Microwave Plasma-Activated Chemical Vapor Deposition of Nitrogen-Doped Diamond. II: CH₄/N₂/H₂ Plasmas

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ABSTRACT: We report a combined experimental and modeling study of microwave-activated dilute CH₄/N₂/H₂ plasmas, as used for chemical vapor deposition (CVD) of diamond, under very similar conditions to previous studies of CH₄/H₂, CH₄/H₂/Ar, and N₂/H₂ gas mixtures. Using cavity ring-down spectroscopy, absolute column densities of CH(X, v = 0), CN(X, v = 0), and NH(X, v = 0) radicals in the hot plasma have been determined as functions of height, z, source gas mixing ratio, total gas pressure, p, and input power, P. Optical emission spectroscopy has been used to investigate, with respect to the same variables, the relative number densities of electronically excited species, namely, H atoms, CH, C₂, CN, and NH radicals, and triplet N₂ molecules. The measurements have been reproduced and rationalized from first-principles by 2-D (r, z) coupled kinetic and transport modeling, and comparison between experiment and simulation has afforded a detailed understanding of C/N/H plasma-chemical reactivity and variations with process conditions and with location within the reactor. The experimentally validated simulations have been extended to much lower N₂ input fractions and higher microwave powers than were probed experimentally, providing predictions for the gas-phase chemistry adjacent to the diamond surface and its variation across a wide range of conditions employed in practical diamond-growing CVD processes. The strongly bound N₂ molecule is very resistant to dissociation at the input MW powers and pressures prevailing in typical diamond CVD reactors, but its chemical reactivity is boosted through energy pooling in its lowest-lying (metastable) triplet state and subsequent reactions with H atoms. For a CH₄ input mole fraction of 4%, with N₂ present at 1–6000 ppm, at pressure p = 150 Torr, and with applied microwave power P = 1.5 kW, the near-substrate gas-phase N atom concentration, [N]ns, scales linearly with the N₂ input mole fraction and exceeds the concentrations [NH]ns, [NH₂]ns, and [CN]ns of other reactive nitrogen-containing species by up to an order of magnitude. The ratio [N]ns/[CH₃]ns scales proportionally with (but is 10²–10³ times smaller than) the ratio of the N₂ to CH₄ input mole fractions for the given values of p and P, but [N]ns/[CN]ns decreases (and thus the potential importance of CN in contributing to N-doped diamond growth increases) as p and P increase. Possible insights regarding the well-documented effects of trace N₂ additions on the growth rates and morphologies of diamond films formed by CVD using MW-activated CH₄/H₂ gas mixtures are briefly considered.

1. INTRODUCTION

Nitrogen is a common impurity in both natural and high-pressure/high-temperature (HPHT) synthetic diamond. In natural diamonds, nitrogen impurities are usually found aggregated in clusters (defined as type Ia diamond), whereas in synthetic HPHT diamonds, nitrogen is typically present at lower overall concentration and located in substitutional sites throughout the lattice (type Ib diamond). Nitrogen is an n-type dopant in diamond, and thus nitrogen-doped diamond has attracted interest as a potential high-electron-mobility semiconductor. Nitrogen is a deep donor, however, and the resulting material has not proved suitable for most electronic applications.

Given the abundance of nitrogen on Earth, it is very challenging to achieve nitrogen-free HPHT diamond growth. Producing such material by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) methods has long been seen as more practicable but still requires great care regarding source gas purity and the minimization of air leaks into the reactor. Several previous studies have demonstrated that the presence of trace amounts of nitrogen significantly increases the rate of diamond growth in a microwave...
(MW) plasma-activated (PA) CVD process. Small nitrogen additions have also been shown to affect the surface morphology, and in particular to encourage the formation of \{100\}- rather than \{111\}-faceted surfaces: the former are typically less rough and hence attractive for mechanical applications. Too much nitrogen in the source gas mixture, however, leads to smaller and less-well-oriented surface facets, and a higher sp² fraction in the deposited material. Another less significant but non-negligible consequence of adding large amounts of N₂ is a reduction in the thermal conductivity of the process gas mixture, which can benefit power coupling efficiency by reducing diffusive transport of heat to the reactor walls.

How nitrogen reacts at the diamond surface and why its presence in the gas phase increases the growth rate and influences the surface morphology is still not fully understood. Various nitrogen-containing species have been proposed as participants in gas–surface reactions contributing to diamond growth. CN radicals have attracted attention based on observed correlations between CN(B → X) emission intensities from the hot plasma region and measured growth rates, and CN adsorption on a \{111\} surface has been suggested as a route to nucleating new layer growth. Cao et al. offered a more general view, recognizing possible contributions from a range of gas-phase NH₂ and CNH₂ species. On the computational front, Larsson and co-workers have explored how predominately NH₂ (x = 1, 2) species might affect gas–surface reactions involving CH₂ radicals (which are generally viewed as the dominant C precursor in diamond CVD), and ways in which previously incorporated near-surface substitutional N atoms can influence the energetics, and thus the rates, of the elementary reactions involved in CH₂ incorporation.

Here, we report spatially resolved absorption and emission measurements of several gas-phase species (H(n = 2, 3) atoms, NH, CH, CN and C₂ radicals, and triplet N₂ molecules) in MW-activated CH₄/N₂/H₂ plasmas operating at pressures (∼150 Torr) and powers (∼1.5 kW) relevant to contemporary MW-PACVD processes. The work builds on complementary diagnoses of N₂/H₂ and NH₂/H₂ plasmas presented previously (henceforth paper I), and the experimental measurements are used to inform and tension companion 2-D modeling of the C/N/H plasma chemistry. Similarities and differences between the present model outputs and those from the one previous 2-D simulation of MW activated C/N/H plasmas are highlighted, and possible insights these data provide toward explaining documented effects of trace N₂ additions on the growth rates and morphologies of diamond films formed by CVD using MW-activated CH₄/H₂ gas mixtures are briefly considered.

2. EXPERIMENTS

The MW-PACVD reactor, the laser system, and the optical arrangements for the spatially resolved cavity ring down spectroscopy (CRDS) and optical emission spectroscopy (OES) measurements as a function of height (z) above the substrate surface are detailed in paper I and in prior publications cited therein. Table 1 lists the species and transitions probed in the present study.

CRDS was used to determine column densities of electronically excited H(n = 2) atoms, NH(X), CH(X), and C₂(a) radicals as functions of z, applied microwave power, P, total pressure, p, and gas mixing ratio, as described in previous publications. The present work also relies on column density measurements of CN(X) radicals, as well as further measurements of CH(X) radicals using the B²Σ⁻ ← X²Π transition rather than the more traditional A–X system. All of these species, plus electronically excited (triplet) N₂ molecules, were also monitored by OES, using one of two similar optical set-ups. Similarities and differences these data provide toward explaining the CH(A → X) features used for column density measurements are shown in Figure 1a and on an expanded scale in Figure 1d.

2. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Figure 1a shows a CRD spectrum measured over the wavenumber range 25732–25823 cm⁻¹ at z = 8 mm for a CH₄/N₂/H₂ plasma operating under base conditions. The spectrum is dominated by the P-branch band head of the CN(B → X) (0,0) transition, but as the accompanying PGOPHER46 simulation in Figure 1b shows, also displays lines associated with the CH(B → X) (0,0) transition. For completeness, we note a previous CRDS study, in the context of diamond CVD, of CN radicals in an oxyacetylene flame with nitrogen addition, and a study of CH₄/O₂/N₂ and CH₄/NO/O₂/N₂ flames that exploited this same spectral region. Figure 1c shows an expanded view of a small region of the CRD spectrum centered around 25749 cm⁻¹. This is attractive from a diagnostic perspective because it is free from any contaminating CH(B → X) transitions and includes CN(B → X) (0,0) transitions originating from both high and low J” levels. As such, it offers a convenient probe of the CN rotational temperature, which, given the operating pressure and prevailing collision frequency and as in our previous analyses of the C₂(d → a) spectra, we regard as diagnostic of the gas temperature (T_gas ≈ 2900–3000 K) in the region containing the radicals of interest. The CH(B → X) features used for column density measurements are shown in Table 1a and on an expanded scale in Figure 1d.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>CRDS</th>
<th>OES</th>
<th>[spectroscopic constants; (A-coefficients)]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H⁺</td>
<td>n = 3 → n = 2</td>
<td>n = 3 → n = 2</td>
<td>[31], [31]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH</td>
<td>A'Π ← X'Σ⁺</td>
<td>A → X</td>
<td>[32], [33, 34]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
<td>A'Δ ← X'Π</td>
<td>A → X</td>
<td>[35], [36]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₂</td>
<td>d'Π ← a'Π</td>
<td>d → a</td>
<td>[39], [36]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CN</td>
<td>B'Σ⁻ ← X'Σ⁺</td>
<td>B → X</td>
<td>[40], [41]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N₂</td>
<td>C'Π ← B'Π</td>
<td>[42], [43]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The present work also relies on column density measurements of CN(X) radicals, as well as further measurements of CH(X) radicals using the B²Σ⁻ ← X²Π transition rather than the more traditional A–X system. All of these species, plus electronically excited (triplet) N₂ molecules, were also monitored by OES, using one of two similar optical set-ups. Similarities and differences these data provide toward explaining the CH(A → X) features used for column density measurements are shown in Figure 1a and on an expanded scale in Figure 1d.

Absolute column densities \{M(n = 0)\} (where M = C₂, CH, CN, or NH) can be derived from such spectra using.

References:

5,6,14–16

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The corresponding quantities used for the \( \Delta v = 2 \) atoms by CRDS have been detailed in previous publications. The present analyses assume \( T_{\text{gas}} = 2900 \) K, and by inference, \( T_{\text{rot}} \) in the case of the CN(B–X) lines. The CH(B–X) features, in contrast, depend only weakly on temperature.

\[
\{M (\nu = 0)\} = \frac{8\pi L^2}{A_{l,n}^\text{line}} \frac{g_i}{g_u} \int_\nu \Delta k \, d\nu
\]

(1)

where \( L \) is the length of the cavity (here, 92 cm), \( g_i \) and \( g_u \) are the degeneracies of the lower and upper states involved in the respective transitions, \( A \) is the Einstein A-coefficient for the \( \nu' = 0 \) to \( \nu = 0 \) transition, \( \Delta k \) is the measured change in ring-down rate (in s\(^{-1}\)) at a given wavenumber (\( \nu \), in cm\(^{-1}\)), and \( p_{\text{line}} \) is the ratio of the integrated intensity of the spectral line under study to the total (0,0) band intensity, which can be calculated using PGOPHER and the relevant spectroscopic constants (Table 1) if the radical is localized in a region of reasonably constant \( T_{\text{gas}} \). Degeneracies, Einstein A-coefficients, and favorable lines for probing C\(_2\) CH (via the A–X transition), NH radicals, and H\((n = 2)\) atoms by CRDS have been detailed in previous publications.

The corresponding quantities used for the CN(B–X) transition are \( g_i = g_u = 2 \) and \( A = 1.48 \times 10^8 \) s\(^{-1}\) (ref 41) and, for the CH(B–X) transition, \( g_i = 4, g_u = 2 \) and \( A = 2.80 \times 10^9 \) s\(^{-1}\) (ref 38). The present analyses assume \( p_{\text{line}} = (6.27 \pm 0.45) \times 10^{-3} \) for the P\(_{1}(18.5)\) line of the CN(B–X) \((0,0)\) band at 25750.70 cm\(^{-1}\) and \( p_{\text{line}} = (6.56 \pm 0.16) \times 10^{-3} \) for the R\(_{1}(13.5)\) line of the CH(B–X) \((0,0)\) band at 25736.53 cm\(^{-1}\), where the uncertainty in the effective \( T_{\text{gas}} \) along the column determines the quoted uncertainties in \( p_{\text{line}} \) on the basis that \( T_{\text{gas}} = 2900 \pm 300 \) K. To reduce the influence of baseline variations and other interferences, the CRDS spectra were fitted with respect to the intensities of these lines within the groups of near-lying lines shown in Figure 1c,d, accounting for their known relative intensities and the temperature dependences thereof, rather than to the lines individually. To convert the experimental \( \{M (\nu = 0)\} \) values to total column densities (sums over all vibrational states) requires multiplication by the appropriate vibrational partition functions: namely, 1.83 for C\(_2\) (a), 1.36 for CH, 1.58 for CN, and 1.28 for NH, all calculated assuming \( T_{\text{gas}} = 2900 \) K.

The more obvious differences between optical emission spectra from MW-activated CH\(_4\)/N\(_2\)/H\(_2\) plasmas and CH\(_4\)/H\(_2\) plasmas are in the near-UV region, where the former shows features attributable to some or all of CN*, N\(_2^*\), or NH*, depending on the relative N and C fractions. The H*, C\(_2^*\), and CH* emissions, in contrast, show no obvious changes upon addition of small F(N\(_2\)) to a CH\(_4\)/H\(_2\) plasma. The dependence of the near-UV (324–360 nm) part of the optical emission spectrum on the C/N ratio is illustrated in Figure 2a, which compares spectra of MW-activated gas mixtures comprising 3 sccm N\(_2\) and, respectively, 0, 3, and 10 sccm CH\(_4\) along with 500 sccm of H\(_2\), all operating at base input power and pressure. As Figure 2b shows, increasing

![Figure 1](https://example.com/fig1.png)

**Figure 1.** Part of the CN(B–X) and CH(B–X) \( \Delta v = 0 \) systems (a) as measured by CRDS at \( z = 8 \) mm in a CH\(_4\)/N\(_2\)/H\(_2\) plasma operating under base conditions along with (b) a PGOPHER simulation that assumes \( T_{\text{gas}} = 3000 \) K and serves to illustrate lines associated with the different carriers. Expanded views of the spectral regions used for monitoring CN(X) and CH(X) column densities are shown in panels c and d, respectively, along with accompanying PGOPHER simulations that illustrate the spectral sensitivity to \( T_{\text{rot}} \) and, by inference, \( T_{\text{gas}} \) in the case of the CN(B–X) lines. The CH(B–X) features, in contrast, depend only weakly on temperature.

![Figure 2](https://example.com/fig2.png)

**Figure 2.** (a) Optical emission spectra, measured at \( z = 7 \) mm, of MW-activated gas mixtures comprising 3 sccm N\(_2\) and, respectively, (i) 0, (ii) 3, and (iii) 10 sccm CH\(_4\) along with 500 sccm of H\(_2\), all operating at base input power and pressure. (b) Plot illustrating the variation in relative N and C fractions. The H* emissions, depending on the relative N and C fractions. The H*, C\(_2^*\), and CH* emissions, in contrast, show no obvious changes upon addition of small F(N\(_2\)) to a CH\(_4\)/H\(_2\) plasma. The dependence of the near-UV (324–360 nm) part of the optical emission spectrum on the C/N ratio is illustrated in Figure 2a, which compares spectra of MW-activated gas mixtures comprising 3 sccm N\(_2\) and, respectively, 0, 3, and 10 sccm CH\(_4\) along with 500 sccm of H\(_2\), all operating at base input power and pressure. As Figure 2b shows, increasing...
$F(\text{CH}_4)$ leads to a strong initial increase in CN* emission and a progressive decrease in the NH* emission, while the N$_2^*$ emission intensity is relatively insensitive to changing $F(\text{CH}_4)$.

Figure 3a shows $z$-profiles of the C$_2$(d–a), H($n = 4 \rightarrow n = 2$), and CH(A–X) emissions intensities and (b) the N$_2$(C–B), NH(A–X), and CN(B–X) emissions from a CH$_4$/N$_2$/H$_2$ plasma operating under base conditions measured using the two complementary optical set-ups summarized in the text.

![Figure 3](image)

Figure 3. $z$-profiles of (a) the C$_2$(d–a), H($n = 4 \rightarrow n = 2$) and CH(A–X) emission intensities and (b) the N$_2$(C–B), NH(A–X), and CN(B–X) emissions from a CH$_4$/N$_2$/H$_2$ plasma operating under base conditions measured using the two complementary optical set-ups.

operating under base conditions measured using the earlier optical setup.\textsuperscript{45} Figure 3b shows profiles for the N$_2$(C–B), NH(A–X), and CN(B–X) emissions, obtained using the more sensitive optical telescope arrangement described in paper I\textsuperscript{29} because of the relatively weak near-UV emission. The spatial resolutions obtained with these two set-ups are estimated as \~0.5 and \~3 mm, respectively. Each profile is normalized such that the peak emission intensity is unity. The distributions shown in Figure 3a match those reported previously for the same species in a MW-activated CH$_4$/H$_2$ gas mixture operating under very similar conditions in this same reactor.\textsuperscript{45} As in the N$_2$/H$_2$ plasma,\textsuperscript{29} the N$_2^*$ emission profile peaks at low z, lower than that of the H* emission. The NH* profile also peaks at low z, below the emission maxima of any of the C-containing species, and is less spatially extensive in the CH$_4$/N$_2$/H$_2$ plasma than in a CH$_4$-free N$_2$/H$_2$ plasma. The CN* emission profile maximizes at slightly larger z and is similar in shape to the CH* emission.

From here on, we recognize that the C$_2^*$, CH*, and H* emissions (and, as shown below, the absolute column densities and spatial profiles of these species as determined by CRDS) are changed little by small additions of N$_2$ and focus on the possible diagnostic value of the NH*, N$_2^*$, and CN* emissions and their variations with process conditions. Figure 4a, for example, shows the variation in the respective emission intensities with increasing MW power. Trebling $P$ from 0.6 to 1.8 kW results in an approximately 2-fold increase in the N$_2^*$ emission intensity (measured at $z = 7$ mm), similar to that observed in a pure N$_2$/H$_2$ plasma operating in the same reactor and primarily attributable to an increase in plasma volume.\textsuperscript{29} The NH* and CN* emission intensities show much steeper $P$-dependences, increasing by factors of \~4 and \~15, respectively. These differences are emphasized by the NH*/N$_2^*$ and CN*/N$_2^*$ ratio plots shown in Figure 4b, wherein N$_2$ (by virtue of its comparative unreactivity) is essentially acting as an actinometer. As discussed alongside the C/N/H plasma modeling (section 4, below), the greater increases in the NH* and, particularly, CN* emission intensities can be understood in terms of the small $P$-induced increase in the maximal gas temperature, since a concomitant increase in the H atom density in the hot plasma region accelerates the chemistry responsible for forming these species.

Absorption (CRDS) measurements return absolute column densities and thus provide a more direct measure of the effects of changes in process condition. Figure 5 shows $z$-dependent profiles of [NH($v = 0$)] measured using the NH(A–X) lines detailed in paper I,\textsuperscript{29} of [CN($v = 0$)] and [CH($v = 0$)] measured using the CN(B–X) and CH(B–X) lines shown in Figure 1cd, and of [CH($v = 0$)] measured using CH(A–X) lines, as previously,\textsuperscript{46} with an assumption in all cases that $T_{\text{gas}} = 2900 \pm 300$ K. We recognize that this is likely to be an overestimate of $T_{\text{gas}}$, at the lowest z value (2 mm) for which we report data, but using NH as an example, even if the effective $T_{\text{gas}}$ is as low as 2200 K, the [NH($v' = 0$)] value plotted in Figure 5 would only need to be increased by a factor of 1.1 (i.e., \~10\%). The [CN($v = 0$)] and [CH($v = 0$)] data were both determined under base conditions of 20/3/500 sccm CH$_4$/N$_2$/H$_2$ flow rates, $p = 150$ Torr, and $P = 1.5$ kW. As Figure 6 will show, [NH($v = 0$)] declines greatly with increasing $F(\text{CH}_4)$; the $z$-profile for [NH($v = 0$)] shown in Figure 5 was thus measured with a CH$_4$-lean, N$_2$-rich, 2/15/500 sccm input mixture. As Figure 5 also shows, the [CH($v = 0$)] values obtained from analysis of the B–X lines shown in Figure 1d agree well with those derived using the same CH(A–X) lines as in our previous studies of C/H plasmas, though we note that both are slightly (\~10\%) lower than had been measured in this...
same reactor under nominally identical process conditions in 2008.44 Compared with \{CN(ν = 0)\} and \{CH(ν = 0)\}, [NH(ν = 0)] peaks lower, at z ≈ 4–5 mm, and declines gently with increasing z. Relative to the CH4-free N2/H2 plasma,29 the absolute magnitude of [NH(ν = 0)] measured at z ≈ 4–5 mm is similar (although \(F(N_2)\) is 2.5 times greater in the present experiments), and the decline to higher z is steeper, mimicking the spatial distribution of NH* emission shown in Figure 3b.

Figure 6a illustrates the contrasting dependencies of these three species (measured at z = 8 mm) upon introducing progressively greater \(F(CH_4)\) to a pre-existing N2/H2 plasma operating at base power and pressure. Again, the \{CH(ν = 0)\} and \{CN(ν = 0)\} data were both recorded using \(F(N_2) = 3\) sccm, whereas to increase signal levels, the \{NH(ν = 0)\} data were recorded at \(F(N_2) = 15\) sccm. \{CH(ν = 0)\} is seen to exhibit the same \(X_0(CH_4)\) dependence as found previously in the case of (N2-free) CH4/H2 plasmas, where \(X_0(CH_4)\) is the CH4 input mole fraction.44,49 \{CN(ν = 0)\} shows a similar initial rise upon adding CH4, but plateaus at \(F(CH_4) \approx 2.5\) sccm under the prevailing plasma conditions, while \{NH(ν = 0)\} declines as \(X_0(CH_4)\).3 The corresponding trends for \{CH(ν = 0)\} and \{CN(ν = 0)\} upon adding \(N_2\) to a pre-existing \(F(CH_4)/F(H_2) = 20/500\) sccm plasma operating at base power and pressure are shown in Figure 6b. The former shows a modest (≈33%) increase as \(F(N_2)\) is increased to \(≈ 1.5\) sccm, while \{CN(ν = 0)\} scales almost proportionally with 0 ≤ \(F(N_2) ≤ 7\) sccm.

Figure 7 shows the measured (at z = 8 mm) variations in \{CH(ν = 0)\}, \{NH(ν = 0)\}, and \{CN(ν = 0)\} as a function of applied MW power. Again, practical considerations dictated that the \{CH(ν = 0)\} and \{CN(ν = 0)\} data were both recorded for base conditions with \(F(CH_4)/F(N_2)/F(H_2) = 20/3/500\) sccm while the \{NH(ν = 0)\} data were obtained using modified flow rates of 2/15/500 sccm. \{CH(ν = 0)\} is seen to increase near-linearly with \(p\) over the range 0.75–1.85 kV, as observed previously when using (nominally) N2-free CH4/H2 plasmas.44 \{NH(ν = 0)\} shows a similar P-dependence to \{CH(ν = 0)\} in this CH4/N2/H2 plasma and to \{NH(ν = 0)\} measured in the CH4-free N2/H2 plasma.29 Comparing the absolute magnitudes of \{NH(ν = 0)\} measured in the CH4/N2/H2 and N2/H2 plasmas at any given \(P\), however, we again see that the \{NH(ν = 0)\} values measured in the CH4/N2/H2 plasma at z = 8 mm (Figure 7) are only ≈40% those measured in the N2/H2 plasma, even though \(F(N_2)\) was 2.5 times higher and \(F(CH_4)\) was only 2 sccm. \{CN(ν = 0)\} shows the steepest P-dependence, increasing more than 10-fold over the measured range.

\{CN(ν = 0)\} also shows greater sensitivity to total pressure than \{CH(ν = 0)\}. Figure 8 depicts data for two very different N/C input ratio ranges. As Figure 8a shows, \{CN(ν = 0)\} and \{CH(ν = 0)\} (monitored via the B–X transition and color coded accordingly), measured under base conditions at z = 8 mm, both scale with \(p\) across the range 75–200 Torr. \{CN(ν = 0)\} is a tenth of \{CH(ν = 0)\} at 75 Torr but has a steeper rate of increase with \(p\) and approaches one-fifth of \{CH(ν = 0)\} at 200 Torr. Figure 8b shows data recorded under rather different conditions, closer to those used in practical CVD diamond growth, and over a wider range of \(p\). Again, the measurements were made at z = 8 mm and
with $F(\text{CH}_4) = 20$ sccm (in a total flow rate of 500 sccm). The incident MW power was higher ($P = 1.8$ kW), but the most significant difference was a much lower $F(\text{N}_2)$, equivalent to 0.1 sccm or 200 ppm, introduced as 10 sccm of a 1% N$_2$ in H$_2$ mixture. Again, $\{\text{CN}(v=0)\}$ is very much smaller than $\{\text{CH}(v=0)\}$ (here monitored via the A–X transition) at low $P$ (120 Torr), but $\{\text{CN}(v=0)\}$ increases much more steeply, such that at $P \approx 300$ Torr, the measured $\{\text{CN}(v=0)\}/\{\text{CH}(v=0)\}$ ratio has increased to $\approx 0.1$.

As in paper I, all of the measured trends are now discussed and interpreted in light of companion modeling studies of the prevailing plasma chemistry and composition.

### 4. C/N/H Plasma Modeling

The 2-D $(r, z)$ model used in the present C/N/H plasma modeling draws on previously reported plasma-chemical mechanisms for the two-component N/H and C/H gas mixtures. To these are added a C/N/H chemical mechanism for neutral species, H, H$_2$, CH$_4$ $(x = 0–4)$, C$_2$H$_4$ $(y = 0–6)$, C$_3$H$_4$ $(x = 0–2)$, C$_4$H$_6$ $(x = 0–2)$, NH, $(x = 0–3)$, N$_2$, and H$_2$CN $(x = 0–2)$, and kinetic data for C/N coupling, H-shifting, and thermal decomposition reactions involving the additional species H$_2$CNH, H$_2$CNH$_2$, and H$_2$CNH$_2$. As considered were the reaction kinetics of electrons in different C/N/H mixtures for electron–ion recombination reactions, and ion interconversion reactions involving H$_2$^+, H$_3$^+, C$_2$H$_2$^+, C$_3$H$_3$^+, N$_2$H^+, NH$_2$^+, and HCNH$. The most important of the N$_2$ dissociation reactions and C/N coupling reactions are listed in Table 2, but the full base reaction mechanism involved 45 species and $\approx 350$ direct and reverse reactions. The effects of adding a few further species (e.g., HCCN, NCCN, C$_2$H$_3$CN, and CH$_2$CN) were probed, but none were found to have any serious consequence and thus were ultimately omitted. All of the important plasma-chemical conversions identified in the C/H and N/H plasma modeling studies still play significant roles in the C/N/H plasma, but since these have been elaborated previously, we henceforth concentrate particularly on C/N coupling effects. “Base” conditions for the calculations were the same as in the experiments except that the modeling assumes

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**Figure 7.** Solid points show measured variations in $\{\text{CH}(v=0)\}$, $\{\text{NH}(v = 0)\}$, and $\{\text{CN}(v = 0)\}$ with increasing MW power for plasmas formed using CH$_4$/N$_2$/H$_2$ flow rates of 20/3/500 sccm (for CH and CN) and 2/15/500 sccm (for NH). All measurements were made at $z = 8$ mm. The corresponding quantities returned by the model calculations described in section 4 are indicated by open symbols. As in Figure 5, the calculated $\{\text{CN}(v = 0)\}$ values have been increased by a factor of 3.5 prior to display.

**Figure 8.** Measured variations in $\{\text{CH}(v = 0)\}$ and $\{\text{CN}(v = 0)\}$ as a function of total gas pressure measured (a) under base conditions, over the range 75–200 Torr, and (b) at $P = 1.8$ kW with $F(\text{CH}_4) = 20$ sccm and an effective $F(\text{N}_2) = 0.1$ sccm (in a total flow rate of 500 sccm) over the range 120 $\leq P \leq 300$ Torr. All measurements were made at $z = 8$ mm. The corresponding quantities returned by the model calculations described in section 4 are shown by open symbols in panel a. As in Figure 5, the calculated $\{\text{CN}(v = 0)\}$ values have been increased by a factor of 3.5 prior to display.

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**Table 2. Most Important N$_2$ Dissociation and C/N Coupling Reactions Included in the Present Study with T-Dependent Rate Coefficients $k$ (cm$^3$ mol$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$)$^{ab}$**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>reaction</th>
<th>rate coefficient $k = A T^b \exp(-E/RT)$</th>
<th>$A$</th>
<th>$b$</th>
<th>$E$</th>
<th>ref</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N$_2$(A3) + H $\Rightarrow$ NH + N</td>
<td>1.2 x 10$^{12}$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3850</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH$_3$ + N $\Rightarrow$ HCN + H</td>
<td>6.10 x 10$^{14}$</td>
<td>-0.31</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>50</td>
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<tr>
<td>CH$_3$ + N $\Rightarrow$ HCN + H$_2$</td>
<td>3.70 x 10$^{12}$</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>-90</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH$_3$ + NH $\Rightarrow$ HCNH + H</td>
<td>4.00 x 10$^{13}$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH + N$_2$ $\Rightarrow$ HCN + N</td>
<td>3.12 x 10$^{9}$</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>20130</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C + N$_2$ $\Rightarrow$ CN + N</td>
<td>6.30 x 10$^{13}$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>46020</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CN + H$_2$ $\Rightarrow$ HCN + H</td>
<td>2.95 x 10$^{5}$</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>2240</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H + H$_2$CN $\Rightarrow$ HCN + H$_2$</td>
<td>7.80 x 10$^{5}$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^{ab}$Units: cal, cm, s, $R = 1.9873$ cal (mol K)$^{-1}$. N$_2$(A3) represents the metastable A$^3\Sigma_u^+$ state (the lowest-energy triplet state) of N$_2$, and the gas temperature $T$ is quoted in K.
4.1. Plasma-Chemical Conversions in C/N/H Plasmas: Modeling the Effects of Adding CH4 to a N/H Plasma.

Important findings from our previous investigations of C/H plasmas include that (i) the absorbed MW power is expended mainly on gas heating, via rotational or vibrational excitation of H2, (ii) there is rapid redistribution within the CH2 and C2H groups as a result of fast H-shifting reactions, and (iii) there exist three characteristic regions within the reactor volume, distinguished by the prevailing C2Hx interconversion reactions.44,49 A key result of our analyses of MW-activated N/H plasmas29 was that the dominant N2 decomposition mechanism in an N2/H2 plasma involves formation of various N2* states by electron impact excitation, the radiative or collisional relaxation of which results in an overpopulation (relative to local thermodynamic equilibrium) of the lowest, metastable AΣu⁺ triplet state, henceforth abbreviated as N₂(A3). That is,

\[ N_2 + e \rightarrow N_2(A3) + e \]  
(2)

which can be followed by reaction with H atoms:

\[ N_2(A3) + H \rightarrow NH + N \]  
(3)

In the case of C/N/H plasmas, this source is complemented by reaction 4, which was assumed to be the dominant source of N atoms in the one previous modeling study of a MW-activated C/N/H plasma:30

\[ CH + N_2 \rightarrow HCN + N \]  
(4)

Reaction 4 is only mildly endothermic (\( \Delta H < 0.2 \text{ eV} \)), with a calculated maximal rate \( R_p \approx 1.6 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1} \) in the hot plasma center at the present base conditions. As such, it is of comparable importance to reaction 3 as a source of N and NH species in the plasma core, and its impact extends further into the cooler regions. Integrating over the whole reactor volume, reaction 4, rather than reaction 3, is calculated to make the greater contribution to N atom production for \( p \geq 150 \text{ Torr} \) and input methane fractions \( \geq 4\% \). \( R_p \) drops sharply with decreasing \( p \), e.g., maximal \( R_p \approx 3 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1} \) at \( p = 75 \text{ Torr} \) due to the fall of both \( [N_2] \) and \([CH]\), while the maximal rates of reaction 3 only vary by \( \approx 30\% \) upon decreasing \( p \) from 150 to 75 Torr. This latter result can be explained by recognizing that the \( \approx 3\)-fold decrease in \([H]\) upon decreasing \( p \) from 150 to 75 Torr is compensated by a corresponding increase in \([N_2(A3)]\) as a result of its reduced quenching by H and H2.

\[ C + N_2 \rightarrow CN + N \]  
(5)

is more strongly endothermic (\( \Delta H \approx 2 \text{ eV} \)) and its calculated rate is correspondingly lower than (namely, around a quarter) that of reaction 4 under base conditions in the hot plasma region.

Reactions 4 and 5 contribute also to H2CN (\( x = 0, 1 \)) production, but as in our previous modeling of C/N/H gas mixtures in a hot filament CVD reactor,51 the present analysis reveals other, more important, sources within the family of reactions involving the H2CNHx (\( y = 0 \) for \( z = 0 \), and \( y = 2 \) for \( z = 1 \)) group. The observed decrease in \([NH(y = 0)]\) upon CH2 addition (recall Figure 6b) is one indicator of a family of reactions between NH2 and CH2 (\( x = 0 \)–3) radicals that, taken together, are an important source of H2CNHx species. Of this set, reactions 6–8 involving CH3 radicals predominate under the present conditions:

\[ CH_3 + N \rightarrow H_2CN + H \]  
(6)

\[ CH_3 + NH \rightarrow H_2CNH + H \]  
(7)

\[ CH_3 + N = HCN + H_2 \]  
(8)

Other members of the family, for example, CH2 + N = HCN + H and CH + NH = HCN + H, make lesser contributions. The NHx and H2CNHx species are processed further, by thermal decomposition and through their participation in fast H-shifting reactions, in favor of NH2 and HCN (which is the most stable CN-containing species in the present environment). That said, N2 remains the dominant N-containing species, as in the MW-activated N2/H2 and NH2/H2 mixtures.29 For the base C/N/H gas mixture, the present calculations suggest that N2 constitutes >99.5% of the total nitrogen content within the reactor and \( \approx 99.2\% \) of the nitrogen content even in the hot plasma region. HCN accounts for \( \leq 0.5\% \) of the nitrogen content in the entire reactor; the total NH3 content is roughly 2 orders of magnitude lower still.

Figure 9 shows the spatial distributions of the CN and NH radical number densities, \([CN]\) and \([NH]\), returned by the 2-D model for base conditions. The observed localization is consistent with the combined effects of primary production of CN and NH radicals in the hot plasma region, the above-mentioned species interconversions, and diffusional and thermodiffusional transfer of both radical and stable species. The calculated \([CH]\) \((r,z)\) distribution is very similar to that of \([CN]\), and thus not shown; the calculated forms of the \([CH]\) and \([C_2]\) distributions are also very similar to those reported in our earlier modeling of MW-activated C/H plasmas.49 The predicted localization of these radical species within the hot plasma region is fully consistent with the \( T_{\text{eff}} \) values returned by the corresponding CRDS measurements (Figure 1) and the \( z \)-profiles shown in Figures 3 and 5.

The predicted \((r,z)\) distributions of \([N_2]\), \([N]\), and \([NH_2]\) are each similar to the corresponding distributions in an N2/H2 plasma25 and so are not repeated here. The present calculations show HCN distributed throughout the whole reactor volume, despite its production being concentrated in the hot plasma region, with a mole fraction distribution that maximizes in the cold (near-wall) regions as a result of thermodiffusional transfer. In contrast to the radical species featured in Figure 9, for which the production and loss terms tend to be in local balance, the HCN distribution is determined by the balance between the
production reactions outlined above and the outflow of HCN from the reactor.

We now consider the spatial distribution and the absolute values of the CN concentration in detail. The [CN] spatial distribution is determined by the product of [HCN] and the \([H]/[H_2]\) ratio as a result of the fast equilibration reaction

\[
CN + H_2 \rightleftharpoons HCN + H
\]

(9)

The forward reaction is exothermic (\(\Delta H \approx -1.3 \text{ eV}\)), and the excess energy is preferentially partitioned into HCN product vibration, particularly the C–H stretch mode \((\nu_3)\).57 The rates of the forward \((R_{f})\) and reverse \((R_{r})\) reactions in the hot plasma region under base conditions are both calculated to be \(\approx 2.5 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}\). These rates are higher than the vibrational–translational \((V-T)\) relaxation rate of HCN \((v > 0)\) molecules through collision with \(H_2\), CH_3, or HCN, and could be comparable with the \(\{NH(\nu = 0)\}\) rate of \(V-T\) relaxation through collision with H atoms. The measured CN column densities shown in Figures 5–7 are all \(\approx 3.5\) times those simulated on the basis of vibrational–translational equilibrium: this implies, in particular, the assumption that the vibrational temperature \(T_{\nu}(\text{HCN}, \nu_3) \approx T_{\text{tot}}\). However, given the rapidity of reaction 9 relative to likely relaxation processes, we cannot exclude the possibility that \(T_{\nu}(\text{HCN}, \nu_3) \gg T_{\text{tot}}\). Thus, while the 3.5-fold discrepancy could be due to imperfections in the assumed reaction mechanisms and/or temperature-dependent rate coefficients, given the quantitative accuracy with which the density distributions of the other species are reproduced, it could also be explained in a more restricted and physically motivated sense. Assigning an enhanced rate constant for HCN \((\nu_3 > 0)\) molecules in the endothermic reaction \((-9)\) would have the required effect of increasing the steady-state CN concentration by some factor \(b\). As Figures 5–7 show, the experimental and model \(\{CN(\nu = 0)\}\) values are in excellent accord if we take \(b \approx 3.5\).

A square-root dependence, \(\{CH(\nu = 0)\} \sim F(\text{CH}_4)^{0.5}\), reminiscent of that shown in Figure 6a, was observed and explained previously for C/H plasmas.49 \{CN(\nu = 0)\} in the present C/N/H plasmas shows a similar \(F(\text{CH}_4)^{0.5}\) dependence for \(F(\text{CH}_4) < 0.5 \times F(\text{N}_2)\) but saturates for \(F(\text{CH}_4) \approx F(\text{N}_2)\), whereas \(\{NH(\nu = 0)\}\) varies as \(F(\text{CH}_4)^{-0.5}\) while \(N_2\) is in excess. As Figure 6a shows, the present 2-D modeling reproduces all of these trends and dependences well. The saturation in \(\{CN(\nu = 0)\}\) with increasing \(F(\text{CH}_4)\), and thus increasing \(\{CH(\nu = 0)\}\), reflects the concomitant reduction in \(\{NH(\nu = 0)\}\) \(x = 0-3\), which is due to reactions 6–8 and the saturation of \(\text{H}_2\text{CNH}_2\) sources.

The dominant ions in the plasma also change upon \(\text{CH}_4\) addition. The most abundant ions in the base N/H plasma considered in paper I are \(\text{NH}_3^+\) and \(\text{N}_2\text{H}^+\), whereas the present calculations identify the most abundant ions in the base C/N/H plasma as \(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5^+\) and \(\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{H}^+\), as in a C/H plasma, but supplemented by HCN\(\text{H}^+\) and \(\text{NH}_3^+\). Other more complex \(\text{H}_2\text{C}_n\text{N}_m^+\) ions are not included in the reaction scheme as we assume them to be decomposed effectively in the hot plasma region.

4.2. Effects of Varying the Applied Microwave Power and the Total Pressure. The consequences of varying power and pressure on N/H and C/N/H plasmas are deduced to be very similar. As for the N/H plasma,29 the observed variations with increasing \(P\) can be explained in terms of a progressive increase in the plasma volume \(V_{\text{pl}} \sim P\), with \(V_{\text{pl}} \approx 70 \text{ cm}^2\) under base conditions, giving a spatially averaged power density, \(Q \approx 21.5 \text{ W cm}^{-3}\) while maintaining a broadly constant \(T_\text{e} \approx 1.25 \text{ eV}\) at the plasma center. The 2-D modeling shows the maximum gas temperature, \(T_{\text{max}}\), increasing by \(\approx 4\%\) (from 2770 to 2890 K) as \(P\) is increased from 750 to 1500 W. As Figure 7 shows, the predicted variations in \(\{CH(\nu = 0)\}\), \(\{CN(\nu = 0)\}\), and \(\{NH(\nu = 0)\}\) match the measured trends well.

Modeling also shows that decreasing \(P\) at constant \(P\) is accommodated by a modest (less than proportional to the pressure drop) increase in the plasma volume, \(V_{\text{pl}}\), while maintaining \(n_e\) broadly constant and with a minor increase in the electron temperature: \(T_\text{e}\) increases \(\approx 10\%\) upon decreasing \(P\) from 150 to 75 Torr. The 2-D model succeeds in capturing all of the observed \(P\)-dependent trends in the species column densities, as shown in Figure 8a. As with the N/H plasma,29 the \(z\)-dependent \(\{NH(\nu = 0)\}\) profile (shown in Figure 5 for the case of \(P = 150 \text{ Torr only}\) is shown by both experiment and modeling to become flatter at lower pressure.

The measured \(\{\text{CN}(\nu = 0)\}\) column densities and \(\text{CN}^+\) emission intensities both increase more steeply with increasing \(P\) or \(p\) than do the corresponding \(\{CH(\nu = 0)\}\) and \(\text{CH}^+\) emissions (recall Figures 4, 7, and 8). The \(p\)-dependence can be understood by recognizing that \(\text{CN}\) is determined by the equilibrium 9: \[\text{[CN]} = [H] \times ([\text{HCN}] / [H_2]) \times k_{\text{f}} / k_{\text{r}} \times [\text{H}_2] \times [\text{HCN}].\] Both stable species with concentrations that scale as \([\text{H}_2] \sim p \text{ and } [\text{HCN}] \sim p^{1.5}\). The latter trend reflects the enhanced decomposition of \(\text{N}_2\) with increasing \(p\) via reactions 3–5, followed by reactions 6–9. [H] scales with \([\text{H}_2]^2\), given that the main H atom production route is

\[
\text{H}_2 + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{H} + \text{H} + \text{H}_2
\]

(10)

This simple analysis predicts that \(\{\text{CN}\}\) will show a \(p^{1.5}\)-dependence, as should \(\{\text{CN}(\nu = 0)\}\) if we ignore the small \(p\)-dependence of the plasma radius, \(R_{pl}\).

The equilibrium 9 was also analyzed at different applied microwave powers \(P\). At a constant pressure \(p = 150 \text{ Torr}\), modeling returns \([\text{HCN}] \sim p^{0.5}\) and \([\text{H}] \sim p \times [\text{H}_2]\) is essentially independent of \(P\), and thus we predict the functional behavior \(\{\text{CN}\} \sim p^{1.5}\). Recognizing the plasma expansion with increasing power \((R_{pl} \sim p^{0.5})\), we have \(\{\text{CN}\} \sim p^2\), which is a little less steep than the experimentally observed dependence of \(\{\text{CN}(\nu = 0)\} \sim p^{2.5}\) (Figure 7).

4.3. Effects of Varying \(F(\text{N}_2)\) and Implications for N-Doping of Diamond. The observed linear dependence of \(\{\text{CN}(\nu = 0)\}\) and \(\{\text{NH}(\nu = 0)\}\) on \(F(\text{N}_2)\) (Figure 6) is simply a consequence of their main sources, reactions 3–8. As discussed above in the context of adding \(\text{CH}_4\) to a N/H plasma, introducing \(\text{N}_2\) into a C/H plasma can both change the dominant ions and introduce additional subsidiary, but relatively complex and reactive, \(\text{H}_n\text{C}_m\text{N}_n^+\) ions. The observed jump in \(\{\text{CH}(\nu = 0)\}\) at low \(F(\text{N}_2)\) (also seen in Figure 6) provides indirect evidence for the appearance of such \(\text{H}_n\text{C}_m\text{N}_n^+\) species. Introducing \(X_0(\text{N}_2) < 0.1\%\) to a 4\% \(\text{CH}_4/\text{H}_2\) mixture cannot have a significant effect on the neutral C/H chemistry or the \(\text{C}_n\text{H}_m\) species concentrations but, by replacing some of the dominant \(\text{C}_n\text{H}_m^+\) ions by more complex \(\text{H}_n\text{C}_m\text{N}_n^+\) ions having higher electron–ion recombination rates, could change the plasma volume, power density, or maximal gas temperature sufficiently to induce the observed jump in \(\{\text{CH}(\nu = 0)\}\). We have previously observed and explained a more dramatic jump in \([\text{H}(n = 2)]\) induced by a change in dominant ion from \(\text{H}_2^+\) in a pure \(\text{H}_2\) plasma to a mixture of \(\text{C}_n\text{H}_m^+\) and \(\text{C}_n\text{H}_m\text{N}_n^+\) ions upon introducing \(\text{CH}_4\).

As noted in the Introduction, longstanding unresolved aspects of diamond CVD from C/N/H plasmas include the nature of the
Table 3. Calculated Gas Temperatures, $T_{gas}$ [N$_3$/(CN)$_{10}$ × 3.5], and [N$_3$]/[CH$_3$]$_{10}$ Concentration Ratios, $R_{inc}(N)/R_{inc}(CH)_{10}$ and ($R_{inc}(N)/R_{inc}(CH)_{10}^*$)/($X(N)_j/X(CH)_j$) Incorporation Rate Ratios, and Selected Species Concentrations (in cm$^{-3}$) above the Substrate Center (at $r = 0, z = 0.5$ mm) from Which These Ratios Are Derived for a Range of C/N/H Gas Mixtures and Process Conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$X(N)_j$ (%)</th>
<th>$X(CH)_j$ (%)</th>
<th>$p$ (Torr)</th>
<th>$P$ (kW)</th>
<th>$T_{gas}$ (K)</th>
<th>$[N_3]/[CH_3]_{10}$</th>
<th>$[N_3]/[CH_3]_{10}^*$</th>
<th>($X(N)_j/X(CH)_j$)</th>
<th>$R_{inc}(N)/R_{inc}(CH)_{10}$</th>
<th>$R_{inc}(N)/R_{inc}(CH)_{10}^*$</th>
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<td>2.23 × 10$^{-2}$</td>
<td>1.59 × 10$^{-2}$</td>
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</table>

Table 3 presents calculated species number densities just above the substrate center ($r = 0, z = 0.5$ mm) for four different $N_3$ input mole fractions (1, 20, 100, and 6000 ppm) under otherwise base conditions and for two other values of $P (0.75$ and $3$ kW) and one gas-phase precursor(s) responsible for N-doping and the cause of the growth rate enhancement upon small (even down to the level of a few ppm) additions of $N_3$ to the process gas. The current study directly addresses the first of these questions.
other value of $p$ (75 Torr) with the base, 0.6% N$_2$/4% CH$_4$/H$_2$ mixture. Two other C/N/H gas mixtures are also considered for which the input N mole fraction (0.6% and 3% N$_2$, respectively) exceeds that of C (0.4% CH$_4$), again with the balance being H$_2$ and at base conditions of $p$ and $p$. The values reported in Table 3 are the raw model outputs, apart from the case of CN, where the values have been increased by the empirical factor $b \approx 3.5$. Of the directly incorportable N-containing species included in the model, N, NH, NH$_2$, and CN, atomic nitrogen is the most abundant close to the diamond surface under base $p$ and $p$, and the near-surface N atom number densities, [N]$_{ns}$ returned by the modeling are typically an order of magnitude higher than [CN]$_{ns}$. However, [CN]$_{ns}$ increases more rapidly than [N]$_{ns}$ upon increasing $p$ or $p$, so that the predicted [N]$_{ns}$/[CN]$_{ns}$ ratio shows a $\approx$5-fold decrease upon doubling $p$ from 75 to 150 Torr or $p$ from 1.5 to 3 kW. This trend suggests that gas–surface reactions involving CN may become an increasingly important route to incorporating N within diamond grown at high $p$ and $p$.

The near-surface species concentrations returned by the plasma modeling are necessary but not sufficient information for estimating the relative contributions different species make to diamond growth. This determination is also sensitive to the relative sticking coefficients $\gamma$ of the various species at a growing diamond surface. These quantities, and their variation with process conditions, are still not well characterized however. Prior molecular dynamics simulations of CH$_x$ (x = 0–3) encounters with diamond (100) and (111) surfaces at temperatures relevant to diamond CVD found that sticking is more probable if the surface radical site (henceforth Cs) has been rationalized using complementary 2-D ($r$, $z$) coupled kinetic and transport modeling, which succeeds, mostly quantitatively, in reproducing all of the measured trends in species column densities and OES intensities. After calibration against experiment, the model was run over a wider range of N/C input ratios, $2.5 \times 10^{-5} \leq X_0(N)_2/X_0(CH_4) \leq 7.5$, than could be explored experimentally, as well as with a higher MW power of 3 kW.

Key findings include the following:

(i) For base conditions of $p$ = 150 Torr and $p$ = 1.5 kW, strongly bound N$_2$ molecules constitute $>99.75\%$ of the total nitrogen content in the reactor, falling only to $\approx 99.5\%$ even in the hot plasma core. Less than 0.25% of the supplied nitrogen becomes HCN, with all other N-

The absolute value of the activation fraction will be process-dependent, but for small $X_0(N)_2$ and an otherwise consistent set of process conditions, the $[N]_{ns}/[CH_3]_{ns}$ ratio varies essentially proportionally with input $X_0(N)_2$. As Table 3 shows, doubling $p$ from 1.5 to 3 kW is predicted to result in a $\approx$5-fold increase in relative nitrogen activation, which may have a yet larger impact on the relative N/C incorporation efficiency given the decrease in $[N]_{ns}/[CN]_{ns}$ that also accompanies such an increase in $p$. However, that the activation fraction is always $<1$ and the ratio of $R_{inc}(N)/R_{inc}(CH_4)$ for $X_0(N)_2$/($X_0(N)_2$/($X_0(CH_4)$) (i.e., the normalized incorporation rate) is fairly constant across a broad range of nitrogen input fractions and consistently $<1$, should offer a useful guide when it comes to predicting N concentrations and N incorporation efficiencies in CVD diamond.

Finally, it is instructive to compare the present findings with the predictions of the one previous modeling study of a MW-activated C/N/H plasma operating at pressures and temperatures relevant to diamond CVD, by Yamada. The earlier work treated the following conditions: $F(CH_4) = 2.5$ sccm, $F(N_2) = 2.5$ sccm, $F(H_2) = 500$ sccm (i.e., $X_0(CH_4) = 4.7\%$ and $X_0(N)_2 = 0.47\%$), $p = 120$ Torr, and $P = 3$ kW into a plasma volume seemingly about twice that of the present work. The calculated maximum gas temperature in the hot plasma core was $T_{gas} ≈ 3000$ K and the near-substrate gas temperature $T_{gas} ≈ 1500$ K. These temperatures are a little higher than found from the present modeling, while the pressure is a little lower. Differences between the earlier data and that shown in the fourth column of Table 3 are generally minor: $[NH]_{ns}$ is here about 1 order of magnitude larger than in the earlier work, even after correcting for the difference in pressure, but the $[NH]_{ns}$ and $[N]_{ns}$ values agree between the two studies to within a factor of 2. Our higher $[NH]_{ns}$ can be traced to the role of reactions 2 and 3 in providing a nonthermal route to activating and dissociating N$_2$, which was not considered in the earlier modeling, while the lower $[N]_{ns}$ is likely due to our high assumed value of $\gamma_N$. Importantly, the relative nitrogen activation fraction ($\approx 6.7 \times 10^{-5}$) found by Yamada is not very different from ours, highlighting the predominant roles of thermal chemistry and transport in determining the near-substrate species concentrations.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Spatially resolved optical emission and line-of-sight absorption spectroscopy methods have been used to probe selected atomic (H), radical (CH, C$_2$, CN, and NH), and triplet N$_2$ molecule densities in MW-activated CH$_4$/N$_2$/H$_2$ gas mixtures such as are used in diamond CVD, as functions of the source gas mole fractions, total pressure, and applied MW power. These data have been rationalized using complementary 2-D ($r$, $z$) coupled kinetic and transport modeling, which succeeds, mostly quantitatively, in reproducing all of the measured trends in species column densities and OES intensities. After calibration against experiment, the model was run over a wider range of N/C input ratios, $2.5 \times 10^{-5} \leq X_0(N)_2/X_0(CH_4) \leq 7.5$, than could be explored experimentally, as well as with a higher MW power of 3 kW.

The Journal of Physical Chemistry A
containing species two or more orders of magnitude less abundant still.

(ii) Two reaction sequences enable N₂ to participate in the plasma chemistry. Reaction 4, proposed as the dominant source of N atoms in the one previous modeling study of a MW-activated C/N/H plasma, 30 involves the reaction of N₂ with CH radicals. Reactions 2 and 3, identified in our recent studies of MW-activated N₂/H₂ plasmas, 28 involve electron impact excitation of N₂ in the hot plasma region, energy pooling in the metastable N₂(AΣ⁺) state, and subsequent reaction with H atoms. The former pathway is the more important route to forming N atoms at higher gas pressures, input powers, or CH₃ input fractions.

(iii) Of the N-containing species that can be considered potentially reactive at the growing diamond surface, namely, N, NH, NH₂, and CN, the near-surface gas-phase number density of atomic nitrogen under base conditions is higher than [NH]ₙs or [NH₂]ₙs and typically an order of magnitude higher than [CN]ₙs. Because of the small number density of atomic nitrogen and its extremely long time constant, it is possible that N atoms and radicals at the growing surface are not continuously replenished by the higher (assumed) incorporation efficiency of N in the gas phase number density of atomic nitrogen under base conditions. In the Introduction: how the presence of small amounts of N₂ in CVD from MW-activated gas mixtures influences the surface morphology. H atoms and CH₃ radicals are generally accepted as the key species driving diamond growth 14 in the resulting material that would typically result from the process mixture also depends on the substrate condition and temperature during growth. 14 Hence, the present study tends to support prior suggestions that the key role of trace N incorporation is in locally chemically activating the diamond surface or otherwise enabling faster growth at high substrate temperature by somehow limiting strain 62 or nonepitaxial growth 14 in the resulting material that would typically result under such conditions. An additional effect of incorporated nitrogen could arise if the migration of an NH surface group along the diamond surface is significantly hindered relative to that of CH₃. Such nonmobile NH groups could then serve as anchors for migrating CH₂ groups (as does the step edge in regular step-flow growth), thus enabling formation of difficult-to-etch chains of CH₃ surface bridges. This decrease in the average migration length of CH₂ groups before incorporation would reduce the rate at which they are etched and thus accelerate diamond growth.

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**Notes**

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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