

Trilayered MoS₂ Metal–Semiconductor–Metal Photodetectors: Photogain and Radiation Resistance

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Abstract—Trilayered MoS₂ metal–semiconductor–metal (MSM) photodetectors (PDs) exhibit the photogain is up to 24 with high responsivity (~ 1.04 A/W). This is because photocarriers generated at the MoS₂ between two Au electrodes drift toward the metal–semiconductor interfaces due to band bending under applied bias and are then trapped at the surface state sites at the Au/MoS₂ interfaces, giving rise to the decrease in Schottky barrier height. Moreover, MoS₂ MSM PDs show fast operation speed; as the contact spacing reduces from 8 to 4 μm , the rise time and fall time of PDs reduce from 70 to 40 μs and from 110 to 50 μs , respectively. Trilayered MoS₂ MSM PDs can operate even after 2-MeV proton illumination with $\sim 10^{11}$ cm^{-2} fluences, indicating the high radiation tolerance. This work demonstrates that trilayer MoS₂ opens up a new dimension for 2-D nanomaterial applications in harsh electronics.

Index Terms—Graphene, harsh environment, MoS₂, photodetector, radiation resistance.

I. INTRODUCTION

TWO-dimensional (2-D) materials with rich physical phenomena, such as the existence of quantum confinements and the lack of interlayer interactions, allow us to develop More-than-Moore, more flexible and more efficient electronic/optoelectronic devices in the future [1]–[5]. Among a variety of 2-D nanomaterials, graphene is attractive for optoelectronic applications due to its broadband absorption, high carrier mobility, and short carrier lifetime [6]. However, owing to the absence of a bandgap, the photogeneration carrier is only

extracted by the local potential near the metal–graphene interface, differing from that of semiconductor PDs [7]. Therefore, even though the ultrafast response speed have been demonstrated, the responsivity of the pristine graphene PDs is still low due to the limited absorption caused by the small effective detection areas, hindering practical applications [8]–[11]. Accordingly, how to enhance the responsivity of graphene-based PDs *via* combining with new semiconducting materials and utilizing novel physical concepts (such as exploiting nanoparticles, plasmonic nanostructures, and microcavities) has been a major concern recently [12]–[15]. However, the responsivity of graphene-based PDs is still limited as the photogain is smaller than unity. Until recently, by employing photogating effect, the hybrid graphene–quantum dot PDs exhibits the responsivity of $\sim 10^7$ A/W due to the ultrahigh photogain of $\sim 10^8$, which is not achievable for the pristine graphene [12].

Layered MoS₂, a newly 2-D nanomaterial with a direct, finite bandgap, provides a possible solution to overcome the drawbacks of pristine graphene [16]–[21]. The indirect bandgap of 1.2 eV for bulk MoS₂ transforms to the direct bandgap of 1.9 eV for layered MoS₂ because of a quantum confinement effect [16]–[20], opening the many possibilities of optoelectronic applications, such as PDs [22], [23], solar cells [24], and solid-state lighting [25] with lightweight and ultrathin materials. Recently, as compared to that obtained from the pristine graphene ($\sim 1 \times 10^{-3}$ A/W) [7], [8], the high photoresponsivity (7.5×10^{-3} A/W) from the MoS₂ phototransistors has been obtained due to direct bandgap absorption [26].

Space electronics and optoelectronics have a long history of power and system failures/resets due to long-duration radiation exposures, unpredictable solar proton activity, and ambient galactic cosmic ray environment, leading to undesirable operation failures [27]. Moreover, it is known that the solar flare activity is periodically changed and expected to peak between 2013 and 2014. As the satellites stuffed with a variety of electronic and optoelectronic devices may suffer from the illumination of high-energy protons, ions, ultraviolet radiation, and other energetic particles, many experts concentrate their efforts to prevent the disruptions on communications, navigation, and other vital networks caused by the system/device failures. Furthermore, the development of space electronics and optoelectronics has particular challenges because they are constrained by severe cost and weight restrictions [28]. Therefore, it is demanded to develop ultralightweight and ultrathin electronic/optoelectronic devices with high radiation resistance.

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In this study, trilayered MoS₂ metal–semiconductor–metal (MSM) PDs with a photogain/responsivity up to 24/1.04 (A/W) and high radiation resistance (up to $\sim 10^{11}$ cm⁻² of 2-MeV proton fluences) for harsh environment applications have been developed. Due to the Schottky barrier lowering effect induced by the photocarriers generated at the MoS₂ between two Au electrodes and trapped at surface states in the MoS₂/Au contact interfaces, photogain is greater than unity, leading to high responsivity. In addition, the fast response times/recovery times from 70/110 to 40/50 μ s have been demonstrated as the contact spacing is reduced from 8 to 4 μ m. The excellent optical properties of trilayered MoS₂ demonstrated for extreme environments for the first time promise a new generation of fast, thin, and lightweight PDs based on 2-D nanomaterials for harsh electronics and optoelectronics, such as sensing, imaging, and intrachip optical interconnects in space.

II. EXPERIMENT

For the preparation of trilayered MoS₂, 0.25-g (NH₄)₂MoS₄ (Alfa Aesar, purity of 99.99%) was added to 20 mL DMF to form a 1.25 wt% solution. It was sonicated for 20 min to achieve a homogenous (NH₄)₂MoS₄ solution. The sapphire substrates were cleaned with a Piranha solution (H₂SO₄/H₂O₂ = 7/3) to remove the surface contaminants. The cleaned substrates were immersed into the (NH₄)₂MoS₄ solution, followed by slow pulling-up (0.5 mm/s). After that, the substrates were baked on a hot plate at 120 °C for 30 min until the majority of solvent molecules were evaporated. The substrate was then placed in the edge of a quartz tube with a flow of H₂ (20 sccm) and Ar (80 sccm). When the temperature in the center of the furnace reached 500 °C, the substrate was moved to the center of the furnace. Sixty minutes later, the sample was cooled down to room temperature under H₂/Ar ambient by putting the sample back to the tube edge. The sample was moved to the furnace center again for the second postannealing when the center of the furnace reached 1000 °C in an Ar⁺ sulfur environment at 500 torr. After the MoS₂ layers were grown on sapphire substrates, we transferred the MoS₂ layers onto freshly cleaned SiO₂/Si substrates for fabricating MSM PDs.

The MSM PDs adopted Au electrodes with interdigitated fingers on MoS₂/SiO₂/Si substrates. The 100-nm-thick Au fingers were designed to be 8 μ m wide and 150 μ m long with 8- μ m-wide spacing and deposited by electron beam evaporation to serve as Schottky contacts. The MoS₂ MSM PDs were measured under 532-nm laser illumination (the beam diameter is ~ 1 mm) in air.

After the fabrication process of MoS₂ MSM Schottky PDs, Raman spectra were obtained by confocal Raman microscopy systems (NT-MDT) with a 473-nm laser (the spot size of laser is ~ 0.5 μ m in diameter). Field-emission transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (JEOL JEM-2100 F, operated at 200 kV with a point-to-point resolution of 0.19 nm) was used to investigate the microstructures. The samples for TEM observation were prepared using lacy-carbon Cu grid to scratch the surface of MoS₂ samples. The Keithley 4200-SCS semiconductor characterization system was used to measure I - V characteristics and

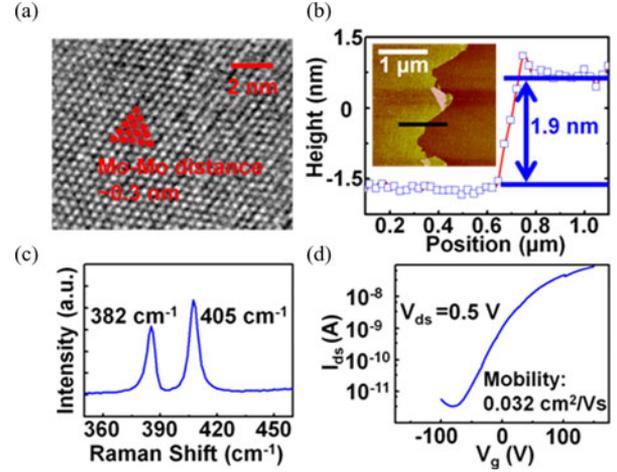


Fig. 1. (a) The high-resolution TEM image for the trilayered MoS₂. (b) AFM image and thickness of trilayered MoS₂. (c) Raman spectrum of trilayered MoS₂ under ambient conditions at room temperature. (d) The typical transfer curves [conductivity versus gate voltage (V_g)] for trilayered MoS₂ field-effect transistors.

responsivity of the trilayered MoS₂ PDs. Moreover, for radiation resistance testing, MoS₂ MSM PDs were irradiated with a 2 MeV proton beam with the fluences ranging from 10^{10} to 10^{12} cm⁻² from a 3 MV tandem accelerator (NEC 9SDH-2, National Electrostatics Corporation).

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The optimized fabrication process used here is able to produce very homogeneous MoS₂ trilayers across the whole sample. In general, the more diluted precursor solution and faster dip-coating result in a thinner MoS₂ layer. Here, we aim at large-area and superior-quality trilayered MoS₂ for PD applications. More details about the two-step thermolysis process can be found elsewhere [19]. As shown in Fig. 1(a), periodic Mo atoms (with distance of ~ 0.3 nm) arranging in hexagonal symmetry is observed in the high-resolution TEM image, indicating the crystallinity of the MoS₂ layers. A line scan of atomic force microscopy (AFM) in Fig. 1(b) reveals the edge of the thin MoS₂ layers with a distinct step of ~ 1.9 nm, corresponding to three MoS₂ layers (the thickness of each layer: ~ 0.65 nm) [19]. The Raman characteristic peaks at 382 and 405 cm⁻¹ correspond to E_{2g}¹ and A_{1g} modes of MoS₂, respectively, as shown in Fig. 1(c) [19], [20].

The peak frequency difference Δ between E_{2g}¹ and A_{1g} Raman peaks (i.e., 382 and 405 cm⁻¹) has been found to relate to the number of MoS₂ layers. The value of Δ (~ 23 cm⁻¹) evidences the existence of trilayered MoS₂ films [19]. Moreover, in order to evaluate the electrical performance of trilayered MoS₂, the field-effect mobility of electrons (~ 0.03 cm² V⁻¹ S⁻¹) was extracted based on the slope $\Delta I_d / \Delta V_g$ fitted to the linear regime of the transfer curves using the equation

$$\mu = (L/W C_{\text{ox}} V_d) (\Delta I_d / \Delta V_g) \quad (1)$$

where L and W are the channel length and width, and C_{ox} is the gate capacitance, as shown in Fig. 1(d) [19].

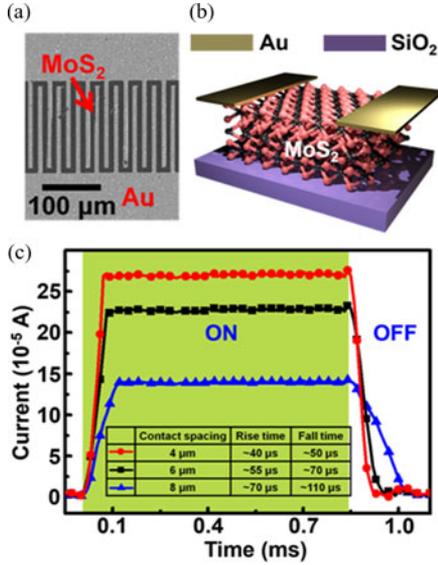


Fig. 2. (a) The top-view optical microscopic image of the MoS₂ MSM PDs with interdigitated electrodes. (b) The schematic of MoS₂ MSM PDs. (c) The time response of MoS₂ MSM PDs with different contact spacing (i.e., 4, 6, and 8 μm) measured at 5 V bias with $I_{\text{light}} = 2.0 \times 10^4 \text{ W/m}^2$. The inset is the table of contact spacing-dependent rise and fall times extracted from (c).

In order to demonstrate the photosensitivity of trilayered MoS₂, the devices were fabricated in MSM geometry with Au Schottky contacts to MoS₂ [as shown in the top-view optical microscopic image and the schematic in Fig. 2(a) and (b)] to effectively lower the dark current. Fig. 2(c) presents the photocurrent of MoS₂ PDs with 8, 6, and 4-μm contact spacing as a function of time under 532-nm illumination (light intensity $I_{\text{light}} = 2.0 \times 10^4 \text{ W/m}^2$) under 5 V bias. Under illumination, the current rises to a high value (ON state), and then returns to a low value when the light is OFF (OFF state). The transition between ON and OFF states reveals the response/recovery speed of the MoS₂ PDs. The results are shown in Fig. 2(c), from which rise time (from 10% to 90% of the maximum photocurrent as switching light from OFF to ON)/fall time (from 90% to 10% of the maximum photocurrent as switching light from ON to OFF) of MoS₂ MSM PDs can be decreased from 70/110 to 40/50 μs as the contact spacing is decreased from 8 to 4 μm. This indicates that the shorter transition time of photocarriers results from 1) the smaller contact spacing and 2) the higher electric field as decreasing contact spacing under the same applied bias [29].

In addition to improving the operation speed, it is suggested that by diminishing the spacing of interdigitated electrodes the detector can enhance the responsivity [29]. Accordingly, in addition to the contact spacing-dependent photoresponse time, the contact spacing-dependent photocurrent of MoS₂ MSM PDs has been investigated and shown in Fig. 3(a). The I - V curves of MoS₂ PDs with 8, 6, and 4-μm contact spacing were measured under 532-nm light illumination ($I_{\text{light}} = 2.0 \times 10^4 \text{ W/m}^2$), indicating that the photocurrent is increased as the electrode contact spacing is shrunk. The absorption coefficient of few-layered MoS₂ is up to $\sim 7.5 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, indicating that few-layered MoS₂ can absorb ~ 10 – 15% of incident light in the visible wave-

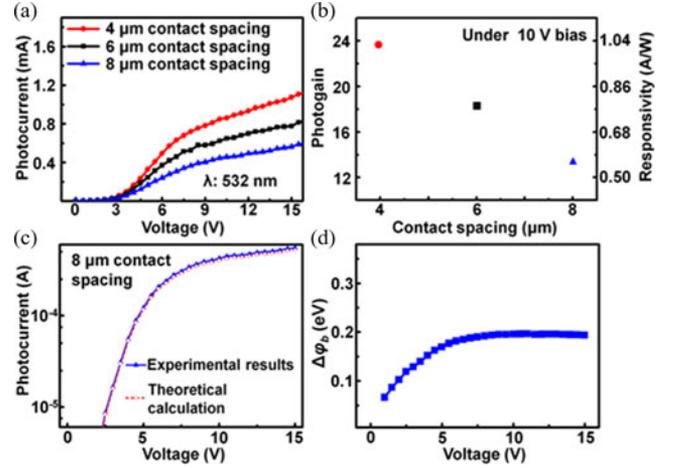


Fig. 3. (a) I - V curves of MoS₂ MSM PDs with different contact spacing (i.e., 4, 6, and 8 μm) measured under 532-nm light illumination ($I_{\text{light}} = 2.0 \times 10^4 \text{ W/m}^2$). (b) The photogain as a function of contact spacing measured under 10 V bias and 532-nm light illumination ($I_{\text{light}} = 2.0 \times 10^4 \text{ W/m}^2$). (c) The experimental and theoretical I - V curves of MoS₂ MSM PDs. (d) The Schottky barrier height reduction as a function of applied bias.

length region [18], [23]. Accordingly, the photogain of the MoS₂ PD can be further estimated by

$$R = I_p/P = \eta_{\text{ext}} Gq/h\nu \quad (2)$$

where R is the responsivity, I_p is the photocurrent, P is the illumination power, η_{ext} is the external quantum efficiency (assumed to be 10% due to $\sim 10\%$ of the optical absorption of MoS₂ over the visible region) [18], [23], G is the photogain, q is the electronic charge, h is Planck's constant, and ν is the frequency of the incident wavelength [30].

The photogain as a function of electrode spacing is shown in Fig. 3(b). The photogain increases due to the decrease of the carrier transition time and the reduction of the trapping probability of the photocarriers on the MoS₂ surface as decreasing electrode spacing. The typical planar MSM PDs absorb the light at the semiconductor region between interdigitated contacts on the top of the device instead of semiconductor regions under Au electrodes. When biased, the planar MSM device represents two diodes in series, one forward biased and the other reverse biased. The depletion region increases with applied voltage. In our MoS₂ PDs, the width of the depletion region W_d between Au contacts under 10 V bias is $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$ using $W_d \approx [2\epsilon\epsilon_0 V/qN]^{1/2}$, where $\epsilon = 4.9$ is the relative dielectric constant, $\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-14} \text{ F/cm}$ is the permittivity of free space, $q = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$ is the electron charge, and N ($\sim 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$) is the doping concentration = $I_d/(d\mu qE)$, where I_d is the drain current density, d is the channel width, μ is the field-effect mobility of electrons, and E is the electric field in the channel [31]–[33]. It is important to have metal interdigitated fingers with finger spacing as small as possible for increasing the ratio of the depletion region to the active region to achieve a large responsivity. This is because the photocarriers generated within the depleted region will give rise to a drift current while the photocarriers generated outside the depleted region and within a diffusion length will diffuse into the junction and give rise to a diffusion current.

Accordingly, MoS₂ PDs with 4- μm contact spacing exhibit superior photogain of 24 and responsivity up to 1.04 (A/W).

The photogain greater than unity in the MSM Schottky PDs has been observed previously. Photogenerated carriers drift toward the metal–semiconductor interfaces due to band bending and are then trapped at the surface state sites at the Au/MoS₂ interfaces. Note that significant surface states would be produced in the Au metal/MoS₂ interfaces due to ultralarge surface-to-volume ratio in 2-D MoS₂. This means that the depletion width and the amount of band bending (or the built-in voltage) is reduced under illumination, giving rise to the decrease in Schottky barrier height φ_b [34]–[36]. This process is described as a light-induced change in the Fermi-level partial pinning [35], [37]. According to the thermionic emission theory for MSM back-to-back Schottky diodes, φ_b (~ 0.54 eV) of MoS₂ PDs can be estimated by

$$I_{\text{sat}} = AA^*T^2 \exp(-q\varphi_b/k_B T) \quad (3)$$

where I_{sat} is the saturation current, A is the area of the Schottky junction, $A^* = 4\pi qm^*(k_B)^2 h^{-3}$ is the Richardson constant, q is the elementary charge, k_B is the Boltzmann constant, T is the temperature, m^* is the effective mass, and h is the Plank constant [37]–[40]. One should note that as MoS₂ thickness is down to a few layers, the Schottky barrier height is significantly dependent on the thickness; the layer dependence becomes insignificant as the thickness is increased. For example, Shanmugam *et al.* reported that Schottky-barrier height of Au–MoS₂ is unaltered (~ 1.0 eV) as the thickness of MoS₂ is higher than 100 nm [24]. As shown in the I – V curves in Fig. 3(c), the calculated photocurrent based on the photogain mechanism model of MSM PDs, i.e.,

$$I_{\text{photo}} = \{\exp[\Delta\varphi_b(V)/k_B T] - 1\} I_{\text{dark}} \quad (4)$$

where I_{photo} is the photocurrent, I_{dark} is the dark current, k_B is the Boltzmann constant, T is the temperature, and $\Delta\varphi_b(V)$ is the bias-dependent reduction of Schottky barrier height, shows a good agreement with the experimental results [37]. The $\Delta\varphi_b$ as a function of applied voltage fitted from Fig. 3(c) is shown in Fig. 3(d). As the applied bias is increased to ~ 10 V, the $\Delta\varphi_b$ reaches its maximum value of ~ 0.2 eV, showing a non-ideal factor of Schottky junctions [30]. Briefly speaking, under illumination, the photocarriers trapped by surface states at the metal–semiconductor interfaces lead to the reduction of the Schottky barrier height and then the production of photogain greater than unity [30], [34]–[36].

In order to investigate the radiation tolerance characteristics for harsh environment applications (e.g., space applications), the MoS₂ MSM PDs were irradiated with the 2 MeV proton fluences ranging from 10^{10} to 10^{12} cm⁻². Note that the protons with the energy less than 2 MeV occupy a volume of earth’s space with the fluences ranging from 10^1 to 10^8 cm⁻² (the corresponding region at geocentric distances of about 1 L –12 L , where L is approximately equal to the geocentric distance of a field line in the geomagnetic equator) [41]. Fig. 4(a) shows the I – V curves of MoS₂ MSM PDs after proton irradiation measured in the dark at room temperature. The increase in dark current with proton fluence is due to the proton-induced displacement

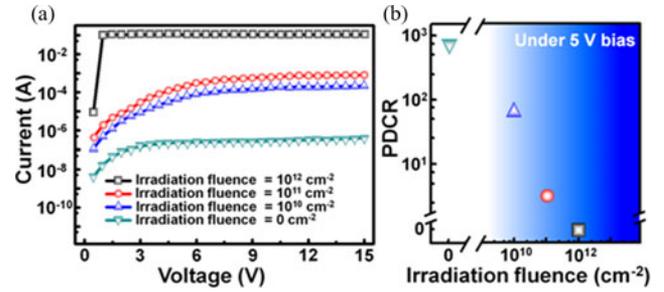


Fig. 4. (a) I – V curves of the MoS₂ MSM PDs as a function of fluence of 2-MeV proton irradiation measured in the dark at room temperature. (b) PDCR value of the MoS₂ MSM PDs as function of 2-MeV proton irradiation fluence under the bias of 10 V and 532-nm light illumination ($I_{\text{light}} = 2.0 \times 10^4$ W/m²) at room temperature.

damage [42]. To quantitatively evaluate the radiation-dependent photosensing characteristics of the MoS₂ MSM PDs, the photo-to-dark current ratio (PDCR, defined as $(I_{\text{ph}} - I_{\text{d}})/I_{\text{d}}$, where I_{ph} is the photocurrent and I_{d} is the dark current) versus the proton irradiation fluence is shown in Fig. 4(b) [43]. It indicates that the MoS₂ MSM PDs are capable of photodetection even after proton irradiation exposure with the fluences of 10^{11} cm⁻², suggesting that the lightweight MSM PDs employing layered MoS₂ are well suited for photosensing in the space environment due to high radiation hardness of MoS₂. As the proton irradiation fluence is increased to 10^{12} cm⁻², the PDCR value decreases to zero, indicating that the dark current increases largely due to the huge generation of proton-induced displacement damage at high irradiation fluences, leading to the operation failure of MoS₂ MSM PDs.

IV. CONCLUSION

In summary, MSM Schottky PDs employing MoS₂ trilayers exhibit the high responsivity/photogain of 1.04 (A/W)/24 and high radiation resistance for 2-MeV protons with the fluences up to $\sim 10^{11}$ cm⁻². Furthermore, the MoS₂ MSM PDs show ultrafast optical switch, i.e., the rise time/fall time of PDs of 40/50 μs as the contact spacing reduces to 4 μm . The photogain generation in the MoS₂ MSM Schottky PDs is attributed to the photocarriers generated at the MoS₂ between two Au electrodes and trapped in the surface states at interfaces between Au/MoS₂ contacts, resulting in the enhancement of responsivity. The trilayered MoS₂ with high radiation resistance fabricated by a low-cost process holds promise for the next-generation optoelectronics in harsh environments.

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