

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

Molecular Lithography through DNA-Mediated Etching and Masking of SiO₂

Sumedh P. Surwade,^{†,§} Shichao Zhao,^{†,†,§} and Haitao Liu^{*,†} 3

- [†]Department of Chemistry, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15260, United States
- [‡]College of Materials & Environmental Engineering, Hangzhou Dianzi University, Hangzhou 310018, P. R. China
- Supporting Information 6

1

2

12

ABSTRACT: We demonstrate a new approach to pattern 7 transfer for bottom-up nanofabrication. We show that DNA 8 promotes/inhibits the etching of SiO₂ at the single-molecule 9 level, resulting in negative/positive tone pattern transfers 10 from DNA to the SiO₂ substrate.

C tate-of-the-art photolithography processes use 193 nm light 13 Oto produce diffraction-limited features as small as 32 nm.¹ 14 The use of even shorter wavelengths of light faces significant 15 technological and economic challenges because of the cost and 16 complexity of the exposure optics and the high-energy light 17 source. Thus, over the past few years, significant efforts have been 18 dedicated toward alternative lithography processes that can 19 produce features with sizes in the range of tens of nanometers. 20

21 In recent years, self-assembly of DNA, especially of scaffolded DNA origami, has matured to a stage where arbitrary two- and 22 three-dimensional shapes with controlled dimensions at the 23 nanoscale can easily be constructed.^{2,3} These DNA nanostruc-24 tures have been used to direct the assembly of nanoparticles, 25 carbon nanotubes, and biological molecules.⁴⁻¹⁵ With a pat-26 terned substrate, they can be deposited with precise control 27 over their location and orientation, opening up the possibility 28 that they can be fully integrated with conventional lithography 29 processes. 5,14,16,17 30

In view of the degree of control over their sizes and shapes, 31 these DNA nanostructures should be ideal templates for bottom-32 up nanofabrication. Unfortunately, DNA nanostructures have 33 limited chemical stability and poor adhesion to common inor-34 ganic substrates, both of which make it difficult to transfer their 35 shape to the substrate. Traditional pattern transfer processes are 36 37 based on the concept of *masking*, in which the mask protects the substrate from reacting with the harsh etchant. This approach 38 39 requires that the mask be chemically and mechanically stable during the etching reaction. Molecular-scale templates such as 40 DNA nanostructures are inherently incompatible with this pattern 41 transfer approach. For example, two of the most often used 42 methods to etch silicon oxide (SiO₂) are dry etching using plasma 43 and wet etching using buffered HF solution. The plasma would 44 instantly destroy the DNA, while the buffered HF solution would 45 immediately lift the DNA off the substrate. Indeed, while DNA 46 nanostructures have been used as templates for nanofabri-47 cation,^{18,19} these processes have inevitably used an evaporated 48 metal film as the intermediate etching mask. A one-step pattern 49 50 transfer from DNA to an inorganic substrate has not been reported.

Herein we propose a new approach to pattern transfer in which the DNA modulates the vapor-phase etching of SiO₂ at the single-molecule level, resulting in a direct pattern transfer from DNA to SiO₂.

Vapor-phase etching has been known to produce selective, reproducible, and uniform etching of various inorganic substrates. Relative to the wet-etching and plasma-etching processes, it offers much more versatility in the range of process variables,^{20,21} and most important of all, vapor-phase etching can be carried out under very mild conditions that will not lift off or destroy the DNA-based templates.

The vapor-phase etching of SiO₂ using HF gas is characterized by the thermodynamically favorable reaction between SiO2 and HF gas to produce SiF_4 and H_2O ²¹

$$SiO_2(s) + 4HF(g) \rightarrow SiF_4(g) + 2H_2O(g)$$

However, to overcome the kinetic barrier, water is needed as a catalyst in the reaction, since HF alone does not etch SiO₂. Experimental evidence based on in situ FTIR spectroscopy has suggested that HF and H₂O molecules form a HF-H₂O complex that adsorbs on the SiO₂ surface more strongly than either molecule alone.^{21,22} Other mechanistic studies²¹ have suggested that the etching reaction starts with the deprotonation of HF by water to generate HF_2^- ions:

$$6HF + 3H_2O \rightarrow 3HF_2^- + 3H_3O^+$$

These ions then etch away SiO₂ to produce water and other gaseous products:

$$3HF_2^- + 3H_3O^+ + SiO_2 \rightarrow 2HF + SiF_4 + 5H_2O$$

The reaction is usually initiated by the trace amount of surfaceadsorbed water on the oxide substrate. Notably, more water (5 equiv) is produced in the etching step than initially consumed (3 equiv) in the deprotonation step. As the reaction progresses, both the surface water concentration and the reaction rate increase; the overall reaction is autocatalytic.

All of this information suggests that the etching rate of SiO₂ is positively correlated with the concentration of surface-adsorbed water. We hypothesized that if the adsorption of water on the SiO₂ surface could be controlled with nanometer-scale resolution, it would be possible to modulate the etching of SiO_2 at the same length scale. The spatial variation in the concentration of surface-adsorbed water would not need to be very high: since the etching reaction is autocatalytic, small variations in the initial

Received: April 27, 2011



Figure 1. Pattern transfer from DNA to SiO₂. (A) Single strand of DNA deposited on the SiO₂ surface. (B) Negative tone pattern transfer through DNA-mediated etching of SiO₂. (C) Positive tone pattern transfer through DNA-mediated masking of SiO₂.

water concentration would be amplified by the reaction and
could have a significant impact on the etching kinetics in the
long run.

To verify this hypothesis experimentally, we used DNA 92 nanostructures as templates for spatial modulation of the adsorp-93 tion of water on a SiO₂ surface. DNA molecules contain phos-94 phate groups as well as nitrogen and oxygen atoms that can 95 hydrogen bond with water.²³ When a DNA molecule is deposited 96 onto a SiO₂ surface, its presence undoubtedly affects the water 97 adsorption around it. Since the SiO₂ surface also absorbs water by 98 itself, the difference between the concentrations of surface-99 absorbed water on the clean SiO₂ surface and the SiO₂ under 100 101 DNA depends on, among many other factors, the relative humidity of the environment and the temperature of the substrate. Though 102 we cannot predict the exact spatial profile of the water concen-103 tration, we expect the DNA molecule to provide local modula-104 tion of the etching rate of SiO₂, producing nanoscale patterns 105 that duplicate its shape. 106

There are two major differences between the water adsorption 107 isotherms on DNA^{23} and on SiO_2^{24} at room temperature. First, 108 the SiO₂ surface retains about a monolayer of water even at close 109 to zero relative humidity; such irreversible adsorption is not 110 observed on DNA. Second, DNA shows a much higher response 111 to increases in relative humidity than SiO₂ does. Qualitatively 112 speaking, the amount of adsorbed water on SiO_2 is higher at low 113 humidity levels but lower at high humidity levels. On the basis of 114 115 this analysis, we expect DNA to increase or decrease the etching rate of SiO₂ depending on the relative humidity of the environ-116 F1 117 ment (Figure 1).

We investigated the effect of DNA on the kinetics of gas-phase 118 etching of SiO_2 . We deposited triangular DNA origami onto a 119 silicon wafer having a 300 nm layer of silicon oxide.^{5,25} Figure 2A F2 120 shows an atomic force microscopy (AFM) image of the depos-121 ited DNA origami. The etching of SiO₂ was carried out by 122 exposing the substrate to HF gas inside a custom-built chamber 123 that maintained \sim 50% relative humidity at 25 °C. After the 124 etching, the silicon substrate was rinsed with water and piranha 125 126 solution to remove the DNA. AFM images of the cleaned wafer 127 surface showed triangular-shaped trenches resembling the shape of the DNA origami (Figure 2B and Figure S1 in the Supporting 128 Information). The formation of the trench indicates that the 129 DNA origami locally increases the rate of oxide etching under 130



Figure 2. (top) AFM images and (bottom) cross sections: (A) Triangular DNA origami on a SiO_2 surface. (B) Triangular trenches produced upon exposure of (A) to HF vapor under high-moisture conditions. The inset shows a high-magnification AFM image of a triangular trench with a width of 25 nm. (C) Triangular ridges produced upon exposure of (A) to HF vapor under low-moisture conditions. Arrows indicate the lines along which the cross sections were determined. Scale bars represent 100 nm.

these conditions. The full width at half-maximum (fwhm) of the trench $(16.7 \pm 2.8 \text{ nm})$ is comparable with the edge width of the DNA origami, indicating an overall faithful pattern transfer process (Table S1 in the Supporting Information). This result is consistent with our hypothesis that DNA can increase the etching rate of SiO₂ by increasing the concentration of water. The small width of the trench shows that this effect is indeed spatially localized around the DNA.

As we pointed out earlier, the relative humidity may play an important role in this reaction. Indeed, we found that at low relative humidity, the DNA nanostructure slows the etching of 141 the underlying SiO₂, resulting in a positive tone pattern transfer 142 from the DNA to the substrate. As an example, the triangular 143 DNA origami deposited on SiO₂ (Figure 2A), upon exposure to 144 HF vapor at ~34% relative humidity and 30 °C, produced 145 triangular ridges higher than the origami itself (Figure 2C and 146 Figures S2 and S3). These ridge features survived a piranha wash 147 and a heat treatment (600 °C in air for 15 min), indicating that 148 they are not artifacts due to DNA or adsorbed organic impurities. 149 As shown in the AFM cross sections in Figure 2, the height of the 150 DNA origami triangle was \sim 1 nm (Figure 2A) while that of the 151 resulting triangular feature obtained on SiO₂ was \sim 3 nm 152 (Figure 2C). The width (fwhm) of the ridge was 27.0 \pm 153 3.5 nm, which is much wider than that of the trench. We attribute 154 this difference to the AFM tip convolution, which affects only the 155 measurement of the ridges. Overall, our observations are con-156 sistent with the idea that at low humidity levels, clean SiO₂ is the 157 preferred adsorption site for water. As a result, the autocatalytic 158 etching of SiO₂ under the DNA is slower than that of the clean 159 SiO₂ surface. 160

Once we had proved the concept, our next goal was to probe the resolution limit of this technique. For this purpose, we carried out the etching experiment with just a single double-stranded DNA as the template. To access individual DNA molecules, we aligned λ -DNA on the SiO₂ substrate using a previously published procedure.²⁶ λ -DNA is a double-stranded phage DNA with a length of ~16 μ m when fully stretched. Figure 3A shows an AFM image of the DNA strands on the SiO₂ surface. The height of the DNA molecules was in the range 0.6–0.7 nm, consistent with the diameter of a single strand of λ -DNA. Bundling of the DNA, however, was evident in many of the

131

161

162

163

164

165

169

170

171

168

221

230

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251



Figure 3. (top) AFM images and (bottom) cross sections: (A) λ -DNA aligned on the SiO₂ substrate. (B) Trenches produced after exposure of (A) to HF vapor under high-moisture conditions. The inset shows a high-magnification image of the trench. (C) Ridges produced after exposure of (A) to HF vapor under low-moisture conditions. It should be noted that this AFM image was obtained at exactly the same location as the one in (A). Arrows indicate lines along which the cross sections were determined. Scale bars represent 1 μ m.



Figure 4. Temporal evolution of the height of the ridges obtained under low-moisture conditions. Measurements were carried out before (SiO₂ + DNA; black) and after (SiO₂ only; red) cleaning of the surface.

strands. After the etching under high-moisture conditions 172 (\sim 50% relative humidity), long trenches were observed on the 173 SiO₂ surface (Figure 3B). The width of the trenches was mea-174 sured to be 23.5 \pm 4.2 nm (Figure S4 and Table S1) though 175 trenches with widths of less than 10 nm were located (Figure S5). 176 We believe that the bundled DNA strands produced the wide 177 trenches while the narrower ones were formed by the single 178 DNA strands. 179

180 The etching experiment with the stretched λ -DNA was also carried out under low-moisture conditions (\sim 34% relative 181 182 humidity). It was observed that even a single strand of λ -DNA can slow the etching of SiO₂ underneath it. In one experiment, 183 we imaged the exact same location before (Figure 3A) and after 184 the etching (Figure 3C). The height of the ridge features after the 185 etching was 2-4 nm, representing a $3-6\times$ amplification of the 186 height of the DNA template. More importantly, we observed a 187 very faithful pattern transfer from the DNA template to the SiO₂ 188 substrate. 189

Our proposed mechanism is supported by a kinetics study of 190 F4 191 the etching reaction under the low-moisture conditions (Figure 4). 192 SiO₂ substrates with aligned λ -DNA on the surface were etched 193 for 5, 10, 15, and 20 min and imaged using tapping-mode AFM before and after the cleaning (piranha/heat-treatment) process. 194 The difference in the two measurements (\sim 0.7 nm) indicates the 195

presence of the DNA template throughout the reaction. An 196 induction period (\sim 5 min) was observed, and this was followed 197 by a rapid buildup of the ridge height, signifying the autocatalytic 198 nature of the reaction.²¹ At longer reaction times, however, 199 enough water was produced by the reaction to saturate the 200 surface, leading to an eventual decrease in the contrast. The 201 substrate temperature also plays a significant role in determining 202 the etching kinetics. We observed that the etching rate decreased 203 with increasing substrate temperature, likely as a result of the 204 decrease in water adsorption on the SiO₂ surface. This observa-205 tion further confirms our working hypothesis that the pattern 206 transfer from DNA to SiO₂ substrate is due to the spatial 207 variation in the concentration of surface-adsorbed water. 208

In conclusion, we have demonstrated a new approach to 209 pattern transfer from DNA to SiO2. DNA was used to increase 210 or decrease the etching rate of SiO2, resulting in negative or 211 positive tone pattern transfers to the substrate, respectively. Our 212 still unoptimized conditions routinely produce 20 nm wide 213 trenches, which may be useful as nanofluidic channels.^{27,28} This 214 method, if applied to a much thinner SiO₂ film, would produce a 215 patterned SiO₂ layer that could be used as a mask for etching of 216 the underlying silicon substrate. We believe that this methodol-217 ogy will open up new opportunities in using self-assembled soft 218 materials as templates for bottom-up nanofabrication, with the 219 possibility of achieving molecular-scale resolution. 220

ASSOCIATED CONTENT	
--------------------	--

Supporting Information. Experimental details, additional 222 figures, and a table. This material is available free of charge via the 223 Internet at http://pubs.acs.org. 224

AUTHOR INFORMATION	225
Corresponding Author hliu@pitt.edu	226 227
Author Contributions	228

229

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Science 2003, 302, 1380-1382.

Financial support from the University of Pittsburgh is acknow-231 ledged. We thank Keith Jones of Asylum Research for acquiring 232 some of the AFM images. 233

REFERENCES

(1) http://www.itrs.net/Links/2007ITRS/Home2007.htm (accessed April 2011). (2) Seeman, N. C. Annu. Rev. Biochem. 2010, 79, 65-87. (3) Hung, A. M.; Noh, H.; Cha, J. N. Nanoscale 2010, 2, 2530-2537.

(4) Voigt, N. V.; Tørring, T.; Rotaru, A.; Jacobsen, M. F.; Ravnsbæk, J. B.; Subramani, R.; Mamdouh, W.; Kjems, J.; Mokhir, A.; Besenbacher,

F.; Gothelf, K. V. Nat. Nanotechnol. 2010, 5, 200-203. (5) Hung, A. M.; Micheel, C. M.; Bozano, L. D.; Osterbur, L. W.;

Wallraff, G. M.; Cha, J. N. Nat. Nanotechnol. 2010, 5, 121–126. (6) Sharma, J.; Chhabra, R.; Cheng, A.; Brownell, J.; Liu, Y.; Yan, H. Science 2009, 323, 112-116.

(7) Maune, H. T.; Han, S.-p.; Barish, R. D.; Bockrath, M.; Goddard, W. A., III; Rothemund, P. W. K.; Winfree, E. Nat. Nanotechnol. 2010, 5, 61-66.

(8) Zhang, J.; Liu, Y.; Ke, Y.; Yan, H. Nano Lett. 2006, 6, 248-251. (9) Keren, K.; Berman, R. S.; Buchstab, E.; Sivan, U.; Braun, E.

Journal of the American Chemical Society

252 253

254

255

256

270 271

- (10) Ding, B.; Deng, Z.; Yan, H.; Cabrini, S.; Zuckermann, R. N.; Bokor, J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2010, 132, 3248-3249.
- (11) Xin, H.; Woolley, A. T. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2003, 125, 8710–8711.
- (12) Pal, S.; Deng, Z.; Ding, B.; Yan, H.; Liu, Y. Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. 2010, 49, 2700-2704.
- (13) Yan, H.; Park, S. H.; Finkelstein, G.; Reif, J. H.; LaBean, T. H. 257 Science 2003, 301, 1882-1884. 2.58
- (14) Ding, B.; Wu, H.; Xu, W.; Zhao, Z.; Liu, Y.; Yu, H.; Yan, H. 259 Nano Lett. 2010, 10, 5065-5069. 260
- (15) He, Y.; Chen, Y.; Liu, H.; Ribbe, A. E.; Mao, C. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 261 2005, 127, 12202-12203. 262
- (16) Kershner, R. J.; Bozano, L. D.; Micheel, C. M.; Hung, A. M.; 263 Fornof, A. R.; Cha, J. N.; Rettner, C. T.; Bersani, M.; Frommer, J.; 264 Rothemund, P. W. K.; Wallraff, G. M. Nat. Nanotechnol. 2009, 265
- 4, 557–561. 266 (17) Gerdon, A. E.; Oh, S. S.; Hsieh, K.; Ke, Y.; Yan, H.; Soh, H. T. 267
- 268 Small 2009, 5, 1942–1946. 269
 - (18) Becerril, H. A.; Woolley, A. T. Small 2007, 3, 1534-1538.
 - (19) Deng, Z.; Mao, C. Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. 2004, 43, 4068–4070.
 - (20) Lee, Y.-I.; Park, K.-H.; Lee, J.; Lee, C.-S.; Yoo, H. J.; Kim, C.-J.;
- Yoon, Y.-S. J. Microelectromech. Syst. 1997, 6, 226-233. 272
- (21) Handbook of Silicon Wafer Cleaning Technology, 2nd ed.; 273 Reinhardt, K. A., Kern, W., Eds.; William Andrew: Norwich, NY, 274 275 2008; pp 281-304.
- (22) Montano-Miranda, G.; Muscat, A. J. Diffus. Defect Data, Pt. B 276 2003, 92, 207-210. 277
- 278 (23) Balkose, D.; Alp, B.; Ulku, S. J. Therm. Anal. Calorim. 2008, 94, 279 695-698.
- (24) Mizushima, S. Metrologia 2004, 41, 137-144. 280
- (25) Please see the Supporting Information for experimental details. 281 282
 - (26) Deng, Z.; Mao, C. Nano Lett. 2003, 3, 1545-1548.
- (27) Xia, Q. F.; Morton, K. J.; Austin, R. H.; Chou, S. Y. Nano Lett. 283 2008, 8, 3830-3833. 284
- (28) Nam, S.-K.; Lee, M.-H.; Lee, S.-H.; Lee, D.-J.; Rossnagel, S. M.; 285 Kim, K.-B. Nano Lett. 2010, 10, 3324-3329. 286