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Zero-dimensionality of a scaled-down VO₂ metal-insulator transition via high-resolution electrostatic gating

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Abstract

An understanding of the phase transitions at the nanoscale is essential in state-of-the-art engineering^{1–5}, instead of simply averaging the heterogeneous domains formed during phase transitions^{6,7}. However, as materials are scaled down, the steepness of the phase transition rapidly increases^{8–13} and requires extremely high precision in the control method. Here, a three-terminal device, which could precisely control the phase transition electrically^{14–19}, was applied for the first time to a scaled-down metal-insulator transition material VO₂. The crossover from continuous to binary transitions with the scaled-down material was clarified, and the critical channel length was successfully elucidated via phase boundary energy. Notably, below the critical channel length, the spatial degrees of freedom degenerated, and the impact of drain voltage application disappeared in the phase transition, indicating zero-dimensionality of the VO₂ channel. This zero-dimensionality could be the fundamental property in the scaled-down phase transition and have a significant impact on various fields that need nanoscale engineering.

Introduction

Phase transition materials are important components of a wide range of functional devices, including memory, batteries, sensors, and neuromorphic computing^{1–5}. During phase transitions, spatially heterogeneous domain structures are formed that affect material properties^{6,7}. However, when phase transition materials are miniaturized to smaller than the size of individual domains, the phase transition becomes single-domain and exhibits different behavior^{8–13}. Therefore, when designing functional devices using phase transition materials, it is essential to understand the effects of miniaturization.

Controlling phase transitions using a three-terminal device^{14–16} can provide a novel opportunity for the study of scaled-down phase transitions, as shown in Fig. 1a. The three-terminal device can control the phase transition by

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applying a gate voltage to an insulating layer to accumulate electrons or holes in the phase transition material. It can electrically modulate the carrier concentration in the phase transition material, changing the free energy balance between phases and inducing the phase transition. Unlike simple two-terminal devices, the control terminals are completely isolated by an insulating layer, enabling control in a quasi-equilibrium state in a similar way to thermodynamic phase control. Controlling phases using three-terminal devices is a long-standing challenge in materials science and has been studied from various approaches, as represented by research on Mott transistors^{17–19}. Some approaches using liquid gates can accumulate a large amount of charge using the electric double layer at the solid-liquid interface and achieve a large control range^{18,19}. However, they also have the fatal problem of unexpected electrochemical reactions, causing a complicated interpretation of the results²⁰. On the other hand, those using solid gate dielectrics can achieve highly precise control near the transition point, although the control range is relatively small^{15,16}. For example, a

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voltage control of 10 mV step corresponds to ultrahighprecision control of several mK steps when converted to temperature. However, despite such promising properties, research using solid-state three-terminal devices is still in its infancy, and there has been no example of its application to the scaled-down phase transition. Past literature on VO₂ three-terminal devices has used relatively long channels above 1 µm (see Fig. S1 in Supplementary Information for details) and has never systematically considered the scaling effect with the exception of only the channel width dependence²¹.

In this study, we focused on the metal-insulator transition of VO₂ and systematically evaluated the effect of miniaturization using a three-terminal device. VO2 is a material that has been used in various applications, such as infrared sensors⁴, thermistors²², switches²³, and neuromorphic elements²⁴, because it induces a phase transition in a convenient temperature range above room temperature and changes electrical resistance by three orders of magnitude²⁵. In a study of VO₂ using a threeterminal device, the phase transition of the VO₂ channel could be continuously controlled from the insulating state to the metallic state by applying a gate voltage near the transition temperature via TiO_2 gate dielectrics^{15,16}. Here, we found that scaling down the VO2 channel to the subµm scale resulted in a completely binary switching behavior instead of a continuous transition. The scalingdown effect was also successfully simulated by the phase transition transistor model, and the critical channel length could be explained by the phase boundary energy. Below the critical channel length, the spatial degrees of freedom of the channel degenerated, and the effect of drain voltage on the phase transition was nullified, showing zerodimensionality as one of the most fundamental properties of scaled-down phase transitions.

Materials and methods

A schematic diagram of the fabricated device is shown in Fig. 1b. A 6 nm VO₂ thin film was epitaxially grown on the Nb-doped TiO₂ substrate and patterned as a channel. The source and drain electrodes were fabricated with the channel length (L = 240 or 490 nm) and the channel width (W = 600 nm), as shown in the atomic force microscope image in Fig. 1c. As shown in the band diagram in Fig. 1d, the Nb-doped $\rm TiO_2$ substrate was the gate electrode, and its interface region with the VO₂ channel was depleted by several tens of nanometers, which could be viewed as a gate dielectric layer that isolates the gate from the channel. When a positive voltage was applied on the gate, the depletion layer expanded, and electrons accumulated in the VO₂ channel, which could induce a metallic transition. The accumulated electron density with respect to $V_{\rm G} = 0$ V could be estimated as 1.9×10^{13} cm⁻² at a $V_{\rm G}$ of 1 V and 4.4×10^{13} cm⁻² at a $V_{\rm G}$ of 3 V (ref. ¹⁶). The relative dielectric constant of TiO₂ (perpendicular to the (101) plane) was approximately 111, which was much higher than that of SiO_2 or high-k materials¹⁵. The depletion layer rather than the entire substrate was used as the gate insulator. These two factors enabled the accumulation of a large number of electrons in our solid-state device, which was a unique characteristic of our device.

Methods

Device fabrication

A 6 nm VO₂ thin film was epitaxially grown on a Nb 0.05 wt% doped TiO₂ (101) substrate via pulsed laser deposition. The Au electrodes for the source and the drain were formed via e-beam lithography and lift-off. Then, a resist mask of the VO₂ pattern was created, and the VO₂ was etched with 0.4 M NaIO₄ solution. As shown in the atomic force microscope image in Fig. 1c, the width of the Au electrode near the VO₂ channel *W* is 600 nm, and the distance between the Au electrodes *L* is 240 nm or 490 nm for two different devices.

Results

Transfer characteristics

Figure 2 shows the temperature dependence and transfer characteristics of several devices with different channel lengths *L*. Figures 2a and 2d show the results for



devices with different channel lengths (*L*), 240 nm, 490 nm, and 50 μ m, respectively. The gate voltage (*V_G*) is set to zero, and the drain voltages (*V_D*) are set to 0.02 V, 0.02 V, and 0.005 V, respectively. **d–f** Transfer characteristics (*I_D* vs. *V_G*) and gate leakage characteristics (*I_G* vs. *V_G*) of the three-terminal devices with different *L* values. Panel **f** is adapted from ref. ¹⁶ with permission (license number 5438180614733). The measurement temperatures are 322.8 K, 322.8 K, and 323.5 K, respectively.

an L of 240 nm, and Figs. 2b and 2e show the results for an L of 490 nm. For comparison, the characteristics for the Lof 50 µm device in ref.¹⁶ are also shown in Figs. 2c and 2f with permission. As shown in Fig. 2a-c, the temperature dependence of the VO₂ channel showed that there was a steep resistance change at approximately 320 K, irrespective of the L values. However, the temperature step of the measurement could not be lower than 50 mK due to temperature fluctuations, and the detailed L dependence could not be evaluated. Therefore, we set the temperature near the transition point and measured the gate voltage dependence, which achieved much higher accuracy. Figure 2f shows the drain current (I_D) vs. the gate voltage $(V_{\rm G})$ for an *L* of 50 µm (W = 35 µm). The 10 mV step in $V_{\rm G}$ corresponded to a 3 mK step in temperature^{15,16} and showed that the transition was essentially continuous (see the plot for 0.03 V drain voltage (V_D)), although it was steep in the temperature dependence. This continuous transition meant that the channel size was sufficiently larger than the domain size of the phase transition, and the averaged characteristics of many domains with different transition temperatures were observed. Moreover, Fig. 2d shows I_D vs. V_G for the L of 240 nm device. The drain current jumped discontinuously even with high-precision measurement via V_G (see the plot of $V_D = 0.0002$ V). This results indicated that the domain size of the phase transition was comparable to the channel length, and the entire VO₂ channel collectively metallized. In the L of 490 nm device ($V_D = 0.004$ V), a partial discontinuity was observed, with a continuous resistance change at the same time. This result occurred because the channel size was slightly larger than the domain size of the phase transition and two types of extreme characteristics were mixed. Thus, the gate voltage dependence successfully elucidated the miniaturization effect in detail.

Although the use of a three-terminal device enabled highly precise control of the phase transition, the effect of $V_{\rm D}$, which was unique to three-terminal devices, needed to be considered correctly. From Fig. 2f, the transfer characteristics significantly changed as $V_{\rm D}$ increased, and the continuous transition became discontinuous above a $V_{\rm D}$ of 0.3 V. The origin of this discontinuity was



transfer characteristics at $V_{\rm D} = 0.004$ V. The transfer curve is divided into three $V_{\rm G}$ regions (blue, green, and red shadows), and the $I_{\rm D}$ variation in each region is attributed to the metallic transition in Areas 1, 2, and 3, respectively. **c, d, e** Experimental data (mark) and simulated data (pink dot) of the transfer characteristics at $V_{\rm D} = 0.02$ V, 0.1 V, and 0.5 V, respectively. investigated in detail in a previous paper¹³, which found that the gate-induced metallic transition triggered the positive feedback of Joule heating under the application of a large $V_{\rm D}$ and resulted in a discontinuous transition. However, in the scaled-down VO₂ channel (Fig. 2d), the effect of $V_{\rm D}$ was almost negligible because in miniaturized devices, the metallic transition collectively proceeded throughout the VO₂ channel, without the capacity for the positive feedback of Joule heating. In fact, the threshold $V_{\rm G}$ for the metallic transition in Fig. 2d hardly changed with increasing $V_{\rm D}$. Thus, the metallic transition, which was initiated by the gate voltage, spread across the entire channel due to the collective nature of the phase transition. In other words, the spatial degree of freedom of the channel was degenerated, and the effect of the drain voltage was nullified, leading to a simple binary ON-OFF operation.

Simulation for intermediate channel length

In the case of the L of 490 nm device in Fig. 2e, the characteristics of continuous and discontinuous transitions were mixed, and the effect of $V_{\rm D}$ was more complicated. To verify whether the characteristics for L = 490 nm were consistent with the phase transition transistor model¹⁶, we performed simulations, as shown in Fig. 3. Although the accurate domain structure was unknown, we divided the VO₂ channel into three areas, and Fig. 3a shows an example to approximately reproduce the main features in Fig. 2e. Based on the characteristics for the sufficiently small $V_{\rm D}$ (0.004 V) in Fig. 3b, three following assumptions were made: Area 1 had a relatively low transition temperature and showed a continuous transition, Area 2 underwent a discontinuous collective transition after the metallization of Area 1, and Area 3 exhibited multiple discontinuous transitions after the metallization of Area 2. With these assumptions, we could approximately reproduce the main features of the experimental data, as shown in Figs. 3c, 3d, and 3e (pink dots). See Fig. S2 in the Supplementary Information for more details. In the simulated plot, the negative transconductance region was observed where $I_{\rm D}$ increased as V_G decreased. This region was actually unstable against fluctuations and led to a discontinuous jump, as observed in the experimental data¹⁶. Thus, the seemingly complex transfer characteristics at L = 490 nm could be understood as an intermediate between two extreme limits.

Discussion

The phase diagrams of the VO₂ channel for different *L* values are summarized in Figs. 4a and 4b. In the long channel (Fig. 4b), a continuous transition governed by spatial heterogeneity was observed, while a discontinuous transition occurred with an increased $V_{\rm D}$. However, in the scaled-down channel (Fig. 4a), the discontinuous



transition was originally achieved, and no change was observed with the increase in $V_{\rm D}$. Specifically, the behavior of the scaled-down three-terminal device was simplified to a binary ON/OFF switching operation regardless of the magnitude of $V_{\rm D}$.

The behavior of the gate-induced phase transition is shown for channel lengths L and the drain voltage $V_{\rm D}$ in Fig. 4c. The heterogeneous continuous transition and the collective binary transition were separated by the critical channel length $L_{\rm C}$, which could be regarded as the static domain size of the phase transition. According to the past literature⁷, the static domain size depended on two competing factors: heterogeneity (spatial fluctuations of free energy) and domain boundary energy. The heterogeneity could be inferred from the transition width of the long channel device as $\Delta T_{\text{MIT}} \sim 0.15 \text{ K}$ in terms of temperature. Then, the heterogeneity in terms of free energy could be calculated as $S_{\text{MIT}}\Delta T_{\text{MIT}}$, where S_{MIT} is the entropy difference between the metallic phase and the insulating phase; this was reported to be 9×10^5 JK⁻¹m⁻² (ref. ²⁶). For the domain boundary energy $E_{\rm b}$, a value of 0.03 Jm^{-2} was used as a reference^{27,28}. Then, the critical channel length (or domain size) was approximately given by the ratio of these two factors as $L_{\rm C} = E_{\rm b}/(S_{\rm MIT}T_{\rm MIT})$ (ref.²⁸). This equation could be interpreted in the following way: a larger $E_{\rm b}$ correlated to a larger domain size $(L_{\rm C})$ due to the suppression of domain boundary formation and a larger heterogeneity $(T_{\rm MIT})$ correlated to a smaller $L_{\rm C}$ due to the potential for an individual transition at each location. This equation led to an $L_{\rm C}$ of 340 nm and was consistent with the experimental results. Specifically, the scaled-down VO_2 channel underwent a collective transition due to the instability of the phase boundary.

Conclusion

In summary, we evaluated the metal-insulator transition of a scaled-down VO₂ channel using a three-terminal device that enabled electrical control with high precision. The results showed a crossover from a continuous transition to a simple binary transition with the scaled-down material. This observation was only possible due to the extreme high precision of the three-terminal control; in the temperature control, the transition of the VO₂ channel appeared to be steep regardless of the channel length due to its coarse precision. The spatial degree of freedom in the channel was found to degenerate with miniaturization, and the impact of drain voltage application disappeared in the phase transition. This meant that the channel effectively became zero-dimensional, which was a unique property of the scaled-down phase transitions. Zero-dimensionality of phase transitions, which nullified some of the applied stimuli, could facilitate the development of state-of-the-art devices and materials, delivering a significant impact on a wide range of science and engineering.

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Author contributions

T.Y. and Y.S. performed device fabrication, measurements, and analyses. T.Y. performed the simulation, and S.H., S.P.P., and A.T. contributed to planning and discussion.

Data availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the authors upon reasonable request.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

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