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Efficient passivation of monolayer MoS₂ by epitaxially grown 2D organic crystals

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ABSTRACT

Monolayer molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂) is considered to be a promising candidate for field-effect transistors and photodetectors due to its direct bandgap and atomically thin properties. However, the MoS₂ devices are impeded by the intrinsic surface defects and environmental adsorption such as H₂O and O₂. Here, we demonstrated a highly ordered, ultrathin (<5 nm) and scalable *N,N'*-ditridecylperylene-3,4,9,10-tetracarboxylic diimide (PTCDI-C13) passivation layer that can be epitaxially grown on MoS₂. The van der Waals interface between PTCDI-C13 and MoS₂ can efficiently reduce the surface traps and isolate MoS₂ from ambient. As a result, the passivated devices exhibit huge improvement in both carrier mobility (from 0.5 to 8.3 cm²/(V s)) and sub-threshold swing (from 16.7 to 1.6 V/dec). Also, the photodetector made on MoS₂ after passivation has a much faster response speed (from 3 s to 10 ms) without significant sacrifice of the responsivity. Our method provides a facile approach to realize high-performance two-dimensional electronic and optoelectronic devices.

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1. Introduction

Two-dimensional transition metal dichalcogenides (2D TMDs) have attracted extensive attention in recent years [1–3]. Due to the unique properties of thickness-dependent band structure and atomically-thin nature which provides a gate-tunable transport behavior, they are supposed to be powerful candidates of the next-generation low-power nano-electronic devices. As one of the most representative TMDs, large-area MoS₂ has been successfully fabricated by various methods, particularly chemical vapor deposition (CVD) [4,5]. Many kinds of devices such as photodetectors [6,7], and field-effect transistors (FETs) [8,9] based on MoS₂ were studied and showed a broad application prospect in the field of optoelectronics.

However, the existence of intrinsic defects which result from the deficiency of sulfur atom on the surface of MoS₂ severely limits the application of MoS₂ based devices [10–13]. The substantial density of deep trapping states for carriers and photogating effect renders a large hysteresis in FETs and slow response dynamics and persistent photoconductance in photodetectors [6,14–16]. Also, due to the atomically-thin nature, the surface adsorbents of O₂ and H₂O can largely disturb the carrier transport in the channel

and lead to the instability issue in ambient [7,17,18]. As a result, the carrier mobility is significantly decreased and the sub-threshold slope (SS) becomes very large in a long-term durability experiment.

Surface passivation with capping layers is an effective strategy to deal with these problems in 2D materials [19–22]. One idea is to encapsulate 2D materials with Al₂O₃ [23,24], HfO₂ [7,8], or hexagonal boron nitride (hBN) [25–27] which can isolate MoS₂ from the air to improve the performances of the FET devices. However, due to the lack of surface dangling bonds of MoS₂, the atomic layer deposition (ALD)-processed oxide capping layers show non-uniform growth and can hardly realize full coverage when the protective layer is ultra-thin [18], and serious n-type doping commonly occurs due to the ALD process [7]. Encapsulation with exfoliated hBN involves exquisite manipulations and is not practically suitable for scalable processing. Alternatively, organic molecules (especially the phthalocyanine and its metal derivatives) were used to be assembled on the surface of TMDs by both solution-process and vapor-phase methods which enable passivation of the surface defects [12,28–33]. Furthermore, these passivation can modulate the response speed of the photodetector by taking advantage of the van der Waals (vdW) interface between the organic molecule and MoS₂ [28,29]. However, the protective molecules can hardly achieve atomic uniformity on MoS₂, and the thickness is uncontrollable up to now, which hampers the

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protection ability [34]. Additionally, albeit the passivation increases the response speed, the photocurrent decreases dramatically with several orders of magnitude [28,29,35].

Here, we develop a highly efficient passivation technique for monolayer MoS₂ with epitaxially grown atomically-thin organic crystalline film of *N,N'*-ditridentylperylene-3,4,9,10-tetracarboxylic diimide (PTCDI-C13). The PTCDI-C13 molecules are assembled on the MoS₂ surface with high order, forming a vdW interface that can fully encapsulate the MoS₂ surface with a single uniform layer [36]. In comparison with the control devices, we find that the mobility of passivated MoS₂ devices increases by one order of magnitude and the SS decreases by one order of magnitude. In addition, the passivation highly improves the photoresponse dynamics of MoS₂. The response speed increases by three orders of magnitude due to the removal of deep trapping states. The long-term stability of the MoS₂ devices also proves to be significantly enhanced with the 2D organic crystal passivation. Our results suggest that the self-assembled atomically-thin organic crystal can significantly passivate the defective MoS₂ surface, rendering the largely enhanced performance of MoS₂ devices.

2. Experimental

2.1. Crystal growth

Monolayer MoS₂ films were grown by CVD method in a 2-inch quartz tube under 100 Pa with 10 sccm H₂ and 100 sccm Ar. The growth substrate is p++ silicon with 300 nm SiO₂ on the top surface. The growth temperature is around 800 °C and the growth time is about 15 min. The ultra-thin PTCDI-C13 films were grown on MoS₂ surface by physical vapor transport (PVT) method in a 1-inch quartz tube under high vacuum (~10⁻⁴ Pa) with PTCDI-C13 powder (95%) as the source material. The distance between source and growth substrate is around 19 cm. The source was heated to 220–240 °C for the PVT process and the growth time was ~90 min.

2.2. Characterization

The atomic force microscopy (AFM) images were taken using Bruker Dimension Icon in air. Raman/photoluminescence (PL) measurements were performed with HORIBA LabRAM HR Evolution system with 532 nm laser excitation at room temperature. The laser power was set at 0.1 mW and the size of the laser spot was ~1 μm. The selected area electron diffraction (SAED) experiments were conducted using Tecnai T12 TEM system.

2.3. Device fabrication

The 100 nm thick gold films were transferred onto the top of MoS₂ as source and drain electrodes by tungsten tips under a microscope. The p++ silicon was used as a global back gate. For the passivated devices, PTCDI-C13 molecules were grown onto the surface by PVT method before transferring the electrodes.

2.4. Device measurements

Electrical measurements were performed by Keithley 4200 semiconductor parameter analyzer. A 532 nm laser was applied for the measurements of steady photocurrent. For the dynamic photoresponse experiments, all the measurements were conducted under the condition of gate voltage $V_g = 0$ V and bias voltage $V_{ds} = 1$ V. The laser's wavelength is 650 nm (powder density of 1 mW/cm²).

3. Results and discussion

Monolayer MoS₂ was synthesized by CVD method on SiO₂/Si substrate as previously reported [5,37]. The monolayer (1L) PTCDI-C13 molecules are epitaxially grown on the MoS₂ layer by PVT method, with details available in the Experimental Section and Fig. S1 (online). Fig. 1a is the optical image of the large triangular domains of monolayer MoS₂. The height information of both monolayer MoS₂ and 1L PTCDI-C13 on MoS₂ is obtained by AFM as shown in Fig. 1b, e. The thickness of monolayer MoS₂ is ~1 nm and the height of 1L PTCDI-C13 is ~2.6 nm [38]. Note that between the monolayer MoS₂ and 1L PTCDI-C13, there exists another layer of PTCDI-C13 on the surface of MoS₂, which is called the interfacial layer (IL) [39]. Due to the stronger interaction between MoS₂ and IL PTCDI-C13, the IL molecules are lying down on MoS₂, causing a smaller thickness (~0.9 nm) than the 1L (~2.6 nm) (Fig. S2 online). In comparison with other passivation methods, our passivation method possesses much more uniform surface morphology with the root mean square average (RMS) roughness of 0.3 nm (1.3 nm for the MoS₂ passivated with Al₂O₃) [40]. The coverage of the grown PTCDI-C13 on MoS₂ is determined by the distance between source (PTCDI-C13 powder) and substrate (SiO₂) and growth time during the PVT process. With the optimized growth parameters (see Experiment Section), we obtain the full coverage of 1L PTCDI-C13 on MoS₂ (evidenced by Raman intensity map in Fig. S3 (online)). Benefited from both the atomic-scale flatness and full coverage of PTCDI-C13, both the electrical performance and optoelectronic properties of MoS₂ devices passivated by our method are able to be greatly boosted, as we will discuss later in detail.

PL spectrum reveals the exciton energy of a material which is another important way to study the material properties. We have compared the PL spectra before and after passivation as shown in Fig. 1c. The PL spectrum of monolayer MoS₂ has a peak around 672 nm as the black line indicates, corresponding to the monolayer MoS₂'s direct bandgap near 1.8 eV [41]. After the growth of PTCDI-C13, two additional PL peaks appear at 621 and 673 nm, resulting from the interaction between PTCDI-C13 layers [42]. Raman spectra for MoS₂ before and after passivation are also compared as shown in Fig. 1f. The two characteristic peaks of monolayer MoS₂ (E_{2g} at 384 cm⁻¹ and A_{1g} at 404 cm⁻¹) remain unchanged while four new peaks appear after the deposition of PTCDI-C13, corresponding to the Raman signal of PTCDI-C13 molecules. Two peaks at 1295 and 1374 cm⁻¹ correspond to carbon-hydrogen (C–H) bond and the other two peaks at 1450 and 1568 cm⁻¹ correspond to the benzene ring signal [43]. These Raman signals along with AFM images evidently corroborate the existence of PTCDI-C13 molecules on the MoS₂ surface. To probe the crystal properties of the grown PTCDI-C13, we have conducted the SAED experiments on the PTCDI-C13/MoS₂. As shown in Fig. S4 (online), the SAED pattern indicates the single crystalline nature of PTCDI-C13 grown on the MoS₂ triangular grain. Furthermore, we have randomly picked several points on the surface of PTCDI-C13 and checked the polarized PL spectra (Fig. S5 online). It turns out that all the points in the same MoS₂ triangular grain exhibit identical anisotropy direction with no more than 2° in error. This further proves that the PTCDI-C13 molecules are epitaxially grown on MoS₂.

To explore the electrical properties of MoS₂ both before and after PTCDI-C13 deposition, a bottom-gate top-contact device configuration is adopted as depicted in Fig. 2e. The step-by-step fabrication process is shown in Fig. S6 (online). Note that the PTCDI-C13 itself is almost non-conductive in air, although a relatively high carrier mobility of 2.1 cm²/(V s) under vacuum condition has been reported [44,45]. Hence, the PTCDI-C13 film grown on MoS₂ hardly contributes to the channel carrier transport in air. By comparing

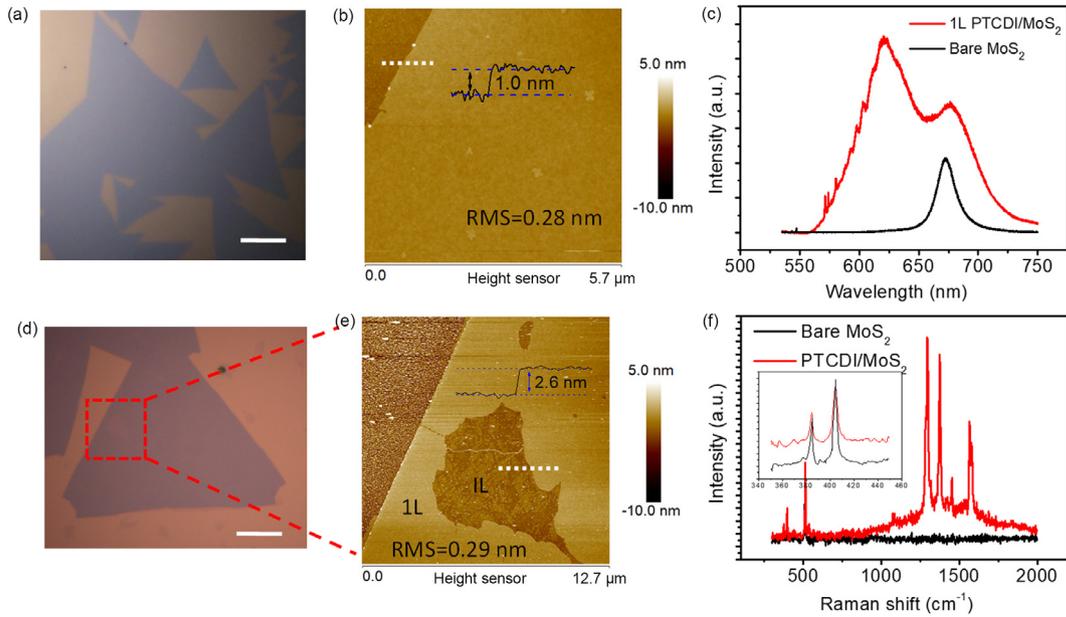


Fig. 1. (Color online) Optical images of monolayer MoS₂ prepared by CVD method (a) before and (d) after PTCDI-C13 deposition. Scale bars: 10 μm . (b), (e) AFM images of monolayer MoS₂ and PTCDI-C13 molecule on MoS₂. Insets show the height information of monolayer MoS₂ and 1L PTCDI-C13. (c) PL spectra of bare MoS₂ and 1L PTCDI-C13 on MoS₂. (f) Raman spectra of bare MoS₂ and MoS₂ with PTCDI-C13. Insets are details of the MoS₂ E_{2g} and A_{1g} peaks.

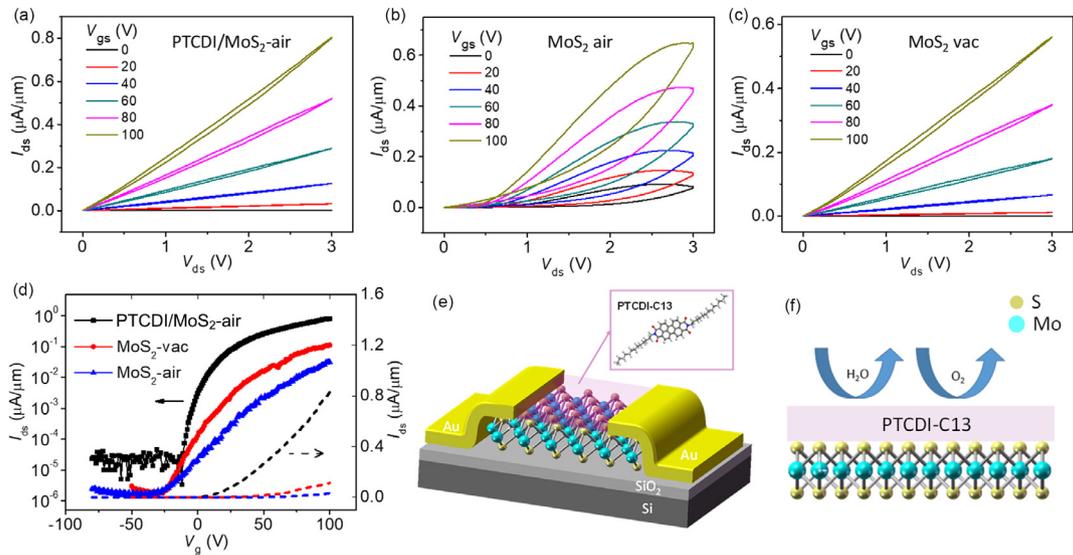


Fig. 2. (Color online) (a) The output curves of MoS₂ passivated by PTCDI-C13 tested under ambient conditions with different gate voltages. The output curves of bare MoS₂ tested under (b) ambient and (c) vacuum conditions. (d) The transfer characteristics of MoS₂ before and after PTCDI-C13 deposition ($V_{ds} = 5 \text{ V}$). (e) A 3D sketch of the typical MoS₂ FET with passivation. (f) A 2D sketch that illustrates how passivation layer isolates MoS₂ layer from water and oxygen in air.

with the output characteristics (I_{ds} - V_{ds}) of the bare monolayer MoS₂ which has a memory window of $\sim 1 \text{ V}$ (Fig. 2b), we can easily find an obvious vanish of the hysteresis after the passivation by PTCDI-C13 (Fig. 2a). As previously reported, the huge hysteresis in bare MoS₂ devices is mainly due to the absorption of O₂ and H₂O in the air by vacancies of sulfur atoms [7,32,46]. To further confirm this conclusion, the same bare MoS₂ devices were tested under vacuum conditions which possibly eliminates the ambient effects on MoS₂ layer (Fig. 2c). We can see that the pristine devices in vacuum behave like the passivated ones and the I_{ds} - V_{ds} curves show a good linear relationship. On the basis of the above comparative investigation of the MoS₂ FET performance, it is demonstrated that the O₂ and H₂O molecules are effectively isolated from the MoS₂ surface by the PTCDI-C13 deposition as illustrated

in Fig. 2f. Also, the linear I_{ds} - V_{ds} curves demonstrate that the passivation delivers better Ohmic contacts of the electrodes [26,47].

The transfer characteristics (I_{ds} - V_{gs}) of MoS₂ after passivation also obtained a huge improvement in several aspects (Fig. 2d). First, the sub-threshold slope ($SS = \frac{\partial V_{gs}}{\partial(\log I_{ds})}$) reduces from 16.7 to 1.6 V/dec after the MoS₂ is passivated. Second, the field-effect carrier mobility extracted from the transfer curves performs a significant augment from 0.5 to 8.3 cm²/(V s). Also, we tested the bare MoS₂ device under vacuum conditions, and found that the SS and mobility (8.7 V/dec and 1.4 cm²/(V s), respectively) are improved in comparison with the same device measured in air, but still inferior to the passivated device in air. This indicates that the PTCDI-C13 molecule passivation not only effectively isolates the MoS₂

surface from the ambient, but also deactivates the intrinsic defects in MoS₂ (i.e., the sulfur vacancies), delivering the greatly enhanced electrical characteristics of the MoS₂ [12,28,29]. From the equation $SS = 2.3 \times \frac{k_B T}{q} \left(1 + \frac{q^2 D_{it}}{C_{ox}} \right)$, where k_B , T , q , D_{it} and C_{ox} are the Boltzmann constant, temperature, elementary charge, interface trap density and oxide capacitance (1.15×10^{-8} F/cm²), respectively, we can estimate that the interface trap density in MoS₂ (D_{it}) decreases from 2.1×10^{13} to 1.8×10^{12} eV⁻¹ cm⁻² due to the passivation [48]. The threshold voltage (V_{th}) moves from 12 to -8 V after the molecular passivation. The hysteresis in transfer characteristic is highly reduced as well (Fig. S7 online), similar to the case of output curve hysteresis as we discussed precedingly. Statistical data of SS and mobility collected from several devices are plotted in Fig. S8 (online), which provides more details on the impact of passivation on the device performance.

Compared with other passivated devices that have the similar structures, our devices show an overall improvement. Both the SS and mobility are improved by one order of magnitude after passivation (Table 1). More importantly, the passivation layer is uniformly distributed with thickness of only 2.6 nm while the other methods usually adopt 30 nm or thicker protective layer. Also, our method can be carried out in a much simpler way for scalable fabrication. Besides MoS₂, we have tested monolayer WS₂ FET as well, whose performance is also improved after passivation as shown in Fig. S9 (online). The 2D organic film passivation method is believed to be applicable for other unstable 2D semiconducting materials such as black phosphorus and InSe.

To investigate the effects of PTCDI-C13 passivation on the long-term stability of the MoS₂ FET devices, two groups of monolayer MoS₂ devices were prepared with the same parameters and stored in the same ambient conditions. One group of the devices was passivated and the other one remains bare. The normalized mobility extracted from the representative MoS₂ devices with and without passivation as storage time increases are depicted in Fig. 3a. While the mobility of the device after passivation reserved $\sim 71\%$ of its initial value, the bare MoS₂ device loses most of its mobility (3.8% remained) after exposed to air for 10 d due to the degradation induced by dislocations and point defects in MoS₂ [49,50]. Fig. 3b, c shows the transfer characteristics measured after different air storing times with and without PTCDI-C13 passivation, respectively. An obvious degradation of on-current density can

be found in the unprocessed devices, while the on-current retains the same order of magnitude in the passivated device.

Next, we focus on the optoelectronic characteristics of the MoS₂ devices before and after PTCDI-C13 passivation. The photoresponse measurements were conducted with a 532 nm laser in ambient. The transfer curves in the dark and under various illumination intensities are plotted in Fig. 4a, b. With the increase of laser power, the threshold voltages V_{th} of both devices move towards the negative direction and the on-currents increase by one or two orders of magnitude which are known as the photogating effect [14]. Compared with the devices without passivation, these devices after passivation have a much small movement of their threshold voltage, which means that the photogating effect is efficiently diminished by passivation. By introducing the PTCDI-C13 passivation layer, a majority of the deep defect states in the monolayer MoS₂ are removed. As a result, the defect-induced photogating effects are largely suppressed.

To gain deeper insights, the photo responsivity as a function of the power intensity was measured at several different gate voltages as plotted in Fig. 4c, d. A sketch of band alignments (Fig. 4e, f) is helpful to understand the physical picture behind this experiment [7,28,29]. For the deep traps, their recombination time is very long, which causes the large responsivity but slow response speed [28,51]. For the shallow traps, their recombination time is relatively short, delivering a small responsivity but fast response speed. First, we focus on the situation when V_g is near V_{th} , as indicated by the “0 V” and “ -30 V” lines in Fig. 4c, d. In this case the Fermi level of MoS₂ is near the conduction band (Fig. 4e) and the excessive carriers can be seized by traps. For the passivated devices (Fig. 4c), as the deep trap states in the MoS₂ have been efficiently reduced, the shallow trap states are dominating until most of them are occupied with the increasing light intensity. As a result, the responsivity of the passivated device remains unchanged at about 150 A/W under small light power intensity and then decrease to 0.5 A/W under large power intensity when the shallow traps are all occupied. However, the responsivity of the devices without passivation shows a monotonic decrease with increasing the illumination power (“0 V” and “ -30 V” lines in Fig. 4d). This mainly results from the deep trap states existed in the bare MoS₂ layers. With the increase of laser intensity, more deeper trap states are occupied and then the shallow traps are dominating, which renders the decrease of responsivity. The large responsivity change from 1029 to 3 A/W also proves that the dominant type of traps is

Table 1

Comparison of the device electrical attributes before/after passivation.

Device structure	SS (V/dec)	Mobility (cm ² /(V s))	On/off ratio	Passivation layer thickness (nm)	Ref.
PTCDI-C13/MoS ₂ (epitaxial growth)	16.7/1.6	0.5/8.3	$5 \times 10^4/5 \times 10^4$	2.6	This work
TiOPc/MoS ₂ (thermal deposition)	6.7/1.6	NA	$10^4/10^7$	NA	[12]
HfO ₂ /MoS ₂ (ALD)	NA	0.5/12	$10^4/10^6$	30	[7]
PMMA/MoS ₂ (coating)	NA	2.1/4.9	NA	260	[22]

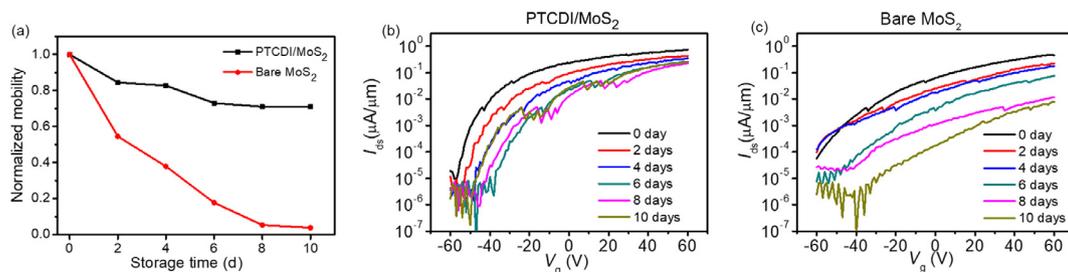


Fig. 3. (Color online) (a) Stability experiment about the mobility of MoS₂ FETs devices with and without passivation. All the devices are stored in air at room temperature and measured in air. (b) Transfer curves of MoS₂ passivated by PTCDI-C13. (c) Transfer curves of the bare MoS₂. All the devices are measured under bias voltage $V_{ds} = 3$ V.

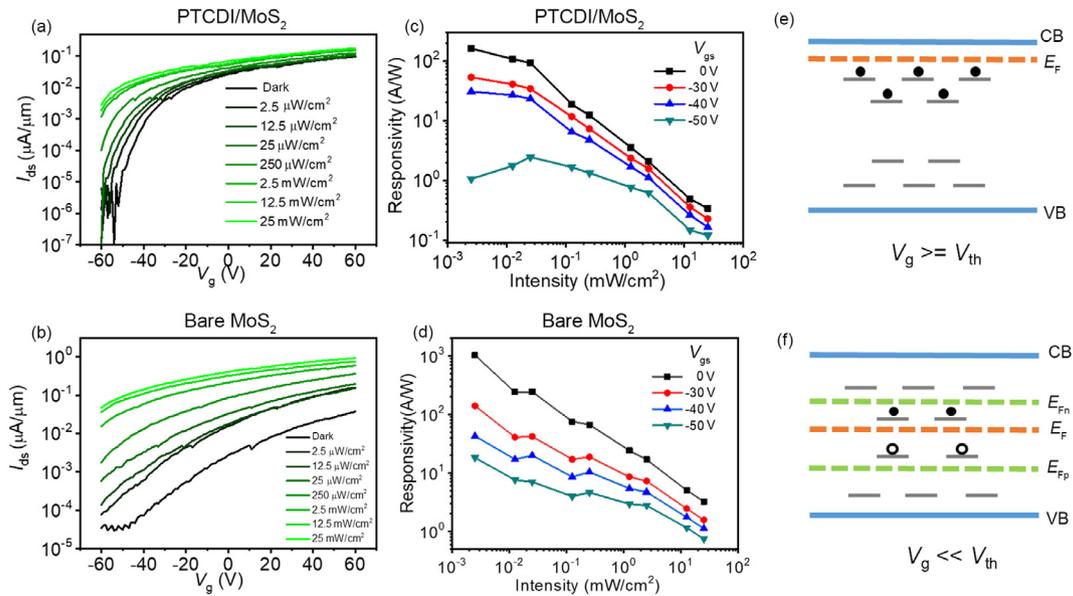


Fig. 4. (Color online) Transfer characteristics ($I_{ds} - V_{gs}$) of MoS₂ (a) with and (b) without passivation under 532 nm laser illumination with different intensities (from 25 to 2.5×10^{-3} mW/cm²). (c), (d) Power-dependent responsivity under different gate voltages from 0 to -50 V of MoS₂ with and without passivation. Diagrams of band alignment showing carrier generation and trapping dynamics when (e) gate voltage V_g is near the threshold voltage V_{th} , and (f) V_g is much smaller than threshold voltage V_{th} .

changing from deep trap into shallow trap. And then we focus on the situation when V_g is much smaller than V_{th} (“-50 V” lines in Fig. 4c, d). In this case, the Fermi level is under the conduction band and there exist some unoccupied states between the conduction band and valance band (Fig. 4f). Under illumination, these unoccupied states can be activated as recombination centers. With the increase of light intensity, more and more unoccupied states will be involved as recombination centers until E_{Fn} reached the conduction band, which hence increases the responsivity (“-50 V” line in Fig. 4c) [7]. When the light intensity is further increasing, the situation is similar with the one which V_g is close to V_{th} , and the

responsivity decreases with the increase of laser intensity. For the pristine MoS₂ device, there appear few recombination centers due to the existence of deep traps, and there is no increase part of the responsivity (“-50 V” line in Fig. 4d).

The vdW passivation has great impact on the response dynamics of the MoS₂ device as well. From the time-dependent photoreponse results depicted in Fig. 5, a clear improvement of both rise and decay response times of the MoS₂ device is observed after passivation. By defining the rise (decay) time as the duration when the drain current changes from 10% to 90% (90% to 10%) of its maximum value, we can compare the response dynamics between the

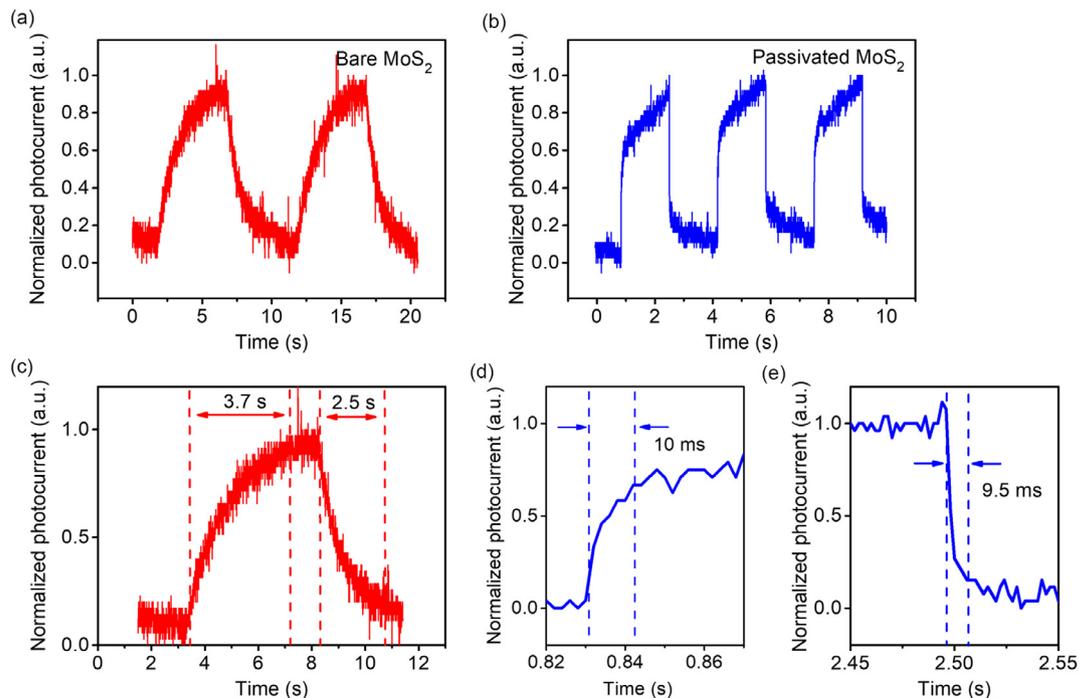


Fig. 5. (Color online) The photoresponse dynamics of monolayer MoS₂ (a) before and (b) after PTCDI-C13 passivation ($V_g = 0$ V, $V_{ds} = 1$ V, 650 nm illumination with 1 mW/cm² power density). (c) Details of rise and decay response times of bare monolayer MoS₂ device. (d), (e) Details of rise and decay response times of passivated MoS₂ device.

Table 2

Comparison of the device optoelectronic attributes before/after passivation.

Device structure	Responsivity (A/W)	Rising time	Decay time	Ref.
PTCDI-C13/MoS ₂ (epitaxial growth)	1029/161	3.7 s/10 ms	2.5 s/9.5 ms	This work
ZnPc/MoS ₂ (solution)	281/1.74	78 s/72 ms	25 s/8 ms	[29]
HfO ₂ /MoS ₂ (ALD)	10 ⁴ /10	10 s/10 ms	NA	[7]

pristine and passivated devices. While the bare monolayer MoS₂ devices possessed an ultra-slow response time (rise edge of 3.5 s and decay edge of 2.5 s, Fig. 5c) which is dominated by the deep trap states, the response dynamics of the passivated device becomes faster by about three orders of magnitude (Fig. 5b). Fig. 5d, e shows the detailed response dynamics of the rising and decay edges, respectively (rising time of ~10 ms and decay time of ~9.5 ms). The fast response time mainly results from the reduction of the deep trap states presented in the pristine MoS₂. We have compared the detailed figures of merit of the passivated MoS₂ photodetector with other reported TMD devices using various passivation techniques (Table 2), illustrating the promising speed improvement by the vdW organic passivation. Importantly, while most of other passivation methods lead to the degradation of photoresponsivity by 2–3 orders of magnitude, our demonstrated PTCDI-C13 passivation induces limited decrease of photoresponsivity (from 1029 to 161 A/W). Further improvement of the optoelectronic properties is expected via excitonic engineering [52].

4. Conclusion

We have demonstrated a new passivation method with 1L PTCDI-C13 molecule on monolayer MoS₂ surface. The devices after passivation become much more stable in ambient and the hysteresis loops are largely eliminated. The MoS₂ FETs show significant improvement after passivation in terms of both carrier mobility and SS, due to the elimination of defects and isolation of ambient. Also, the photoresponse speed after passivation becomes much faster (response time ~10 ms). Our method provides a promising approach of fabricating high-performance 2D TMD based devices for various applications.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgment

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Author contributions

Xin Xu, Li Tao, Zefeng Chen and Beilei Sun carried out the experiments. Li Tao and Jian-Bin Xu directed the project. All authors analyzed and discussed the data. Xin Xu, Li Tao and Jian-Bin Xu wrote the paper with input from all authors.

Appendix A. Supplementary materials

Supplementary materials to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scib.2019.09.009>.

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