

# Some properties of electron beam evaporated amorphous Mo-N films\*

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A series of amorphous Mo-N films was prepared by electron beam evaporation of molybdenum in varying partial pressures of nitrogen and deposited onto substrates cooled to about 80 K. The alloy films were characterized by X-ray diffraction, the superconducting transition temperature,  $T_c$ , and the crystallization temperature,  $T_x$ . The maximum  $T_c$  (8.3 K) and sharpest transition occurred with the minimum nitrogen pressure necessary to form the amorphous structure, as revealed by X-ray diffraction. After annealing the as-deposited films, both bcc and fcc phases were found with the bcc/fcc ratio decreasing with increasing nitrogen partial pressure. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) measurements showed significant differences in the shape of peaks associated with either bcc, bcc + fcc, or fcc phases. The temperature,  $T_x$ , associated with the fcc crystallization increased with nitrogen content. Heats of crystallization had an average value of about  $63 \text{ J g}^{-1}$ . Changes in position of the first amorphous X-ray diffraction peak showed that the amorphous structure was expanded by increasing nitrogen content.

## 1. Introduction

Both amorphous and metastable films of Mo-N have been prepared by coevaporation [1-3] and nitrogen implantation [4]. The superconducting transition temperature,  $T_c$ , has been shown to increase dramatically from that of pure molybdenum in both cases. Vandenberg and Matthias [5] produced hexagonal Mo-N by high-pressure synthesis that had  $T_c$  in the range 13 to 14.8 K. Recently Pickett *et al.* [6] calculated that if Mo-N with a B1 structure were stable and could be prepared, a  $T_c$  above that of NbN, NbC and MoC could be achieved.

In addition to the effect of sample preparation techniques and parameters on superconductivity, there is interest in other properties of these films such as the thermal stability and crystallization behaviour. No direct thermal measurements for identifying crystallization temperatures and heats of crystallization have been reported for amorphous Mo-N.

In this paper we describe the preparation of Mo-N films by reactive evaporation along with measurements of  $T_c$ , X-ray diffraction patterns and the crystallization behaviour of the films.

## 2. Experimental techniques

### 2.1. Preparation

The alloy films were prepared by electron beam evaporation of high purity molybdenum in partial pressures of nitrogen. The mass of the nitrogen arriving at the substrate is found by:

$$G = 4.375 \times 10^{-4} (P_a) \left( \frac{M}{T} \right)^{1/2} \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ sec}^{-1} \quad (1)$$

where  $G$  is the mass of gas in grams per unit area per unit time,  $P_a$  is the pressure in Pascal,  $M$  is the molecular mass in grams and  $T$  is the temperature. The mass of the molybdenum was obtained from a quartz-crystal rate-thickness monitor. A constant

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deposition rate of  $0.5 \text{ nm sec}^{-1}$  in nitrogen pressures ranging from  $1.33$  to  $13.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ Pa}$  ( $< 1$  to  $10 \times 10^{-6}$  torr) made it possible to achieve a wide composition range as shown in Fig. 1. A sticking factor of one is assumed for the calculation of Fig. 1. The films were collected on a liquid nitrogen cooled copper substrate and subsequently removed by applying a coating of collodion and stripping the film from the copper. Substrates of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , glass and silicon crystals were also tried. Although a thermally conducting grease was applied between these substrates and the cooled copper, the temperatures of the substrates was higher and the films were generally crystalline.

Film thickness ranged between 100 and 1000 nm; however, during the later portion of the work, a thickness of 150 nm was chosen as standard and most of the work reported here was done on films of that thickness.

The original films were brought to room temperature before X-ray diffraction and  $T_c$  measurements were made. For thermal analysis (crystal-

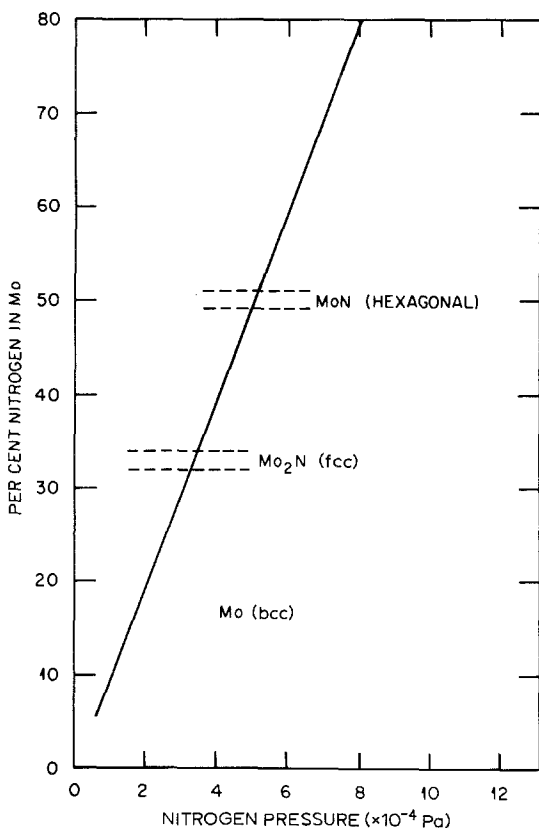


Figure 1 The atom per cent of nitrogen in molybdenum as a function of the partial pressure of nitrogen at a constant deposition rate of  $0.5 \text{ nm sec}^{-1}$  and assuming a condensation coefficient of one.

lization, glass transition and precrystallization behaviour) the films were placed in alcohol and agitated to separate the Mo-N from the collodion material.

## 2.2. X-ray diffraction

For X-ray diffraction, the sample was removed from the substrate and deposited as a dense alcohol suspension onto a silicon single crystal. Analyses were made with a fully automated Philips Electronic Instruments powder diffractometer (APD 3600) utilizing  $\text{CuK}\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda_1 = 0.154051 \text{ nm}$ ). The data were smoothed with the second derivative peak searching and smoothing subroutine, which enhances the detectability of weak peaks at or very near the background intensity. A peak was always observed at or very near the bcc (110)  $-2\theta$  position but the crystallinity was established by the presence or absence of the (200) diffraction maxima and other Bragg peaks.

## 2.3. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)

Differential scanning calorimetry provides a direct, rapid and accurate means of measuring temperatures and heats of transition [7]. A particular advantage is that the heat of transformation can be measured from the area under the power input-temperature curve using a single calibration factor, regardless of the rate of the temperature scan. The indicated temperature of the transformation does vary with the heating rate. The transformation temperature in an irreversible event, such as the glass-crystal transformation, is an elusive parameter depending on sample history, thermal resistance between sample and calorimeter sample cup and baseline construction. A variety of DSC scans are presented in Fig. 2, not only for the illustration of the various features of the thermal events, but for reference to later discussion of the structural character of the crystallized material. The ordinate represents the differential rate of power input to the sample relative to a reference required to keep both sample and reference at the same temperature. Thus, the peaks shown actually represent lower heat input to the sample as it releases energy during crystallization. All samples were tested under a constant heating rate of  $20 \text{ K min}^{-1}$ . However, their simple masses varied from 6.5 mg to 0.1 mg. The low thermal resistance, the small mass of sample and the relatively low heating rate indicate a thermal lag of less than 5 K, which

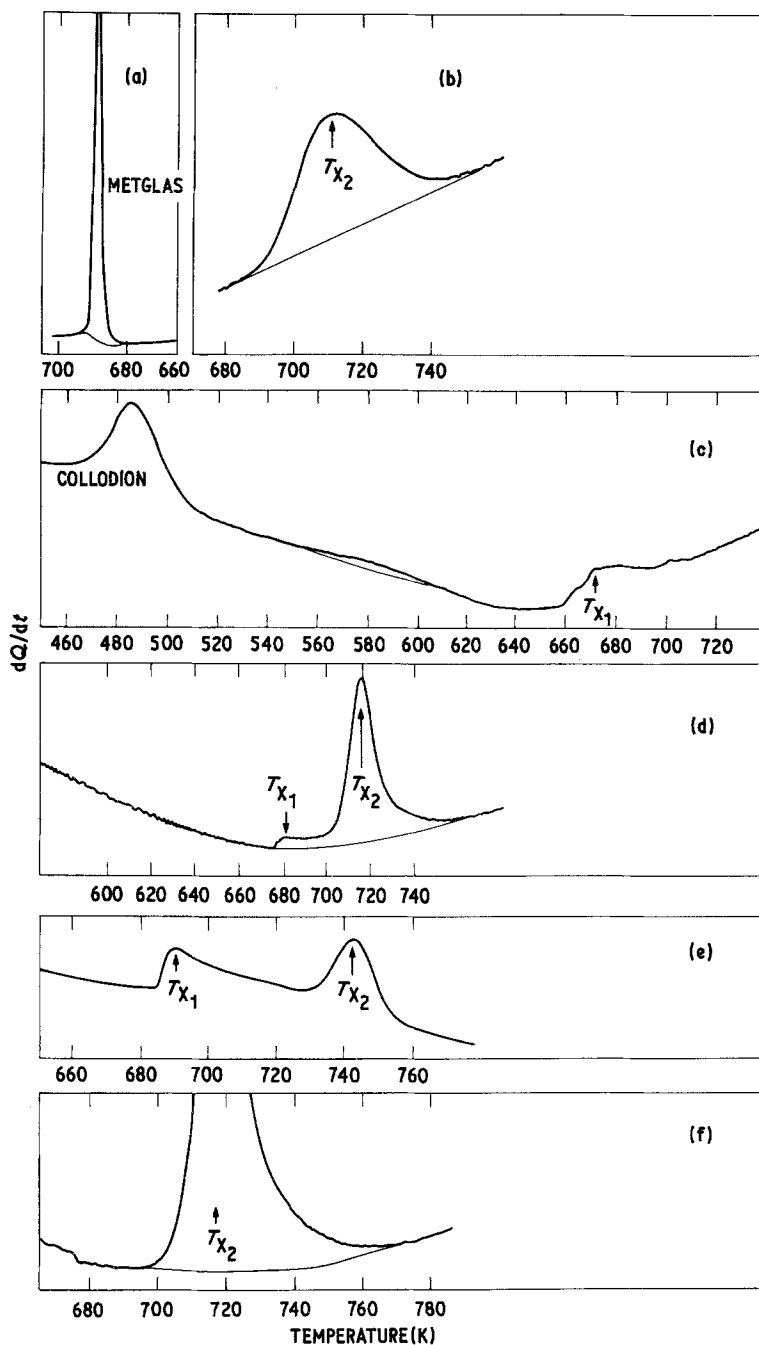


Figure 2 DSC scans show widely different peak shapes. Heating rate:  $20 \text{ K min}^{-1}$ . These DSC scans were chosen to illustrate the various peak shapes that were found. Scans b, d and e are from samples deposited with an electrical bias applied to the substrate and were not included in the results of this study. (a) Metglas ( $\text{Fe}_{40}\text{Ni}_{40}\text{P}_{14}\text{B}_6$ ), (b) type  $T_{x_2}$ , (c) peak from colloid residue plus type  $T_{x_1}$ ,  $P = 2.7 \times 10^{-4} \text{ Pa}$ , (d) type  $T_{x_1}$  appearing as a shoulder on type  $T_{x_2}$ , (e) type  $T_{x_1}$  with long tail plus  $T_{x_2}$  and (f) extremely large type  $T_{x_2}$  response,  $P = 8.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ Pa}$ .

is low compared to reported analyses of other metallic glasses [8]. Temperature calibration was checked using indium, zinc and potassium chromate standards. The indicated temperatures are accurate to within about 0.5 K.

A DSC scan of Metglass  $\text{Fe}_{40}\text{Ni}_{40}\text{P}_{14}\text{B}_6$  (Ventron no. 89646) is included in Fig. 2a for comparison to the more complex Mo-N results. The scans from the Mo-N samples are judged to represent a composite crystallization event (see later

discussion) and are assigned two temperatures,  $T_{x_1}$  representing a relatively sharp low temperature exothermic rise, and  $T_{x_2}$  representing the smoother higher temperature peak.

The baseline to be drawn is not obvious and various approaches can be used [9]. For the Mo-N curves, with their variety and breadth of peaks, a simple arbitrary baseline extrapolation, shown in Fig. 2d was deemed an adequate procedure.

The heats of transformation were determined

based on the entire  $T_{x_1}$ ,  $T_{x_2}$  event using the formula

$$\Delta H = \Delta H_{\text{ref}} \frac{m_{\text{ref}}}{m} \frac{R}{R_{\text{ref}}} \frac{A}{A_{\text{ref}}} \quad (2)$$

where  $\Delta H_{\text{ref}}$  is the known heat of fusion of the zinc or indium reference,  $m$  is the mass,  $A$  is the area under the DSC curve measured with a planimeter,  $R$  is the range of the instrument, indicated in  $\text{mcal sec}^{-1}$  (high  $R$  means low sensitivity), and the chart speed is the same for all measurements.

## 2.4. Superconductivity

Measurement of  $T_c$  was made by monitoring the sample resistance continuously as a function of temperature. The sample was pressed against four gold wire contacts (four point probe technique) on a boron nitride (BN) block. A calibrated germanium thermometer embedded in the block directly under the film monitored temperature and a manganin heater coil surrounded the BN block. Film resistances varying from milliohms to  $10 \text{ k}\Omega$  could be measured with a modified Keithley milliohmmeter. Transition temperatures were accurately reproducible with less than  $0.1 \text{ K}$  error. Fig. 3 illustrates the range of results. The

sharp, complete transition of niobium, as shown in Fig. 3a, was used as a temperature calibration check. The non-zero resistances below  $T_c$  represent incomplete conductivity paths caused by cracks in the films. Extrapolation points H and L, shown in Fig. 3b, were used in determining the transition temperature  $T_c = (T_H + T_L)/2$ , the reduced transition width  $\Delta T/T_c$  where  $\Delta T = (T_H - T_L)$ , and the "completeness" of the transition  $(R_H - R_L)/R_H$ , where  $R_H$  is essentially the same as the normal resistance above  $T_c$ . It is clear from the shape of the curves in Fig. 3c and d that the low temperature end of the transition, for example, the sharp discontinuity at zero ohms in Fig. 3a, could not be used to define  $T_c$  for these films.

Crystalline films such as those represented in Figs. 3b and c had positive or zero temperature coefficients of resistance near  $T_c$  in the normal state. Amorphous films often, but not always, had a negative coefficient, as illustrated in Fig. 3d.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. X-ray diffraction-structure

#### 3.1.1. Amorphous Mo-N films

A DSC scan of Metglass  $\text{Fe}_{40}\text{Ni}_{40}\text{P}_{14}\text{B}_6$  (Ventron no. 89646) is included. Fig. 4 illustrates examples

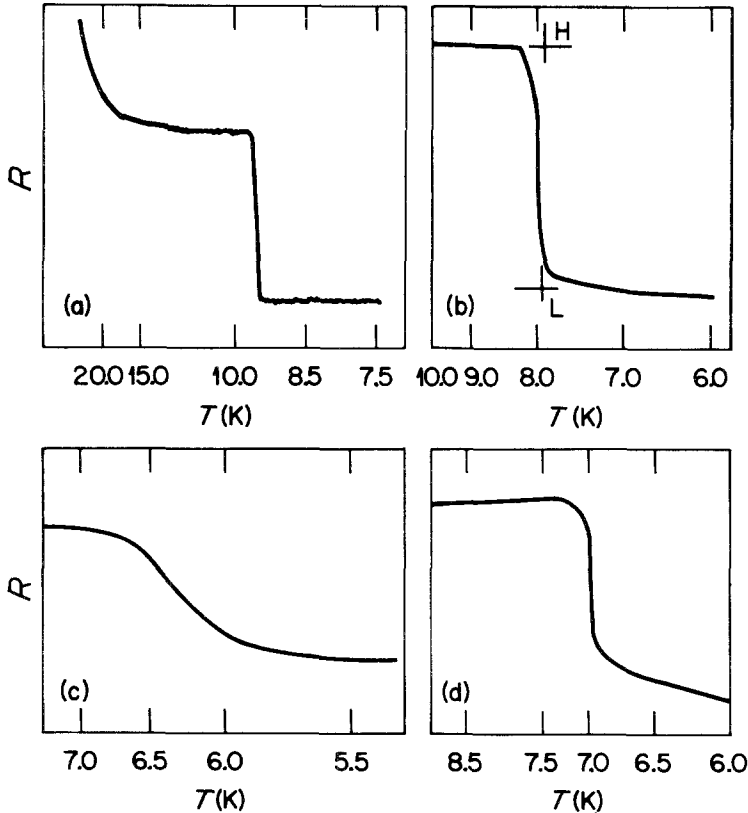


Figure 3 Various shapes of resistance curves against temperature curves used to determine  $T_c$ . (a) Pure niobium,  $T_c = 9.1 \text{ K}$ ; (b) Mo-N (crystalline),  $P = 1.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ Pa}$ ,  $T_c = 8.0 \text{ K}$ ; (c) Mo-N (crystalline),  $P = 2.7 \times 10^{-4} \text{ Pa}$ ,  $T_c = 6.3 \text{ K}$ ; (d) Mo-N,  $P = 5.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ Pa}$ ,  $T_c = 7.1 \text{ K}$ .

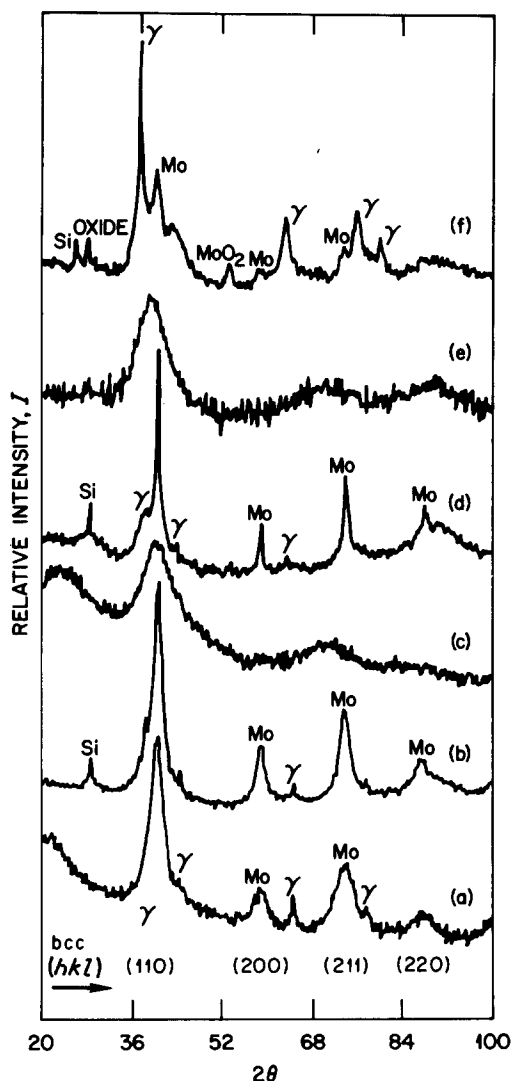


Figure 4 X-ray diffraction patterns a, ( $P = 1.3 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa); c, ( $P = 4 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa); and e, ( $P = 5.3 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa) are from as-deposited alloy films. The patterns b, d and f are from the same samples after annealing to 790 K.

of the wide range of X-ray diffraction patterns of the Mo–N samples. Patterns taken from as-deposited Mo–N films under different pressures are shown as follows: Fig. 4a,  $P = 1.3 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa ( $T_c < 3.5$  K); Fig. 4c,  $P = 4 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa ( $T_c = 7.9$  K); and Fig. 4e,  $P = 5.3 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa ( $T_c = 7.7$  K). Fig. 4a clearly shows lines of the bcc-Mo structure (designated Mo) with a lattice spacing of 0.315 nm, in good agreement with the literature value of 0.3147 nm [10] for pure molybdenum. Some fcc-Mo<sub>2</sub>N lines (designated  $\gamma$ ) are also indicated with an fcc lattice spacing of 0.408 nm as compared to the literature value of 0.4163 nm for pure Mo<sub>2</sub>N. The nitrogen content of this

sample was insufficient to stabilize the amorphous structure, and no  $T_c$  was observed down to 3.5 K. In contrast, Figs. 4c and e exhibit the typical amorphous pattern. The sample in Fig. 4e showed no evidence of crystallization or of structural change after annealing to 600 K. The high and low angle humps on this pattern are due to the silicon crystal sample holder background.

Fig. 4 also reveals a shift of the first amorphous peak to smaller  $2\theta$  at a higher nitrogen pressure. These effects appear to reach saturation limits for nitrogen pressures greater than  $8 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa suggesting that a limiting concentration of nitrogen in the molybdenum matrix has been reached. An average nearest neighbour distance (ANND) for Mo–Mo atoms was calculated from the  $d$  value of the first amorphous peak. The results are plotted in Fig. 5c. It is seen that ANND increased from 0.272 nm for bcc molybdenum and low pressure amorphous films to 0.284 nm at nitrogen pressures greater than  $8 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa, which corresponds to an increase of 4.4% in the Mo–Mo distance. Schröder *et al.* [3] measured an increase of 6% in the Mo–Mo distance for an amorphous Mo–N film of 23 wt% N with  $T_c = 8$  K. They also reported a broadening of the (110) peak at higher nitrogen pressure. Schmidt [11] reported 0.6 to 2.3% lattice expansion of pure molybdenum films that were ion-beam sputtered with noble gas atoms.

The exact nature of the disordered structure of the Mo–N films is uncertain. Schröder obtained radial distribution functions and ascribed a structure in close agreement with the DRPHS model [3]. Like Schmidt [11] and Schröder *et al.* [3], Meyer [12] also attributes enhanced  $T_c$  to a disordered molybdenum phase, stabilized by nitrogen, but he suggests that vapour-quenched films are microcrystalline in nature.

### 3.1.2. Annealed Mo–N samples

Fig. 4b shows the diffraction pattern of the pressure =  $1.3 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa sample after annealing to 790 K in the DSC. It reveals clearly a series of relatively sharp Bragg peaks. The DSC record had a weak but significant response to the  $T_{x_1}$  type peak at 695 K, verifying that additional crystallization had occurred. This additional crystallization occurred in the bcc phase, as noted by comparing the bcc (211) and fcc (220) lines and the bcc (110) and fcc (111) lines. The bcc lines are clearly sharpened with increased line intensities while the fcc lines show little change. The DSC

THE EFFECT OF NITROGEN PRESSURE ON  
VARIOUS PARAMETERS OF Mo-N FILMS  
(BIAS = ZERO)

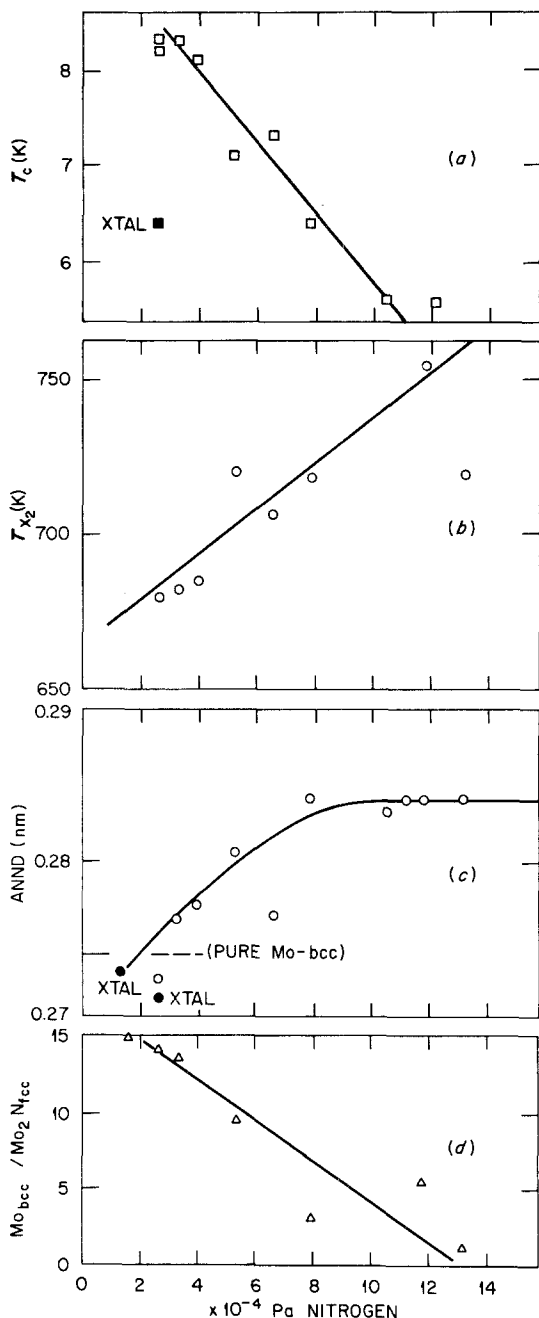


Figure 5 Nitrogen partial pressure dependence of  $T_c$ ,  $T_{x_2}$ , average nearest neighbour distance (ANND), and  $\text{Mo (bcc)}/\text{Mo}_2\text{N (fcc)}$ .

scan of this sample showed  $T_{x_1}$ -type behaviour and thus correlates the  $T_{x_1}$  peak to bcc crystallization.

Fig. 4d is the diffraction pattern of a nitrogen pressure =  $4 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa sample after annealing to

790 K. The bcc structure is clearly dominant, but there is still a small amount of the fcc structure present. If one compares only the fcc peaks in the diffraction patterns of Fig. 4b and Fig. 4d, it is apparent that there is little difference in the peak shapes, position or breadth. However, the bcc peaks of Fig. 4d are much sharper and less broadened. The only parameter that is different in the two samples is the nitrogen partial pressure at which the samples were prepared and hence an increase in the nitrogen concentration between the two samples. The DSC scan of this sample revealed  $T_{x_1}$ -type behaviour.

Fig. 4f is the diffraction pattern of a nitrogen pressure =  $5.3 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa sample after annealing and exhibits a dominance of the fcc- $\text{Mo}_2\text{N}$  phase. Its DSC scan is of the  $T_{x_2}$ -type.

A higher nitrogen concentration results in a greater fraction of fcc- $\text{Mo}_2\text{N}$  in the crystallized samples. This is illustrated in Fig. 5d, which shows the ratio of the X-ray intensities of the bcc-Mo (211) and fcc- $\text{Mo}_2\text{N}$  (220) peaks ( $\text{Mo}_{\text{bcc}}/\text{Mo}_2\text{N}_{\text{fcc}}$ ) as a function of nitrogen pressure. The lattice parameters of the crystallized phases match the literature values [10] of 0.3147 nm for bcc molybdenum and 0.4164 nm for fcc- $\text{Mo}_2\text{N}$ . There was no evidence of a hcp phase in any sample. The fct phase of  $\text{Mo}_2\text{N}$ , whose set of  $d$ -values are extremely close to that of fcc, is discounted since it is unstable below  $600^\circ\text{C}$  [13].

### 3.2. Differential scanning calorimetry

The DSC scans, shown in Fig. 2, were chosen to illustrate varying shapes of the peaks. Scans 2b, 2d and 2e are from samples deposited with an electrical bias applied to the substrate. Samples deposited in this manner were not considered in the effect on  $T_c$ ,  $T_x$  and ANND. Only results from samples deposited with no substrate bias were considered in the final evaluation. Relative to the Metglas crystallization peak in Fig. 2a, it is clear that the Mo-N annealing behaviour is considerably more complex and diffuse. The temperature  $T_{x_2}$ , measured at the maximum of the peak, increases with nitrogen pressure, Fig. 5b. The lower temperature  $T_{x_1}$ , denoting the step-like response seen on some curves, does not vary systematically with pressure.

The smooth peaks marked by  $T_{x_2}$  represent a typical first-order transformation. The interpretation of the  $T_{x_1}$  peak is more complex. In Fig. 2c as in other scans of samples where the  $T_{x_2}$  peak is

absent or weak, a  $T_{x_1}$  peak is observed with a sharp rise-long tail. Greer [8] has suggested that delayed crystallization can occur in some regions of a sample due to the lack of quenched-in nuclei. This delayed crystallization, in the form of an additional weak DSC peak, takes place when nuclei are produced by further heating. Whether this is the cause of the long tail on the  $T_{x_1}$  peak observed in our samples or whether it is due to inhomogeneities or other micromechanisms of crystallization such as discussed by Köster and Herold [14] is not clear. In Fig. 2e, the two peaks are separated, while in Fig. 2d, the  $T_{x_1}$  peak appears as a shoulder on the  $T_{x_2}$  peak.

The increase of  $T_{x_2}$  with nitrogen pressure implies a higher amorphous phase stability with increased nitrogen in the material, with respect to the part of the transformation represented by the  $T_{x_2}$  peak. The relationship of the  $T_{x_2}$  peak to the relative amounts of bcc-Mo and fcc-Mo<sub>2</sub>N phases measured in the annealed material also shows this effect (see Figs. 5b and d). It is further observed that  $T_{x_2}$  dominates the total curve increasingly as the pressure, and hence nitrogen fraction, increases (Fig. 2f).

One possible interpretation of these features views the  $T_{x_2}$  peak as a crystallization of fcc-Mo<sub>2</sub>N, while the  $T_{x_1}$  peak is a crystallization of bcc-Mo from an amorphous matrix. Although Mo<sub>2</sub>N has a narrow composition range around 33 at % N, the presence after annealing of weak Mo<sub>2</sub>N peaks in even the samples formed at low nitrogen pressure suggests that islands of Mo<sub>2</sub>N may exist in the original material and/or that nitrogen may diffuse to pre-existent nuclei. Linker and Meyer [4] also found the fcc phase with as low as 10 at % N in ion-implanted films.

One must consider the possibility that grain growth, occurring suddenly at a certain temperature, could contribute or be responsible for not only a sharpening of the diffraction peaks but also a DSC response. Vitek [15] has calculated that the change in surface energy of microcrystalline grains, of the order about 1.0 nm suddenly growing to greater than 2.0 nm would be approximately the same as the heat of crystallization from the amorphous state. The results of this study are not sufficient to absolutely separate the effects of microcrystalline grain growth or crystallization.

Currently, a detailed study of the kinetics of the Mo-N glass-crystal transformation is underway [16]. Preliminary results indicate a Johnson-

Mehl-Avrami (JMA) behaviour in two stages. The JMA coefficient in the first stage varies in the range  $n = 3.5$  to  $4.0$ , indicating a constant to decreasing nucleation rate [17]. The second stage  $n$  value is lower, and this may be a clue to the dimensional limitations in the growth process. It is not clear whether the two stages represent two phases crystallizing or two successive modes of crystallization or perhaps both.

A sample that gave the strongest DSC signal, (Fig. 2f), had an upper limit value of  $\Delta H = 37 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ , assuming a composition of 33 at % N. This value is comparable to  $36.7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  for Fe<sub>80</sub>B<sub>20</sub> reported by Greer [8].

Broad exothermic peaks other than the identified  $T_{x_1}$ ,  $T_{x_2}$  peaks were observed in many samples. These events occur in the range 500 to 650 K as illustrated by the broad peak centred at 580 K in Fig. 2c. They showed no evident trend either in temperature or in connection to other film parameters. X-ray diffraction of some samples annealed to 600 K showed no evidence of crystallization, thus negating the likelihood that any crystallization occurred in any thermal events other than the  $T_{x_1}$ - $T_{x_2}$  peaks. This is in contrast with the implantation investigation by Linker and Meyer [4] who found crystalline phases at lower temperatures. Also several scans up to 1000 K in the DSC, using graphite pans, revealed no further events such as crystal-crystal transformations or glass-crystal transformations.

Oscillations of the type observed in (Fig. 2d) were observed in several samples. They did not seem related to other parameters, nor did they occur with any known variation in the instrumental technique. Their origin is a matter of conjecture but may be related to structural relaxation in the amorphous state. The possible glass transition seen in Fig. 2f at about 675 K was the only one observed in all of the samples examined.

### 3.3. Superconductivity

Most alloy films were crystalline at compositions resulting from depositing at nitrogen partial pressures below about  $2.7 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa. There was a nitrogen pressure region between 1.3 to  $2.7 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa in which the films had either amorphous, crystalline or mixed structures.

The width of the superconducting transition, ( $\Delta T/T_c$ ), increased with increasing nitrogen pressure for amorphous films as shown in Fig. 6. Note that  $\Delta T/T_c$  of films that were crystalline or par-

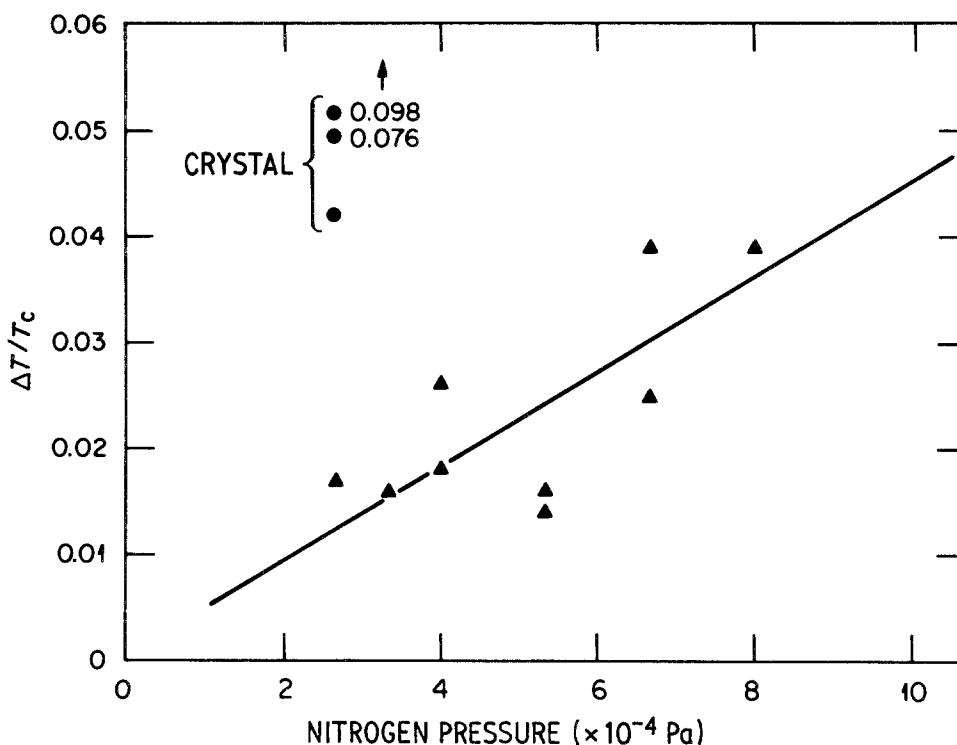


Figure 6 Width of the superconducting transition,  $\Delta T/T_c$ , as a function of partial pressure of nitrogen.

tially crystalline, prepared at  $2.7 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa  $N_2$ , were greater by a factor of 10 than  $\Delta T/T_c$  for amorphous films prepared at the same pressure. The “completeness” of the transformation, defined earlier as a fractional change in sample resistance, improves with the lower pressure amorphous films.

Films prepared at nitrogen pressures of  $2.7 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa exhibited the highest  $T_c$  (8.3 K) along with the narrowest transition (0.13 K). Fig. 5 describes four properties of films prepared at varying nitrogen pressures. At pressures greater than  $2.7 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa  $N_2$ ,  $T_c$  drops monotonically with pressure as shown in Fig. 5a. Since the substrate was not cooled below about 80 K, there is a possibility that lower substrate temperatures might enhance the formation of the amorphous structure at lower nitrogen pressures and thus produce a higher  $T_c$ .

#### 4. Summary

Partial pressures of nitrogen greater than or equal to  $7 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa stabilized the amorphous structure in Mo–N alloy films vapour deposited on gold-plated copper substrates at about 80 K. Enhanced  $T_c$ 's were achieved, with the highest  $T_c$  (8.3 K) and the narrowest transition width (0.13 K) found at the minimum nitrogen composition necessary

to stabilize the amorphous structure. Additional nitrogen decreased  $T_c$  monotonically or approximately linearly with nitrogen pressure.

The DSC scans produced a broad exothermic transformation composed of two peaks. One peak has a transformation temperature,  $T_{x_2}$ , which increased with nitrogen concentration over the range 680 to 755 K. The other peak has a transformation temperature,  $T_{x_1}$ , which varied over the range 650 to 700 K but showed no consistent dependence on nitrogen concentration.

The effect of nitrogen pressure on  $T_c$ , crystallization temperature, and nearest Mo–Mo distances seemed to saturate above a nitrogen pressure of about  $8 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa. This would indicate a limit of approximately 35 at% N if the assumption of a sticking factor of one holds for both molybdenum and nitrogen. X-ray diffraction also identified bcc-Mo and fcc-Mo<sub>2</sub>N phases in the annealed samples.

The Mo–Mo nearest neighbour distance was increased linearly with nitrogen concentration by a maximum of 4.4% at pressures greater than or equal to  $8 \times 10^{-4}$  Pa. The fcc phase became dominant as the nitrogen pressure was increased. The  $T_{x_2}$  peak on the DSC scans also dominates as nitrogen increased, indicating its association with fcc



crystallization. The  $T_{x_1}$  peak is associated with the crystallization of bcc molybdenum. Traces of fcc phase detected in some of the lowest pressure samples are evidence that  $\text{Mo}_2\text{N}$  islands may be present in the as-deposited films.

Heat of crystallization values were measured and found to be in the range of 50 to 84 J g<sup>-1</sup> for most samples.

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