

MoS₂-Based Optoelectronic Gas Sensor with Sub-parts-per-billion Limit of NO₂ Gas Detection

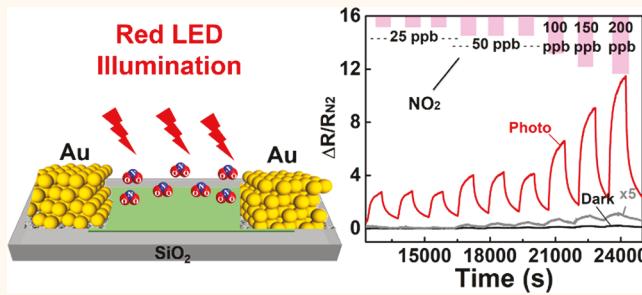
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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Red light illumination with photon energy matching the direct band gap of chemical vapor deposition grown single-layer MoS₂ with Au metal electrodes was used to induce a photocurrent which was employed instead of dark current for NO₂ gas sensing. The resulting Au/MoS₂/Au optoelectronic gas sensor showed a significant enhancement of the device sensitivity *S* toward ppb level of NO₂ gas exposure reaching *S* = 4.9%/ppb (4900%/ppm), where *S* is a slope of dependence of relative change of the sensor resistance on NO₂ concentration. Further optimization of the MoS₂-based optoelectronic gas sensor by using graphene (Gr) with a work function lower than that of Au for the electrical contacts to the MoS₂ channel allowed an increase of photocurrent. The limit of detection of NO₂ gas at the level of 0.1 ppb was obtained for the MoS₂ channel with graphene electrodes coated by Au. This value was calculated using experimentally obtained sensitivity and noise values and exceeds the U.S. Environment Protection Agency requirement for NO₂ gas detection at ppb level.

KEYWORDS: 2D material, transition metal dichalcogenides, MoS₂, graphene, optoelectronic, photogating, gas sensor



Following the discovery of graphene,¹ other two-dimensional (2D) materials such as transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) have attracted significant attention because of the unique electronic properties originated from their low-dimensional electronic structure.^{2–6} In contrast to graphene, TMDs possess finite band gap in the range from 0.2 to 3 eV, depending on specific type of material and number of layers and became a valuable alternative to the conventional or narrow band semiconductors in a variety of electronic and optoelectronic applications.^{2–7} MoS₂ is one of the most prominent materials from the TMD family possessing a direct band gap of 1.8 eV as a single layer^{8,9} and showing promising performance in field-effect transistors (FETs), p–n junctions and heterojunctions, photovoltaic cells, and photodetectors.^{10–15}

Because of their high surface to volume ratio, electronic transport in atomically thin TMD channels is extremely sensitive to the surrounding atmosphere, thus allowing their exploration in chemical and biological molecule sensing applications.^{16–22} TMDs are now considered as promising alternatives to the conventional metal oxide sensing materials,^{23–26} which typically require elevated temperature operations causing excessive energy consumption, reliability issues,

and safety concerns. Chemiresistors based on single- and multilayer MoS₂, either mechanically exfoliated or chemical vapor deposition (CVD)-grown, have been explored for sensing of such hazardous analytes as NO, NH₃, volatile organic compounds (VOCs), and nerve agents at ppm level.^{16–22} Nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) is one of the most dangerous pollutants produced mainly as a byproduct of combustion reaction in transportation and industrial processes.²⁷ It is reported that exposure to as small concentration as 3 ppm can lead to eye and lung irritation, lower resistance to respiratory infection, and possible fatality.²³ In addition, NO₂ can react with other chemicals in ambient atmosphere to form acid rain and ozone, which are the major harmful components to most ecosystems. Due to such negative impacts to both environment and human life, the United States Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA) has regulated limit of exposure to NO₂ at 53 ppb,²⁸ thus leading to urgent need to develop a highly sensitive and real-time operating NO₂ gas sensors performing reliably at ppb level.

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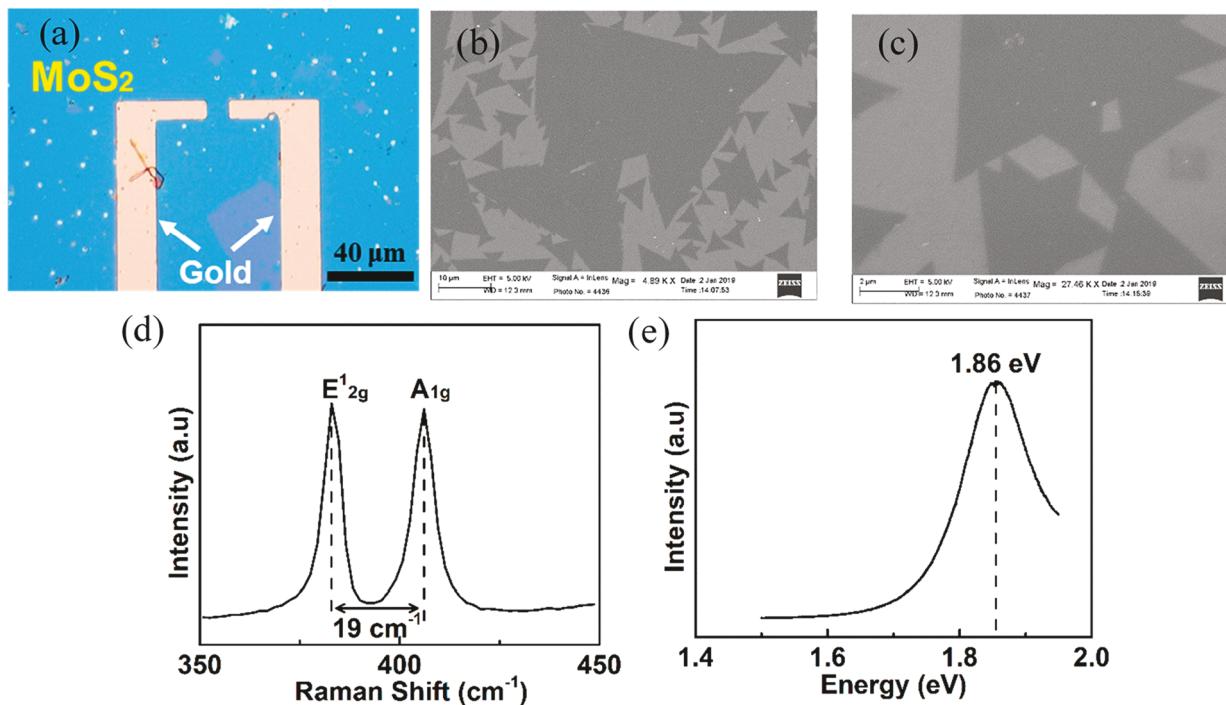


Figure 1. (a) Optical image of MoS₂ device with Au electrodes. (b,c) SEM images of MoS₂ layer at different magnifications with MoS₂ corresponding to lighter areas (scale bars 10 and 2 μm, respectively). (d) Raman and (e) photoluminescence spectra of MoS₂ layer.

In recent years, a number of studies demonstrated efficient MoS₂-based NO₂ sensor performances at ppm level.^{20,21,29} Moreover, it has been reported recently that a CVD-grown MoS₂ FET-based gas sensor is capable for NO₂ detection at sub-ppm (200 ppb) level.²⁰ However, these sensors had a slow response and poor recovery at room temperature. Later reports show improved recovery by utilization of elevated temperatures ranging from 100 to 150 °C due to accelerated desorption of the gas molecules.^{30,31} As an alternative strategy, UV light irradiation of the MoS₂ channel was employed to improve sensitivity and recovery rate of the response to NO₂ exposure at ppm level²⁹ following the strategy developed earlier for metal-oxide-based sensors.^{32,33} In that report,²⁹ UV light is used as a tool to release oxygen ions from the MoS₂ surface, thus facilitating the interaction of NO₂ molecules with conducting electrons in the MoS₂ channel and yielding faster removal rate of NO₂ molecules after the exposure.

The MoS₂ sensing channel can be prepared in different morphologies such as mechanically exfoliated single- or multilayered,^{16,18} MoS₂ nanowire networks³⁴ or horizontally and vertically aligned MoS₂ layers.^{35,36} Each of those morphologies provides significant input in the development of MoS₂-based sensing technology. CVD-grown single-layer MoS₂ is an ultimate 2D material with highest possible surface to volume ratio and is more suited for semiconducting processing platforms. However, due to several factors such as large band gap of MoS₂, grain boundaries of MoS₂ triangular crystals forming its single-layer structure, and contribution of Schottky barriers at metal–MoS₂ contact interfaces, the typical sensor resistance can reach extremely high values of 10 GΩ to 1 TΩ. This complicates the sensor's electrical integration with readout circuit and increases electrical noise, thus degrading the sensor performance in terms of limit of detection of gaseous analytes.

Here, we utilize light-emitting diode (LED) illumination with photon energy matching the band gap of single-layer MoS₂ in order to decrease the MoS₂ channel resistance by 3 orders of magnitude by inducing a photocurrent and employing the generated photocurrent instead of dark current for NO₂ gas sensing. As a result, an efficient response to sub-ppm level of NO₂ concentrations (25–200 ppb) exposure was demonstrated with a sensitivity of 4.9%/ppb (4900%/ppm). Further optimization of the MoS₂-based optoelectronic gas sensor by using graphene (Gr) with a work function lower than that of Au for the electrical contacts to the MoS₂ channel allowed an increase of photocurrent and improving signal to noise ratio of the gas detection. Calculations of the optimized chemi-photoresistor limit of detection (LOD) following IUPAC procedure,³⁷ provided an evaluation of LOD for NO₂ detection at the level of ~0.1 ppb, which by far exceeds the U.S. EPA requirement of NO₂ detection at ppb level.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 1a presents an optical image of the MoS₂ optoelectronic gas sensor with two patterned Au electrodes with 10 μm by 10 μm gap. Figure 1b,c shows scanning electron microscopy (SEM) imaging of a MoS₂ layer forming the device channel with typical morphology of one atomic layer network of merging triangular MoS₂ crystals. Detailed information on MoS₂ layer growth and the device preparation is presented in the [Experimental Section](#). Raman spectrum of MoS₂ (Figure 1d) shows E_{2g}¹ peak at 386 cm⁻¹ and A_{1g} peak at 405 cm⁻¹ in a ratio of E_{2g}¹/A_{1g} ≈ 1, indicating a basal plane exposed morphology.^{34,35} Those peaks are separated by 19 cm⁻¹, in agreement with the expected value for a single-layer MoS₂.^{8,9} The presence of strong photoluminescence peak at 1.86 eV photon energy (Figure 1e) confirms that the device channel is predominantly single-layer MoS₂.

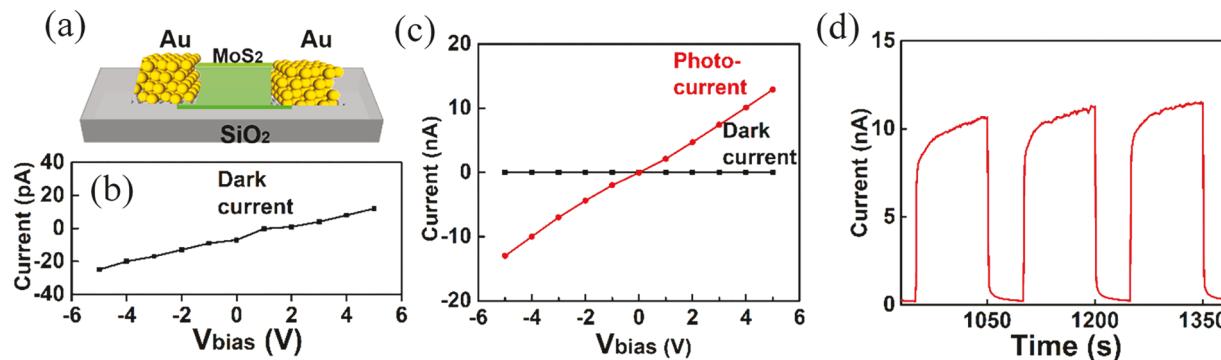


Figure 2. (a) Schematic of MoS₂ channel with Au electrodes; I–V dependence of the Au–MoS₂–Au device (b) in the dark and (c) under red LED illumination with incident power of 60.9 nW; (d) photocurrent pulses as a response to “on” and “off” switching of red LED irradiation.

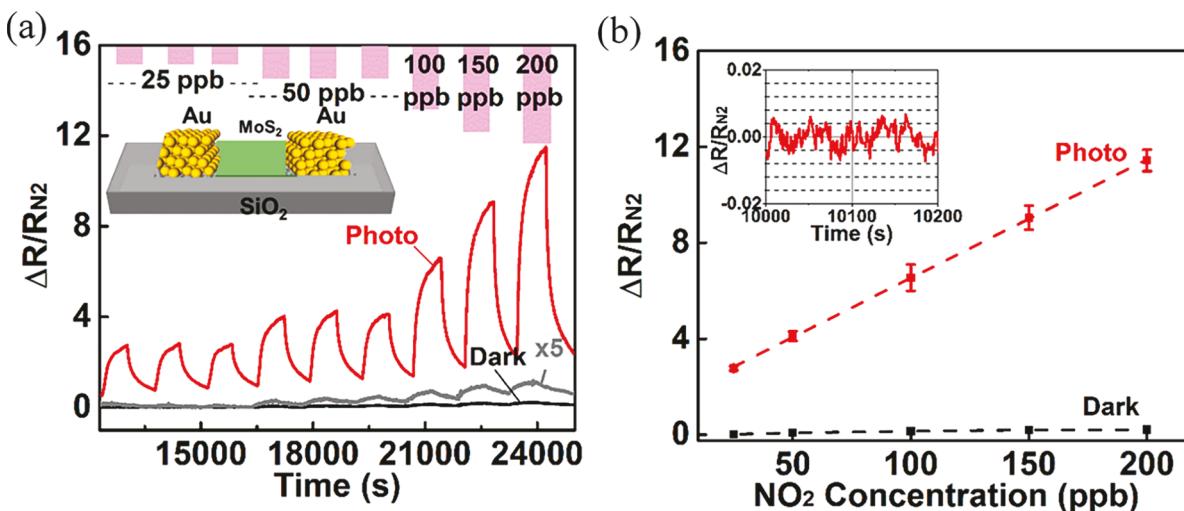


Figure 3. (a) Effect of NO₂ gas exposure at concentrations from 25 to 200 ppb on normalized resistance of the Au–MoS₂–Au device in the dark (black line; gray line shows 5-fold magnified data) and under red LED illumination (red curve). (b) Dependence of the normalized amplitude of resistance change $\Delta R/R_{N2}$ on the concentration of NO₂ gas. Inset shows a temporal trace of experimentally recorded noise of $\Delta R/R_{N2}$ under LED illumination. All data were collected under DC bias of 5 V.

Figure 2a shows a schematic of the MoS₂ channel with Cr/Au electrodes denoted in this paper as the Au–MoS₂–Au device. The I–V curve in the dark (Figure 2b) shows very low current in the picoamperes range corresponding to the very high device resistance of ~ 200 G Ω . Such high device resistance is due to the presence of two Schottky diode type Au/MoS₂ junctions connected in series in opposite directions, so the current through the channel is always limited by the Schottky diode which is biased in reverse. In most of our measurements, the bias across the device is limited to 5 V, whereas at higher voltages, the devices show nonlinearity associated with reverse breakdown typical for Schottky diodes (Figure S1). Under illumination of a red LED with an incident power of 60.9 nW (light intensity of 60.9 mW/cm²), the channel current increased by ~ 500 times, exceeding 10 nA at 5 V channel bias (Figure 2c).

The temporal evolution of the photocurrent when LED irradiation was switched “on” and “off” is presented in Figure 2d. It shows a relatively fast rise of the photocurrent to $\sim 80\%$ level in less than 1 s when LED irradiation was switched “on” followed by a slow increase continuing for hundreds of seconds. A similar shape was observed in the photocurrent decay when LED was turned “off” with an initial fast decay to below 10% level in less than 1 s followed by a slow decay.

We next investigated the ability of the above device as a gas sensor for NO₂. Figure 3a compares typical responses of single-layer MoS₂-based gas sensors with Cr/Au electrodes (from here on referred to as Au–MoS₂–Au) to NO₂ gas exposure in the dark and under red LED illumination with incident power of 60.9 nW (light intensity of 60.9 mW/cm²). The sensor response is represented in terms of normalized change of resistance, $\Delta R/R_{N2}$, where R_{N2} is the resistance of the device established under N₂ flow before NO₂ exposure in the dark or under illumination and ΔR is a resistance change caused upon NO₂ exposure. For raw resistance data, please see Figures S2 and S3 in the Supporting Information. It is worth noting that the sensor exhibited similar sensitivity to NO₂ even when air was used as the carrier/dilution gas instead of nitrogen (data not shown).

Noticeably, the response to NO₂ exposure under illumination is enhanced dramatically even when the dark current data are magnified by a factor of 5. Figure 3b presents the amplitude of relative response $\Delta R/R_{N2}$ in the dark and under illumination as a function of NO₂ concentration C (ppb) with a slope of such dependence defining the device sensitivity $S = \Delta R/R_{N2}(\%) / C(\text{ppb})$. Under red LED illumination, the NO₂ sensitivity of $S = 4.9\%/\text{ppb}$ (4900%/ppm) was observed, which is ~ 50 -fold higher than the best values of 0.1%/ppb

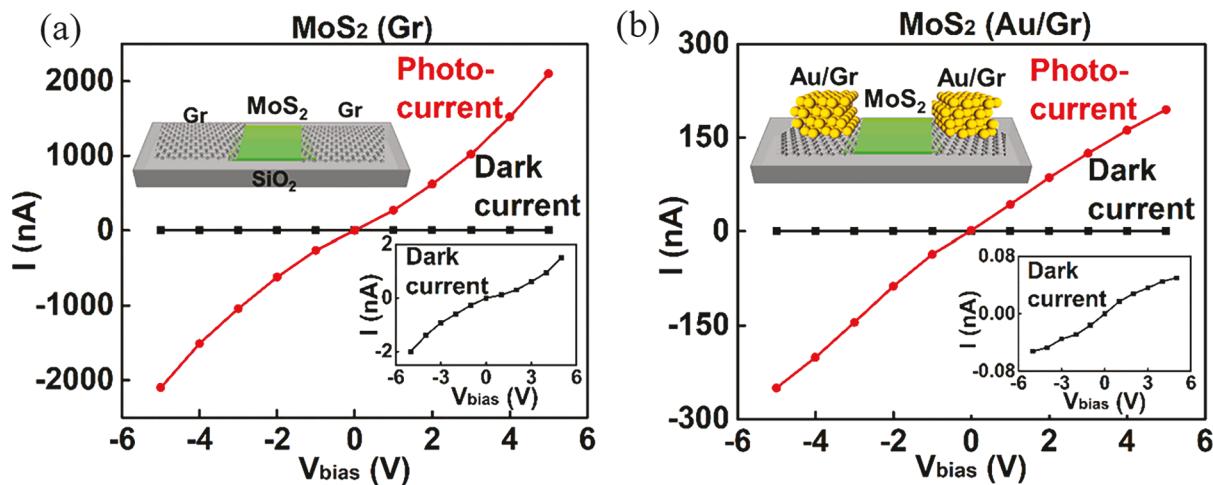


Figure 4. I – V curves under red LED illumination (red line) and in the dark (black line) of (a) Gr–MoS₂–Gr and (b) Au/Gr–MoS₂–Gr/Au devices. Insets show corresponding schematics of the devices and expanded I – V curves in the dark.

obtained in the dark. Some of the tested Au–MoS₂–Au sensors did not show any response in the dark to sub-ppm concentrations of NO₂, whereas the sensitivity under red LED light illumination was consistently high. It should be noted that the sensitivity is usually normalized to the concentration expressed in ppm units; however, in our work, we report sensitivity in %/ppb units due to the strong response of our sensor to ppb level concentration of NO₂.

Another important figure of merit of the chemical sensor is the LOD of the particular analyte which, following IUPAC procedure, is typically defined as a concentration of the analyte which causes a response 3 times higher than the noise level of the device (*i.e.*, in the absence of the analyte).^{37,38} From the noise data presented in Figure 3b (inset) for the illuminated sensor, root-mean-square value of $\Delta R/R_{N2}$ noise of $\sim 0.32\%$ is obtained, giving a calculated LOD of $3 \times 0.32/4.9 \approx 0.2$ ppb. For comparison, the noise level for the sensor in the dark is $\sim 0.6\%$ with much lower sensitivity of 0.1%/ppb, resulting in a detection limit of $3 \times 0.6/0.1 \approx 18$ ppb, in agreement with the visual observation of data presented in Figure 3. Thus, band gap matching illumination of the MoS₂ sensor induces photocurrent in the sensor channel which can be used to significantly improve the sensitivity and detection limit of NO₂ sensing.

The observed improvement of MoS₂ sensor performance is associated with enhancement of the current in MoS₂ channel induced by photoexcitation of electron-hole pairs across the direct band gap of single-layer MoS₂. Here, we utilized Au as a metal to provide the electrical contacts to the MoS₂ channel, but recent theoretical study and related experiments suggested that this most common metal may be inefficient for electron injection into single-layer MoS₂.³⁹ Other metals, such as Ti, were suggested as alternatives, but also graphene was proposed and experimentally tested as an atomically thin contacting layer ideally matching 2D structure of MoS₂.^{40–42} Thus, two additional variations of MoS₂-based optoelectronic NO₂ sensors were fabricated and tested. In the first variation, gold electrodes were substituted by graphene, resulting in a Gr–MoS₂–Gr sensor (Figure 4a, inset; Figure S6); in the second variation, graphene electrodes were protected from the exposure to NO₂ gas by applying a top Cr/Au (5 nm/50 nm) coating, resulting in a Au/Gr–MoS₂–Gr/Au type sensor (Figure 4b, inset).

As shown in Figure 4, both device configurations involving graphene electrodes show more than 3 orders of magnitude higher current under the incident red LED illumination power of 60.9 nW (per 10 μ m by 10 μ m sensor area) when compared to absence of light. The highest dark- and photocurrents are observed for the device with bare graphene electrodes. Among the devices with three types of electrodes, the device with Au electrodes (Au–MoS₂–Au) shows the lowest current (Figure 2 and Figure S1). We ascribe this to a higher work function of Au (5.1 eV) compared to the work function of pristine graphene (4.5–4.6 eV);¹⁷ however, the latter can increase to 5.0 eV and higher⁴³ as graphene is commonly p-doped due to nanofabrication processes, such as copper etching, lithography, and O₂ plasma etching. Assuming that the currents are limited by the height of the Schottky barrier Φ_{SB} at the electrode–MoS₂ interfaces, the ratio of the currents in the case of Au (I_{Au}) and graphene (I_{Gr}) can be used for rough estimation of the Schottky barrier height differences in the approximation of thermionic emission model:^{17,44} $\Delta\Phi_{SB} = \Phi_{SB}(Au) - \Phi_{SB}(Gr) = (k_B T/e) \times \ln(I_{Au}/I_{Gr}) \approx 0.12$ eV, where k_B and e are Boltzmann constant and elementary charge of electron, respectively. For the case of Au-coated graphene, a smaller Schottky barrier difference $\Delta\Phi_{SB} = \Phi_{SB}(Au) - \Phi_{SB}(Gr/Au)$ of 0.07–0.08 eV was obtained, which can be explained by the influence of bulk layer of Au on the work function of graphene shifting the work function of the Au-coated graphene closer to the Au work function. The results of photoconductivity and NO₂ gas sensing were obtained from 4 to 5 devices with each type of electrode. MoS₂ devices with graphene electrodes show the highest photoresponsivity in the range of 30–150 A/W, which is on the high end of the photoresponsivities reported in literature for MoS₂-based devices.^{45,46} With increasing Schottky barrier height, the photoresponsivity decreases to values of 3–12 A/W for the case of Gr/Au electrodes and to 0.2–0.34 A/W for the case of Au electrodes as measured on several devices of each type.

Figure 5a shows time-dependent photocurrent induced in the MoS₂ channels with graphene electrodes (bare and Au-coated) in a response to the “on” and “off” switching of the LED illumination. In both cases, fast and slow components of the photoresponse can be observed like in the case of the device with Au electrodes (Figure 2c). In the case of graphene electrodes, the slow component dominates, resulting in large

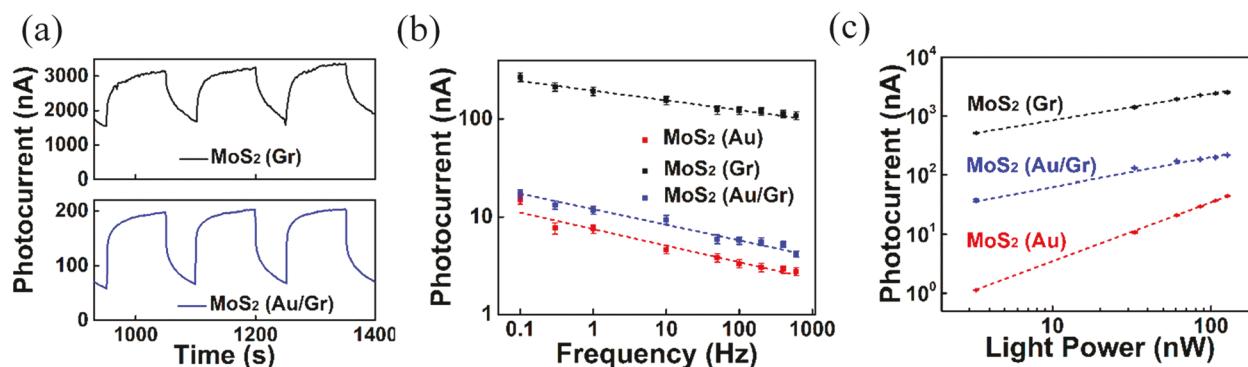


Figure 5. (a) Photocurrent pulses as a response to switching of red LED irradiation “on” and “off” for Gr–MoS₂–Gr (top) and Au/Gr–MoS₂–Gr/Au (bottom) devices. Dependence of photocurrent on (b) frequency of red LED modulation and (c) power of red LED irradiation for MoS₂ devices with three types of electrodes. Dashed lines show power law fits of experimental dependences as described in the text. All data were taken with bias of 5 V.

persistent photocurrent,⁴⁷ so the current remains well above its steady-state dark current value during the intervals when the LED irradiation is off.

The dependences of the amplitude of the photocurrent of the MoS₂ devices on the frequency f of square-wave red LED light modulation are presented in Figure 5b and show a decrease of photocurrent with increasing frequency described by power law $I_{\text{ph}} \propto f^{\alpha}$ with best fitting obtained using exponents α of 0.17, 0.1, and 0.16 for the devices with Au, graphene, and graphene/Au electrodes, respectively. Such type of power law dependence of photocurrent with exponent $\alpha < 1$ is well-known in the field of classical photoconductors and is usually associated with wide distribution of photocarrier lifetimes (in our case, from milliseconds to tens of seconds) due to the presence of trap states.^{13,46–49} Such traps can be associated with sulfur vacancies responsible for n-type doping, which are typically major defects present in the CVD MoS₂ also.^{50,51} Additional trap states may originate from the dangling Si–O bonds at the surface of the SiO₂ substrate, as reported previously.^{52,53} Figure 5c shows that the dependence of photocurrent on the incident irradiation power P deviates from direct proportionality and is best described by the power law $I_{\text{ph}} \propto P^{\beta}$, similar to the recent reports,¹⁹ with the exponents β values less than unity of 0.63, 0.45, and 0.50 for the devices with Au, graphene, and graphene/Au electrodes, respectively. Such $\beta < 1$ values are also typically associated with the presence of trap states distributed in energy within the band gap of the conventional photoconductors.⁴⁷ In the case of 2D materials with high surface to volume ratio, the effect of trap states on the photoconductivity is often described in terms of photogating when under illumination one type of photocarriers is trapped by lattice defects or impurities.^{46,49} Such trapping leads to the spatial charge accumulation and induced electric field, which acts as a gate voltage in conventional FETs shifting the Fermi level of 2D channel to the energy position dependent on the time and intensity of incident radiation.^{13,46,47,49} The contribution of photogating can explain the power law dependences of photocurrent on frequency and incident power with exponents α and β less than unity presented in Figure 5. In the case of single-layer MoS₂ channel utilized in this study, the trap states can be formed at the interface of MoS₂ and supporting dielectric (SiO₂) layer or on the top of MoS₂ layer. The fast photoresponse component visible at the moment of LED switching “on” and “off” and at high frequencies of modulation can be attributed to direct

photoconductivity while slow component of photoresponse can be associated with photogating; however, the boundary between these two contributions cannot be well-defined.

The devices with graphene and graphene/Au electrodes were evaluated for NO₂ sensing under light. Figure 6a shows the transient normalized resistance change (response) of MoS₂ channel with graphene electrodes (Gr–MoS₂–Gr) to 25 to 200 ppb of NO₂ gas exposure. As illustrated in the figure, the device exhibited a response ($\Delta R/R_{\text{N}2}$) of $\sim 16\%$ (from 0.85 to 0.99 MΩ) to as low as 25 ppb NO₂ concentration, the smallest reliably achievable concentration in our setup. Furthermore, the normalized resistance change showed a stronger increase with increasing NO₂ concentration, followed by a full recovery. A similar trend, but of much higher magnitude with faster and fuller recovery to baseline upon exposure to only N₂, was observed in the case of device made of the MoS₂ channel with graphene electrodes protected by a Au layer (Figure 6b).

Figures S4 and S5 (Supporting Information) present the raw resistance data upon exposure to different NO₂ concentrations for the above two types of devices used in Figure 6. Additionally, the baseline photocurrent (in the absence of NO₂ exposure) of Au/Gr–MoS₂–Gr/Au was an order of magnitude lower, 0.8 vs 6 μA, when compared to that of the Gr–MoS₂–Gr (bare graphene electrodes) device which is ascribed to higher Schottky barrier caused by the influence of bulk Au layer, as discussed previously.

Figure 6c,d presents the amplitude of the normalized resistance change ($\Delta R/R_{\text{N}2}$) as a function of NO₂ concentration (i.e., calibration plot) for Gr–MoS₂–Gr and Au/Gr–MoS₂–Gr/Au devices, respectively. The corresponding analytical characteristics of sensitivity and limit of detection of these devices for NO₂ sensing (calculated the same way as described above) are summarized in Table 1.

The results show that the Au/Gr–MoS₂–Gr/Au device had higher sensitivity (3.3 vs 1.3%/ppb) and lower LOD (0.1 vs 0.2

Table 1. Analytical Characteristics of Single-Layer MoS₂ Channel Gas Sensors with Different Source–Drain Electrodes for NO₂ Sensing

device/condition	sensitivity, %/ppb	limit of detection, ppb
Au–MoS ₂ –Au/dark	0.1	18
Au–MoS ₂ –Au/light	4.9	0.2
Gr–MoS ₂ –Gr	1.3	0.2
Au/Gr–MoS ₂ –Gr/Au	3.3	0.1

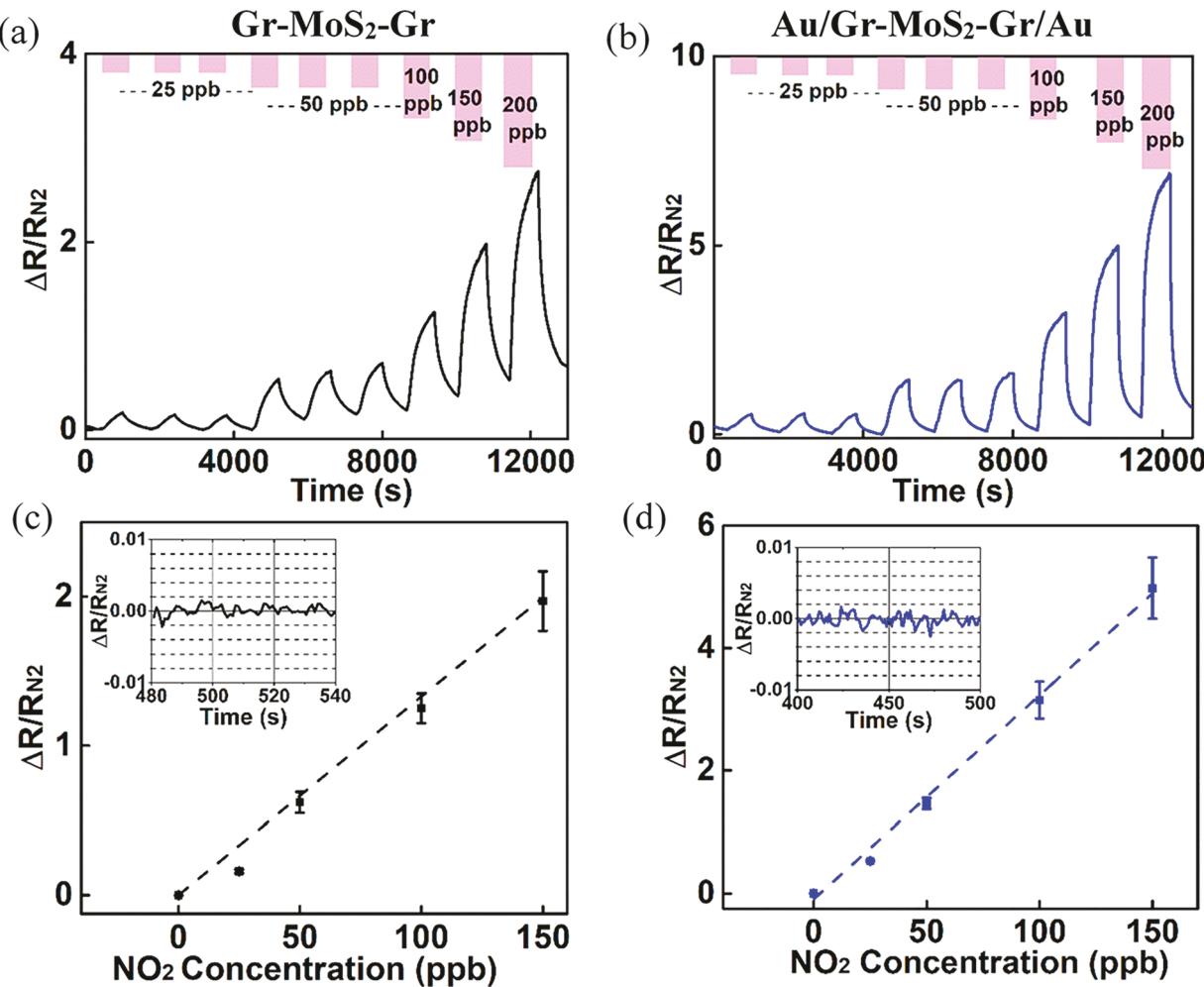


Figure 6. Effect of NO_2 gas exposure at concentrations from 25 to 200 ppb under red light on normalized resistance of (a) $\text{Gr}-\text{MoS}_2-\text{Gr}$ and (b) $\text{Au}/\text{Gr}-\text{MoS}_2-\text{Gr}/\text{Au}$ devices. Dependence of the normalized amplitude of resistance change of $\text{Gr}-\text{MoS}_2-\text{Gr}$ (c) and $\text{Au}/\text{Gr}-\text{MoS}_2-\text{Gr}/\text{Au}$ (d) devices on the concentration of NO_2 gas. Inset shows a temporal trace of experimentally recorded noise of $\Delta R/R_{\text{N}2}$. All data were collected under dc bias of 5 V.

ppb) compared to $\text{Gr}-\text{MoS}_2-\text{Gr}$ device. We should note that MoS_2 -based sensors demonstrated long-term stability under many hours of red LED illumination, NO_2 exposure during performance testing, and storage as illustrated in Figure S7.

The band diagram of the MoS_2 channel in the dark is presented in Figure 7a with Fermi level shifted toward conduction band for typically n-type doped MoS_2 . Because of the relatively large band gap of MoS_2 and high Schottky barriers at the metal electrode/ MoS_2 interfaces the concentration of free carriers is very low with thermally excited electrons and holes acting as majority and minority carriers, respectively. The relatively low sensitivity of the sensor in the dark can be explained by the presence of oxygen which traps the thermally excited electrons in MoS_2 channel leading to further reduction of the device current. Thus, most of electrons are blocked by oxygen from interacting with NO_2 molecules resulting in suppressed response to the analyte. As schematically illustrated in Figure 7b, under red light illumination the population of free electrons increases by several order of magnitude.

Part of this increase can be due to photogating^{46,49} when photoexcited holes are trapped at the $\text{MoS}_2/\text{SiO}_2$ interface, generating a spatial positive charge which shifts the Fermi level closer to the edge of conduction band, resulting in increasing

population of the thermally excited electrons. These extra electrons are not blocked by oxygen and available for interaction with NO_2 molecules because of the single-layer structure of MoS_2 when any charge carrier is at the surface. As discussed in the literature, NO_2 gas molecules absorbed on MoS_2 channel surface act as electron acceptors and capture the photoexcited electrons, thus leading to a decrease of current (photocurrent) in the channel.^{17,29}

Substitution of Au with graphene results in decreasing Schottky barrier height and improving current injection which leads to higher photocurrent. However, due to its high surface area to volume ratio, graphene provides a high density of binding sites for NO_2 gas molecules. It has been reported that the work function of single-layer graphene and the height of the Schottky barrier at $\text{MoS}_2/\text{graphene}$ interface can be affected by NO_2 exposure,^{54,55} which may lead to observed decreasing sensitivity of $\text{MoS}_2(\text{Gr})$ as compared to the other types of electrodes. In addition, trapping of NO_2 molecules on the high surface area graphene electrodes can be a cause of more slow recovery after the exposure than in the case of $\text{Au}/\text{Gr}-\text{MoS}_2-\text{Gr}/\text{Au}$ device as observed in Figure 6. The exposure of the contact layer to the analyte can also serve as an additional source of noise which can be eliminated in a case

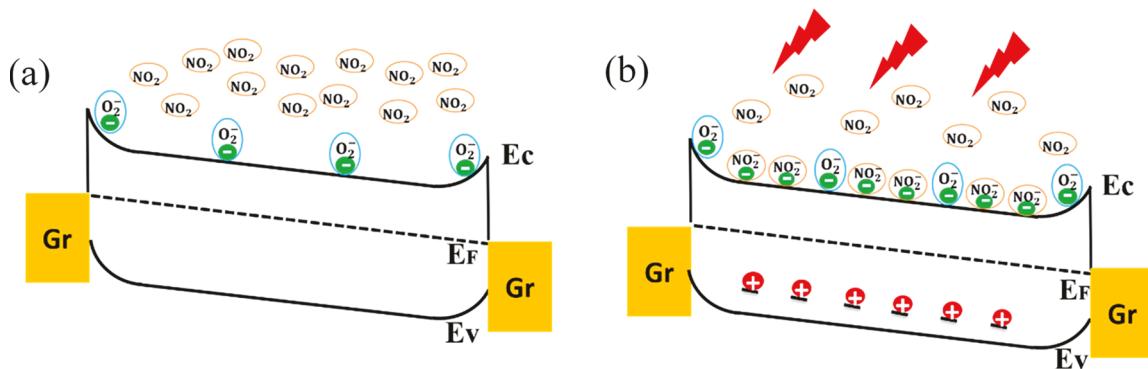


Figure 7. Band diagram of the device showing interaction of conduction band electrons in MoS₂ with NO₂ gas molecules (a) in the dark and (b) under red light illumination.

Table 2. Comparison between Reports on MoS₂-Based NO₂ Gas Sensors and Present Work

material	temperature	minimum concentration tested	detection limit (calculation)	sensitivity, %/ppm	ref
MoS ₂	RT	100 ppm	20 ppm	1.37/ppm	16
MoS ₂	RT	20 ppb	10 ppb	194/ppm	17
MoS ₂	RT	120 ppb	25 ppb	90/ppm	19
Gr/MoS ₂	150 °C	1.2 ppm	1.2 ppm	3/ppm	20
MoS ₂	RT (UV)	5 ppm	1–5 ppm	0.12/ppm	29
MoS ₂	100 °C	5 ppm	1–5 ppm	0.06/ppm	29
MoS ₂ /Gr	200 °C	50 ppb	14 ppb	18/ppm	30
3D MoS ₂	200 °C	50 ppb	28 ppb	20/ppm	31
MoS ₂ nanowire	60 °C	1 ppm	4.6 ppb	2.65/ppm	34
PtNPs/MoS ₂	RT	0.5 ppm	2 ppb	11/ppm	56
MoS ₂	100 °C	25 ppb	2 ppb	0.18/ppm	57
MoS ₂	RT (red light)	25 ppb	0.1 ppb	3.3/ppb (3300/ppm)	this work

of graphene electrode protected from NO₂ exposure by Au layer.

As discussed above, the encapsulation of graphene electrodes with Au layer affects the work function of graphene resulting in increasing Schottky barrier height and decreasing photocurrent. On the other hand, it protects the device from the negative effects originated from interaction of graphene electrodes with NO₂ molecules such as decreasing sensitivity due to modulation of work function and a slow sensor recovery. The encapsulation of graphene may also improve the long-term stability of the optoelectronic gas sensor which will be evaluated in our future studies.

Table 2 summarizes state of the art parameters reported in literature for MoS₂-based NO₂ gas sensors.^{16,17,19,20,29–31,34,56,57} The optoelectronic MoS₂ sensor operating under red LED light illumination presented in this work shows the highest reported sensitivity to low dosage of NO₂ gas because the photocurrent is used to enhance the sensor response. The calculations following IUPAC defined procedure gave extremely low detection limit in sub-ppb range (0.1 ppb) well suited to U.S. EPA needs for NO₂ sensing at ppb level.

CONCLUSION

Red LED illumination with photon energy matching the direct band gap of the single-layer MoS₂ allowed to use induced photocurrent instead of dark current as a tool for NO₂ gas sensing. The resulted sensor showed extremely high sensitivity to ppb level NO₂ gas exposure up to 3.3%/ppb (3300%/ppm) and sub-ppb limit of NO₂ gas detection at the 0.1 ppb level. The presented concept of enhancing gas sensing performance

by inducing a photocurrent can be expanded on different analytes and employ other 2D TMD materials by matching the photon energies to the specific band gaps.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

MoS₂ Growth. MoS₂ films were grown by a CVD method using sulfur and molybdenum trioxide (MoO₃) powders as the precursors and sapphire as the substrate. The growth was carried out in a two-zone tube furnace in 50 sccm of argon under ambient pressure. Temperature at the center of the furnace, where the substrate was positioned above MoO₃ powder, was increased to 650 °C at a ramp rate of 25 °C min⁻¹. Sulfur was introduced to the system by evaporation using a heating jacket at 170 °C as soon as the furnace was turned on. The temperature remained constant at 650 °C for 10 min to complete the growth after the furnace and the heating jacket were turned off, and the system was naturally cooled to room temperature.

Graphene Growth. We employ the method reported in our recent publication to produce continuous graphene film.⁵⁸ In brief, a 2 × 5 cm² piece of polycrystalline copper foil was used as the growth substrate. The copper foil was annealed 1030 °C in the presence of H₂ (10 sccm) and argon (300 sccm) for 2 h in 1 in. quartz tube furnace. Diluted CH₄ in argon (90 ppm) was introduced for 1 h at a flow rate of 375 sccm while H₂ flow remained unchanged. The system was then cooled to room temperature under H₂ (10 sccm) and argon (300 sccm).

Device Preparation. *Au–MoS₂–Au Device.* After the growth, MoS₂ on sapphire is spin-coated with polystyrene (PS). (PS/MoS₂) film was delaminated in deionized (DI) water and washed several times with DI water to remove remaining residues. The floating PS/MoS₂ was transferred on a SiO₂(300 nm)/Si, and PS coating was dissolved by immersing the chip in toluene solution at room temperature. Cr/Au electrodes (5 nm/50 nm) were patterned and deposited using standard photolithography procedures and electron-

beam metal deposition. The lateral dimensions of MoS_2 channel of 10 μm by 10 μm are defined by the interelectrode spacing and the electrodes width, both of 10 μm . No additional patterning of MoS_2 channel was required due to high MoS_2 layer sheet resistance as the only area between the electrodes is contributing to the device dark- or photocurrents.

Gr– MoS_2 –Gr Device. Figures S6a,b presents optical images of the MoS_2 optoelectronic gas sensor with two patterned graphene electrodes of width of 10 μm and separated by 10 μm . Graphene electrodes were fabricated directly on graphene/copper foil using standard photolithography. The unwanted graphene area was removed using reactive ion etching (O_2 plasma). Graphene electrodes were isolated from the copper foil via a common wet transfer technique supported by PMMA film and using 0.2 M APS solution as copper etching solution. The floating PMMA/graphene electrodes film was washed multiple times with DI water to remove any residue. This PMMA/graphene electrode film was transferred onto a MoS_2 film prepared on Si/SiO_2 substrate. The PMMA layer was then removed in acetone at 60 °C. A small areas of 5 nm/50 nm thick Cr/Au were deposited as electrical contacts using electron-beam metal deposition. Raman spectrum of graphene (Figure S6c) showed strong G peak at 1590 cm^{-1} and 2D peak at 2680 cm^{-1} as compared to very weak D peak at 1350 cm^{-1} , confirming the high quality of graphene and preservation of its properties after the transfer and lithographic electrode patterning.

Au/Gr– MoS_2 –Gr/Au Device. For this device structure, another step of photolithography is required to create an overlapping pattern on the existing graphene electrodes. A 5 nm/50 nm thick Cr/Au layer was deposited on top of graphene electrodes using electron-beam metal deposition. For all three structures, a final step of annealing at 200 °C in 15 sccm H_2 and 300 sccm argon was required to remove remaining residues and improve the contact between layers.

Material and Device Characterization. Raman and PL spectra were collected on Horiba LabRam system using a green laser with wavelength of 532 nm and 100× objective (NA = 0.9). The power of the laser beam was fixed at 5 mW to avoid local heating of the materials. Optical image was taken with Hirox KH-7700 digital microscope. SEM imaging was conducted utilizing Zeiss 1540 XB Crossbeam scanning electron microscope.

Electrical and Photoconductivity Measurements and NO_2 Sensing Experiments. The current–voltage (I – V) measurement in the dark and under the light were conducted utilizing a Keithley 236 source-measure unit. The instruments control and data acquisition for all the measurements were conducted utilizing Labview hardware and software. For photoconductivity and gas sensing measurements the red LED (model L10762, Hamamatsu Photonics) with the central wavelength of 660 nm was integrated with the gas sensing mini-chamber. The LED power density was modulated utilizing a function generator DS360 (Stanford Research Systems), and the light intensity on the device was calibrated using silicon photodetector. The frequency dependencies of the photoresponse were studied using a lock-in amplifier (SRS 830, Stanford Research Systems) with the dc bias of 5 V supplied by Keithley 236 source-measure unit, and the circuit including load resistance of 100 k Ω .

For gas sensing experiments, the concentrations of NO_2 gas was regulated by two Alicat Scientific mass flow controllers: one controlling the flow of 99.99% pure N_2 gas and the other controlling the flow of 10 ppm of NO_2 in N_2 . The target NO_2 concentration for detection of 25, 50, 100, 150, and 200 ppb were achieved by mixing NO_2 flow with N_2 flow at ratios of 1:399, 2:398, 4:396, 6:394, and 8:392, respectively, while the total flow rate to the sensing chamber remained constant at 400 sccm.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: [10.1021/acsnano.8b08778](https://doi.org/10.1021/acsnano.8b08778).

Figures S1–S7 show electrical characteristics of the sensors, the dynamics of the sensors' resistance response

toward NO_2 gas exposure for the sensors with gold and graphene electrodes in the dark and under red light illumination, the optical imaging of the device and characterization of graphene electrodes, and long-term stability data (PDF)

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Notes

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