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To cite this version:

Pedro Fernandes Paes Pinto Rocha, Laura Vauche, Patricia Pimenta-Barros, Simon Ruel, René Escoffier, et al.. Recent developments and prospects of fully recessed MIS gate structures for GaN on Si power transistors. Energies, 2023, 16 (7), 10.3390/en16072978. hal-04215264

HAL Id: hal-04215264 <https://hal.science/hal-04215264v1>

Submitted on 1 Apr 2024

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Perspective 1

Recent developments and prospects of fully recessed MIS gate ² **structures for GaN on Si power transistors** ³

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Abstract: For High Electron Mobility Transistors (HEMTs) power transistors based on AlGaN/GaN 12 heterojunction, p-GaN gate has been the gate topology commonly used to deplete the Two Dimen- 13 sional Electron Gas (2-DEG) and achieve a Normally-OFF behavior. But fully recessed MIS gate GaN 14 power transistors or MOSc-HEMTs have gained interest as Normally-OFF HEMTs thanks to the 15 wider voltage swing and reduced gate leakage current when compared to p-GaN gate HEMTs. 16 However the mandatory AlGaN barrier etching to deplete the 2-DEG combined with the nature of 17 the dielectric/GaN interface generates etching related defects, traps and roughness. As a conse- 18 quence, the threshold voltage (VTH) can be unstable, and the electron mobility is reduced, which 19 presents a challenge for the integration of a fully recessed MIS gate. Recent developments have been 20 studied to solve this challenge. In this paper, we discuss developments in gate recess with low im- 21 pact etching and Atomic Layer Etching (ALE) alongside surface treatments such as wet cleaning, 22 thermal or plasma treatment, all in the scope of having a surface close to pristine. Finally, different 23 interfacial layers, such as AlN, and alternative dielectrics investigated to optimize the dielec- 24 tric/GaN interface are presented. 25

Keywords: MOSc-HEMT; GaN; MOS; Etching; Surface preparation; Insulator; Interface 26

1. Introduction 28

The major challenge of power electronics today is dealing with the need for high 29 conversion efficiency and reliability, and at the same time, the constant pursuit of cost and 30 size reductions, with low environmental impacts. Replacing power devices made of Sili- 31 con semiconductor material by power devices made of wide bandgap semiconductor ma- 32 terials such as Gallium Nitride (GaN) allow to reach smaller size, cost reduction and 33 higher switching speed at the power system level, thanks to better GaN intrinsic physical 34 parameters. Noticeably, the AlGaN/GaN heterojunction allows to get a high mobile elec- 35 tron layer and to design GaN FETs such as HEMTs which offers high power density, and 36 high switching frequency. $\frac{37}{2}$

GaN transistors are faster and smaller than silicon MOSFETs thus leading to in- 38 creased power density in chargers and adapters as well as high efficiency due to reduced 39 conduction and switching losses. At the moment, the market of GaN power transistors 40 with a positive threshold voltage (V_{TH}), or Normally-OFF, is completely dominated by p- 41 GaN gate architecture (proposed by EPC, GaN Systems, Panasonic for instance). Typical 42 Mg concentrations used in p-type GaN layer are around 1x10½9 cm-3 [1], the Mg satur<mark>ation</mark> $\,$ 43 being as high as 8.9x101º cm^{.3} [2]. However, since acceptor levels from Mg are in the r<mark>ange</mark> $\,$ 44 $\,$ of 150 to 200mV from the valence band, ionization of Mg is limited to a fraction of its 45 concentration. However, the p-GaN gate architecture has intrinsic limits with respect to 46

Citation: To be added by editorial staff during production.

Academic Editor: Firstname Lastname

Received: date Accepted: date Published: date

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its silicon power MOSFET counterparts. Because of the p-GaN gate topology, VTH is gen- 47 erally limited to 1.5V and the typical recommended gate drive is in the range of 0V to 6V 48 or -3V to 6V for high current hard switching applications. Metal-insulator-semiconductor 49 Gate (MIS Gate) GaN transistors could give greater freedom in terms of gate driving volt- 50 age as a result of both increased threshold voltage and larger range in gate voltage swing. 51 Alongside power applications, MIS Gate GaN transistors can be implemented for RF [3], 52 gas sensing [4] and LiDAR [5]. Considering the benefits of a MIS Gate, the fully recessed 53 MIS (Metal Insulator Semiconductor) gate stack has gained increasing interest during the 54 last few years for the development of Normally-OFF lateral [6], pseudo-vertical [7] and 55 vertical GaN on Si [8] power transistors. This structure is described in the literature by 56 different names such as MOS-HEMT and MIS-FET which are also used to describe par- 57 tially recessed MIS gates that allow to obtain a Normally-OFF transistor as well. In order 58 to specifically describe the fully recessed MIS gate GaN HEMT, we chose to name it by 59 MOS-channel-HEMT or MOSc-HEMT. Combining the benefits of a MIS gate, its interest 60 comes from the fact that it allows to have a device with a positive threshold voltage by 61 cutting the 2-DEG, low gate leakage current and high gate voltage swing. The MOSc- 62 HEMT also enables to have a more stable V_{TH} than partially recessed MIS gate since the 63 latter suffers from etching thickness variability affecting the VTH [9]. The mentioned topol- 64 ogies as well such as the fluorine implanted gate and the cascode configuration are repre- 65 sented in **Figure 1.** 66

Figure 1. Structure for (a) Normally-ON GaN HEMT and different topologies of Normally-ON GaN 69 HEMTs : (**b**) p-GaN gate; (**c**) Fluorine implanted gate; (**d**) Partially recessed MIS gate; (**e**) Fully re- 70 cessed MIS gate or MOSc-HEMT; (**f**) Cascode configuration (schematic inspired by [10]). Energy 71 band diagrams are represented alongside the structures. 72

To get the full benefits of the fully recessed MIS gate, it is required to optimize the 73 insulator-semiconductor interface in order to achieve good mobility and low interface 74 trapping states. It is equally essential to tune the insulator properties in view of limiting 75 or controlling its charge. For this reason, several process steps have been studied showing 76 both the impact of AlGaN/GaN recess, cleaning, and dielectric deposition. The different 77 defects at the MIS gate are represented in **Figure 2**. 78

Figure 2. Different types of defects and impurities effectively or hypothetically encountered with 80 fully recessed MIS gate. 81 and 31 and 32 and 32 and 33 and 33 and 34 and 35 and 36 and 36 and 36 and 36 and 36

Overall, these studies have been carried on either transistors or simple planar capac- 82 itors. In the case of transistors, parameters such as VTH, its hysteresis (ΔV TH) and channel 83 mobility can be measured. But for simple planar capacitors, flat band voltage (VFB), its 84 hysteresis (ΔV_{FB}) and density of interface states (D_{it}) are usually studied to evaluate the 85 properties of the dielectric/GaN interface. If the correspondence between results from 86 transistors and planar capacitors can be established, with deeper recess depth, the impact 87 of sidewalls is no longer negligible and needs to be taken into account. Moreover, planar 88 capacitors will have an intentional n-doping in order to provide free carriers for positive 89 voltage swing of C-V measurements, while transistors will have an unintentional doped 90 (UID) GaN layer. Alongside electrical characterization, physical parameters such as 91 roughness, presence of impurities and defects, and oxidation have been measured using 92 different characterization techniques as AFM, XPS/HAXPES and ToF-SIMS. Studying the 93 physical parameters allows to better understand the critical dielectric/GaN interface. 94

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- Passivating species, the contract of the con
-
- Electrons, 107 • Photons. 108

The positively charged ions are guided towards the wafer surface through an applied 109 negative bias on the wafer and their acceleration is normal to the wafer surface. Alongside 110 the neutral species present in the plasma, the positive ions work in unison to etch the 111 wafer surface. 112

For wide bandgap semiconductors, the application of high-density plasma in etching 113 processes such as electron cyclotron resonance (ECR), inductively coupled plasma (ICP), 114 and magnetron RIE was proven to achieve better etching characteristics than simple RIE. 115 The reason for this enhancement can be explained by the higher plasma density, which is 116 typically two orders of magnitude higher than RIE (10¹¹–10¹² cm⁻³ against 10⁹–10¹⁰ cm⁻³). 117 This increased plasma density leads to a higher efficiency in breaking bonds for these 118 strongly bonded semiconductors and facilitates the removal by sputtering of etching by- 119 products formed on the surface [11]. 120

The use of inductively coupled plasma (ICP) reactors allows to control separately the 121 plasma density (chemical part of the etching, controlled with inductance power) and the 122 bombardment energy (physical part of the etching, controlled with bias voltage); unlike 123 capacitance coupled plasma (CCP) reactors where the plasma density and bombardment 124 energy are controlled together. 125

GaN is usually etched using fluorine-based or chlorine-based plasmas. ICP-RIE etch- 126 ing of GaN using these plasmas cannot be purely chemical at room temperature because 127 of the formation of nonvolatile etching byproducts such as $GaF_x(T_{eb}=1000^{\circ}C)$ with fluo-128 rine-based chemistries (e.g. SF_6) or AlCl₃ (T_{eb}=183^oC) and GaCl₃ (T_{eb}=201^oC) with chlorine- 129 based chemistries (e.g. $Cl₂$) [11]. Therefore, the physical bombardment should be suffi- 130 ciently strong to remove these byproducts and to expose the surfaces for further etching, 131 for instance using Ar or N₂ in combination with SF₆ [12] or Ar in combination with Cl₂ [13]. 132 Addition of noble gases and energetic-ion sputtering in ICP also improves the etching 133 both by initially breaking the stable Ga-N bond and by preferentially sputtering the nitro- 134 gen atoms, which results in a Ga-rich GaN surface [14]. XPS measurements of the GaN 135 surfaces etched by SF_6 and Cl₂ indicate respectively the presence of F and Cl on the etched 136 GaN surface [15]. Worse on-state characteristics were observed with $SF₆$ etching, assumed 137 to be due to deterioration of the negative V_{TH} with F [15]. Moreover, since Cl based by-138 products are more volatile, the etching process is faster. Therefore, etching of GaN using 139 chlorine-based plasma is preferred to fluorine-based plasma. 140

Gallium oxide can be present at the GaN surface or may form during the etching 141 process since the etching chamber can contain small amounts of oxygen (chamber walls, 142 mask layers on the wafer). BCl³ is helpful for gallium oxide removal as BCl² + ions dissoci- 143 ated from BCl³ are good Lewis acids with strong oxide affinity, leading to the formation 144

of BCI_xO_y (g) [16]. Therefore, etching of GaN is usually performed using Cl₂ and BCl₃ chlo-145 rine-based plasma. By increasing the bias power, the physical component of the etch pro- 146 cess is enhanced, as confirmed by linear correlation between ICP bias power variation and 147 AlGaN, GaN and AlN etch rate [17]. 148

The use of other chemicals such as $SiCl₄$ have been reported to tune the profile shape, 149 for instance SiCl₄ passivates the sidewalls by formation of SiO_x and SiN_x , leading to a more 150 vertical profile [18]. 151

Continuous dry etching on GaN has fast etch rates, but the surface damage as shown 152 in **Figure 3** (composition/roughness), the high variability and the non-uniformities at wa- 153 fer and die level are, at present, the three main shortcomings [19,20]. 154

Figure 3: GaN surface before and after etching observed by AFM. The etching process is similar to 156 the process used in [21] 157

2.1.2 Plasma induced damage 158

The device's performance can be seriously degraded due to the creation of plasma- 159 induced damage, which occurs as a result of ion bombardment and exposure to ultraviolet 160 (UV) photons during plasma assisted etching. Plasma-induced damage includes the fol- 161 lowing defects: 162

- 1. Lattice defects generated from energetic ions. These defects typically exhibit deep 163 level states behavior and thus produce compensation, trapping or recombination in 164 the material. Due to channeling of the low energy ions that strike the sample, and 165 rapid diffusion of the defects created, the effects can be measured as deep as 1000\AA 166 from the surface, even though the projected range of the ions is only $\langle 10 \text{ Å } [22]$. 167
- 2. Atomic hydrogen unintentional passivation of dopants. The hydrogen may be a spe- 168 cific component of the plasma chemistry, or may be unintentionally present from re- 169 sidual water vapor in the chamber or from sources such as photoresist mask erosion. 170 The effect of the hydrogen deactivation of the dopants is a strong function of sub- 171 strate temperature, but may occur to depths of several thousand angstroms [22]. 172
- 3. Polymeric film deposition through plasma chemistries involving CH_x species, or 173 through reaction of photoresist masks with Cl2-based plasma [22]. 174
- 4. Nonstoichiometric induced surfaces by selective removal of specific lattice elements. 175 This can occur because of strong differences in the volatility of the respective etch 176 products, leading to enrichment of the less volatile species, or by preferential sput- 177 tering of the lighter lattice element if there is a strong physical component to the etch 178 mechanism. Typical depths of this nonstoichiometry are $\leq 100 \text{ Å}$ [22]. 179

In the case of AlGaN/GaN etching, various studies have shown that higher ICP bias power 180 create ions with higher energy, ultimately leading to stronger ion bombardment damage 181 [23], several GaN material damage or degradation of the devices performance [20,23–29]. 182 The characterizations methods for dry plasma induced damage in AlGaN/GaN materials 183 and devices are reported in **Table 1**. 184

Characterization technique	Material damage or degradation of the device performance	Ref.
AFM	Roughness of AlGaN surface	[30, 31]
Photoluminescence	Increase of photoluminescence intensity ratio of YL/BE	[24]
Cathodoluminescence	Degradation of the AlGaN Near Band Edge signal intensity	$[31]$
Depth Resolved Cathodoluminescence Spectroscopy (DRCLS)	V_N (@ Ec -0.9eV) and C defects in the p-GaN layer	$[32]$
Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy	Decrease in built-in potential (Vbi) at the nGaN/electrolyte Interface	[25, 33]
Sheet resistance measurement (R _{sheet}) with 4-probe equipment on GaN/AlN/AlGaN/GaN samples	Increase of 2DEG sheet resistance	[20,24,34–36]
Schottky diodes	Decrease of Schottky barrier height Φ_B	
MOS capacitors or transistors	Increase of interface state density (Dit) Lower electron mobility Increase of leakage current Lower threshold voltage	$[26 - 28, 30, 37]$ [27, 37] $[26]$ [23, 37]

Table 1. Characterizations methods for dry plasma induced damage in AlGaN/GaN materials or 185 degradation of devices performances. 186

Reported electrical damage depth ranges from >10-20 nm [20,25] to 40 nm [38] or 50-60 187 nm [22,25]. From the AES electron spectrum of oxygen profile, surface damage was lim- 188 ited to the top few hundred angstroms [39]. 189

One proposed explanation for the degradation of device performance is the introduc- 190 tion of donor levels, such as V_N , caused by dry-etching. These donor levels results in a n- 191 GaN surface [32], which may contribute to the low V_{TH} since applying negative gate volt- 192 ages is necessary to deplete the n-GaN surface donor layer and cut off the channel. As a 193 matter of fact, under threshold conditions, some of these n-type defects become ionized 194 and depleted, resulting the generation of positive ionized space charges. Therefore, the 195 key factor for achieving normally-OFF operation in a fully dry-recessed MIS gate HEMT 196 is the removal or recovery of the damaged layer (i.e. providing sufficient nitrogen to elim- 197 inate the V_N [29]. 198

Among the different approaches proposed to overcome the plasma induced damage is- 199 sues are: 200

- 1. Reduction or elimination of the source of damage through use of etching methods 201 without plasma or with low ICP bias power. 202
- 2. Recovery of the damaged layer. 203
- 3. Removal of the damaged layer. 204

The use of etching methods without plasma is a way to avoid damage. Photo-electrochem- 205 ical (PEC) etching through photo-assisted anodic oxidation is interesting for nitride sem- 206 iconductors since the high thermal and chemical stability hinders the use of typical wet 207 chemical etching. The necessary amount of photo-induced holes is regulated by choosing 208 the relevant wavelength *λ* and anodic bias [40]. The holes are generated at the anode pre- 209 sent at the GaN/electrolyte interface, specifically where electrons are given off to the out- 210 side circuit. These holes then break down GaN into $Ga³⁺$ ions. The latter reacts with the 211 electrolyte and results in the formation of Ga2O3 which dissolves in acid or base (H3PO4 212 and KOH [41] or H_2SO_4/H_3PO_4 mixture [42]). Finally, the etching depth is proportional to 213 the total etching current [43]. 214

The use of etching methods with low bias plasma is another way to reduce the dam- 215 age. 216 and 216

In that matter, Atomic Layer Etching (ALE) is an interesting solution to reduce the 217 dry-etching surface damage, which mitigates device performance and electron mobility, 218

and to accurately control the etching depth. ALE, with low etching rates, can be used di- 219 rectly to remove the AlGaN/GaN layers (full ALE) or after conventional ICP-RIE etching 220 with higher etching rate. The combination of ICP-RIE with ALE was reported to reduce 221 etching damage, evaluated by the reduction of the sheet resistance Rsheet in **Figure 4**. 222

Figure 4: Rsheet measurements of the 2DEG after ICP-RIE etching or ICP-RIE with ALE etching [35] 224

However, it has also been reported that UV photon damage in ALE was larger than 225 in RIE owing to the longer plasma irradiation time [31]. It has been found that the ALE 226 photon-induced damage can be mitigated by a post etch anneal process at temperatures 227 which are compatible with the overall thermal budget of a GaN power transistor process 228 flow [44]. 229

In a similar approach and more recently, multistep etching with decreasing bias and 230 post-etching anneal has been proposed to reduce the damage [18,45]. 231

Also, a neutral beam etching (NBE) system using the neutralization of negative ions 232 has been proposed by Lin and co-workers in order to eliminate UV photon irradiation 233 [46]. 234

2.1.3. GaN atomic layer etching (ALE) or digital etching 235

The ALE mechanism consists of two sequential steps: surface modification (reaction 236 A) and the removal of the modified surface (reaction B). The modification step creates a 237 thin modified layer on surface with a specific thickness, which is easier to remove than 238 the unmodified material. This modified layer has a distinct change in physical structure 239 and/or in composition with a defined gradient. 240

The surface modification (reaction A) can occur through: 241

- 1. Chemisorption of species on the surface, which weakens the material bonds under- 242 neath (e.g. chlorination of GaN by Cl2), 243
- 2. Deposition of a reactive layer on the surface, 244
- 3. Conversion of first layers into another material (e.g. oxidation of GaN), 245
- 4. Selective extraction of a specific species. 246

During the removal step (reaction B), the modified layer is removed while maintaining 247 the integrity of the underlying substrate. This step allows the surface to be "reset" to a 248 pristine or almost pristine state for the subsequent ALE cycle [20]. The ALE mechanism is 249 represented in **Figure 5**: 250

Figure 5: General concept of ALE with reaction A (chlorination of the GaN surface) and reaction B 253 (removal of the modified surface with Ar plasma) 254

III-V and III-N materials are usually etched by directional ALE using a combination 255 of chlorination and particle bombardment [20]. Chlorine mostly reacts with the surface 256 and metallic Ga atoms to form Ga chlorides [14]. The removal of the chlorinated layer has 257 been investigated by the bombardment of Ar or He ions [35,36]. Several teams have re- 258 ported on Cl₂/Ar based ALE for GaN etching, achieving etch rates from 0.13 to 0.50 nm/cy- 259 cle [35,36,44,47–50] and surfaces as smooth as the as-grown sample. The presumed etching 260 by-products are $GaCl_3(g)$ and $N_2(g)$ [49]. 261

Cl₂/Ar ALE parameters such as DC bias voltage during the Ar step, duration of each 262 step, pressure during each step and gas ratio can be optimized in order to etch in the "ALE 263 window" where there is no background etching during reaction A and only the modified 264 layer by reaction A is removed by reaction B (no additional sputtering) [44,48,49]. A 2D 265 fluid model is useful to determine the flux of reactive species, radicals and ions included, 266 which arrive at the wafer surface. This flux can be calculated as a function of chlorine 267 content, gas pressure and RF power, showing a strong correlation between the chemical 268 nature of the etching process and the rise in atomic chlorine flux[51]. Ar bombardment 269 leaves Ga atoms with dangling bonds, leading for a low energy bombardment of 100eV 270 to a ~25Å amorphous layer enriched in Ga [52], for 400eV to a Ga-rich surface layer [53,54], 271 for 1keV to Ga nanodroplets [55], for a high-energy bombardment of 2.5 keV to a metallic 272 Ga layer [53,54]. Simultaneously, a portion of nitrogen is moved to interstitial position, 273 forming split-interstitial defects [54]. This Ga-rich surface was associated with lower Ga 274 3d binding energy [55], increase in the downward band bending (nitrogen vacancies act 275 as donors) and pinning of the surface Fermi level closer to the conduction band [56]. 276

An alternative to chlorination for the surface modification step is the use of a bro- 277 mine-based chemistry (HBr), allowing to reduce the Ar plasma power during the bom- 278 bardment step [44]. 279

An alternative to particle bombardment for the removal step is the thermal desorp- 280 tion of Ga chlorides at temperatures higher than 223 K [14]. 281

Another ALE of III-V and III-N materials is a combination of oxidation of Al- 282 GaN/GaN by oxygen based plasmas or by wet chemistries followed by removal of oxide 283 by chlorine based plasma etchingor wet etching, also called digital etching. This technique 284 can also apply to remove unwanted native oxide/contamination, disordered gallium ox- 285 ide/aluminum oxide residue. The oxidation step can be achieved by exposure to a low 286 power O₂ plasma [19,57–63], to N₂O plasma [64] or to wet solutions such as $HzSO_4/HzO_2$ 287 [65]. Increased GaN surface roughness has been reported, attributed to the locally im- 288 proved oxidation around the dislocations. The pinholes, which are likely caused by dislo- 289 cations, were significantly enlarged as the recess depth increases [66]. Removal of the ox- 290 ide layer can be achieved using a low-power BCl₃ oxide etch step [67–69], which resembles 291 a self-limiting process, due to the fact that BCl₃ etches the oxidized GaN layer much faster 292

than unoxidized regions. This difference in etch rate is explained by B_xCl_y deposited layer 293 on unoxidized GaN. After etching, this deposited layer can be easily removed by stripping 294 process [69]. Removal of the oxide layer can also be achieved by submerging the wafer 295 into a wet HCl acid bath [19,20,57–59,61,64,65,70]. Thanks to the high oxidation selectivity 296 ratio of GaN and AlGaN [71–74], TMAH and KOH are reported for selective etching of 297 oxidized AlGaN and AlN while GaN plays the role of etch stop layer [73–75]. GaN cap 298 layer can be used as a recess mask [71]. 299

In conclusion, etching of AlGaN/GaN is mandatory in order to obtain a recessed gate 300 architecture. However, traditional ICP-RIE processes create damage, which can alter the 301 electrical performance. The following challenges arise: 302

- 1. Proper characterization of the damage, correlation with electrical damage (which de- 303 pends on the target device), 304
- 2. Developments of damage-free or reduced damage etching processes, compatible 305 with an industrial process (wafer size, throughput), 306
- 3. Process integration and choice of mask that enable the use of damage-free or reduced 307 damage etching processes, 308
- 4. Adapted stripping that removes masks and etching residues. 309

Cyclic processes such as ALE show good repeatability and etch depth control with lower 310 electrical degradation than ICP-RIE processes, enabling to reduce the damage. Other ap- 311 proaches include recovery or removal of the damaged layer, which can be performed by 312 various GaN surface treatments. $\frac{313}{2}$

2.2. Cleaning or surface preparation by wet, thermal or plasma treatments 314

The surfaces to clean are the GaN gate bottom, which is a polar (0001) Ga-face c-plane 315 and the gate cavity AlGaN and GaN sidewalls. If the gate cavity had 90° sidewall angles, 316 they could be non-polar m-planes and a-planes, depending on the orientation, due to the 317 Wurtzite GaN crystal structure (hexagonal symmetry). 318

319

Figure 6. Different planes from the Wurtzite GaN crystal structure (hexagonal symmetry). 320

The contamination layer of air-exposed GaN is usually \sim 2–5nm thick. About half of 321 this contamination consists of transparent inorganic and organic species. The rest is pre- 322 sumed to be native oxide [76]. Wurtzite GaN surfaces are very active towards the adsorp- 323 tion of oxygen. The presence of dangling bonds at the GaN surface makes the surface 324 reactive to a wide range of impurities, leading to higher impurity concentration on GaN 325 than on Si [77]. 326

GaN surface preparation aims at: 327

- Reducing the surface contamination (particulate, metallic, and chemical: native ox- 328 ides, carbon and other), 329
- Not damaging the crystal structure nor introducing additional defect states, 330
- Removing the etch-induced damage, 331
- Smoothing the GaN surface, 332

• Improving the nucleation of the dielectric layer (for instance Atomic Layer Deposited 333 or ALD Al_2O_3). 334

Ex-situ cleaning includes solvents, various acid and bases, as well as UV/O3. In-situ clean- 335 ing includes room temperature or high temperature plasma, sputtering and vacuum or 336 gas annealing [76]. A summary of all the treatments discussed in this paper can be found 337 in **Table 2**. 338

Table 2: GaN surface treatments and their impact on contamination removal, etch-induced damage 339 removal. The abbreviation "Y" and "N" are for "Yes" and "No" respectively. 340

Surface treatment	Anisotropic etching (Y/N)	Oxide removal (Y/N)	Carbon removal (Y/N)	Dry etching damage removal (Y/N)	Impact on roughness and incorporation of impurities	Impact on device
TMAH	Y [78-80]			Y (sidewall [81]) N (planar [26])	Removal of F [82] Removal of plasma damage [83]	Positive VTH shift [84] Improved mobility [83]
KOH	Y[85, 86]					
NaOH				Y [37]		Positive VTH shift [37]
NH ₄ OH		Y [21,87-91]	Y[90] N [87,88,92]	$Y(100^{\circ}C[23])$		Positive VTH shift [23,91]
HCl		Y [21,89,93- 95]	N [89,96,97]	$Y(70^{\circ}C[98])$	Incorporation of Cl [21, 94, 99] Detrimental impact on ALD nucleation [100]	Large hysteresis [100]
HF		Y [97,101]	Y[102] N [96,97]		Incorporation of F [97]	
H_2O_2 : H_2SO_4		Y [97] N [96]	Y [96,97,102]		Smoothing [97,102]	Reduction of hysteresis [100, 102]
H_3PO_4	Y [21,103]	Y[21]	Y[21]	Y[21]	Incorporation of P [21, 103]	
(NH ₄) ₂ S		Y[21]	N [97,102]		Incorporation of S $[104]$	Reduction of hysteresis [105]
UV/O ₃		N [106]	Y[107]			
O ₂ plasma			Y [99]		Removal of Cl [99]	
N ₂ annealing				Y[38, 45]	Removal of Cl [99]	
NH ₃ annealing		Y [108,109]				
H ₂ S annealing					Incorporation of S [110]	Negative VTH shift [110]
Ar plasma						Reduction of hysteresis [111, 112]
NH ₃ plasma		Y[87]	Y[87]			Reduction of hysteresis [113]
N ₂ plasma			Y [88,114,115]	Y[23,24]	Incorporation of N [88, 115]	
H ₂ plasma		Y[116]	Y[116]		Formation of Ga droplets [116]	

Various wet cleaning sequences have been reported in the literature. After oxygen remov- 341 ing wet treatments, such as HF, the presence of a Ga-O bonds indicates the presence of a 342 native oxide. It suggests a reoxidation (estimated to 0.5\AA) forming a GaO_x layer during 343 surface exposure to ambient air prior to XPS measurement or during wet treatments (HF 344 and/or DI water rinse) [101]. This further confirms the strong oxygen affinity of a clean 345 GaN surface. The presence of a GaO_x layer is problematic, with increased hysteresis and 346 interface states [117–119]. In-situ NH3/Ar/N² plasma sequence has been reported for the 347 removal of the surface native oxide [120] and formation of a nitridated inter-layer (NIL) 348 prior to the gate dielectric deposition as seen in **Figure 7**. This treatment is sometimes 349 labelled as remote plasma pretreatment (RPP). The NH₃-Ar plasma is used as a cleaning 350 step to remove the native oxide. The subsequent N_2 plasma allows to nitride the surface 351 (Ga dangling bonds passivated and possible V_N compensated), resulting in a NIL on the 352 III-N surface $[121, 117, 122]$. Other plasma sequences such as H_2/NH_3 cycles $[123]$, a se- 353 quence of NH₃ and N₂ [124] or N₂/H₂ [125] have been reported before ALD of AlN, SiN_x 354 or epitaxy, leading to a decrease in hysteresis, a reduction of the ON resistance but also a 355 decrease in V_{TH} [124]. 356

Figure 7. XPS measurements of Ga3d and Al2p spectra from Al2O3/GaN interfaces (a) with opti- 358 mized RPP, (b) with RPP having insufficient nitridation and (c) without RPP (© 2013 IEEE. Re- 359 printed, with permission, from [116]) 360

Thus, it seems that a combination or a sequence of different treatments is the most 361 suitable in order to achieve all the goals of the surface preparation [126]. Also, for a same 362 surface preparation process, the surface states depend on previous processing, such as dry 363 etching conditions, and therefore the surface preparation should be adapted to the speci- 364 ficities of the material and overall process flow. For instance it was found that the Ga oxi- 365 dation states at Al2O3/GaN interface were higher for etched samples than for non-etched 366 samples [91] or that increased trapping occurred for etched GaN [127]. The higher oxida-
s676 tion state when reduced with the appropriate wet cleaning sequences was proven to in- 368 crease VTH (**Figure 8**) 369

Figure 8. Trend of V_{TH} with gallium oxidation after different wet treatment on etched GaN (from 371) [91]) 372

In addition, as stated in introduction, there is still a limited understanding of the im- 373 pact of the gate cavity morphology, since most of the studies reported here focus on planar 374 structures formed on c-plane (corresponding to the bottom of the gate). We have seen that 375 anisotropic GaN etchants such as tetramethylammonium hydroxide (TMAH), potassium 376 hydroxide (KOH) or H3PO⁴ impact trench sidewall morphology [78,85,86,128]. For in- 377 stance TMAH etches any plane of GaN, except for the (0001) c-plane, while it etches m- 378 plane at a considerably lower rate than other semi-polar planes allowing for instance to 379 achieve rough a-plane oriented sidewall (composed of microscopic m-faces) and smooth 380 m-plane oriented ones [78,79]. In the few studies carried out on different non-polar planes, 381 it is clear that GaN crystallographic orientation impacts the effect of surface treatments on 382 electrical characteristics [79,112,129–131] or that sidewall formation has a significant im- 383 pact on device performance (in comparison with a planar etched structure) [127]. As a 384 consequence, is it crucial to improve the understanding of how the GaN crystal orienta- 385 tion and 3D gate cavity with sidewalls formation impacts recessed gate devices' perfor- 386 mance. 387

Finally, selective area regrowth faces some similar challenges with the deposition of 388 a dielectric in a recessed GaN cavity (such as in MOSc-HEMTs): negative impact of the 389 dry etching [98], exposure to air, difference between trench bottom and sidewalls, incor- 390 poration and activation of the Mg dopant. Therefore, similar characterization techniques 391 can be applied to study these impacts [132]. But regrown GaN is still promising to recover 392 dry etching plasma induced damage [133,134], and can be combined with in-situ dielectric 393 deposition which allows an increase in electron mobility (OG-FET device reported in 394 [135]). 395

3. Interface and dielectric materials 396

3.1 Interface 397

Since the growth of a thick native gallium oxide, similar to $SiO₂$ from Si , is difficult 398 [136], the deposition of a dielectric layer has been necessary to form a MIS gate. However, 399 due to the defective interfacial GaO_x and the lattice mismatch at the dielectric/ GaN interface, this interface needs to be controlled to have the desired device properties. 401

In the case of GaO_x , reducing the low-quality interfacial oxide was presented in the 402 previous section with wet cleaning and plasma treatments, notably with the NIL plasma 403 treatment. This technique is important since as stated before GaO_x is not reduced with HF 404 [101] nor after dielectric deposition such as Al₂O₃ [137]. Another solution is to create a 405 high-quality interfacial gallium oxide. Oxidation by exposing the surface to ozone was 406 found beneficial for AlGaN/GaN devices with reduced hysteresis [138]. More specifically, 407 oxidation by O_2 plasma combined with a high temperature anneal under N_2 and prior 408 SiN^x deposition by Low-Pressure Chemical Vapor Deposition (LPCVD) was studied [139– 409 141]. The result is a GaON layer formed at the interface between SIN_x and the recessed 410 GaN surface. With the GaON layer, a V_{TH} of 1.15V and a reduced hysteresis of 0.2V is 411 reported [139]. Reduced hole injection under negative stress is also observed, the high 412 valence band offset between GaON and GaN explaining this improvement [140,141]. 413 GaON can also be formed with a N₂O plasma [142–144], reducing the damage from the 414 LPCVD SiN^x deposition process [143] and increasing electron mobility [144]. With a non- 415 recessed gate structure, an AlGaON layer formed by controlled oxidation with N2O 416 plasma through a thin Al2O₃ layer was reported in [145,146]. An increased V_{TH} was ob- 417 served with a small hysteresis correlated to the oxidation step [145]. 418

A thin interfacial AlN can be directly deposited before the dielectric to improve the 419 interface quality due to its lower lattice mismatch with GaN with respect to Al₂O₃ [147]. 420 Moreover, AlN is known to form a passive oxide layer, when exposed to air. For this rea- 421

son, AlN deposition is typically followed by in-situ dielectric deposition without air ex- 422 posure. When applied on both GaN's c-plane (polar surface) and m-plane (non-polar sur- 423 face) before ALD Al2O₃, AlN reduces the V_{FB} hysteresis and the interface states, especially 424 at the non-polar surface [130]. Specifically for MOSc-HEMT, a reduction of V_{TH} hysteresis 425 from 800mV to 65mV is obtained with a 2nm PEALD AlN interfacial layer at the 426 Al₂O₃/GaN interface, as well as a lower density of interface states [148]. By combining the 427 NIL process and the AlN deposition, the improvement in terms of hysteresis is similar but 428 a lower density of interface states is observed and a greater separation between defects on 429 Al₂O₃ and GaN is obtained [119,149]. With an AlSiO dielectric, AlN improves the electron 430 mobility by confining the electrons at the interface [150] and allows to reduce Ga diffusion 431 into the dielectric after high temperature Post-Deposition Annealing (PDA) at 950°C [151]. 432

In conclusion, two ways of treating the interfacial GaOx are possible; either reducing 433 it or improving/growing the interfacial oxide with fewer defects. Specific AlN interfacial 434 layer deposition before thicker dielectric deposition leads to increased mobility, lower 435 hysteresis and lower density of states. Since the direct deposition of oxides on GaN main- 436 tains the interfacial GaO_x, combining its removal with an AlN layer represents a promis- 437 ing solution to keep a low oxidation state at the interface, improve electron mobility and 438 reduce VTH hysteresis. 439

3.2 Dielectric 440

Another essential aspect of the MIS gate is its dielectric. The considered properties 441 are [152]: 442

- Larger band gap than GaN in another to have a conduction offset higher than 1 eV, 443
- Layer without grain boundaries, 444
- High relative permittivity and high breakdown voltage. 445

A summary of dielectrics, their band lineup with GaN and their dielectric constant are 446 represented in F**igure 9**. As the high-κ dielectric band gap tends to decrease with the die- 447 lectric constant, there is a limitation in the choice of candidates. Frequently used dielectrics 448 are SiO_2 , SiN_x and Al_2O_3 . Annealing after deposition or after metallization is equally important to improve the dielectric/GaN stack. 450

451

Figure 9. Band lineups of different dielectrics with GaN alongside their respective dielectric constant 452 (Refs [153–156]). 453

SiO₂ has a high gap (~9 eV) but a low relative permittivity (~3.9) [157,158]. Its large 454 gap strongly reduces leakage current, and its thermal stability allows the use of high ther- 455 mal budgets ($>800^{\circ}$ C). However, Ga diffusion into SiO₂ can lead to increased leakage cur- 456 rent as well as reduced breakdown voltage [132]. A negative shift of VFB at high PDA tem- 457 perature (800 $^{\circ}$ C) was also reported and attributed to the formation of V \circ after hydrogen 458 reduction with interfacial GaO_x [133]. 459

SiN_x has a lower gap (~5.5 eV) and a higher relative permittivity (~7.5) [157,158]. The 460 V_N passivation with SiN_x leads to a lower reported density of interface states [134,135]. 461 However, because of its small gap, gate leakage may be in certain cases too high [136]. 462

Al₂O₃ has a high gap (\sim 7eV) and relative permittivity (8ν -10) [157,158]. Regarding the 463 interface, D_{it} values ranging from 10^{11} to 10^{13} cm⁻².eV⁻¹ are found in the literature depend- 464 ing on the deposition and treatment before or after Al2O3 formation [159–161]. However, 465 amorphous Al₂O₃ has a lower thermal stability than SiN_x and SiO_2 . Crystallization typi-466 cally occurs at about 800°C [160] on as-grown GaN and a beginning of crystallization can 467 be observed at 600° C on etched GaN [162]. When PDA is applied, usually between 400° C 468 and 800 $^{\circ}$ C, a general increase of VTH/VFB is reported [163–166], VTH hysteresis is reduced 469 [167] and electron mobility is increased [137,163,166]. These improvements can be related 470 to the reduction of positive charges in both GaO_x [152,166] and Al₂O₃ [165], or to the re- 471 duction of interface states [164,167,168]. 472

With the respective limitation of commonly used dielectrics, one approach is to de- 473 velop ternary alloys to benefit from their specific properties. 474

3.2.1 Al2O³ and AlN alloys for improved thermal stability and lower electron trapping: AlON 475

AlON is an example of such an alloy, consisting of a mixture between Al_2O_3 and AlN , 476 and having many advantages compared to Al_2O_3 and AlN. It can be deposited by different 477 techniques: 478

- Sputtering of an Al source with a flow of O_2 and N_2 [169], 479
	- Nitriding ALD Al2O³ with N² plasma [170,171], 480
- ALD with Trimethylaluminium (TMA) and N_2/O_2 precursors [172], 481
- ALD nanolaminates of Al_2O_3 and AlN [173,174], 482
- Oxidation of ALD AlN with O³ [175,176]. 483

In terms of advantages, the introduction of nitrogen into the Al2O³ matrix reduces current 484 leakage by both passivating Vo defects [177] and increasing the electron barrier height 485 between AlON and GaN [171], although AlON's band gap was reported to be smaller 486 than Al_2O_3 [169,175]. The passivation of these defects could explain the reduction in hys- 487 teresis and electron injection reported for AlON in the literature [169,171,173,175,177,178]. 488 Nozaki and co-workers indeed reported a reduction in electron injection with increasing 489 nitrogen concentration while Kang and co-workers reported a reduced VTH instability un-
490 der positive bias stress (**Figure 10.a**). Furthermore, the presence of nitrogen induces the 491 presence of negative fixed charges allowing VFB to increase [170,173]. With a fully recessed 492 MIS gate HEMT, a similar V $_{TH}$ of \sim 2.25 V is found for AlON and Al2O₃ [171]. According to 493 an ab-initio study by Choi and co-workers, the introduction of nitrogen into crystalline 494 Al₂O₃ induces negative fixed charges for n-type doped GaN [179]. However, according to 495 Guo and co-workers, these nitrogen defects are absent in the amorphous Al_2O_3 gap. Thus 496 the negative charges introduced by these defects are also absent [180]. 497

Regarding the interface, AlON reduces interface states mostly for defect energy level 498 from the conduction band or E_C - E_T higher than 0.35 eV, possibly through the reduction of 499 GaO_x at the interface [169,171,173,178]. With a better interface than $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{GaN}$, Field Effect 500 mobility (UFE) for MOSc-HEMT with AlON increases by ~19% up to 235 cm².V⁻¹s⁻¹ (Figure 501 **10.b**) [171]. 502

(**a**) (**b**)

Figure 10. For both Al2O₃ and AlON deposited in a MOSc-HEMT : (a) V_{TH} shift with positive bias 503 stress at room temperature and at 150 $^{\circ}$ C (**b**) field effect mobility extracted for a V_{DS} at 0.1V [171](\circ 504 IOP Publishing. Reproduced with permission. All rights reserved). 505

However, while AlON has better immunity to electron injection, Hosoi and co-work- 506 ers [181] reported a hole injection which could be problematic in the case of negative 507 stress. These hole traps would be explained by the existence of defects in the N2p orbital 508 near the AlON's valence band [182]. 509

With the incorporation of nitrogen, AlON also benefits from a higher thermal stabil-
510 ity up to 800°C in PDA [169]. As such, the high temperature PDA or Post-Metallization 511 Annealing (PMA) allows to increase the VFB and reduce its hysteresis [170,178]. However, 512 few studies reported the impact of different PDA temperatures. 513

3.2.2. Al2O³ and SiO² alloys for improved thermal stability and lower electron trapping: AlSiO 514

As well as AlON, AlSiO is a ternary alloy of $A1_2O_3$ and SiO_2 , combining the higher 515 relative permittivity of Al2O₃ (~9) with the higher band gap of SiO₂ (~9eV). It can be de- 516 posited by different techniques: 517

- Sputtering a silicon doped aluminum target [183,184], 518
- MOCVD [185–187], 519
- ALD nanolaminates of Al₂O₃ and SiO₂ [151,188–191]. 520

By increasing the silicon concentration, the conduction band offset between AlSiO and 521 GaN increases, reducing the leakage current [188,189]. The incorporation of silicon re- 522 duces the hysteresis [184–187] with Sayed and co-workers reporting a reduction in hyste- 523 resis for MOCVD AlSiO with increasing silicon percentage up to 46% [187]. However, 524 they also describes a negative hysteresis for a percentage equal to 76%, possibly originat- 525 ing from mobile charges. Concerning VFB, the impact of silicon content differs in the liter- 526 ature. Komatsu and co-workers reported an increase in V_{FB} for a silicon content of 29% 527 [184], Gutpa and co-workers reported a reduction in V_{FB} [186], and Kikuta and co-workers 528 reported a small correlation between V_{FB} and silicon content [188]. These differences could 529 be due to the introduction of either positive or negative charges, or the different deposi- 530 tion methods used. More recently, Smith and co-workers reported an increase of V_{TH} with 531 increasing Si content, this effect magnified with AlN interfacial layer [150]. Furthermore, 532 by ab-initio simulation, Chokawa and co-workers described a lower formation energy of 533 Vo defects when the silicon concentration increases [192]. Unlike Vo defects that would be 534 electrically active (V o^{2*}) in Al2O3 [193], these vacancies surrounded by silicon are electri- 535 cally inactive. However, the transition energy $(2+/0)$ for Vo defects is approximately at 536 2.8 \sim 3.5 eV from the alumina's valence band (1.9 \sim 2.6 eV from GaN's valence band if the 537 valence band off-set is considered to be 0.9 eV) [193,194]. In the case of n-doped and UID 538 GaN, Vo defects would already have a neutral charge state. For p-doped GaN, this defect 539 can be a source of hole leakage [194]. So a source of hole leakage \sim 540

Finally, regarding the interface between AlSiO and GaN (0001) (or Ga-Face), the ab- 541 sence of dangling bonds is observed by ab-initio simulation and explained by oxygen mi- 542 gration from the dielectric to the interface [195]. Thus, a low D_{it} is observed when com- 543 pared to Al₂O₃/GaN (0001) interface [185,186]. In the case of p-MOSFET, the extracted μ _{FE} 544 was found to be around $27.7 - 36.2$ cm².V⁻¹.s⁻¹ [191]. Similar to AlON, the incorporation of 545 Si increases the thermal stability with respect to Al₂O₃ [185,190]. 546

A study of PDA on AlSiO with Si content of 22% was carried out by Kikuta and co- 547 workers by annealing from 650 °C to 1050 °C under N₂ for 10min [190]. A reduction in 548 hysteresis and in VFB drift under positive stress for a PDA higher than 650 °C was observed 549 (**Figure 11**). For a PDA above 850 °C, a plateau on the I-V characteristic related to electron 550 trapping is reduced. Contrary to $A\text{12O}_3$, AlSiO presents no sign of crystallization for a PDA $=$ 551 at 850°C. However, the same group observed the onset of crystallization for AlSiO at the 552 interface for a PDA at 950 \degree C. The proposed solution to reduce this crystallization was the 553 deposition of a thin SiO₂ layer at the AlSiO/GaN interface. Moreover, the SiO₂ interfacial 554 layer improves μ FE by 50% (i.e. 27.7–36.2 cm².V⁻¹.s⁻¹), and is explained by the possible re- 555 duction of border traps [191]. 556

Figure 11. V_{FB} shift under positive bias stress at both room temperature and 150°C for AlSiO 558 (21%Si)/n-GaN MOSCAPs under different PDA temperatures [190] (© The Japan Society of Applied 559 Physics. Reproduced by permission of IOP Publishing Ltd. All rights reserved). 560

3.2.3 HfO² and SiO² alloys for improved mobility: HfSiO^x 561

Another interesting approach is the use of HfSiO_x by mixing HfO₂ and SiO₂ by ALD 562 [69,196–199]. As AlSiO, HfSiO_x is deposited by alternating ALD HfO₂ and ALD SiO₂. Hf 563 and Si composition is controlled by adjusting the ratio of $HfO₂$ and SiO₂ ALD cycles 564 $[198,199]$. HfO₂ has a higher relative permittivity but suffers from low thermal stability. In 565 the same way with AlSiO, the introduction of Si increases the thermal stability. In that 566 matter, non-crystallized film after a PDA at 900°C for 5min is reported with a silicon con-
567 tent of 43% [199]. Reported values of relative permittivity are in the order of 13~18 with a 568 high band gap around 6.5 eV, close to reported ALD Al2O₃ band gap of 6.8 eV 569 [196,199,200]. Compared to HfO₂, HfSiO_x leads to lower hysteresis possibly associated to 570 fewer electron traps, but a lower V_{FB}/V_{TH} induced by possible positive charges is also re- 571 ported [197,198]. For an ALE fully recessed MIS gate HEMT, a positive V_{TH} of 2.1V was 572 reported [196]. 573

In terms of interface quality with GaN or AlGaN, HfSiO_x has lower D_{it} than HfO₂ and 574 Al2O3 (around 5x10¹¹ cm⁻².eV⁻¹ at Ec-E $\tau \approx 0.3$ eV), possibly because of the high temperature 575 PDA applied (i.e. 800° C). This highlights the higher interface quality of GaN with HfSiO_x 576 than with HfO₂ and Al₂O₃ [196,198,199]. Combined with the high relative permittivity, 577 transconductance is increased compared to Al_2O_3 in $AlGaN/GaN$ HEMTs [199]. With an 578 ALE fully recessed MIS gate HEMT, a μ FE of around 406 cm².V⁻¹.s⁻¹ is obtained [196]. 579

3.2.4 Al2O³ and TiO² alloy for VTH engineering: AlTiO 580

Finally, the use of AlTiO, a ternary alloy of Al₂O₃ and TiO₂ obtained through the 581 deposition of ALD Al2O3 and TiO2 nanolaminates offers an interesting solution to increase 582 V_{TH} [201,202]. Combining Al₂O₃ with TiO₂ lead to finding a trade-off between TiO₂ high 583 relative permittivity but small band gap (60 and 3.5eV respectively) with Al2O³ lower rel- 584 ative permittivity and higher band gap $(\sim 9$ and ~ 7 eV respectively) [157,158]. The obtained 585 band gap and relative permittivity are in the order of $5-6$ eV and \sim 22 respectively [201,202]. 586 However, the major gain with AlTiO consists in the increase of V_{FB}/V_{TH} . Indeed, on the 587 one hand, Nguyen and Suzuki reported that with a decreasing Al content from 100% to 588 35%, a reduction of positives charges at the AlTiO/AlGaN interface is observed and ex- 589 plained by the reduction of O-Ga and O-Al at the surface by Ti [202]. Combined with 590 partially recessed AlGaN barrier, further reduction of interfacial charges is obtained as 591 shown in **Figure 12.a**, leading to a V_{TH} of 1.7V with an Al content of 73% and a remaining 592 AlGaN barrier of 4 nm [203]. Nonetheless, gate voltage of -6V is reported to induce a V_{TH} 593

negative shift of -0.5V [203]. On the other hand, Gupta and co-workers reported a Nor- 594 mally-OFF HEMT with a partially recessed AlGaN barrier (8nm) and an AlTiO layer after 595 PDA [201]. With increasing Al content from 10% to 52%, an increase in V_{TH} is observed, 596 allowing a V_{TH} of 0.5V. Compared to Al₂O₃ and TiO₂ on HEMTs, higher V_{TH} is obtained 597 with a Ti content of 50% as represented in **Figure 12.b**. The increase of V_{TH} with Al content 598 is explained and confirmed by the formation of p-type doping with deep acceptors states 599 close to AlTiO's valence band [204]. These states are formed by Al replacing Ti in TiO₂. 600 Hence with higher Al content up to 52%, more p-doping is obtained. Concerning hystere- 601 sis, a low hysteresis of 40mV for V $_{DS}$ of 15 V was reported. Finally, by combining both 602 results, it seems that an intermediate Al content is the optimal content to have the highest 603 V TH. 604

Figure 12. (a) V_{TH} in function of $\text{Al}_x \text{Ti}_y \text{O}$ thickness in partially recessed MIS Gate for different Al 605 content. Increasing Ti content up to 27% combined with partial AlGaN recess reduce positive 606 charges at the interface (Reprinted from [203], with the permission of AIP Publishing) ; (**b**) I_D-V_{Gs} 607 transfer characteristic for Al2O₃, TiO₂, Al0.2Ti0.8O_y and Al0.5Ti0.5O_y on HEMTs. Decreasing Ti content 608 up to 52% increase V_{TH} in comparison to Al2O₃, TiO₂ and Al0₂Ti0.8O_y (Reprinted from [204], with the 609 permission of AIP Publishing). 610

3.2.5 Summary 611

In conclusion, many dielectric candidates exist for MOSc-HEMT, from standard 612 Al_2O_3 to alternative solution such as ternary alloys. Their implementation is beneficial for 613 both electrical (i.e. hysteresis and V_{TH}) and material properties (i.e. crystallization temper- 614 ature). For high thermal stability, AlON, AlSiO and HfSiO_x are interesting, allowing 615 higher thermal budget in the fabrication process. Better interface and less defects are also 616 commonly reported for those dielectrics. Finally, AlTiO offers an interesting approach to 617 increase the threshold voltage. Since AlTiO in a fully recessed gate is not yet reported, it 618 would be reasonable to verify the possible V_{TH} obtained from this gate stack. A summary 619 of the MOSCAPs discussed in this section is represented in **Table 3**: 620

4. Conclusions 622

The fully recessed MIS gate GaN HEMT (or MOSc-HEMT) is a promising solution 623 for Normally-OFF GaN-based power devices thanks to its positive threshold voltage, re- 624 duced leakage current and higher allowed gate-voltage swing. Its development can be 625 challenging due to the impact of different process steps of the transistor. The main effect 626 is the low and unstable VTH , and the reduced mobility at the gate channel. In addition, the 627 necessary etching of the AlGaN barrier introduces a GaN surface far from pristine. 628

The main challenges are a proper characterization of the induced damage and a pro- 629 cess integration compatible with industrial requirements. **Among the current develop-** 630 ments, ALE represents a useful tool to mitigate the damage caused by ICP-RIE. Its con-
 trolled etching process associated to the removal of the damaged layer can reduce the 632 roughness and increase the electron mobility. In similar fashion, recent work on selective 633 area growth shows promising results but shares the same issues related to the dry etching 634 step. 635

In addition to the etched surface, the GaN surface has a tendency to both contain 636 more impurities than semiconductors such as silicon and has a difficult to remove native 637 gallium oxide (i.e. GaO_x). This surface condition presents a challenge and specifically dur- 638 ing air-break transitions. A recovery towards a more pristine GaN surface is possible 639 through optimized etching (low impact etching and ALE) combined with specific surface 640 treatments, from wet cleanings (e.g. HF or NH4OH) to plasma treatment (e.g. Remote 641 Plasma Pretreatment). 642

Interface layer, such as AlN, seems mandatory to increase the electron mobility as 643 well as to protect the recessed surface from oxidation during dielectric deposition. The 644 choice of the dielectric is also important, both to optimize the dielectric/GaN interface and 645 be suitable with the integration process of the fully recessed MIS gate transistors. Al₂O₃ is 646 frequently used thanks to its high band gap and high relative permittivity. However, in- 647 stable V_{TH} , low electron mobility and low thermal stability can limit its integration. Ter- 648 nary alloys such as AlON, AlSiO and HfSiO_x could improve the above mentioned electri- 649 cal properties as well as the thermal stability. As such, for AION and AISiO associated 650

667

with high temperature annealing, immunity to electron trapping increases, hence opening 651 a path to lower V_{TH} instability. Moreover, the possible introduction of negative charges in 652 AlON could increase V_{TH} . Another alternative is HfSiO_x which allows to increase the elec- 653 tron mobility thanks to both its good interface quality with GaN and its high relative per-
654 $mittivity$. Combining HfSiO_x with AlN interfacial layer could possibly further increase the 655 electron mobility. Specifically for V_{TH} engineering, the implementation of an AlTiO gate 656 dielectric with an intermediary Ti content in fully recessed MIS Gate should further in- 657 crease the V_{TH} thanks to its apparent p-type behavior. However, from the reviewed liter- 658 ature on MOSc-HEMT, the process having the highest V_{TH} is still in [166] with ICP-RIE 659 and digital etching using Al_2O_3 with a PDA at $400^{\circ}C$.

To summarize, the combination of different process steps from etching to dielectric 661 deposition need to be well controlled in order to fit the desired final device properties. 662 Such developments are also important in the case of Vertical GaN MOS trench-gate tran- 663 sistors. A summary of the mentioned MOSc-HEMTs is reported in **Table 3**. Finally, a bet- 664 ter understanding of gate-trench sidewall quality is needed in order to fully quantify their 665 impact on device properties. 666

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671 672 **Author Contributions:** Conceptualization, P.R., L.V., R.E. and J.B.; methodology, P.R. and L.V.; in- 673 vestigation, P.R., L.V. and J.B.; writing—original draft preparation, P.R., L.V., P.B., S.R., R.E. and 674 J.B.; writing—review and editing, P.R., L.V., P.B., S.R., R.E. and J.B.; visualization, P.R.; supervision, 675

Data Availability Statement: Not applicable. **677 COVID-100 677**

Funding: This work was partially supported by the French Renatech network and by the French 678
Public Authorities within the frame of the PSPC French national program "G-Mobility": 679 Public Authorities within the frame of the PSPC French national program "G-Mobility": DOS0134974 DOS0134974 680

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest. 681

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