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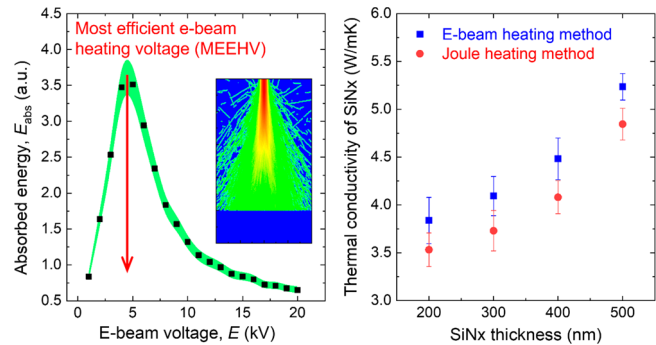
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Adapting the Electron Beam from SEM as a Quantitative Heating Source for Nanoscale Thermal Metrology

Pengyu Yuan,^{||} Jason Y. Wu,^{||} D. Frank Ogletree, Jeffrey J. Urban, Chris Dames,^{*} and Yanbao Ma^{*}

ABSTRACT: The electron beam (e-beam) in the scanning electron microscopy (SEM) provides an appealing mobile heating source for thermal metrology with spatial resolution of ~ 1 nm but the lack of systematic quantification of the e-beam heating power limits such application development. Here, we systemically study e-beam heating in LPCVD silicon nitride (SiN_x) thin-films with thickness ranging from 200 to 500 nm from both experiments and complementary Monte Carlo simulations using the CASINO software. There is good agreement about the thickness-dependent e-beam energy absorption of thin-film between modeling predictions and experiments. Using the absorption results we then demonstrate adapting e-beam as a quantitative heat source by measuring the thickness-dependent thermal conductivity of SiN_x

thin-films, with the results validated to within 7% by a separate Joule heating experiment. The results described here will open a new avenue to using SEM e-beams as a mobile heating source for advanced nanoscale thermal metrology development.



The interaction between the high-kinetic energy electrons from an electron beam (e-beam) and a sample produces a

wealth of signals which provide a variety of insights for scanning electron microscopy (SEM), such as analyzing composition, imaging surface morphology, and investigating the crystalline structures. During the electron-substrate interaction, heat is also generated and this makes it possible to apply the e-beam as a high-quality mobile heat source for generating nanoscale thermal hotspots but also for thermal studies in SEM and transmission electron microscopy (TEM).¹⁻⁶

E-beams have several unique characteristics which are appealing for nanoscale thermal metrology. First, an e-beam's potential spatial resolution of ~ 1 nm is appealing compared to that of alternate techniques for nanoscale thermal measurements, such as the 3ω method, time/frequency-domain thermorefectance, and Raman/luminescence-based methods, which are generally limited by the microfabrication length scale or optical diffraction limit.⁷⁻⁹ Similarly, focusing a high-energy e-beam into such a small area results in nanoscale heat sources with extraordinarily high heat fluxes, easily exceeding ~ 1 MW cm^{-2} . This is valuable for the study of heat dissipation from nanoscale hotspots, which is important for both fundamental understanding and engineering design in micro- and nano-electronics, because nanometer-scale hotspots of up to hundreds of degrees Celsius are believed to influence device performance and reliability.¹⁰ Furthermore, compared to Joule heating by microfabricated heater lines or scanning with a

heated atomic force microscope tip,^{11,12} the e-beam's dynamically controllable shape and position makes it a more nimble heat source for precise manufacturing and thermal studies.

Understanding e-beam heating is also important for one of the most widespread applications of e-beams, namely imaging in SEM and TEM in which this heating is a critical factor limiting the acquisition of structural or chemical data at high spatial resolution,^{13,14} especially for imaging with high e-beam energy in TEM^{15,16} and imaging low thermal conductivity materials in SEM.^{1,17} Similarly, in e-beam lithography temperature effects on the e-beam resist are a significant contributor to errors in feature size and pattern placement.¹⁸ However, the characterization and quantification of nanoscale e-beam heating is still a topic that has seen little research, especially experimentally.

For imaging, the interactions between the incident e-beam and the target materials are routinely simulated using Monte Carlo (MC) techniques.¹⁹ Especially, the Monte Carlo Simulation of electroN trajectory in sOLids (CASINO)⁶⁷

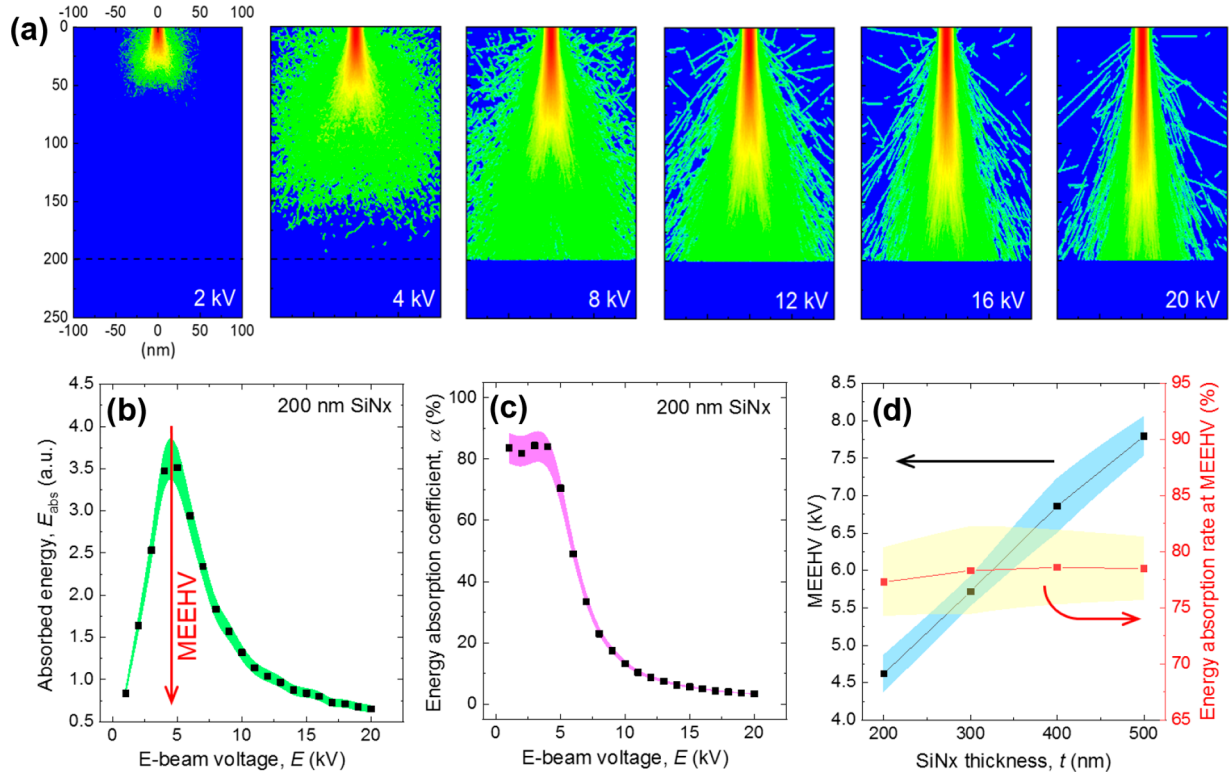


Figure 1. CASINO simulation of electron beam interaction with a 200 nm thick SiN_x thin film ($x = 1.33$). (a) The distribution of electron energy deposited in the thin film for different primary e-beam energies. The color scale has arbitrary units proportional to absorbed energy density (J/m³ per incident electron). (b) The total absorbed energy in the thin film for various e-beam voltages. The MEEHV value is marked. (c) The energy absorption fraction at different e-beam voltages. (d) The MEEHV (left axis) and energy absorption coefficient at that MEEHV (right axis), as functions of film thickness. The shaded bands in panels b–d represent the effects of varying x from 1.1 to 1.5 in the SiN_x thin film.

software package^{20–22} is widely used to simulate the electron–substrate interactions in SEM and has also been applied to develop metrology to estimate thin film thickness based on the intensities of backscattered and secondary electron signals.^{23,24} However, the resultant heating phenomena have rarely been considered. One notable example combined MC simulation of the e-beam energy deposition with electron and phonon hydrodynamic transport equations in the substrate, though such calculations have not yet been experimentally validated.^{25,26} Indeed, to the best of our knowledge the e-beam energy deposition in thin films as predicted by CASINO has never been experimentally verified.

Early experimental studies of e-beam heating included using thin film thermocouples to measure heating during e-beam lithography^{27,28} and the temperature rise of e-beam irradiated freestanding thin films.^{29,30} The thin film studies observed a strong and nonmonotonic dependence of the temperature rise on the e-beam voltage,³⁰ the physics of which was not understood but will be explained in detail below. More recently, e-beam heating in SEM/TEM has been applied for thermal measurements to demonstrate a new microthermometer based on vanadium dioxide nanowire,¹ and to measure the spatially resolved thermal conductance of nanowires^{2,3} and two-dimensional materials (graphene,³¹ black phosphorus,³² and MoS_2 ³³). However, in all of these previous studies the quantitative power delivered by the e-beam was not used (refs 27–30) or canceled out (refs 1–3) of the final thermal measurement. Therefore, the e-beam has not yet been used as a quantitative heat source for thermal measurement.

In this work, we have studied the e-beam heating of 97 suspended silicon nitride (SiN_x) thin films with thickness 98 ranging from 200 to 500 nm using microfabricated calorimeter 99 devices inside a standard SEM. The results validate the 100 absorption energy profiles calculated by CASINO. Then, for the 101 first time we adapt the e-beam as a quantitative heat source 102 to measure the in-plane thermal conductivity of SiN_x thin films 103 with results in good agreement with independent measure- 104 ments using a Joule heating method. These results will help 105 develop the application of e-beam as an advanced mobile 106 heating source for future thermal metrologies at the micro- and 107 nanoscale. 108

RESULTS

Theoretical Energy Absorption Study of the Electron Beam in SiN_x Thin Film. As an electron beam interacts with a specimen, the beam undergoes numerous elastic and inelastic scattering events. Besides creating a broad range of signals that can be used for material analysis, here the inelastic interactions are the main focus because they convert energy from the primary e-beam into heat in the specimen. To obtain a statistical understanding of these complex interactions in the specimen, an MC-based electron trajectory simulation can be performed which calculates the paths of numerous incident electrons using random numbers. In this work, we use CASINO v2.5.1.0^{20–22} to conduct the MC simulation. Targeting the interaction in SEM, CASINO considers key parameters like the e-beam voltage (the kinetic energy of an incident electron) and the atomic number, thickness, and density of the specimen material. The results are widely

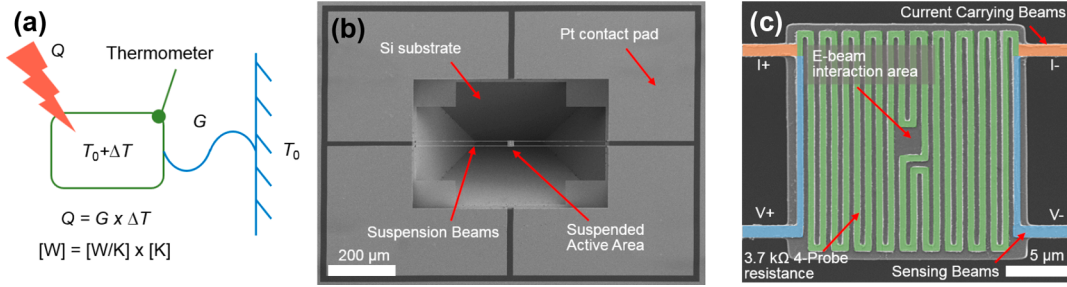


Figure 2. Schematic of the e-beam calorimeter and SEM images of the fabricated devices. (a) The working principle of the calorimeter. The power Q can be determined by measuring the temperature change (ΔT) of the calorimeter using the built-in thermometer and known thermal conductance G . (b) Low-magnification SEM image of the microfabricated SiN_x thin-film based calorimeter. The central suspended area of the device is supported by four $1\ \mu\text{m}$ wide, $300\ \mu\text{m}$ long beams with SiN_x thickness varying from 200 to 500 nm among the various devices. (c) False-color high-magnification image of the central suspended region. The 4-probe PRT is integrated into this island area with the serpentine line (light green) having a resistance of $\sim 3.7\ \text{k}\Omega$ between the voltage probes (light blue).

126 accepted for describing the shape and size of the interaction
127 volume, though experimental validation was not previously
128 available regarding the energy deposition.

129 In this work, we choose free-standing SiN_x films as the
130 system for studying e-beam energy absorption because SiN_x is
131 a well-studied structural dielectric used in many micro-
132 electronic and MEMS devices.^{34,35} To determine the absorbed
133 energy in SiN_x thin films from CASINO simulations, we need
134 to set the specimen information and the microscope
135 conditions. For the specimen, we use three layers, namely a
136 SiN_x thin film sandwiched by the vacuum. The SiN_x chemical
137 composition is specified with the atomic fraction x ranging
138 from 1.1 to 1.5 to match the experimental samples as fabricated
139 by LPCVD and detailed in the following sections. The
140 microscope conditions include the electron beam accelerating
141 voltage, the focused beam size, the number of simulated
142 electron trajectories, and the angle between the specimen
143 normal and the beam direction, and are all set in CASINO to
144 match our experimental conditions. (See [Supporting Informa-
145 tion Section 1](#) for more CASINO calculation details.)

146 We first consider CASINO simulations of SiN_x films with
147 thickness t from 200–500 nm and incident e-beam voltages E
148 from 2–20 kV. Note that the e-beam energy will be directly set
149 in the unit of electronvolt (eV) in the CASINO program;
150 however, we will use the accelerating voltage in the unit of volt
151 (V) to quantify the e-beam energy to make direct comparison
152 with following experiment results. As a representative result,
153 [Figure 1a](#) shows the deposited energy distribution inside a 200
154 nm thick Si_3N_4 (or SiN_x , $x = 1.33$) thin film for several e-beam
155 voltages. Taking the e-beam voltage of 4 kV, for example, the
156 simulation depicts the cross-section of a bulb-shaped electron–
157 matter interaction volume corresponding to the material of low
158 atomic number ($Z = 11.2$ for Si_3N_4 , averaged based on weight
159 fraction²²). Materials of higher atomic number ($Z > 50$) show
160 a more hemispherical shaped interaction volume.³⁶

161 For low e-beam voltages when the e-beam penetration depth
162 is smaller than the film thickness, the absorbed energy
163 increases almost linearly with the e-beam voltage as shown
164 in [Figure 1b](#). This corresponds to a nearly constant fraction of
165 each incident electron’s energy being absorbed in the film,
166 defined as the electron energy absorption coefficient α , here
167 around 82% as seen in [Figure 1c](#) at low energies. We define α
168 such that

$$169 \quad E_{\text{abs}} = \alpha E \quad (1)$$

170 where E is the energy of the incident e-beam and E_{abs} is the
171 corresponding absorbed energy in the film. Even though at low
172 E there is no electron transmission through the sample, the
173 maximum α remains less than 100% because energy is still lost
174 through secondary electrons, backscattered electrons, X-rays,
175 and so forth.

176 Then, upon increasing the e-beam voltage beyond some
177 critical value ($\sim 4\ \text{kV}$ for 200 nm thick SiN_x) a finite and then
178 increasing fraction of the incident electrons can transmit
179 completely through the film. As a result, α decreases with
180 increasing e-beam voltage. We define the e-beam voltage giving
181 the maximum E_{abs} in [Figure 1b](#) as the “most-efficient-e-beam-
182 heating-voltage” (MEEHV). For this specimen of 200 nm thick
183 SiN_x , the MEEHV is $4.63 \pm 0.35\ \text{kV}$, where the uncertainty
184 range corresponds to varying x from 1.1 to 1.5. When the
185 actual e-beam voltage is below this MEEHV level, the thin film
186 can still absorb most of the incident electrons ($\alpha \approx \text{const.}$), so
187 E_{abs} will increase in direct proportion to E in accordance with
188 [eq 1](#). However, when the e-beam voltage is above this MEEHV
189 electron transmission becomes significant and $\alpha(E)$ falls off
190 more steeply than $1/E$, so that $dE_{\text{abs}}/dE < 0$ for $E > \text{MEEHV}$.

191 The thickness dependence of the MEEHV is plotted in
192 [Figure 1d](#). Because thicker films can absorb more electrons at
193 the same incident e-beam energy E , this shifts the MEEHV to
194 larger values for thicker films. The corresponding values of α
195 evaluated at $E = \text{MEEHV}$ are shown on the right axis of [Figure](#)
196 [1d](#). These calculation results show that the α value at the
197 MEEHV is almost independent of film thickness, even though
198 MEEHV itself is a strong function of thickness. Of course,
199 these quantities also depend on the material, which underlies
200 the shaded uncertainty bands seen in [Figure 1d](#) which
201 corresponds to the compositional range $\text{SiN}_{1.1}\text{--SiN}_{1.5}$.

202 From the e-beam matter interaction with its bulb-shaped
203 interaction volume, it is well-known that the location of
204 maximum energy absorption occurs at some finite depth below
205 the specimen surface,³⁷ which is notably different from optical
206 absorption which is maximal at the surface and exponentially
207 decaying into the specimen (the Beer–Lambert law). The
208 depth of the maximum absorbed e-beam energy is much
209 smaller than the e-beam penetration depth R , which itself is
210 defined as the depth at which 99% of the incident electrons
211 have slowed down to rest. The e-beam penetration depth has
212 been extensively studied both analytically³⁸ and empirically,³⁹
213 and the expression introduced by Kanaya and Okayama is
214 widely used³⁸

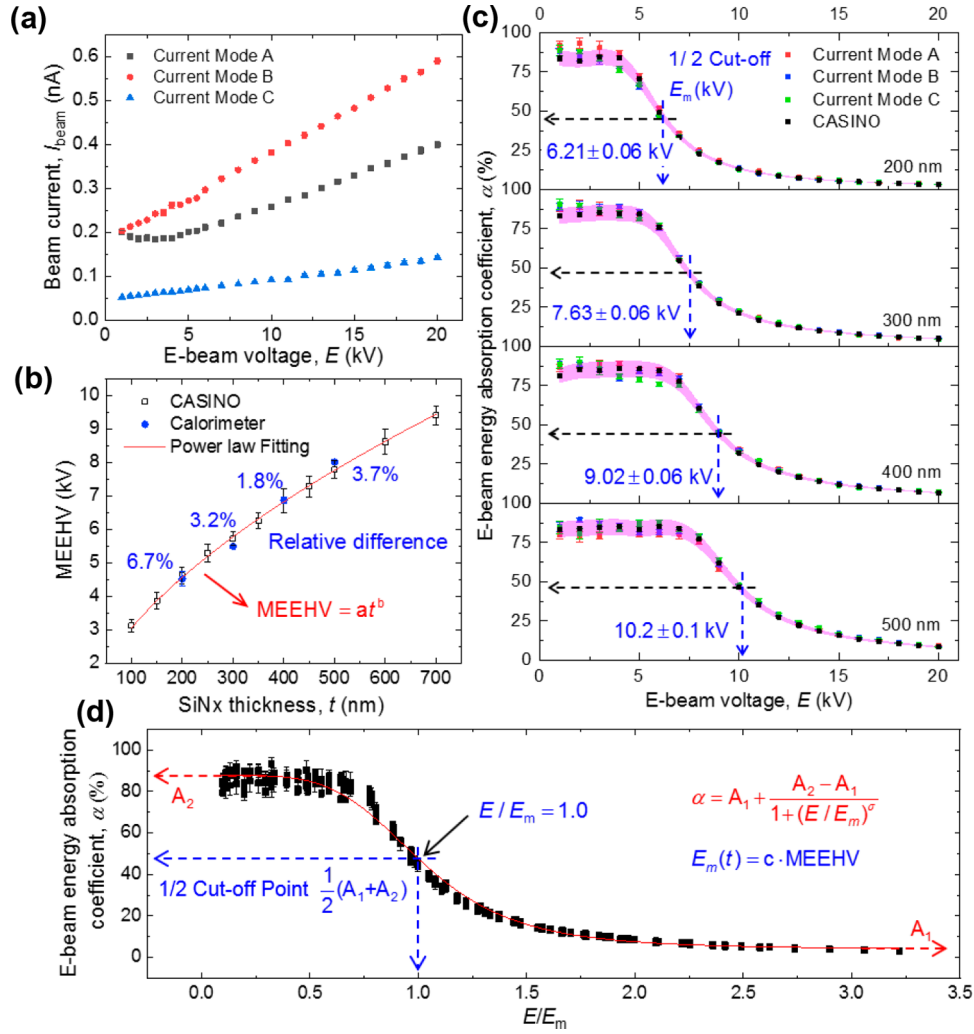


Figure 3. Thickness and current dependence of e-beam absorption. (a) Three current modes used in this work, measured using a Faraday cup. Mode A corresponds to $30 \mu\text{m}$ aperture size in the normal current setting with a typical error bar of 1.1–3.8%. Mode B corresponds to $30 \mu\text{m}$ aperture size in the high current setting with a typical error bar of 1.0–3.4%. Mode C corresponds to $20 \mu\text{m}$ aperture size in the normal current setting with typical error bar of 1.7–4.7%. (b) Comparison of MEEHV values determined theoretically from CASINO and experimentally from calorimeter devices (average of three current modes with error bars showing their standard deviation). The listed percentages give the relative difference between theory and experiment. The power-law fit to the CASINO results yields $a = 0.22 \pm 0.02$ and $b = 0.57 \pm 0.02$ with t in nm. (c) The e-beam energy absorption coefficients from CASINO (pink-shaded band represents the effect of varying x from 1.1 to 1.5) compared with experimental results from SiNx based calorimeter devices of four thickness each with three current modes. The CASINO results for 200 nm thick SiNx are repeated from Figure 1c. A logistic function is used to fit the results for each thickness with the listed midpoint cutoff energies, E_m . (d) Plot of all 16 sets of data from (c) after rescaling E/E_m (points) and a fit with a universal logistic function (line). $A_1 = 4.07 \pm 0.15$, $A_2 = 88.9 \pm 0.4$, and $c = 0.76 \pm 0.01$.

$$R = \frac{0.0276 \times m_A \times N_A \times E^{5/3}}{(Z^{8/9}) \times \rho} \quad (2)$$

where R is the penetration depth in m, E is the incident e-beam voltage in eV, m_A is the atomic mass in kg, N_A is Avogadro's number, ρ is the density in kg/m^3 , and Z is the equivalent atomic number of the specimen. It is also interesting to consider the possibility of nonequilibrium phenomena, which have been studied previously in the context of "aloof" scattering of an e-beam in close proximity to solid matter.⁴⁰ That study showed that nonequilibrium phenomena are most prevalent at time scales ($\sim 10^{-18}$ – 10^{-17} s) and length scales (~ 1 nm) which are far smaller than those of the present study, suggesting that such nonequilibrium phenomena should only become important for much smaller samples with characteristic lengths below ~ 10 nm.

Equation 2 shows that the penetration depth increases with the e-beam voltage and thus so does the depth of maximum e-beam energy absorption. When this absorption depth extends beyond the bottom of the thin film, a significant fraction of the incident e-beam power will transmit through the film, and consequently the absorbed energy will decrease. Thus, the energy absorption coefficient α will also decrease even though there is more input energy from the e-beam. These trends are apparent for E larger than ~ 5 kV in Figure 1b,c.

Experimental Energy Absorption Study of the Electron Beam in SiNx Thin Films. To measure the absorbed e-beam energy in SiNx thin films, we microfabricated LPCVD SiNx-based energy flow calorimeters with built-in platinum resistance thermometers (PRTs) (Figure 2). (see Supporting Information Section 2 for device fabrication details.) The magnitude of the energy flow was quantified by

245 directly measuring the temperature rise of the calorimeter
 246 compared to the surrounding temperature T_0 , that is, $\Delta T = T$
 247 $- T_0$. We estimate that there can be an additional temperature
 248 rise of up to several degrees Kelvin between the e-beam spot
 249 (very center of the island in Figure 2c) and the average
 250 temperature of the island which is determined experimentally
 251 from the PRT (see Supporting Information Section 6). This
 252 additional superposed temperature rise is unimportant for the
 253 calorimetry because it is highly localized primarily to within
 254 ~ 100 nm of the e-beam spot and thus does not reach any of
 255 the PRT, as well as the fact that the typical ΔT of the
 256 calorimeter is much larger, ~ 50 K.

257 We first measured the temperature coefficient of resistance
 258 (TCR, η) and total thermal conductance (G) (see Supporting
 259 Information Sections 4 and 5 for details). It was then mounted
 260 in a custom-built SEM holder with electrical feedthroughs for
 261 e-beam interaction measurements in a Zeiss Gemini Supra
 262 55VP-SEM. High vacuum conditions (1×10^{-6} Torr) make
 263 convection losses negligible. Radiation effects are also
 264 negligible, as estimated using a conservative (high) estimate
 265 of the emissivity of the SiN_x thin film of about 0.3 (ref 41)
 266 which corresponds to an estimated error in the ΔT of the PRT
 267 island of less than 1%. When the e-beam is focused on the
 268 central open square area, approximately $1 \mu\text{m} \times 1 \mu\text{m}$ as seen
 269 in the center of Figure 2c, the absorbed e-beam power will
 270 induce a temperature rise ΔT which increases R_{4p} of the PRT.

271 This SEM has a field emission electron gun with a sub-1 nm
 272 focus beam diameter at >15 kV and ~ 4 nm at 0.1 kV. For e-
 273 beam power measurements, we use 10 000 times magnification
 274 and a 5.5 mm working distance, and position the focused e-
 275 beam at the central SiN_x interaction area is indicated in Figure
 276 2c. Note that the precise location of the e-beam focus position
 277 was varied randomly within this $\sim (1 \mu\text{m})^2$ interaction area
 278 from trial to trial to average the absorbed energy analysis. The
 279 e-beam current I_{beam} depends on the beam voltage as well as
 280 the aperture size in the SEM column with larger apertures
 281 giving higher current.⁴² We studied three different current
 282 modes by changing the aperture size (30 and 20 μm) and/or
 283 engaging the high-current mode setting of the SEM. The
 284 corresponding beam currents are measured separately using a
 285 Faraday cup, with results given in Figure 3a. A fixed working
 286 distance was used because we found that the beam current was
 287 slightly changing at different working distances.

288 **Comparing the Absorbed Energy Determined from**
 289 **Experiment and CASINO.** From the calorimeter equation Q
 290 $= G\Delta T$ and with ΔT from ΔV_s using eq 2, we measured the
 291 absorbed heating power for a given calorimeter device as

$$Q = G \times \frac{\Delta V}{I_s \times R_{4p}(T) \times \eta(T)} \quad (3)$$

293 For each SiN_x device with known thickness, we measured Q
 294 as a function of e-beam voltage and find the MEEHV. In fact,
 295 for each thickness we actually determine three MEEHV values
 296 by using three different beam current modes. To avoid artifacts
 297 from the nonconstant beam current in actual operation (Figure
 298 3a), when determining the experimental MEEHV we use the
 299 current-normalized absorbed energy which is rescaled by the
 300 reference current at 2 kV

$$\hat{Q}(E) = \frac{Q(E)}{\left[\frac{I_{\text{beam}}(E)}{I_{\text{beam}}(2\text{kV})} \right]} \quad (4)$$

where $I_{\text{beam}}(E)$ is taken from the calibration of Figure 3a. This
 normalization is justified because one expects $Q(E) \propto I_{\text{beam}}(E)$,
 since each incident electron is an independent event and this
 was also confirmed by additional experiments. The choice to
 normalize at the I_{beam} from 2 kV is arbitrary, and any reference
 I_{beam} could be used without affecting the calculated MEEHV
 values.

The MEEHV(t) results are shown in Figure 3b with the blue
 circles representing the experimental values averaged over the
 three beam currents, which agree closely with the CASINO
 results. The relative differences between experiments and
 simulation are also given in the figure, for example, 6.7% for $t =$
 200 nm, 3.2% for 300 nm, and so forth. This agreement not
 only validates the CASINO model discussed in the first section
 but also boosts the trust in CASINO to conduct further
 thermal studies involving electron-matter interaction in SEM.
 As mentioned in the introduction, previous studies of the e-
 beam heating of films have been limited to modeling,^{23,25,26}
 and experiments are lacking. Additionally, we extend the
 CASINO calculation of MEEHV for thicknesses from 100 to
 700 nm, and the full range of simulated MEEHV vs thickness is
 well-fit with a power law as shown by the red line in the figure.

Knowing this, MEEHV(t) relationship has several potential
 uses. First, in future applications it could be useful for
 estimating the thickness of suspended thin films. In this work,
 we have found the MEEHV by using a PRT to measure the
 temperature rise, which requires additional microfabrication
 and instrumentation, but in principle the temperature rise
 could instead be measured directly by SEM thermometry
 which is less accurate but simpler and noninvasive.⁴³ Note also
 that knowledge of G is not needed because it never enters into
 the calculation of the MEEHV (recall that the MEEHV was
 found in Figure 1b using arbitrary units on the E -axis).
 Knowledge of the MEEHV is also helpful for thermal
 metrologies which use the e-beam as a heater, because
 operating at the MEEHV gives the peak heating which
 maximizes the signal-to-noise ratio.^{1-3,30} Finally, knowledge of
 the energy-dependence seen in Figure 1b is also helpful for
 optimizing e-beam conditions in standard SEM/TEM imaging
 of suspended samples. Normally low- E imaging can result in
 notable charging effects because low-energy electrons will be
 easily left on the surface, so it is intuitive to increase the beam
 voltage to reduce the charging effect, but this increased
 electron beam voltage raises obvious concerns about damaging
 the sample through overheating. However, Figure 1b shows
 that choosing $E \gg$ MEEHV may be most favorable of all,
 because it reduces charging as well as reducing the heat
 deposited in the sample.

When evaluating the e-beam energy absorption coefficients,
 α_{CASINO} is statistically determined by tracing all the simulated
 primary electrons. The experimental values from the
 calorimeter were calculated as $\alpha = Q/(I_{\text{beam}}E)$ and compared
 with the CASINO results in Figure 3a. We determined $\alpha(E, t)$
 from the calorimeter for the three different current modes, and
 in all cases the results are in good agreement with the CASINO
 simulations as shown in Figure 3c. This detailed experimental
 and theoretical understanding of $\alpha(E, t)$ provides the
 foundation to apply the e-beam as a quantitative heating
 source for nanoscale thermal metrologies, as demonstrated in
 the next section for SiN_x thin films.

To simplify the energy absorption coefficient of SiN_x thin
 films at different e-beam voltage, for each film thickness in

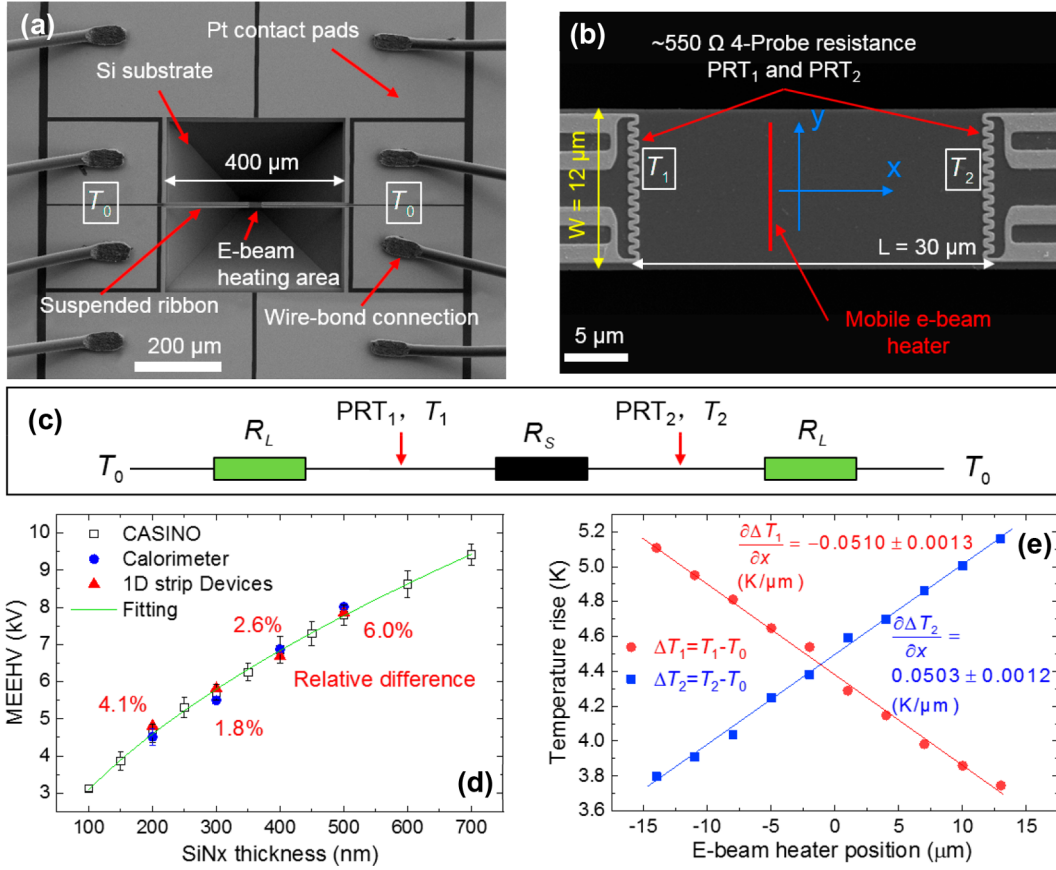


Figure 4. The 1D ribbon device structure for SiN_x thermal conductivity measurement using e-beam heating. (a) Low-magnification SEM image of the microfabricated device. The suspended portion is $430 \mu\text{m}$ long (considering undercut) and $12 \mu\text{m}$ wide with SiN_x thickness ranging from 200 to 500 nm. (b) High-magnification image of the central suspended region which is also the e-beam heating area. (c) The thermal circuit of the 1D SiN_x ribbon device. R_s represents the thermal resistance between the two PRTs. (d) The thickness of these device is confirmed by their MEEHVs (red triangles), which lie very close to previous results repeated from Figure 3b. (e) Temperature rise at the two PRTs as a function of e-beam heater location x , for the 200 nm thick device.

364 Figure 3c we empirically fit the e-beam absorption results with
365 a logistic function

$$\alpha(E) = A_1 + \frac{A_2 - A_1}{1 + \left(\frac{E}{E_m}\right)^\sigma} \quad (5)$$

366

367 where A_2 is the low- E plateau absorptivity, E_m is a characteristic
368 midpoint energy at which $\alpha(E) = (A_1 + A_2)/2$, and σ
369 parametrizes the sharpness of the transition. The fit values of
370 E_m are given in the figure and closely follow a power law $E_m =$
371 at^b , where the thickness t is in nm and E_m is in kV. This power-
372 law exponent is similar to the value $5/3$ in the Kanaya-
373 Okayama range of eq 2, and we also find that $E_m(t) = (0.79 \pm$
374 $0.01) \times \text{MEEHV}(t)$ at least over this range of thicknesses.
375 Such similarity is not surprising considering that they all
376 originate from the same physical mechanism of the e-beam
377 penetration depth reaching and then exceeding the film
378 thickness.

379 For each plot in Figure 3c, there is relatively large data
380 variation for $E < E_m$ and better consistency for $E > E_m$. The
381 absorption coefficient α shown here is an average over various
382 e-beam spot locations in the central $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$ interaction area in
383 Figure 2c. For lower e-beam voltages, we found that the
384 charging effects varied significantly among these spot locations,
385 causing the notable variation. This effect was more limited
386 when higher e-beam voltage ($E > E_m$) was applied.

387 Finally, in Figure 3d we collapse all of the results from
388 Figure 3c into a single universal logistic function, 388
 $\alpha(E, t) = A_1 + \frac{(A_2 - A_1)}{1 + \left[\frac{E}{E_m(t)}\right]^\sigma}$, where $E_m(t) = cat^b$ and the fit

389 values for a , b , c , A_1 , A_2 , and σ are given in the figure for SiN_x
390 and are independent of E and t . The points shown in this plot
391 comprise all 16 sets of data from Figure 3c, both experimental
392 and from CASINO, with the x -axis rescaled by dividing E by
393 each thickness' corresponding $E_m(t)$. The generally excellent
394 collapse of data seen in Figure 3d after this rescaling confirms
395 that for each thickness there is fundamentally only one
396 characteristic energy scale, whether it is discussed as
397 MEEHV(t), $E_m(t)$, or the inversion of eq 2 after equating R

and t , namely $E_{\text{KO}}(t) = \left(\frac{\rho z^{8/9} t}{0.0276 m_x N_A}\right)^{3/5}$. 398

Demonstration of E-Beam as a Quantitative Heating 399
Source for Thermal Metrology: Measuring the Thermal 400
Conductivity of SiN_x Thin Films. Building on the above 401
calorimeter and CASINO study of the e-beam energy 402
absorption in SiN_x thin films, we are now able to use the e- 403
beam for quantitative thermal analysis. In this section, we will 404
demonstrate using the e-beam heater to determine the in-plane 405
thermal conductivity of LPCVD SiN_x thin films, and the results 406
are confirmed by independent measurements using a Joule- 407
heating method. As mentioned above, amorphous silicon 408

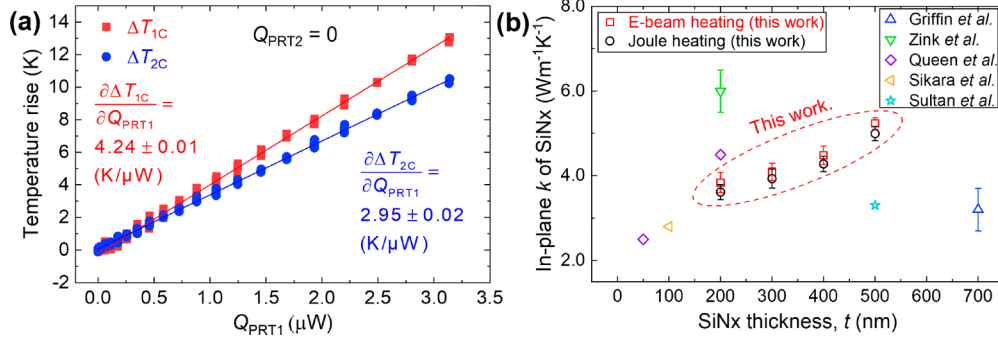


Figure 5. Joule heating approach to measure k of the 1D ribbon devices. (a) Results for the 200 nm thick device: temperature rises of the two PRTs in response to Joule heating by PRT₁. (b) Comparison of SiN_x thermal conductivity at room temperature as determined by the e-beam heating and Joule heating methods. Literature results are from refs 4–6, 50, 61, and 62.

409 nitride is commonly used in many microelectronic and MEMS
 410 devices, including suspended structures.^{34,35,44} As such,
 411 knowledge of the in-plane thermal conductivity of SiN_x films
 412 is important as microfabricated heaters and thermal sensors are
 413 thermally isolated from the environment using these
 414 suspended structures. Furthermore, the thermal conductivity
 415 of SiN_x films can depend on stoichiometry, growth conditions,
 416 and film thickness, so it is generally not accurate to simply take
 417 a reference value from the literature.

418 As shown in Figure 4a, we prepared free-standing SiN_x
 419 ribbon devices using the same processing steps as the
 420 calorimeter. The suspended area is 430 μm long and 12 μm
 421 wide which justifies approximating the heat flows as 1D along
 422 the x -direction of the SiN_x ribbon. The SiN_x ribbon thickness
 423 of different devices ranges from 200 to 500 nm, and is shown
 424 in Figure 4d. Measurements of the MEEHV versus thickness
 425 for these suspended ribbon devices shows nearly identical
 426 response as the previous measurements on calorimeter devices
 427 and CASINO simulations. At the central area of the ribbon
 428 (Figure 4b), there are two 4-probe PRTs which can serve as
 429 both heater and thermometer, separated by a distance $L = 30$
 430 μm. Each PRT's 4-probe electrical resistance is around 550 Ω,
 431 and their TCRs are calibrated to measure the local temperature
 432 rise (see Supporting Information Section 4).

433 The basic principle of the thermal conductivity measure-
 434 ment is depicted in Figure 4b,c. The e-beam was used as a line
 435 heat source at a location x , causing steady-state 1D heat flow
 436 (along $\pm x$ directions) in the SiN_x ribbon to the Si substrate
 437 which acts as a heat sink at T_0 . Two PRTs measured the
 438 resulting temperatures T_1 and T_2 as functions of the e-beam
 439 location x , which as detailed next can be used to determine k ,
 440 the in-plane thermal conductivity of the SiN_x thin film.

441 In developing the detailed thermal analysis model,
 442 convection and radiation losses were both estimated to be
 443 negligible. To experimentally justify a 1D analysis along the x -
 444 direction, we first used local e-beam heating to investigate
 445 possible 2D effects. With the e-beam in spot mode at a fixed x
 446 coordinate near $x = 0$, we moved the e-beam along y and found
 447 that the temperature rises at each of the two PRTs were
 448 independent of the e-beam spot's y location to within 2%. This
 449 variation is mainly random but higher whenever the e-beam
 450 focused on some rough areas (appearing as whiter dots in the
 451 SEM image) which affects the interaction between e-beam and
 452 the thin film. To average out these variations and even better
 453 approximate 1D heat conduction, for all subsequent measure-
 454 ments we control the e-beam to approximate a line heating
 455 source, by rapidly scanning the focused e-beam along the y -

456 direction between +5 μm and -5 μm. This scanning is realized
 457 by a Python-based software platform (ScopeFoundry)⁴⁵
 458 instead of using the default Smart SEM software from Zeiss.
 459 The scanning rate is set as 500 kHz.

460 In the thermal model, define R_L as the thermal resistance
 461 (K/W) of each of the ~ 200 μm long suspended ribbon
 462 sections between the heat sink and the PRTs. Because of the
 463 symmetry of the microfabrication, the two R_L s are nominally
 464 identical, namely the left R_L between T_0 and T_1 and the right
 465 R_L between T_0 and T_2 . Note that R_L includes the parallel
 466 conduction pathways of the SiN_x thin film and the Pt lines on
 467 top. Similarly, the thermal resistance of the SiN_x between the
 468 two PRTs is

$$R_s = \frac{L}{A \times k} \quad (6)$$

469 where $A = wt$ is the cross-sectional area of the ribbon, $w = 12$
 470 μm is the ribbon width, $L = 30$ μm is the distance between two
 471 PRTs, and k is the in-plane thermal conductivity of the SiN_x
 472 thin film.

473 With the e-beam heating line localized a station x as
 474 indicated in Figure 4b, two equivalent expressions for the heat
 475 flow to the left are
 476

$$Q_1 = \frac{\Delta T_1}{R_L} = \frac{\Delta T_i(x) - \Delta T_1(x)}{R_i(x)} \quad (7)$$

477 where $\Delta T_1 = T_1 - T_0$ is temperature rise measured by left
 478 PRT, $\Delta T_i(x) = T_i(x) - T_0$ represents the temperature rise at
 479 the e-beam heating position x which cannot be directly
 480 measured in this experiment, and $R_i(x) = (L/2 + x)/(kA)$ is
 481 the thermal resistance between the e-beam heating position x
 482 and the left PRT. Likewise, considering the heat flow going to
 483 the right, we have
 484

$$Q_2 = \frac{\Delta T_2}{R_L} = \frac{\Delta T_i(x) - \Delta T_2(x)}{R_s - R_i(x)} \quad (8)$$

485 From the overall energy balance, the total absorbed e-beam
 486 energy (Q) is finally conducted to the heat sink through both
 487 ends ($Q = Q_1 + Q_2$), so we have
 488

$$Q = \frac{\Delta T_1 + \Delta T_2}{R_L} \quad (9)$$

489 Then we eliminate ΔT_i from eqs 7 and 8 to have $\Delta T_1 R_i -$
 490 $\Delta T_2 (R_s - R_i) = (\Delta T_2 - \Delta T_1) R_L$. Differentiating this equation
 491 with respect to x and using eq 9 to represent R_L , we can
 492 express the thermal conductivity k as
 493

$$k = Q \times \frac{(\Delta T_1 + \Delta T_2) - \frac{\partial \Delta T_2}{\partial x} \times L}{(\Delta T_1 + \Delta T_2) \times A \times \frac{\partial(\Delta T_2 - \Delta T_1)}{\partial x}} \quad (10)$$

494

495 where eq 9 also shows that the sum $(\Delta T_1 + \Delta T_2)$ is
 496 independent of x , which further implies $\partial \Delta T_1 / \partial x = -\partial \Delta T_2 /$
 497 ∂x . In the experiment, we determine $\partial \Delta T_1 / \partial x$ and $\partial \Delta T_2 / \partial x$ by
 498 placing the e-beam heating line at different x -positions. Here,
 499 we use Current Mode A and operate at each thickness'
 500 corresponding MEEHV value to maximize the signal-to-noise
 501 ratio. Typical results for the 200 nm thick ribbon device are
 502 shown in Figure 4e, which confirms the expected symmetries
 503 of $\partial \Delta T_1 / \partial x = -\partial \Delta T_2 / \partial x$ to within 1.5%. For this device, k is
 504 found from eq 10 to be $3.84 \pm 0.24 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$.

505 The results for thickness-dependent thermal conductivity
 506 using this new e-beam based method are plotted as empty
 507 squares in Figure 5b, which shows that k increases from 3.84 to
 508 $5.23 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ as t increases from 200 to 500 nm. We have
 509 shown that with error bars with 7%, the largest sources of error
 510 include fitting results of $\partial \Delta T_1 / \partial x$ and $\partial \Delta T_2 / \partial x$, and the
 511 absorbed e-beam energy evaluation from the calorimeter. The
 512 general trend of increasing $k(t)$ is very well established for thin
 513 films due to boundary scattering of long mean-free-path
 514 phonons at the film surfaces which reduces k for small t , as is
 515 frequently modeled using the Fuchs–Sondheimer solution of
 516 the Boltzmann transport equation.^{46–48} For the amorphous

517 silicon nitride studied in this work, its thermal conductivity has
 518 been previously reported to contain a significant contribution
 519 from long-mean-free-path propagons as compared to non-
 520 propagating modes,⁴⁹ so thin-film size effects play a role in
 521 thermal conduction. Figure 5b also shows that these measured
 522 k values are comparable to other literature reports for
 523 suspended LPCVD SiN_x with a thickness below 800 nm.
 524 Fifty and 200 nm thick suspended LPCVD SiN_x membranes
 525 were ~ 2.5 and $\sim 4.5 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ respectively.⁵ The $\sim 2.8 \text{ W}$
 526 $\text{m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ was reported for a 100 nm thick LPCVD SiN_x film,⁵⁰
 527 $\sim 3.3 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ for 500 nm thick SiN_x bridge,⁶ and so forth.

528 To validate the $k(t)$ measurements from the e-beam heating
 529 method, we also implemented a Joule heating method to
 530 independently measure k in the same structures. In this
 531 technique, we used PRT_1 as a heater and both PRTs as
 532 temperature sensors. The analysis would be simplest if the
 533 Joule heating were localized purely at PRT_1 , but the two DC
 534 current-carrying leads also contribute Joule heat which must be
 535 taken into account. Therefore, we conducted two sets of
 536 experiments (designated Case A and Case B in the Supporting
 537 Information Section 7) and used a superposition argument to
 538 determine the equivalent response to localized Joule heating at
 539 only the left PRT (Q_{PRT_1}), called Case C. Focusing on Case C,
 540 just as in the e-beam heating method the localized Joule
 541 heating from PRT_1 will flow to both to left and right heat sinks.
 542 Considering the heat flow to the left ($Q_{\text{PRT}_1,1}$), we have

$$Q_{\text{PRT}_1,1} = \frac{\Delta T_{1C}}{R_L} \quad (11)$$

543

544 where $\Delta T_{1C} = T_{1C} - T_0$ is the temperature rise of heating
 545 PRT_1 for case C. Similarly, the heat flow to the right is

$$Q_{\text{PRT}_1,2} = \frac{\Delta T_{1C} - \Delta T_{2C}}{R_S} \quad (12)$$

546

547 also

$$Q_{\text{PRT}_1,2} = \frac{\Delta T_{2C}}{R_L} \quad (13) \quad 548$$

where ΔT_{2C} is the temperature rise of the sensing PRT_2 . Also 549
 from the overall energy balance, the Joule heating at the left 550
 PRT (Q_{PRT_1}) is finally conducted to the heat sink through both 551
 ends, $Q_{\text{PRT}_1} = Q_{\text{PRT}_1,1} + Q_{\text{PRT}_1,2}$, so we have 552

$$Q_{\text{PRT}_1} = \frac{\Delta T_{1C} + \Delta T_{2C}}{R_L} \quad (14) \quad 553$$

As derived in detail in the Supporting Information Section 7, 554
 the thermal conductivity of the SiN_x thin film can be 555
 determined by 556

$$k = \frac{L}{A \times \left(\frac{\partial T_{1C} / \partial Q_{\text{PRT}_1}}{\partial T_{2C} / \partial Q_{\text{PRT}_1}} + 1 \right) \times \left(\frac{\partial T_{1C}}{\partial Q_{\text{PRT}_1}} - \frac{\partial T_{2C}}{\partial Q_{\text{PRT}_1}} \right)} \quad (15) \quad 557$$

An example of the raw data for this measurement is given in 558
 Figure 5a for a 200 nm thick SiN_x thin film. Using eq 15, we 559
 find $k = 3.61 \pm 0.18 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ which is only 6.3% smaller 560
 than the k -value determined from the e-beam heating method. 561
 These measurements for all four thicknesses are compared in 562
 Figure 5b, with mutual agreement between e-beam and Joule 563
 heating measurements always better than 7%. The error bars 564
 for the Joule heating results come from the uncertainty in TCR 565
 and electrical resistance and the variation between k -values as 566
 determined using PRT_1 (e.g., as shown in Figure 5a) and 567
 PRT_2 (not shown in Figure 5; see Supporting Information 568
 Section 7). 569

Comparing heating by the e-beam versus Joule heating of a 570
 PRT, the e-beam heating approach offers several advantages. 571
 First, although the e-beam based k -measurements in this study 572
 required additional microfabrication to create the PRT, in 573
 principle the temperature could instead be measured directly 574
 using the SEM^{43,51} or TEM^{52–56} itself. This will greatly 575
 simplify the microfabrication and make the e-beam heating and 576
 sensing at arbitrary locations and with various shapes. Second, 577
 an e-beamline heater can be narrower than a lithographically 578
 defined PRT, better concentrating the heat source and 579
 simplifying analysis. Similarly, the e-beam better approximates 580
 a sheet source in the yz plane, whereas a PRT heater is a 581
 surface source whose heat must diffuse further down in the z - 582
 direction before it can flow purely along $\pm x$. On the other 583
 hand, the Joule heating delivered by a PRT can be measured 584
 more accurately, and has the potential to deliver much larger 585
 heating powers and thus greater temperature differences than 586
 the e-beam. This last point can be a serious restriction and 587
 means the e-beam heating approach is most appropriate for 588
 samples of relatively low thermal conductance G , that is, long, 589
 thin, and low- k . 590

The thermal conductivity measurement technique demon- 591
 strated here on silicon nitride can in principle also be adapted 592
 to study thin films of other materials, such as polysilicon, 593
 silicon carbide, and metals. For crystalline materials, it is 594
 intriguing to recognize the possibility of directly measuring 595
 subcontinuum heat conduction phenomena, since the 596
 characteristic dimensions of the heater spot size as well as 597
 heater placement accuracy (both $\sim 10 \text{ nm}$) are much smaller 598
 than the intrinsic MFPs (mean free paths) in crystalline 599
 materials, which are typically in the range from $\sim 100 \text{ nm}$ - 10 600
 μm around room temperature.^{57–59} For such measurements, a 601
 modified version of the device shown in Figure 4 could be 602

603 microfabricated with the PRTs as narrow straight lines of width
604 100 nm or less rather than the 1 μm effective widths of the
605 serpentine PRTs used here. Then, by placing the e-beam
606 heater line even closer to a PRT, at small heater–thermometer
607 separations the effective temperature rise seen at the PRT
608 should deviate from the Fourier law prediction due to ballistic
609 phonon effects, although the precise nature of this deviation
610 would have to be calculated using a more sophisticated sub-
611 continuum framework like the Boltzmann transport equation.
612 Another interesting direction for future work would be to
613 rotate the orientation of the e-beam heater line, thereby
614 interrogating anisotropic heat conduction along different
615 directions; this would be the e-beam and nanoscale analog of
616 a recently demonstrated elliptical Gaussian beam laser
617 technique.⁶⁰

618 We also note a limitation when extending this new thermal
619 metrology to other materials. Although the results from the
620 first part of this study show that the e-beam energy deposition
621 as calculated by CASINO is reliable for silicon and nitrogen,
622 and we see no reason to doubt CASINO, nevertheless if
623 applying this new thermal metrology to other materials
624 additional measurements of the energy absorption are
625 recommended before fully relying on such simulations.

626 ■ DISCUSSION

627 We demonstrate how an e-beam can be used as a quantitative
628 mobile heating source and apply it to perform thermal
629 measurements at the nanoscale. Experiments using micro-
630 fabricated calorimeter SiN_x devices of varying film thickness
631 and e-beam energy validate the electron energy deposition
632 predictions of the widely used Monte Carlo simulation
633 program CASINO. These energy absorption results provide a
634 foundation to exploit the e-beam as a quantitative mobile
635 heating source for nanoscale thermal metrology. We
636 demonstrate this capability by measuring the in-plane thermal
637 conductivity of SiN_x thin films of varying thickness with results
638 in good agreement with independent measurements using a
639 Joule heating method. This study shows how the electron
640 beam in an SEM has the potential to develop into a practical
641 tool for noncontact thermal measurements at the nanoscale.

642 ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

643 ■ Supporting Information

644 The Supporting Information is available free of charge at
645 <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.nanolett.9b04940>.

646 CASINO calculation, device fabrication, Joule heating
647 method details (PDF)

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675 Author Contributions

676 P.Y. performed the CASINO simulation and the experiments
677 of energy absorption, e-beam heating, and Joule heating
678 thermal conductivity measurement with the help of J.Y.W. and
679 D.F.O. Also, J.Y.W. and P.Y. designed and fabricated the
680 calorimeter and 1D ribbon devices. P.Y., C.D., Y.M, and J.J.U.
681 wrote the manuscript. All authors discussed the results and
682 commented on the manuscript. 683

684 Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest. 685

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