics of (a) a-ZTO and (b) a-IGZO TFT were stressed at 80 °C with $V_{GS}= 20$ V and $V_{DS}= 20$ V.

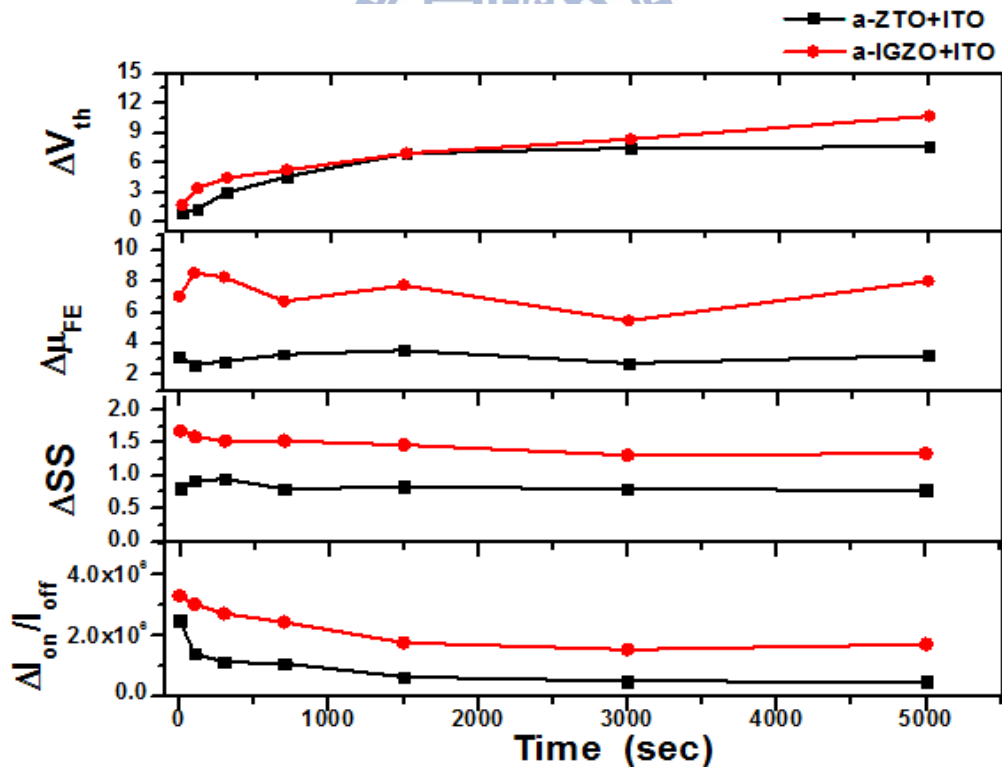
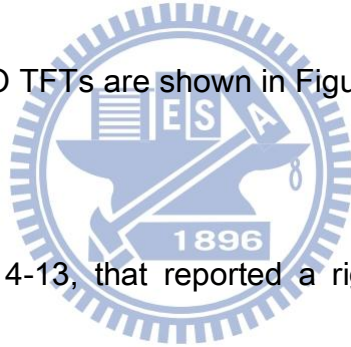


Fig. 4-11 V_{th} , μ_{FE} , SS, and I_{on}/I_{off} shift versus stressing time for a-ZTO/a-IGZO TFTs by a temperature stressing.

4-3.4 Transfer Characteristics under Negative Bias Stressing (NBS)

According to previous study, the most of time that typical TFTs spend under a negative gate bias in AMOLED applications is approximately 500 the amount of time spent under a positive gate bias due to the charging function of AMOLED pixels [53]. The NBS is therefore important as, or even more important than PBS in practical applications. The NBS was stressed at $V_{GS} = -20$ V for 5000 seconds. The transfer curves evolution as a function of the NBS time of a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFTs are shown in Figure 4-12 and summarized in Figure 4-13.



As shown in Figure 4-13, that reported a rigid negative V_{th} shift, with insignificant changes in μ_{FE} , SS, and I_{on}/I_{off} . Previous researches reported that desorption of H_2O in ambience lead to negative V_{th} shift under NBS [46,54,55]. Desorbed moisture ($H_2O_{(g)}$) from the ambience forms positive charged ($H_2O_{(s)}^+$), as depicted following reaction:



where h^+ is a hole. The $H_2O_{(s)}^+$ can act either as electron donor or acceptor-like traps on the channel layer. The hole concentration is proportional to the NBS duration in the channel layer. The buildups of positive space

charges $\text{H}_2\text{O}_{(s)}^+$ induce electrons easily in the channel layer, resulting in negative shifting V_{th} under NBS.

The measurements of ΔV_{th} for a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFTs were -1.14 V and -2.04 V, respectively. These results indicate that both a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFT have the same level of stability under NBS.

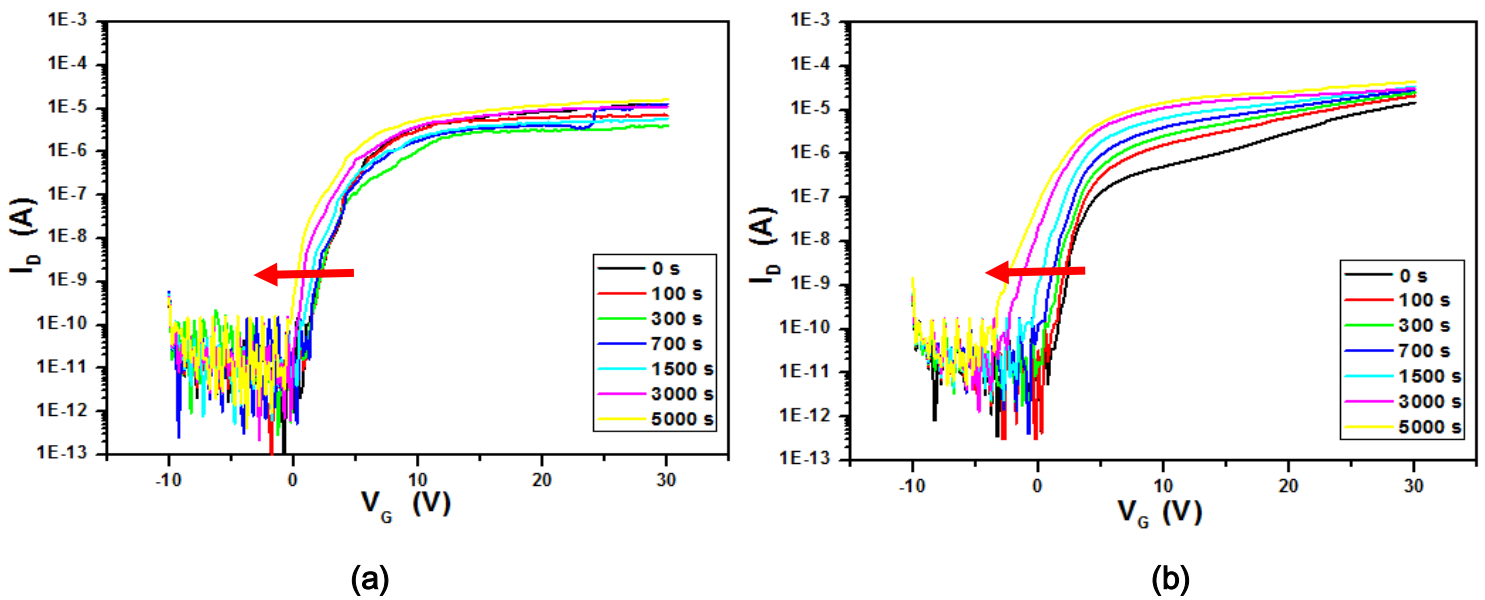


Fig. 4-12 Transfer characteristics of (a) a-ZTO and (b) a-IGZO TFT in saturation region $V_{\text{DS}}=10$ V under negative bias stress $V_{\text{GS}}= -20$ V.

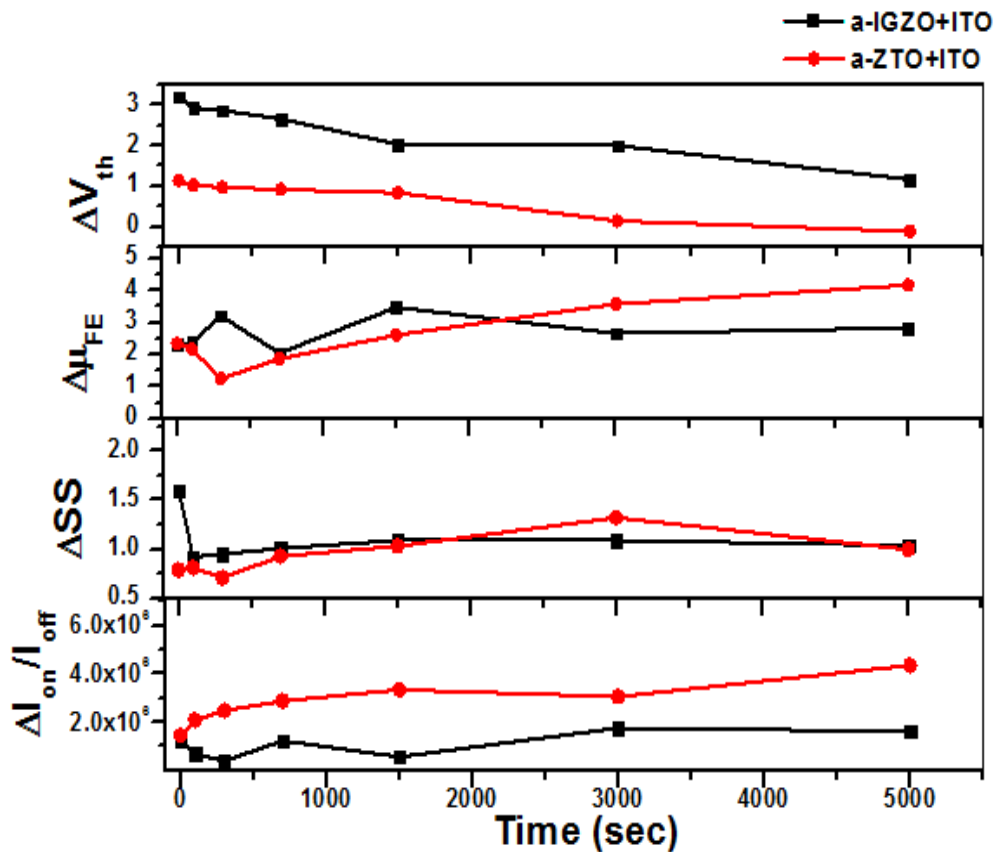


Fig. 4-13 V_{th} , μ_{FE} , SS, and I_{on}/I_{off} shift versus stressing time for a-ZTO/a-IGZO

TFTs by a negative bias stress.

4-3.5 Summary of Active Effects

The comparisons of electrical characteristics for a-ZTO and IGZO-based TFTs are presented. Additionally, the stabilities under bias stressing including PBS, PTBS, and NBS are investigated. Table 4-3 summarizes the electrical performance and stabilities in this section. The electrical performance of a-ZTO/a-IGZO TFTs that indicate the mobility of a-ZTO TFT is higher than

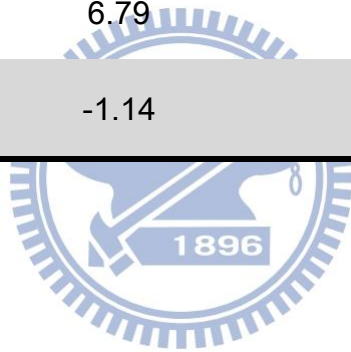
a-IGZO TFT. This improvement is attributed to two major factors: lower effective mass; and higher carrier concentration of a-ZTO thin film. On the stabilities, the mechanisms of ΔV_{th} under bias stressing including electron trapping in the channel/gate insulator, channel/ambient interactions, and thermally activated effect are introduced. The results show that the both of a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFT have the same stability under PBS and NBS, while, compared to a-IGZO TFTs, a-ZTO TFTs improved by 25% of ΔV_{th} under TBS.

In contrast to a-IGZO TFTs, a-ZTO TFTs presented higher mobility and better stability, illustrating that a-ZTO is a suitable material for the active layer of AOS TFTs.



Tab. 4-3 Comparisons of electrical performances of a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFTs.

	a-ZTO TFTs	a-IGZO TFTs
V_{th} (V)	1.23	1.08
SS (V/decade)	0.91	0.66
μ_{FE} (cm ² /Vs)	9.29	6.73
I_{on}/I_{off}	1.46 E7	6.53 E6
PBS: ΔV_{th} (V)	5.45	5.45
TBS: ΔV_{th} (V)	6.79	9.03
NBS: ΔV_{th} (V)	-1.14	-2.04



4-4 Comparisons of a-ZTO TFTs with ITO and AZO Electrodes

4-4.1 Electrical Characteristics of a-ZTO TFTs with In-Free Electrodes

To date, the industrial standard of transparent conducting oxide (TCO) is tin-doped indium oxide or ITO. However, to achieve In-free TFTs, ZnO based TCOs such as AZO as the alternative electrodes are fabricated and studied.

Comparisons between ITO and In-free TCO of AZO as source and drain electrodes in a-ZTO TFTs were studied.

The 40nm-thick ITO electrodes were deposited at RF power= 50 W, working pressure of 3 mTorr and Ar flow rate=10 sccm, while the 40 nm-thick AZO electrodes were deposited at 80 W, 3 mTorr, gas flow rate of Ar and O₂ equal to 10 and 0.5 sccm, respectively. The average transmittance in the visible wavelength range of AZO and ITO films are 93.3% and 89.9%, as shown in Figure 4-14. The result demonstrates AZO and ITO films have the good transparent property. The electrical transfer characteristics of a-ZTO TFTs with ITO and AZO as source and drain electrodes are shown in Figure 4-15. It is observed that the a-ZTO TFTs with AZO electrodes exhibit V_{th} of 1.46 V, μ_{FE} of 1.96 cm²/Vs, and SS of 0.86 V/decade. In contrast, V_{th} , μ_{FE} , and SS of a-ZTO TFTs with ITO electrodes were 1.23 V, 9.29 cm²/Vs, and 0.91 V/decade, respectively. The results indicated that a-ZTO TFTs with ITO electrodes exhibited μ_{FE} of 9.29 cm²/Vs, which is almost a factor of 5 higher in the mobility and higher on-current (I_{on}) than that of a-ZTO TFTs with AZO electrodes. This is due to the ITO has lower resistivity than AZO. The resistivity of ITO and AZO measured by four point probe are 3×10^{-4} and 4×10^{-2} Ω cm, respectively. Furthermore, as studied in [56] and [57], the large

difference in work function between the semiconductor and electrodes interfaces increase the difficulty for electrons transport from semiconductor to electrodes, resulting the higher resistance at the interface. The work functions of a-ZTO, ITO, and AZO are 4.35 [58], 4.4-4.5 [59], and 4.7-5.2 [60,61], respectively. The difference in work functions between a-ZTO and AZO is larger than that of a-ZTO and ITO. The values of resistivity and work function are listed in Table 4-4. The higher resistivity of AZO film remains further improvements.

Although the performances of the TFTs with AZO electrodes are relatively poor compared to TFTs with ITO electrodes, however, the performance of the a-ZTO TFTs with AZO electrodes are still higher than that of a-Si TFTs ($\mu_{FE} < 1 \text{ cm}^2/\text{Vs}$). Also, ITO contains the rare In which might not be cost-effective. In addition, the wet etching resistance of annealed AZO is improved compared to commercial ITO materials [62]. AZO films are transparent compared to light yellow ITO films [63], so AZO might be more suitable to apply on transparent electronic components. Therefore, AZO is suggested to be a future TCO material.

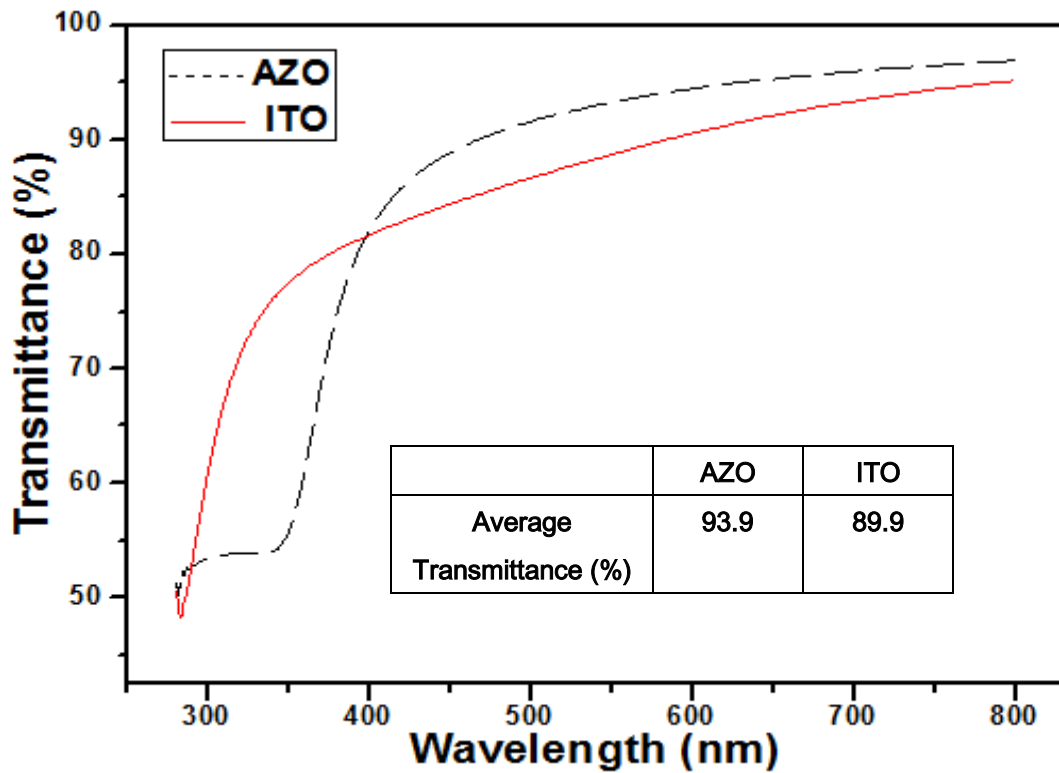


Fig. 4-14 Transmittance of AZO and ITO.

Tab. 4-4 Resistivity and work function of ITO and AZO.

	ZTO	ITO	AZO
Resistivity (Ωcm)		3×10^{-4}	4×10^{-2}
Work function (eV)	4.35 [11]	4.4-4.5 [12]	4.7-5.2 [13][14]

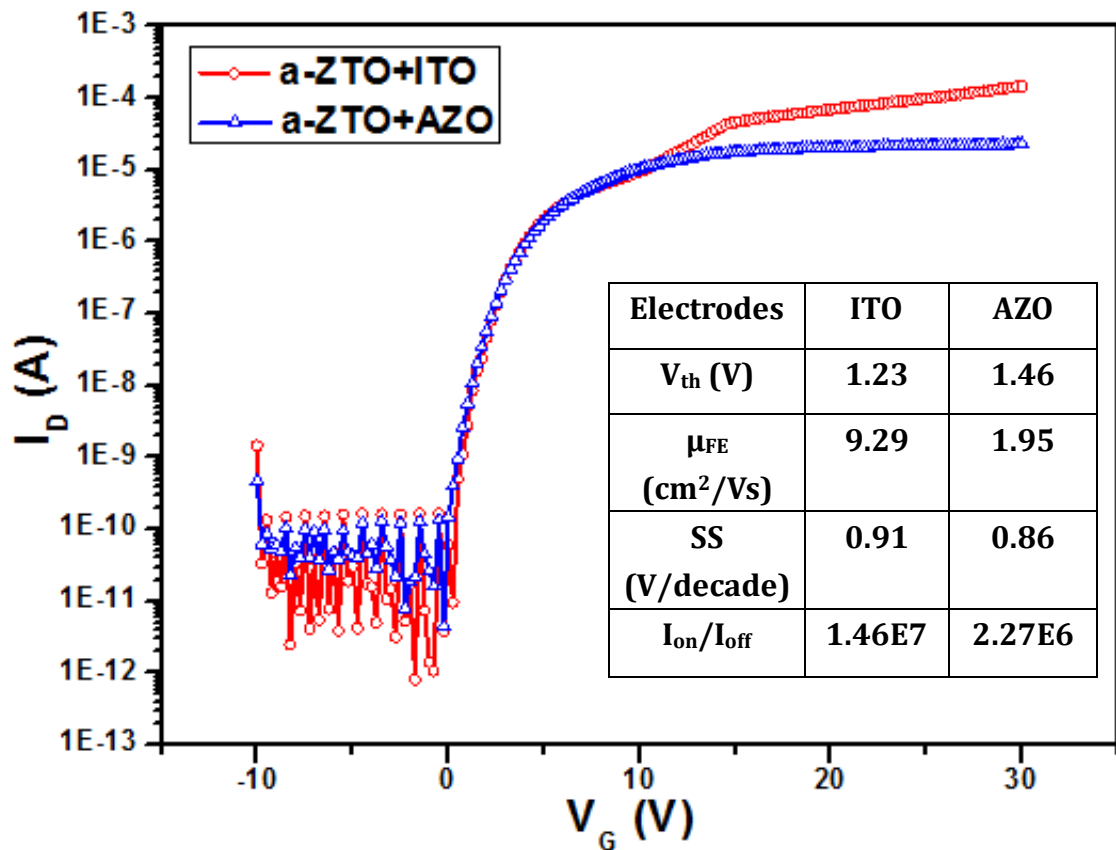


Fig. 4-15 Transfer characteristics of a-ZTO TFTs with ITO and AZO electrodes in saturation region $V_{DS}=10V$.

4-4.2 Transfer Characteristics under Bias Stressing

The transfer characteristics variation of the a-ZTO with ITO and AZO electrodes under PBS, TBS, and NBS are shown in Figures 4-16 to 4-18, respectively. The conditions of bias stressing are introduced in Chapter 4-3.2~4-3.4. The stabilities of both TFTs are similar, the results illustrate a-ZTO TFT with AZO or ITO have same reliability under bias stressing.

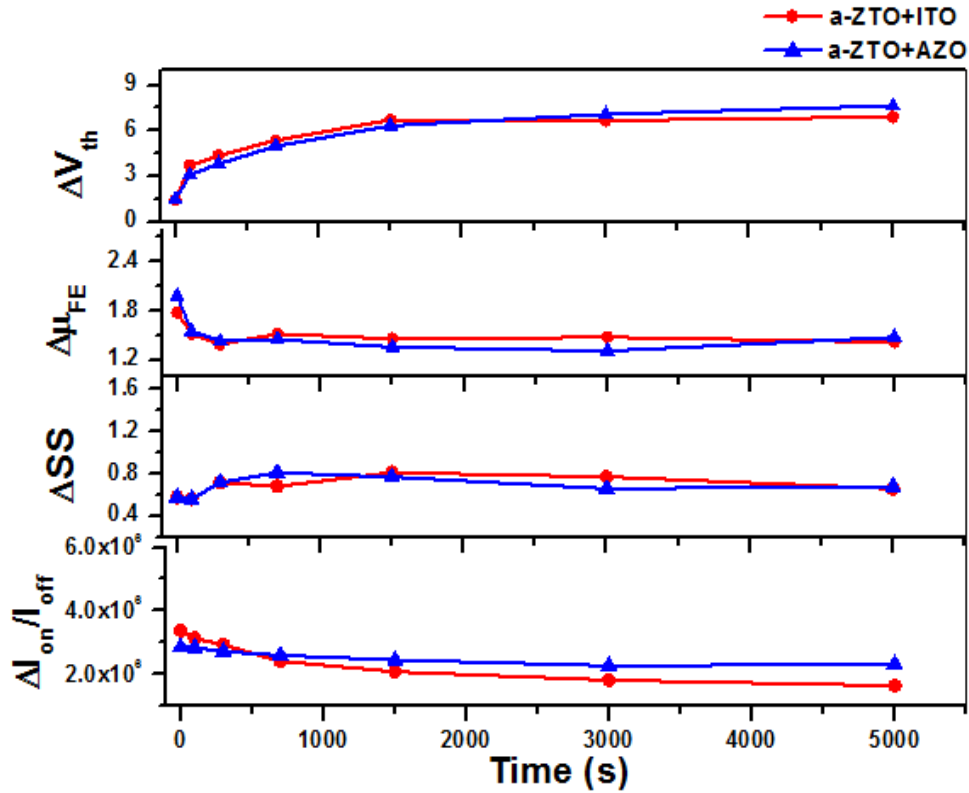


Fig. 4-16 V_{th} , μ_{FE} , SS , and I_{on}/I_{off} shift versus stressing time for a-ZTO TFT with ITO/ AZO electrodes under positive bias stressing.

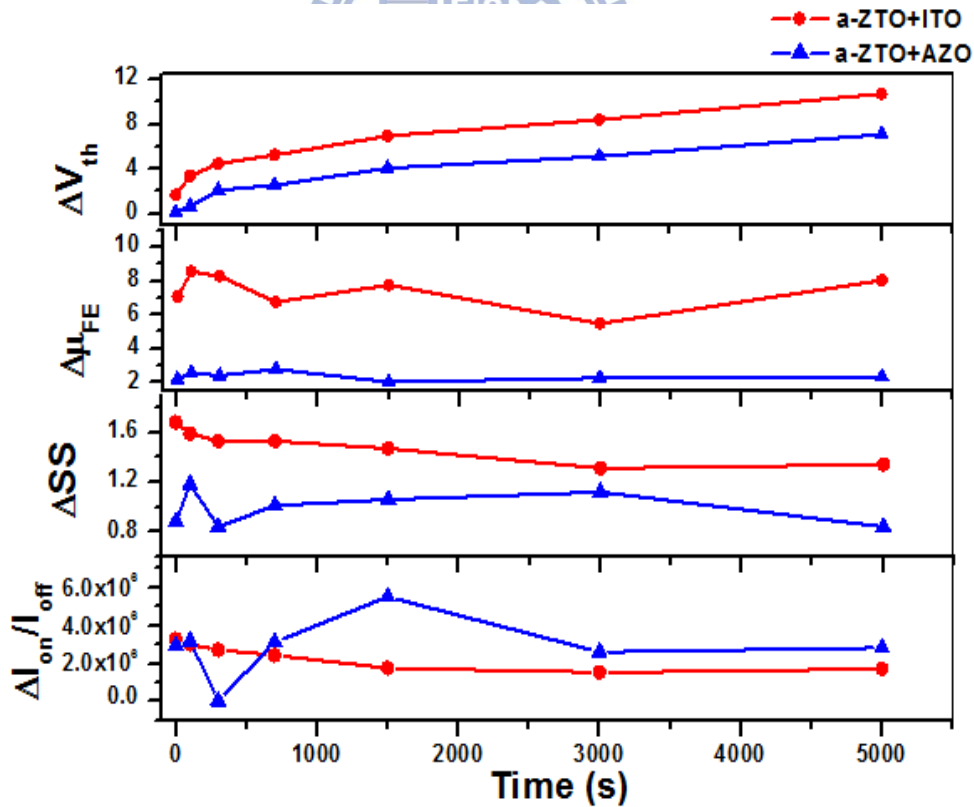


Fig. 4-17 V_{th} , μ_{FE} , SS , and I_{on}/I_{off} shift versus stressing time for a-ZTO TFT with ITO/ AZO electrodes under temperature stressing.

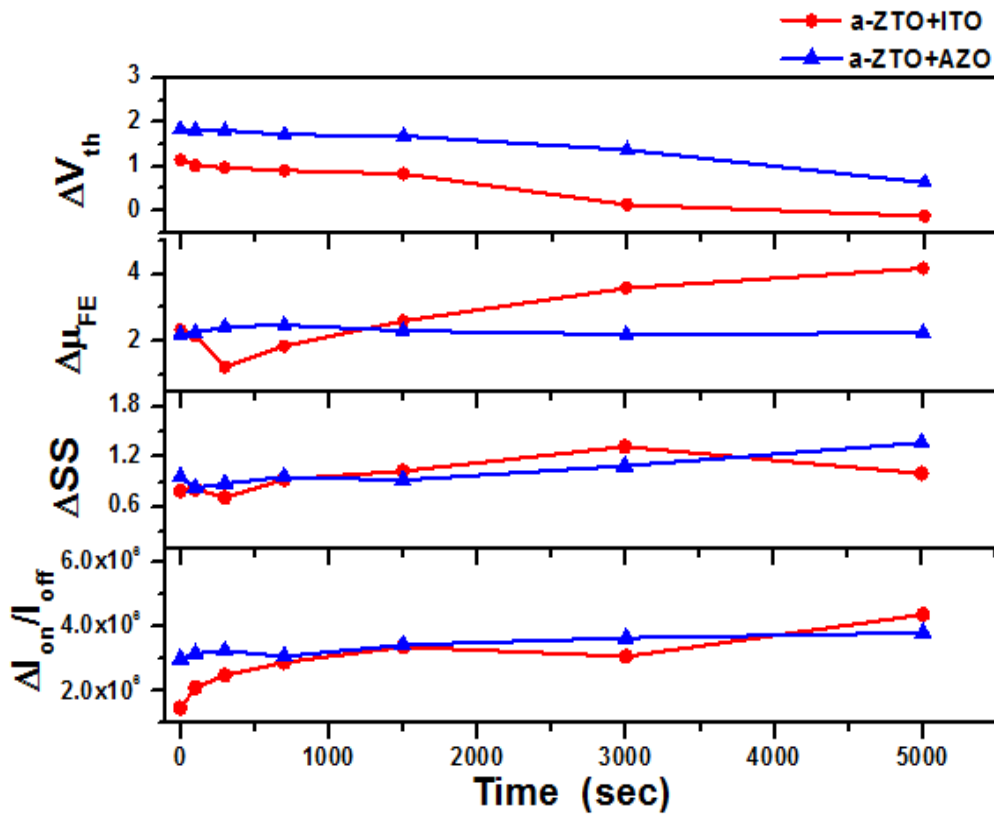


Fig. 4-18 V_{th} , μ_{FE} , SS , and I_{on}/I_{off} shift versus stressing time for a-ZTO TFT with ITO/ AZO electrodes under temperature stressing.

4-4.3 Summary of Electrodes Effects

To achieve In-free devices, the a-ZTO TFTs with AZO as source and drain electrodes were fabricated. The electrical properties and stabilities under bias stressing were studied. Table 4-5 summarizes the electrical performance and stabilities in this section. The resistivity of AZO is higher than ITO, resulted in lower mobility and lower on-current (I_{on}) in a-ZTO TFTs. On the stabilities, the results show that the both TFTs have the similar stability under PBS and TBS,

and NBS that illustrate a-ZTO TFTs with AZO or ITO have the same reliability under bias stressing.

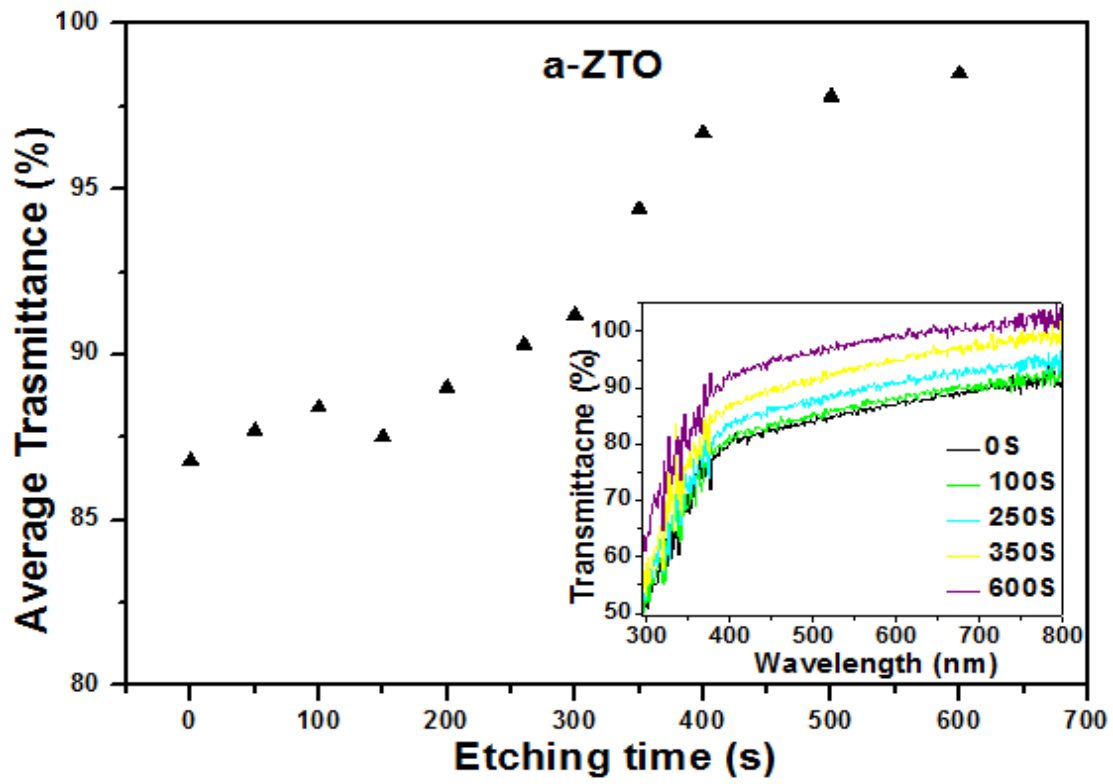
Tab. 4-5 Comparisons of electrical performance of a-ZTO TFT with ITO/AZO electrodes.

	a-ZTO TFT with ITO	a-ZTO TFT with AZO
V_{th} (V)	1.23	1.46
SS (V/decade)	0.91	0.86
μ_{FE} (cm ² /Vs)	9.29	1.95
I_{on}/I_{off}	1.46 E7	2.27 E6
PBS: ΔV_{th} (V)	5.45	6.17
TBS: ΔV_{th} (V)	6.79	6.95
NBS: ΔV_{th} (V)	-1.14	-1.21

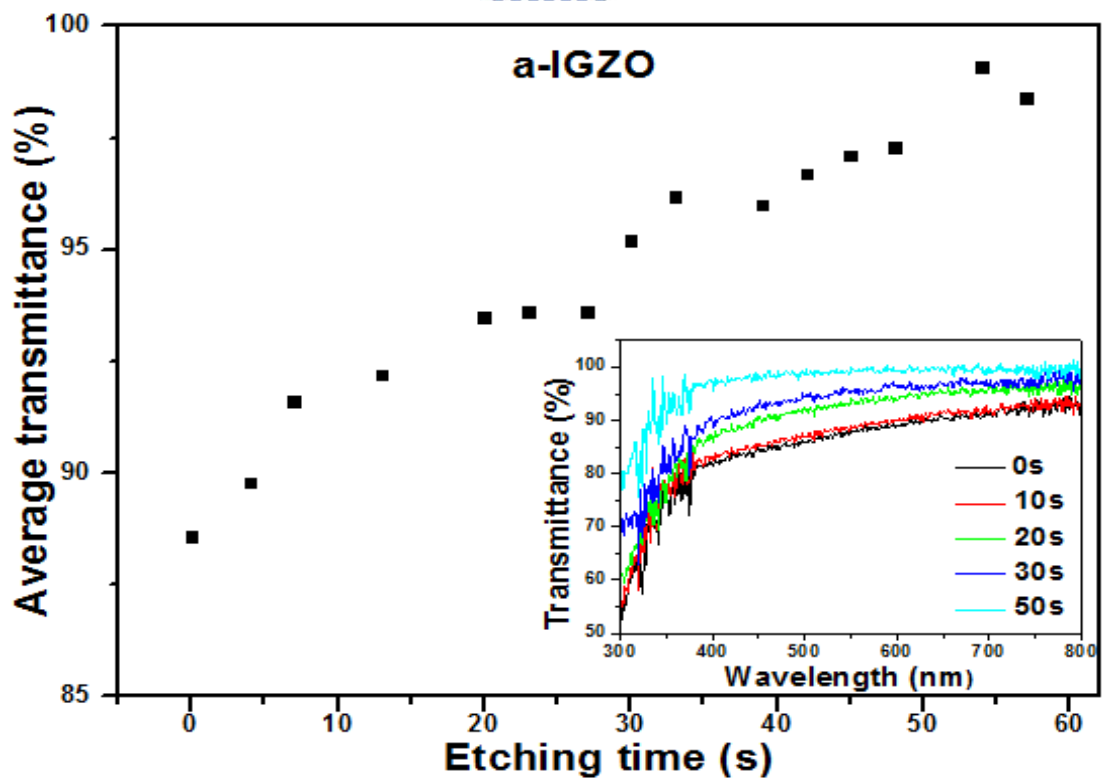
4-5. Etching Resistance

To achieve high quality patterns definition, the higher etch selectivity must be chosen between deposited layers and photoresists. Furthermore, the higher etching resistances of deposited layer cause higher etch selectivity. Therefore, the etch resistances of a-ZTO and a-IGZO thin film were investigated.

The transmittances of a-ZTO/a-IGZO etched thin films are shown in Figure 4-19. The etchant is dilute HCl (0.39 M) and it was etched by a dipping method at room temperature. The transmittances of thin films become higher with the increased etching time, as shown in Figure 4-19. The detail method of measurement of the etching rates had described in Chapter 3-4.4. The etching rates were obtained by the slope of the etched films' thickness versus etching time, as shown in Figure 4-20. The results indicate the etching rate of a-ZTO and a-IGZO are 0.086 and 0.72 nm/s, respectively. A-ZTO films exhibit 8.4 times of the etching resistance compared to the one of a-IGZO. A-ZTO has higher etching selectivity than a-IGZO in wet etching process, consequently causing more easily formation of high quality patterns definition.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 4-19 The average transmittance of (a) a-ZTO and (b) a-IGZO etched thin films.

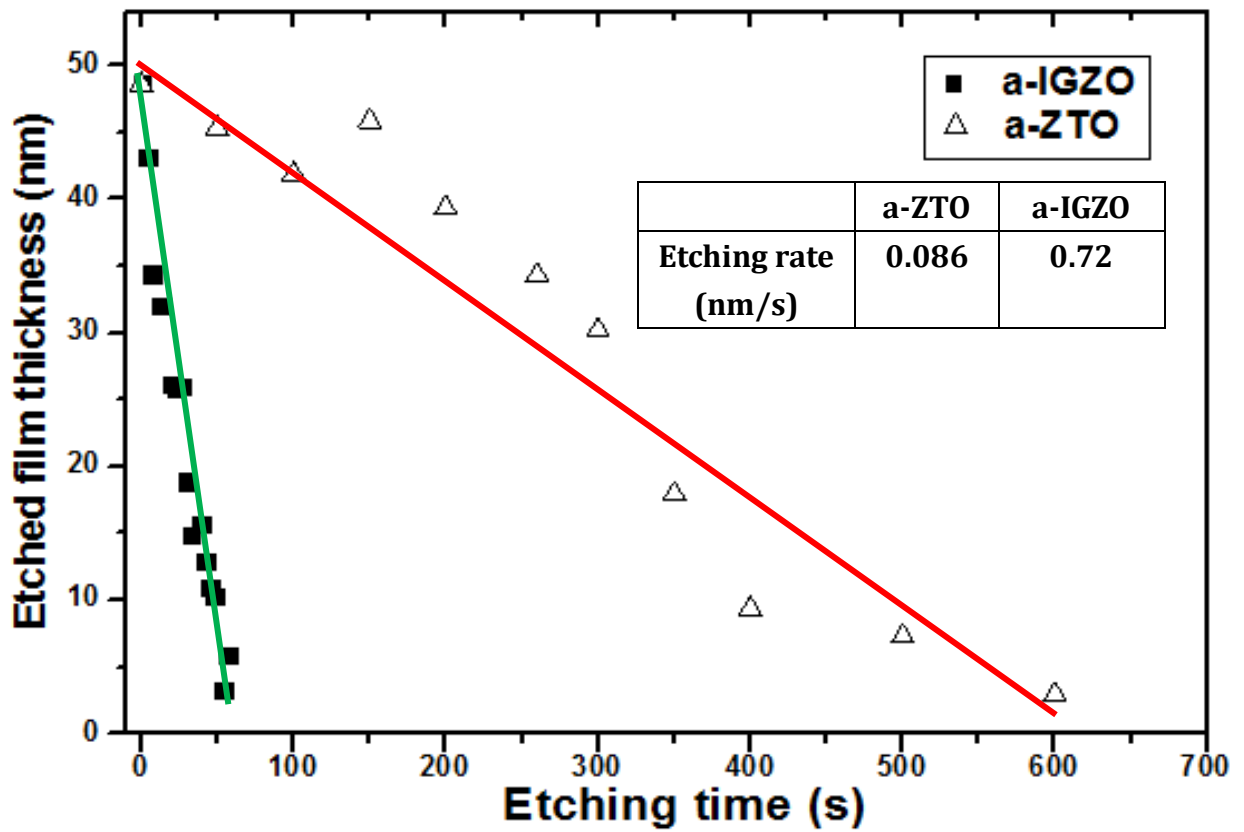


Fig. 4-20 Etching rate of a-ZTO and a-IGZO thin films.

Chapter 5

Conclusions and Future works

5-1. Conclusions

The focus of the research presented in this thesis is the development of amorphous oxide semiconductors for thin-film transistors (TFTs). This study aims to develop In-free TFTs with high mobility and stability to replace a-IGZO TFTs. The In-free a-ZTO and AZO were utilized as a channel layer and source/drain electrodes in TFTs, respectively. The characteristics of a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFTs, including thin film qualities, optical properties, etching resistances, electrical properties, and stabilities were presented and compared.

The thin-film properties are summarized in Table 5-1. These results indicate both a-ZTO and a-IGZO films are high in transparency and flat in surface morphology. Moreover, the etching rates of a-ZTO and a-IGZO are 0.086 nm/s and 0.72 nm/s, which indicate a-ZTO has 8.4 times of the etching resistance comparing to that of a-IGZO. Thus, the etching selectivity can be improved and the high quality of pattern definition in wet etching can be

accomplished by adapting a-ZTO films.

The electrical performance and stabilities of a-ZTO/a-IGZO TFTs with ITO/AZO electrodes and prior arts are illustrated in Table 5-2. In our works, the transfer characteristics of a-ZTO and a-IGZO show the similar performance of V_{th} , SS , and I_{on}/I_{off} . However, the mobility of a-ZTO is higher than a-IGZO TFT by 38%, due to the lower effective mass and the higher carrier concentration. In addition, because of the higher electronegativity in stronger metal oxide bonding, a-ZTO TFTs show better stability under TBS. These results imply that a-ZTO TFTs are potential to be high performance In-free devices. As a substitute for a-IGZO TFTs, a-ZTO TFTs exhibit promising applications for the next generation flat panel displays. On the other hand, the electrical performances of a-ZTO TFTs with In-free electrodes were presented. As indicated in Table 5-2, the result shows that AZO need further improvement because the mobility and on-current of the a-ZTO TFTs with AZO electrodes are relatively poor compared to ITO electrodes. However, a-ZTO TFTs with AZO and ITO have the same reliability under bias stressing. In addition, the mobility of a-ZTO TFTs with AZO electrodes are still higher than that of a-Si TFTs ($\mu_{FE} < 1 \text{ cm}^2/\text{Vs}$). Furthermore, since the TCO of ITO contains the rare In, it might not be cost-effective. Finally, the wet etching resistance of annealed

AZO is improved compared to commercial ITO materials. AZO films are transparent compared to light yellow ITO films. In summary, AZO is very likely to be applied for transparent electronic components and shows great potential as the future TCO material.

Tab. 5-1 Thin-film properties of a-ZTO and a-IGZO thin film.

	a-ZTO	a-IGZO
Transmittance (%)	87.25	90.53
Optical gap (eV)	3.63	3.66
Roughness (nm)	0.379	0.375
Etching rate (nm/s)	0.086	0.72

Tab. 5-2 Electrical properties of a-ZTO and a-IGZO TFTs with AZO/ITO

electrodes.

Reference	NCTU'12			APL,122105	APL,102103
				2011	2011
Channel layer	a-ZTO	a-IGZO	a-ZTO	a-IGZO	a-ZTO
S/D electrodes	ITO	ITO	AZO	Ti/Au	ITO
V_{th} (V)	1.23	1.08	1.46	2.7	1.3-1.5
SS (V/decade)	0.91	0.66	0.86	0.82	0.43
μ_{fe} (cm ² /Vs)	9.29	6.73	1.95	6.4	4.97
I_{on}/I_{off}	1.46E7	6.53E6	2.27E6	3.54E7	1.2E8
PBS: ΔV_{th} (V)	5.45	5.45	6.17	1.7	None
TBS: ΔV_{th} (V)	6.79	9.03	6.95	1.9	None
NBS: ΔV_{th} (V)	-1.14	-2.04	-1.21	None	-2

5-2. Future work

To further improve the device performance of a-ZTO TFTs, the influence of the interface trap between source/drain electrodes and channel layer is an

important issue to be considered, including the contact quality and the parasitic resistance. To achieve full transparent TFTs, the TCO materials (ITO, AZO, IZO) replace metals to utilize in S/D electrodes. However, conductive oxides are difficult to form good electrical contacts between the channel and S/D electrodes. Previous studies indicated that it is necessary to obtain a highly conductive AOS layer by enhance the carrier concentration of AOSs [64,65,66].

Na *et al.*[64] reported that a highly conductive a-IGZO buffer layer to form a good Ohmic contact between a-IGZO and Al electrodes by varying O₂/Ar ratio during deposition. The resistivity can be improved from 4.3×10^3 to 4.6×10^{-2} Ω cm. Therefore, we suggest the resistivity of a-ZTO films also can be controlled by varying O₂/Ar. Ahn *et al.*[67] fabricated the homojunction a-IGZO TFTs. The S/D regions were formed in the a-IGZO channel layer using Reactive Ion Etching (RIE) to expose Ar or H₂ plasma treatments. The resistivity decreased significantly by approximately seven orders of magnitude from 10^4 to 7.3×10^{-3} Ω cm. Sato *et al.*[68] observed that deposition of hydrogenated silicon nitride (SiN_x:H) by Plasma Enhanced Chemical Vapor Nitride (PECVD) onto a-IGZO film increased its conductivity significantly. They report the homojunction a-IGZO TFT with hydrogenated IGZO (H-IGZO)

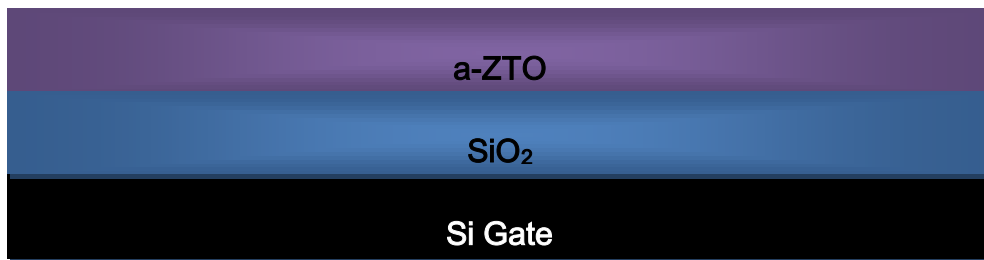
electrodes reducing resistivity from 3.9×10^1 to $6.2 \times 10^{-3} \Omega\text{cm}$. Based on aforementioned results, we forecast that the a-ZTO may have the same behavior with a-IGZO. Therefore, improved a-ZTO TFTs of contact resistance by homojunction fabricating is proposed.

Figure 5-1 shows the flowchart of the future improvement. Firstly, a-ZTO is deposited as channel layer onto gate insulator SiO_2 . Then the SiO_2 channel protection and a-ZTO buffer layer are deposited by RF sputter, respectively. The a-ZTO buffer layer is achieved by adjusting Ar/O_2 in sputtering deposition. The SiN_x deposition by PECVD induces the hydrogen effect onto the area of a-ZTO buffer layer and forms a highly conductive a-ZTO layer as S/D electrodes. Finally, the Ar or H_2 plasma-treated effect are used to further improve the contact resistivity by RIE. This fabrication doesn't require expensive techniques such as ion implantation or diffusion of impurities. The buffer a-ZTO is sputtered on a-ZTO channel layer, and the conductive a-ZTO is then deposited on buffer a-ZTO. The design of gradient resistance may reduce the contact resistance effectively. The homojunction structure may decrease resistivity by seven orders of magnitude from 10^4 to $10^{-3} \Omega\text{cm}$. The proposed homojunction structure and fabrication processes may solve the contact issue between the electrodes and channel layer and achieve the high

performance a-ZTO TFTs.

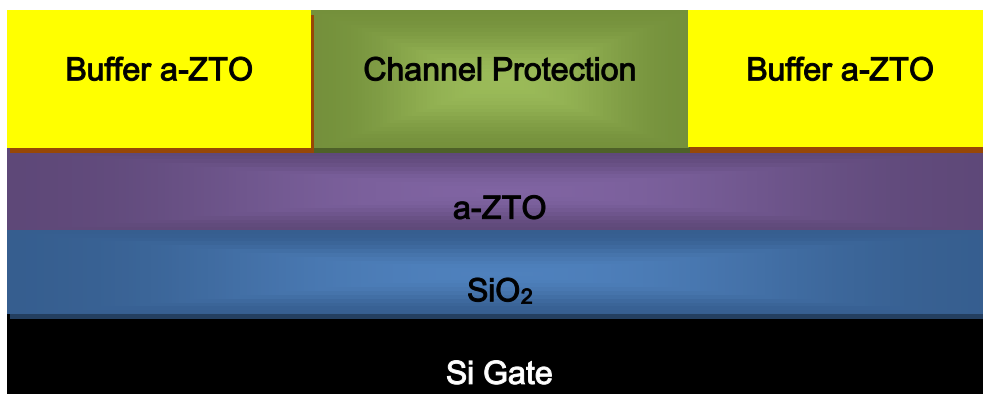
1

Sputtering a-ZTO as channel layer



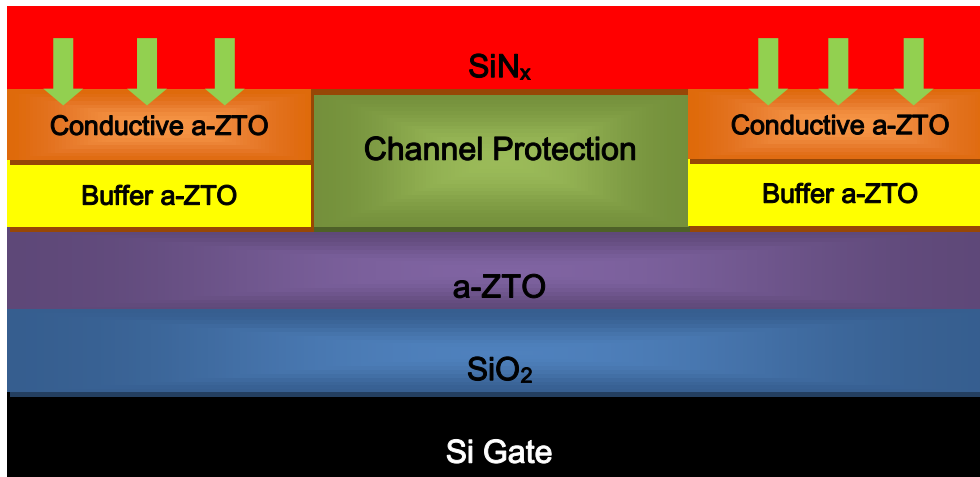
2

Sputtering SiO₂ and a-ZTO buffer layer



3

Deposition SiN_x to induce hydrogen effect by PECVD



Hydrogen effect



4

Etching and plasma-treated by RIE

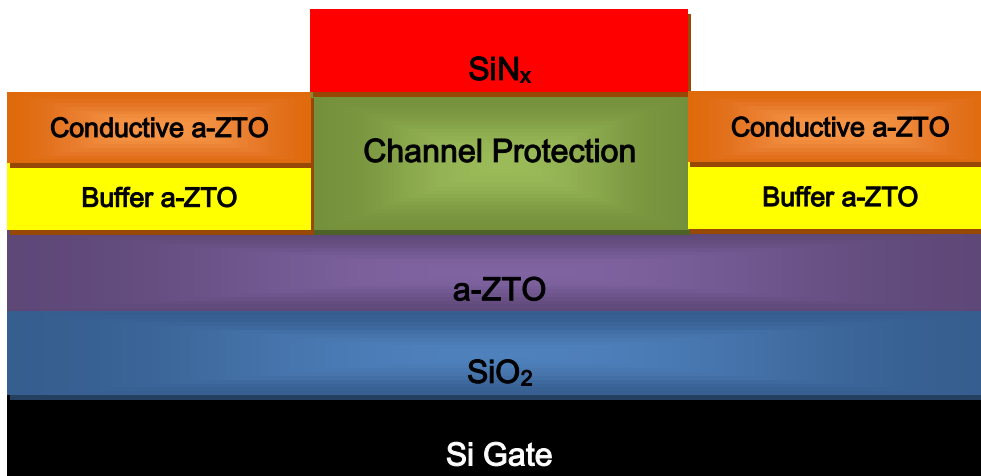


Fig. 5-1 Process flowchart of the future improvement.

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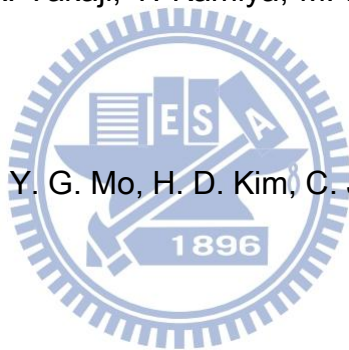
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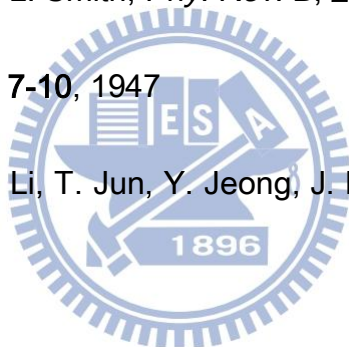
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