

# Scalable Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>–TiO<sub>2</sub> Conductive Oxide Interfaces as Defect Reservoirs for Resistive Switching Devices

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Resistive switching devices herald a transformative technology for memory and computation, offering considerable advantages in performance and energy efficiency. Here, a simple and scalable material system of conductive oxide interfaces is employed, and their unique properties are leveraged for a new type of resistive switching device. An Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>–TiO<sub>2</sub>-based valence-change resistive switching device, where the conductive oxide interface serves both as the bottom electrode and as a reservoir of defects for switching, is demonstrated. The amorphous–polycrystalline Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>–TiO<sub>2</sub> conductive interface is obtained following the technological path of simplifying the fabrication of the 2D electron gases (2DEGs), making them scalable for practical mass integration. Physical analysis of the device chemistry and microstructure with comprehensive electrical analysis of its switching behavior and performance is combined. The origin of the resistive switching is pinpointed to the conductive oxide interface, which serves both as the bottom electrode and as a reservoir of oxygen vacancies. The latter plays a key role in valence-change resistive switching devices. The new device, based on scalable and complementary metal–oxide–semiconductor (CMOS)-technology-compatible fabrication processes, opens new design spaces toward increased tunability and simplification of the device selection challenge.

## 1. Introduction

The 2D electron gases (2DEGs) formed at some oxide interfaces provide a fertile ground for many physical phenomena<sup>[1–6]</sup>

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that do not exist in the corresponding bulk oxide materials. These phenomena and the sheet resistance tunability of the 2DEG make it interesting for various device applications such as the channel in transistors<sup>[7–9]</sup> and the electrode in resistive switching memories.<sup>[10–14]</sup> Resistive switching memory, which has a metal–oxide–metal sandwich structure, is a promising candidate for next-generation memories to address the vast data storage requirement in the big data era.<sup>[15,16]</sup> Its conductance tunability emulating the synaptic plasticity makes it applicable for brain-inspired in-memory computing,<sup>[17–20]</sup> which can overcome the memory bottleneck in the traditional von Neumann architecture and drastically decrease the energy consumption.

Several 2DEGs based valence change memory (VCM) devices were reported on various materials systems,<sup>[10,12–14]</sup> which share a common feature of using single-crystal SrTiO<sub>3</sub> substrates. The 2DEGs in these works function as the bottom electrodes of the devices. Originally, 2DEGs were fabricated exclusively by oxide epitaxy, typically by pulsed laser deposition (PLD) at high temperatures of 600–800 °C. The epitaxial oxide layer was subsequently replaced by amorphous oxides, such as Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, which lowered the deposition temperature to ≈300 °C by the use of atomic layer deposition (ALD).<sup>[21]</sup> However, the use of SrTiO<sub>3</sub> single crystal substrates hinders the scalability and makes direct integration of such devices too complicated for the complementary metal–oxide–semiconductor (CMOS) process. Recent works have reported 2DEG at the interface of amorphous Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and polycrystalline TiO<sub>2</sub>,<sup>[8,11,22–24]</sup> both deposited in a single ALD process. The mechanism of the 2DEG formation was determined to be the formation of oxygen vacancies at the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface through a reduction caused by the Al ALD precursor in the initial stages of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> deposition.<sup>[23]</sup> These negative charges at the TiO<sub>2</sub> side of the interface result in a downward band bending at the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface, which was shown to localize the 2DEG carriers near the interface.<sup>[8]</sup> The use of low-temperature ALD opens the opportunity for scalable fabrication of resistive switching memory devices with CMOS-compatible processes and materials that can be integrated on the Si backend or a variety of other substrates. An electrochemical metallization (ECM) device of Cu/Ti/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> has been reported,<sup>[11]</sup> where the resistive switching is based on the formation and rupture of filaments

consisting of Cu metal ions from the top electrode. The 2DEG formed at the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  interface is inherently driven by oxygen vacancies, and it can thus act as an oxygen vacancy reservoir for VCM type resistive switching memory devices in addition to its more conventional role as a bottom electrode.

Here we report the first demonstration of VCM devices based on the 2DEGs formed at the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  interface. The interface is fabricated at low temperatures ( $<300^\circ\text{C}$ ) using the scalable ALD technique. The use of the low-temperature ALD and simple binary oxide materials system provides a unique feature of the 2DEG based devices being able to be integrated with the back-end-of-line CMOS process. Note that for the sake of convenience, we use the term 2DEG very loosely to describe conductive oxide interfaces, in many of which the conductivity is not limited to a 2D sheet exactly at the interface, and it may extend deeper into the bottom material.

Unlike standard resistive switching devices, where the bottom electrode is a metal, a distinct feature of the 2DEG electrode is that it can be switched off, via depletion by field effect.<sup>[8]</sup> This feature of 2DEGs opens prospects of depleting the device's bottom electrode via the top electrode, which would result in a strongly asymmetric behavior. The asymmetry provides the potential to design self-rectifying resistive switching devices.<sup>[16,25]</sup> This is an attractive approach for inhibiting sneak-path currents, which circumvents the necessity of additional transistors or selector devices in cross-bar arrays.<sup>[26]</sup> As such, self-rectifying devices can dramatically simplify the large-scale integration of resistive switching memory arrays.

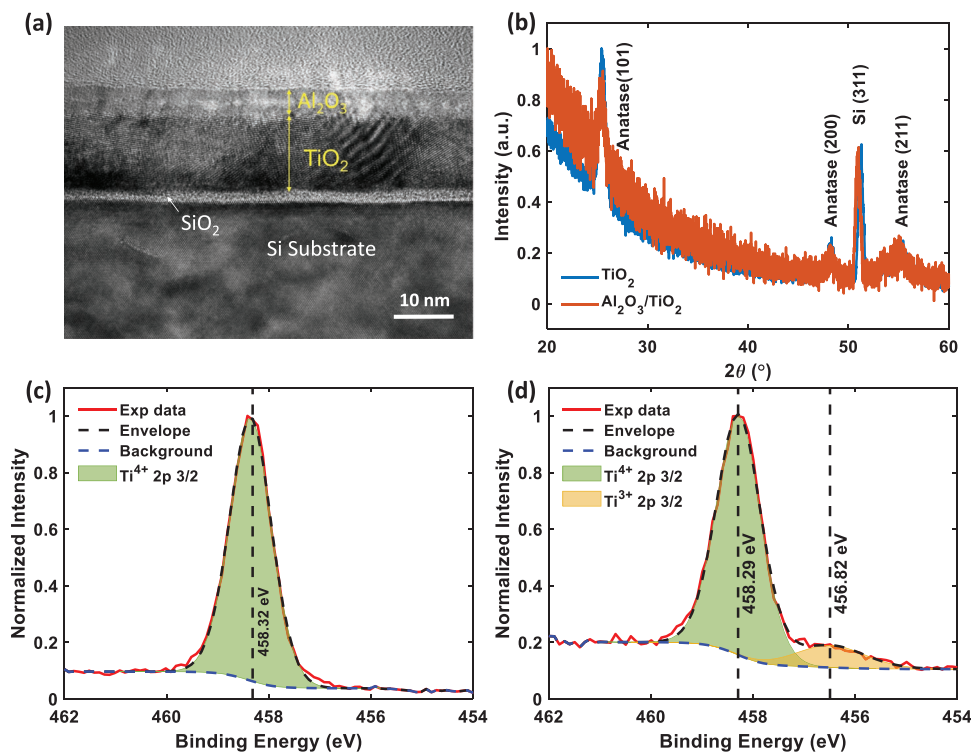
Our demonstration of scalable 2DEG-based VCM devices paves the way toward fulfilling this promise.

## 2. Results and Discussion

We start by understanding the 2DEGs' features and mechanism and then follow on their role in the device.

### 2.1. Conductive Interface between $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and $\text{TiO}_2$

The  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  2DEG sheet resistance is determined as  $5000 \pm 40 \Omega \text{ square}^{-1}$  using the Van der Pauw configuration. The substrate is connected in parallel to the 2DEG, but it does not significantly affect the 2DEG's role in the resistive switching given its high resistivity ( $\approx 70 \text{ k}\Omega \text{ cm}$ ) and vertical distance ( $\text{SiO}_2 + \text{TiO}_2$  layers) from the resistive switching layer,  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ . The cross-sectional transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image of the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  heterostructure is shown in **Figure 1a**. The phase contrast from the  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer indicates that it is primarily polycrystalline. The crystal structure of  $\text{TiO}_2$  is determined as anatase as indicated by grazing-incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD, **Figure 1b**, ICDD card #00-21-1272), and the thickness is  $14.8 \pm 0.6 \text{ nm}$  determined by X-ray reflectivity (XRR, **Figure S1**, Supporting Information). No phase contrast or a clear crystal lattice is observed in the TEM image of the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layer. Our prior diffraction results<sup>[27]</sup> have shown the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layer to be amorphous.



**Figure 1.** The  $\text{TiO}_2$  and the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  2DEG heterostructure material characterization. a) TEM cross-sectional view of the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  film stack. b) GIXRD of the uncapped  $\text{TiO}_2$  film and the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  2DEG film stack on  $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Si}$  substrates. The peaks at  $2\theta = 25.5^\circ$ ,  $48.2^\circ$ ,  $55.0^\circ$  correspond to anatase (101), (200), and (211), respectively. The peak at  $2\theta = 51.0^\circ$  corresponds to Si (311). c,d) XPS spectra of Ti 2p of the uncapped  $\text{TiO}_2$  film (c) and the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  2DEG heterostructure (d). Here the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layer is 2 nm thick.

The mechanism behind the interface conductivity is probed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis of the Ti 2p region in TiO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 1c,d). A spectrum of the surface of the uncapped TiO<sub>2</sub> (also 14.8 ± 0.6 nm thick, without an Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> overlayer) shows a nearly stoichiometric Ti<sup>4+</sup> originating in TiO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 1c). A similar sample with a 2 nm thick Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> capping layer shows a significant Ti<sup>3+</sup> component, constituting 15 ± 0.5% of the Ti 2p total peak area (Figure 1d). This lower oxidation state results from a reduction of the TiO<sub>2</sub> by the Al precursor during the early stages of the ALD-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> process,<sup>[23]</sup> leading to the generation of oxygen vacancies. These oxygen vacancies act as n-type dopants in the otherwise insulating TiO<sub>2</sub>, and they are therefore the source of the 2DEG.<sup>[8]</sup> This XPS fingerprint of 2DEG formation is also commonly observed in 2DEGs based on SrTiO<sub>3</sub> substrates.<sup>[21,28–30]</sup> Samples without the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layer, showing no Ti<sup>3+</sup> features (Figure 1c), are electrically insulating ( $R_s > 10^9 \Omega \text{ square}^{-1}$ , out of our test equipment limit), showing only negligible contribution of conductivity from the Si substrate below (or no measurable conductivity when deposited on a glass substrate for comparison).

Therefore, the process described here for Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> deposition results in the formation of 2DEGs at the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> interface, as observed by the interface conductivity and the significant Ti<sup>3+</sup> component (Figure 1d). These observations reproduce the results of Seok et al. who showed that the conductivity originates from interfacial oxygen vacancies<sup>[8]</sup> generated during the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> deposition.<sup>[23]</sup>

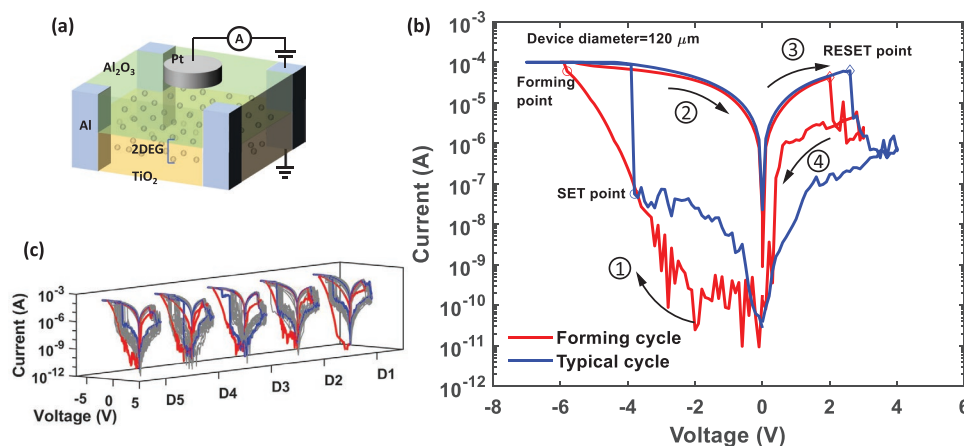
Here the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (2 nm) acts as a protection layer for the 2DEG formed in the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>[29]</sup> It was intentionally made thin to allow the XPS to probe the underlying TiO<sub>2</sub>, whereas, in the device to follow, thicker Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layers (5 nm) will be employed. The reduction process may well extend the range of the oxygen vacancies into the TiO<sub>2</sub> layer, making the conductivity not limited strictly to the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> interface. Therefore, the use of the term 2DEG is not rigorously justified, rather it is used here loosely for convenience.<sup>[31]</sup>

## 2.2. 2DEG-Based VCM Devices

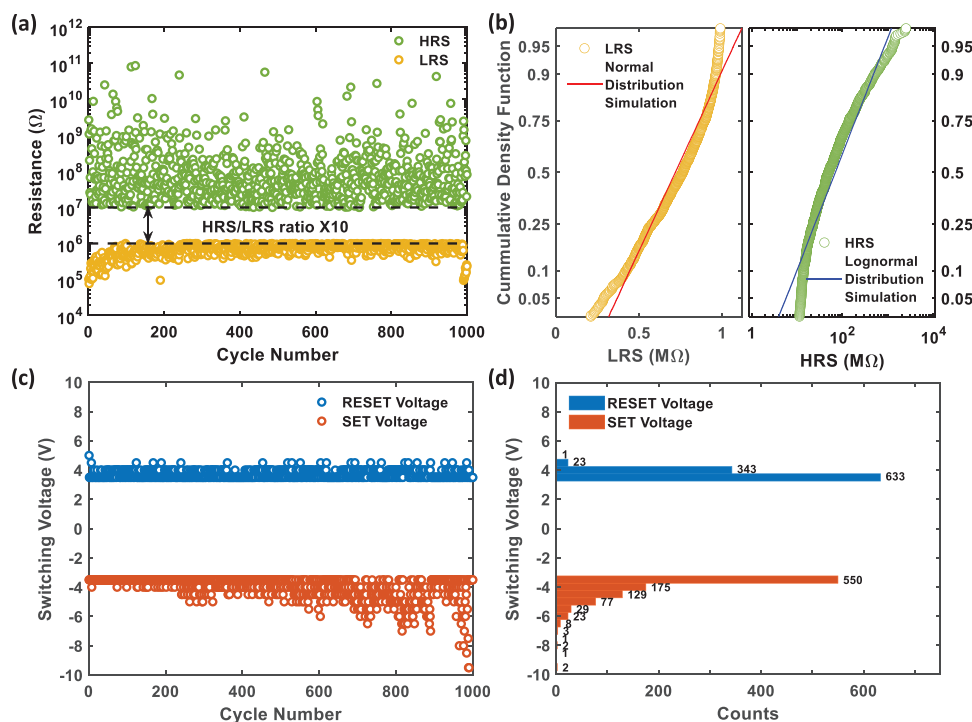
Having set the ground with the analysis of the 2DEGs, we then fabricate VCM devices from Pt (50 nm)/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (5 nm)/TiO<sub>2</sub> (14.8 nm) structures. The Pt layer acts as the top electrode, and the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layer acts as the resistive switching layer. The conductive 2DEG at the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> interface acts as the bottom electrode and as the oxygen vacancies reservoir for the VCM device here. The 2DEG electrode is contacted with contacts at the corners of the sample (Figure 2a).

When operating the device, we apply the voltage on the Pt top electrode and ground the 2DEG bottom electrode (Figure 2a). After the initial forming process, subsequent transitions from high resistance state (HRS) to low resistance state (LRS) are defined as SET, and the reverse process as RESET. The compliance currents used in the forming and the SET process are set to 10<sup>-4</sup> A. The *I*-*V* curves of the forming cycle and a typical switching cycle are shown in Figure 2b. Five different devices are tested under DC mode using voltage sweeps, and each device is switched for 20 cycles after the forming process (Figure 2c). All five devices exhibit comparable behavior and low device-to-device variability. The detailed switching parameters are provided in Figure S2 (Supporting Information).

In addition to the 2DEG's role as the bottom electrode, it further functions as the source of oxygen vacancies responsible for the resistive switching behavior of the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layer. In a previous work, we deposited Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layers with an identical recipe on conductive Nb:SrTiO<sub>3</sub> layers, where no interface vacancies were formed. These structures exhibit robust insulating properties, and no hysteresis behavior.<sup>[32]</sup> The key difference from the current case is the reduction of the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface, allowing us to pinpoint the interface as the source of vacancies for resistive switching, which are injected (forming) into the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layer.<sup>[13]</sup> This differs from typical memristors where the resistive switching layer is intentionally enriched with defects, whereas our approach allows the use of an initially low-defect and



**Figure 2.** The Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> device structure and DC mode resistive switching *I*-*V* curves. a) Schematic illustration of the device structure with the 2DEG acting as the bottom electrode. The Pt acts as the top electrode and the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> acts as the resistive switching layer. The voltage is always applied to the Pt top electrode, and the 2DEG is always grounded during the tests. Oxygen vacancies are schematically denoted by circles. b) *I*-*V* curves of a forming cycle and a typical switching cycle in DC mode. The forming, SET, and RESET points are noted on the curves. The annotations of ① ② ③ ④ show the sequence of the voltage sweep and the arrows show the voltage sweep direction. c) *I*-*V* curves of five devices. The red lines are the forming cycles. The blue lines represent the typical resistive switching cycles. The gray lines correspond to all *I*-*V* cycles after the forming cycles.



**Figure 3.** Endurance analysis of Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> devices under pulse mode using 100 μs voltage pulses. a) The resistances of 10<sup>3</sup> cycles under pulse operation mode with a ten times resistance window defined in the program. b) The cumulative density function of the resistances. The red line is the simulated normal distribution of the LRS ≈ normal ( $\mu_1 = 7.2 \times 10^5$ ,  $\sigma_1 = 2.1 \times 10^5$ ). The blue line is the simulated lognormal distribution of the HRS ≈ lognormal ( $\mu_2 = 16.55$ ,  $\sigma_2 = 2.11$ ). c) The last SET and RESET voltage pulse height in each cycle of 10<sup>3</sup> resistive switching cycles. d) The histogram of the switching voltages with the count numbers labeled right to the bars.

insulating Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, which heralds a memory window of ≈4 orders of magnitude at ±0.2 V. Since the insulating Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layer is connected in series with the 2DEG (Figure 1a), the LRS resistance can only be explained by modulation of the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> resistance, to be further discussed on Section 2.3.

The retention of HRS and LRS are tested at room temperature using 0.1 V read voltage. Both resistance states remain stable for 10<sup>4</sup> s without degradation (Figure S3a, Supporting Information), which is comparable to other 2DEG based VCM devices on SrTiO<sub>3</sub> substrates.<sup>[10,12,14]</sup> At 80 °C and 0.1 V the LRS and HRS showed stability for 1000 s, after which instabilities occur leading to breakdown (Figure S3b, Supporting Information).

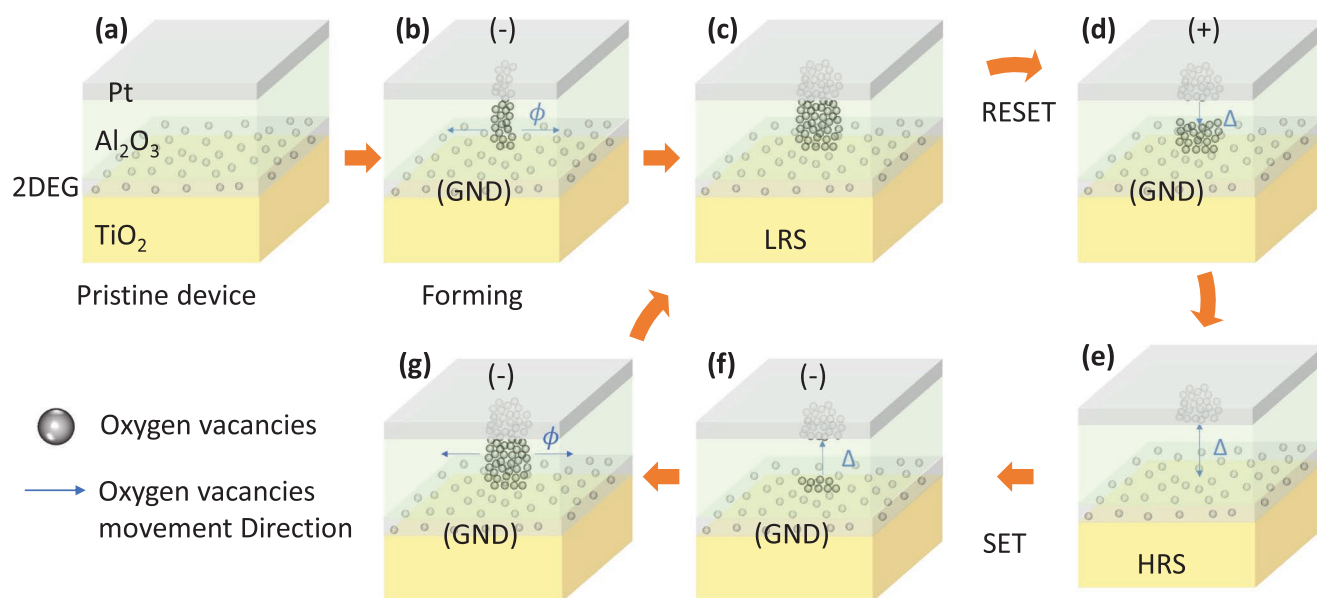
In addition to DC switching analysis, the endurance of the devices is tested under pulsed switching using 100 μs width voltage pulses (Figure 3). The resistance window is set to be 10, with the LRS lower than 10<sup>6</sup> Ω and the HRS higher than 10<sup>7</sup> Ω (Figure 3a). An operate-and-verify programming scheme<sup>[33–36]</sup> is used here, which means more than a single pulse may be used in the SET or RESET operations. The voltage height in both SET and RESET will increase until the resistance is tuned to the destination resistance value. The details of the operate-and-verify programming scheme are shown in Figures S4–S6 (Supporting Information). The reason for using the operate-and-verify programming scheme is that the device might not reach the desired resistance range after a single pulse operation. To ensure the device's resistance is indeed programmed to the desired value, a verification step is necessary. This operate-and-verify programming scheme requires higher energy consumption

compared to single-pulse programming scheme, but it is more reliable and it guarantees the resistance modulation success for each cycle. All the HRS and LRS in both DC mode and pulse mode are read at a voltage of 0.1 V. Due to the intrinsic stochastic nature of the devices' switching process which includes the formation and rupture of the conductive filament (CF), the devices exhibit cycle-to-cycle variation (Figure 3a). The LRS values vary from 77 kΩ to 1 MΩ and follow a normal distribution ( $\mu = 7.2 \times 10^5$ ,  $\sigma = 2.1 \times 10^5$  Ω). The HRS vary from 10 MΩ to 87 GΩ and follow a lognormal distribution (Figure 3b). The resistances of the device show no observable degradation after 10<sup>3</sup> cycles of operation.

About 98% of the RESET cycles require no more than 2 pulses to switch the device from HRS to LRS, and about 85% of the SET cycles require no more than 3 pulses to switching the device from LRS to HRS (Figure 3c,d). The SET voltage and the number of pulses required to switch the device from HRS to LRS increase as the cycle number increases (Figure 3c), indicating that further engineering will be necessary to mature these devices for practical applications.

### 2.3. Switching Mechanism

The resistive switching behavior of the Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> VCM devices can be explained by the formation and partial rupture of the CFs consisting of oxygen vacancies<sup>[20,37–40]</sup> inside the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layer, as illustrated in Figure 4.



**Figure 4.** Schematic illustration of the filamentary resistive switching process of Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> VCM devices. a) The initial state of a pristine device. b) The forming process: formation of a continuous conductive filament (CF) consisting of oxygen vacancies connecting the top and the bottom electrode, and the diameter of the CF increases until the forming voltage sweep finishes. c) The LRS of the device. d) The RESET process: partial rupture of the CF with the external positive voltage applied to the Pt top electrode and the oxygen vacancies drifting toward the 2DEG electrode, and the gap  $\Delta$  between the remnant CFs increases. e) The HRS of the device. f, g) SET process: the gap  $\Delta$  between the remnant CFs decreases first, and the CF diameter  $\phi$  increases only after a continuous CF is formed.

The pristine device starts with no CFs inside the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layer (Figure 4a). During the forming process, an external negative voltage is applied to the Pt electrode and the positively charged oxygen vacancies migrate toward the top electrode which leads to the formation of CF consisting of oxygen vacancies (Figure 4b,c). The device switches from initial high resistance state to low resistance state.

In the RESET process, a positive voltage is applied to the Pt top electrode and the bottom electrode is grounded. The oxygen vacancies migrate toward the bottom electrode and the gap length  $\Delta$  between the remnant CF grows, which leads to the rupture of CF (Figure 4c–e). The device switches from LRS to HRS. We note that the unconventional use of a highly insulating Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>[32]</sup> is the key here to obtaining the large memory window by increasing the resistance at HRS.

In the SET process, a negative voltage is applied to the top electrode and the bottom electrode is grounded. At first, the length of the gap  $\Delta$  decreases until the partial filament forms a continuous filament connecting the top and the bottom electrode (Figure 4e,f). Only after the continuous CF forms, the diameter of the CF begins to increase until the SET process finishes (Figure 4,g). The device switches from HRS to LRS.<sup>[41]</sup> We note that throughout these changes (Figure 4), the number of vacancies transferred from the 2DEG into the CF (chiefly occurring during the forming step, Figure 4b) is negligible compared to the overall 2DEG vacancy content.

One issue of using 2DEG as the bottom electrode is that the resistance of the 2DEG needs to be further decreased for large crossbar array device integration.<sup>[31]</sup> As for the advantages, we highlight the prospects of using 2DEGs as a bottom electrode that can be depleted, thus opening simple routes

toward self-rectifying devices. Realizing the potential for self-rectification here requires controlling of the depletion behavior of the 2DEG, which can be obtained by tuning of the gate effective work function,<sup>[42]</sup> engineering (or adding) the insulator layer,<sup>[8]</sup> and designing the device structure and contacts with an emphasis on the series resistance.

In addition, if the inert top electrode is replaced by an oxide conductor, e.g., indium tin oxide (ITO),<sup>[14]</sup> it can enable full oxide implementation of the resistive switching devices. This will pave the way toward transparent memory applications. This is another potential benefit of using binary oxide-based 2DEG as the bottom electrode and the oxygen reservoir in resistive switching devices.

### 3. Conclusion

VCM devices based on 2DEG on Si are demonstrated. The 2DEG acts as both the bottom electrode and the oxygen vacancy reservoir. The Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> VCM devices show bipolar resistive switching in DC and pulse modes. An endurance of 10<sup>3</sup> cycles and retention of 10<sup>4</sup> s are obtained. The devices switch between HRS and LRS due to the formation and partial rupture of CFs consisting of oxygen vacancies inside the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layer. The use of the Si substrate and simple binary oxide materials of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> demonstrate the feasibility of integrating 2DEG into Si-based and CMOS-compatible devices. The ability to deplete the 2DEGs provides a route toward self-rectifying devices, and the possibility of replacing the top metal electrode with a transparent oxide electrode further allows the device to be extended to wider applications.

## 4. Experimental Section

The substrates used are (100) n-type unintentionally doped Si (MTI Corp., resistivity  $\approx 70\text{ k } \Omega \text{ cm}$ ) with  $\approx 2\text{ nm}$  native  $\text{SiO}_2$ . The  $\text{TiO}_2$  films are deposited on the substrates by ALD (Ultratech/Cambridge Nanotech Fiji G2) at  $250\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  using tetrakis(dimethyl amido)titanium (TDMAT) and  $\text{Ar}:\text{O}_2$  (4:1) plasma as the Ti and oxygen precursors, respectively. The TDMAT is heated to  $75\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in the bubbler and introduced to the ALD reactor by 30 sccm of Ar carrier gas. The  $\text{TiO}_2$  deposition sequence consists of TDMAT injection (0.025 s)/purge (10 s)/ $\text{Ar}:\text{O}_2$  plasma (5 s)/purge (5 s). The samples are kept inside the ALD chamber under vacuum ( $\approx 2 \times 10^{-2}$  Torr) after the  $\text{TiO}_2$  deposition. The temperature is increased from  $250$  to  $300\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and stabilized at  $300\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , taking 15 min altogether. This step was found to be important for reducing the sheet resistance. Subsequently, 10 trimethylaluminum (TMA) reducing pulses (0.1 s pulse duration) are injected into the chamber prior to  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  deposition. Finally, 2 nm (for XPS characterization) or 5 nm (for device testing)  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  thin films are deposited on the  $\text{TiO}_2$  at  $300\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . TMA and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  are used as the Al and the oxygen precursors, respectively. The  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  deposition sequence<sup>[32]</sup> consists of TMA injection (0.1 s)/purge (10 s)/ $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (0.3 s)/purge (5 s). Pt top electrodes (50 nm thick) are deposited on top of the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layer through a shadow mask with a diameter of  $120\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  using e-beam deposition. Contacts to the 2DEG are done by scratching the samples' corners from the top of the samples' surface following depositing a layer of 50 nm thick Al by e-beam deposition (Evatec BAK-501A) at room temperature on the surface of the samples' edges.

Cross-sectional specimens were prepared through a conventional TEM sample preparation routine. Starting with cutting and gluing, the TEM specimens are then ground, planar parallel polished, and further thinned in the center by dimpling. Ar ion milling is used to obtain a perforation and electron transparent thin area with a Gatan Precision Ion Polishing System (PIPS II 695, Gatan Inc.). The microstructure is characterized by FEI Tecnai F30 analytical TEM operating at 300 kV.

The films' crystallinity is analyzed by GIXRD, and the film's thickness is analyzed by XRR using Rigaku SmartLab diffractometer. The GIXRD incident angle is  $0.5^\circ$ . The samples are mounted on zero-diffraction discs (MTI Corp.) during the test.

XPS measurements are performed in ultrahigh vacuum ( $2.5 \times 10^{-10}$  Torr base pressure) using the 5600 Multi-Technique System (PHI, USA). The samples are irradiated with an Al  $K\alpha$  monochromated source (1486.6 eV), and the electrons are analyzed by a Spherical Capacitor Analyzer using a slit aperture of 0.8 mm. All spectra are shifted to align the adventitious C1s peak at 284.8 eV.

The sheet resistance of the 2DEG is measured using the Van der Pauw configuration at room temperature. The sheet resistance and DC device analysis is done using a light-sealed probe station with a Keithley 2450 source measurement unit. For resistive switching measurements the current compliance is applied through the current limit function of the instrument. AC pulse testes are measured using an Agilent B1500A.

## Supporting Information

Supporting Information is available from the Wiley Online Library or from the author.

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## Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## Data Availability Statement

The raw data used to prepare the figures in this work is available in an annotated xlsx file in the Supporting Information.

## Keywords

atomic layer deposition, conductive oxide interfaces, resistive switching, resistive switching memory, 2D electron gas, valence change memory

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