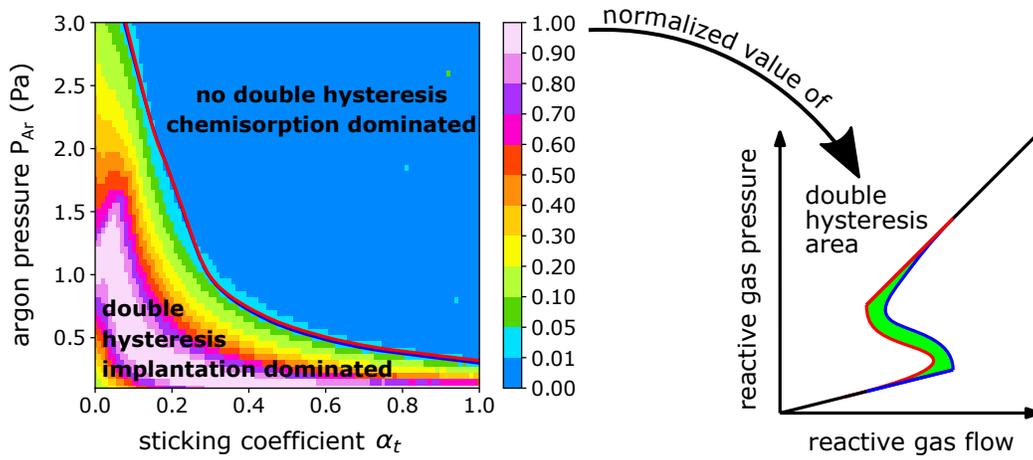


Graphical Abstract

Influence of chemisorption on the double hysteresis phenomenon during reactive sputtering

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Highlights

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- Quantification of the double hysteresis phenomenon by high throughput modeling
- A description of the impact of reactive gas chemisorption on the double hysteresis
- Derivation of the minimal requirements to observe double hysteresis

Influence of chemisorption on the double hysteresis phenomenon during reactive sputtering

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Abstract

Process curves that are obtained during reactive magnetron sputtering can exhibit a double S-shape, also termed a double hysteresis. A previous study mainly focused on the relationship between the double shape behavior and the reaction kinetics of implanted reactive ions, although chemisorption also defines the target condition. As a follow-up study, the influence of chemisorption on double hysteresis is computationally studied by high-throughput calculations using a state-of-the-art model for reactive sputtering. The analysis reveals that the magnitude of the double hysteresis is a conserved quantity for the chemisorption driven reactions at the substrate level. At the target level, a balance between compound formation by direct reactive ion implantation and chemisorption is established. A minimal condition for double hysteresis is derived and process conditions are identified for which the double hysteresis can be measured for target materials prone to strong chemisorption of the reactive gas. The condition can assist to further explore the close interplay between chemisorption and implantation during reactive sputtering.

Keywords: reactive sputtering, target poisoning, modeling

1. Introduction

1 During reactive magnetron sputtering, target poisoning occurs due to
2 the interaction of the reactive gas, for example oxygen, with the metallic
3 target. Target poisoning has been studied by modeling for several years,
4 because a fundamental understanding is a necessity to optimize the control
5 of the reactive process [1, 2, 3, 4]. Initially, target poisoning was attributed
6 to chemisorption, which is the formation of a compound monolayer due to
7

8 the chemical interaction of the target surface with the neutral reactive gas
 9 atoms [1]. Both experiments and simulations showed the importance of at
 10 least three additional processes [5, 6, 7, 8, 9]. First, chemisorbed material
 11 can be knocked into the target subsurface by ions of the working gas (often
 12 argon). This is known as knock-on implantation. Secondly, reactive gas ions
 13 can be formed inside the gas discharge and are implanted directly into the
 14 target. This is termed direct implantation. Finally, redeposition of sputtered
 15 atoms can also contribute to target poisoning but is mainly important at high
 16 pressures, low mass of the target atoms and/or for specific set-ups such as
 17 facing target sputtering [9] and rotating cylindrical magnetrons [7, 8]. A
 18 schematic overview of the aforementioned processes is shown in Figure 1.

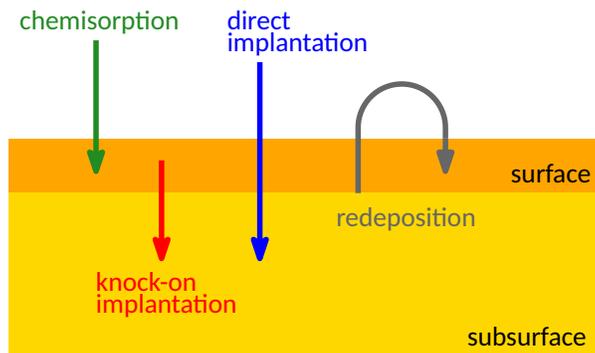


Figure 1: Schematic overview of processes that can induce target poisoning.

19 When the reactive gas flow is stepwise increased during reactive sput-
 20 tering, target poisoning often occurs abruptly at a single reactive gas flow.
 21 The transition back from the poisoned target state to the metal target state
 22 also happens abruptly in these cases, but at a lower reactive gas flow. This
 23 is known as hysteresis. The abrupt changes can be seen in deposition pa-
 24 rameters, for example the reactive gas pressure, the deposition rate and the
 25 discharge voltage. The hysteresis behavior was successfully explained by Berg
 26 *et al.* [1] using a single S-shaped process curve of each deposition parameter
 27 as a function of the reactive gas flow. Hence, this hysteresis will be termed
 28 a “single” hysteresis, to distinguish it from the double hysteresis discussed
 29 further.

30 When feedback control is used [10], the abrupt transition can be circum-
 31 vented. During feedback control, a stepwise change of one or a combination
 32 of more deposition parameters is achieved by continuously controlling the

33 reactive gas flow to fix the target condition. This way, the metal to poison
34 transition of the target as well as the reverse transition can be studied in
35 a continuous way. This results in S-shaped process curves, but the curve
36 corresponding to the transition from a metallic target to a poisoned target
37 often does not coincide with the curve corresponding to the reverse tran-
38 sition [10, 11, 12, 13]. This double S-shape has been termed double hys-
39 teresis [13]. The S-curve connected to the transition from a metallic to a
40 poisoned target is defined as the metal branch while the poison branch refers
41 to the second S-curve. It should be noted that the two S-curves can be dis-
42 tinguished, even when effects due to e.g. chamber heating or target erosion
43 are excluded [13].

44 In our previous paper [14] the double hysteresis was computationally stud-
45 ied, and its origin was quantitatively explained. The implanted reactive gas
46 ions have a limited time to react with the target material before they are
47 removed by sputtering. For the poison branch, the erosion speed is low, and
48 hence there is sufficient time to react, but the opposite is valid for the metal
49 branch. It was demonstrated that the double hysteresis behavior originates
50 from this difference in removal rate.

51 The aforementioned mechanism was elucidated based on high throughput
52 simulations using a data set obtained from a detailed study of the Al/O₂
53 system [4]. Quite specific for this material/reactive gas combination is the
54 low value (0.1) of the target sticking coefficient of oxygen on aluminum.
55 Hence, the influence of chemisorption on the obtained results can be expected
56 to be small. However, for more reactive metals, chemisorption onto the
57 target surface will contribute stronger to target poisoning. In this paper the
58 influence of chemisorption, both at target and substrate level, on the double
59 hysteresis behavior is studied.

60 The article is structured as follows. In [Section 2](#), we briefly discuss the
61 model and analysis techniques used and introduce the main concepts for the
62 relations derived later on. The influence of chemisorption on the double
63 hysteresis is the main subject of [Section 3](#). Chemisorption affects both the
64 substrate ([Section 3.1](#)) and the target ([Section 3.2](#)). It is shown that only
65 chemisorption at the target level affects the double hysteresis behavior. A
66 minimal condition ([Section 3.3](#)) for double hysteresis is derived and used
67 to maximize the double hysteresis behavior for target materials with a high
68 sticking coefficient. A summarizing discussion is presented at the end of the
69 paper, where also suggestions are made on how these findings can be applied
70 in experiments.

71 2. Modeling and analysis techniques

72 2.1. RSD-model

73 The RSD-model [2, 15, 4] describes the reactive sputtering process by
74 a coupled set of partial differential equations. These differential equations
75 govern the time evolution of the properties of the vacuum chamber, the
76 substrate and the target. The model focuses on the quantitative description
77 of target processes. It is to the best knowledge of the authors the only model
78 that is able to describe double hysteresis during reactive sputtering. The
79 model is implemented in a freely available software package [16]. Details on
80 the model can be found in the references [2, 15, 4, 14]. To ensure a good
81 readability, the same symbols as in Van Bever *et al.* [14] have been used in
82 this paper.

83 In the remainder of the paper, only equations required for an understand-
84 ing of the obtained results are given in order to guide the discussion. It must
85 be noted that the substrate and target are spatially resolved within the model
86 by the deposition profile and the ion current density respectively. In order
87 to simplify the notation, the equations used further in the text are written
88 for a single cell approximation. For example, the ion current density should
89 be denoted by $j_{ion,m}$ for every target cell m separately. In the following, the
90 notation j_{ion} is however used. The derivations are nonetheless equally valid
91 for a multi-cell approximation.

92 2.2. Quantification of hysteresis

93 For our analysis, abstraction is made of the exact shape of the process
94 curves. Instead, hysteresis quantification measures were introduced [14].
95 These are measures that can be linked to changes of the hysteresis curve
96 and demonstrate continuous trends as a function of process and material
97 parameters.

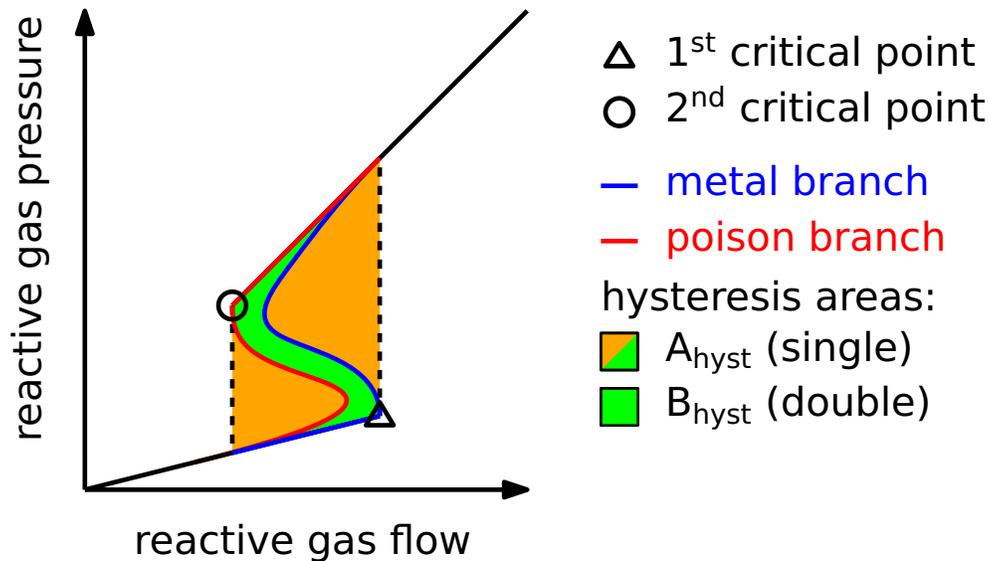


Figure 2: Depiction of the main hysteresis quantification measures when measuring the reactive gas pressure as a function of the reactive gas flow. The critical points and A_{hyst} are used to analyze hysteresis under flow control. The branches and B_{hyst} are used to study hysteresis under feedback control.

98 The main hysteresis quantification measures are indicated in Figure 2 on
 99 a reactive gas pressure P_{R_2} versus reactive gas flow Q_{R_2} process curve. To
 100 quantify the magnitude of a double hysteresis, the double hysteresis area
 101 B_{hyst} is used. This area depends on the type of process curve considered,
 102 which is indicated within square brackets e.g. $B_{\text{hyst}} [P_{R_2}(Q_{R_2})]$. To analyze
 103 the double hysteresis behavior, the branch averaged values are used. These
 104 are obtained from the transition paths between the metallic and poisoned
 105 mode indicated in Figure 2 (blue and red). The branch averaged value of a
 106 property X over the metal or poison branch is denoted by $\bar{X} [m]$ or $\bar{X} [p]$
 107 respectively.

108 In a similar way as for double hysteresis, the single hysteresis area A_{hyst}
 109 and critical points are used to understand hysteresis under flow control.
 110 These are also indicated in Figure 2.

111 The calculation of hysteresis quantification measures and further analysis
 112 techniques are implemented in RSDplot. [17]

113 *2.3. High-throughput analysis*

114 The high-throughput analysis of Van Bever *et al.* [14] was continued. The
115 process and material parameters in the RSD-model are first scanned over a
116 wide range. The information of this large data set is then studied based on
117 the hysteresis quantification measures (Section 2.2) to understand the impact
118 of a given parameter on the evolution of the double hysteresis behavior. Here,
119 we focus on parameters that are related to chemisorption. The compound
120 formation at the substrate level is described by chemisorption and deposition.
121 The corresponding reactive gas consumption rate is defined by the substrate
122 area A_s and the sticking coefficient α_s . The “substrate” is defined as the
123 total surface on which deposition occurs, including the walls of the vacuum
124 chamber itself. A competing process for reactive gas consumption is the
125 action of the physical pump with a pumping speed equal to S . At the target
126 level, the main parameter that defines the chemisorption is the target sticking
127 coefficient α_t . Finally, it will follow from the minimal condition (Section 3.3)
128 that also the argon pressure P_{Ar} should be considered. Other process and
129 material parameters, which can have an indirect influence on chemisorption
130 as well, were used to verify the proposed mechanisms. In our analysis we try
131 to be as general as possible. It should however be stressed that the original
132 data set was obtained based on the aluminum reference system discussed in
133 our previous work [4].

134 The considered hysteresis measures (Section 2.2) were converged with
135 respect to the number of simulated steady-state pressure points (≥ 1000)
136 and the number of target cells (≥ 300).

137 **3. Results: influence of chemisorption on double hysteresis**

138 *3.1. Substrate and chamber*

139 As an example of the impact of the substrate and the chamber conditions
140 on the double hysteresis, the influence of the substrate area and the pumping
141 speed is treated.

142 First, a reference system was considered that exhibits a clear double hys-
143 teresis (identified as reference A (see Appendix A) and represented with
144 squares in Figure 3). The double hysteresis area B_{hyst} (see Section 2.2) re-
145 mains constant if the pumping speed is modified, although the process curves
146 and the single hysteresis area do change (not shown). The change of the sin-
147 gle hysteresis can be related to the balance between the reactive gas flow to
148 the pump Q_p and the reactive gas consumption rate by the substrate Q_s in

149 a similar fashion as originally modeled by Berg and Nyberg [1]. The same
 150 is also true for the substrate area, except at very small substrate areas, for
 151 which a decrease of the double hysteresis area is observed.

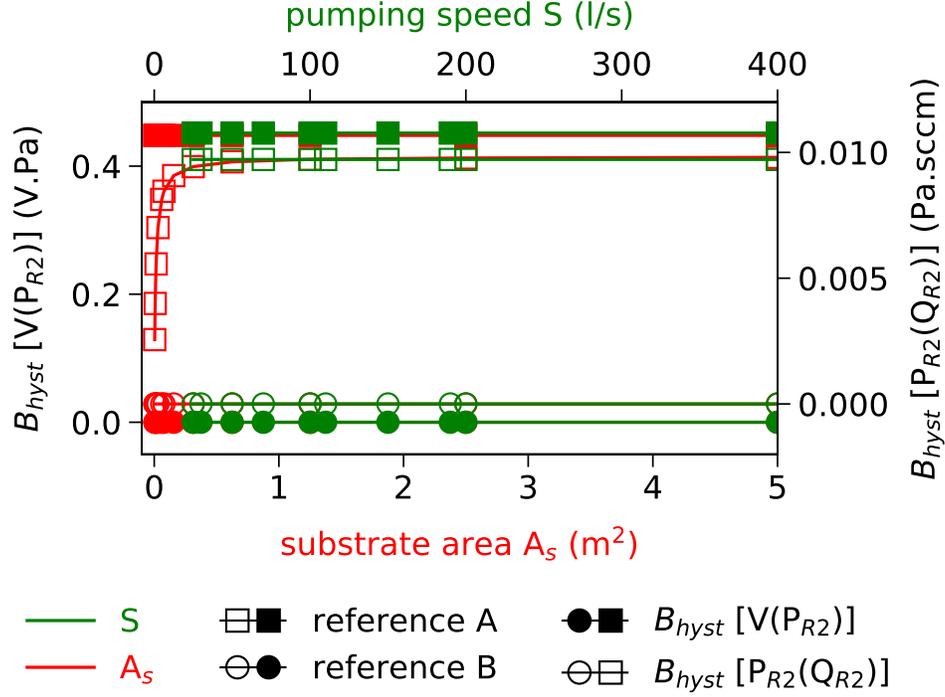


Figure 3: Influence of the substrate area (bottom axis) and pumping speed (upper axis) on the double hysteresis. The data was generated by a change of the considered parameter only. A reference was used that either exhibits a double hysteresis (squares, see Appendix A) or no double hysteresis (circles, obtained from Appendix A by changing the target area A_t to 80 cm^2 and the reaction rate constant k to $5 \cdot 10^{-23} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$). The double hysteresis area was obtained for either the discharge voltage versus reactive gas pressure diagram ($B_{hyst}[V(P_{R2})]$, filled symbols, left axis) or the reactive gas pressure versus flow diagram ($B_{hyst}[P_{R2}(Q_{R2})]$, empty symbols, right axis).

152 To investigate the deviation at small substrate areas, the double hysteresis
 153 area was calculated for two sets of process curves. $B_{hyst}[P_{R2}(Q_{R2})]$ is calcu-
 154 lated from the reactive gas pressure P_{R2} versus flow Q_{R2} process curve, while
 155 $B_{hyst}[V(P_{R2})]$ originates from the process curve when the discharge voltage V
 156 is plotted against the reactive gas pressure P_{R2} . A breakdown at very small
 157 substrate areas is observed for $B_{hyst}[P_{R2}(Q_{R2})]$ but not for $B_{hyst}[V(P_{R2})]$.

158 This can be explained as follows. The reactive gas pressure that corresponds
 159 in steady-state to a certain reactive gas flow is determined by the reactive
 160 gas consumption inside the vacuum chamber, which is modeled as follows:

$$\frac{dP_{R_2}}{dt} = \frac{k_B T}{\mathcal{V}} \frac{dN_{R_2}}{dt} = \frac{k_B T}{\mathcal{V}} (Q_{R_2} - Q_p - Q_s - Q_t), \quad (1)$$

161 with k_B the Boltzmann constant, T and \mathcal{V} the temperature and the volume
 162 of the vacuum chamber, and N_{R_2} the number of R_2 gas molecules inside the
 163 vacuum chamber. The evolution of N_{R_2} depends on the reactive gas flow
 164 Q_{R_2} entering the chamber and the R_2 flows consumed by the pump (Q_p),
 165 substrate (Q_s), and target (Q_t).

166 The largest contribution to this consumption is either the reactive gas
 167 flow going to the substrate or to the pump when operating in metallic or
 168 poisoned mode respectively. As the flow towards the target is small, it follows
 169 from Equation (1) that when there is no substrate present, the steady-state
 170 pressure is only defined by the action of the pump. This leads in the model
 171 to

$$P_{R_2} = k_B T \cdot \frac{Q_p}{S} \approx k_B T \cdot \frac{Q_{R_2}}{S} \quad (2)$$

172 This is a linear relation that cannot exhibit any hysteresis. Therefore, for a
 173 disappearing substrate, $B_{\text{hyst}}[P_{R_2}(Q_{R_2})]$ must become zero. Stated in another
 174 way, the reactive gas consumption by reaction of the material deposited onto
 175 the substrate is required to observe any hysteresis in the $P_{R_2}(Q_{R_2})$ process
 176 curve. From a practical point of view, it should be remarked that the break-
 177 down of $B_{\text{hyst}}[P_{R_2}(Q_{R_2})]$ occurs for substrate areas that are smaller than for
 178 almost any realistic vacuum chamber.

179 Within the approximations of the RSD-model, the target state is deter-
 180 mined by the reactive gas fraction [15] and the discharge voltage can be
 181 determined from the target state by using the IV-characteristics of the mag-
 182 netron sputtering discharge [15, 14]. Hence, the lack of a substrate does not
 183 affect the $V(P_{R_2})$ process curve and $B_{\text{hyst}}[V(P_{R_2})]$ does not disappear.

184 Stated more intuitively, the value of $B_{\text{hyst}}[V(P_{R_2})]$ is directly related to the
 185 target state while the value $B_{\text{hyst}}[P_{R_2}(Q_{R_2})]$ requires the connection between
 186 the target state and the chamber condition via the sputter deposition onto
 187 the substrate. This is in agreement with our earlier discussion [14], where it
 188 was remarked that a direct interpretation of $B_{\text{hyst}}[P_{R_2}(Q_{R_2})]$ is complicated
 189 by for example the discharge voltage dependency of the sputter yields. In
 190 what follows, we will therefore focus the analysis on $B_{\text{hyst}}[V(P_{R_2})]$.

191 The observed trends suggest that double hysteresis is independent of the
 192 substrate area and the pumping speed. To verify this hypothesis, a new ref-
 193 erence was used (called reference B and represented with circles in [Figure 3](#)).
 194 This new reference does not exhibit a double hysteresis. When the substrate
 195 area or pumping speed of the new reference system is changed, the double
 196 hysteresis area remains zero regardless the considered process curve. This
 197 confirms the idea that the double hysteresis effect is in general independent
 198 of the substrate area and the pumping speed. This trends is also confirmed
 199 when the reference system is changed in different ways.

200 The influence of other substrate and chamber related parameters is simi-
 201 lar. For example, the influence of the substrate sticking coefficient α_s can be
 202 mapped onto that of the substrate area. Other parameters act on both the
 203 substrate or chamber condition as well as on the target processes. E.g. an in-
 204 crease of the gas temperature slightly lowers the amount of target chemisorp-
 205 tion since the flux F_{R_2} towards the target is lowered. Indeed, from kinetic
 206 gas theory it follows that

$$F_{R_2} = \frac{P_{R_2}}{\sqrt{2\pi m_{R_2} k_B T}}, \quad (3)$$

207 where m_{R_2} denotes the mass of a gas molecule R_2 . The decrease in chemisorp-
 208 tion influences the balance between chemisorption and implantation (see [Sec-](#)
 209 [tion 3.2](#)) and induces a small increase of the double hysteresis area.

210 *3.2. Balance between implantation and chemisorption*

211 Calculations were performed using the reference system from [Appendix](#)
 212 [A](#). The target sticking coefficient α_t was varied. The target sticking coefficient
 213 defines the reactive gas consumed at the target level by chemisorption,

$$Q_{t,\text{chem}} = \alpha_t F_{R_2} \theta_m A_t, \quad (4)$$

214 where A_t is the target area, θ_m the metal fraction of the target surface, and
 215 F_{R_2} the flux towards the target as defined in equation (3). The trends of
 216 the branch averaged values were analyzed. [Fig. 4](#) shows the result. As the
 217 sticking coefficient increases, the double hysteresis vanishes (black trace).

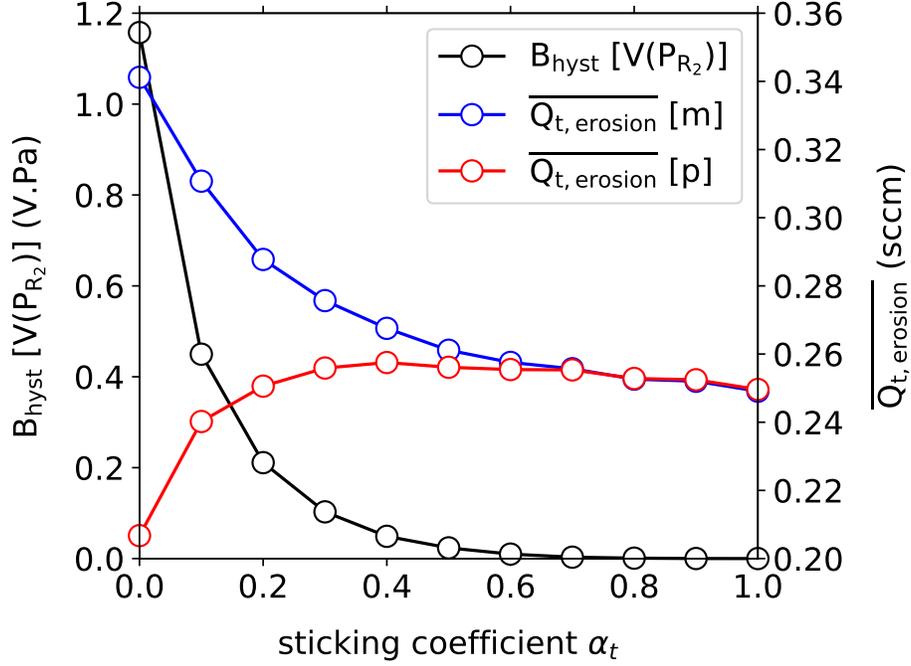


Figure 4: Influence of the target sticking coefficient α_t on the double hysteresis behavior. The other simulation parameters were kept constant (see Appendix A). Left axis: the double hysteresis area in the $V(P_{R_2})$ process curve ($B_{\text{hyst}}[V(P_{R_2})]$, black). Right axis: the removal rate of non-reacted species for the metal branch (m) and poison branch (p).

218 As mentioned before, the double hysteresis behavior is defined by the
 219 difference in removal rate of the non-reacted ions by sputtering in the metal
 220 and poison branch. This removal rate is given by,

$$Q_{t,\text{erosion}} = \frac{1}{2} v_s n_R(0) A_t \quad (5)$$

221 with v_s the speed at which the target surface recedes due to erosion and $n_R(0)$
 222 the concentration of non-reacted ions at the target surface. The simulations
 223 show that the average metal branch removal rate $\overline{Q_{t,\text{erosion}}} [m]$ decreases with
 224 an increasing sticking coefficient while the opposite occurs for the average
 225 poison branch removal rate $\overline{Q_{t,\text{erosion}}} [p]$. This behavior can be understood
 226 as follows. Within the metal branch, non-reacted species are efficiently
 227 removed by the high erosion rate. The reduction of the metal fraction θ_m by

228 an enhanced chemisorption suppresses this effect because the sputter yield
229 of the compound is lower as compared to the metal. Within the poison
230 branch the compound removal is slow as the erosion rate is low. Due to the
231 enhanced chemisorption, target poisoning occurs at lower reactive pressures
232 and hence less reactive species are implanted. This results in a lower com-
233 pound fraction θ_r of the target which enhances the erosion rate and hence
234 $\overline{Q_{t,erosion}} [p]$. Therefore, the two branch averaged values of $Q_{t,erosion}$ converge
235 and the double hysteresis disappears.

236 A more intuitive way to understand this is the following. Chemisorption
237 can efficiently poison the target without requiring implanted ions to be in-
238 volved. Consequently, when the effect of chemisorption starts to dominate
239 over direct implantation, the metal branch becomes more poisoned (the metal
240 fraction θ_m decreases), while the poison branch becomes more metallic (the
241 compound fraction θ_r decreases). As a result, the target state becomes equal
242 for both branches and the double hysteresis vanishes.

243 The result demonstrates that chemisorption can effectively influence the
244 magnitude of the double hysteresis observed. For combinations of target
245 material and reactive gas that exhibit a high sticking coefficient, the double
246 hysteresis can even disappear completely. It is therefore interesting to study
247 the point at which the effect of chemisorption starts to dominate over direct
248 implantation.

249 *3.3. Minimal condition for double hysteresis*

250 The difference in removal rate $Q_{t,erosion}$ is a good but general tool to
251 define whether or not double hysteresis will be observed. It is however not
252 specific enough to elucidate the impact of chemisorption. As target poisoning
253 is induced in the RSD-model by chemisorption and ion implantation, it is
254 possible to calculate a rate for each compound formation mechanism i.e.
255 P_{chem} and P_{impl} . Their relative weights allow for the determination of the
256 dominating poisoning mechanism.

257 The formation rates by chemisorption and direct implantation are con-
258 sidered in more detail below. The discussion is schematically depicted in
259 [Figure 5](#).

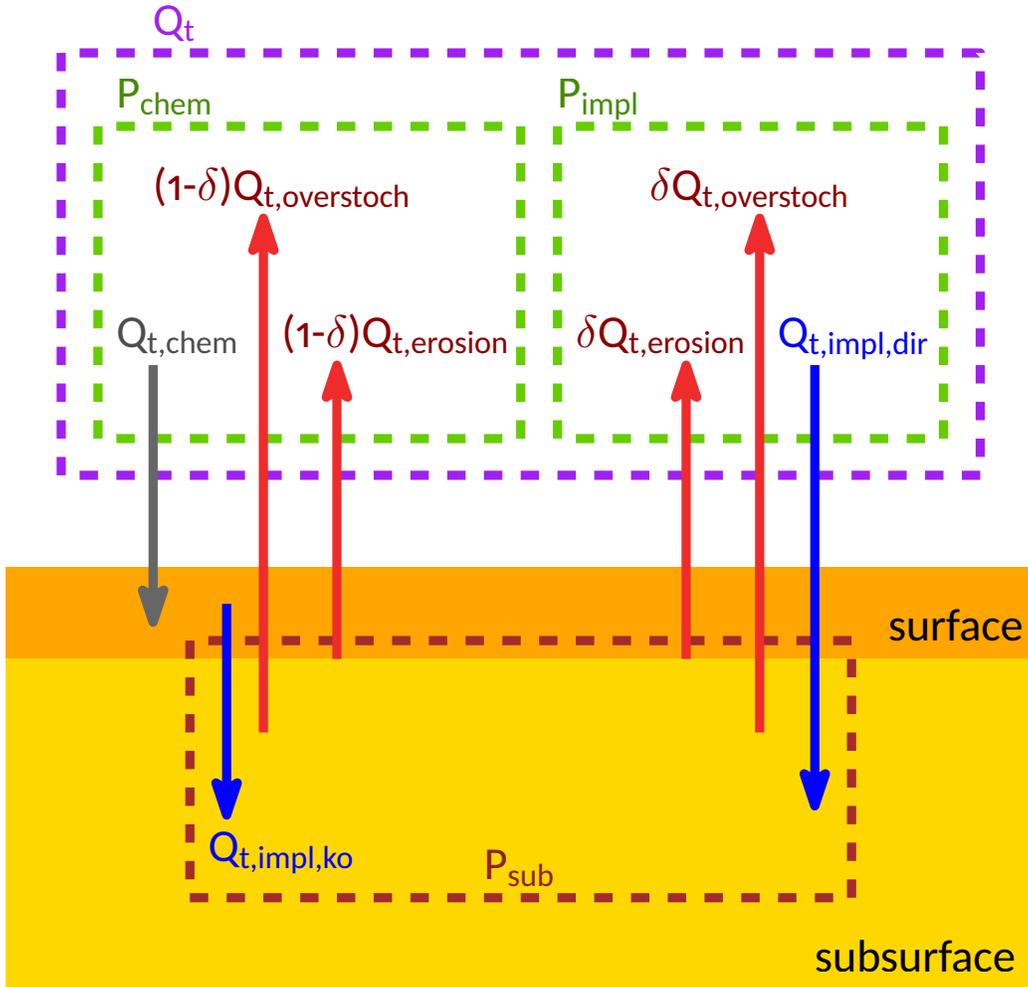


Figure 5: Overview of the flows towards the target and the defined consumption rates. The total reactive gas flow consumed by the target Q_t is the result of the reaction of the target material at the target surface by chemisorption ($Q_{t,chem}$) and in the subsurface region by implanted ions (P_{sub}). The implanted ions originate from two channels: direct implantation ($Q_{t,impl,dir}$) and knock-on implantation ($Q_{t,impl,ko}$). Implanted ions that do not react are released from the target (red arrows) by sputter removal ($Q_{t,erosion}$) or diffuse directly from the target when the subsurface is overstoichiometric ($Q_{t,overstoch}$).

260 First of all, the sum of the two formation rates yields the total compound
 261 formation at the target. In steady-state, this equals the reactive gas flow

262 towards the target, Q_t ,

$$Q_t = P_{\text{impl}} + P_{\text{chem}}. \quad (6)$$

263 Indeed, in steady-state, the amount of non-reacted reactive ions inside the
264 target remains constant. The target flow can therefore be formally attributed
265 to compound formation that is required to compensate for the sputter re-
266 moval.

267 The calculation of the formation rates by chemisorption and direct im-
268 plantation is complicated by additional processes that define the target con-
269 dition. First, not all implanted atoms are converted to compound as some
270 will reach the target surface without reaction. These atoms are either re-
271 moved from the target by target erosion or they are assumed to diffuse from
272 the target when the saturation limit for non-reacted atoms is reached. The
273 saturation limit is reached when the formed compound becomes overstoi-
274 chiometric. Secondly, knock-on implantation converts chemisorbed atoms
275 into implanted atoms that may also subsequently escape from the target.
276 The calculation can nevertheless be performed as discussed in the following
277 paragraphs.

278 The compound formation rate due to implanted ions in the subsurface re-
279 gion, P_{sub} , is considered first. This formation rate is assumed to result from a
280 second order reaction between the non-reacted implanted ions (concentration
281 n_R) and the pure target metal (concentration n_M), both at a corresponding
282 depth x and time t . Integration over the total target volume, excluding the
283 target surface, yields

$$P_{\text{sub}} = \frac{1}{2} \int z k \cdot n_R(x, t) n_M(x, t) dx. \quad (7)$$

284 Herein, k denotes the reaction rate constant and z the stoichiometry of the
285 formed compound. In order to simplify the further discussion, the rate is
286 expressed in terms of R_2 per time unit rather than MR_z per time unit, which
287 explains the factor $1/2$.

288 Within the approximations of the RSD-model, two other processes govern
289 the time evolution of the concentration of non-reacted implanted ions n_R ,
290 namely the gain due to implantation, direct or knock-on, and losses due
291 to sputter erosion or due to out-diffusion when the formed compound is
292 overstoichiometric. As a consequence, it follows from [Equation \(7\)](#) that in

293 steady-state ($\partial n_R / \partial t = 0$)

$$P_{\text{sub}} = (Q_{\text{t,impl,dir}} + Q_{\text{t,impl,ko}}) - (Q_{\text{t,erosion}} + Q_{\text{t,overstoch}}). \quad (8)$$

294 The first two terms describe the target flows due to direct implantation
295 and knock-on implantation. The last two terms account for non-reacted
296 implanted atoms that leave the target by target erosion or are assumed to
297 diffuse from the target when the saturation limit is reached. All terms have
298 been described in our previous paper[14] except for $Q_{\text{t,impl,ko}}$. The flow due
299 to knock-on implantation is defined as

$$Q_{\text{t,impl,ko}} = j_{\text{ion}} \frac{1}{2} \beta_c \theta_c. \quad (9)$$

300 where j_{ion} is the ion current density, θ_c the fraction of the target covered with
301 compound formed by chemisorption, and β_c a knock-on yield. In order to
302 compare it with other target flows, it is defined as an amount of R_2 molecules
303 per time, though no physical diatomic gas molecules are implanted.

304 As seen from Equation (8), the implantation of reactive ions has two
305 sources i.e. direct and knock-on implantation. The loss of non-reacted im-
306 planted ions is however independent of the implantation mechanism. Con-
307 sider therefore the directly implanted part P_{impl} of the compound formation
308 rate by re-scaling P_{sub} with a fraction

$$\delta = \frac{Q_{\text{t,impl,dir}}}{Q_{\text{t,impl,dir}} + Q_{\text{t,impl,ko}}}, \quad (10)$$

309 This permits the compound formation rate to be calculated as

$$P_{\text{impl}} = Q_{\text{t,impl,dir}} - \delta (Q_{\text{t,erosion}} + Q_{\text{t,overstoch}}) \quad (11)$$

310 The chemisorption part P_{chem} of the compound formation rate is obtained
311 by considering the complementary part of the total compound formation. In
312 steady-state, this can be obtained from Equation (6) as $Q_{\text{t}} - P_{\text{impl}}$, or

$$P_{\text{chem}} = Q_{\text{t,chem}} - (1 - \delta) (Q_{\text{t,erosion}} + Q_{\text{t,overstoch}}) \quad (12)$$

313 At this point, the compound formation rates by chemisorption and ion
314 implantation are obtained, and Fig. 6 presents the calculated values for P_{chem}

315 and P_{impl} averaged over the two branches. For the dark grey region the
 316 condition $P_{\text{chem}} > P_{\text{impl}}$ holds. It is clear that the requirement $P_{\text{impl}} > P_{\text{chem}}$
 317 is a necessity to observe double hysteresis.

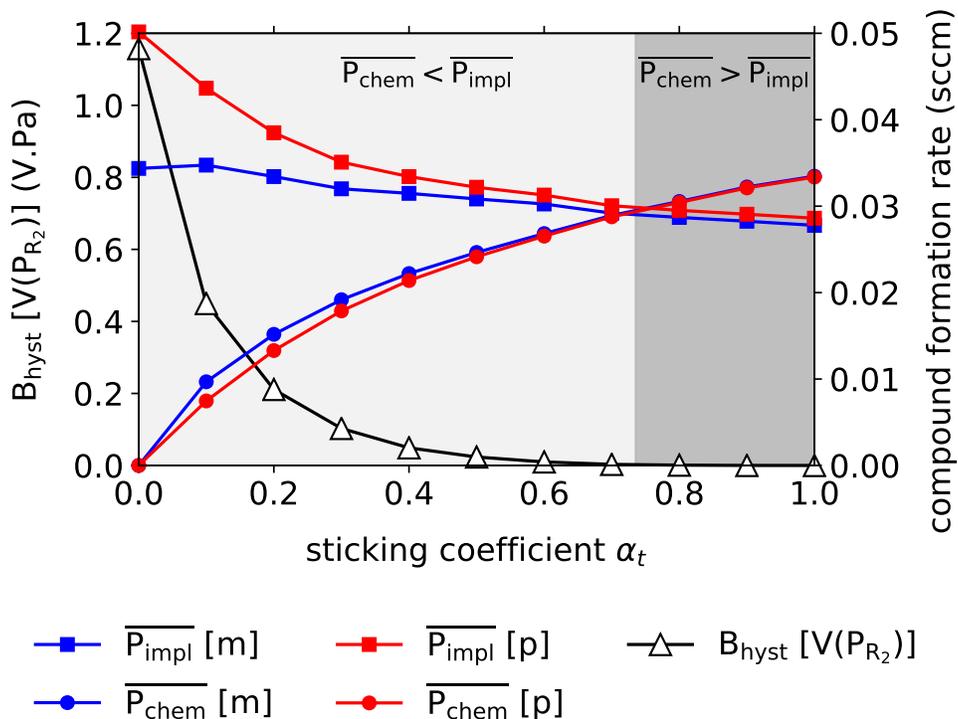


Figure 6: Influence of the target sticking coefficient α_t on the double hysteresis behavior. The other simulation parameters were kept constant (see Appendix A). Left axis: the double hysteresis area in the $V(P_{R_2})$ process curve ($B_{\text{hyst}}[V(P_{R_2})]$, black). Right axis: the compound formation rates due to direct implantation P_{impl} and chemisorption P_{chem} , averaged over the metal (blue) or poison (red) branch (Equation (12) and Equation (11)). When the compound formation rate P_{chem} becomes larger than the compound formation rate by direct ion implantation P_{impl} , the double hysteresis effect vanishes.

318 To verify the validity of this minimal condition, another broader set of
 319 simulations was performed where both the target sticking coefficient α_t and
 320 the argon pressure P_{Ar} are varied.

321 From Figure 7 it is observed that the double hysteresis area B_{hyst} obtained
 322 from the $V(P_{R_2})$ process curve decays to zero for large argon pressures. This
 323 trend is compared to the branch averaged values of the compound formation

324 rates by direct implantation (P_{impl}) and chemisorption (P_{chem}). The argon
 325 pressure at which the compound formation rates by chemisorption and direct
 326 implantation become equal, corresponds with the value at which the double
 327 hysteresis behavior is not observed anymore. This is only approximately true
 328 since averaged values are considered. At the transition pressure indicated
 329 in Figure 7, some target cells and/or samples inside each branch are still
 330 dominated by direct implantation.

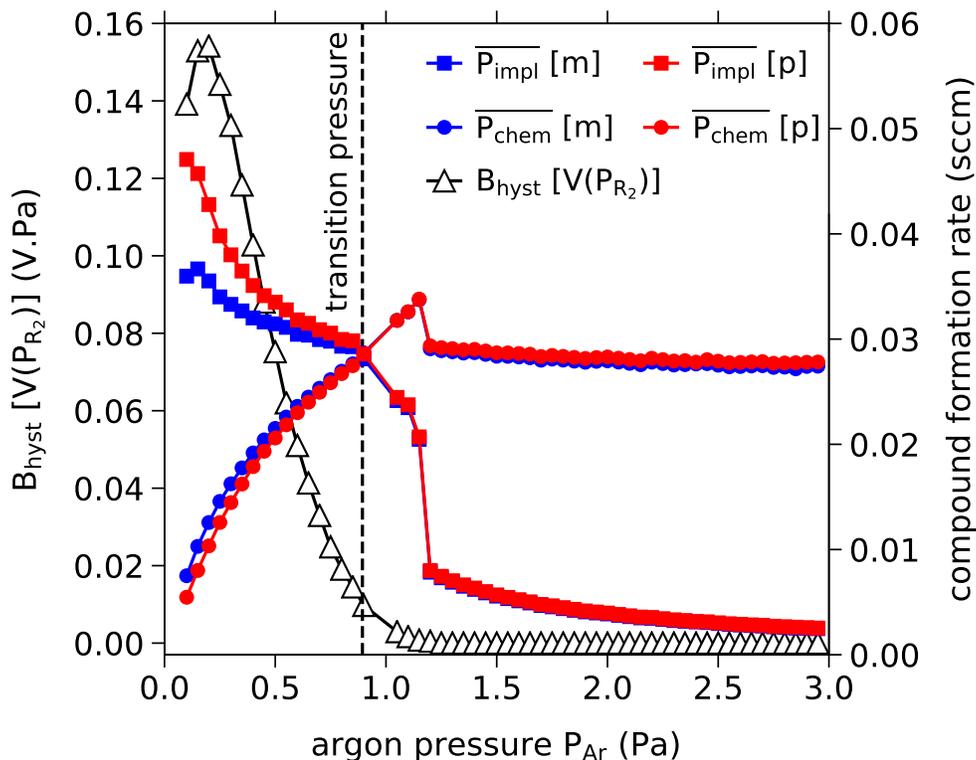


Figure 7: Influence of the argon pressure P_{Ar} on double hysteresis behavior. The reference from Appendix A is used, but with $\alpha_t = 0.3$ and a varying argon pressure (bottom axis). Left axis: the double hysteresis area in the $V(P_{\text{R}_2})$ process curve ($B_{\text{hyst}}[V(P_{\text{R}_2})]$, black). Right axis: the compound formation rates due to direct implantation P_{impl} and chemisorption P_{chem} , averaged over the metal (blue) or poison (red) branch. The double hysteresis area disappears in the regime for which $\overline{P_{\text{chem}}} > \overline{P_{\text{impl}}}$.

331 The vanishing behavior is similar to the influence of the target sticking co-
 332 efficient (Figure 6). The reason for this similarity is the dependency difference
 333 of implantation and chemisorption on the argon pressure. Chemisorption de-

334 pends on the reactive gas partial pressure (Equation (4)), and therefore the
 335 argon pressure does not affect this process. In contrast, reactive ion implan-
 336 tation is proportional to the reactive gas fraction $f_{R_2} = P_{R_2}/(P_{R_2} + P_{Ar})$
 337 which becomes smaller at a higher argon pressure. As such, when increasing
 338 the argon pressure, the compound formation rate by direct implantation de-
 339 creases while the formation rate by chemisorption becomes more prominent.

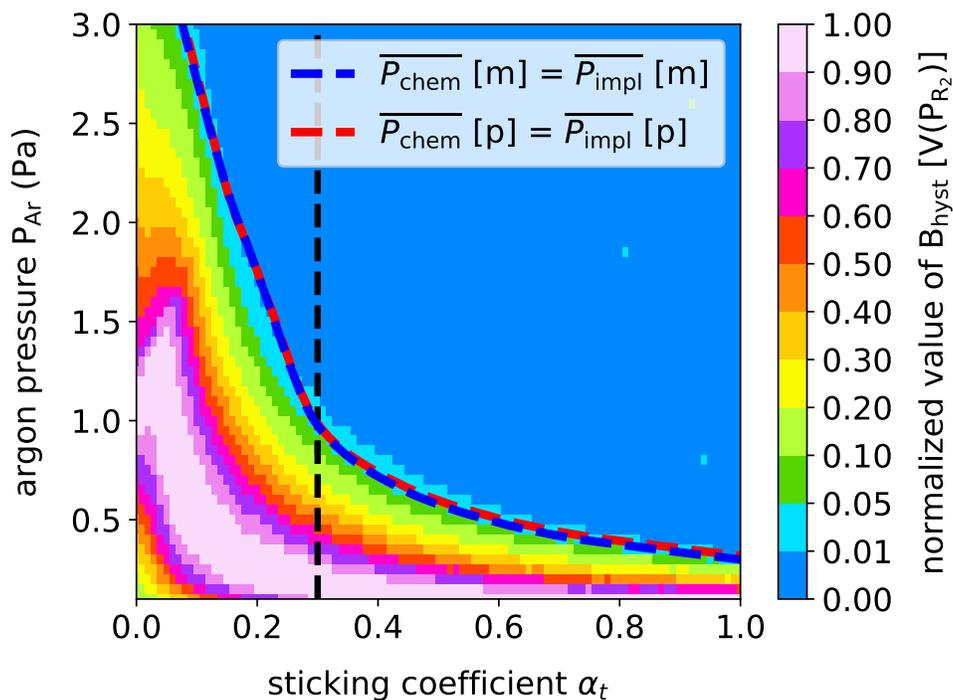


Figure 8: The double hysteresis area $B_{\text{hyst}}[V(P_{R_2})]$ as a function of the argon pressure and target sticking coefficient. The $B_{\text{hyst}}[V(P_{R_2})]$ values were normalized per sticking coefficient. The two solid lines indicate the condition of equal compound formation rate by chemisorption $\overline{P}_{\text{chem}}$ and direct ion implantation $\overline{P}_{\text{impl}}$, calculated for the metal (blue) and poison (red) branch. The dashed line corresponds with the data of Figure 7.

340 The above discussed analysis was repeated for different argon pressure
 341 and target sticking coefficient combinations. The results of these calcula-
 342 tions are summarized in Figure 8 which depicts the (normalized) double
 343 hysteresis area $B_{\text{hyst}}[V(P_{R_2})]$ as a function of both parameters. The value
 344 of $B_{\text{hyst}}[V(P_{R_2})]$ numerically never reaches zero. Hence, the values were nor-
 345 malized per sticking coefficient to permit a relative comparison between the

346 different pressures. On the same figure, the condition of equal formation
347 rate by chemisorption and direct implantation are shown as calculated for
348 the metal (blue) and poison (red) branch.

349 It can be observed that the double hysteresis indeed vanishes when the
350 aforementioned condition is reached. Indeed, a good agreement between the
351 lines and the 1% or 5% contour line is observed. Hence, an important con-
352 clusion from [Figure 8](#) is that at high values of the target sticking coefficient,
353 no double hysteresis is observed, except at very low argon pressures. This
354 means that it is difficult to observe double hysteresis for a target material
355 on which the reactive gas strongly chemisorbes. Since many publications on
356 hysteresis consider target materials with a relatively high sticking coefficient,
357 this might also explain the deficit of double hysteresis in literature.

358 A careful inspection of [Figure 8](#) shows a small decrease of $B_{\text{hyst}}[V(P_{R_2})]$
359 for a combination of an extremely low argon pressure and a low sticking co-
360 efficient (bottom left corner of the figure). This decrease can be traced back
361 to an oversaturation of the subsurface based on the branch averaged values.
362 The oversaturation is the result of the combination of a very large implanta-
363 tion flux and a very low sputtering flux. The effect is more pronounced
364 in the poison branch. As a result of this, the rate of non-reacted implanted
365 ions that escape from the target increases in the poison branch and con-
366 verges to the corresponding rate in the metal branch. Observing such trend
367 experimentally might thus be an indication of a very large concentration of
368 non-reacted ions inside the target. Caution should however be taken with the
369 interpretation of the results regarding the validity of the current RSD-model
370 in this limit.

371 4. Discussion

372 The results in [Section 3](#) can be understood in terms of the subsurface
373 mechanism for double hysteresis proposed earlier [14]. This mechanism re-
374 lates the magnitude of the double hysteresis to the rate of non-reacted im-
375 planted ions that are sputtered from the target in the transition from a
376 metallic target to a poisoned target but not in the reverse transition. Based
377 on the observations, chemisorption related parameters can be subdivided in
378 two categories.

379 A first set of parameters is related to the chamber and substrate condi-
380 tions. Though the hysteresis curve and the single hysteresis area are changed
381 in a drastic way, the magnitude of the double hysteresis remains a conserved

382 quantity. This can be understood as follows. The conditions of the vacuum
383 chamber and substrate determine to a large extent the balance between the
384 reactive gas flow towards the substrate and the pump. When the substrate
385 flow dominates, a large amount of reactive gas can be consumed by sputter
386 deposition and the target remains metallic. This mechanism postpones the
387 first critical point to larger reactive gas flows and induces the magnitude of
388 the single hysteresis to increase. The sputter consumption does however not
389 influence the state of the target subsurface and hence the double hysteresis
390 behavior remains unaffected.

391 This is different when the affinity of the target material for chemisorption
392 is considered. In this case, an increase of chemisorption affects the balance
393 between the compound formation by chemisorption and direct implantation
394 at the target. For either a sufficiently high sticking coefficient α_t or a suffi-
395 ciently low implantation flux (high P_{Ar}), the poisoning of the target becomes
396 disconnected from the subsurface mechanism that is driving the double hys-
397 teresis phenomenon. Indeed, when chemisorption dominates the surface tar-
398 get condition, the time for the implanted ions to react becomes independent
399 of the compound fraction formed by ion implantation. Hence, the positive
400 feedback loop that results in target poisoning by ion implantation [4] is no
401 longer possible. This particular property of the reactive sputter process can
402 be used to alter the double hysteresis behavior. For target materials such
403 as Al where the sticking coefficient for oxygen is low, double hysteresis can
404 be avoided by sputtering at sufficiently high argon pressures. On the other
405 hand, it is possible to study double hysteresis for materials with a high stick-
406 ing coefficient for oxygen such as Ti by measuring at sufficiently low argon
407 pressures. An estimate of the argon pressure that is required for this can
408 be made using [Figure 8](#). Remark however that this plot has been obtained
409 based on an Al reference system. [Figure 8](#) could also be interpreted in a
410 different way: when the sticking coefficient of the reactive gas is increased,
411 the double hysteresis vanishes. This is achieved when e.g. the gas in front
412 of the target surface is more ionized or dissociated, which may happen at
413 elevated discharge current densities. The latter might play an important role
414 in HiPIMS [18, 19].

415 Finally, some chamber conditions might influence both the balance be-
416 tween the reactive gas flows inside the vacuum chamber as well as the balance
417 between compound formation by chemisorption and direct implantation. An
418 example of this is the chamber temperature. When elevating the chamber
419 temperature, the flow to the pump is decreased ([Equation 2](#)). This can be

420 linked via the critical points to an increase of the single hysteresis in a sim-
421 ilar fashion as originally modeled by Berg and Nyberg [3]. On the other
422 hand, target chemisorption is decreased (Equation (3)). The latter results
423 in a target compound formation that is more dominated by direct implanta-
424 tion and an increase in double hysteresis. An important remark should be
425 made regarding the target temperature. This temperature is not taken into
426 account in the current model. According to the discussion in our previous
427 work [14], effects of diffusion might play an important role in the subsurface
428 mechanism, which are expected to decrease the double hysteresis for elevated
429 temperatures. An experimental verification of this hypothesis would be of
430 great interest for a better understanding of the subsurface mechanism.

431 5. Conclusion

432 A high-throughput analysis using a state-of-the-art code to predict pro-
433 cess curves during reactive sputtering was used to study the influence of
434 chemisorption on the double hysteresis behavior. Although the proposed sub-
435 surface mechanism that induces the double hysteresis is implantation driven,
436 chemisorption significantly changes it under certain circumstances. The sim-
437 ulations explain how double hysteresis can be altered using the interplay
438 between chemisorption and implantation. For example, the argon pressure
439 can be adapted in order to avoid double hysteresis for materials with a low
440 sticking coefficient such as Al. Or on the contrary: to induce and study
441 double hysteresis for materials with a high sticking coefficient such as Ti.
442 This opens a simple and direct experimental way to study the exact nature
443 of double hysteresis.

444 Acknowledgments

445 The authors wish to acknowledge Ghent University for the financial sup-
446 port through the project TIMERS (grant number 01J05319). The main
447 author would like to thank his family and loved ones for always supporting
448 him.

449 Appendix A. Reference system

450 The same reference system as in Van Bever *et al.* [14] was used. This
451 reference was obtained from fig. 14 and appendix B of Strijckmans *et al.*, [4]

452 where experimental data for an Al/O₂-system had been fitted. A minor cor-
453 rection was applied for the racetrack and experimental data for the secondary
454 electron yield [20] were included. The data was refitted using the compound
455 sputter yield and the effective substrate surface area. The fit successfully re-
456 produces the experimental data for different pumping speeds [4]. The newly
457 fitted compound sputter yield remains in good agreement with experimental
458 data from Schelfhout *et al.* [21, 22]. The parameters are enlisted in Table I
459 of Van Bever *et al.*[14].

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