Tuning the Limiting Thickness of a Thin Oxide Layer on Al(111) with Oxygen Gas Pressure

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We report an x-ray photoelectron spectroscopy study of the oxidation of Al(111) surfaces at room temperature, which reveals that the limiting thickness of an aluminum oxide film can be tuned by using oxygen pressure. This behavior is attributed to a strong dependence of the kinetic potential on the oxygen gas pressure. The coverage of oxygen anions on the surface of the oxide film depends on the gas pressure leading to a pressure dependence of the kinetic potential. Our results indicate that a significantly large oxygen pressure (>1 Torr) is required to develop the saturated surface coverage of oxygen ions, which results in the maximum kinetic potential and therefore the saturated limiting thickness of the oxide film.

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Although oxide formation is favored thermodynamically for most metals and semiconductors, at low temperatures the reaction proceeds by an initial rapid oxidation stage followed by a drastic reduction of the oxidation rate to virtually zero. A generic model describing this limitingthickness behavior of the oxide film growth kinetics is the Cabrera-Mott model [1,2]. According to this model, an electric field is formed across the oxide film due to the potential difference of the metal-oxide work function and the oxygen-oxide work function resulting from electron tunneling between the Fermi level of the parent metal substrate and acceptor levels of chemisorbed oxygen at the surface. The self-generated electric field due to this potential difference (called the Mott potential) reduces the energy barrier for the migration of ions through the oxide, leading to rapid initial oxidation rates at low temperature. As the tunneling current diminishes with increasing oxide film thickness, the oxidation virtually stops at a limiting thickness.

Much recent research has been focused on influencing the self-limiting process of low-temperature oxidation by manipulating the electric field assisted oxide growth. It has been shown that a significant impact on the oxidation kinetics can be achieved by either directly applying an external electric field [3-10] or electron bombardment of the oxide surface [11–13]. We demonstrate here that the actual value of the self-generated electrostatic potential (designated as the kinetic potential [14]) can deviate from the Mott potential and is tunable by varying the oxygen pressure during oxidation which provides control of the limiting thickness of the oxide film. Our results indicate that a significantly large oxygen pressure is needed such that there is sufficient adsorbed oxygen at the oxide surface to accept the tunneling electrons in order to develop the maximum kinetic potential. At lower oxygen pressures, the lack of oxygen anions leads to a kinetic potential of lower magnitude and therefore a reduction in the limiting thickness of the oxide film.

Our experiments were carried out in an ultrahigh vacuum chamber equipped with an x-ray photoelectron spectrometer (XPS)-SPECS Phoibos 100 MCD analyzer, low-energy electron diffraction, and an Ar-ion sputtering gun. The chamber has a base pressure of 2×10^{-10} Torr. Al- $K\alpha$ x-ray radiation was used for the XPS studies. The Al(111) single crystal was cut to within 0.1° to the (111) crystallographic orientation and polished to a mirror finish. The crystal was cleaned by cycles of Ar^+ bombardment at 300 K and annealing to 700 K. Oxygen gas was introduced to the system through a leak valve and the sample was oxidized at room temperature under a controlled oxygen pressure $p(O_2)$. For the initial stages of oxidation—oxygen coverages less than 1 monolayer where no attenuation of the Al peak was detectable, the oxide film thickness was measured with XPS by calculating the ratio of integrated O 1s and Al 2p core-level peak intensities with atomic sensitivity factors [15] that is correlated with the Al_2O_3 monolayer thickness $(1Al_2O_3 ML \sim 0.2 \text{ nm})$ [16]. All the thicker continuous oxide films formed from the higher oxygen exposures are determined by using the attenuation of the metallic Al(2p) peak in the oxide films with the photoelectron attenuation length for Al₂O₃(16.7 \pm 0.6 Å) [17,18].

Figure 1 shows the evolution of the oxide film thickness for Al(111) oxidation as a function of oxidation time for different oxygen pressures. The oxidation starts with a clean Al surface which is oxidized first at $p(O_2) =$ 1×10^{-8} Torr. The oxide film shows an initial fast growth stage followed by a reduction in growth rate to the limited growth regime. Once no further changes in thickness are detected, the oxygen pressure is increased. Each time after



FIG. 1. Oxide film thickness as a function of oxidation time and oxygen gas pressure. The oxidation starts with a clean Al(111) surface which is oxidized first at $p(O_2) = 1 \times 10^{-8}$ Torr. A stepwise increase in oxygen pressure is applied after a limiting oxide thickness is reached at each oxygen pressure. The stepwise increase in oxygen pressure results in a corresponding increase of the limiting thickness of the oxide film until an oxygen pressure of $p(O_2) = 1$ Torr is reached, beyond which the additional oxygen exposure to the surface does not result in any subsequent oxide growth.

reaching a limiting oxide film thickness, a stepwise increase in oxygen pressure is applied, and a thicker limiting oxide thickness is again observed after long time exposure. This shows that additional oxide growth is possible on oxide films with limiting thicknesses established at lower pressure and that a new limiting thickness is observed in each pressure regime. This stepwise increase in the limiting thickness of the oxide film continues (e.g., Table I) until an oxygen pressure of $p(O_2) \sim 1$ Torr, beyond which the oxide film thickness remains essentially constant, irrespective of the prolonged oxygen exposure and further increase in oxygen pressure.

The above observations reveal that the limiting thickness of the oxide film increases with increasing oxygen pressure, despite the surface already being covered with an oxide layer with a limiting thickness at a lower oxygen pressure. To investigate if the preexisting oxide film formed at the lower oxygen pressure has any effect on the subsequent oxide film growth at a higher oxygen pressure, we also examined the limiting thickness of the



FIG. 2 (color online). Comparison of the oxidation kinetics of a freshly cleaned Al(111) surface to that of an Al(111) surface oxidized by stepwise increases in oxygen pressure. Both give a similar limiting thickness of the oxide films at the same oxygen gas pressure, irrespective of whether the surface is covered with a preexisting oxide layer formed at a lower oxygen pressure or not.

oxide films formed by oxidizing clean Al surfaces at different oxygen pressures. As shown in Fig. 2, although the clean Al surfaces show a faster initial oxidation rate as compared to oxidation of the Al surfaces with a preexisting oxide, they have nearly the same limiting oxide film thickness at a specific pressure. Their similar limiting thickness suggests that the self-limiting growth of the oxide film is determined by the oxygen pressure for a constant oxidation temperature.

The observed initially fast oxidation rate followed by a drastic reduction of the oxide film growth for each oxygen pressure is consistent with the Cabrera-Mott model of low-temperature metal oxidation, which is characterized by the logarithmic growth law [1]

$$\frac{1}{X(t)} = A - B \ln t,\tag{1}$$

where X(t) is the thickness of the oxide film at the oxidation time t. For the mechanism that the oxide growth is limited by the ion migration under the electric field $E = -V_M/X(t)$ due to the kinetic potential V_M , the coefficients A and B can be determined as [1,19]

TABLE I. Limiting thickness of the oxide films, values of kinetic potential V_M , rate-limiting energy barrier U for cation motion, and oxygen coverage calculated from the oxygen uptake curves under different oxygen gas pressures.

Pressure (Torr)	1×10^{-8}	1×10^{-7}	1×10^{-6}	1×10^{-5}	1×10^{-2}	1	5
Limiting oxide thickness (Å)	2.42	3.81	5.14	5.99	11.30	12.42	12.43
Kinetic potential $V_M(V)$	0.066	0.137	0.341	0.664	1.026	1.620	1.620
Rate-limiting energy barrier U (eV)	1.534	1.550	1.534	1.540	1.536	1.546	1.546
Oxygen coverage (Θ)	0.031	0.058	0.126	0.306	0.516	0.963	0.963

$$A = -\frac{kT}{qaV_M} \left[\ln \left(\frac{N\Omega qa\nu V_M}{kTX_L^2} \right) - \frac{U}{kT} \right] \text{ and}$$
$$B = -\frac{kT}{qaV_M}, \tag{2}$$

where N is the number density of oxygen ions on the surface, Ω is the volume of oxide formed per ion, q is the charge of the migrating ions, 2a is the distance between two adjacent potential minima, ν is the attempt frequency of the ion jump, k is the Boltzmann constant, T the temperature, X_L is the limiting thickness of the oxide film, and U denotes the diffusion barrier for the migration of ions.

By fitting the experimental data as shown in Fig. 1 to an inverse logarithm law for each oxygen gas pressure, the values of the kinetic potential V_M and the rate-limiting energy barrier U for each oxygen gas pressure can be evaluated, provided that values for Ω , ν , q, and a are known. The volume of oxide formed per Al cation, the attempt frequency of the Al-cation jump, and the charge of the migrating Al cations can be taken equal to $\Omega =$ 0.233 nm³ [20], $\nu = 10^{12} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [1,20,21], and q = 3e (the elementary charge $e = 1.6022 \times 10^{-19}$ C) [20], respectively. For the oxidation of Al, the oxide films formed at low temperatures ($T < 200 \,^{\circ}$ C) are amorphous and can be described by a close packing of oxygen anions with the Al cations distributed over the octahedral and tetrahedral interstices and exhibit a deficiency of Al cations [20,22]. The stoichiometry of the oxide films formed with the different oxygen pressures is approximately $Al_{(2-x)}O_3$, where $x \sim 0.24$, as determined from the Al/O peak intensity ratio. The rate-limiting energy barrier U for cation motion is associated with the hopping of Al cations between octahedral and/or tetrahedral interstices within the amorphous oxide film, and the distance 2a between the nearest potential minima can be taken as 2a = 2.4 Å for $\gamma - Al_2O_3$ [20,22]. The obtained values of V_M and U for Al-cation migration for the different oxygen gas pressures are given in Table I.

For increasing oxygen pressures to 1 Torr, we see in Table I that the Mott potential V_M increases from 0.066 to 1.6 V. For $p(O_2) = 1$ Torr and above, V_M saturates at a value of 1.6 V. We note that U is nearly constant at U = 1.54 eV for different oxygen pressures, suggesting that the nature of the defect structure in the amorphous oxide films remains essentially unchanged under the different oxygen pressures. This is supported by their similar integrated Al/O peak intensity ratios of the oxide film formed with the different oxygen pressures. A recent study of oxide thin film growth for the oxidation of Al(111) has shown a lower value (~1 eV) of the rate-limiting barrier for cation diffusion [23]. This deviation may be related to the different techniques and procedures in the evaluation of the oxide film thickness.

Previous results showed that, when oxygen adsorbs onto an aluminum oxide thin film of fixed thickness on Al(111) at 80 K, this electrostatic potential produces a shift of the Al-cation 2p core level towards smaller binding energy relative to the metallic emission [24]. The metallic Al 2pcore level remains at constant binding energy because the Al substrate is at ground potential. We do not observe such a shift but instead have a nearly constant binding energy difference between the Al^{3+} and $Al^0 2p$ peaks. This is likely due to competing effects arising from the different limiting oxide thickness at each new pressure. Previous studies of oxide thin films grown on metal substrates have demonstrated that the binding energies of both the cation and anion species shift towards higher binding energy and approach their bulk values as the oxide film increases in thickness [25,26]. This has been attributed to a variety of metal-oxide interfacial effects including more effective screening of the core hole by the metallic substrate as well as band bending, which decreases the core-level binding energies when the oxide film is thin [27]. The influence of these effects on observed core-level binding energies decreases as the oxide film thickens. The resulting increase in binding energy arising from a diminishing influence of these interfacial effects would work against the decrease in binding energy arising from the increase in the kinetic potential. This may cause the binding energy separation between the Al^{3+} and $Al^0 2p$ peaks to be nearly constant in our study.

It is generally believed that the magnitude of the Mott potential is determined by the potential difference of the metal-oxide work function Φ_m and the oxygen-oxide work function Φ_o , i.e., $V_M = (\Phi_m - \Phi_o)/e$, where *e* is the elementary charge of electron. Since the work function is an intrinsic property, a tacit assumption made in the Cabrera-Mott oxidation model is that the Mott potential V_M is constant during the oxide growth, without considering the oxidation conditions [1]. This assumption is in contrast with the experimental results presented here, which reveal that this is true only if the oxygen gas pressure is sufficiently large. The actual electrostatic potential created by the electronic species can be much smaller than the work function potential difference V_M at oxygen pressure.

To understand this pressure dependence of the kinetic potential and determine at what conditions the maximum V_M can be developed, we calculated the equilibrium number density N of chemisorbed oxygen anions on the oxide surface under various oxygen pressures. N is related to the kinetic potential via $N = \frac{V_M \varepsilon_0 \kappa}{X_L e}$, as given by Gauss' theorem for a field between parallel plates [28], where ε_0 is electric constant in vacuum, κ is the relative permittivity and can be taken equal to $\kappa = 9.6$ [29], and X_L is the limiting thickness. The values for N and therefore the surface coverage Θ [by using the density of Al in the Al(111) surface as the reference surface] of adsorbed oxygen pressure and becomes saturated at the oxygen pressure of 1 Torr and above.

According to the Langmuir isotherm for dissociative gas adsorption, the dependence of the equilibrium Θ on the



FIG. 3 (color online). Equilibrium surface coverage of oxygen ions with respect to the oxygen gas pressure. The solid line corresponds to a theoretical fitting to the Langmuir isotherm for dissociative oxygen adsorption. The dashed line indicates the approximate oxygen pressure beyond which the maximum oxygen surface coverage is reached.

oxygen pressure $p(O_2)$ is given by $\Theta = \sqrt{b p(O_2)} / [1 +$ $\sqrt{bp(O_2)}$], where b is a constant which depends on temperature only [30]. We use the Langmuir isotherm to fit the determined Θ and get an estimate of at which pressure the oxygen anion concentration saturates leading to the largest kinetic potential. As shown in Fig. 3, the maximum Θ is reached for oxygen pressure beyond ~ 1 Torr, which is close to our observed experimental pressure required for the maximum kinetic potential. Since the amount of adsorbed oxygen that can be ionized by tunneling electrons is less at a lower oxygen gas pressure, a corresponding lower magnitude of the electric potential is developed across the oxide layer. As shown in Fig. 3, a very large oxygen pressure is needed in order to develop a full oxygen surface coverage that provides a sufficient amount of adsorbed oxygen at the oxide surface to accept the tunneling electrons.

In summary, we have studied the limiting thickness of the Al₂O₃ film formed during oxidation of an Al(111) surface with more than 9 orders of magnitude in oxygenpressure difference. We observe that the limiting thickness of the oxide film increases with increasing the oxygen pressure to 1 Torr, beyond which the limiting thickness becomes saturated at ~12.4 Å. Such strong oxygenpressure dependence of the generated electric field on the oxide growth has been hitherto rarely addressed but may be crucial for understanding the difference in the response of a metal surface exposed to the conventional high vacuum environment typically employed in surface science related studies and the technologically relevant atmospheric oxidation.

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