

approximately 0.1 nm and about 5 nm. For example, depending upon the particular implementation, the thickness may be less than about 1 nm, less than about 0.5 nm, less than about 0.2 nm, may be the thickness corresponding to a single layer or monolayer of passivation material that is bonded to the semiconductor surface, or may even be the number of atoms of passivation material required to passivate substantially all the dangling bonds associated with the semiconductor surface **540**.

In some cases, passivation of the semiconductor surface **540** will include removing (or terminating) dangling bonds located proximate to the surface of the semiconductor material, including those at the surface as well as those within a few molecular dimensions from the surface. This process may stabilize the surface of the semiconductor material and may improve the controllability of subsequent fabrication operations. Passivation may also reduce the density of surface states that may exist at the semiconductor surface as a result of the discontinuation of the semiconductor crystal at the surface. This may improve consistency and performance of the semiconductor device, inasmuch as such states are known to interfere with proper device operation. For example, they may provide surface charge states that result in a pinning of the Fermi level.

III. Forming Interface Layers

Exemplary methods for forming interface layers to provide (i) passivation of semiconductor surfaces, and (ii) displacement of the semiconductor from the metal to eliminate or at least reduce of the effects of MIGS within the semiconductor when in the presence of the metal (collectively referred to herein as depinning the Fermi level of the semiconductor) with hydrogen, fluorine or nitrogen are presented below to further illustrate the concepts of the present invention. Other passivation materials may include arsenic, oxygen or an oxynitride, and in some cases such passivation layers are combined with separation layers (e.g., made of an oxide) to complete the interface layer.

A. Hydrogen and Fluorine

An interface layer may contain hydrogen, fluorine, or both hydrogen and fluorine (e.g., in the form of a hydride and/or a fluoride). One method for forming an interface layer on a semiconductor surface with hydrogen and fluorine includes cleaning the semiconductor substrate with a cleaning solution, immersing the cleaned substrate in a hydrogen fluoride solution (or other liquid containing hydrogen and fluorine ions) having an effective concentration typically between about 1%–50% by weight, waiting an effective period of time, typically between about several seconds and about 5 minutes, removing the substrate from the hydrogen fluoride solution, optionally rinsing the substrate in deionized water, and blow-drying the substrate with nitrogen. Such a method may form an interface layer containing hydrogen and fluorine that are bonded (e.g., covalently) to the semiconductor surface.

It should be noted that long rinses in deionized water, generally longer than about 30 seconds, might remove the hydrogen passivation. Thus, deionized water rinses might advantageously be kept to less than about 30 seconds to maintain the hydrogen passivation of the surface. Also, the higher the concentration of the hydrogen fluoride during the immersion, the greater the concentration of fluorine passivation. Finally, methods are also contemplated where the ratio of hydrogen to fluorine passivation is altered by removing either the hydrogen or the fluorine.

An interface layer formed in this fashion may be best suited for applications where a subsequent metal layer is

deposited over the interface layer in a generally non-invasive fashion, for example using a thermally evaporated source. Experiments by the present inventors to date suggest that using other approaches (e.g., plasma deposition) may cause damage to the thin (e.g., monolayer thick) interface layer contemplated as part of the present invention.

B. Nitrogen

In a further embodiment, an interface layer may contain nitrogen (e.g., in the form of silicon nitride). One method for forming an interface over a semiconductor surface with nitrogen includes heating a substrate containing the semiconductor surface in the presence of a nitrogenous material (that is, a gas or other material containing nitrogen). For example, a substrate containing an exposed silicon surface may be annealed at a temperature between about 300° C. and about 750° C., which is lower than temperatures conventionally used for Rapid Thermal Nitridation (RTN), under a gaseous ambient having, for example, ammonia (NH₃) at some effective partial pressure. By exposed, we mean a clean surface, free of everything except silicon. Such a method may form an interface layer containing nitrogen, often in the form of a nitride, bonded to the semiconductor surface. Note that the present inventors have observed indications suggesting that in these low temperature conditions interface layer growth is self-limiting, depending only on temperature.

According to another embodiment, an interface layer that includes nitrogen may be formed on an exposed surface of a semiconductor material by a method that includes heating a semiconductor material to a substantially high temperature under vacuum and exposing the semiconductor material to a substantially small amount of a nitrogenous material, such as ammonia. The method may include placing a semiconductor having an exposed semiconductor surface in a heating chamber, pulling a vacuum of less than about one millionth of a Torr, or more favorably an ultra high vacuum of less than 10⁻⁹ Torr, and then heating the semiconductor in the heating chamber to a substantially high temperature. The higher the vacuum, the longer the substrate may be heated without growth of an oxide from residual oxygen or water in the chamber. Thus, the process may include heating the semiconductor to a temperature that is between about 900° C. and about 1000° C., or higher, in an inert ambient. As desired, the semiconductor may be exposed to hydrogen gas, or an equivalent, to reduce any native oxide on the semiconductor. These high temperatures may provide for greater passivation of the semiconductor surface as compared with results that may be achieved at lower temperatures.

Then, the heated semiconductor may be exposed to a substantially small amount of a nitrogenous material, such as ammonia. This may include exposing the semiconductor surface to ammonia for a substantially short period of time. For example, the surface may be subjected to a burst or pulse of ammonia lasting for a time period between about 0.5 seconds and about 5 seconds. Alternatively, the surface may be exposed to a controlled, small amount of ammonia over an arbitrarily longer period of time. In this way, the substantially small amount of ammonia will react with the surface to form a nitrogenous interface layer, such as a nitride layer, thereon and then further growth of the interface layer will cease. Then the semiconductor may be cooled from the substantially high temperature to ambient temperature and removed from the heating chamber. Further annealing of the substrate and the grown nitride layer may also be performed in the vacuum chamber before removal, at a substantially elevated temperature between about 700° C. and 1000° C., or higher.

Advantageously, it has been unexpectedly observed that a process such as that described above and incorporating substantially high temperature exposure for substantially short periods may be used to controllably form thin yet effective interface layers. That is, the present inventors have observed that in the creation of thin interface layers that include nitrogenous materials, temperature appears to be a dominant factor in controlling thickness. For example, by such methods effective interface layers may be formed having a thickness that is less than about 1 nm, less than about 0.5 nm, less than about 0.2 nm, or having a thickness that corresponds to essentially a single monolayer sufficient to passivate essentially all dangling bonds proximate the semiconductor surface.

Further, thin interface layers may be advantageously grown on a semiconductor in the presence of nitrogen gas, or other inert nitrogen-containing gas. The reaction rate of a semiconductor such as silicon with nitrogen gas is significantly lower than that of a reactive nitrogen-containing gas such as ammonia. The slow growth rate may be desirable for better control of the growth of films of nitrogen on a semiconductor of a thickness of less than about 1 nm, less than about 0.5 nm, less than about 0.2 nm, or having a thickness that corresponds to essentially a single monolayer sufficient to passivate essentially all dangling bonds proximate the silicon surface.

IV. Diodes Containing Passivated Semiconductor Surfaces

Diodes made from Schottky barriers (i.e., asymmetric electrical potentials formed at a junction between a metal and a semiconductor) are widely used in rectifiers in power supply and control applications. As used herein, the terms Schottky diode, metal-semiconductor junction diode, diode, and rectifier are all related and appear in order from more specific at the left to more general at the right. Likewise, the terms Schottky barrier, metal-semiconductor barrier, conductor-semiconductor junction, and multi-material junction are all related and appear in order from more specific at the left to more general at the right. The term Schottky diode will be used to refer to a diode containing a Schottky barrier.

As mentioned above, the present inventors have devised a scheme to control or adjust a Schottky barrier height by forming an interface layer (which includes or sometimes consists of a passivation layer that includes an oxide, oxynitride, nitride, arsenide, hydride, fluoride, or an equivalent) between a metal and a semiconductor. This scheme differs from past attempts by others to control barrier height, which attempts generally involved either using a silicide as a contact metal (and thus limiting the choices of available contact metals to those that can form silicides), or using esoteric substrates that exhibit wide bandgaps. Further, in previous devices the Fermi level of the semiconductor remains pinned, with the barrier height being virtually independent of the metal used. Finally, doping of substrates has also been attempted, however, it has not been shown to truly affect the barrier height of the substrate material. For example, PtSi contacts have reduced resistance due to high silicon doping such that the current across the junction is dominated by tunneling through the barrier. Doping may thus lead to cases where the top of the barrier may be so thin as to be essentially transparent to electrons, however, doping does not appear to allow actual tuning of the barrier height.

FIG. 6 shows an example of a diode **600** containing, according to one embodiment of the present invention, an interface layer **620** disposed between and attached to both a semiconductor **610** and a conductor **630**. The conductor and the semiconductor are operable to be electrically coupled

with different voltages associated with the operation of the diode **600** and to pass electrical current through a passivated semiconductor surface formed at the junction between the semiconductor **610** and the interface layer **620**.

The conductor **630** contains a conductive material such as a metal or an alloy of a metal. The terms metal, conductive material, and conductor are all related and appear in order from specific at the left to general at the right. In general, the terms refer to a highly electrically conductive substance that has a Fermi energy level that sits in a partially filled band. Unless otherwise specified, conductors include metals (e.g., pure metals and alloys), and other conductors such as doped polysilicon (a nonporous silicon containing randomly oriented crystallites), doped single crystal silicon, and metal silicides. Note that alloys may have workfunctions different than their constituents and may be designed to have specific workfunctions through selective use of ratios of the constituent metals.

Often, the conductor is a metal since metals may offer advantages over conductive semiconductors including lower resistance, higher carrier mobilities that provide superior high frequency performance and switching, favorable low power characteristics, and ease of manufacturing control. Use of metals may also avoid the need to perform semiconductor doping, which may simplify manufacturing and improve quality control.

Metals that are contemplated include pure metals, alloys, refractory metals, metals that do not form silicides, metals physically deposited by substantially non-invasive processes such as by condensation of a thermally evaporated metal vapor, and metals having a predetermined work function. The use of non-invasively deposited metals may allow for forming the metal on a thin interface layer without disrupting the passivation properties of the layer. In other embodiments, midgap metals and/or alloys thereof may be used. Alternatively, or in addition, the metals used in some embodiments of the present invention may be monolayer or even sub-monolayer metals. A submonolayer metal covered by a different metal may result in a workfunction different than either individual metal. This may be used to tune the workfunction of the metal at the interface.

Also, metal silicides may be used in some cases. These include silicides formed with Erbium (Er), Platinum (Pt), Iridium (Ir), Magnesium (Mn), Titanium (Ti), Hafnium (Hf), Zirconium (Zr), Niobium (Nb), Vanadium (V), Tungsten (W), Cobalt (Co), Tantalum (Ta), Chromium (Cr), Molybdenum (Mo), Iron (Fe), Rhenium (Re), Rhodium (Rh), Gadolinium (Gd), Yttrium (Y), Palladium (Pd), Osmium (Os), and Nickel (Ni).

A conductor may also consist of one conductor at the interface covered by a second conductor. If the first conductor is sufficiently thin, then the resultant workfunction may be a combination of the two conductors. The second conductor may also protect the first conductor is subsequent processing or use. Such protection may include prevention of oxidation or prevention of etching in wet or dry etch processes to which the junction may be exposed.

A metal having a predetermined work function may be a metal having a work function smaller or greater than that of the semiconductor, depending on the desired application. Often, the semiconductor will be silicon. In this case by the work function of a semiconductor or silicon we mean the energy in the middle of the semiconductor bandgap. Exemplary metals that have a work function smaller than silicon include Group 3A elements, aluminum (Al), rubidium (Rb), barium (Ba), indium (In), titanium (Ti), chromium (Cr), tantalum (Ta), cesium (Cs), magnesium (Mg), erbium (Er),

ytterbium (Yb), manganese (Mn), lead (Pb), silver (Ag), yttrium (Y), and zinc (Zn). Exemplary metals that have a work function greater than silicon include platinum (Pt), iridium (Ir), gold (Au), tungsten (W), nickel (Ni), molybdenum (Mo), copper (Cu), cobalt (Co), and palladium (Pd).

The semiconductor-interface layer-conductor configuration illustrated in FIG. 6 defines what the present inventors have chosen to call a “passivated Schottky barrier”. The passivated Schottky barrier is a naturally formed electrical potential barrier to an electron or hole at the Fermi energy (the electrochemical potential) in the conductor due to a depletion region formed in the semiconductor adjacent the conductor. The passivated Schottky barrier may deviate in barrier height from a standard un-passivated Schottky barrier that would form naturally at a contact junction between the semiconductor and the conductor without the interface layer disposed therebetween. That is, the passivated Schottky barrier may have a barrier height that depends predominantly upon the bulk characteristics of the semiconductor and the conductor, rather than on surface properties, and may depend in part on the characteristics of the interface layer.

Indeed, the present inventors have determined that changes in barrier height are approximately monotonic and continuous for variations in surface passivation thickness by nitridation of the semiconductor substrate. More specifically, experiments by the present inventors in a regime where the nitride layer is sufficiently thick to remove MIGS show that temperature of interface layer formation has the strongest effect on barrier height. In other regimes, thickness may be critical. Ideally, if all surface states are removed, barrier height should be controllable simply by the choice of metal used.

To understand why thickness of the interface layer is important, refer briefly to FIG. 8 where a graph of interface-specific contact resistance versus interface thickness is shown. The graph is for a structure where the workfunction of the metal is the same as the electron affinity in the semiconductor, such that the Fermi level of the metal lines up with the conduction band of the semiconductor. At large thicknesses, the interface layer poses significant resistance to current. As thickness decreases, resistance falls due to increased tunneling current. However, there comes a point where even as the interface layer continues to get thinner, resistance increases. This is due to the effect of MIGS, which increasingly pull the Fermi level of the metal down towards mid-gap of the semiconductor, creating a Schottky barrier. The present inventors have discovered that this competition results in an optimum thickness, as shown in the illustration, where the resistance is a minimum. At this thickness the effect of MIGS has been sufficiently reduced to depin the metal and lower the Schottky barrier, and the layer is still sufficiently thin to allow significant current flow across the interface layer. Contact resistances of less than or equal to approximately $2500 \Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}^2$, $1000 \Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}^2$, $100 \Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}^2$, $50 \Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}^2$, $10 \Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}^2$ or even less than or equal to $1 \Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}^2$ may be achieved.

Characteristics that may be adjusted to provide a desired barrier height thus include the passivation material used (e.g., selection based on bandgap), the interface layer thickness (e.g., especially where the interface layer is a compound layer formed of a passivation layer and a separation layer), the method of forming the interface layer (e.g., control of parameters such as temperature), the interface layer thickness that is substantially similar to a penetration depth of MIGS formed at a metal interface, the metal used for the source and/or drain, and other characteristics.

One advantage of the ability to adjust the Schottky barrier height with the introduction of interface layer 620 is the ability to form a substantially high barrier height. For example, an interface layer may be used to create a Schottky barrier having a barrier height that is greater than can be achieved through the use of metal silicides, greater than about 2.0 eV, or greater than about 2.5 eV (using a semiconductor with a bandgap at least this large), or nearly 1.0 V using silicon. Such high barrier heights imply the ability to withstand high voltages before breakdown occurs. Thus, Schottky barriers having such high barrier heights may be particularly useful in high-voltage Schottky diodes.

Another advantage achieved through the use of the interface layer 620 is greater flexibility afforded in selecting a conductor 630. Typically, metals chosen for application in classic Schottky diodes are those that can form a silicide with a silicon semiconductor. The formation of the silicide helps to reduce surface states (resulting from dangling bonds), but not the effects of MIGS. Thus, the Fermi level at the semiconductor surface is still pinned. Using metals that form silicides upon contact with silicon may thus help to make the devices more reproducible in a manufacturing environment, but such devices still suffer from the drawback of having a barrier height that is fixed.

According to one embodiment of the present invention, however, one may select a conductor that is not able (or not readily able) to form a silicide with the semiconductor. The metal silicide is not needed because the interface layer provided in accordance with the present invention passivates the semiconductor surface and also reduces or eliminates the effect of MIGS. This may allow for selection of a metal that has properties such as a desirable work function or Fermi level energy, even though that metal may not form a metal silicide.

For example, to make large-barrier diodes, for an n-type doped silicon semiconductor, a metal may be selected that has a work function that is either substantially equal to the valence band energy of the semiconductor or that is within about 0.1 eV to about 0.3 eV of the valence band energy of the semiconductor. Similarly, for a p-type doped silicon semiconductor, a metal may be selected that has a work function substantially equal to the conduction band energy of the semiconductor. For Schottky diodes configured in accordance with the present invention, the Fermi level of the metal may lie anywhere in the bandgap of the semiconductor when an interface layer is disposed within the junction, resulting in diodes of various barrier heights. The Fermi level of the metal may also lie in the conduction or valence band of the semiconductor.

The use of interface layer 620 thus provides a way to tune, adjust, or control the height of the barrier between the conductor and the semiconductor. Without the interface layer 620, the barrier height would be substantially untunable, un-adjustable, and fixed (as discussed above).

The role played by interface layer 620 in tuning, adjusting, or controlling the height of the barrier between the conductor 630 and the semiconductor 610 may be understood as a depinning of the Fermi level of the semiconductor. That is, the interface layer may reduce surface states by bonding to the semiconductor material to consume dangling bonds. Additionally, the interface layer may reduce the formation of MIGS in the semiconductor by providing a thickness and bandgap that prevent the electron wave function (of the metal) from penetrating into the semiconductor. The electron wave function may instead penetrate into the interface layer and form MIGS within the interface layer at an energy related to the states of the interface layer material.

As desired, the density of the MIGS and the depth of MIGS penetration into the interface layer may be reduced by choosing an interface layer material or materials having a larger bandgap or higher effective mass than the semiconductor.

According to one embodiment of the present invention then, the interface layer 620 is incorporated into a device operable to pass current through the semiconductor surface and the interface layer during device operation. In such an embodiment, it may be desirable to use an interface layer having a thickness of a monolayer, or, for example between about 0.1 nm and about 0.3 nm, and also having a wide bandgap (as compared to that of the semiconductor) so that the interface layer both de-pins the Fermi level (so that the barrier height depends predominantly on bulk properties of the junction materials) and allows sufficient current transfer across it. Advantageously, such interface layers may be sufficiently thin to provide low impedance to current flow (due to the exponential dependence of direct tunneling on barrier thickness), which is desirable for many semiconductor devices, while also providing sufficient semiconductor surface passivation to allow an adjustable barrier height. That is, the interface layer may allow passivation of surface states and reduction (or elimination) of MIGS in the semiconductor to allow for an adjustable barrier height with a substantially thin layer that allows sufficient current to be transferred across the interface layer.

There are several methods by which the barrier height can be made adjustable. For example, adjustment may be made by tuning the degree of Fermi level pinning. In other words, some embodiments may allow for a sufficiently thin interface layer so that not all of the effects of MIGS in the Si are eliminated. Further, the pinning may be varied by combinations of thickness of the interface layer and the choice of interface material. The metal in contact with the interface layer may be pinned by MIGS at different levels in different materials. Conversely, or in addition, the passivation may be left incomplete to allow for an effective level of unpassivated states. Complete depinning of the Fermi level (that is removal of all surface states in Si including MIGS) is another option, in which case one could tune the barrier height simply by choosing a pure metal or an alloy that possesses the desired workfunction. In that case, the barrier height is determined by Equation (1), which until now has been an unrealizable idealization. Note that the type of tuning being discussed here is adjustment of the barrier height by altering the structure of the junction at the time of manufacture, not by varying an externally applied condition during junction operation.

FIG. 7a-7d show relationships between Fermi energy, conduction band energy, and valence band energy for various Schottky barriers containing a metal in contact with (or in close proximity to) a semiconductor, where the bandgap (E_g) of the semiconductor exists between the conduction band (E_c) and the valence band (E_v). In this example, the work function of the metal Φ_M is chosen to be approximately equal to the electron affinity χ_S of the semiconductor. In FIG. 7a, an unpassivated Schottky barrier 700 is shown. In this example, the Fermi level (EF) of the metal 730 is pinned in the bandgap of the semiconductor 710. This results in a discontinuity in the vacuum level caused by a charged dipole at the interface.

In FIG. 7b, the interface layer 720b is thick enough to passivate dangling bonds at the surface of the semiconductor 710, but not thick enough to eliminate or sufficiently reduce the effect of MIGS. As a result, the band structure is largely unaltered from that seen in the previous illustration. Simi-

larly, in FIG. 7c, when the interface layer 720c is sufficiently thick to eliminate or reduce the effect of MIGS but not to passivate the semiconductor surface, little change in the energy band structure is observed. However, as shown in FIG. 7d, when the interface layer 720d is sufficient to both eliminate or reduce the effect of MIGS and to passivate the semiconductor surface, we see the Fermi level of the metal aligning with the conduction band of the semiconductor (i.e., the Fermi level of the semiconductor has been depinned and no longer lines up with the Fermi level of the metal). The vacuum level is now continuous as there is no charged dipole at the interface. Thus, the band structure of a device constructed in this fashion is a result of only bulk material properties, not properties of the surface. By way of example, the materials in such cases may be Al and Si, with a work function for Al of approximately ($\Phi_M=4.1$ eV) and the electron affinity for Si of approximately ($\chi_S=4.05$ eV).

V. Transistors Containing Passivated Semiconductor Surfaces

The interface layers described herein may be used in connection with a semiconductor surface of a channel in a field effect transistor. That is, an interface layer may be disposed between a source and a channel, a channel and a drain, or both of an insulated gate field effect transistor. Such use of an interface layer is described in detail in co-pending U.S. patent application Ser. No. 10/342,576 entitled "Insulated Gate Field Effect Transistor Having Passivated Schottky Barriers to the Channel", filed Jan. 14, 2003 by the present inventors, and assigned to the assignee of the present invention.

The source and drain contacts at the channel of a field effect transistor are examples of a broader category of metal-interface layer-semiconductor contacts that make up the present invention. In the past, such contacts generally comprised a silicide-n⁺-Si junction, which formed a somewhat "leaky" Schottky diode, with a Fermi level of the semiconductor pinned at the midgap. In contrast, the present invention provides a contact wherein the Fermi level of the metal is aligned with the conduction band of the semiconductor (e.g., as shown in FIG. 7d). Note that in other cases, depending on the type of semiconductor material and conductors used, the Fermi level of the metal may align with the valence band of the semiconductor.

Although both types of junctions (i.e., the new passivated Schottky barrier junction and the conventional silicide-semiconductor junction) permit tunneling currents, the present junction can be fabricated with a much thinner interface layer as compared to the thickness of the silicide layer used previously. Indeed, thickness of an order of magnitude less than the silicide thickness can be expected. In a conventional silicide-semiconductor junction a Schottky barrier is formed which is comprised of a depletion layer. The tunnel barrier presented by such a depletion layer may be an order of magnitude thicker than the dielectric tunnel barrier in the present invention. The thinner interface layers provided by the present invention permit higher current across the junction (i.e., lower junction specific contact resistance).

Two other properties of the dielectric deserve mention. First is the property of the height of the barrier compared to the semiconductor conduction band (for electrons). In making the barrier thinner than a silicide barrier, the tradeoff may be a higher tunnel barrier (e.g., 2 eV for nitride, compared with about half the gap of 0.6 eV for silicide). Spacer layers may be used with lower barriers (e.g., TiO₂ has a barrier of less than 1 eV). Nevertheless, even with the higher barrier to

electrons, the present inventors have determined that the resistance can still be one hundred times lower than a contact to silicon with a silicide barrier.

The second property is the effective mass of electrons in the dielectric. Larger mass electrons will not penetrate as far (i.e., because of their shorter wavelength) from the metal into the semiconductor. The less the electrons penetrate into the dielectric, the less the effect of MIGS in the dielectric. Thus, MIGS in the dielectric are reduced with larger band-gap and larger effective mass.

In addition the junction of the present invention can be used in making contacts to source or drain implanted wells and will have the advantage of reducing the need for high doping levels (which are now reaching their limits of solid solubility). The high doping profiles were required in the past in order to keep the junction depletion layer relatively thin, so as to increase the tunneling current, thus reducing the junction resistance. However, it is becoming increasingly difficult to increase doping profiles in order to provide low resistance junctions. It may be possible to reach the same level of resistance with a lower doping concentration using the present invention. It may further be possible to achieve much lower resistance even with lower doping concentration. When the present invention is used with high doping levels, the resistance will be further reduced.

Thus, methods and applications for semiconductor-interface layer-metal junctions have been described. Although described with reference to specific embodiments it should be remembered that various modifications and changes may be made to the techniques described herein without departing from the broader spirit and scope of the invention. The specification and drawings are accordingly to be regarded in an illustrative rather than a restrictive sense and the invention measured only in terms of the claims, which follow.

What is claimed is:

1. An electrical junction, comprising a semiconductor selected from a list consisting of Si, Ge, C (the crystal structure of which is selected from a list comprising a diamond lattice, a fulleride or a polymer), an alloy of Ge and Si, an alloy of Ge and C, an alloy of Si and C, or an alloy

of Si, Ge, and C; a conductor; and an interface layer disposed therebetween, the interface layer being sufficiently thick to approximately equal a penetration depth of metal induced gap states (MIGs) in the semiconductor which would be present in the absence of the interface layer yet sufficiently thin enough to provide the junction with a specific contact resistance of less than or equal to approximately 1000 $\Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}^2$.

2. The electrical junction of claim 1, wherein the conductor comprises one of: a metal, an alloy of a metal, a metal silicide, or a doped semiconductor.

3. The electrical junction of claim 2, wherein the conductor comprises a metal having a workfunction approximately equal to a conduction band of the semiconductor.

4. The electrical junction of claim 2, wherein the conductor comprises a midgap metal or an alloy thereof.

5. The electrical junction of claim 2, wherein the conductor comprises a metal having a work function smaller than that of the semiconductor.

6. The electrical junction of claim 2, wherein the conductor comprises a metal having a work function greater than that of the semiconductor.

7. The electrical junction of claim 2, wherein the conductor comprises one of: aluminum (Al), rubidium (Rb), barium (Ba), indium (In), titanium (Ti), chromium (Cr), tantalum (Ta), cesium (Cs), magnesium (Mg), erbium (Er), ytterbium (Yb), manganese (Mn), lead (Pb), silver (Ag), yttrium (Y), or zinc (Zn).

8. The electrical junction of claim 2, wherein the conductor comprises one of: platinum (Pt), iridium (Ir), gold (Au), tungsten (W), nickel (Ni), molybdenum (Mo), copper (Cu), cobalt (Co), or palladium (Pd).

9. The electrical junction of claim 2, wherein the conductor consists essentially of a monolayer of a metal.

10. The electrical junction of claim 2, wherein the conductor consists of a submonolayer of at least one metal, covered by a different conductor.

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