Cerium dioxide buffer layers at low temperature by atomic layer deposition

OURNAL OF WATERIALS CHEMISTRY

Jani Päiväsaari, Matti Putkonen and Lauri Niinistö*

Laboratory of Inorganic and Analytical Chemistry, Helsinki University of Technology, P.O. Box 6100, FIN-02015 Espoo, Finland. E-mail: lauri.niinisto@hut.fi

Received 14th September 2001, Accepted 21st March 2002 First published as an Advance Article on the web 29th April 2002

Thin films of cerium dioxide were deposited by atomic layer deposition (ALD). Temperature ranges studied in detail were 175–375 °C and 225–350 °C for the Ce(thd)₄ and Ce(thd)₃phen (thd = 2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-3,5-heptanedionate, phen = 1,10-phenanthroline) precursors, respectively. Ozone was used in both cases as oxygen source. Thickness, crystallinity and morphology of the CeO₂ films were determined by UV-VIS spectroscopic, XRD and AFM measurements, respectively. Narrow ALD windows, *i.e.* temperature ranges with constant growth rate, were observed at temperatures 175–250 °C for Ce(thd)₄ and 225–275 °C for Ce(thd)₃phen. The growth rates of CeO₂ inside the ALD windows were 0.32 Å (cycle)⁻¹ and 0.42 Å (cycle)⁻¹ for Ce(thd)₄ and Ce(thd)₃phen, respectively. CeO₂ films grown on soda lime glass and Si(100) were polycrystalline and slightly oriented with the (200) and (111) peaks as the strongest reflections. TOF-ERD analysis of the Ce:O ratio showed that the films were nearly stoichiometric but that they contained hydrogen (7–10 atom%), as well as some carbon and fluorine, as impurities.

1. Introduction

Cerium dioxide has a number of attractive properties for applications in electronics and optics such as durability and high refractive index as well as high transparency in the visible and near-infrared region. Applications currently under development include thin film optical waveguides and solid oxide fuel cells (SOFC) where about 10% of the cerium is substituted by gadolinium. Other applications of CeO₂ stem from its advantageous properties, too. The large relative permittivity ($\varepsilon_r = 26$) makes CeO₂ a possible choice for high- ε_r (high-k) dielectric gate material in ULSI technology. CeO₂ has also been used in resistive type oxygen gas sensors for combustion gases as well as in H₂S sensors.

However, probably the highest application potential of cerium dioxide thin films lies in their use as buffer layers for high-temperature superconductors⁷ and ferroelectric Pb(Zr,Ti)O₃ (PZT)⁸ films deposited on silicon or sapphire. Buffer layers are needed in order to avoid chemical reactions at the film/ substrate interface.^{7,9} CeO₂ has a fluorite structure with lattice parameter a = 5.41 Å which provides an excellent match with Si (a = 5.43 Å) and a rather good one with R-sapphire (a =5.12 Å). 9,10 YBa₂Cu₃O_{7-x} (YBCO) has an orthorombic structure with smaller lattice parameters (a = 3.82 Å; b =3.89 Å) but by rotating 45° in the CeO₂ basal plane the lattice mismatch between YBCO and CeO₂ will be less than 1%.⁷ As regards PZT, this can be epitaxially grown on CeO₂(111)/ Si(111) substrates where the CeO₂ layer is effective in suppressing interdiffusion between the PZT film and Si.8 In addition to the buffer layers, CeO₂ can be used as a compatible intermediate material in the fabrication of superconductorinsulator-superconductor (SIS) multilayer structures. 11 Further more, cerium is one of the constituents of the Nd-Ce-Cu-O superconductor.12

Cerium dioxide thin films have been deposited by many different techniques. Physical methods include electron beam evaporation (EBE), 13 sputtering, 14 laser ablation 15-17 and molecular beam epitaxy (MBE). 18 Several chemical methods have been applied as well, among them sol–gel techniques, 19 catalyst-enhanced chemical vapour deposition (CECVD), 20 metalorganic CVD (MOCVD), 21-24 aerosol-assisted CVD, 25

plasma-enhanced CVD (PECVD)²⁶ and atomic layer deposition (ALD).²⁷ In CVD methods the precursors most often used have been β-diketonates and their derivatives. Especially tetrakis(2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-3,5-heptanedionato)cerium, *i.e.* Ce(thd)₄, has frequently been employed.^{9,21,22,27,28} Ce(thd)₄ is one of the best-characterized cerium precursors available and its crystal structure and mass spectra are known.²⁹ The deposition temperatures in the CVD methods have been in the range 300–900 °C, ^{21,22} and as low as 250 °C in the PECVD method.²⁰

ALD, also referred to as Atomic Layer Epitaxy (ALE) and Atomic Layer CVD (ALCVD), can be considered as an advanced modification of the CVD method. 30,31 In ALD the thin film growth is self limiting, and the precursor pulses are alternately introduced onto the substrates to avoid gas phase reactions. The substrate area is purged with inert gas between the precursor pulses. ALD can also be used to deposit conformal and uniform thin films in a reproducible way.³² Thickness control by the number of deposition cycles is accurate and easy when the deposition is carried out within the 'ALD window', i.e. the temperature range where a constant growth rate is achieved by a self limiting growth mechanism.30,31 Previously, ALD has been used to deposit CeO2 at relatively high temperatures (350-600 °C) from Ce(thd)₄ and ozone precursors and the results were reported in a brief conference paper only.²⁷ In addition, both Ce(thd)₄ and Ce(thd)₃phen have been used as cerium precursors in an ALD process for doping of electroluminescent SrS:Ce thin films.²⁸

2. Experimental

As part of our ongoing investigation into superconducting thin films by ALD, ¹⁰ we have also studied the deposition of binary and complex oxides, such as MgO, ^{33,34} yttria-stabilized ZrO₂ (YSZ), ³⁵ LaAlO₃, ³⁶ LaGaO₃, and SrTiO₃, for use as possible substrate and buffer materials. Here we report the deposition of cerium dioxide at relatively low temperatures, *i.e.* even below 250 °C, using (1,10-phenanthroline)tris(2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-3,5-heptanedionato)cerium (Ce(thd)₃phen) and Ce(thd)₄ as precursors.

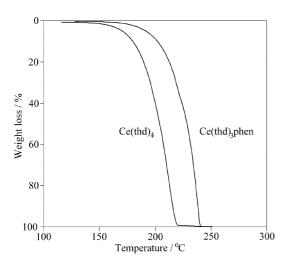


Fig. 1 TG/DTA curves of Ce(thd)₄ and Ce(thd)₃phen. Measurements were carried out in a dynamic nitrogen flow under a reduced pressure (2 mbar).

Ce(thd)₄ and Ce(thd)₃phen were synthesized according to published methods^{28,29,39} and purified by sublimation. Simultaneous TG/DTA measurements were used to verify the purity of the precursors and to establish appropriate evaporation temperatures. The measurements were done under vacuum in a Seiko Instruments SSC/5200 thermobalance. Furthermore, in order to simulate the ALD growth conditions, the TG/DTA measurements were performed in a dynamic nitrogen atmosphere under a reduced pressure (2 mbar).

Cerium dioxide thin films were deposited in an F-120 ALD reactor (ASM Microchemistry Ltd., Espoo, Finland). Based on the TG/DTA data (Fig. 1), evaporation temperatures for the precursors Ce(thd)₄ and Ce(thd)₃phen were chosen as 140 °C and 175–180 °C, respectively. Cerium precursors and ozone were transported onto the substrates with nitrogen carrier gas (>99.999%). N₂ was also used to purge the substrate area between the precursor pulses. N₂ was prepared in a nitrogen generator (Nitrox UHPN 3000-1). Ozone (10%) was employed for oxidation and was produced from oxygen (>99.999%) in an ozone generator (Fischer Model 502). Pulse times for Ce(thd)₄, Ce(thd)₃phen and ozone were varied between 1.0–1.5 s, 0.5–3.75 s and 0.5–5.0 s, respectively. The purge time for nitrogen was 1.5–2.5 s.

Soda lime glass and silicon(100) (Okmetic, Espoo, Finland) were used as substrates ($5 \times 10 \text{ cm}^2$). Silicon substrates were ultrasonically cleaned without removing the native oxide. The deposition temperature ranges studied were 175–375 °C and 225–350 °C for Ce(thd)₄ and Ce(thd)₃phen, respectively. The pressure in the reactor was about 2 mbar.

Thickness, structure and morphology of the CeO₂ films obtained were determined *ex situ*. Thickness was determined by a spectrophotometric method.⁴⁰ Transmittance spectra were recorded in the wavelength region 370–1100 nm for soda lime glass substrates and reflectance spectra in the region 190–1100 nm for the Si(100) substrates. The spectra were fitted to obtain geometric thickness. Measurements were performed in a Hitachi U-2000 spectrophotometer. A Philips MPD 1880 powder diffractometer with Cu Kα radiation was used for the X-ray diffraction studies to determine crystal structure and crystallite orientation. Atomic force microscopy (AFM) measurements were routinely carried out to determine the surface morphologies of the films. All AFM images were recorded with a Nanoscope III Multimode SPM instrument operating in tapping mode with a scanning rate 1–2 Hz.

Stoichiometry and impurities of the CeO₂ thin films were measured by time-of-flight elastic recoil detection analysis (TOF-ERDA) at the Accelerator Laboratory of the University of Helsinki. In these measurements, an EGP-10-II 5 MV

tandem accelerator was used to obtain a 53 MeV $^{127}I^{10+}$ ion beam, which was projected into the sample generating forward recoiling sample atoms. Both the velocity and the energy of the recoiling atoms were measured using timing gates and a charged particle detector, respectively, which made it possible to separate different masses. The sample surface was tilted 20° and the recoils were determined at 40° with respect to the incoming beam. The given concentration results were obtained directly from total recoil yields using Rutherford scattering cross sections. Due to the small film thicknesses some hydrogen and carbon loss was observed during the TOF-ERD measurements caused by heavy ion irradiation. Together with indistinguishable surface and interface impurities this resulted in quite high uncertainties in the hydrogen and carbon concentrations. FTIR was used for qualitative analysis of impurities in the thin films deposited onto the Si(100) substrates. Silicon substrate peaks were subtracted from the raw transmittance spectra obtained. FTIR spectra were recorded with a Nicolet Magna-IR 750 spectrometer.

3. Results and discussion

As a first step, the influence of Ce(thd)₃phen and ozone pulse times was examined at 275 °C with focus on the silicon substrate. The duration of the Ce(thd)₃phen pulse was varied between 0-3.75 s while the ozone pulse time was held constant at 2.5 s. Judging from Fig. 2 it was obvious that in the case of silicon substrates much shorter pulse times were sufficient to achieve constant growth rate. In order to keep the precursor consumption at a relatively low level the pulse time was chosen as low as 1.0 s. However, with soda lime glass substrates this was obviously somewhat too short a pulsing time because the saturative (constant growth) region was not reached. Consequently the growth rates obtained on soda lime glass were not completely reproducible and therefore the main emphasis was focused on the Si(100) substrates. It can be noted that the small increase in growth rates obtained with longer pulse times and with both substrates (Fig. 2) is due to partial thermal decomposition of the precursor, which leads to the formation of more reactive and less bulky species such as Ce(thd)3 and $Ce(thd)_2$ as verified by mass spectrometric studies on Ce(thd)₄.

The duration of the ozone pulse was varied between 0.5–5.0 s while the Ce-precursor pulse time was kept constant at 1.0 s and the substrate temperature at 275 °C. It was observed that at least a 2.0 s pulse time is needed under these experimental conditions to achieve saturated surface reaction. For ozone, a pulse time of 2.5 s was considered sufficient and it was kept as such in all growth experiments.

Secondly, the growth rates were determined as a function of the substrate temperature. Precursor pulse times and purging

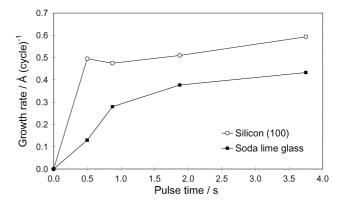


Fig. 2 The influence of $Ce(thd)_3$ phen pulse times on the growth rate of CeO_2 at 275 °C. Ozone pulse duration was 2.5 s. Thickness was measured at 4 cm from the leading edge of the substrates.

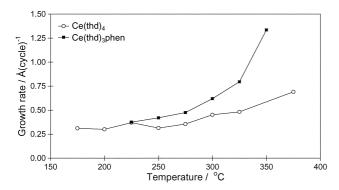


Fig. 3 The growth rate of CeO_2 from $Ce(thd)_4$ and $Ce(thd)_3$ phen on silicon(100) substrate as a function of the substrate temperature.

times were long enough to obtain surface saturation. The temperature ranges studied were 175–375 °C and 225–350 °C for Ce(thd)4 and Ce(thd)3phen, respectively. Narrow ALD windows were found at 175-250 °C for Ce(thd)₄ and 225-275 °C for Ce(thd)₃phen. It may be noted that the differences in the growth rates were quite small in these temperature regions. Above the ALD window, the growth rate increased in both cases (Fig. 3), which was most likely due to the thermal decomposition of the Ce-precursor. However, at 250 °C the decomposition rate of the precursor was almost negligible, which was verified by pulsing solely Ce(thd)₃phen. As seen in Fig. 3, the increase in growth rate above the ALD window (>275 °C) was more pronounced with Ce(thd)₃phen than with Ce(thd)₄. This indicates that Ce(thd)₄ is thermally more stable than Ce(thd)₃phen under similar experimental conditions. Results from our earlier TG/DTA studies are in agreement with this observation.^{27–29}

After the required pulse lengths and the temperature limits had been determined, additional depositions were carried out within the ALD window. The growth rates were determined by depositing CeO₂ thin films of different thicknesses, *e.g.* by altering the number of cycles (Fig. 4). A linear relationship was observed between the number of deposition cycles and the film thickness, as should be the case in an ideal ALD process. The growth rate of CeO₂ with Ce(thd)₃phen was 0.42 Å/cycle (at 250 °C), while with Ce(thd)₄ it was about 25% lower (0.32 Å/cycle).

The films on silicon substrates were very uniform (Fig. 5), but on soda lime glass a clear thickness profile was observed as films were getting thinner towards the tailing edge. This was an expected phenomenon, because the pulsing times used, as discussed earlier in the text, were somewhat too short in this case (*cf.* Fig. 2).

The crystallinity and orientation of the crystallites were examined by X-ray diffraction. XRD measurements showed that, regardless of the precursor, the deposited CeO₂ films on

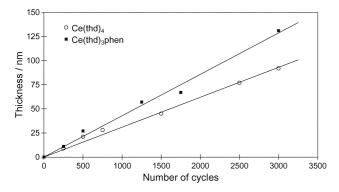


Fig. 4 CeO₂ film thickness on Si(100) as a function of the number of deposition cycles. Depositions with Ce(thd)₃phen were carried out at 250 °C and those with Ce(thd)₄ at 200 °C.

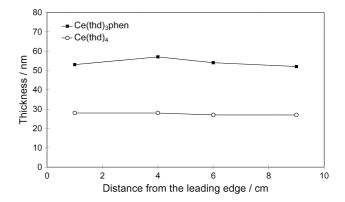


Fig. 5 Thickness uniformity of the CeO_2 films on silicon deposited onto Si(100) at 250 °C and 200 °C using $Ce(thd)_3$ phen and $Ce(thd)_4$, respectively.

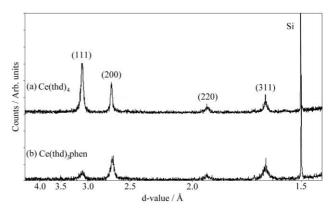


Fig. 6 XRD patterns of CeO₂ thin films deposited onto Si(100) (a) at 200 °C from Ce(thd)₄/O₃ and (b) at 250 °C from Ce(thd)₃phen/O₃. Film thicknesses were (a) 90 nm and (b) 150 nm.

Si(100) were polycrystalline in the temperature range studied (Fig. 6). The crystallinity increased as the temperature was raised, as judged from the XRD peak intensities and their FWHM values. In the case of depositions with Ce(thd)₃phen at temperatures 250-325 °C, the (200) reflection was slightly more intense than the others, viz. (111), (220) and (311). At lower temperatures, on the other hand, the (111) reflection was the strongest but the difference was small. With Ce(thd)₄ precursor at 200 °C, the (111) peak was also the strongest one by only a narrow margin before the (200) reflection. When the substrate temperature was increased, the (200) reflection became more dominant but films were still polycrystalline. Previously, it has been observed that CeO₂ films grown by ALD at higher temperatures (>375 °C) are polycrystalline with (111) or (110) reflections dominating depending on the deposition temperature.²⁷ For CeO₂ films grown by laser ablation the (111) reflection has been reported to be the strongest one.¹⁷

Atomic force microscopy (AFM) was used to study the morphology of the CeO₂ films deposited on Si(100). The films were smooth and uniform regardless of the precursor used (Fig. 7). Rms values for 50–75 nm thick CeO₂ films deposited within the ALD window varied between 0.6 and 1.2 nm. The roughness of the CeO₂ films was found to increase slightly when the deposition temperature was raised above the ALD window.

TOF-ERD analyses were carried out to determine the stoichiometry and the impurity levels of the CeO₂ thin films (Table 1). The analysed CeO₂ thin films were deposited onto the Si(100) substrates at temperatures within the ALD window. The Ce:O ratios of the films studied were around 0.46, which means that the films must have oxygen also as an impurity, because otherwise the Ce:O ratio cannot lie under the stoichiometric value of 0.50. Other major impurities were

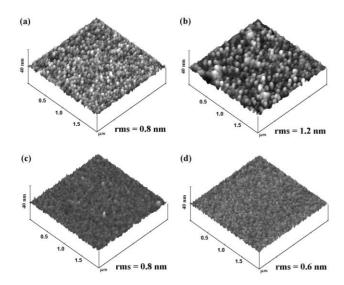


Fig. 7 AFM images of the CeO₂ films deposited onto Si(100) substrates from Ce(thd)₃phen or Ce(thd)₄ and ozone at different temperatures: (a) Ce(thd)₃phen/O₃, 225 °C, (b) Ce(thd)₃phen/O₃, 275 °C, (c) Ce(thd)₄/O₃, 200 °C and (d) Ce(thd)₄/O₃, 225 °C. Film thicknesses were 75 nm for (a) and (c) and 50 nm for (b) and (d).

hydrogen, carbon and fluorine. In addition, CeO₂ thin films deposited from Ce(thd)₃phen/O₃ contained also 0.4 atom% sodium, which was most probably originating from NaOH used in the synthesis.³⁹ Also the carbon level was highest in the CeO₂ sample deposited from Ce(thd)₃phen/O₃. Samples contained 4 atom% and 0.8–1.1 atom% carbon, when deposited from Ce(thd)₃phen/O₃ and Ce(thd)₄/O₃, respectively. Hydrogen levels in all samples were quite high, *viz.* between 7 and 10 atom%, and they probably were distributed evenly throughout the films. Previously, in the case of Y₂O₃ deposited from Y(thd)₃ and ozone by ALD, it has been observed that at low deposition temperatures the carbon and hydrogen impurity levels of the thin films remain high.⁴² Fluorine levels detected were between 0.6 and 2.0 atom% and these were most probably originating from the vacuum grease or Teflon gaskets used.⁴²

FTIR measurements of CeO_2 films were carried out to determine the type of hydrogen and carbon impurities. Previously, hydroxide and carbonate impurities have been found in the ALD-grown Sc_2O_3 , Y_2O_3 and La_2O_3 thin films. An IR band around 1500 cm⁻¹ typical for a carbonate group was observed in the FTIR spectra of the samples. This is presumably due to the carbon-containing precursor. In addition, a broad band between 3000 and 3500 cm⁻¹ was observed, most likely originating from the stretching vibrations of water molecules. $^{45-47}$

4. Conclusions

CeO₂ thin films can be deposited at relatively low temperatures or even below 250 °C by using the cerium β -diketonate precursors, *viz.* either Ce(thd)₄ or Ce(thd)₃phen, together with ozone as an oxidant. The growth rates of CeO₂ were 0.32 Å (cycle)⁻¹ and 0.42 Å (cycle)⁻¹ from Ce(thd)₄/O₃ and Ce(thd)₃/O₃, respectively. The growth rates obtained, especially with the Ce(thd)₃phen precursor, were similar to those obtained in the previous ALD experiments at higher temperatures but with a

different reactor design.²⁷ We also observed narrow ALD windows, which provide an easy and accurate way to control the thickness of CeO2 films. The ALD windows were located at 175-275 °C and 225-275 °C for Ce(thd)₄ and Ce(thd)₃phen, respectively. The use of Ce(thd)₄ appears to be more practical than applying Ce(thd)₃phen. This is partly because of the sensitivity of the growth rate to the precursor synthesis, i.e. low reproducibility in synthesis. In order to obtain reproducible results, larger precursor batches should be synthesized to guarantee uniformity of the precursor. Unfortunately, Ce(thd)₃phen has been observed to decompose in air within a few weeks,²¹ so prolonged storage cannot be applied. Also the ALD window obtained with Ce(thd)₄ is wider than that with Ce(thd)₃phen. Furthermore, CeO₂ thin films deposited from Ce(thd)₄/O₃ contained lower impurity levels of hydrogen, carbon and sodium. It remains to be seen if the in situ synthesis of ALD precursors could solve the problem and provide a fresh and reproducible supply of the precursor.⁴⁸ This might be, however, difficult in the case of an adducted precursor such as Ce(thd)₃phen. On the other hand, the presence of trivalent cerium in the precursor, as in Ce(thd)₃phen, does not prevent the conversion of the precursor to CeO₂ provided that a powerful enough oxidant is used. Because of the difficulty in oxidizing trivalent cerium to the tetravalent state, which is seen in the rather high standard potential (Ce^{3+}/Ce^{4+} E° = 1.72 V),⁴⁹ ozone was used as oxidizer in the present study. A comparison of the precursors for the ALD growth of CeO2 is presented in Table 2. Apart from a slightly higher growth rate, the adducted precursor, Ce(thd)₃phen, does not appear to bring any advantages compared to the use of Ce(thd)₄.

Films were polycrystalline with no orientation dominating (Fig. 6). For superconducting thin film structures the (100) orientation of CeO₂ should be favourable. ¹⁰ However, it appears not to be possible to obtain the (100) orientation of CeO₂ films by a direct deposition on Si(100). ¹⁶ For this reason different buffer layers between the Si(100) substrate and the CeO₂ layer have been studied, *e.g.* yttria-stabilized ZrO₂ (YSZ), ^{9,16,22,50–54} SrTiO₃ (STO)^{9,22} and MgO. ^{9,22} The most promising material appears to be YSZ, which has been reported to favour the (100) orientation of CeO₂ on YSZ(100)/Si(100). ^{9,16,22,50–54} Following the successful deposition of ZrO₂ thin films by ALD, ^{55,56} work on YSZ has been initiated and will be shortly reported. ³⁵

Acknowledgement

We wish to thank Mr Jaakko Niinistö, M.Sc., for the AFM measurements and Professor P. Hautojärvi, Laboratory of Physics, HUT, for providing the facilities for them. The

Table 2 A comparison of $Ce(thd)_4$ and $Ce(thd)_3$ phen as precursors for the atomic layer deposition of CeO_2 thin films

Property	Ce(thd) ₄	Ce(thd) ₃ phen
Facile synthesis	yes	yes
Commercially available	yes	no
Stability under prolonged storage	good	poor
<i>In situ</i> synthesis possible	yes	no
Growth temperature (ALD window) using ozone/°C	175–275	225–275
Growth rate at 250 °C/Å (cycle) ⁻¹	0.32	0.42

Table 1 Stoichiometry and impurity levels of the CeO2 thin films on Si(100) substrates quantitatively evaluated by TOF-ERDA

Process	Deposition temp./°C	Ce:O ratio	C/atom%	H/atom%	F/atom%	Na/atom%
Ce(thd) ₃ phen/O ₃ Ce(thd) ₄ /O ₃ Ce(thd) ₄ /O ₃	225 200 225	$\begin{array}{c} 0.46 \pm 0.03 \\ 0.45 \pm 0.03 \\ 0.47 \pm 0.03 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 4.0 \pm 1.0 \\ 1.1 \pm 0.3 \\ 0.8 \pm 0.2 \end{array}$	9.0 ± 2.0 10 ± 4.0 7.0 ± 2.0	$\begin{array}{c} 0.6 \pm 0.2 \\ 1.3 \pm 0.3 \\ 2.0 \pm 0.2 \end{array}$	0.4 ± 0.2 —

authors also wish to thank Timo Sajavaara, M.Sc., for the TOF-ERD analysis. The work is partly supported by the Technology Agency of Finland (TEKES) through the grant 40606/98.

References

- P. F. Wahid, K. B. Sundaram and P. J. Sisk, *Opt. Laser Technol.*, 1992. 24, 263.
- 2 N. T. McDevitt and W. L. Baun, Spectrochim. Acta, 1964, 20, 799.
- 3 B. C. H. Steele, Ceram. Int., 1993, 19, 269.
- 4 R. K. Sharma, A. Kumar and J. M. Anthony, *JOM*, 2001, **53**, 53.
- 5 G. Fang, Z. Liu, C. Liu and K.-L. Yao, *Sens. Actuators, B*, 2000, **B66**, 46.
- 6 J. Gerblinger, W. Lohwasser, U. Lampe and H. Meixner, Sens. Actuators, B, 1995, B26, 93.
- 7 J. Qiao and C. Y. Yang, Mater. Sci. Eng., 1995, R14, 157.
- 8 B. K. Moon, H. Ishiwara, E. Tokumitsu and M. Yoshimoto, *Thin Solid Films*, 2001, **385**, 307.
- 9 M. Becht and T. Morishita, J. Alloys Compd., 1997, 251, 310.
- M. Leskelä, H. Mölsä and L. Niinistö, Supercond. Sci. Technol., 1993, 6, 627.
- 11 M. A. A. M. van Wijck, M. A. J. Verhoeven, E. M. C. M. Reuvekamp, G. J. Gerritsma, D. H. A. Blank and H. Rogalla, Appl. Phys. Lett., 1996, 68, 553.
- S. Hayashi, H. Adachi, K. Setsune, T. Hirao and K. Wasa, *Jpn. J. Appl. Phys.*, 1989, 28, L962.
- 13 M. S. Al-Robaee, K. N. Rao and S. Mohan, J. Appl. Phys., 1992, 71, 2380.
- 14 A. G. Zaitsev, G. Ockenfuss, D. Guggi, R. Wördenweber and U. Krüger, J. Appl. Phys., 1997, 81, 3069.
- 15 X. Castel, M. Guilloux-Viry, A. Perrin, J. Lesueur and F. Lalu, J. Cryst. Growth, 1998, 187, 211.
- 16 V. Trtík, R. Aguiar, F. Sánchez, C. Ferrater and M. Varela, J. Cryst. Growth, 1998, 192, 175.
- F. Sánchez, M. Varela, X. Queralt, M. V. Garciá-Cuenca, J. Palau,
 R. Aguiar and J. L. Morenza, Adv. Mater. Opt. Electron., 1993, 2,
- 18 S. Ikegawa and Y. Motoi, Thin Solid Films, 1996, 281-282, 60.
- A. Turković, P. Dubček and S. Bernstorff, *Mater. Sci. Eng.*, 1999, B58, 263.
- K. Pollard, H. A. Jenkins and R. J. Puddephatt, *Chem. Mater.*, 2000, 12, 701.
- M. Becht, T. Gerfin and K.-H. Dahmen, *Chem. Mater.*, 1993, 5, 137.
- 22 M. Becht and T. Morishita, Chem. Vap. Deposition, 1996, 2, 191.
- 23 J. McAleese, J. A. Darr and B. C. H. Steele, *Chem. Vap. Deposition*, 1996, 2, 244.
- 24 J. McAleese, J. C. Plakatouras and B. C. H. Steele, *Thin Solid Films*, 1996, **280**, 152.
- K. Fröhlich, J. Souc, D. Machajdík, M. Jergel, J. Snauwaert and L. Hellemans, *Chem. Vap. Deposition*, 1998, 4, 216.
- N. Takahashi, A. Koukitu and H. Seki, J. Mater. Sci., 2000, 35, 1231.

- H. Mölsä and L. Niinistö, *Mater. Res. Soc. Symp. Proc.*, 1994, 355, 341.
- 28 T. Leskelä, K. Vasama, G. Härkönen, P. Sarkio and M. Lounasmaa, Adv. Mater. Opt. Electron., 1996, 6, 169.
- M. Leskelä, R. Sillanpää, L. Niinistö and M. Tiitta, Acta Chem. Scand., 1991, 45, 1006.
- T. Suntola, in *Handbook of Thin Film Process Technology*, ed.
 D. A. Glocker, IOP Publishing Ltd, London, 1995, p. B1.5:1.
- 31 L. Niinistö, Proc. Int. Semicond. Conf., 2000, 33.
- 32 M. Ritala, M. Leskelä, J.-P. Dekker, C. Mutsaers, P. J. Soininen and J. Skarp, *Chem. Vap. Deposition*, 1999, 5, 7.
- M. Putkonen, L.-S. Johansson, E. Rauhala and L. Niinistö, J. Mater. Chem., 1999, 9, 2449.
- 34 M. Putkonen, T. Sajavaara and L. Niinistö, *J. Mater. Chem.*, 2000, **10**, 1857.
- M. Putkonen, T. Sajavaara, J. Niinistö, L.-S. Johansson and L. Niinistö, J. Mater. Chem., 2002, 12, 442.
- 36 M. Nieminen, T. Sajavaara, E. Rauhala, M. Putkonen and L. Niinistö, J. Mater. Chem., 2001, 11, 2340.
- 37 M. Nieminen, S. Lehto and L. Niinistö, J. Mater. Chem., 2001, 11, 3148
- 38 A. Kosola, M. Putkonen and L. Niinistö, to be published.
- 39 K. J. Eisentraut and R. E. Sievers, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 1965, 87, 5254.
- 40 M. Ylilammi and T. Ranta-aho, Thin Solid Films, 1993, 232, 56.
- J. Jokinen, J. Keinonen, P. Tikkanen, A. Kuronen, T. Ahlgren and K. Nordlund, Nucl. Instrum. Methods Phys. Res., Sect. B, 1996, 119, 533.
- M. Putkonen, T. Sajavaara, L.-S. Johansson and L. Niinistö, *Chem. Vap. Deposition*, 2001, 7, 44.
- M. Nieminen, M. Putkonen and L. Niinistö, *Appl. Surf. Sci.*, 2001, 174, 155.
- 44 M. Putkonen, M. Nieminen, J. Niinistö, L. Niinistö and T. Sajavaara, *Chem. Mater.*, 2001, **13**, 4701.
- 45 B. Klingenberg and M. A. Vannice, Chem. Mater., 1996, 8, 2755.
- 46 S. Romero, A. Mosset and J. C. Trombe, J. Solid State Chem., 1996, 127, 256.
- 47 I. V. Arkhangel'skii, L. N. Komissarova, G. Ya. Pushkina and E. G. Teterin, Russ. J. Inorg. Chem., 1967, 12, 924.
- 48 P. Soininen, E. Nykänen, L. Niinistö and M. Leskelä, *Chem. Vap. Deposition*, 1996, **2**, 69.
- 49 CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, 77th Edn, ed. D. R. Lide, CRC Press, New York 1996, pp. 8–21.
- V. Trtík, F. Sánchez, R. Aguiar, Y. Maniette, C. Ferrater and M. Varela, Appl. Phys. A, 1998, 67, 455.
- 51 C. A. Copetti, H. Soltner, J. Schubert, W. Zander, O. Hollricher, Ch. Buchal, H. Schultz, N. Tellmann and N. Klein, *Appl. Phys. Lett.*, 1993, 63, 1429.
- 52 L. Méchin, A. Chabli, F. Bertin, M. Burdin, G. Rolland, C. Vannuffel and J.-C. Villégier, J. Appl. Phys., 1998, 84, 4935.
- 53 Y. J. Tian, S. Linzen, F. Schmidl, A. Matthes, H. Schneidewind and P. Seidel, *Thin Solid Films*, 1999, 338, 224.
- 54 T. Yamada, N. Wakiya, K. Shinozaki and N. Mizutani, *Jpn. J. Appl. Phys.*, 2001, 40, 281.
- 55 M. Ritala and M. Leskelä, Appl. Surf. Sci., 1994, 75, 333.
- 56 M. Putkonen and L. Niinistö, J. Mater. Chem., 2001, 11, 3141.