Light Generation and Harvesting in a van der Waals Heterostructure

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ABSTRACT Two-dimensional (2D) materials are a new type of materials under intense study because of their interesting physical properties and wide range of potential applications from nanoelectronics to sensing and photonics. Monolayers of semiconducting transition metal dichalcogenides MoS2 or WSe2 have been proposed as promising channel materials for field-effect transistors. Their high mechanical flexibility, stability, and quality coupled with potentially inexpensive production methods offer potential advantages compared to organic and crystalline bulk semiconductors. Due to quantum mechanical confinement, the band gap in monolayer MoS2 is direct in nature, leading to a strong interaction with light that can be exploited for building phototransistors and ultrasensitive photodetectors. Here, we report on the realization of light-emitting diodes based on vertical heterojunctions composed of n-type monolayer MoS2 and p-type silicon. Careful interface engineering allows us to realize diodes showing rectification and light emission from the entire surface of the heterojunction. Electroluminescence spectra show clear signs of direct excitons related to the optical transitions between the conduction and valence bands. Our p–n diodes can also operate as solar cells, with typical external quantum efficiency exceeding 4%. Our work opens up the way to more sophisticated optoelectronic devices such as lasers and heterostructure solar cells based on hybrids of 2D semiconductors and silicon.

KEYWORDS: two-dimensional materials · dichalcogenides · MoS2 · heterostructures · p–n junctions · nanophotonics · light-emitting diodes · solar cells

Molybdenum disulfide (MoS2) is a typical representative of layered transition metal dichalcogenide (TMD) semiconductors1 with electronic properties and a potential range of applications complementary to those of graphene. Bulk TMD crystals are stacks of layers held together via weak van der Waals interaction, allowing the extraction of single 2D atomic layers using the adhesive-type-based micromechanical cleavage technique2 originally developed for the preparation of graphene. Because it has a band gap, monolayer MoS2 can be used as the basic building block of room-temperature field-effect transistors3 with an on/off ratio exceeding 108 as well as logic circuits3 and amplifiers4 with high gain. Large-area MoS2 can also be grown using CVD-like growth techniques5,6 or deposited using liquid phase exfoliation.7–9

The electronic and optical properties of monolayer MoS2 and other semiconducting dichalcogenides are fundamentally different from those of their bulk counterparts. Because of the lack of inversion symmetry, charge carriers in monolayer MoS2 behave as massive Dirac fermions,10 while the conduction band of MoS2 shows strong spin–orbit-induced spin splitting11 and strong coupling of spin and valley degrees of freedom that can be detected using circularly polarized light12–14 and could be used in novel devices based on the valley Hall effect.15

A transition from an indirect band gap to a direct band gap occurs in the monolayer limit,16–19 manifesting itself in strong photoluminescence.17,18 The direct band gap in MoS2 can also be harnessed for the realization of vertical optoelectronic devices20 as well as phototransistors21 and photodetectors22 with high responsivity and low noise-equivalent power.22 Sundaram et al. recently demonstrated23 that monolayer MoS2 can also be used as a light emitter in an electroluminescent device with light
emission occurring due to hot carrier processes in a region near locally gated contacts. While this result showed that monolayer MoS2 could be used for the fabrication of light-emitting devices, the device geometry was limited by a relatively high power threshold for light emission and only a small portion of the device, restricted to the contact edge, was active in electroluminescence.

One way to overcome these factors limiting the exploitation of monolayer MoS2 for practical applications in optoelectronic devices is to build light-emitting diodes based on vertical p–n junctions, resulting in a natural increase of the junction area that can easily be scaled. Reports on vertical p–n junctions based on TMD materials have been published before,24 but these devices were not capable of electroluminescence and included thicker, indirect band gap TMD materials, which are less suitable for optoelectronic applications than their monolayer counterparts. We demonstrate here a vertical p–n junction in the form of a vertical heterostructure composed of n-type MoS2 and p-type silicon serving as the hole injection layer.25 We choose p-type silicon for this purpose because it is readily available and easy to pattern and handle. No reports on p-type monolayer MoS2 have been published so far.

Our device shows a decreased threshold power for light emission, while the entire heterojunction surface is active as a light emitter. The device is also capable of operating as a solar cell.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 1 shows the structure of our device. Fabrication starts with exfoliation of MoS2 (ref 2) onto an SiO2/Si substrate. MoS2 is then transferred26 onto a prepatterned target highly doped p-type Si substrate27 covered with SiO2 with 1 μm x 100 μm x 100 μm windows through which the underlying Si is exposed. The native oxide on the substrate is removed and the Si surface passivated with hydrogen using a second wet etch step.28

In order to avoid degradation of the passivation layer, monolayer MoS2 is immediately transferred across the edge of a window, exposing the Si surface (Figure 1a), and contacted on one side with a gold electrode. On the basis of AFM imaging we can see that MoS2 is transferred on top of H–Si in a conformal fashion, with no visible voids or wrinkles. Both the 2D MoS2 film and the H–Si substrate are terminated and have no dangling bonds at their surfaces, allowing the formation of a van der Waals heterostructure.29

Because the nature of the interface is similar to that in graphene/BN heterostructures, we expect that most of the interface in our device is clean and free of contaminants,30 allowing direct charge injection between Si and MoS2. For diode characterization and electroluminescence measurements, we use the measurement scheme shown in Figure 1b. On some of the devices we also deposit a 30 nm thick HfO2 or Al2O3 layer in order to encapsulate the device and increase the mobility in monolayer MoS2.31 This includes both devices presented here. More than 10 functioning devices were produced showing similar characteristics. We have observed that unencapsulated devices show a significant reduction of device currents and emitted light intensity when exposed to the ambient over the course of a week. The initial performance level can be restored by performing a vacuum anneal, indicating that the observed performance degradation could be due to adsorbed water and oxygen rather than an irreversible degradation of the interface. Encapsulated devices presented here show no significant change of performance over a period of at least one month.

Figure 2a shows the current vs bias voltage (I–V) characteristic of our MoS2/Si heterojunction diode with 30 nm HfO2 on top, exhibiting rectifying behavior with a current of 346 nA for a forward bias of 10 V and a junction area of 19 μm². This shows that classical diodes and all related optoelectronic devices could be prepared using a combination of an atomically thin 2D semiconductor and a 3D semiconductor, which should allow for a rapid fabrication and development of this type of device on industrial scales. We find that in the reverse bias regime a breakdown does not occur below –10 V.

In Figure 2b we outline the proposed band structure of our device, typical of type-II abrupt heterojunctions.32 The junction is characterized by conduction
$\Delta E_c = 200$ meV and valence ($\Delta E_V = 900$ meV) band offsets due to different electron affinities and band gaps of Si and MoS$_2$. Under the application of forward bias $V$ to the heterojunction, electrons injected from the n-MoS$_2$ side and holes injected from p-Si can radiatively recombine in the junction, resulting in light emission. Due to the direct band gap nature of MoS$_2$, we expect the emitted light to be characterized by radiative transitions in MoS$_2$, as radiative transitions in Si are expected to be much less efficient due to its indirect band gap. Due to valence and conduction band offsets, discontinuities could occur in the bands with valence and conduction band cusps that can impair charge carrier injection efficiency and limit the device current.

The electroluminescent emission intensity map for a forward bias of 10 V is shown in Figure 2c, superposed on the outline of the device. Most of the heterojunction surface is active, in contrast to MoS$_2$ electroluminescent devices based on hot carrier processes in a region near locally gated contacts or previously reported observations in a similar device geometry, where the light emission was localized only at the heterojunction edge. The presence of a large active area in our device can be attributed to hydrogen passivation of the Si substrate, resulting in the formation of a true heterojunction with an efficient charge transfer. Large-area emitters such as the one presented here are also more attractive from a practical point of view because the total emitted light intensity could be more easily scaled up by simply increasing the device area.

Figure 2d shows the integrated electroluminescence intensity as a function of device current and electrical power for the active area centered on the heterojunction surface. The results show light emission from the device for bias voltages exceeding 5.5 V, corresponding to an electroluminescence threshold current of $\sim 100$ nA, corresponding to a threshold power of 3.2 W/cm$^2$ for a device with an active area of 19 $\mu$m$^2$. The equivalent threshold power density is 3.2 W/cm$^2$, significantly lower than the previously reported threshold power of 15 kW/cm$^2$ for MoS$_2$ electroluminescent devices based on hot carrier injection. This shows that the defect-free vertical heterojunction geometry and Si/MoS$_2$ band alignment are favorable for reducing the emission threshold and increasing the surface area of the emitter.
of a threshold is probably due to the existence of cusps in the heterojunction band diagram under forward bias conditions (Figure 2b) and could probably be further decreased with careful band engineering of the interface.

The photoluminescence (PL) spectrum of monolayer MoS$_2$ flake supported by SiO$_2$ and is shown in Figure 3a. The spectrum shows two peaks at 685 nm (1.81 eV) and 624 nm (1.98 eV). They are associated with excitonic transitions between the bottom of the conduction band and the top of the valence band, split due to spin–orbit coupling.$^{17,18,11}$

In Figure 3b we show the electroluminescence spectrum, together with a fit to a multiple peak Lorentzian model. The main feature of the spectrum is a peak with a position of 694 nm (1.78 eV), which has a full width at half-maximum of 56 nm. The position of this peak matches well with the observed PL peak at 685 nm and is associated with the A exciton$^{12,17,18}$ in monolayer MoS$_2$. This shows that the relevant energy for the radiative recombination process in the MoS$_2$/Si heterojunction is the direct band gap in monolayer MoS$_2$. We observe an additional feature at 721 nm (1.72 eV), which can be related to the trion (negatively charged exciton) resonance in monolayer MoS$_2$.\textsuperscript{15}

In addition to the A exciton, because of the low emission threshold, the electrical power density at which our device operates provides enough energy through impact ionization to excite the higher energy B exciton, which we can distinguish as an additional feature in the electroluminescence spectrum, located at 644 nm (1.92 eV). The small red shift with respect to
the related PL peak at 624 nm could be attributed to differences in the dielectric environments: the EL peak is acquired in the heterojunction region where MoS₂ is in direct contact with silicon, while the PL peak is acquired in the region where MoS₂ is supported by SiO₂. The difference in these two dielectric environments could affect the exciton binding energy through screening of the Coulomb interaction between electrons and holes.

The photoluminescence in the heterojunction area is strongly reduced in comparison to portions of the MoS₂ layer that are supported by SiO₂. This indicates the presence of an internal, open circuit voltage that separates the electrons and holes in the junction during the short period between light absorption and emission. This is favorable for operating our van der Waals heterostructures as solar cells. In Figure 4a we show current as a function of voltage in a second device with an area of 8 μm² for different illumination powers, showing the increase of short-circuit current under illumination, indicating power generation. The electrical power, P, generated in the device defined as $P = I \times V$ is shown in Figure 4b, with a peak power of ~1 nW for a bias voltage $V = \sim 0.1$ V and illumination power $P_{inc} = 861$ nW. We characterize the spectral response of the solar cell by measuring its short-circuit current, $I_{sc}$ (obtained for a bias voltage of 0 V), as a function of illumination wavelength, $\lambda$, using a super-continuum light source. The external quantum efficiency, EQE, of the device, defined as $EQE = (I_{sc}/P_{inc}) \times (hc/\lambda e)$, where $h$ is Planck’s constant, $c$ the speed of light, and $e$ the elementary charge, is shown in Figure 4c. It is characterized by a sharp drop above 1000 nm, coinciding with the absorption edge of silicon, and a broadband response in the 500–1000 nm region, indicating that MoS₂ and Si form a true p–n heterojunction instead of a Schottky contact and operate in tandem. The complementary absorption profiles of these materials result in a device with spectral response that is extended with respect to the response of monolayer MoS₂. The maximum recorded EQE is 4.4%, which is a promising value for a device based on a two-dimensional monolayer and is more than an order of magnitude higher than in lateral p–n junctions based on the dichalcogenide WSe₂, which also shows a much narrower spectral response limited by its band gap. The EQE could be further enhanced by careful control over doping levels of MoS₂ and Si, which would reduce the series resistance of the device, by use of large-area grown or deposited materials and by incorporating additional 2D semiconducting layers such as WSe₂ with complementary absorption spectra. Because of the direct band gap nature of monolayer MoS₂ and other dichalcogenide materials, we expect such future device cells to surpass the efficiencies of previously demonstrated solar cells based on bulk TMD semiconductors.

CONCLUSION

To summarize, we show electroluminescent devices and solar cells based on heterojunctions composed of monolayer MoS₂ and p-type silicon. This choice of materials combines the advantages of the direct band gap and small thickness of 2D MoS₂ with the established silicon-based fabrication processes and could show the way to implementing 2D semiconductors as enabling materials in standard semiconductor fabrication lines. Furthermore, all the semiconducting materials used in our devices can be considered earth abundant and nontoxic. The entire junction area in our device participates in light emission with a low emission threshold power, allowing future large-area light emitters and lasers based on MoS₂. The low threshold power allows us to distinguish features in the emitted light spectra related to three different optical transitions, A and B excitons and the A – trion resonance, which could find valuable applications in the field of valleytronics. The heterojunction diode can also operate as a photovoltaic device, converting incoming light into electrical power with an external quantum efficiency of 4.4% and a broad spectral response, indicating that MoS₂ and silicon operate in tandem.

METHODS

Monolayer MoS₂ diodes were characterized at room temperature. For electrical characterization, we use a gold electrode deposited on MoS₂ and a large-area electrode in direct contact with the p-Si substrate. A second gold electrode is deposited on top of Si near the MoS₂ flake but not in direct electrical contact with it. We use this electrode to verify that charge carriers can be injected from the passivated Si substrate. The emitted radiation was collected and analyzed using a grating spectrometer (HORIBA Jobin Yvon) equipped with a liquid nitrogen cooled CCD camera (Triax 550). An Andor iXon Ultra camera was used to perform photon counting and map the light emission. Photoluminescence measurements were performed using a laser centered at 488 nm and a spectrometer (Princeton Instruments SP-2500i) with a liquid nitrogen cooled camera (PIXIS/Pyion/Spect-10-256).

Heterojunction band structures were based on modeling performed using the Adept 2.0 tool available at NanoHUB.org.
Conflict of Interest: The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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