Formation of moiré interlayer excitons in space and time

The advent of two-dimensional van der Waals materials has led to remarkable strategies to manipulate correlated material properties. In transition-metal dichalcogenides (TMDs), exceptional light–matter coupling and weak Coulomb screening of photoexcited electron–hole pairs allows the realization of novel spin, valley and excitonic properties of matter. Even more intriguing material properties can be accomplished in TMDs by stacking several monolayers into heterostructures and the twist angle between the TMDs induce a moiré superlattice, which makes it necessary to understand how precisely the interaction of the exciton and the moiré potential determines the material phases. A key question that remains unanswered is how these interlayer excitons are separated between the van der Waals-coupled TMDs. First, we elucidate that interlayer excitons are dominantly formed through femtosecond exciton–phonon scattering and subsequent charge transfer at the interlayer-hybridized Σ valleys. Second, we show that interlayer excitons exhibit a momentum fingerprint that is a direct hallmark of the superlattice moiré modification. Third, we reconstruct the wavefunction of the exciton and compare the size with the real-space moiré superlattice. Our work provides direct access to interlayer exciton formation dynamics in space and time and reveals opportunities to study correlated moiré and exciton physics for the future realization of exotic quantum phases of matter.

Moiré superlattices in atomically thin van der Waals heterostructures hold great promise for extended control of electronic and valleytronics. However, a substantial open challenge is the experimental identification of universal hallmarks that indicate signatures of the moiré superlattice imprinted onto the ILX.

Experimental quantitative insight into the ILX formation process and the influence of moiré modulation on the ILX is currently limited. All-optical spectroscopy techniques are sensitive only to transitions within the light cone and thus lack the momentum information that is necessary to gain access to the time-dependent energy–momentum fingerprints of the probed quasiparticles. Using multidimensional time- and angle-resolved photoelectron spectroscopy (trARPES) on a tungsten diselenide/molybdenum disulfide (WSe₂/MoS₂) heterostructure, we experimentally find that ILXs are dominantly formed through exciton–phonon scattering via intermediate dark excitonic states at the Σ valleys of the hexagonal Brillouin zones. These results are fully supported by a microscopic model including exciton–light and exciton–phonon interaction on a microscopic footing. Furthermore, we observe a complex momentum fingerprint of the ILX, and we show that this fingerprint is a direct hallmark signature of the moiré
superlattice modification. From this data, we then reconstruct the real-space wavefunction probability density of the electronic part of the exciton’s wavefunction, which we compare with the moiré superlattice size.

**Electronic band structure of WSe₂/MoS₂**

We focus our study on the model system WSe₂/MoS₂ with a twist angle of 9.8 ± 0.8° (Extended Data Figs. 1 and 4) and use our customized trARPES system that combines a momentum microscope 30 with a high-repetition-rate high-harmonic generation beamline (Fig. 1a and Methods) 31,32. The 100-μm² heterobilayer region can be identified in the real-space mode of the microscope. The WSe₂/MoS₂ and WSe₂ regions of interest are indicated by red and orange circles, respectively (10-μm diameter; Methods). d. The hexagonal Brillouin zones of WSe₂ (orange) and MoS₂ (dark red) are misaligned by a twist angle Θ. e. Bright A₀ and Aₙ₀ excitons of WSe₂ (orange) and MoS₂ (dark red) can be resonantly excited with 1.7-eV and 1.9-eV pump photons, respectively (VBW and VBMo, valence-band maxima; CBₜ₀ and CBₙ₀, conduction-band minima). The hole and the electron contribution of the ILX resides in the WSe₂ and MoS₂ layers, respectively.

**Femtosecond ILX formation dynamics**

We follow the build-up process of the ILX by resonantly exciting the optically bright A₀ exciton of WSe₂ with 1.7 eV, 50 ± 5 fs pulses and study the subsequent ILX formation via photoemission with 26.5 eV, 21 ± 5 fs extreme ultraviolet (XUV) probe pulses (see Extended Data Fig. 5 for spectral assignment of the valence and conduction bands and the WSe₂ and MoS₂ A excitons). Figure 2a shows the highest spectral weight for the electronic part of the bright A₀ exciton at a delay of around 0 fs and 1.7 eV above the valence-band maximum (orange dashed line; exciton density (5.4 ± 1.0) × 10¹² cm⁻²; compare with Extended Data Fig. 8b). On the few-hundred-femtosecond timescale, we observe the formation of a second peak at lower photoemission energy (red dashed line). We identify this peak as the photoemitted electronic contribution of the ILX. The long-lived photoemission signature is detected below the A₀ exciton resonance at about 1.1 eV above the valence-band maximum of WSe₂, in agreement with static photoluminescence experiments on a WSe₂/MoS₂ heterobilayer. For the unambiguous attribution of the photoemission yield to an interlayer effect, we repeated the same analysis with data obtained from monolayer WSe₂ (Fig. 2b and dashed orange circle in Fig. 1c). Here, no spectral weight is observed in the ILX’s energetic region, which clearly shows that the spectral weight in the heterobilayer measurement results from the charge transfer of the electron contribution of the exciton into the MoS₂ layer. We note that the identification of the ILX is in agreement with a recent trARPES study on 2°-twisted WSe₂/MoS₂ (ref. 13). Interestingly, in addition to the electron contribution to the ILX, ref. 13 also identified the hole contribution to the ILX in energy–momentum–resolved spectra. Such a signature is not found in our analysis (Fig. 1b), which is most likely related to the different twist angles and related exciton confinement effects.

The exact mechanism of the ILX formation and the corresponding ultrafast charge separation is still a major open question. It has been proposed that the ILX can be formed through interlayer tunnelling of its electron contribution at the K valleys or, alternatively, through the intermediate formation of dark intralayer excitons, where the electron contribution is first scattered to the Σ valleys and, subsequent, transferred to the neighbouring layer. In this context, the strength of the trARPES experiment is that the femtosecond evolution of optically dark Σ excitons can be explicitly monitored in Fig. 2c, we therefore investigate the delay-dependent transfer of spectral weight between the electronic parts of the bright WSe₂ A₀ exciton, the dark WSe₂ Σ₊₀.
We find that the most efficient exciton relaxation pathway is given by the cascade of optically excited exciton states $\Sigma_0 \rightarrow \Sigma_\nu \rightarrow \text{ILX}$ (inset in Fig. 2c; compare with Supplementary Information). The direct comparison of experiment (symbols) and theory (lines) in Fig. 2c confirms an excellent agreement. This shows, from both an experimental and a theoretical point of view, that phonon-assisted scattering through dark-layer mixed states is indeed the dominant pathway for the formation of the ILX in the $9.8 \pm 0.8^\circ$-twisted WSe$_2$/MoS$_2$ heterostructure.

The ILX moiré superlattice hallmark

Although trARPES with XUV pulses is an ideal approach to study the ILX formation process, the combination with multidimensional momentum microscopy allows the identification of momentum-space signatures that are caused by the real-space moiré superlattice. In this manner, Fig. 3a–c shows the momentum structure of the $\Sigma_\nu$ exciton, the $\Sigma_0$ exciton and the ILX, respectively (additional data in Extended Data Fig. 6). Although the momentum fingerprints of the $\Sigma_\nu$ exciton and the $\Sigma_0$ exciton appear as expected\cite{further_comparisons}, the ILX momentum structure is clearly more complex. Without consideration of the moiré superlattice, for the ILX, one would expect to detect photoemission yield at the in-plane momentum of the electron contribution to the quasiparticle, that is, at the $K_\nu$ (or $K_\nu'$) valleys of MoS$_2$ (corners of the dotted dark red hexagon in Fig. 3c). However, the measured momentum fingerprint shows a strikingly richer structure. We observe a complex momentum structure that is dominated by three peaks that are centred around the $K_\nu$ (or $K_\nu'$) valleys of MoS$_2$ (orange hexagon in Fig. 3c). Apparently, the ILX momentum fingerprint exhibits additional features that are not observed for any other spectral feature in our data: so far, all other occupied bands and excitonic states were unambiguously assignable to the periodicity of either the WSe$_2$ top layer or the MoS$_2$ bottom layer.

The most interesting question now is whether the observed ILX momentum structure may be identified as a hallmark of the moiré superlattice that is created by the $9.8 \pm 0.8^\circ$-twisted Brillouin zones of WSe$_2$ and MoS$_2$. To answer this question, we construct the momentum-space equivalent of the real-space moiré periodicity, which is the mini Brillouin zone (mBZ) that is shown on top of the momentum-resolved photoemission data of the ILX in Fig. 3c (red hexagon). Within the mBZ, we can now unambiguously identify that the three-peak structure is indeed a fingerprint of the moiré superlattice, as the spectral features clearly coincide with the high-symmetry $\kappa$ valleys of the mBZ.

Having identified the correlation between the ILX momentum fingerprint and the moiré superlattice, we aim to model the distinct photoemission intensity distribution of the ILX. For this purpose, we make use of previous studies on interlayer interaction in incommensurate atomic layers\cite{interlayer_interaction}. In particular, we follow the notation in ref. \cite{interlayer_interaction}, where the interlayer coupling in reciprocal space is expressed in terms of a generalized umklapp process (Fig. 3d; details in Methods).

A straightforward geometrical construction following this work yields the intensity distribution shown in Fig. 3d: the highest photoemission yield is expected for momenta marked by circles, which correspond to the $\kappa$ points of the mBZ. Weaker photoemission yield is expected in areas marked by squares, which indeed are partially and faintly visible in the data. Finally, negligible signal is expected in momentum areas marked by triangles, consistent with our experimental data.

However, despite the good agreement of the data with this generalized umklapp process, the interpretation of the momentum structure being a result of interlayer interaction is not obvious, because interlayer coupling at the K valleys was mostly regarded as negligibly small owing to the in-plane orbital character in this valley\cite{orbital_character}. A regular final-state scattering can be excluded, as only the ILX signal is exhibiting these replicas. The threefold signal should also not be a result of an exciton wavefunction that is confined in a single moiré potential well, as a modification of the

**Fig. 2 | Ultrafast formation dynamics of ILXs.** a,b, Delay-dependent evolution of the momentum-integrated energy-distribution curves for WSe$_2$/MoS$_2$ (a) and WSe$_2$ (b). In the monolayer, the signal decays on the picosecond timescale without a notable change in binding energy (dashed orange and grey lines). In the heterobilayer, the ILX formation is evident by the shift of spectral weight to smaller binding energies on the sub-100-fs timescale (dashed red line). The black line profiles are exemplary energy-distribution curves taken at $-5$ fs and $585$ fs. c, The ILX formation is extracted through the delay-dependent photoemission yield of the ILX (red), the bright $\Sigma_\nu$ excitons (orange) and the dark $\Sigma_0$ excitons (grey; details on data analysis in Extended Data Figs. 6 and 7). The data points are experimental data and solid lines are calculated within a fully microscopic model. The inset shows the dominant charge-transfer-channel fingerprint and the moiré superlattice, we aim to model the distinct photoemission intensity distribution of the ILX.
Extended zone scheme (black arrows). 

Fig. 3 | Momentum fingerprints of the moiré interlayer excitons. 

a–c, Momentum fingerprints of the bright $A_W$ exciton (a), the dark $\Sigma_W$ exciton (b) and the ILX (c). Photoemission yield of the $A_W$ exciton, the $\Sigma_W$ exciton, and the ILX are detected at the $K_\text{Mo}$ valleys (orange hexagon), the $\Sigma_W$ valleys (black hexagon) and the $\kappa$ valleys of the mBZ (red hexagon), respectively. The bottom row shows zoom-ins from the circled areas in the top row. d, The intensity distribution of the momentum fingerprint of the ILX can be constructed using a generalized umklapp process 39. The red filled symbols label $K_\text{Mo}$ valleys of the first (circles) and higher-order (squares and triangles) Brillouin zones. Open circles, squares and triangles represent a hierarchy of expected spectral weight from high to low, resulting from generalized umklapp processes with WSe$_2$ reciprocal lattice vectors $G_\text{m}$ (black arrows).

In consequence, for intralayer $A_W$ and $\Sigma_W$ excitons, where electron and hole reside in WSe$_2$, we do not expect and also do not observe the moiré superlattice hallmark in the momentum-resolved photoemission intensity (Fig. 3a,b and Extended Data Fig. 4). To unambiguously assign the microscopic origin of the moiré hallmark in the excitonic momentum fingerprint, however, further theory on photoemission from excitonic quasiparticles is necessary. Nevertheless, our analysis shows that the complex momentum structure of the ILX is a hallmark fingerprint of moiré superlattice modification that has not been observed so far and is clearly unique for the ILXs in a twisted heterostructure.

Fig. 4 | Real-space exciton wavefunction reconstruction and spatial relation to the moiré superlattice. a,b, Real-space reconstructions of the wavefunction of the electron contribution to the ILX (a) and the WSe$_2$-$A_W$ exciton (b). In a, the overlay with small (atomic lattices of the twisted WSe$_2$ and MoS$_2$ layers) and large (moiré lattice) hexagons illustrates the extension of the electron contribution to the ILX wavefunction over multiple moiré unit cells (black arrows, moiré lattice vectors). In b, only the lattice periodicity of WSe$_2$ is overlain on the data. The insets show the masks used to select a single valley for the reconstruction. c, Line profiles through the probability density. The inset schematically shows how the electronic contribution to the ILX wavefunction (red) is spread over multiple moiré cells (grey).
ILX real-space wavefunction analysis

Finally, we determine the electron contribution to the real-space wavefunction of intra- and interlayer excitons. We follow the framework of photoemission orbital tomography\(^{40}\) and recent developments that have been carried out for TMD excitons\(^{13,28,34}\). We use the relation \(I(k_x, k_y) = |FT(\Psi(x, y))|^2\) that connects the real-space wavefunction \(\Psi(x, y)\) with the momentum-resolved photoemission intensity \(I(k_x, k_y)\) within the plane-wave approximation\(^{33,60}\) (Methods). The multidimensional data collection scheme now facilitates the direct comparison of the real-space extension \(r_{\text{ext}}\) of the electronic wavefunction contribution of the excitons with the spatial extension of the moiré unit cell (Fig. 4). We extract the respective Bohr radii as \(r_{\text{ILX}} = 1.6 \pm 0.2\) nm and \(r_{\text{ILX}}^{\text{WSe_2}} = 1.1 \pm 0.1\) nm (root mean square), which is in agreement with a recent analysis\(^{11}\) (Methods). We can draw two conclusions. The extension of the electronic contribution to the ILX wavefunction is larger than the moiré period of the \(9.8 \pm 0.8^\circ\)-twisted heterostructure \((|k_{\text{m}}| = 1.84 \pm 0.15\) nm\), that is, the ILX can propagate laterally through the heterostructure and is not confined to a single moiré potential well. Second, the analysis shows that the ILX extension is significantly broader than that of the WSe\(_2\)-\(A_\text{W}\) exciton. The charge separation across the two TMD layers leads to a weaker attractive interaction between the electron and the hole contribution to the exciton, and the wavefunction exhibits a larger spread in real space.

Online content

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exploiting this capability of the time-of-flight momentum microscope, selected and projected onto the detector (Extended Data Fig. 2). By ing from the WSe2 monolayer or the WSe2/MoS2 heterobilayer can be real-space plane of the microscope, either photoelectrons originat-

(Extended Data Fig. 1e), the monolayer WSe2 and MoS2 regions as well Data Fig. 1f). In direct comparison with an optical microscope image map the spatial structure of the sample system (Fig. 1c and Extended detector (Fig. 1a). The real-space mode of the microscope is used to is formed and either image can be projected onto the photoelectron lens system, a real- and a reciprocal-space image of the photoelectrons

of approximately 10 μm, the key advantage of the set-up lies in the sion horizon30. T o study high-quality TMD heterostructures with a diam-

and the kinetic energy of the photoelectrons within the full photoemis-

sion and momentum-resolved photoelectron distribution of the WSe 2 and momentum-resolved photoelectron distributions for the regions of interest highlighted by circles in Fig. 1c. The energy resolution of the momentum microscope combined with the spectral width of the 26.5-eV XUV light pulses lead to an overall Gaussian broadening of the measured photoelectron signal with a full-width at half-maximum of 200 ± 30 meV (ref. 31). The achievable momentum resolution of the instrument is <0.01 Å−1 (ref. 46). From a fit of the cut-off of the photoemission horizon, we can verify that the momentum resolution for the given experimental settings in the paper is better than 0.04 ± 0.01 Å−1. The time resolution is 54 ± 7 fs for infrared pump pulses of 50 ± 5 fs and XUV probe pulses of 21 ± 5 fs as used in this experiment31. This value is confirmed with a fit to the replica signal caused by the laser-assisted photoelectric effect (LAPE)34,48 (see, for example, Fig. 3a or Extended Data Fig. 6c at 0-fs delay), which yields an infrared-pump–XUV-probe cross-correlation of 49 ± 1 fs.

The laser set-up is based on a 300-W fibre laser system (Active Fiber Systems) that operates at a repetition rate of 500 kHz and drives a high-harmonic generation beamline and a high-power optical para-

metric amplifier (OPA, Orpheus-F/HP from Light Conversion). To first induce and subsequently probe excitonic dynamics occurring in the TMD heterostructure (Fig. 2), we use a pump–probe scheme. First, bright WSe2 A excitons are excited with light pulses generated with the OPA (1.7 eV, 50 ± 5 fs measured per autocorrelation). Subsequently, the femto- to picosecond evolution of the intra- and interlayer exci-

tonic dynamics is probed with an XUV light pulse (26.5 eV, p-polarized, 21 ± 5 fs (ref. 31)), which photoemits the electron contribution of the quasiparticle into the detector. Additional experiments are performed with 1.9-eV and 2.4-eV pump light, which is generated through the OPA and frequency doubling of the compressed laser output, respectively. The data in Figs. 1b and 2, and Extended Data Figs. 4c, d, 5, 7, 8a, b and 9 are obtained with an s-polarized pump light. The data in Figs. 3 and 4, and Extended Data Figs. 4a, b and 6 are obtained with a p-polarized pump light. For the p-polarized pump, one creates band replicas owing to the LAPE, which then can be used to determine pump–probe overlap (time zero) and the time resolution34,48. For the s-polarized pump, the time-resolved signal is free of such LAPE replicas, which is helpful for the analysis of spectral features and exciton dynamics.

**Sample preparation for photoemission spectroscopy**

The Si wafer with the heterostructure is clamped onto a sample holder under ambient conditions and transferred into ultrahigh vacuum. In an ultrahigh-vacuum preparation chamber (background pressure <5 × 10−9 mbar), the sample is annealed for 2 h at a temperature of approximately 670 K; such sample treatment has shown successful ARPES results on similar sample systems, for example, ref. 41. Subse-

quently, the sample is transferred into the momentum microscope. All experiments have been performed at room temperature at a back-

ground pressure of approximately 1 × 10−10 mbar.

**Femtosecond momentum microscopy**

The experimental set-up is detailed and benchmarked in ref. 31. It con-

sists of two major parts, namely, a time-of-flight momentum micro-

scope30 (ToF Momentum Microscope, Surface Concept), shown schematically in Fig. 1a, and a high-power femtosecond laser system (Active Fiber Systems). In the following, we briefly describe the experimen-

tal set-up.

The strength of the time-of-flight momentum microscope is the simul-

taneous measurement of the two-dimensional in-plane momenta and the kinetic energy of the photoelectrons within the full photoemis-

sion horizon30. To study high-quality TMD heterostructures with a diam-

eter of approximately 10 μm, the key advantage of the set-up lies in the microscopy-type photoelectron detection scheme. In the electrostatic lens system, a real- and a reciprocal-space image of the photoelectrons is formed and either image can be projected onto the photoelectron detector (Fig. 1a). The real-space mode of the microscope is used to map the spatial structure of the sample system (Fig. 1c and Extended Data Fig. 1f). In direct comparison with an optical microscope image (Extended Data Fig. 1e), the monolayer WSe2 and MoS2 regions as well as the WSe2/MoS2 heterobilayer region can be identified through the differing photoemission contrast. By placing an aperture into the real-space plane of the microscope, either photoelectrons originat-

ing from the WSe2 monolayer or the WSe2/MoS2 heterobilayer can be selected and projected onto the detector (Extended Data Fig. 2). By exploiting this capability of the time-of-flight momentum microscope, we collect in-plane momentum- and energy-resolved photoelectron

**Methods**

**Heterostructure fabrication**

The WSe2/MoS2/hexagonal boron nitride (hBN) heterostructures were assembled using mechanical exfoliation and dry transfer, as sum-

marized in Extended Data Fig. 1a–d. First, a p+ silicon (Si) substrate (1–10 10 cm) with polished native oxide was plasma cleaned with oxygen gas (100 W, 10 standard cubic centimeters per minute, 10 min). hBN was immediately mechanically exfoliated on the substrate using standard office tape. Using optical contrast, a hBN flake with thickness between 20 nm and 30 nm was identified. In parallel, MoS2 and WSe2 (HQ graphene) were mechanically exfoliated using blue tape (Ultron Systems 1008R-6.0) on a polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) sheet (Gel-Pak PF 20/17-X4). Similar to hBN exfoliation, optical contrast was used to identify monolayer MoS2 and WSe2. Unlike the standard dry-transfer assembly, the assembly of the heterostructure was started by assem-

bling the WSe2/MoS2 heterostructure on PDMS first. The two flakes were aligned visually and the MoS2 flake was dry transferred on top of the WSe2 flake on PDMS. Then the WSe2/MoS2 heterostructure was dry transferred on top of the hBN. During the last transfer, the multilayer part of the WSe2 flake was intentionally placed in direct contact with the Si substrate to reduce sample charging (compare with Extended Data Fig. 1e,f). It is worth noting that although the exfoliation part was done in ambient conditions, the heterostructure assembly was done in a controlled argon environment in a glovebox with oxygen and water <0.1 ppm. An optical microscope image of the van der Waals stack is shown in Extended Data Fig. 1e.

**Real-space imaging and static band mapping of WSe2/MoS2/hBN**

After preparation of the van der Waals stack for the momentum micro-

scope imaging, we first perform real-space imaging of the sample with an ultraviolet diode delivering 4.96-eV photons. In Extended Data Fig. 1e,f, the photoemission real-space map is compared with an optical microscope image. In both images, the WSe2/MoS2/hBN hetero-

structure, the doped Si substrate, the bulk hBN, the WSe2 and MoS2 monolayers, and the bulk WSe2 can be distinguished.

Having identified the regions of interest, we place an aperture into the real-space image of the microscope to selectively probe the energy- and momentum-resolved photoelectron distribution of the WSe2 monolayer and the WSe2/MoS2 heterobilayer (compare with Fig. 1a). Using an aperture with a diameter of 100 μm and a lens setting with a magnification of 10, we are sensitive to photoelectrons originating from an effective area with diameter of 10 μm on the heterostructure (circles in Fig. 1c).

Static band mapping of the occupied electronic band structure is shown in Extended Data Fig. 2. The high quality of the van der Waals stack is evident from the well resolved features in the band structure and, in particular, by the visible spin-splitting of the WSe2 valence bands at the Kω and K′ω valleys45 (marked with 1 and 2 in Extended Data Fig. 2). In addition, only in the heterobilayer region, we resolve clear signatures of the valence-band maximum of MoS2 at −1.1 eV with respect to the valence-band maximum (Ehval) of WSe2 (marked with 3 in Extended Data Fig. 2b). Owing to interlayer interaction between the WSe2 and MoS2 layers, we resolve the expected hybridized valence bands at the ΓW and Kω valleys (marked with 4 and 5 in Extended Data Fig. 2b)30. The observation of these hybridized bands is a clear signature that the blisters found in
the real-space image in Extended Data Fig. 1e,f do not dominate the photoemission yield from the heterobilayer. In contrast, in the monolayer WSe 2 region, the valence band at the Γ valleys is a single band (Extended Data Fig. 2a). Furthermore, the valence-band maximum is localized at the K w (K′ w ) valley, as expected for the monolayer limit of WSe 2, where it becomes a direct bandgap semiconductor. In addition, we observe a clear signature of the valence band of hBN that we label with 6 in Extended Data Fig. 2a. Within our energy and momentum resolution, we do not resolve moiré induced mini-band replicas of the valence bands, such as discussed in refs. 14,15.

**Inhomogeneous broadening from sample**

In our experiment, the energy resolution is mainly limited by the bandwidth of the short-pulse XUV light source. Convolved with the instrument resolution, we achieve a total energy resolution on the order of 200 ± 30 meV (ref. 31). For reference, Extended Data Fig. 3 shows an exemplary energy-distribution curve obtained in a momentum region of ±0.1 Å -1 centred at the K w valley. As in the case of ref. 28, we extract a full-width at half-maximum of 280 ± 10 meV. However, our spectrum is broadened by 200 meV by the light source and the instrument, so that the full-width at half-maximum peak width of the valence-band maximum is on the order of 200 meV. This broadening is attributed to, for example, inhomogeneity of the sample and local field effects.

**Twist-angle determination of the WSe 2 /MoS 2 heterostack**

In trARPES experiments, it is known that the electron contribution of the A excitons are identified through spectral weight at the corresponding K valleys of the TMD structure. Consequently, the photoemission signature of the A w and A mo excitons can directly be used to determine the twist angle of a heterostructure. Here, for the unambiguous identification of the A w and A mo excitons in the K w and K mo valleys, we carry out resonant excitation using 1.7-eV and 1.9-eV pump light, respectively.

In Extended Data Fig. 4, we show momentum maps of the resonantly pumped WSe 2 , A w exciton (Extended Data Fig. 4a), the resonantly pumped MoS 2 , A mo exciton (Extended Data Fig. 4c), and the corresponding signature of the ILX after a delay of 1 ps (Extended Data Fig. 4b,d). From the misalignment of the Γ w and Γ mo directions (orange and dark red dashed lines), we calculate the momentum mismatch between the K w and the K mo valleys, and, accordingly, determine the twist angle to Θ = 9.8 ± 0.8°. The direct comparison with the 1-ps data in Extended Data Fig. 4b,d then facilitates the correlation of the ILX momentum signature to the in-plane momenta of the K w and the K mo valleys.

**Spectral assignments of conduction and valence bands and the A w mo excitons**

We study the ultrafast exciton dynamics of the heterobilayer after resonant excitation of the A w exciton of WSe 2 with 1.7-eV pump pulses. To unambiguously identify the photoemission yield from the heterobilayer, in contrast to the monolayer WSe 2 region, the valence band at the Γ valley is a single band (Extended Data Fig. 2a). Furthermore, the valence-band maximum is localized at the K w (K′ w ) valley, as expected for the monolayer limit of WSe 2, where it becomes a direct bandgap semiconductor. In addition, we observe a clear signature of the valence band of hBN that we label with 6 in Extended Data Fig. 2a. Within our energy and momentum resolution, we do not resolve moiré induced mini-band replicas of the valence bands, such as discussed in refs. 14,15.

As the delay is increased to 300 fs, the spectral yield at the K w valley shifts to smaller energies and the parabolic signature transfers to a more spherical shape. We attribute the photoemission yield from the parabolic dispersion at 0 fs to photoelectrons originating from both higher-quantum-number excitons and charge carriers from the conduction band of WSe 2, as has been described previously and is in full agreement with ref. 28. Subsequently, the delay-dependent shift of the spectral weight to smaller energies can be understood by the formation of excitons (compare with the energy-distribution curves in Extended Data Fig. 5b). In Extended Data Fig. 5c, we compare the above-bandgap excitation results with energy-distribution curves obtained from the 1.7-eV pump-light experiment. Under these resonant excitation conditions, already at 0-fs pump–probe delay the exciton signal is observed at E − E VBM = 1.7 eV. Importantly, the signal does not decrease in energy with proceeding delay and does not show a positive parabolic dispersion (compare with Fig. 1b and Extended Data Fig. 6).

By repeating the same analysis as described above for a monolayer MoS 2 sample, we can discriminate the A w exciton from charge carriers in the conduction-band minimum (Extended Data Fig. 5d–f). It is noted that we do not resolve the pump–probe delay-dependent energy shift for the case of MoS 2, but the parabolic momentum dispersion at 0 fs can again be distinguished from the more spherical shape at 250 fs.

**Additional time-resolved momentum microscopy data of the twisted WSe 2 /MoS 2 heterostructure**

Extended Data Fig. 6 summarizes, in addition to Fig. 3, E(k) and k − k p momentum maps of the formation dynamics of the ILX.

**Filtering excitonic photoemission signatures in energy and momentum space**

The time-of-flight momentum microscope collects in-plane momentum and energy-resolved data cubes for each pump–probe delay. To monitor the pump–probe delay-dependent exciton dynamics, the excitonic photoemission signatures need to be filtered on these coordinates to avoid mixing of different photoemission signals. Therefore, in Extended Data Fig. 7a,b, we show two momentum maps that are integrated for all measured pump–probe delays in an energy window between E − E VBM = 1.5–2.4 eV and E − E VBM = 0.8–1.3 eV, respectively. First, we recognize that the signal of the E w exciton (black circle) can be easily separated from the A w exciton (orange) and the ILX (red) in momentum space. Still, we choose the lower bound of the integration window for the E w exciton signal well above the energy of the ILX on the energy axis to determine the pump–probe delay-dependent spectral weight plotted in Fig. 2c (integration window E − E VBM = 1.5–2.4 eV). The separation of the spectral weight of the A w exciton and the ILX needs to be further analysed and filtered on the energy axis as, in momentum space, the regions of interest are close to each other. From the evolution of the energy-distribution curves of the A w exciton-momentum-filtered areas in Extended Data Fig. 7c (upper panel), it is obvious that the A w photoemission signal strongly dominates over the ILX signal for E − E VBM > 1.5 eV. Consequently, in Fig. 2c, we plot the A w exciton signal as obtained within the momentum region indicated by the orange circles in Extended Data Fig. 7a and for E − E VBM = 1.5–2.4 eV (orange boxed energy region in Extended Data Fig. 7c, upper panel). For the ILX signal, the correct identification of the energy-integration window is more complex and therefore further analysed based on the evolution of the energy-distribution curves of the ILX-momentum-filtered areas in Extended Data Fig. 7c (middle panel). To separate the signal of the ILX, which is centred at E − E VBM = 1.1 eV, from the photoemission yield at higher energies, we systematically vary the energy window that is used to integrate the ILX signal (blueish boxes in Extended Data Fig. 7c, middle panel). The resulting spectral weight versus pump–probe delay plots are shown in the lower panel of Extended Data Fig. 7c. For small-energy-integration boxes (dark blue and blue), we find an identical evolution of the spectral weight that we attribute to the ILXs. However, as the box becomes too large (light blue), at about 50 fs, spurious signal from higher energies leads to deviations. Consequently, we use the appearance of this additional photoemission signal at about 50 fs to determine the upper bound of the maximum energy-integration window for the ILXs to E − E VBM ≤ 1.3 eV. This sets the boundaries for the energy-integration box of the ILXs to E − E VBM = 0.8–1.3 eV, which is plotted in Fig. 2c.
Correction of space-charge and photovoltage effects

In trARPES experiments, even in the sub-1 mJ cm\(^{-2}\) fluence regime, one often observes space-charge and/or photovoltage effects. These effects are induced by Coulomb interaction of the photoelectrons or the remaining holes, which were excited by the pump and the probe laser pulses\(^{46-48}\). These effects are well known in the trARPES community and, in a moderate regime, cause only a rigid spectral shift of all probe photoelectrons, that is, a shift of the entire photoelectron spectrum. In this regime, one automatically monitors space-charge and photovoltage-induced shifts when collecting the trARPES data and one correspondingly corrects for these ‘rigid’ shifts before analysing the data. For all data presented in our paper, we observe such rigid shifts of the full ARPES spectrum, which is on the order of several millielectronvolts up to a maximum of about 70 meV (Extended Data Fig. 8a). The pump–probe-delay-dependent energy difference \(\Delta E\) is calculated by fitting a selected peak in the full momentum-integrated energy-distribution curves and subtracting its energy position from the reference measurement data shown in the inset. Although this energy difference \(\Delta E\) is small compared with our energy resolution and barely influences the analysis procedure, we routinely correct our data for these effects before carrying out the data analysis. This means that all data shown in this paper are corrected for this rigid energy offset. It is noted that for the analysis of the ILX momentum fingerprint, the energy shift is irrelevant, because the data are analysed on the picosecond timescale.

Determination of the exciton density

It has been shown in TMDs that for optical pumping with sufficiently high fluence, a Mott transition from excitonic states to free carriers can be induced when the excited exciton density is in the range of \(10^{12}–10^{14}\) cm\(^{-2}\) (refs. 49–53). This transition leads to giant bandgap renormalizations of up to 500 meV (ref. 49) and thus might influence our interpretation of the exciton generation and the subsequent dynamics. In the following, we describe the calculation of the exciton density in our experiment, and subsequently show pump–probe-delay-dependent energy-distribution curves of the valence-band maxima of WSe\(_2\) to directly exclude the contribution of band renormalizations to our experimental analysis.

Using the real-space mode of the microscope, we can extract the \(1/e\) radius of the pump beam on the sample to \(151 \pm 1\) μm. For the data shown in Fig. 2c, the heterostructure was irradiated with \(s\) polarized 1.7-eV photons with a peak fluence of 280 ± 20 μJ cm\(^{-2}\). By following the analysis of ref. 50, we calculate the absorbed fluence to be \(1.5 \pm 0.2\) μJ cm\(^{-2}\), which results in an exciton density of \((5.4 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{12}\) cm\(^{-2}\). As this exciton density is in the \(10^{12}–10^{13}\) cm\(^{-2}\) threshold regime\(^{49-53}\), it is important to provide experimental evidence that our experiment probes excitons and not quasi-free carriers in the conduction bands.

We therefore analyse our data for the possible generation of quasi-free carriers and the corresponding renormalization of the band structure. In Extended Data Fig. 8b, we monitor the position of the WSe\(_2\) valence-band maximum at the \(K_w\) valley compared with the position at \(−2\) ps as a function of delay, which, in the case of generation of quasi-free carriers, is expected to strongly upshift in energy (compare with ref. 49). In ref. 51, using trARPES, for example, the energetic position of the valence-band maximum shifts up by 360 meV and then relaxes back to its unperturbed value on the picosecond timescale. Importantly, within the scattering of our data (about ±50 meV in Extended Data Fig. 8b), the photoemission energy of the valence-band maximum shifts up by 360 meV and one correspondingly corrects for these ‘rigid’ shifts before analysing the data. For all data presented in our paper, we observe such rigid shifts of the full ARPES spectrum, which is on the order of several millielectronvolts up to a maximum of about 70 meV (Extended Data Fig. 8a). The pump–probe-delay-dependent energy difference \(\Delta E\) is calculated by fitting a selected peak in the full momentum-integrated energy-distribution curves and subtracting its energy position from the reference measurement data shown in the inset. Although this energy difference \(\Delta E\) is small compared with our energy resolution and barely influences the analysis procedure, we routinely correct our data for these effects before carrying out the data analysis. This means that all data shown in this paper are corrected for this rigid energy offset. It is noted that for the analysis of the ILX momentum fingerprint, the energy shift is irrelevant, because the data are analysed on the picosecond timescale.

Quantitative analysis of charge-transfer times to the \(\Sigma_w\) excitons and the ILX

The intermediate steps of the exciton dynamics occurring in the WSe\(_2\)/MoS\(_2\) heterostructure are summarized in the excitation diagram shown in the inset of Fig. 2c. \(\Sigma_w\) excitons are resonantly excited with 1.7-eV pump photons, exciton–phonon scattering leads to the formation of \(\Sigma_w\) excitons and, subsequently, ILXs are formed through interlayer charge transfer at the \(\Sigma\) valleys. Typically, one would use a rate-equation model to quantify the respective charge-transfer times. However, this approach is not feasible here, as it does not accurately describe the coherent polarization induced when the pump pulse is present on the sample\(^{27}\). In addition, because of photoemission cross-section effects, we cannot unambiguously correlate the measured photoemission signal to the exciton occupation density, as would be necessary to extract meaningful transfer rates from a rate-equation model. Therefore, we assume the simplest model for a quantitative analysis. The states are filled by a Gaussian excitation or transfer rate. This rise in spectral weight follows an error function. In Extended Data Fig. 9a, we fit the pump–probe-delay-dependent spectral weight with error functions \(f_{\text{max}} = 0.5 \times \left(\text{errf}(t-t_0)/\sigma + 1\right)\), which give us access to the delayed onset \(t_{w} \) and \(\tau_{\text{rel}}\) of the photoemission yield from the \(\Sigma_w\) exciton and the ILX, respectively, compared with the build-up of the \(\Sigma_w\) exciton \(\tau_{\text{rel}}\). We calculate delayed onset times of \(t_{w} = 33 \pm 6\) fs and \(\tau_{\text{rel}} = 54 \pm 7\) fs. These delayed onsets are in overall agreement with earlier reports on charge transfer on the WSe\(_2\)/MoS\(_2\) system\(^{14,15}\); however, the momentum-resolved data collection scheme now facilitates the separate extraction of this dynamics for the intermediate \(\Sigma_w\) excitons.

Long-term picosecond relaxation dynamics of the observed excitons

Extended Data Fig. 9b shows the picosecond exciton relaxation dynamics of the WSe\(_2\)/MoS\(_2\) heterostructure. In accordance with the snapshots in Extended Data Fig. 6, at 10-ps pump–probe delay, photoemission yield from the \(\Sigma_w\) exciton \(\Sigma_w\) exciton and the \(\Sigma_w\) exciton is at the detection limit of the experiment. In contrast, for the ILX, notable photoemission yield is still present at this time delay and remains beyond delays of 50 ps, which is the largest delay measured in our experiment. In Extended Data Fig. 9b, we quantify this observation and fit the relaxation dynamics of the excitons with single-exponential decays, for which we extract lifetimes of 3.1 ± 0.3 ps, 3.0 ± 0.4 ps and 33.2 ± 4.7 ps for the \(\Sigma_w\) exciton, the \(\Sigma_w\) exciton and the ILX, respectively. We find that the ILX lifetime is an order of magnitude larger than the lifetimes of the intralayer excitons, in agreement with earlier reports\(^{35}\). In addition, we note that the lifetimes of the intralayer excitons in the heterostructure are considerably quenched compared with the lifetime of the intralayer excitons in the WSe\(_2\) monolayer (Fig. 2a,b), which is caused by the additional decay channel into the ILX.

Construction of the ILX momentum fingerprint in the extended zone scheme

We follow the interlayer interaction model in ref. 39 to describe the intensity distribution of the ILX momentum fingerprint in momentum space. In Fig. 3d, we plot the measured ILX momentum distribution at 10-ps pump–probe delay together with the twisted extended zone schemes of WSe\(_2\) (orange hexagons) and MoS\(_2\) (dotted dark red hexagons). The \(K_w\) valleys, at which the electron contribution to the ILX is expected without contribution of the moiré superlattice, are labelled with red filled symbols. The increasing momentum distance of the \(K_w\) valleys in higher-order Brillouin zones with respect to the \(\Gamma\) valley of the centre Brillouin zone is indicated by the changing red symbols, that is, the...
transition from circles to squares and to triangles. By umklapp scattering with the reciprocal lattice vector \( \mathbf{G}_c \) of WSe\(_2\) (black arrows), that is, the periodicity of the layer where the hole contribution to the ILX is localized, the momenta indicated with open symbols can be reached. As detailed in refs. 39,56, the efficiency of umklapp scattering decreases with increasing distance from the \( \Gamma \) valley of the centre Brillouin zone. Consequently, we observe a strong hierarchy of photoemission signal from the ILX. The strongest photoemission signal is found and expected at the momenta labelled with squares and triangles, respectively.

For heterostructures with different twist angles, the ILX momentum structure is modified accordingly. This is exemplarily illustrated in Extended Data Fig. 10 for twist angles of 9° and 2°. Here, the 2° illustration corresponds to the sample structure in a recent study\(^\text{13}\), and shows that for finite momentum resolution and small twist angles, the ILX momentum structure that we found in our work cannot be resolved.

**Real-space reconstruction**

Following the plane-wave model for photoemission, the measured ARPES intensity \( I(k) \) can be expressed as

\[
I(k) = |A \cdot k|^2 |\mathcal{F}(\phi)|^2 \delta(E_n + E_{\text{kin}} + \phi - \hbar \omega),
\]

which includes the Fourier transform of the real-space electronic wavefunction \( \phi(r) \), a polarization factor \( |A \cdot k|^2 \) that depends on the vector potential \( \mathbf{A} \) of the incident radiation and electron momentum \( \mathbf{k} \), and a Dirac delta function that ensures conservation of energy \( (E_n + E_{\text{kin}} + \phi - \hbar \omega) \) to how it is done for orbital tomography of molecular orbitals in planar aromatic molecules\(^\text{43,47} \), in agreement with the approach that has been recently carried out for excitons in TMD\(^\text{13,32,34} \). Here, the wavefunction is assumed to be thin in the vertical dimension and photoemission is therefore assumed to be independent of the out-of-plane momentum \( k_z \).

We start our analysis based on the momentum maps of the \( \Delta_{\text{ex}} \) exciton and the ILX. As highlighted in the main text based on the insets in Fig. 4a,b, we perform separate two-dimensional Fourier transforms to each excitation photoemission feature to reconstruct the real-space extension of the electronic contribution to the exciton wavefunction, as plotted in Fig. 4a,b for the ILX and the \( \Delta_{\text{ex}} \) exciton, respectively. In this analysis, we have eliminated broadening effects owing to the finite momentum resolution of the momentum microscope (0.04 Å\(^{-1}\)) using Wiener–Hunt deconvolution and subtracted a weak background determined from the full dataset. Finally, we assumed a flat phase profile over the full accessible momentum range, following the approach detailed in ref. 28. To determine the Bohr radii, we calculate the root-mean-square radii of the real-space probability density distribution. The Bohr radii for the electron contribution to the ILX and the \( \Delta_{\text{ex}} \) exciton are \( r_{\text{B,ILX}} = 1.6 \pm 0.2 \) nm and \( r_{\text{B,ex}} = 1.1 \pm 0.1 \) nm, respectively, and were acquired by taking the weighted average of the Bohr radii determined for individual \( \kappa \) and \( \kappa_{\text{W}} \) valleys. For the ILX, only the features with a signal-to-noise ratio better than 10 were taken into account.

It is noted that on the heterostructure with a twist angle of more than 5°, we can safely assume in our analysis that the centre-of-mass momentum is narrowly distributed around zero\(^\text{28}\), and the momentum width of the photoemission signatures at the \( \kappa \) and \( \kappa_{\text{W}} \) valleys relates to the relative coordinate of the excitons\(^\text{21}\). In a recent report on a 2°-twisted WSe\(_2\)/MoS\(_2\) heterostructure, ref. 13 reported the root-mean-square radius of the relative coordinate to the ILX wavefunction to 2.6 ± 0.4 nm. This corresponds to a root-mean-square radius of the probability density of 1.8 ± 0.3 nm, which is in agreement with our analysis of a Bohr radius of \( r_{\text{B,ILX}} = 1.6 \pm 0.2 \) nm. Similarly, our reconstructed Bohr radius of the \( \Delta_{\text{ex}} \) exciton of \( r_{\text{B,ex}} = 1.1 \pm 0.1 \) nm is in agreement with the root-mean-square radius of the probability density of WSe\(_2\) of ref. 24 (about 1.0 nm).

### Data availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request.

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Author contributions D. Steil, R.T.W., S.S., G.S.M.J., S.H., M.R. and S.M. conceived the research. D. Steil, R.T.W., S.S., G.S.M.J., S.H., M.R. and S.M. carried out the experiments. A.A. and M.R. fabricated the samples. D. Schmitt, J.P.B. and W.B. carried out the time-resolved momentum microscopy experiments and analysed the data. W.B., D.R.L. and G.S.M.J. carried out the real-space reconstruction of the momentum fingerprints. A.A. fabricated the samples. G.M., S.B. and E.M. developed the microscopic model and analysed the results. All authors discussed the results. M.R. and S.M. were responsible for the overall project direction and wrote the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors. K.W. and T.T. synthesized the hBN crystals.

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Extended Data Fig. 1 | Fabrication and real-space imaging of the WSe$_2$/MoS$_2$/hBN heterostructure. a–d Schematic of the WSe$_2$/MoS$_2$/hBN heterostructure assembly on a Si substrate with a native oxide layer. a A PDMS stamp with monolayer MoS$_2$ flake (red) is aligned with another PDMS stamp holding a monolayer WSe$_2$ (yellow), then the top PDMS stamp is brought in contact with bottom PDMS. b The top PDMS stamp is then withdrawn, leaving the MoS$_2$ on top of the WSe$_2$. c The PDMS stamp holding the WSe$_2$/MoS$_2$ is then brought into contact with SiO$_2$/Si substrate with hBN (blue). d The PDMS is then withdrawn, leaving behind the final WSe$_2$/MoS$_2$/hBN heterostructure. e/f The WSe$_2$/MoS$_2$/hBN heterostructure, the uncovered SiO$_2$/Si substrate, bulk hBN, the WSe$_2$ and MoS$_2$ monolayers, and bulk WSe$_2$ are labelled in the e optical microscope and the f photoemission real-space image (h$\omega$ = 4.96 eV). Point-like structures (blisters) in the heterostructure region can be attributed to residual gas trapped either at the MoS$_2$/hBN or the WSe$_2$/MoS$_2$ interface. The blisters in the monolayer WSe$_2$ region are most likely trapped at the WSe$_2$/hBN interface.
Extended Data Fig. 2 | Static band mapping of the monolayer WSe$_2$ and the heterobilayer WSe$_2$/MoS$_2$. a,b Energy–momentum representation of the static photoemission intensity obtained in the momentum microscopy experiment along the K’-W-Γ-W direction (see inset). The important spectroscopic features are labelled in the figure: (1, 2) spin-split valence bands of WSe$_2$; (3) valence band of MoS$_2$; (4, 5) valence bands at the Γ$_{W,Mo}$ valley; (6) valence band of hBN. c, d Energy–distribution curves taken around the K$_W$ and Γ$_{W,Mo}$ (Γ$_W$) valley indicated by the coloured boxes in a and b.
Extended Data Fig. 3 | Inhomogeneous broadening of the photoemission spectra. The energy-distribution curve is obtained in a ± 0.10 Å⁻¹ region-of-interest centred at the K⁺ valley of WSe₂. Gaussian fitting of the valence band maximum centred at $E_{VBM} = 0$ eV yields a full-width at half-maximum of 280 ± 10 meV.
Extended Data Fig. 4 | Determination of the twist angle $\Theta$ of the WSe$_2$/MoS$_2$ heterostructure. The momentum maps in a and c show the photoemission fingerprint of the $A_W$- and $A_{Mo}$-excitons when excited resonantly with 1.7 eV and 1.9 eV photons, respectively, at 0 fs pump–probe delay. Since the MoS$_2$ $A_{Mo}$-exciton and the ILX are, within our energy resolution, spectrally degenerate, faint signatures of the ILX are already visible c at 0 fs delay. The dashed lines indicate the $\Gamma$–$K_W$ (orange) and $\Gamma$–$K_{Mo}$ (dark red) direction. From their misalignment, the twist angle is extracted to $\Theta = 9.8 \pm 0.8^\circ$. 

b, d At 1-ps pump–probe delay, the ILX momentum fingerprint can be identified, as described by the mBZ (red). The dashed lines indicate the relation of the ILX momentum fingerprint and the $\Gamma$–$K_W$ and $\Gamma$–$K_{Mo}$ directions. Note the distinctly different intensity distribution of the combined spectral weight of the $A_{Mo}$-exciton and the faint ILX in c vs. the pure signature of the ILX at 1-ps delay in d. For each momentum-map, the photoelectron energy with respect to the valence band maximum of WSe$_2$ and the pump–probe delay are noted in the lower left and right corner, respectively.
Extended Data Fig. 5 | Above-band-gap excitation of monolayer WSe$_2$ and monolayer MoS$_2$. Photoemission yield from bright intralayer excitons and charge carriers in the conduction can be discriminated based on above-band-gap excitation data collected on a–c monolayer WSe$_2$ (orange circle in Fig. 1c) and d–f monolayer MoS$_2$ (real-space image not shown). a and d show energy–momentum cuts along the K-Σ direction measured on WSe$_2$ and MoS$_2$, respectively, at 0 fs and 300 fs (respectively 250 fs) pump–probe delay. At 0 fs, a parabolic signature with positive dispersion is detected at the K valley (noted by the black dashed parabolic line). At 300 fs (250 fs), the signature becomes more spherical. b and e show energy-distribution curves at the K valleys (momentum-integration region based on the boxes in a, d). The peak maxima is indicated by grey horizontal lines. c and f show the corresponding energy-distribution curves when excited on resonance with the $\Lambda_{W}$- and $\Lambda_{Mo}$-exciton, respectively.
Extended Data Fig. 6 | Additional trARPES data of the ILX formation. a $E(k)$ cut along the $K_W - \Gamma - K'_W$ direction integrated in the $k$-region shown by the black dashed box in b, 0 fs. The arrowheads on the right side of the figure indicate the photoelectron energies where the momentum maps in b and c are centred. b Within the energy window of the $k$-map ($E - E_{\text{VBM}} = 1.7$ eV) and increasing pump–probe delay, spectral weight from the bright A W-excitons (orange hexagon) is transferred via exciton–phonon scattering to form dark Σ W-excitons (grey hexagon). c Interlayer charge transfer via the Σ-valleys forms the ILX, which is observed at $E - E_{\text{VBM}} = 1.1$ eV. The Brillouin zone of MoS$_2$ is indicated with a dotted dark red hexagon and the mBZ with a red hexagon. Spectroscopic signatures of the A W-exciton, the Σ W-exciton, and the ILX are indicated by orange, grey, and red circles, respectively, in the 1 ps data. The pump–probe delay and the binding energy of the $k$-maps are noted in the top and bottom left corner, respectively. Note that at 0 fs, the strong signal in c is mainly caused by LAPE. In addition, in b (0 fs), LAPE leads to photoemission yield at the $\Gamma$ point.
Extended Data Fig. 7 | Selected regions of interest for the analysis of the $A_w$-, $\Sigma W$-, and ILX formation dynamics shown in Fig. 2c. a and b show momentum maps integrated over all measured pump–probe delays in the energy intervals of $E - E_{\text{VBM}} = 1.5–2.4$ eV and 0.8–1.3 eV, respectively. The regions-of-interest that are used for filtering the excitonic photoemission signatures in momentum space are indicated by orange, black, and red circles for the $A_w$-exciton, the $\Sigma W$-exciton, and the ILX, respectively. The grey shaded areas indicate artefacts of the detector. c (top and middle panel) Pump–probe delay evolution of the energy-distribution curves filtered for the orange and red regions of interest. c (bottom panel) Intensity vs. pump–probe delay plots for the energy boxes indicated by the bluish arrows in the middle panel.
Extended Data Fig. 8 | Correction of space-charge/photovoltage-induced shifts and exclusion of photoinduced band renormalizations. 

**a** The rigid band shift $\Delta E$ of maximal 70 meV is corrected for each pump–probe delay. $\Delta E$ is obtained by fitting (red) momentum-integrated energy-distribution curves (black) for each delay, as exemplary shown for the −2000 fs measurement in the inset. The error bars are standard deviations obtained in each fit. **b** We fit the pump–probe delay-dependent energetic peak position of the valence band maximum of WSe$_2$ at the $K_W$ valley with Gaussian distributions (red, inset) and calculate the energy difference $\Delta E$ with respect to the −2000 fs measurement that is plotted in the inset. Within the scattering of the data, $\Delta E$ does not upshift with pump–probe delay, excluding a dominant contribution of photoinduced band renormalization such as discussed in refs. 49,53.
Extended Data Fig. 9 | Charge-transfer and charge recombination times of the $\mathcal{A}_W$ exciton (orange), the $\Sigma_W$ exciton (grey), and the ILX (red). a The short time dynamics (symbols) is fitted with error functions (dashed lines), from which the delayed onset times $t_i$ are extracted, as detailed in the text. b The charge recombination time is extracted by performing single-exponential fits to the data for pump–probe delays larger than 1 ps. The solid lines reproduce the model calculations initially shown in Fig. 2c of the main text.
Extended Data Fig. 10 | Sketch of the moiré mBz for small and large twist angles. The twist angle Θ defines the size of the moiré mBz (red hexagon) and the related moiré reciprocal lattice vectors $G^{1,2}_{M}$ (black arrows). a For twist angles larger than a few degree, $G^{1,2}_{M}$ is larger than the momentum width of a single κ valley (dark reddish filled circles). All three κ valleys (and higher-order umklapp processes) are detected in the momentum microscopy experiment (Fig. 3c, d). The electronic contribution to the ILX wavefunction is spread across several moiré potential wells (Fig. 4). b For sufficiently small twist angles, $G^{1,2}_{M}$ can become smaller than the width of a single κ valley, and the ILX wavefunction can be confined in a single moiré potential well. If the momentum microscopy experiment is performed with a finite momentum resolution, the photoelectron signal from the ILX can appear as a single peak, as reported in Ref. 13 for a 2° twisted WSe$_2$/MoS$_2$ heterostructure.