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Ultrahigh-Gain Photodetectors Based on Atomically Thin Graphene-MoS₂ Heterostructures

SUBJECT AREAS:

TWO-DIMENSIONAL
MATERIALS

ELECTRONIC DEVICES

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Due to its high carrier mobility, broadband absorption, and fast response time, the semi-metallic graphene is attractive for optoelectronics. Another two-dimensional semiconducting material molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂) is also known as light-sensitive. Here we show that a large-area and continuous MoS₂ monolayer is achievable using a CVD method and graphene is transferable onto MoS₂. We demonstrate that a photodetector based on the graphene/MoS₂ heterostructure is able to provide a high photogain greater than 10⁸. Our experiments show that the electron-hole pairs are produced in the MoS₂ layer after light absorption and subsequently separated across the layers. Contradictory to the expectation based on the conventional built-in electric field model for metal-semiconductor contacts, photoelectrons are injected into the graphene layer rather than trapped in MoS₂ due to the presence of a perpendicular effective electric field caused by the combination of the built-in electric field, the applied electrostatic field, and charged impurities or adsorbates, resulting in a tuneable photoresponsivity.

Two-dimensional (2d) nanomaterials, such as graphene and MoS₂, hold great promise in next-generation electronic and photonic applications because of their unique properties inherited from the ultrathin planar structures, such as strong electron-hole confinement, extreme bendability, and high transparency, which allow for the fabrication of thinner, more flexible and more efficient devices^{1,2}. Graphene has attracted substantial attention in optoelectronic applications due to its high carrier mobility, broad absorption spectrum, and fast response time. Graphene can absorb light and turn it into a photocurrent, and a recent study has shown that graphene serves as an excellent light-to-current converter with a quantum efficiency reaching close to 100% owing to its long mean-free path and high Fermi velocity³. However, graphene absorbs only 2.3% of light in the wide range of visible spectra⁴. Although various approaches such as graphene plasmons^{5,6}, microcavities^{7,8} and metallic plasmons⁹ have been employed to enhance light absorption in graphene, the photogain of graphene-based photodetectors still has more room to improve. The photoresponse mechanisms in various types of graphene-based devices have been identified, including the photovoltaic effect^{10–15}, the thermoelectric Seebeck effect^{15–19} and the bolometric effect²⁰. Although the fast recombination of photoexcited carriers in graphene may not be advantageous for photoresponsivity, the high carrier mobility in graphene offers a great possibility to show high photoresponsivity if a proper graphene device structure is built^{21,22}.

Assembling graphene with various 2d layers into artificial heterostructures to demonstrate new or tailored properties has been proposed²³ and realized in tunneling field-effect transistors^{24–26} very recently. The photoresponse efficiency of graphene devices, in principle, can be greatly enhanced by exploiting a vertical geometry, for instance, graphene/2d semiconductor heterostructural stacking, where the whole graphene area can be used as a junction. The layered MoS₂ is a newly emerging 2d nanomaterial with a direct and finite band gap. Recent reports have demonstrated a gigantic photoluminescence (PL) from the MoS₂ monolayer, 4-fold higher than that in its bulk, owing to the quantum confinement effect associated with the transition from an indirect band gap in



the bulk to a direct band gap in the monolayer^{27–33}. The photodetectors based on MoS₂ thin layers have shown reasonably high photoresponsivity in ambient ranging from 7.5 mA/W to 780 A/W^{34–36}. Very recently, the graphene/WS₂/graphene heterostructural device with a WS₂ thickness of 5–50 nm has also been demonstrated to exhibit a photoresponsivity ~ 0.1 A/W³⁷. In this work, we fabricate a photodetector based on a graphene-on-MoS₂ heterostructure, where the MoS₂ monolayer grown by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) is used to absorb light and produce electron-hole pairs. The photo-excited electron-hole pairs are separated at the MoS₂ and graphene interfaces, where the electrons move to graphene due to the presence of a perpendicular effective electric field created by the combination of the built-in electric field, the applied electrostatic field, and charged impurities or adsorbates. The photodetector based on the graphene/MoS₂ heterostructure is able to reach a photoresponsivity value higher than 10⁷ A/W and a photogain of about 10⁸ at room temperature.

Results

Preparation of stacking layers. In our previous work³⁸, we have reported the direct growth of MoS₂ monolayer crystal flakes on a sapphire or SiO₂ substrate by the vapour-phase reaction of MoO₃ and S powders in a hot-wall chemical vapour deposition (CVD) system. Here we report that this method can be further extended to grow on SiO₂ a continuous MoS₂ layer composed of randomly oriented crystalline MoS₂ domains with an average domain size around several microns. High purity MoO₃ (0.3 g; from Aldrich; 99% purity) was placed in a ceramic boat at the heating center of the furnace. A SiO₂/Si Substrate was placed in the downstream side adjacent to the ceramic boat. Sulfur powder was heated by heating tape (160°C) and carried by Ar (Ar = 70 sccm at 10 torr) to the furnace heating center. The furnace was gradually heated from room

temperature to 650°C with a rate of 25°C/min. After keeping at 250°C for 10 minutes, the furnace was naturally cooled down to room temperature. The experimental set-up for the growth is shown in the supporting Figure S1. The as-grown MoS₂ was mostly monolayer although we also noticed that the growth of small-sized second layer of MoS₂ was initiated at the center of some monolayer domains. Large-area monolayer graphene was grown on copper foils at 1000°C by a CVD method using a mixture of methane and hydrogen gases as reported elsewhere^{39,40}. To stack the graphene monolayer on MoS₂, a layer of PMMA thin film was coated on the graphene/Cu foil as a transfer supporting layer^{41,42}. After the wet etching of Cu by an aqueous solution containing Fe³⁺ ions, the PMMA-supported graphene film was transferred to the top of the as-grown MoS₂ film, followed by the removal of PMMA using acetone. The photograph in Figure 1a is the top view of the graphene/MoS₂ heterostructure simply formed by a manual stacking of a large-area CVD graphene monolayer onto MoS₂.

Spectroscopic characterizations. In Figure 1a, monolayer MoS₂ film was directly grown on the right hand side of the SiO₂/Si wafer followed by the transfer of graphene to the bottom half; therefore, we can see a clear difference in the optical contrast at four quadrants. Figure 1b schematically illustrates the device structure adopted in the study, where the top view of the comb-shaped source and drain metals is also shown below. We have performed the TEM cross-section study for the graphene/MoS₂ device. Figure 1c shows the TEM cross-section view, where the graphene/MoS₂ is capped with a passivation layer of SiO₂, and the intensity profile on the right hand side shows that the thicknesses of graphene and MoS₂ are as expected, 0.36 nm and 0.7 nm. There is no PMMA residue in between graphene and MoS₂ layers. Figure 1d displays the Raman spectrum

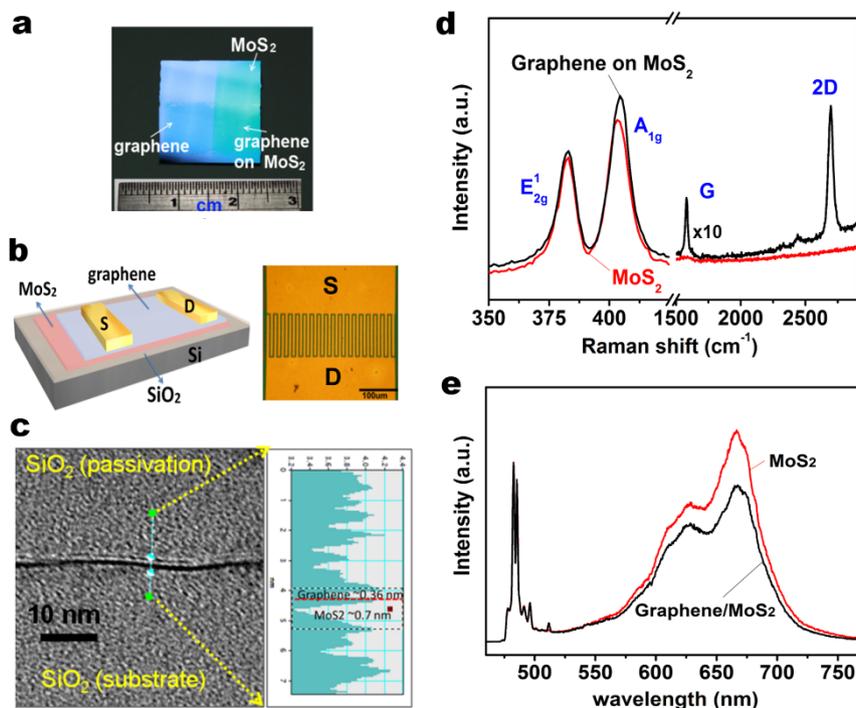


Figure 1 | Spectroscopic characterizations of a graphene/MoS₂ bilayer. (a) Photo showing that a MoS₂ monolayer was grown on the right hand side of the 300 nm SiO₂/Si wafer followed by transferring graphene onto the bottom half. (b) Schematic illustration of the photodetector based on graphene/MoS₂ stacked layers, where the channel is formed in between the comb-shaped source and drain metal electrodes (Ti/Au = 5 nm/80 nm). (c) A high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image clearly reveals a bilayer stacking of graphene/MoS₂. The thickness of each layer can be extracted from the intensity profile to be 0.36 nm and 0.7 nm for graphene and MoS₂, respectively. (d) Raman spectra and (e) photoluminescence spectra for MoS₂ and MoS₂ covered by CVD monolayer graphene taken from the sample shown in (a). Note that the Raman intensity of Graphene/MoS₂ in (d) has been multiplied by a factor of 10 for better comparison.



of the MoS₂ monolayer on SiO₂/Si and that of MoS₂ covered by graphene, taken from the sample shown in Figure 1a. The energy difference between the Raman E_{2g}¹ and A_{1g} peaks is ~19.0 cm⁻¹, indicating that the MoS₂ film is monolayer^{28–30}. The optical micrograph of a MoS₂ film on a SiO₂ substrate is shown in supporting Figure S2a. The Raman mapping in supporting Figure S2b shows that the distribution of the energy difference between the Raman E_{2g}¹ and A_{1g} peaks is uniform across the sample. The AFM cross-sectional height shown in supporting Figures S2c and S2d confirms that the film is monolayer. The peaks at about 2695.9 cm⁻¹ and 1581.5 cm⁻¹ are the characteristics of 2D and G bands, respectively for monolayer graphene³⁹. Figure 1e illustrates that the photoluminescence (PL) spectrum for MoS₂ covered by graphene (graphene/MoS₂) maintains a similar shape as its pristine form (without graphene on top) except that the intensity is decreased.

Photoelectron movement. Before discussing the photocurrent behavior, we examine the carrier properties when graphene contacts with MoS₂ in dark. First, we obtain the carrier concentrations and resistances of the graphene and graphene/MoS₂ sheets on SiO₂ by the Hall-effect measurements in dark at room temperature. All the samples are the same size (0.5 cm × 0.5 cm), and each sample has been measured four times. Since MoS₂ is much less conductive compared with graphene, the carrier properties obtained are mainly from graphene. Note that significant numbers of reports have shown that CVD graphene is *p*-doped in ambient caused by the doping effect from transfer process, adsorbed moisture/oxygen and the substrate impurities^{43,44}. Supporting Figures S3a and S3b demonstrate that the hole concentration in graphene decreases from 6 × 10¹² cm⁻² to 2 × 10¹² cm⁻² and the resistance significantly increases when graphene is in contact with MoS₂, suggesting that electrons possibly move from MoS₂ to graphene. Second, we prepared the graphene and graphene/MoS₂ transistors on a SiO₂/Si substrate with the same device fabrication processes. The electrical transfer curves in supporting Figure S3c demonstrate that the charge neutral point (V_{CNP}) of the graphene/MoS₂ transistor shifted to the left compared with that of a graphene transistor, indicating that the graphene/MoS₂ transistor was less hole-doped, consistent with the conclusion from Hall-effect measurements.

The Raman spectra in Figure 2a show that the G band of monolayer graphene on SiO₂/Si is at 1585.4 cm⁻¹ and it is broadened with a downshift to 1581.7 cm⁻¹ when a MoS₂ layer is present underneath at room temperature. Since the increase in G band peak width could be related to the increase in disorder or other reasons, both the changes in G band peak width and position should be used in order to characterize the doping in graphene. Note that the integrated intensity of D band for the graphene on SiO₂/Si is not significantly different from that on MoS₂ (Figure S4). Therefore, we do not have evidence to show that the G band broadening is attributed to the increase in disorder. Because the graphene transferred by PMMA is known as *p*-doped, the red shift and broadening of the G band indicate that the Fermi level of graphene is raised (or an increase in the electron concentration) with the light exposure⁴⁵. These results suggest that the photoelectrons generated by the Raman laser are injected into graphene. The Raman mappings of the G band energy and the FWHM are also shown to consolidate the conclusion. To further reveal the effect of adding graphene on MoS₂, Raman features for MoS₂ with and without graphene coverage are examined. The Raman spectra and mappings in Figure 2b show that the A_{1g} peak is up-shifted by ~1 cm⁻¹ in energy and the peak width is narrowed after being covered by graphene, indicating that the MoS₂ layer becomes less *n*-doped (or a decrease in the electron concentration)⁴⁶. Recent report has shown that the level of ~3 × 10¹² cm⁻² *p*-doping on MoS₂ leads to ~1 cm⁻¹ of up-shift for the A_{1g} peak⁴⁶, where we can estimate the photogenerated holes by Raman laser is in the order of 10¹² cm⁻². For comparison, we have also fabricated a stacking

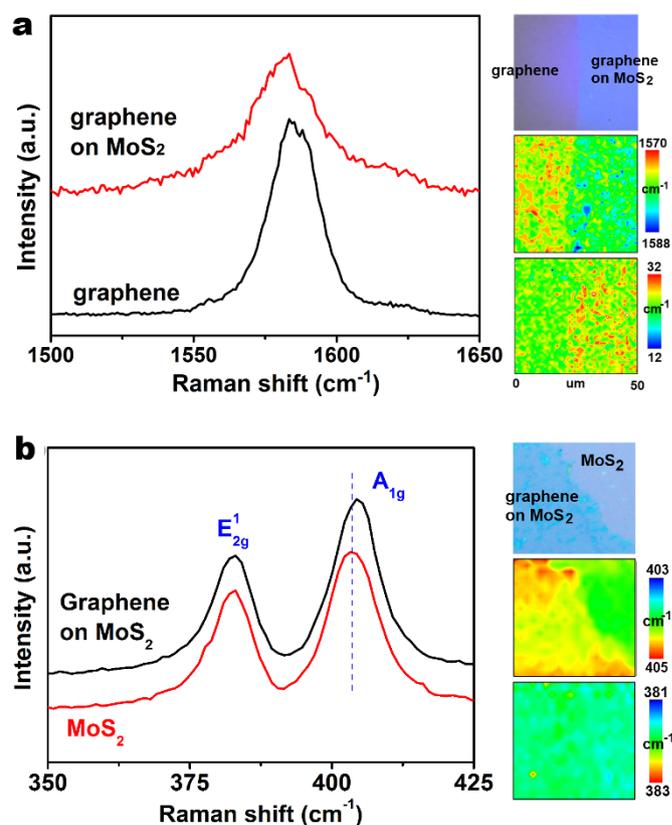


Figure 2 | Raman characterizations. (a) Raman mappings and representative Raman spectra for graphene and graphene on MoS₂, where the G band energy of graphene on SiO₂ is higher than that transferred on MoS₂. (b) Raman mappings and representative Raman spectra for MoS₂ and that covered with graphene. The A_{1g} energy of MoS₂ is up-shifted when graphene is transferred onto it, suggesting that the electron density in MoS₂ is lowered (with electrons moving from MoS₂ to graphene). The excitation source is a 473-nm laser.

structure MoS₂/graphene by transferring MoS₂ monolayer onto a *p*-typed graphene layer on SiO₂ substrates at room temperature. The Raman spectra and mappings shown in supporting Figure S5 demonstrate that when the MoS₂/graphene stack is exposed to light, the graphene layer also receives electrons from MoS₂. Both structures consistently show that the photo-excited electrons move from MoS₂ to graphene, and the photo-excited holes are trapped in the MoS₂ layer.

High photoresponsivity and photogain. To quantify the photocarriers, we study the dependence of the photocurrent on light power for the graphene/MoS₂ transistor at room temperature. Figure 3a shows the transfer curves for the graphene/MoS₂ transistor exposed to the 650-nm light with various power densities (device structure shown in Figure 1b). The voltage of the charge neutral point V_{CNP} for the transfer curve in dark is at around 10 V, indicating that graphene is *p*-doped. The shape of the transfer curve is very similar to that for pristine graphene on SiO₂, suggesting that the carrier transport in the graphene/MoS₂ photodetector is dominated by graphene. The result is reasonable because graphene is much more conductive than the MoS₂ layer. The graphene/MoS₂ transistor is extremely sensitive to light. When light is illuminated on the graphene/MoS₂ transistor, the drain current (I_d) in the *p*-channel decreases and the I_d in the *n*-channel increases as shown in Figure 3a, indicating that the photoexcited electrons are injected into graphene. The photocurrent dependence on gate voltage is plotted in Figure 3b. At the same time, the V_{CNP} largely shifted to

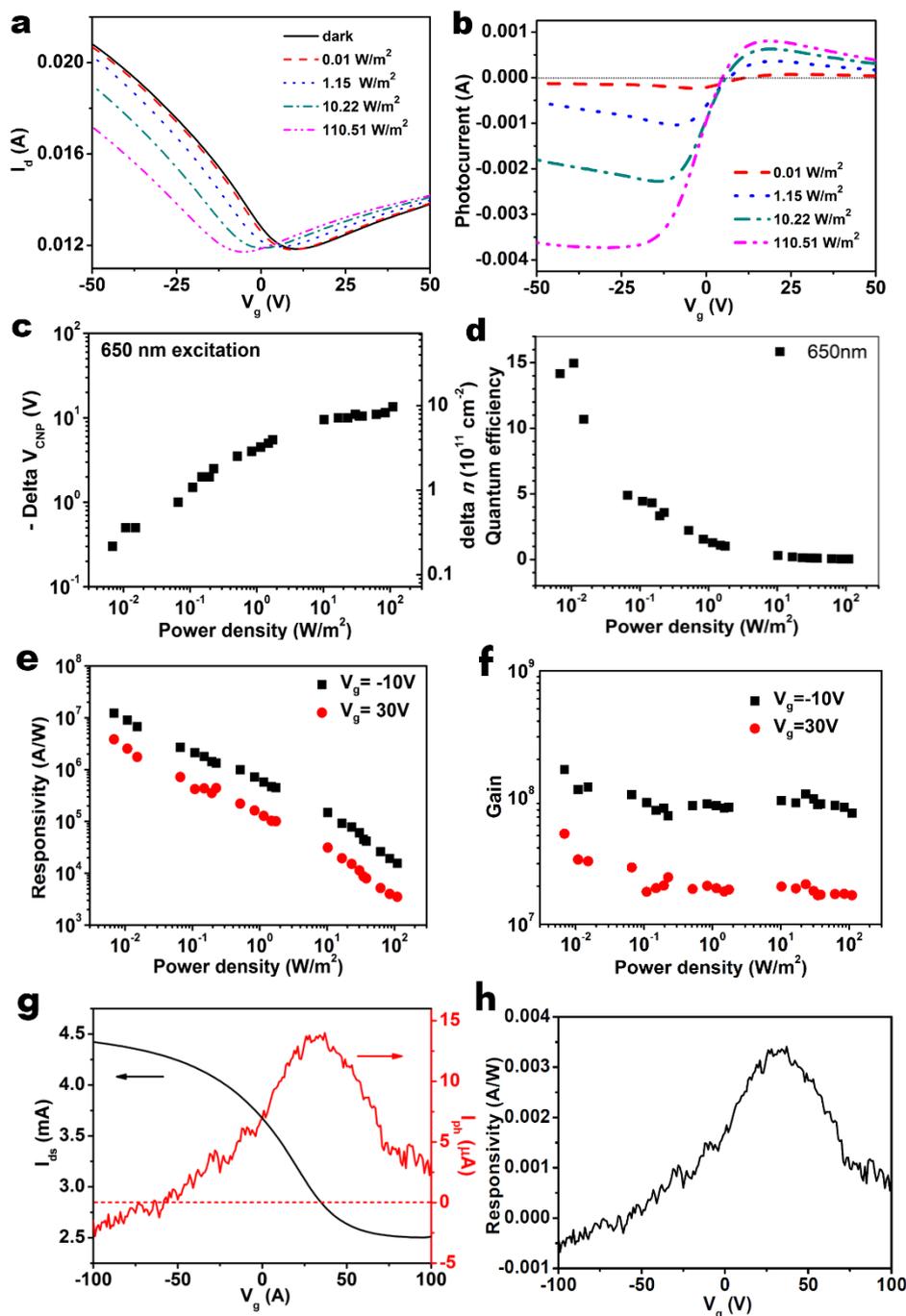


Figure 3 | Photoresponses of the graphene/MoS₂ devices. (a) Transfer curves for the graphene/MoS₂ photodetectors under the exposure of light with various powers. (b) Photocurrent as a function of the gate voltage based on the transfer curves obtained in (a). (c) Shift of the charge neutral point V_{CNP} and the corresponding electron density change (Δn) for a graphene/MoS₂ photodetector with various light powers. (d) Quantum efficiency, (e) photoresponsivity and (f) photogain for the graphene/MoS₂ photodetectors. The wavelength of the laser is 650 nm, and the channel area for exposure is $\sim 2.0 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^2$. (g) Photocurrent and (h) photoresponsivity of a photodetector based on a CVD graphene layer. A continuous wavelength 532 nm laser was used to illuminate the device at power density 35.21 W/cm^2 ($V_{\text{ds}} = 0.1 \text{ V}$).

a more negative voltage even with very weak light exposure (Figure 3c). The negative shift of V_{CNP} indicates that the photoexcited holes were trapped in the MoS₂, acting as an additional positive gate voltage for graphene²¹. The carrier concentration of the trapped holes can be extracted using the formula $\Delta n = C_g \times \Delta V_{\text{CNP}}/e$ for graphene, where $C_g = 1.15 \times 10^{-8} \text{ F/cm}^2$ for the dielectric film of 300 nm SiO₂, and e is the electron charge^{21,45,47}. The internal quantum efficiency (IQE), a measurement of a photodetector's electrical sensitivity to light, can be estimated by the equation: IQE = (the number of photoexcited

electron-hole pairs)/(absorbed number of photons) = $\Delta n \times A/(P_0/h\nu)$, where A , P_0 , h and ν represent the total channel area, absorbed light power by graphene and MoS₂, the Planck constant and the frequency of the incident laser, respectively. (Note that the absorbance of the graphene/MoS₂ heterostructure is $\sim 6.8\%$ at 650 nm based on our absorption measurement.) As shown in Figure 3d, the IQE decreases with the increasing light power and the largest IQE for the system is $\sim 15\%$. We further estimate the photoresponsivity and photogain to quantify the photo sensitivity of the graphene/MoS₂ photodetector. The photoresponsivity is the



ratio between the photocurrent ($I_{ph} = I_{light} - I_{dark}$) and the light power absorbed by the photodetector, and, remarkably, the photoresponsivity can reach 1.2×10^7 A/W (at $V_g = -10$ V; $V_{ds} = 1$ V; light power density ~ 0.01 W/m²) as shown in Figure 3e. The photogain can be calculated by the formula $G = I_{ph}/[e \times (\text{the number of photoexcited electron-hole pairs})] = I_{ph}/(e \times \Delta n \times A)$, and the gain is up to 10^8 (Figure 3f).

In our device structure, the metals only contact to the top layer graphene, not the MoS₂ layer. Meanwhile, as described in text, the measured current is actually dominated by graphene. Hence, it is also crucial to examine whether the CVD graphene itself contributes to the observed large photocurrent. Our measured results in Figures 3g and 3h (and in supporting Figure S6) are consistent with those reported by Avouris' group¹⁵ in that the intrinsic photoresponse in biased graphene transistors was dominated by the photovoltaic effect and a photoinduced bolometric effect, while the thermoelectric effect was insignificant. However, the photocurrent generated from the pure graphene transistors is several orders of magnitude smaller than that observed in our graphene/MoS₂ photodetector, indicating that the observed large photocurrent from graphene/MoS₂ is not contributed by the aforementioned processes in graphene. On the other hand, we fabricated the CVD monolayer MoS₂ photodetector in the same device configuration, and found that the highest photoresponsivity for the pristine monolayer MoS₂ is around 780 A/W³⁶. In the present experiment, the graphene-based photodetector with an ultrahigh photo sensitivity $\sim 10^7$ A/W is realized simply by stacking it onto an atomically thin MoS₂ layer.

Discussion

In addition to the move of photoelectrons to graphene, the negative shift of V_{CNP} upon photoexcitation may also be attributed to other extrinsic effects such as thermal desorption of absorbed dopants or thermoelectric effect. Figure 4a shows the dependence of photoresponsivity of the graphene/MoS₂ transistor on the wavelength of light at room temperature. It is observed that photoresponsivity only becomes pronounced when the excitation energy is higher than the absorption band gap of MoS₂ (1.8 eV)³², with the optical absorption feature of the as-grown MoS₂ layer shown in Figure 4b. These results suggest that the photocurrent is originated from the light absorption in MoS₂: the electron-hole pairs are produced in MoS₂, followed by the separation of them between MoS₂ and graphene layers. If the photocurrent were from the thermal effect, the photocurrent would have been induced even when the photon energy is smaller than the band gap of monolayer MoS₂.

To further exclude the thermal effect, we measured the time-resolved photocurrent driven by different drain voltages at a low laser power density at room temperature, which ensures that the fast current self-heating effect becomes more prominent for the thermal desorption process or thermoelectric effect. Detailed results of time-resolved photoresponse and arguments were presented in the supporting Figure S7 to show that the photocurrent of the graphene/MoS₂ photodetector is not from the thermal effects. In brief, the normalized photocurrent-time profiles for the graphene/MoS₂ transistor in ambient air shown in Figure S7a reveals that the current-time curve obtained at $V_{ds} = 0.002$ V overlaps with that at $V_{ds} = 0.01$ V. The photocurrent becomes smaller when V_{ds} is set at 1 V (current I_{ds} is $\sim 2 \times 10^{-2}$ A). If the thermal desorption of dopants or thermoelectric effect from the film was a dominant process, a higher V_{ds} would have given rise to a larger photocurrent⁴⁸. The measurement results in vacuum also consistently lead to the same conclusion that thermal effect is not a dominant process.

After monolayer graphene and monolayer MoS₂ contact with each other, the electrons are injected into graphene. Thus, the conventional theory of ideal metal-semiconductor contacts predicts an energy-band bending at the interface as shown in supporting Figure S8, and the direction of the built-in electric field is from

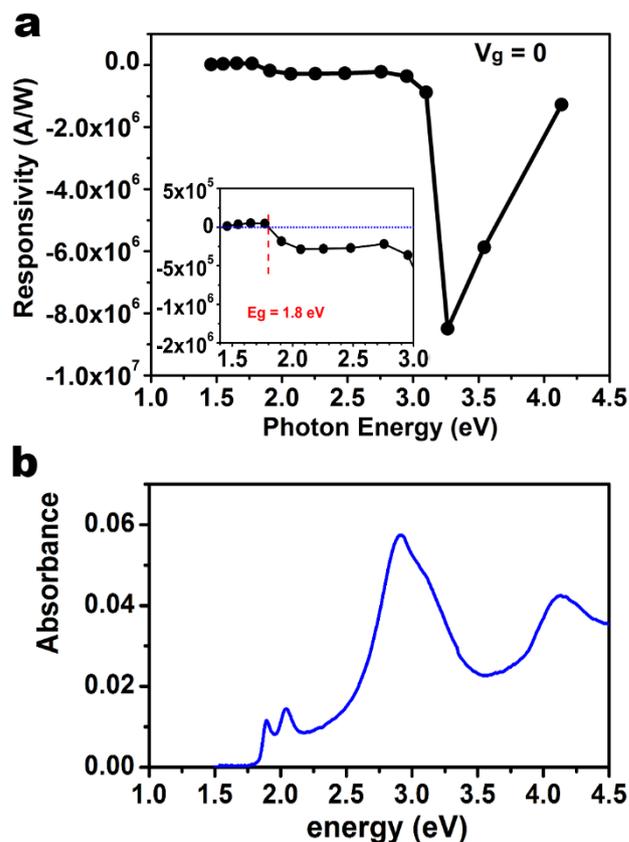


Figure 4 | Wavelength dependence. (a) Photoresponsivity as a function of the energy of the excitation light source. (b) Optical absorption spectrum for monolayer MoS₂.

MoS₂ to graphene. With illumination on the graphene/MoS₂ transistors, the photo-generated electrons should flow into MoS₂. However, this is opposite to our experimental results. Different from the conventional metal-semiconductor contact, the semimetal and semiconductor of the 2d heterostructure are atomically thin layers, and the depletion region of the 2d heterostructure is so thin that the charge concentration and polarity at the interface of graphene/MoS₂ should be liable to be affected by the charge impurities on the surfaces of graphene and MoS₂ or the applied electrostatic field. The applied electric field and the external electric field that is from the charge impurities on the surface of graphene and MoS₂ form an effective electric field at the graphene/MoS₂ interface. The effective electric field determines the flowing direction and the amount of the photo-excited electrons. As mentioned above in Figure 2 and Figure S5, the MoS₂ donates electrons to graphene for both the structures of graphene/MoS₂ and MoS₂/graphene, indicating that the direction of the effective electric field of the 2d heterostructure in ambient air is from graphene to MoS₂. When the sample is in high vacuum ($\sim 5 \times 10^{-5}$ mbar), the graphene accepts electrons when shining light on the devices as presented in Figure 5, which means that the direction of the effective electric field is still from graphene to MoS₂. However, the photocurrent is much smaller than that in ambient air at the same laser power density, suggesting that the effective electric field decreases in high vacuum. As shown in Figure 5a, the V_{CNP} of the second device shifted to the left by ~ 23 V, indicating that the many adsorbates or charged impurities are desorbed in high vacuum, and the graphene reverts its polarity from p- to n-type. Our previous result has shown that the monolayer MoS₂ film still remains n-doped in high vacuum³⁶. Thus it is intuitive to derive that the effective electric field at the graphene/MoS₂ interface in air is larger than that in vacuum.

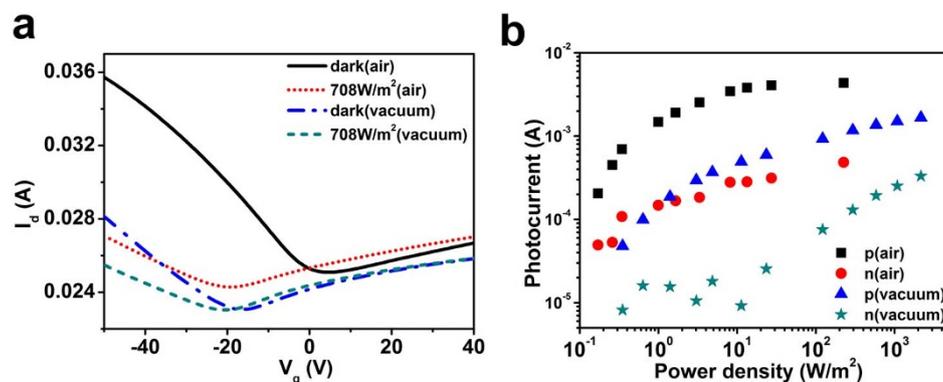


Figure 5 | Comparison of photoresponses in air and in vacuum. (a) Transfer curves for the graphene/MoS₂ transistor measured in air and in vacuum. (b) Photocurrent as a function of the light power density in air and in vacuum at $V_g - V_{CNP} = \pm 20$ V. The 532-nm laser was used to measure the photocurrent, and the spot size was ~ 2 mm.

To exploit the alignment of the Fermi level between the heterostructure, first-principles calculations are performed based on density functional theory (DFT)^{49,50} using the Vienna *ab initio* simulation package (VASP)^{51,52}. The details are described in Methods. A modulated electric field (E_{ext}) is applied to simulate the doping effect and align the energy bands in graphene/MoS₂. The band structure corresponding to the bilayer in air is shown in Figure 6a with *p*-doped graphene and *n*-doped MoS₂. After pumping that removes *p*-dopants, the band structure of the bilayer in vacuum is shown in Figure 6b with *n*-doped graphene and *n*-doped MoS₂. The corresponding schematic illustration of the photoelectron

transfer process is also shown in Figure 6. From the Figure 6, we can find that the effective electric field of the *p*-doped graphene/MoS₂ heterostructure would be larger than that of the *n*-doped graphene, so the photogenerated electron-hole pairs would be separated more easily by this effective electric field. The more *n*-doped graphene, the smaller effective electric field, and leading to the smaller photogain. So the photoresponsivity of the graphene/MoS₂ photodetector can be tuned by the modulation of the doping level of graphene and MoS₂. As the monolayer MoS₂ has a band gap ~ 1.8 eV, and the graphene is semimetal, the photoresponsivity is more sensitive to the graphene doping level.

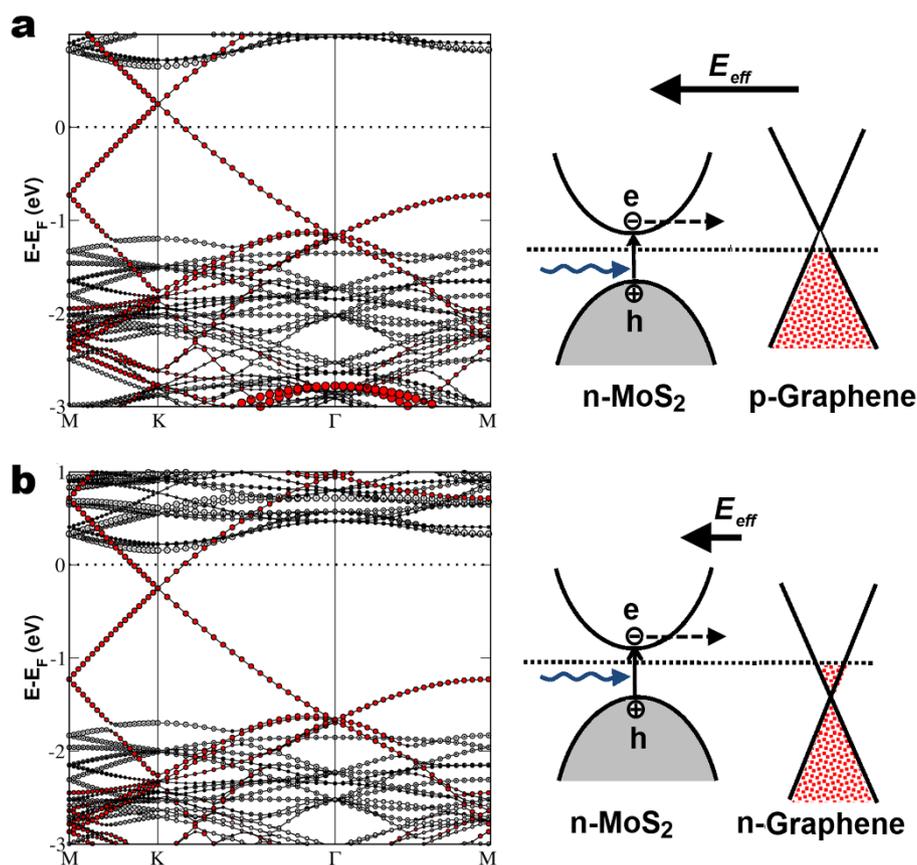


Figure 6 | Schematic illustration of the photoelectron transfer process in the graphene/MoS₂ bilayer. The corresponding band structures for an *n*-doped MoS₂ layer topped with (a) slightly *p*-doped graphene and (b) *n*-doped graphene corresponding to the experimental situation in air and in vacuum, respectively. The electronic states associated with graphene and MoS₂ are represented in red and gray in the band structure plots, respectively. The effective electric field is created by charged impurities or adsorbates (see text).



The high photogain process in the graphene/MoS₂ bilayer can now be described as follows. Light absorption in MoS₂ generates electron-hole pairs; the electrons can move to the graphene layer due to an effective electric field created by the combination of the built-in electric field, the applied electrostatic field, and charged impurities or adsorbates, while the holes are trapped in the MoS₂ layer. It is noted that the V_{th} shift is a direct result of electron transfer from MoS₂ to graphene. In addition to the electron-hole separation, the high electron mobility in graphene and the long charge-trapping lifetime of the holes result in multiple recirculation of electrons in graphene, leading to a very high photogain. This high-photogain mechanism is similar to what was reported by Yan and Konstantatos et al. for bilayer graphene where a thick layer of PbS quantum dots was used as the light absorber²¹, although the controlling scheme for charge separation there is intrinsically different from that in the current heterostructure formed by 2d layered materials. It is noted that the graphene/MoS₂ stacking is with a high photogain but not a high on/off photocurrent ratio since the graphene layer is intrinsically with a low on/off current. To achieve a better on/off switching ratio in the stacking structure, graphene nanoribbons or gapped graphene may be used in the future.

Conclusions

In conclusion, we have constructed a graphene/MoS₂ bilayer by manually stacking graphene on a CVD MoS₂ layer. The advantage of using this structure for photodetection is that the whole surface area can be used as a junction, where electron-hole pairs can be separated at the interface. The photodetector based on this graphene/MoS₂ heterostructure is able to reach a photoresponsivity value higher than 10⁷ A/W while maintaining its unique ultrathin character. The present work demonstrates the significance of charge movement in the emerging field of 2d heterostructures. The heterostructures of 2d layers exhibit novel materials properties beyond the capacities of the constituents. Stimulations of research and developments of optoelectronic applications based on various heterostructural 2d materials are thus anticipated.

Methods

Characterizations. The AFM images were performed in a Veeco Dimension-Icon system. Raman and photoluminescence (PL) spectra were collected in a confocal Raman/PL system (NT-MDT). The wavelength of laser is 473 nm (2.63 eV), and the spot size of the laser beam is ~0.5 μm. The step size of the Raman spatial mapping is 0.5 μm, and the spectral resolution is 3 cm⁻¹ (obtained with a 600 grooves/mm grating). A high grating (1800 grooves/mm) is also used to get more details of the line shapes of the Raman band, and the spectral resolution is 1 cm⁻¹. The Si peak at 520 cm⁻¹ was used as a reference for wavenumber calibration, and the peak frequency was extracted by fitting a Raman peak with a Lorentz function. The electrical measurements were performed in an ambient or vacuum condition using a Keithley semiconductor parameter analyzer, model 4200-SCS. The sheet resistance, sheet concentration, and mobility of the graphene and graphene on MoS₂ films were analyzed by using a Hall sensor measurement based on the Van der Pauw method⁵³. Field-emission transmission electron microscopy (JEM-3000 F, JEOL operated at 300 kV with point-to-point resolution of 0.17 nm) equipped with an energy dispersion spectrometer (EDS) was used to obtain the microstructures and the chemical compositions. The sample for TEM measurements was prepared by a focus ion beam (FIB) (SMI 3050SE, SII Nanotechnology). Before sample cutting, the sample was capped by a 100 nm-thick SiO₂ layer deposited by an E-gun system as a passivation layer in order to prevent the damage from Ga ions during sample cutting.

Numerical simulation. We construct a slab model with a 5 × 5 supercell of graphene on a 4 × 4 supercell of MoS₂ to simulate the stacked layer, where the interactions between electrons and ions is described by the projector augmented wave (PAW) method, and the exchange-correlation potential is described by the local density approximation (LDA). The lattice constant of graphene used in the simulation is 2.46 Å. The lattice constant for optimized monolayer MoS₂ is 3.12 Å. A vacuum thickness of 15 Å is used in order to eliminate the spurious image interactions, and the energy cut-off of plane waves is 400 eV. The interlayer spacing between MoS₂ and graphene is 3.3 Å for the optimized structure. An applied electric field is added to simulate the effects of an applied gate voltage or Coulomb impurities. The calculated band gap of MoS₂ is 1.8 eV, which is known to be underestimated by LDA.

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Author contributions

W.Z. performed the major part of the experiments. C.P.C. performed simulation studies. J.K.H., C.H.C. and Y.H.C. helped to grow graphene and MoS₂ samples. M.L.T., C.T.L. J.H. He provide facilities. Y.Z.C. and Y.L.C. helped on TEM measurement. All authors discussed the simulation results. L.J.L., M.Y.C. and W.Z. wrote the manuscript. Correspondence for experiments and simulation should be addressed to L.J.L. (lanceli@gate.sinica.edu.tw) and M.Y.C. (mychou6@gate.sinica.edu.tw) respectively.

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