

1 FRONT MATTER

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3 **Title**

4 Spin Photovoltaic Effect in Magnetic van der Waals Heterostructures

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29 **One Sentence Summary**

31 2D magnet CrI<sub>3</sub> exhibits an emergent interplay between spin photocurrent and the  
32 underlying excitons, magnetic order, photon energy and helicity.

33

34 **Abstract**

36 The development of van der Waals (vdW) crystals and their heterostructures has created a  
37 fascinating platform for exploring optoelectronic properties in the two-dimensional (2D)  
38 limit. With the recent discovery of 2D magnets, the control of the spin degree of freedom  
39 can be integrated to realize 2D spin-optoelectronics with spontaneous time-reversal  
40 symmetry breaking. Here, we report spin photovoltaic effects in vdW heterostructures of  
41 atomically thin magnet chromium triiodide (CrI<sub>3</sub>) sandwiched by graphene contacts. In the  
42 absence of a magnetic field, the photocurrent displays a distinct dependence on light  
43 helicity, which can be tuned by varying the magnetic states and photon energy. Circular  
44 polarization-resolved absorption measurements reveal that these observations originate  
45 from magnetic-order-coupled and thus helicity-dependent charge-transfer exciton states.  
46 The photocurrent displays multiple plateaus as the magnetic field is swept, which are

47 associated with different spin configurations enabled by the layered antiferromagnetism  
48 and spin-flip transitions in CrI<sub>3</sub>. Remarkably, giant photo-magnetocurrent is observed,  
49 which tends to infinity for a small applied bias. Our results pave the way to explore  
50 emergent photo-spintronics by engineering magnetic vdW heterostructures.  
51

## 52 MAIN TEXT

### 53 Introduction

54 Spintronics aims at manipulating the spin degree of freedom in electronic systems for  
55 novel functionalities (1). In optoelectronics, the generation and control of spins can open  
56 up emerging opportunities for spin-optoelectronics, enabling the exploration of new spin  
57 photovoltaic effects and spin photocurrents. In various magnetic heterostructures, spin  
58 photovoltaic effects can be realized by different mechanisms. For instance, a spin voltage  
59 arises from spin-dependent excitation at the interface of a nonmagnetic metal in close  
60 proximity to a magnetic insulator (2). In spin valves and magnetic p-n junctions, spin  
61 injection and accumulation can be induced by the spin-dependent injection process of the  
62 photogenerated carriers at the interfaces with ferromagnetic contacts (3-6). Alternatively,  
63 in materials without intrinsic magnetic order, circularly polarized light can generate spin  
64 photocurrents via the circular photogalvanic effect (7-10). Among these materials and  
65 heterostructures, two-dimensional (2D) materials, in particular transition metal  
66 dichalcogenides (TMDs), have established themselves as a promising system for spin-  
67 optoelectronics due to their spin-valley dependent properties and enhanced  
68 photoresponsivity from strong excitonic effects (9-17).  
69

70 The recent discovery of 2D vdW magnets provides a new platform for spin photovoltaic  
71 effects based on atomically thin materials with intrinsic magnetic order (18-21). Among  
72 these magnets, chromium triiodide (CrI<sub>3</sub>) is particularly interesting because of its layered  
73 antiferromagnetism (AFM), where the ferromagnetic monolayers with out-of-plane  
74 magnetizations are antiferromagnetically coupled to each other, as shown in Fig. 1A. The  
75 spin configurations can be manipulated by an external magnetic field which switches the  
76 sample between the AFM ground states and the fully spin-polarized states via a series of  
77 spin-flip transitions (18). Multiple magnetic states become accessible as the number of  
78 CrI<sub>3</sub> layers increases (22), possibly enabling multiple states of the resulting spin  
79 photocurrent, defined as a photocurrent controlled by the spin degree of freedom.  
80 Moreover, given the reported strong magneto-optical and excitonic effects (23, 24),  
81 atomically thin CrI<sub>3</sub> should provide an ideal platform to explore spin-optoelectronic  
82 effects in the atomically thin limit (21).  
83

### 84 Results

#### 85 Photocurrent response of CrI<sub>3</sub> junction device

86 To investigate photocurrent response from CrI<sub>3</sub>, a vertical heterostructure was fabricated  
87 for efficient photodetection. All measurements were carried out at a temperature of 2 K  
88 with a magnetic field in the out-of-plane direction and a linearly polarized laser excitation,  
89 unless otherwise specified. As shown in Fig. 1A, the heterostructure consists of an  
90 atomically thin CrI<sub>3</sub> flake sandwiched by two graphene sheets as bias electrodes,  
91 encapsulated by thin hexagonal boron nitride (hBN) to avoid degradation (see Methods).  
92

Such a structure is essentially the same as a magnetic tunnel junction (MTJ), which has been used to realize large tunneling magnetoresistance via the spin-filtering effect enabled by the layered antiferromagnetism in CrI<sub>3</sub> (22, 25-27). Using a four-layer CrI<sub>3</sub> device (D2) as an example, without optical illumination, the current-bias characteristics (*I*-*V* curves) of the device behave as a typical tunnel junction. The tunneling current is suppressed in the low bias regime and dominated by Fowler-Nordheim tunneling at high bias (22, 25-27) (black curve, Fig. 1B).

Compared to the dark condition case, a substantial enhancement of the current is observed with photoexcitation of carriers in the low bias regime. The red curve in Fig. 1B is obtained with 1.96 eV (632.8 nm) laser excitation focused to a ~1  $\mu$ m spot size at normal incidence, with an optical power of 1  $\mu$ W. This carrier collection process is highly efficient in the vertical junction structure of atomically thin CrI<sub>3</sub>, due to the reduced requirement of the carrier diffusion length. At zero bias, a net photocurrent  $I_{ph}$  is also generated (inset, Fig. 1B). This zero bias photocurrent can be attributed to the asymmetric potential of the junction (11, 12), which could originate from the potential difference between the top and bottom graphene/CrI<sub>3</sub> interfaces. Applying a bias voltage induces an external electric field, which can modulate the magnitude as well as reverse the direction of the photocurrent. When the applied bias compensates the built-in electric field such that the net current is zero, the system becomes equivalent to an open circuit, allowing us to measure the photogenerated open-circuit voltage ( $V_{oc}$ ).

We investigate the spatial distribution of the photocurrent by employing scanning photocurrent microscopy. Figure 1D shows the optical microscopy image of a trilayer CrI<sub>3</sub> device (D1), which has a large junction area, with the corresponding photocurrent map taken at zero bias, shown in Fig. 1E. We also employ reflective magnetic circular dichroism (RMCD) microscopy to map out the trilayer CrI<sub>3</sub> flake shown in Fig. 1F. The RMCD measures the out-of-plane magnetization of the device at zero field, which is defined as  $(R_{RCP} - R_{LCP})/(R_{RCP} + R_{LCP})/2$ , where  $R_{RCP}$  ( $R_{LCP}$ ) represents reflection amplitude for right (left) circularly polarized light (see Methods). By comparing the photocurrent map with the microscopy image and the RMCD map, the photoactive region can be identified at the junction region where the top and bottom graphene electrodes overlap.

Figure 1C shows the photon energy dependence of the photocurrent.  $I_{ph}$  increases sharply when the photon energy exceeds 1.7 eV. By comparison to the differential reflectance ( $\Delta R/R$ ) measurement of a trilayer CrI<sub>3</sub> on a sapphire substrate (see Methods), we attribute the strong photocurrent response to the optical excitation of ligand-to-metal charge-transfer excitons (23, 24). We do not observe photocurrent enhancement corresponding to the excitation of the lower energy exciton at 1.5 eV. This is possibly due to its larger binding energy and more localized nature than the charge transfer excitons (24). Notably, the photoresponsivity reaches 10 mA W<sup>-1</sup>, which is already comparable to that achieved in the devices based on TMD semiconductors under similar conditions (11, 12) (the photocurrent map in Supplementary Fig. S1 shows the photoresponsivity reaches 10 mA W<sup>-1</sup>, and Supplementary Fig. S2 shows the laser excitation power dependence of photocurrent).

## 136 Magnetic order dependence of photocurrent

137 The photocurrent response has a strong dependence on the magnetic order. Figure 2A  
138 shows zero bias  $I_{ph}$  as a function of the external magnetic field ( $\mu_0H$ ) in a four-layer CrI<sub>3</sub>  
139 with an optical power of 1  $\mu$ W. As  $\mu_0H$  is swept,  $I_{ph}$  exhibits several sharp transitions and  
140 multiple plateaus. Figure 2B shows RMCD signal with the corresponding magnetic states  
141 labeled, as identified in the previous studies (22, 28). For simplicity, only the positive  
142 magnetic field side is shown. The full field data with magnetic states assignment can be  
143 found in Supplementary Fig. S3. Comparison of Fig. 2, A and B shows that the multiple  
144 photocurrent plateaus are associated with the distinct magnetic states. The low and high  
145 photocurrent plateaus at low and high fields can be assigned to the AFM ground states and  
146 fully spin-polarized states, respectively.

147 Interestingly, the intermediate magnetic states (either  $\uparrow\downarrow\uparrow\uparrow$  or  $\uparrow\uparrow\downarrow\uparrow$ ) result in a lower  
148 photocurrent than the AFM ground states. This non-monotonic photocurrent response to  
149 the magnetic states is distinct from the monotonic increase of the tunneling conductance  
150 due to the spin-filtering effect (22, 29). As a comparison, Fig. 2C shows the tunneling  
151 current of the same device measured as a function of  $\mu_0H$  at 80 mV bias under dark  
152 condition. In sharp contrast to  $I_{ph}$ , the tunneling current increases monotonically and  
153 dramatically as the spins in each layer are aligned from  $\uparrow\downarrow\uparrow\downarrow$  to  $\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$ , because the  
154 current-blocking antiparallel interfaces are removed. Note that the tunneling current varies  
155 by two orders of magnitude for different magnetic states (22, 25-27), while there is only a  
156 two-fold difference in the photocurrent. For tunneling under dark condition, the electron  
157 energy is below the CrI<sub>3</sub> conduction bands. In contrast, the optical excitation generates  
158 photoexcited carriers in the conduction bands, and their asymmetric extraction by the top  
159 and bottom graphene electrodes results in the measured photocurrent. The spin  
160 configurations of CrI<sub>3</sub> determine the layer distribution of the wavefunction of photoexcited  
161 carriers, through which the extraction efficiencies at the top and bottom electrodes can be  
162 affected, accounting for the non-monotonic magnetic state dependence of photocurrent  
163 (11, 12, 30, 31) (see Supplementary Text S1). Note that the determination of precise  
164 magnetic-state-dependent band alignment between graphene and CrI<sub>3</sub> will require future  
165 theoretical and experimental efforts.

166 In analogy to giant magnetoresistance and tunnel magnetoresistance (1, 32-35), which are  
167 of great importance for spintronics, our spin-optoelectronic device exhibits a novel photo-  
168 magnetocurrent effect (3). Figure 2D shows the  $I_{ph}$ - $V$  curves corresponding to the AFM  
169 ground state (0 T, black curve) and fully spin-polarized state (2.5 T, red curve),  
170 respectively. For the short-circuit condition, the fully spin-polarized state generates a  
171 higher photocurrent, whereas the AFM ground state gives a larger open-circuit voltage  
172 magnitude. To quantify this magnetic state dependence, we define the photo-  
173 magnetocurrent ratio as  $MC_{ph} = (I_{ph}^p - I_{ph}^{ap})/I_{ph}^{ap}$ , where  $I_{ph}^p$  and  $I_{ph}^{ap}$  are the photocurrents  
174 corresponding to the fully spin-polarized state (parallel) and AFM ground state  
175 (antiparallel). Figure 2E shows the absolute value of  $MC_{ph}$  as a function of bias extracted  
176 from the  $I_{ph}$ - $V$  curves in Fig. 2D. Remarkably, a giant  $MC_{ph}$  is observed within a range of  
177 bias voltage indicated by the red shading. This can be attributed to the magnetic-state-  
178 dependent open-circuit voltage, where at certain bias  $I_{ph}^{ap}$  goes to zero while  $I_{ph}^p$  is still  
179 finite, leading to a giant  $MC_{ph}$  ratio tending to infinity (3). This demonstrates a proof-of-  
180 concept photo-modulated magnetocurrent effect. We further investigate the excitation  
181 power dependence of the photo-magnetocurrent effect (see Supplementary Fig. S4), which  
182 demonstrates optical control of the photo-magnetocurrent effect with high sensitivity to

183 excitation power. Achieving such a giant and tunable photo-magnetocurrent could be  
184 useful for optically driven magnetic sensing and data storage technologies.

185 **Dependence of photocurrent on light helicity**

186 The broken time-reversal symmetry of our system should also enable a light helicity  
187 dependence of the spin photocurrent. Here, we use the trilayer CrI<sub>3</sub> device (D1) with 1.96  
188 eV excitation as an example. The magnetization is set in the fully spin-polarized state,  
189 either  $\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$  (2 T) or  $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow$  (-2 T). As the light helicity is switched between  $\sigma^+$  and  $\sigma^-$ , the  
190 photocurrent exhibits a clear circular polarization dependence. As shown in Fig. 3A, the  
191  $\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$  state (red dots) gives a higher photocurrent for photon helicity  $\sigma^-$  (135°) than  $\sigma^+$   
192 (45°). In contrast, the  $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow$  state (black dots) exhibits the exact opposite helicity  
193 dependence, consistent with the time-reversal operation that connects the two fully spin-  
194 polarized states.

195 We define the difference of photocurrent between  $\sigma^+$  and  $\sigma^-$  excitation as  $\Delta I_{\text{ph}} [\sigma^+ - \sigma^-] =$   
196  $I_{\text{ph}}(\sigma^+) - I_{\text{ph}}(\sigma^-)$ . The degree of helicity is then denoted by  $\Delta I_{\text{ph}} [\sigma^+ - \sigma^-] / (I_{\text{ph}}(\sigma^+) + I_{\text{ph}}(\sigma^-))$ . To  
197 fully understand the interplay between the helicity-dependent photocurrent and the  
198 underlying magnetic order, we measure  $\Delta I_{\text{ph}} [\sigma^+ - \sigma^-]$  and the degree of helicity as a  
199 function of  $\mu_0 H$  shown in Fig. 3B (see Methods). Four distinct plateaus are observed,  
200 which behave essentially the same as the RMCD signal versus  $\mu_0 H$  measured from the  
201 same device with the same 1.96 eV laser (Fig. 3C). We can thus assign the corresponding  
202 magnetic states to each  $\Delta I_{\text{ph}} [\sigma^+ - \sigma^-]$  plateau. There is notable magnetic hysteresis of  $\Delta I_{\text{ph}}$   
203  $[\sigma^+ - \sigma^-]$  centered at zero field due to switching between the  $\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$  and  $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow$  AFM coupled  
204 ground states. In addition, the four-layer CrI<sub>3</sub> device (D2) shows a similar magnetic-state-  
205 coupled helicity dependence of the photocurrent (Supplementary Fig. S3).

206 **Optical selection rules of magnetic-order-coupled charge-transfer excitons**

207 We find that this unique spin photovoltaic effect originates from the helicity dependence  
208 of charge-transfer excitons in CrI<sub>3</sub>, which couple to the underlying magnetic order. Figure  
209 4A shows circular polarization-resolved differential reflectance ( $\Delta R/R$ ) measurements of a  
210 trilayer CrI<sub>3</sub> on a sapphire substrate. Data from all four magnetic states,  $\{\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$  (2 T),  $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow$   
211 (-2 T),  $\uparrow\downarrow\uparrow$  (0 T),  $\downarrow\uparrow\downarrow$  (0 T) $\}$ , are shown. Evidently, the  $\sigma^+/\sigma^-$  (red/blue dots) absorption  
212 peaks split in both energy and intensity, and are determined by the magnetic state. This  
213 observation is consistent with the magnetic-order-coupled charge-transfer excitons  
214 calculated by the many-body perturbation theory (24). The helicity-dependent absorption  
215 reveals the optical selection rules of the charge-transfer transitions between the spin-  
216 polarized valence and conduction bands (24, 36), and thus result in the observed helicity-  
217 dependent spin photovoltaic effect.

218 Starting with the  $\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$  state, the 1.96 eV (632.8 nm) excitation indicated by the red dashed  
219 line is near the resonance of the  $\sigma^-$  polarized charge-transfer exciton, while the  $\sigma^+$   
220 resonance is at 2.07 eV, about 110 meV higher. The stronger absorption for  $\sigma^-$  than  $\sigma^+$   
221 results in higher photocurrent for the  $\sigma^-$  excitation vs  $\sigma^+$ , as shown in Fig. 3A. For the  $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow$   
222 state, the absorption peaks are switched between  $\sigma^+$  and  $\sigma^-$  compared to the  $\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$  state,  
223 which agrees with the opposite helicity dependence of the  $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow$  state photocurrent (Fig.  
224 3A). The magnetic ground states at zero magnetic field,  $\uparrow\downarrow\uparrow$  and  $\downarrow\uparrow\downarrow$ , also give notable

225 but opposite splitting between the  $\sigma^+$  and  $\sigma^-$  absorption peaks, due to their opposite net  
226 magnetizations. This splitting between  $\sigma^+$  and  $\sigma^-$  vanishes above the critical temperature of  
227 trilayer CrI<sub>3</sub> (Supplementary Fig. S5). Note that for even number layers, the vanishing net  
228 magnetization at the AFM ground states leads to vanishing helicity dependence of the  
229 charge transfer excitons (see Supplementary Fig. S6 for the  $\Delta R/R$  measurement of a six-  
230 layer CrI<sub>3</sub> on a sapphire substrate). All these observations confirm the underlying  
231 magnetic order as the origin of the helicity dependence of the charge-transfer excitons.

232 The circularly polarized optical selection rules of charge-transfer excitons also enable the  
233 control of photocurrent helicity dependence by tuning the optical excitation energy. We  
234 choose three selected photon energies, indicated by the dashed lines in Fig. 4A for the  
235 magnetic state  $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow$  panel. These three energies represent stronger  $\sigma^+$  absorption than  $\sigma^-$   
236 (1.88 eV), nearly equal absorption (2.01 eV), and stronger  $\sigma^-$  absorption than  $\sigma^+$  (2.13 eV),  
237 respectively. Figure 4B shows the corresponding helicity-dependent photocurrent at these  
238 photon energies. For the  $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow$  state, the  $\sigma^+$  excitation at 1.88 eV gives a higher  
239 photocurrent than  $\sigma^-$  excitation, and this scenario is reversed for 2.13 eV excitation. The  
240 helicity dependence nearly vanishes for the 2.01 eV excitation, consistent with the  
241 observed equal absorption of  $\sigma^+$  and  $\sigma^-$  polarized light. Figure 4C shows  $\Delta I_{\text{ph}} [\sigma^+ - \sigma^-]$  at  
242 several photon energies. Clearly, the helicity dependence exhibits a change in sign around  
243 2.01 eV. This  $\Delta I_{\text{ph}} [\sigma^+ - \sigma^-]$  as a function of photon energy matches well with the overlaid  
244  $\Delta R/R$  helicity difference ( $\Delta R/R(\sigma^+) - \Delta R/R(\sigma^-)$ ). As expected, the photocurrent behavior of  
245 the magnetic state  $\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$ , the red dots and curves in Fig. 4, B and C, is the time reversal of  
246  $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow$  state. The circular polarization-resolved absorption measurements reveals a strong  
247 correspondance between the photocurrent and RMCD measurements in Fig. 3. For a given  
248 magnetic state ( $\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$ ), the splitting between  $\sigma^+$  and  $\sigma^-$  in the  $\Delta R/R$  spectra leads to circular  
249 polarization dependent absorption and reflection for a fixed excitation energy, which  
250 results in the helicity dependent photocurrent and RMCD, respectively. As the photon  
251 energy is tuned, the  $\sigma^+/\sigma^-$  difference in the absorption can be switched, causing the  
252 photocurrent helicity dependence to also be reversed.

## 253 Discussion

255 We explore spin photovoltaic effects in atomically thin CrI<sub>3</sub> vdW heterostructures. The  
256 photocurrent exhibits distinct responses to the spin configurations in CrI<sub>3</sub>, together with a  
257 giant photo-magnetocurrent effect. The combination of our helicity-dependent  
258 photocurrent and circular polarization-resolved absorption measurements reveals the  
259 emergent interplay between the spin photocurrent and the underlying excitons, intrinsic  
260 magnetic order, photon energy and helicity. Our work demonstrates a proof-of-concept 2D  
261 spin-photovoltaic device incorporating the intrinsic magnetic order in few-layer CrI<sub>3</sub>. This  
262 study also establishes atomically thin CrI<sub>3</sub> as an archetypal 2D magnet for studying the  
263 photocurrent generation in a vertical junction device. This device structure can be adapted  
264 using other 2D magnets with varied magnetic order and coercive fields, such as CrBr<sub>3</sub>,  
265 CrCl<sub>3</sub>, CrSBr, and holds promise for potential applications in magnetic sensing and data  
266 storage. Furthermore, our results show that the generated photocurrent can probe the  
267 magnetic order in CrI<sub>3</sub> and exhibits distinct responses to photon energy and helicity, which  
268 originates from magnetic-order-coupled charge-transfer exciton states. This demonstrates  
269 the efficacy of photocurrent as a new means to probe magnetic order, charge-transfer  
270 exciton states, and magnetoexciton-photon coupling. This approach could be useful for

271 exploring other 2D magnetic systems, for instance, probing the zigzag-antiferromagnetic  
272 order coupled excitons in NiPS<sub>3</sub> (37-41) and the charge transfer process at the  $\alpha$ -  
273 RuCl<sub>3</sub>/graphene interfaces (42-45).

274 **Materials and Methods**

275  
276 **Device fabrication:** The monolayer/few-layer graphene and 15-25 nm hBN flakes were  
277 mechanically exfoliated onto either 285 nm or 90 nm SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrates and examined by  
278 optical and atomic force microscopy under ambient conditions. Only atomically clean and  
279 smooth flakes were used for making devices. V/Au (5/50 nm) metal electrodes were  
280 deposited onto a 285 nm SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate using standard electron beam lithography with  
281 a bilayer resist (A4 495 and A4 950 poly (methyl methacrylate) (PMMA)) and electron  
282 beam evaporation. CrI<sub>3</sub> crystals were exfoliated onto 90 nm SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrates in an inert  
283 gas glovebox with water and oxygen concentration less than 0.1 ppm. The CrI<sub>3</sub> flake  
284 thickness was identified by optical contrast with respect to the substrate using the  
285 established optical contrast model (18). The layer assembly was performed in the  
286 glovebox using a polymer-based dry transfer technique. The flakes were picked up  
287 sequentially: top hBN, top graphene contact, CrI<sub>3</sub>, bottom graphene contact, bottom hBN.  
288 The resulting stacks were then transferred and released on the pre-patterned electrodes. In  
289 the resulting heterostructure, the CrI<sub>3</sub> flake is fully encapsulated on both sides, and the  
290 top/bottom graphene flakes are connected to the pre-patterned electrodes. Finally, the  
291 polymer was dissolved in chloroform for less than one minute to minimize the sample  
292 exposure to ambient conditions.

293  
294 **Photocurrent measurement:** The photocurrent measurements were performed in a  
295 closed-cycle cryostat (attoDRY 2100) at a temperature of 2 K and an out-of-plane  
296 magnetic field up to 9 T. A 632.8 nm HeNe laser was focused to a  $\sim$ 1  $\mu$ m spot size at  
297 normal incidence to generate photocurrent. Figure 1A shows the schematic of CrI<sub>3</sub>  
298 junction devices. For DC measurement, a bias voltage ( $V$ ) was applied to the top graphene  
299 contact with the bottom contact grounded. The resulting photocurrent ( $I_{ph}$ ) or tunneling  
300 current ( $I_t$ ) was amplified and measured by a current preamplifier (DL Instruments; Model  
301 1211). For AC measurement, a standard lock-in technique was used to measure the change  
302 in photocurrent with Stanford Research Systems SR830. For the photon energy  
303 dependence measurement, a SolsTiS continuous-wave widely tunable laser was used to  
304 generate photocurrent. For the photon helicity dependence measurement, a motorized  
305 precision rotation mount was used to rotate an achromatic quarter-wave plate with respect  
to the linear polarized incident laser beam.

306  
307 **Optical measurements:** The reflective magnetic circular dichroism (RMCD) and Kerr  
308 rotation measurements were performed in two similar cryostats (attoDRY 2100 and  
309 Quantum Design OptiCool) under the same experimental conditions. A 632.8 nm HeNe  
310 laser was used to probe the device at normal incidence with a fixed power of 1  $\mu$ W. The  
311 AC lock-in measurement technique used to measure the RMCD and Kerr rotation signal  
312 closely follows the previous RMCD and magneto-optical Kerr effect (MOKE)  
313 measurements of the magnetic order in atomically-thin CrI<sub>3</sub> (18, 22). For the differential  
314 reflectance measurements, we spatially filtered a tungsten halogen lamp and focused the  
315 beam to a  $\sim$ 3  $\mu$ m spot size on the CrI<sub>3</sub>. The reflected light was deflected with a  
316 beamsplitter and detected by a spectrometer and a liquid-nitrogen-cooled charge-coupled  
317 device, which enabled signal measurement from 1.4 eV to 3 eV. To obtain the differential  
reflectance, we subtracted and normalized the CrI<sub>3</sub> reflectance by the reflectance of the

318 sapphire substrate. The absorbance of CrI<sub>3</sub> is proportional to the differential reflectance,  
319 which can be determined as  $\frac{1}{4}(n^2 - 1)\Delta R/R$  (23,46).

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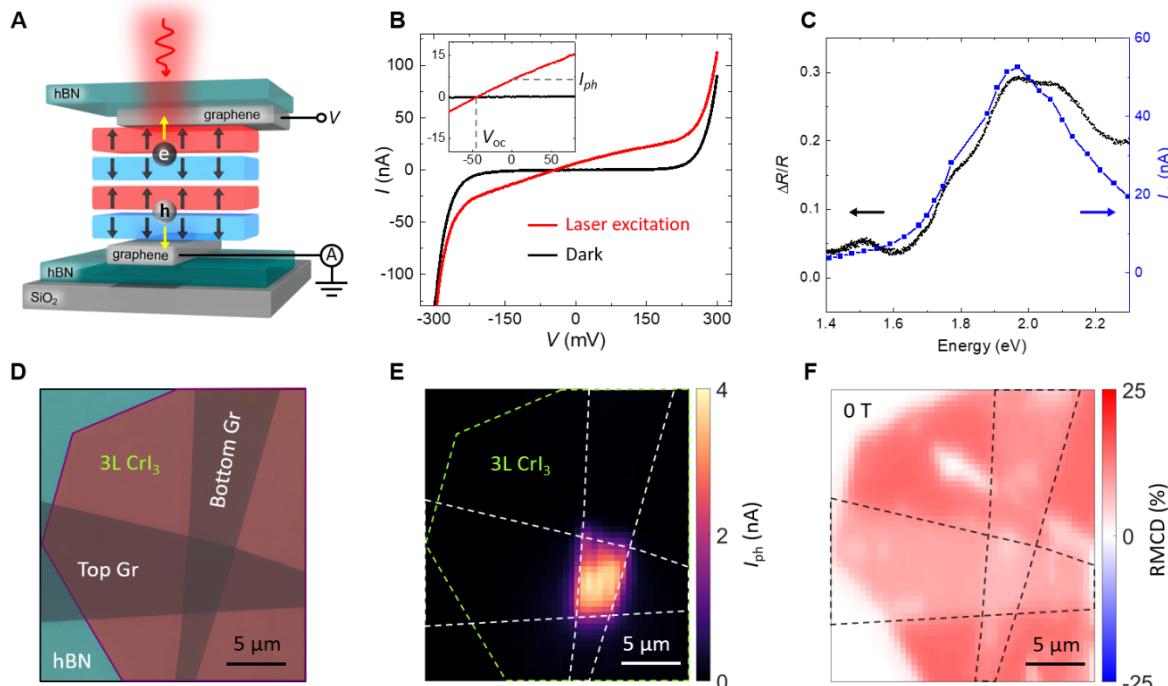
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 474 measurement. T.S., E.A., X.X. analyzed and interpreted the results. M.W.-Y.T. and W.Y.  
 475 provided theory support, with input from T.C. and D.X., and X.L.. T.T. and K.W.  
 476 synthesized the hBN crystals. M.A.M. synthesized and characterized the bulk  $\text{CrI}_3$  crystals.  
 477 T.S., E.A., X.X. wrote the paper with inputs from all the authors. All the authors discussed  
 478 the results.

479 **Competing interests:** The authors declare no competing interests.

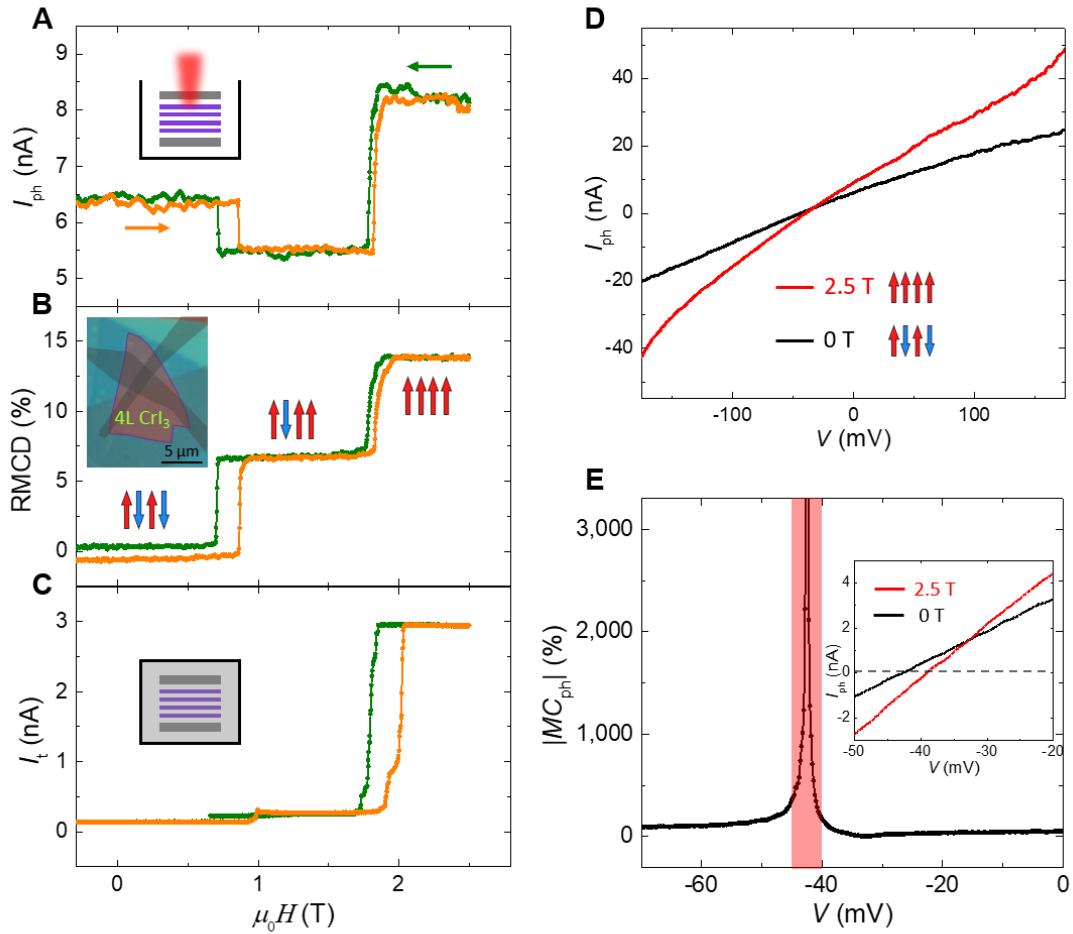
480  
 481 **Data availability:** All data needed to evaluate the conclusions in the paper are present in  
 482 the paper and/or the Supplementary Materials. Additional data related to this paper may be  
 483 requested from the authors.

484 **Figures and Tables**

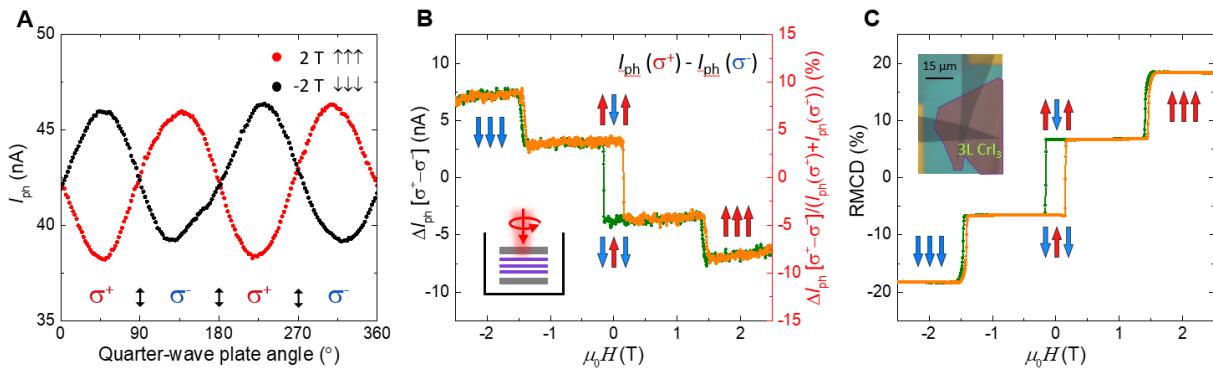


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 486 **Fig. 1. Photocurrent response of  $\text{CrI}_3$  junction device.** (A) Schematic of a four-layer  
 487  $\text{CrI}_3$  junction device in AFM ground state ( $\uparrow\downarrow\uparrow\downarrow$ ), with top and bottom graphene  
 488 contacts and hBN encapsulation. (B)  $I$ - $V$  curves of a four-layer  $\text{CrI}_3$  junction (D2)  
 489 under dark condition (black curve) and with 1  $\mu\text{W}$  of 1.96 eV laser excitation (red  
 490 curve). Inset is a zoomed-in view of generated photocurrent at zero bias  $I_{ph}$  and  
 491 open-circuit voltage  $V_{oc}$ . (C) Differential reflectance ( $\Delta R/R$ , black dots) and  
 492 photocurrent ( $I_{ph}$ , blue squares) as a function of photon energy for trilayer  $\text{CrI}_3$  at -  
 493 2 T. The photocurrent is measured from a trilayer  $\text{CrI}_3$  junction device (D1) with

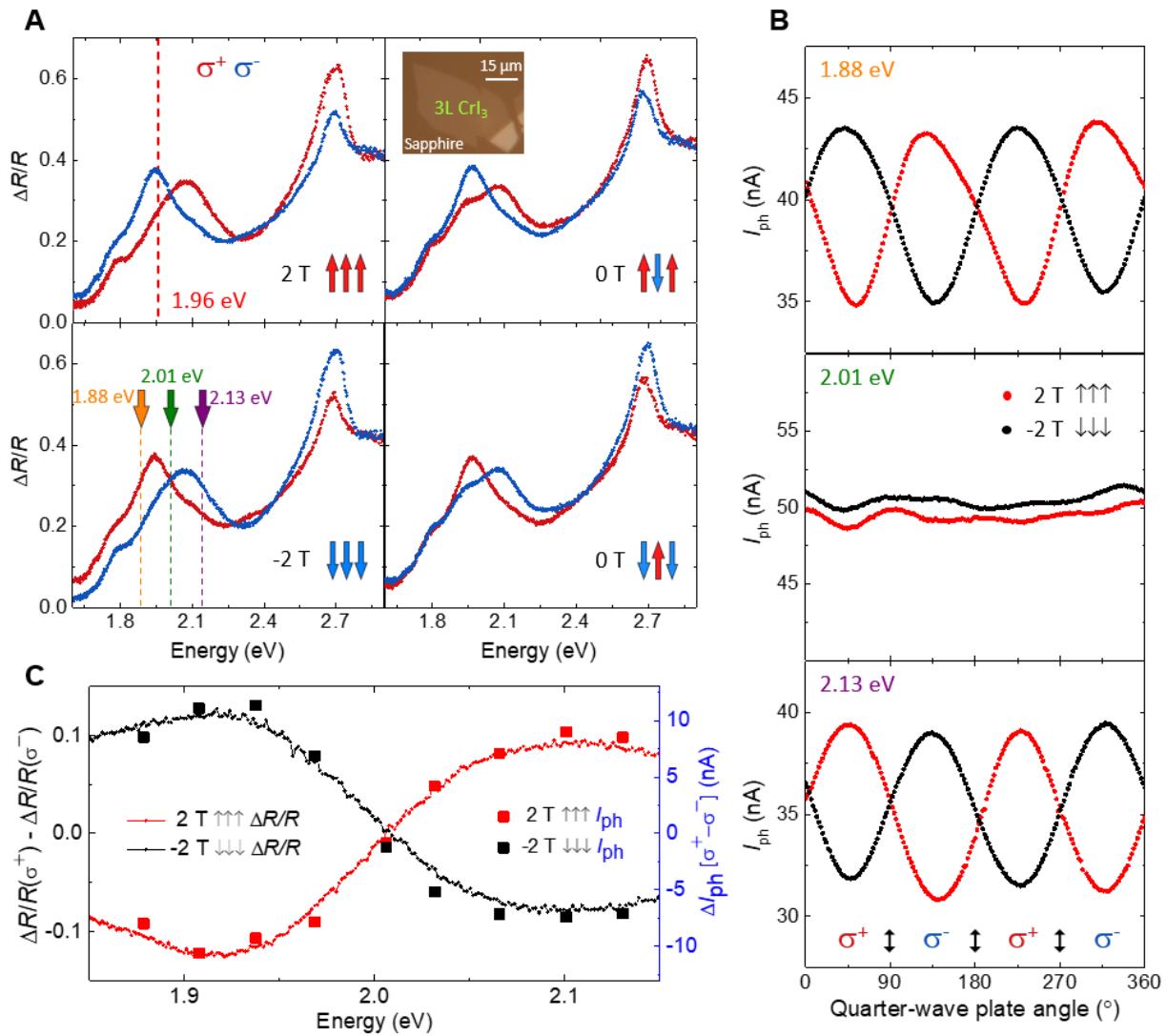
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an optical power of 10  $\mu$ W. (D) Optical microscopy image of the 3L CrI<sub>3</sub> junction  
device (D1) (scale bar, 5  $\mu$ m). (E) and (F) Spatial maps of photocurrent and  
RMCD signal measured from the same device at 0 T with an optical power of 1  
 $\mu$ W (scale bar, 5  $\mu$ m).



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**Fig. 2. Dependence of photocurrent on magnetic order of four-layer CrI<sub>3</sub>.** (A) Photocurrent as a function of external magnetic field ( $\mu_0 H$ ) measured from the four-layer CrI<sub>3</sub> junction device (D2) with an optical power of 1  $\mu$ W. Green (orange) curve corresponds to decreasing (increasing) magnetic field. (B) RMCD as a function of  $\mu_0 H$  for the same device. Insets show the corresponding magnetic states and the optical microscopy image of the device (D2). (C) Tunneling current ( $I_t$ ) as a function of  $\mu_0 H$  measured from the same device at 80 mV bias under dark condition. Insets are schematics of the device with laser excitation and under dark condition. (D)  $I_{ph}$ - $V$  curves for the four-layer CrI<sub>3</sub> in the AFM ground state ( $\uparrow\downarrow\uparrow\downarrow$ , 0 T, black curve) and the fully spin-polarized state ( $\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$ , 2.5 T, red curve). (E) Magnitude of the photo-magnetocurrent ratio as a function of bias extracted from the  $I_{ph}$ - $V$  curves in (D). The red shading denotes the bias range where  $|MC_{ph}|$  tends to infinity. Inset is a zoomed-in view of the  $I_{ph}$ - $V$  curves in (D).



512  
513 **Fig. 3. Helicity dependence of photocurrent in trilayer CrI<sub>3</sub>.** (A) Photocurrent as a  
514 function of quarter-wave plate angle for ↑↑↑ state (2 T, red dots) and ↓↓↓ state (-2  
515 T, black dots) measured from the trilayer CrI<sub>3</sub> junction device (D1) with an optical  
516 power of 10 μW. Vertical arrows represent linearly polarized light. (B) The change in  
517 photocurrent ( $\Delta I_{\text{ph}} [\sigma^+ - \sigma^-] = I_{\text{ph}}(\sigma^+) - I_{\text{ph}}(\sigma^-)$ ) as a function of  $\mu_0 H$  measured from  
518 the same device with an optical power of 10 μW. The degree of helicity  $\Delta I_{\text{ph}} [\sigma^+ - \sigma^-]$   
519  $]/(I_{\text{ph}}(\sigma^+) + I_{\text{ph}}(\sigma^-))$  given on right axis. Insets show the corresponding magnetic  
520 states and schematic of the device with circularly polarized light excitation. (C)  
521 RMCD as a function of  $\mu_0 H$  for the same device. Insets show the corresponding  
522 magnetic states and the optical microscopy image of the device (D1) (scale bar, 15  
523 μm).



524  
525 **Fig. 4. Interplay between magnetic order and photon helicity in absorption and**  
526 **photocurrent of 3L CrI<sub>3</sub>.** (A) Helicity-dependent  $\Delta R/R$  spectra for all four  
527 magnetic states of 3L CrI<sub>3</sub> at selected magnetic fields. Red (blue) dots correspond  
528 to  $\sigma^+$  ( $\sigma^-$ ) photon helicity. Insets show the corresponding magnetic states and the  
529 optical microscopy image of a trilayer CrI<sub>3</sub> on sapphire. (B) Photocurrent as a  
530 function of quarter-wave plate angle for  $\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$  state (2 T, red dots) and  $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow$  state (-2  
531 T, black dots) measured with three selected photon energies indicated by the  
532 dashed lines in (A). (C)  $\Delta R/R$  helicity difference ( $(\Delta R/R(\sigma^+) - \Delta R/R(\sigma^-))$ , curve) and  
533 the overlaid change in photocurrent ( $\Delta I_{\text{ph}} [\sigma^+ - \sigma^-] = I_{\text{ph}}(\sigma^+) - I_{\text{ph}}(\sigma^-)$ , squares) as a  
534 function of photon energy for  $\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$  state (2 T, red) and  $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow$  state (-2 T, black).