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Charge-transfer-based Gas Sensing Using Atomic-layer MoS₂

SUBJECT AREAS:

TWO-DIMENSIONAL
MATERIALS
MATERIALS CHEMISTRY

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Two-dimensional (2D) molybdenum disulphide (MoS₂) atomic layers have a strong potential to be used as 2D electronic sensor components. However, intrinsic synthesis challenges have made this task difficult. In addition, the detection mechanisms for gas molecules are not fully understood. Here, we report a high-performance gas sensor constructed using atomic-layered MoS₂ synthesised by chemical vapour deposition (CVD). A highly sensitive and selective gas sensor based on the CVD-synthesised MoS₂ was developed. *In situ* photoluminescence characterisation revealed the charge transfer mechanism between the gas molecules and MoS₂, which was validated by theoretical calculations. First-principles density functional theory calculations indicated that NO₂ and NH₃ molecules have negative adsorption energies (i.e., the adsorption processes are exothermic). Thus, NO₂ and NH₃ molecules are likely to adsorb onto the surface of the MoS₂. The *in situ* PL characterisation of the changes in the peaks corresponding to charged trions and neutral excitons via gas adsorption processes was used to elucidate the mechanisms of charge transfer between the MoS₂ and the gas molecules.

Over the past few decades, metal oxide semiconductors have been applied as conventional chemical sensing materials because of their high sensitivity and relatively low cost^{1–3}. However, they still have some critical drawbacks. First, metal oxide semiconductors exhibit poor sensitivity and selectivity at room temperature. This obstacle has led to the development of alternative materials such as carbon nanotubes⁴, graphene⁵, and transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs)^{6–11}. Recently, 2D TMDs have attracted much attention for use in next-generation nanoelectronic devices^{12–14}, with a single-layer MoS₂ transistor having been reported to exhibit outstanding performance¹⁵. The intrinsic merits of TMDs, including their high surface-to-volume ratio and semiconducting properties, have accelerated the development of a diverse range of applications of these materials as chemical sensors. A recent flurry of research involving MoS₂-based gas detection has mitigated the wide chasm between metal oxide materials and alternatives^{6–11}. However, the fundamental mechanism of chemical sensing using MoS₂ remains unclear, limiting its practical applications. Here, we demonstrate highly sensitive and selective gas detection of NO₂ and NH₃ using uniform wafer-scale MoS₂ nanofilms synthesised by thermal chemical vapour deposition (CVD). We elucidate the charge transfer mechanism of MoS₂ gas adsorption using *in situ* photoluminescence (PL) and computational calculations involving first-principles density functional theory. The peak intensities from the positively charged trions (A⁺) and neutral excitons (A⁰) in the PL spectrum show trade-off phenomena by adsorption of each different gas molecule (NO₂ or NH₃) onto the MoS₂. The electron depletion of MoS₂ by NO₂ adsorption leads to an increase in the intensity of the A⁺ peak and a suppression of the intensity of the A⁰ peak, whereas electron accumulation by NH₃ adsorption suppresses the intensity of the A⁺ peak and increases the intensity of the A⁰ peak. These *in situ* PL characterisation results clarify the mechanisms of



charge transfer between the MoS₂ and the gas molecules. These findings will help to implement future gas sensing technologies using diverse two dimensional TMDs nanomaterials.

Results

Wafer-scale synthesis of atomic-layered MoS₂. Most approaches use direct/indirect sulphurisation of Mo-containing thin films to synthesise atomic-layered MoS₂ thin films. The precursor is a key factor in the synthesis of MoS₂. In previous studies, most authors adopted one of three precursors: molybdenum thin films¹⁶; molybdenum trioxide¹⁷; or ammonium thiomolybdate¹⁸. However, previous methods have involved complex precursor preparations, yielding films with inconsistent quality. In our search for strategies for synthesising uniform wafer-scale MoS₂ (see schematic in Fig. 1a), we have focused on the development of a thermal CVD system and process. Atomic-layered MoS₂ was grown using molybdenum trioxide (MoO₃) deposited onto a sapphire substrate and a sulphur powder source. The sublimated sulphur served as a precursor to sulphurise the MoO₃ film. To achieve our overall goal of preparing MoS₂ films of consistent quality on the desired substrates, we turned our attention to pressure control during the CVD reaction. A recent report indicated that an increase in the amount of either Mo or S atoms results in increased formation of energetically favourable defects on the MoS₂ surface during film growth¹⁹. Thus, we systematically controlled the reaction pressure to provide sufficient sublimated sulphur using a custom-made automatic pressure control system (Supplementary Fig. S1).

The new CVD system design was very effective for the uniform synthesis of MoS₂ films on 2-inch sapphire substrates, as illustrated in Fig. 1b. Cross-sectional transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was used to examine the number of layers formed by CVD (Fig. 1c).

The MoS₂ films contained double, triple, and, in some cases, more than three layers (additional TEM images, TEM energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) maps, TEM EDS point spectra, atomic force microscopy images, X-ray photoelectron spectra, and absorption spectra are provided in Supplementary Figs. S2–7). The Raman spectrum in Fig. 1d shows the in-plane vibrational mode of the Mo and S atoms (E_{2g}) and the out-of-plane vibrational mode of S atoms (A_{1g}) in the as-synthesised MoS₂ films²⁰. The difference in peak position (Δ) between the E_{2g} and A_{1g} bands, which is a strong indicator of the number of layers, was approximately 22.9. This result indicates that the as-synthesised MoS₂ was mainly composed of three layers^{18,21,22}. To confirm the wafer-scale synthesis of MoS₂, we conducted a large-scale structural analysis using Raman mapping and an imaging technique. The Raman mapping area was 50 × 50 μm^2 with 0.3 μm steps (the original Raman mapping spectra are shown in Supplementary Fig. S8). The corresponding Raman images revealed the spatial distribution of MoS₂ over a 250- μm^2 area of the substrate (Figs. 1e and f). The blue and red models show the spatial distributions of the E_{2g} and A_{1g} bands, respectively. The as-synthesised MoS₂ was highly uniform over a large area of the surface (Figs. 1e and f). Thus, systematic pressure control during the CVD process resulted in highly uniform MoS₂ films on the wafer scale.

Gas detection characteristics of the MoS₂ gas sensor. The uniform atomic-layered MoS₂ films were used for gas molecule detection (Fig. 2a). Transient resistance responses were investigated using two analyte gases (NO₂ or NH₃ at concentrations from 1.2 to 50 ppm). The gas sensitivity was calculated using $\Delta R/R_a = (R_g - R_a)/R_a$, where R_a and R_g represent the resistances of the device to air and the analyte gas, respectively. In the NO₂ gas mode, the resistance increased (positive sensitivity) (Fig. 2b). The NO₂

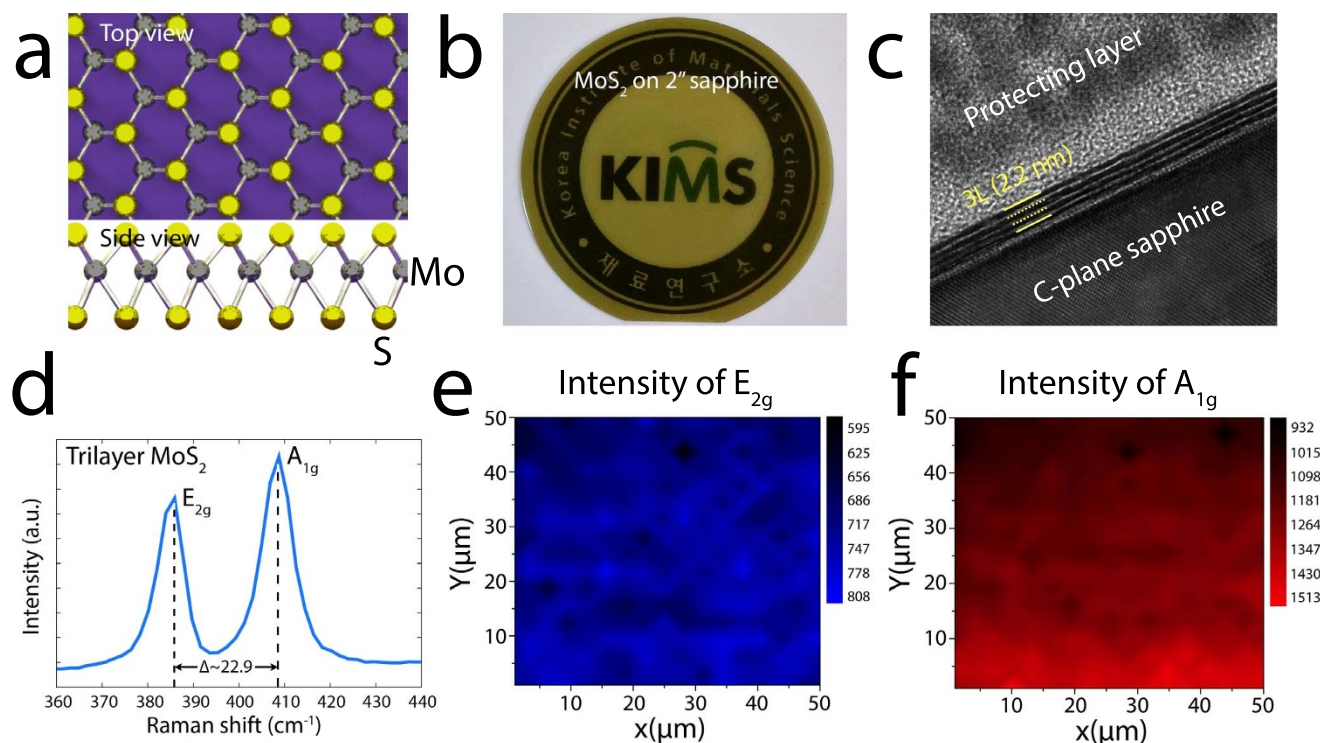


Figure 1 | Large-scale synthesis of MoS₂. (a) Schematic of the atomic-layered MoS₂. The quasi-2D MoS₂ was occupied by one Mo (a trigonal prismatic structure) and two S atoms (hexagonal planes). (b) Image of the as-synthesised MoS₂ film on the 2-inch sapphire substrate. The as-synthesised MoS₂ film was semi-transparent. (c) Cross-sectional TEM images of the as-grown MoS₂ films. The image clearly demonstrates that the synthesised MoS₂ films consisted of three layers of MoS₂. (d) Raman spectrum of the triple-layered MoS₂. The spectrum reveals a strong in-plane vibrational mode for the Mo and S atoms (E_{2g}) and an out-of-plane vibrational mode for the S atoms (A_{1g}). The peak position difference (Δ) between the E_{2g} and A_{1g} bands is approximately 22.9, indicating triple-layered MoS₂. (e, f) Raman maps of E_{2g} (blue) and A_{1g} (red), respectively. The Raman mapping area was 50 × 50 μm^2 with 0.3 μm steps. The Raman images show the spatial distribution on the surface of the substrates.

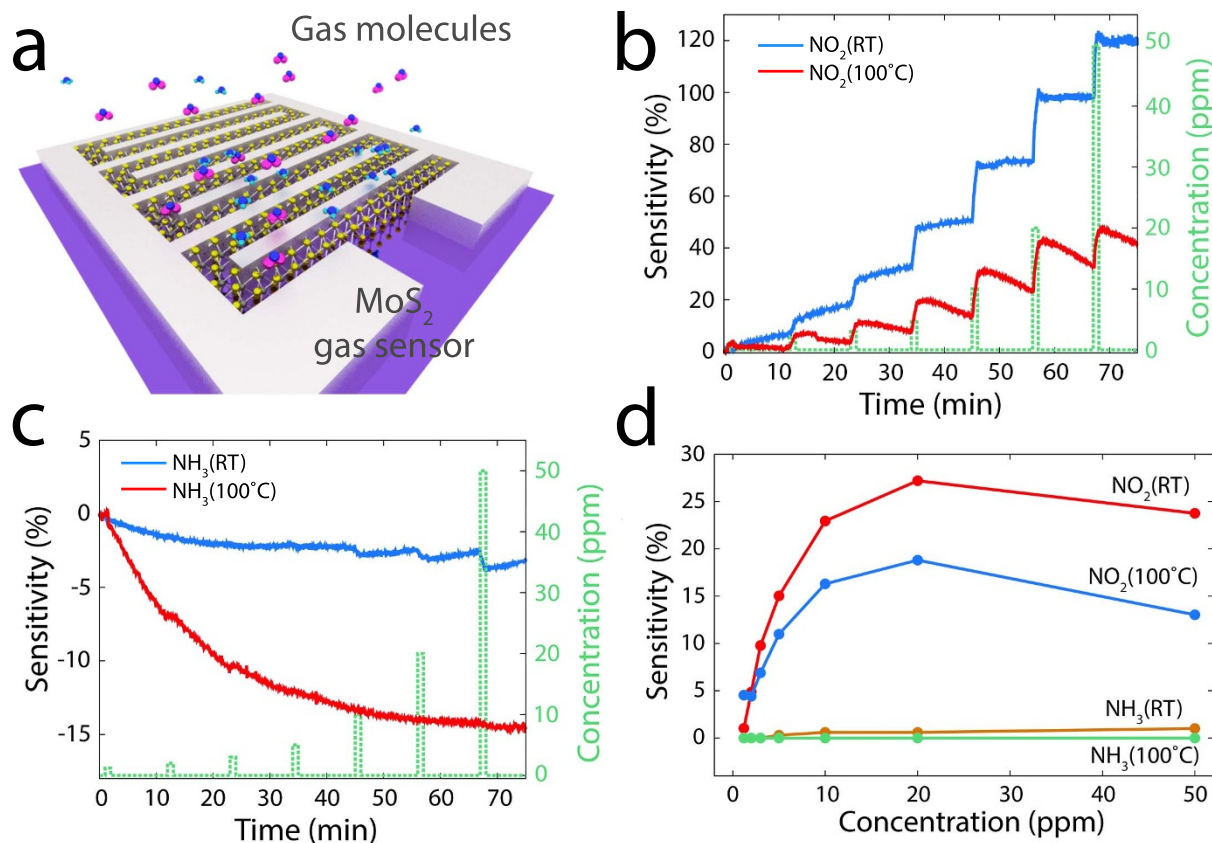


Figure 2 | Gas-sensing using the MoS₂ device. (a) 3D schematic of the MoS₂ gas-sensing device for NO₂ and NH₃. (b) Transient NO₂ gas response at 1.5 to 50 ppm gas at operating temperatures of RT and 100°C. In the NO₂ gas mode, the resistance increases (positive sensitivity). The recovery rate of NO₂ is higher at 100°C than at RT. (c) The transient NH₃ gas response at 1.5 to 50 ppm gas at operating temperatures of RT and 100°C. The resistance decreases with the adsorption of NH₃ gas molecules (negative sensitivity). The NH₃ sensing signal is negligible at 100°C. (d) Comparison of the NO₂ and NH₃ sensitivities at different gas concentrations and operating temperatures. The highest selectivity of NO₂ to NH₃ was obtained when the concentration reached 20 ppm at 100°C.

sensitivity values were comparable to those in a previous report⁸. NO₂ acts as an electron acceptor, resulting in p-doping (Supplementary Fig. S12). The NO₂ molecules on the surface of MoS₂ bring the Fermi level closer to the valence-band edge. During the desorption process, thermal energy (heating to 100°C) enhances the rate of desorption of the NO₂ molecules from the MoS₂ film (Fig. 2b, red line). We next compared the gas sensing characteristics for NH₃ to those for NO₂ (Fig. 2c). In contrast to the resistance recorded for NO₂ molecules, the resistance of the MoS₂ sensing device decreased with the adsorption of NH₃ gas molecules, i.e., negative sensitivity was observed. NH₃ acts as an electron donor (i.e., n-doping) such that it shifts the Fermi level of the MoS₂ to the conduction-band edge. However, theoretical calculations indicated that the Fermi-level shift induced by the NH₃ molecules is negligible (Supplementary Fig. S12). The measured overall NH₃ sensitivities were lower than those of NO₂ (Figs. 2b and c) because of the smaller charge transfer of NH₃ compared to that of NO₂²³. The dependence of the gas response on the gas concentration at different operating temperatures is plotted in Fig. 2d. The surface chemical reaction between the MoS₂ channel and the NO₂ molecules saturated at approximately 20 ppm, irrespective of the operating temperature (Fig. 2d, red and blue lines). By contrast, in the case of NH₃, the sensitivity at RT gradually increased from 5 to 50 ppm and the sensitivity under 5 ppm was undetectable. However, the sensing signal at 100°C was imperceptible at all concentrations (Supplementary Fig. S9). Thus, the recovery rate of NO₂ at 100°C is clearly superior to that of NH₃, which is closely related to the faster desorption process of NO₂ molecules as a result of the thermal

energy^{24,25}. At 20 ppm and 100°C, we obtained the best selectivity for NO₂ relative to NH₃ (~400% increase compared to that at RT).

In situ photoluminescence of the MoS₂-based gas sensor. To explore the gas adsorption characteristics of the MoS₂, we adopted theoretical and experimental approaches. First-principles density functional theory (DFT) calculations were conducted using the screened hybrid functional of Heyd-Scuseria-Ernzerhof with the D2 correction for van der Waals interactions^{26,27} (see the detailed methods in the Supplementary Information). To simulate NO₂ and NH₃ adsorption onto the MoS₂ monolayer, supercells containing 16 Mo and 32 S atoms with NO₂ and NH₃ were employed using a 2 × 2 × 1 k-point grid. The most stable configurations of NO₂ and NH₃ reported in a recent study that compared the total energy between different adsorption configurations²⁸ were considered. The NO₂ and NH₃ molecules were preferentially adsorbed onto the top of the hexagon of the MoS₂²⁸ (Figs. 3a and b). The adsorption energies of the NO₂ and NH₃ gas molecules were evaluated using $E_a = E_{(MoS_2 - molecule)} - [E_{(MoS_2)} + E_{(molecule)}]$, where $E_{(MoS_2 - molecule)}$ is the total energy of a supercell containing both an MoS₂ monolayer and a gas molecule (NO₂ or NH₃), $E_{(MoS_2)}$ is the total energy of the host MoS₂ supercell, and $E_{(molecule)}$ is the total energy of a supercell containing a gas molecule. The calculated adsorption energies of NO₂ and NH₃ were -0.14 eV and -0.16 eV, respectively. These values were ~0.1 eV smaller than the values obtained using the local density approximation (LDA) because the LDA functional overestimates the adsorption energy²⁸. The negative adsorption energies indicate that the adsorption process is exothermic. Thus,

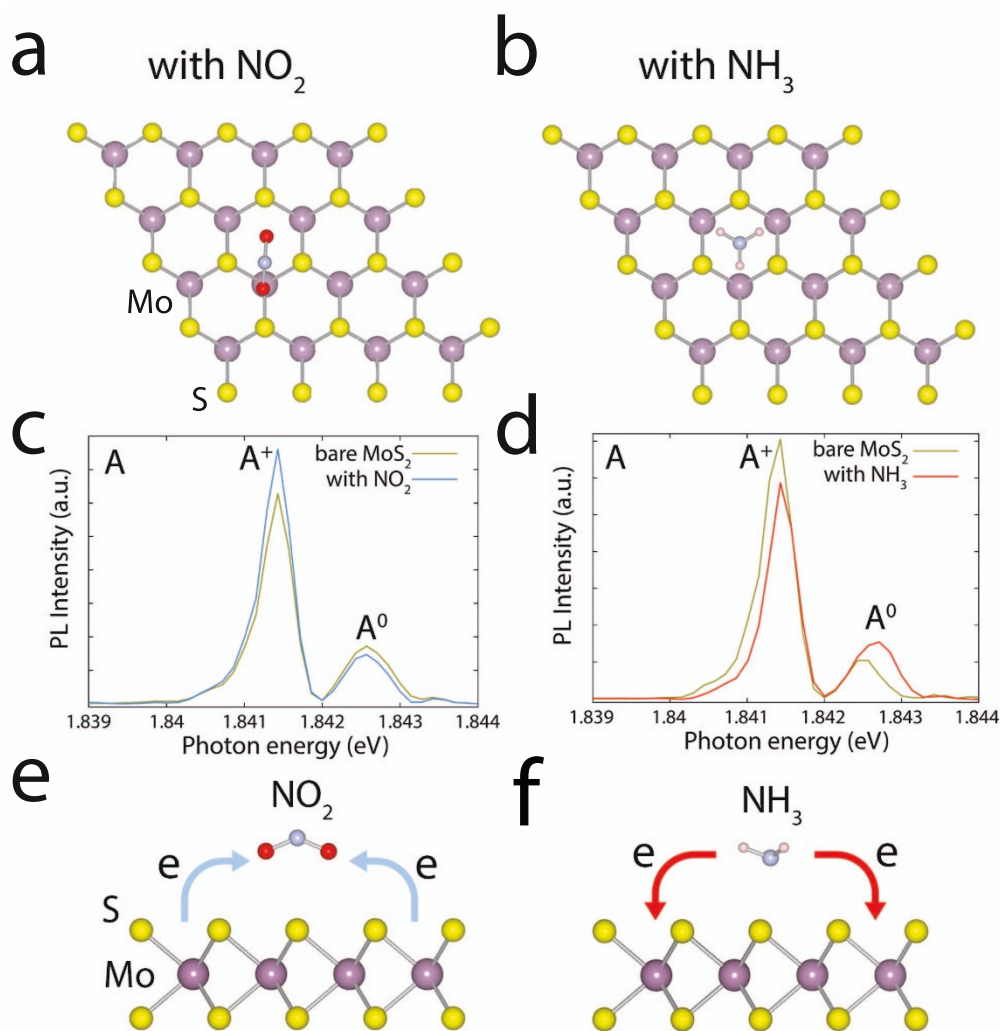


Figure 3 | Adsorption configurations and *in situ* PL. (a, b) Top views of the most favourable configurations for NO₂ (a) and NH₃ (b) on the MoS₂. The calculated adsorption energies were -0.14 eV for NO₂ and -0.16 eV for NH₃. The negative adsorption energies indicate that the adsorption process is exothermic, indicating that NO₂ and NH₃ molecules are likely to be adsorbed onto the surface of the MoS₂. (c, d) *In situ* PL spectra recorded from the MoS₂ with NO₂ (c) and NH₃ (d) molecules. The overall intensity of the PL spectra changes in the presence of NO₂ and NH₃ molecules. The PL intensities of the A⁺ trions and A⁰ excitons are either suppressed or increased by changes in the concentrations of the charge carriers. (e, f) Schematics of the charge density differences for MoS₂ in the presence of NO₂ (e) and NH₃ (f) gas molecules. NO₂ molecules on the surface of MoS₂ act as electron acceptors, whereas NH₃ molecules act as electron donors.

NO₂ and NH₃ molecules are likely to be adsorbed onto the surface of MoS₂.

Next, we turned our attention to the *in situ* characterisation of PL to study the sensing mechanism in depth. The high temperature during film growth can induce unintentional defects on the substrate/MoS₂ interface. To prevent defects, we transferred the as-grown MoS₂ from the sapphire substrate to a SiO₂/p + Si substrate. Interestingly, the atomic-layered MoS₂ transferred onto the SiO₂/p + Si substrate exhibited opposite gas sensitivity (i.e., p-type behaviour) compared to the n-type behaviour of MoS₂ on the sapphire substrate (see Supplementary Fig. S13 for details). Dangling bonds at the semiconductor/substrate interface can redefine the effective Fermi levels within gap states, modulating the conductive properties of the MoS₂²⁹. The dangling oxygen bonds on the SiO₂ surface can result in a p-type MoS₂ semiconductor²⁹. In the *in situ* PL characterisation with the two analyte gases (see Supplementary Fig. S10 for details), we observed various intensity changes in the PL spectra for NO₂ and NH₃ molecules (Figs. 3c and d). The atomic-layered MoS₂ had two main PL peaks associated with the A and B excitons³⁰ (Supplementary Figs. S11). Spin-orbit coupling-induced valence-band

splitting can give rise to A and B excitons³¹. After the gas molecules are adsorbed, the PL intensities of the A and B excitons can either be suppressed or increased by changing the concentrations of the charge carriers^{32,33}. We here focused on the signal peak of the A exciton. The relatively low-energy A exciton signal expands to two features: a trion of A^{-/+} (two electrons to a hole, resulting in a negatively charged exciton, or an electron to two holes, resulting in a positively charged exciton) and a neutral exciton of A⁰^{32,33}. With the emergence of the trion, we assumed that the exciton is coupled to either another electron or to a hole at the Fermi level. In the case of MoS₂, the A⁺ and A⁰ peaks correspond to the trions (1.8413 eV) and to the neutral excitons (1.8424 eV), respectively. The bare MoS₂ notwithstanding, the positive trion (in this case, an electron to two holes, resulting in positively charged excitons, A⁺) emission dominates the PL spectra because the bare MoS₂ on the SiO₂ substrate exhibits p-type characteristics, as previously mentioned³². As schematically shown in Fig. 3e, the NO₂ molecules on the surface of the MoS₂ act as electron acceptors (p-type dopants), whereas the NH₃ molecules act as electron donors (n-type dopants)²⁸. By adsorp-



tion of NO₂ gas molecules, a neutral exciton (A⁰) can be converted into a quasi-particle (A⁺) because of excessive holes generated by electron extraction from the MoS₂³⁴. As a result, the A⁺ peak in the PL spectrum increases in intensity and the A⁰ peak is suppressed (Fig. 3c). By contrast, when additional electrons are introduced from the NH₃ molecules, the intensity of the A⁺ peak in the PL spectrum is suppressed because of dissociation of the positive trions from the neutral excitons, resulting in increasing neutral excitons (A⁰)³⁵, as shown in Fig. 3d. The *in situ* PL characterisation clarifies the mechanisms of charge transfer between the MoS₂ and the gas molecules.

Discussion

The gas sensing characteristics of wafer-scale layered MoS₂ fabricated by CVD were determined. The gas sensor based on the CVD-fabricated MoS₂ exhibited excellent sensitivity and high selectivity. The *in situ* PL characterisation and theoretical studies elucidated the charge-transfer mechanism between the gas molecules and the MoS₂. In-depth PL studies verified that the electron depletion of the MoS₂ by NO₂ adsorption increased the intensity of the A⁺ peak and suppressed that of the A⁰ peak, whereas electron accumulation by NH₃ adsorption suppressed the intensity of the A⁺ peak and increased that of the A⁰ peak. Intensive PL characterisation clarified the charge transfer phenomena between the MoS₂ and the gas molecules. The results of this study will enable more extensive applications of gas sensing using two dimensional transition metal dichalcogenides nanomaterials.

Methods

CVD synthesis of the MoS₂ nanofilms. MoS₂ nanofilms were synthesised using chemical vapour deposition (CVD) (Teraleader Co., Ltd., South Korea) (Supplementary Fig. S1). First, C-plane sapphire substrates were prepared using a typical cleaning process (sonication in acetone, isopropyl alcohol, and deionised water for 10 min each). MoO₃ films (5 nm) were deposited onto the clean substrates using a thermal evaporator. The pre-deposited MoO₃ samples were placed at the centre of the furnace, and ~1 g of sulphur powder, which was used as a sulphur precursor, was subsequently loaded into a quartz boat in an independently temperature-controllable flange heater located near the inlet of the furnace. The furnace and the flange heater were heated to ~850 °C and ~180 °C, respectively, for 1 h. The process was maintained for an additional 1 h under flowing Ar/H₂ gas (volume ratio: Ar : H₂ = 85 : 15%) at a chamber pressure of 760 torr. The MoO₃ film was converted into a MoS₂ nanofilm via a two-step reaction (the reduction of MoO₃ by hydrogen gas, followed by sulphurisation of the reduced MoO₃ with sublimated sulphur gases). Finally, the furnace was rapidly cooled to room temperature by opening the chamber box after the furnace was turned off.

Fabrication of the MoS₂ sensing device. The SiO₂ (300 nm)/C-plane sapphire was cleaned using a typical cleaning process (sequential sonication in acetone, isopropyl alcohol, and deionised water for 10 min each). A MoO₃ film (~5 nm thick) was patterned with an active shadow mask using a thermal evaporator. The patterned MoO₃ film was converted into a MoS₂ nanofilm by CVD. Using a thermal evaporator and a shadow mask with an interdigitated electrode array structure consisting of two opposing comb-shaped electrodes with a width of 400 μm and a gap of 100 μm, we deposited an Ag film (100 nm; used for the electrodes) onto the MoS₂ nanofilm. Detailed fabrication schemes are provided in Supplementary Fig. S14.

Characterisation of CVD-synthesised MoS₂, gas sensing, DFT calculations, *in situ* PL tests. See the detailed methods in the Supplementary Information.

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Author contributions

B.C., M.G.H. and D.-H.K. designed and supervised the experiments. B.C., M.G.H. and A.R.K. synthesised the MoS₂. B.C., M.G.H., J.Y., A.R.K. and Y.-J.L. characterised the MoS₂. B.C. and A.R.K. fabricated the MoS₂-based devices. B.C., M.G.H., S.L., T.J.Y. and C.G.K. measured the MoS₂ sensing devices. M.G.H. and M.C. performed the first-principles DFT



calculations for the MoS₂ with gas molecules. B.C., M.G.H., M.C., S.-G.P., J.-D.K., C.S.K., M.S., Y.J., K.-S.N., B.H.L., H.C.K., P.M.A. and D.-H.K. analysed the data. B.C., M.G.H. and D.-H.K. co-wrote the paper. All authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

Additional information

Supplementary information accompanies this paper at <http://www.nature.com/scientificreports>

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