

Enhanced Photoresponse in Few-Layer SnS_2 Field-Effect Transistors Modified with Methylammonium Lead Iodide Perovskite

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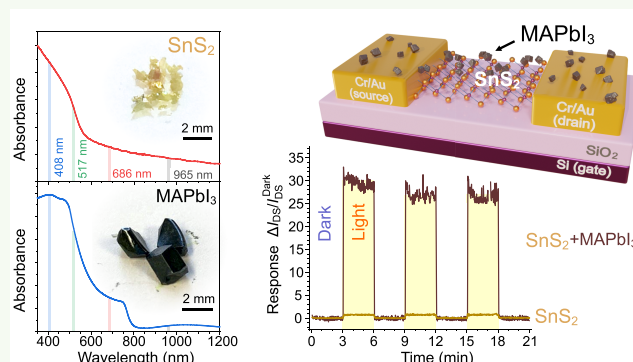
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ABSTRACT: We demonstrate that decoration with methylammonium lead iodide perovskite (MAPbI_3) nanoparticles is an efficient approach to engineer strong visible light photoresponse in electronic devices based on two-dimensional (2D) materials with limited optical absorptivity. This approach was demonstrated using 2D SnS_2 , a promising electronic material with a band gap of about 2.3 eV and poor absorption in the visible range of spectrum. Field-effect transistors based on pristine 2D SnS_2 show an n-type transport with high on–off ratios. Decoration with isolated MAPbI_3 nanoparticles qualitatively retains the transfer characteristics of the devices but dramatically increases their photoresponse in the entire visible range of the spectrum. In particular, the photoresponse of the MAPbI_3 -decorated devices to the red light is entirely engineered by the perovskite modification of SnS_2 , which by itself does not absorb in the red region of the spectrum. The MAPbI_3 -decorated SnS_2 devices exhibit stable, reproducible photoswitching over numerous cycles with response times of no longer than 12 ms. An analysis of a MAPbI_3 – SnS_2 heterostructure by Kelvin probe force microscopy resulted in an energy level diagram suggesting a transfer of the photoexcited electrons in MAPbI_3 to the conduction band of the n-type SnS_2 channel. The photoresponse characteristics of the perovskite-modified SnS_2 devices were shown to be consistent with the intrinsic optical properties of MAPbI_3 . The described perovskite decoration approach should be applicable to engineering photoresponse in a variety of other devices based on 2D electronic materials with low optical absorptivity.

KEYWORDS: 2D materials, tin disulfide, methylammonium lead iodide, heterostructure, photoresponse, Kelvin probe force microscopy



Over the past decade, two-dimensional (2D) crystals and hybrid halide perovskites have been two of the most actively researched classes of materials, especially for electronic and optoelectronic applications.^{1–3} In recent studies, it has been shown that some of the complementary properties of these materials can be utilized in heterostructural devices with enhanced properties.^{4–17} For example, heterostructures of 2D materials and hybrid perovskites offer many advantages for visible-range photodetectors.^{4–15} On one hand, 2D materials offer a great diversity of electronic properties and can be conveniently patterned into planar device structures. On the other hand, a perovskite layer deposited on a device channel can provide high visible light absorptivity and long electron–hole diffusion lengths,³ enhancing the light–matter interactions. In previous studies, it was shown that hybrid halide perovskite layers enhance photoresponses in devices based on 2D transition-metal chalcogenides (TMCs), such as MoS_2 , WS_2 , and WSe_2 .^{4–15} However, these materials have electronic band gaps in the near-infrared region and could exhibit visible light photoresponse without a perovskite overlayer, which was exploited in numerous studies.^{1,18,19} In this work, we extend

the idea of perovskite decoration to 2D electronic materials with larger band gaps that do not absorb light through most of the visible range of spectrum and thus would not be naturally considered for optical photodetectors.

Tin disulfide (SnS_2) is an example of a 2D material with a limited light absorptivity in the visible range of spectrum due to the band gap of about 2.3 eV.^{20–22} SnS_2 has a layered CdI_2 -type crystal structure²⁰ (space group $P3m1$) that is shown in Figure 1a.²³ High-quality SnS_2 crystals can be conveniently grown by a direct reaction between metallic tin and sulfur vapor at about 700 °C; see the detailed description of the synthesis of SnS_2 in the Supporting Information. A representative Raman spectrum of a few-layer SnS_2 shows the out-of-plane A_{1g} vibrational mode at 314.3 cm^{-1} , which is

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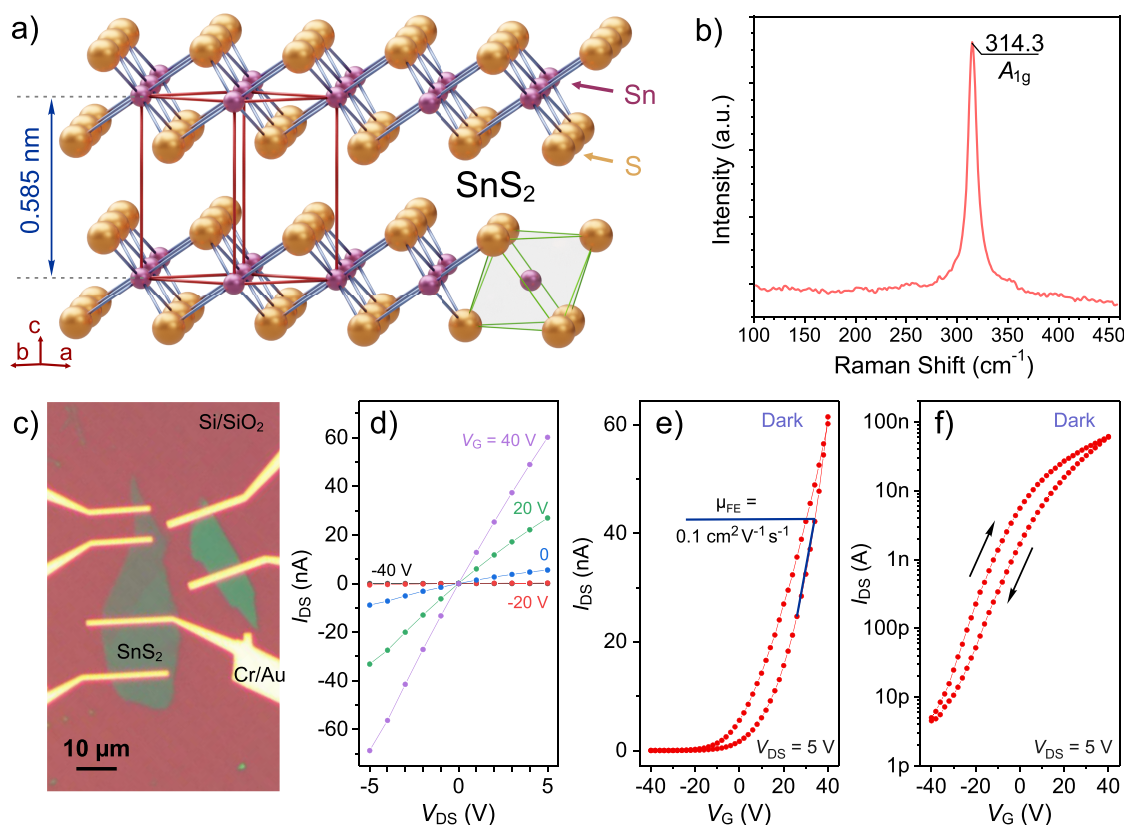


Figure 1. Structural and electronic properties of SnS₂. (a) Crystal structure of SnS₂. The red lines indicate the unit cell, while the green lines show the octahedral coordination of tin. (b) Representative Raman spectrum of few-layer SnS₂. (c) Optical photograph of SnS₂ devices fabricated on a Si/SiO₂ substrate. (d) I_{DS} – V_{DS} dependences for a SnS₂ device measured in a vacuum at different gate voltages (V_G) ranging from –40 to 40 V. (e, f) I_{DS} – V_G dependences at V_{DS} = 5 V shown in linear (e) and logarithmic (f) current scales.

consistent with other spectra of SnS₂ in the literature.^{21,22,24,25} SnS₂ was recently recognized as a promising electronic material with some of its electronic properties summarized in Figure 1c–f. The layered SnS₂ crystals can be conveniently exfoliated into monolayer and few-layer flakes using the conventional adhesive tape approach, and then these flakes can be patterned into electronic devices using the standard electron beam lithography (EBL). Figure 1c shows the optical photograph of field-effect transistor (FET) devices, in which thin SnS₂ flakes deposited on a Si/SiO₂ substrate bridge Cr(5 nm)/Au(20 nm) leads, which served as source (S) and drain (D) electrodes in the transport measurements. The conductive p-type Si separated from the SnS₂ device channels by a 300 nm thick layer of SiO₂ served as a global gate (G). Figure 1d shows that SnS₂ forms good contacts with Cr/Au electrodes, which can be seen from the linearity of the drain–source current (I_{DS})/drain–source voltage (V_{DS}) dependences. The I_{DS} – V_G characteristics that are shown in the linear and logarithmic I_{DS} scales demonstrate that the SnS₂ devices exhibit an n-type semiconductor behavior with electron mobility of about 0.1 cm² V^{–1} s^{–1} (Figure 1e) and transistor on–off ratios >10⁴ (Figure 1f); these values are comparable to similar back-gated, few-layer SnS₂ devices produced by mechanical exfoliation.^{22,26,27} It should be noted that while this is a modest mobility compared to the more popular TMCs, such as MoS₂¹⁸ or TiS₃,²⁸ mobilities reaching 200 cm² V^{–1} s^{–1} have been reported for solution-gated SnS₂ devices,²⁰ demonstrating their potential for electronic applications.

The low visible light absorptivity of SnS₂ is illustrated by Figure 2a. The inset in Figure 2a shows optical photograph of the SnS₂ crystals prepared in this study, which are semi-transparent yellow flakes (also see Figure S1 in the Supporting Information). The spectrum in Figure 2a shows that these crystals do not absorb light in the red range of spectrum, and the absorption starts only as the photon energy increases into the green/blue range. The absorption edge of SnS₂ can be estimated from these data to rise at 565 nm (2.19 eV), in agreement with reported literature values of ~2.18–2.44 eV.²¹ Below the band gap energy of SnS₂, minimal absorbance is seen; however, absorption increases sharply for incident photons with wavelengths below about 550 nm. In order to enhance the light–matter interactions in the SnS₂ devices, we modified them with methylammonium lead iodide (MAPbI₃), the optical properties of which are presented in Figure 2b. The bulk MAPbI₃ crystals are shown in the inset of Figure 2b, and unlike SnS₂, they are black and nontransparent. The spectrum in Figure 2b demonstrates that MAPbI₃ exhibits a strong optical absorption in the entire visible range of spectrum and has an absorption edge at about 795 nm (1.56 eV), which is in agreement with the previous studies.²⁹ Therefore, decoration of the SnS₂ FET channels with MAPbI₃ is expected to enhance the light–matter interactions throughout the entire visible range of spectrum and, in particular, enable the device photoresponse in the red region, where SnS₂ does not absorb light because of its ~2.3 eV band gap.

The decoration of SnS₂ FETs with MAPbI₃ is illustrated by Figure 2c–h with a detailed device fabrication procedure

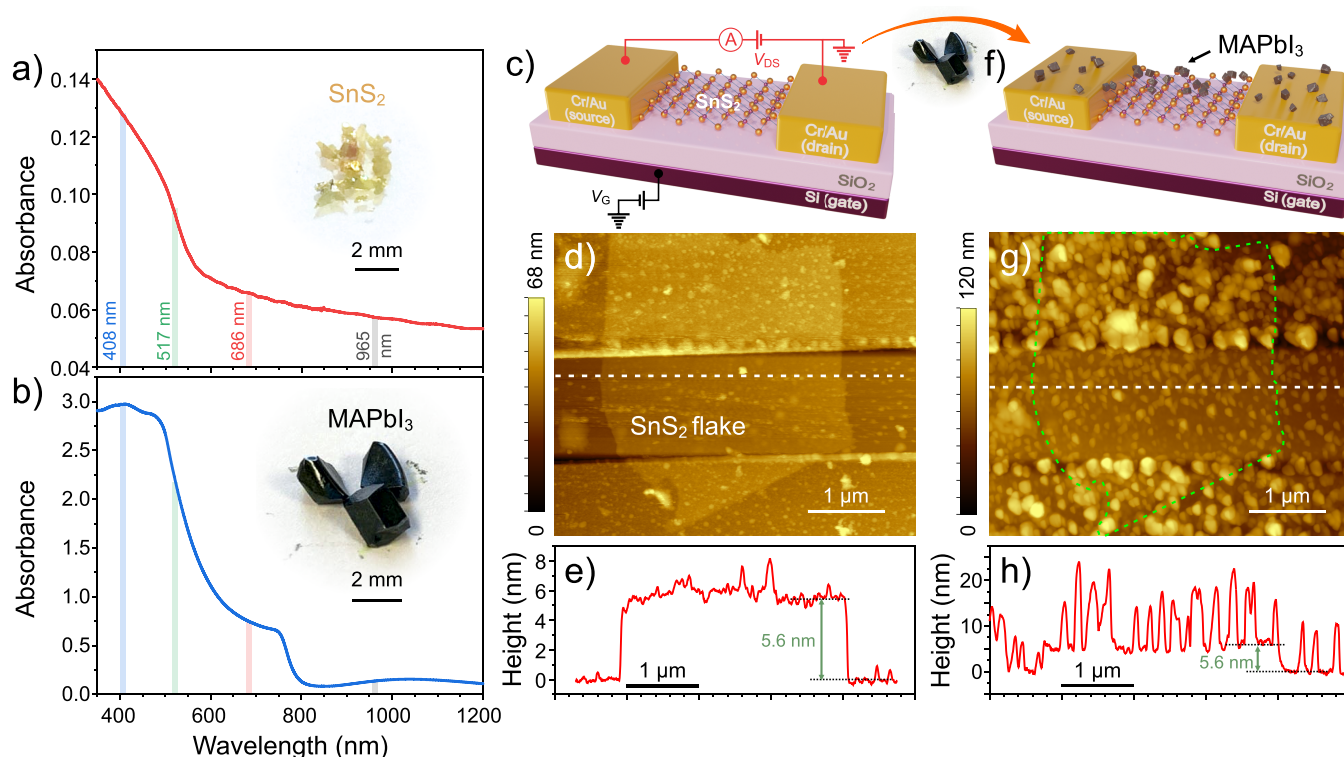


Figure 2. Decoration of SnS_2 devices with MAPbI_3 nanoparticles. (a, b) UV–vis–NIR absorption spectra of SnS_2 (a) and MAPbI_3 (b). The insets demonstrate optical photographs of the samples. The vertical lines show the wavelengths of the lasers that were used in this study. (c) Scheme of a SnS_2 FET. (d) AFM image of a representative SnS_2 FET that was used in this study. (e) AFM height profile measured across the SnS_2 flake shown in panel d; the measurement was taken along the dashed white line. (f) Scheme of a SnS_2 FET decorated with MAPbI_3 nanoparticles. (g) AFM image of the same SnS_2 device as in panel d after its decoration with MAPbI_3 nanoparticles. The dashed green line shows the contour of the SnS_2 flake. (h) AFM height profile measured across the perovskite-decorated SnS_2 flake shown in panel g; the measurement was taken along the dashed white line.

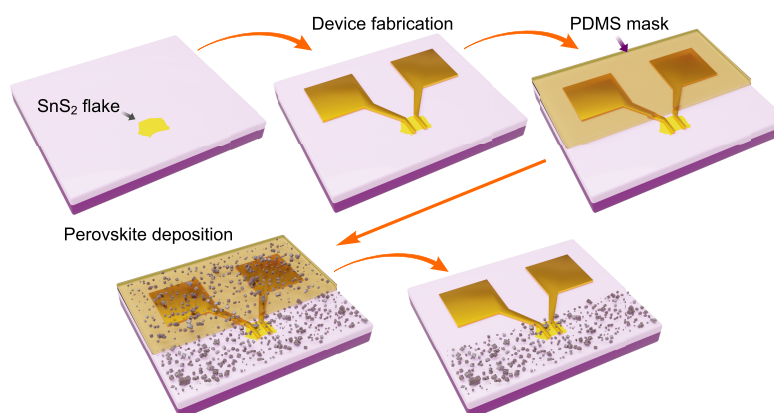


Figure 3. Scheme of fabrication of MAPbI_3 -decorated SnS_2 devices. See text for details.

shown in Figure 3. Figure 2d demonstrates an atomic force microscopy (AFM) image of a representative FET device fabricated from a single SnS_2 flake. The height profile measured across this flake (Figure 2e) shows the thickness of about 5.6 nm, suggesting several layers of SnS_2 . The device channel contains several foreign particles, which may be residues of either the adhesive tape used for the mechanical exfoliation of SnS_2 crystals or the EBL resist. In either case, these particles did not affect the electrical properties of this FET, which behaved similar to other previously reported SnS_2 devices,^{20,22,26,27} as shown in Figure 4. It should be noted that these particles are not intrinsic to the fabrication process, as

illustrated by Figure S2, which shows AFM images of two other as-prepared SnS_2 devices with much less surface contamination. Although one of the SnS_2 flakes in Figure S2 has a nearly perfect triangular shape, which is reminiscent of TMC crystals grown by chemical vapor deposition,^{30,31} it was produced by mechanical exfoliation, just like other flakes in this study.

The deposition of MAPbI_3 on the devices was performed using the antisolvent-assisted spin-coating procedure.^{29,32} After protection of gold electrodes with a thin layer of polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS), the Si/SiO_2 substrate with the devices was flooded with a solution of $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{I}$ and PbI_2

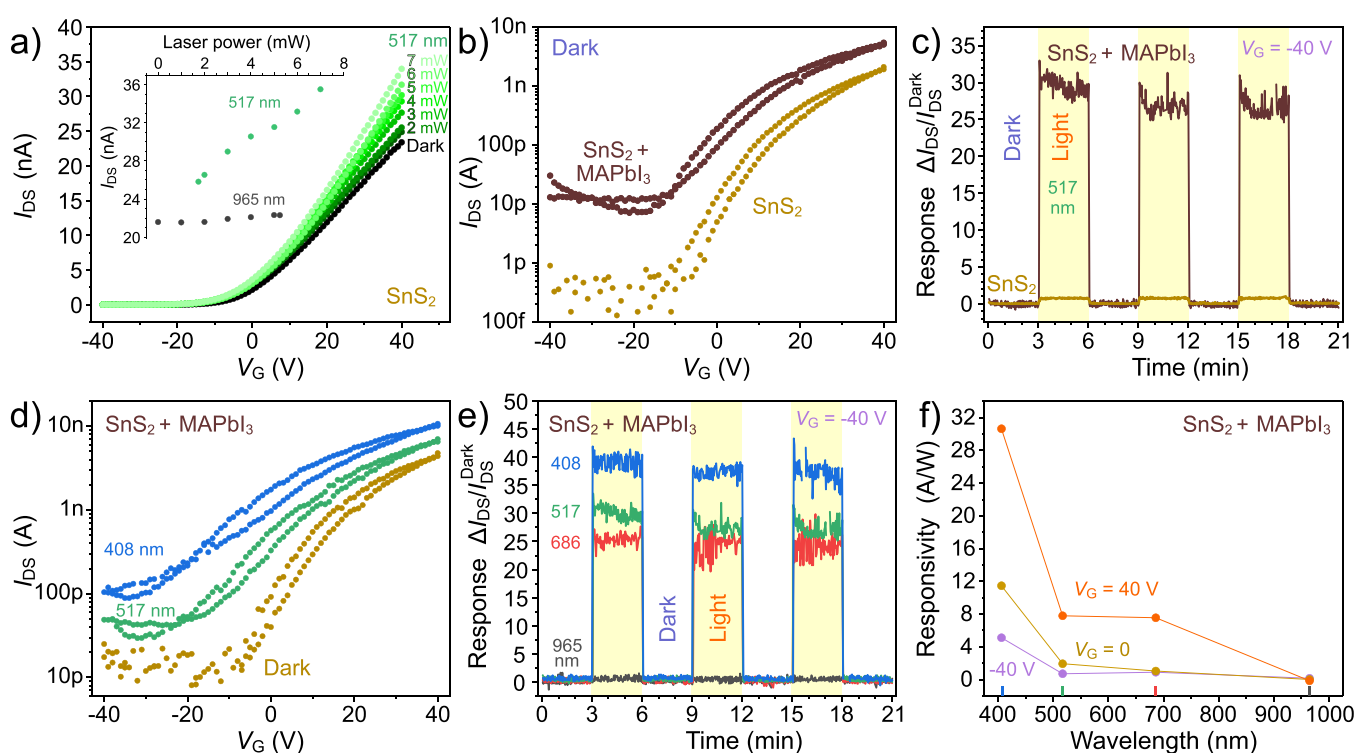


Figure 4. Optoelectronic characterization of MAPbI₃-decorated SnS₂ devices. (a) I_{DS} – V_G dependences for a pristine SnS₂ device measured under illumination with a green laser (517 nm) at powers ranging from 0 to 7 mW. V_{DS} = 0.1 V. The inset shows the dependences of I_{DS} at V_G = 40 V on the laser power for green (517 nm) and IR (965 nm) lasers. (b) I_{DS} – V_G dependences measured in the dark for a SnS₂ device before and after the perovskite decoration. (c) Photoresponses of pristine and perovskite-decorated SnS₂ devices to excitation with a green laser measured at V_G = –40 V and V_{DS} = 0.1 V. (d) I_{DS} – V_G dependences for a MAPbI₃-decorated SnS₂ device measured in the dark and under illumination with green (517 nm) and blue (408 nm) lasers. V_{DS} = 0.1 V. (e) Photoresponses of a MAPbI₃-decorated SnS₂ device to excitation with blue (408 nm), green (517 nm), red (686 nm), and IR (965 nm) lasers measured at V_G = –40 V and V_{DS} = 0.1 V. (f) Photoresponsivity of a MAPbI₃-decorated SnS₂ device as a function of the excitation laser wavelength and the gate voltage. All data are shown for the device presented in Figure 2g.

powders in dimethylformamide (DMF) and dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and then spin-coated at 3000 rpm for 30 s. About 5 s before the spinning cycle was finished, an antisolvent, such as ethyl acetate, was dripped over the substrate, which was then annealed at 60 °C for 10 min. During the annealing, the film darkens from transparent yellow to opaque black, indicating the formation of the MAPbI₃ perovskite structure.^{29,33} Thin films on transparent substrates reveal the material to be deep maroon red; however, the material absorbs so strongly in the visible region³⁴ that on Si/SiO₂ substrates used in this work the film appears black (see Figure S3). The results of the X-ray diffraction (XRD) characterization of the perovskite material are also presented in Figure S3 along with their Rietveld refinement.

As shown schematically in Figure 2f, the reported procedure resulted in the formation of isolated MAPbI₃ nanoparticles on SnS₂ rather than a continuous perovskite film. This is important for understanding the electronic properties of the resulting SnS₂-MAPbI₃ devices. Because MAPbI₃ did not form a percolating layer, there was no alternative continuous conductive channel formed in parallel to the SnS₂ flake, and the transfer characteristics of the decorated devices were qualitatively the same as before the decoration. On the other hand, the perovskite nanoparticles on SnS₂ channels can be excited by visible light and increase photoresponsivity of the devices. It should be noted that even in the case of bulk TMCs that have high optical absorption coefficients,³⁵ the ultrathin devices made from these materials often exhibit low absolute

absorptivities because of the small thicknesses of the device channels.^{2,36} Therefore, it has become a common practice to decorate the 2D devices with quantum dots, plasmonic nanoparticles, or other materials^{2,36,37} to aid in absorption while still preserving the fundamental electrical properties of the underlying 2D channels.

Figure 2g shows AFM image of the same SnS₂ device as in Figure 2d after the perovskite modification. The isolated MAPbI₃ nanoparticles are clearly seen in the AFM image and in the representative height profile across the perovskite-decorated SnS₂ flake (Figure 2h). The 5.6 nm height of the SnS₂ flake can be identified in the height profile; relative to this height the perovskite nanoparticles were about 5–15 nm thick. Interestingly, the AFM image shows that MAPbI₃ particles have grown larger on Cr/Au contacts than on the SnS₂ flake or the bare Si/SiO₂ substrate, suggesting a greater affinity of the perovskite material to gold than to the sulfide or oxide surfaces. A rougher surface of Au electrodes compared to flat SnS₂ and Si/SiO₂ may also be beneficial for MAPbI₃ nucleation and crystallization.

The tendency of MAPbI₃ to densely cover gold electrodes was the reason we protected them with PDMS masks when the perovskite was deposited on SnS₂ devices (see Figure 3). In a typical device fabrication process, a SnS₂ flake was first exfoliated by the conventional adhesive tape method onto Si/SiO₂ and then used for electrode patterning by EBL, as described in the Supporting Information. Then, the Cr/Au contacts were covered with a protective PDMS mask, as shown

in Figure 3, so that only the device channel area remained exposed for the perovskite deposition. After the spin-coating of the solution of $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{I}$ and PbI_2 and the formation of the perovskite particles, the PDMS mask was removed (see Figure 3). This procedure prevented the unnecessary formation of MAPbI_3 on the large Cr/Au pads, which were later contacted with the tips of a probe station in electrical measurements, and also ensured that no conductive bridges of a perovskite material could accidentally form between the electrodes outside the observed channel area. It should also be noted that because in this process the perovskite material is formed after a lithography process and in the contact area between the substrate and the PDMS mask, the deposition dynamics is different from that of the solution spin-coating on a bare Si/ SiO_2 . In our control experiments, we found that a significantly larger amount of the perovskite material would be deposited on an oxygen plasma-cleaned Si/ SiO_2 substrate without devices, lithography residues, and PDMS masks using the same spin-coating process.

Electronic properties of SnS_2 devices before and after the perovskite decoration were measured at room temperature in a vacuum probe station at a base pressure of about 2×10^{-6} Torr. The vacuum measurements were expected to minimize the doping effect of the surface adsorbates, such as water and oxygen, on the measured electronic properties of semiconducting materials³⁸ as well as to preserve the decoration of devices with MAPbI_3 , which is known to degrade in ambient conditions. At the same time, because some degradation of MAPbI_3 was reported to occur over time even in a vacuum,³⁹ we performed all electrical characterization of perovskite-decorated SnS_2 devices within several days after the evacuation. The devices, while remained in a vacuum, were illuminated through a transparent window in a probe station chamber with infrared (IR, 965 nm), red (686 nm), green (517 nm), or blue (408 nm) lasers; the experimental setup is also discussed in our previous works.^{40–42} These lasers provided us with two sets of data points below the band gap of pristine SnS_2 and two sets above. After the perovskite decoration, 965 nm remains below the band gap of MAPbI_3 , with the remaining three sets above.

Figure 4 demonstrates the effect of perovskite decoration on the optoelectronic properties of SnS_2 devices. A drain–source voltage of 0.1 V was used for all of these measurements. Figure 4a shows that the pristine SnS_2 devices exhibit a photoresponse to an excitation with a green laser (517 nm), which has an energy greater than the band gap of SnS_2 . The drain–source current (I_{DS}) increases in the entire tested range of gate voltages (V_{G}) from -40 to 40 V under the green light illumination, and the increase is proportional to the laser power. The linear dependence of the I_{DS} at $V_{\text{G}} = 40$ V on the power of a green laser is illustrated by the inset in Figure 4a. Correspondingly, the pristine devices exhibit negligible response to an IR laser with an energy smaller than the band gap of SnS_2 (see the inset in Figure 4a). This slight response to the 965 nm radiation is not without precedent^{27,43} and has been attributed to virtual energy levels introduced within the band gap by defect states²⁷ including sulfur vacancies^{35,44} and other traps that may lie at the interface between the conductive channel and the gate dielectric.² Transitions by low-energy photons from these defect-induced states to the conduction band can also contribute to this negligible photocurrent.²⁷ It is still clear that the response to radiation with energy above the band gap is far more effective for generating excited electrons.

The effect of perovskite decoration on the transfer characteristics of a SnS_2 device measured in the dark is illustrated by Figure 4b. As demonstrated previously, the pristine SnS_2 exhibits an n-type semiconducting behavior with on–off ratios of several orders of magnitude in field-effect electrical measurements.^{20,22,26,27} Upon decoration with MAPbI_3 perovskite nanoparticles, the I_{DS} current increases across the entire V_{G} range, but the overall shape of the $I_{\text{DS}}-V_{\text{G}}$ dependence remains qualitatively the same. Thus, the decoration of a 2D SnS_2 device channel, while dramatically increasing the photoresponse of a device, as shown in the following panels, qualitatively retains its original transfer characteristics. The increase in the dark current of the device upon its decoration with MAPbI_3 could be caused by the local parallel conduction paths formed by perovskite nanoparticles on top of the SnS_2 channel (even though no global contact-to-contact percolation was evident, based on the AFM results).

The dramatically increased photoresponse of the MAPbI_3 -decorated SnS_2 devices is illustrated by Figure 4c. Here, the photoresponse is presented as the relative change in the device current, $\text{Response} = (I_{\text{DS}}^{\text{Light}} - I_{\text{DS}}^{\text{Dark}})/I_{\text{DS}}^{\text{Dark}}$, where $I_{\text{DS}}^{\text{Dark}}$ and $I_{\text{DS}}^{\text{Light}}$ are drain–source currents measured at the same V_{DS} and V_{G} (in this case, $V_{\text{DS}} = 0.1$ V and $V_{\text{G}} = -40$ V) in the dark and under illumination, respectively. The photoresponse to the green laser (517 nm) increases by about 2 orders of magnitude after the decoration of a device with MAPbI_3 nanoparticles. Figure 4c also shows the reproducibility of the photoswitching in both pristine and perovskite-modified SnS_2 devices. Similar data obtained with other lasers used in this study can be found in Figure S4.

For three of the lasers used in this experiment, red (686 nm), green (517 nm), and blue (408 nm), that had energies sufficiently high to photoexcite electrons in MAPbI_3 , the responses of the perovskite-modified devices increased with the laser energy, as illustrated by Figure 4d,e. This can be explained by the optical spectrum of MAPbI_3 presented in Figure 2b, which shows the increasing absorption of the perovskite from red to green to blue regions of spectrum. Correspondingly, the transfer characteristics of the MAPbI_3 -decorated SnS_2 device in Figure 4d show the larger I_{DS} increase across the entire V_{G} range for the blue laser illumination compared to the green laser. A similar idea is conveyed by the photoswitching data presented in Figure 4e, which show the largest photoresponse of the MAPbI_3 -decorated SnS_2 device to the blue laser and smaller photoresponses to the green and red lasers, in accordance with the optical absorption spectrum of MAPbI_3 shown in Figure 2b. The appreciable photocurrent in the MAPbI_3 -decorated device under the red laser (686 nm) illumination is notable because its energy is smaller than the band gap of SnS_2 , which means that this photoresponse is entirely engineered by the perovskite decoration and would not be expected in a pristine device. Furthermore, the IR (965 nm) laser did not produce any significant photoresponse in the device, which is consistent with the fact that its energy is smaller than the band gaps of both SnS_2 (Figure 2a) and MAPbI_3 (Figure 2b).

The photoresponse of these devices depends not only on the energy of the excitation light but also on the gate voltage, which can be deduced from Figure 4d. This idea is further conveyed by Figure 4f, which characterizes the device by a different metric, responsivity, which is a measure of the absolute photocurrent generated in a device per unit incident

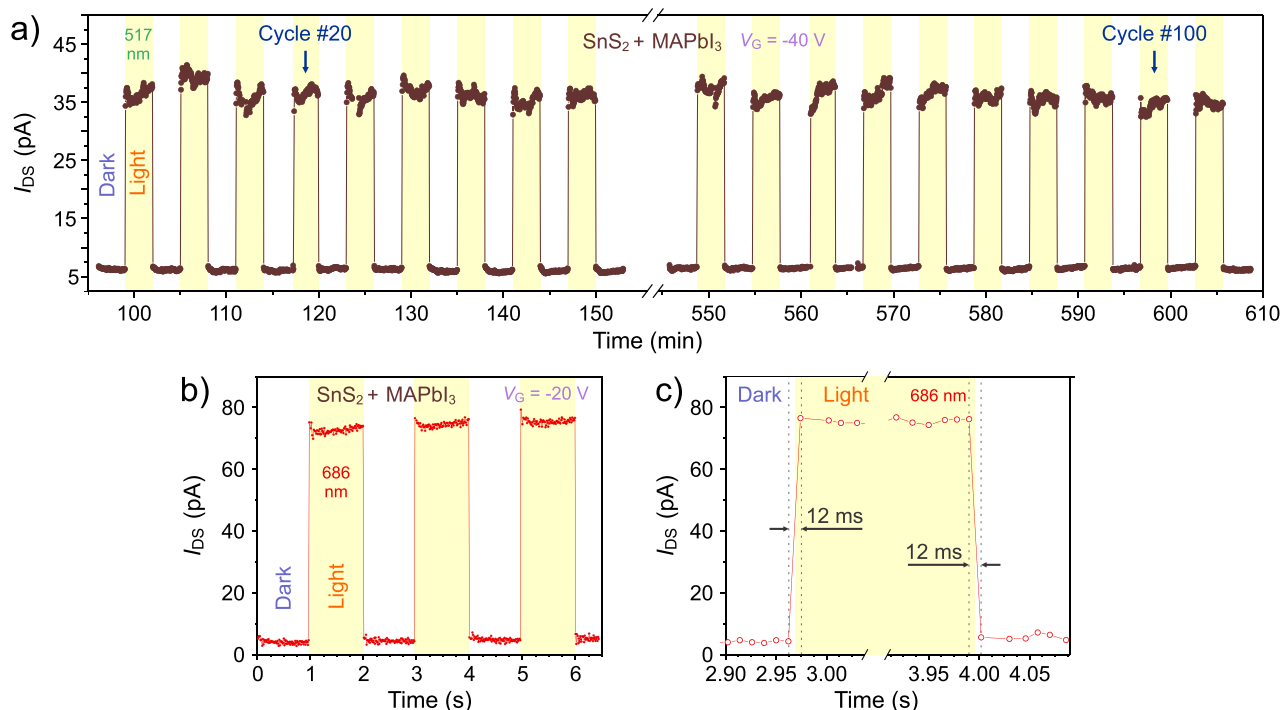


Figure 5. Functional characteristics of MAPbI₃-SnS₂ photodetectors. (a) Cyclic photoresponse of a perovskite-decorated SnS₂ device measured at V_G = -40 V and V_{DS} = 0.1 V. The device was repeatedly illuminated with a green laser. (b, c) Switching time measurements: (b) three cycles of photoresponse of a perovskite-decorated SnS₂ device to excitation with a red laser measured at V_G = -20 V and V_{DS} = 1 V and (c) zoomed-in second switching cycle from panel b, showing the rise and fall response times of about 12 ms. The data are shown for the device presented in Figure S2a after its modification with perovskite nanoparticles.

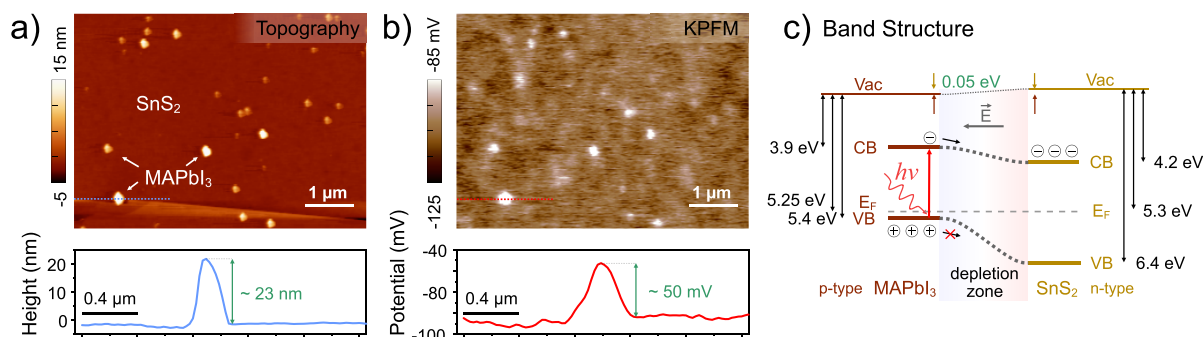


Figure 6. KPFM characterization of the MAPbI₃-SnS₂ heterostructure. (a) Topography image of the MAPbI₃ particles on SnS₂ flake with corresponding height profile for one of the particles. (b) KPFM image of the same area as in (a) along with the potential profile for the same particle. (c) Proposed energy level diagram of the MAPbI₃-SnS₂ heterostructure.

power: Responsivity = $(I_{DS}^{Light} - I_{DS}^{Dark}) / (P_{Device})$ where I_{DS}^{Dark} and I_{DS}^{Light} are the same as defined above, and P_{Device} is the fraction of the laser spot incident on the device channel (see details in the Supporting Information). The data in Figure 4 show that both responsivity and photoresponse are gate-voltage-dependent metrics. Responsivity is optimized while the device is in its ON state (high positive V_G) while the photoresponse observed in the photoswitching measurements is maximized at high negative V_G. The latter statement is illustrated by Figure 4d, which shows that the higher $I_{DS}^{Light} / I_{DS}^{Dark}$ ratios are observed at negative gate voltages, which explains why the data in Figure 4c,e are shown at V_G = -40 V. The dependence of the photoresponse characteristics of MAPbI₃-decorated SnS₂ devices on the gate voltage provides another degree of their tunability for device applications.

Some of the functional characteristics of MAPbI₃-decorated SnS₂ FETs as potential photodetectors are illustrated by Figure 5, which presents the data collected for the device shown in Figure S2a after its modification with perovskite nanoparticles. First, we investigated the cyclability of the MAPbI₃-decorated SnS₂ FET in photoresponse measurements. Figure 5a demonstrates the results of an experiment containing more than 100 cycles of photoswitching spanning more than 10 h of continuous operation of the MAPbI₃-decorated SnS₂ device. Stable, reproducible photoresponse cycles were observed while the device was repeatedly illuminated with a green laser during this experiment, as shown in Figure 5a. A pristine SnS₂ device showed a similarly stable operation, although with much smaller responses, as expected (Figure S5). Furthermore, while for the MAPbI₃-decorated SnS₂ device the photocurrent changes associated with the laser turned on or off appear to be instantaneous on the time scale used in Figure 5a, a pristine

SnS₂ device exhibited a visibly slower switching kinetics (Figure S5). We further investigated the response time of the MAPbI₃-decorated SnS₂ devices to photoexcitation. The results of a typical measurement, in which we used a mechanical shutter to open and close the probe station window that was used for device illumination with a red laser, are shown in Figure Sb,c. With the characteristics of the electronics and the mechanical shutter available to us, we could study the photoresponse of MAPbI₃-decorated SnS₂ devices on the time scale of >10 ms, on which the photoswitching appeared to be instantaneous. Figure 5c shows the rise and fall response times for a typical cycle of photoresponse to a red laser of about 12 ms. It is most likely that the real photoresponse of these devices happens on a much smaller time scale and should be studied with a faster measurement setup. The functional parameters of MAPbI₃-SnS₂ photodetectors studied in this work are summarized in Table S1.

Kelvin probe force microscopy (KPFM) measurements provide evidence for the charge transfer between MAPbI₃ and SnS₂. KPFM examines the local variation of surface potential and provides a direct determination of the band offset of the MAPbI₃-SnS₂ heterostructure. We used a reference sample where freshly prepared MAPbI₃ solution was deposited on a few-layer SnS₂ flake. The thicker SnS₂ flake helps reduce the effect of Si/SiO₂ substrate on the measurements, which were performed in an inert atmosphere of nitrogen gas. A standard Pt-coated Si AFM tip was used in this study, and its work function (W_f) was calibrated using Au(111) test sample ($W_f = 5.2$ eV). The topographic AFM image in Figure 6a shows the distribution of MAPbI₃ particles on the surface of SnS₂. The profile measurements indicate that the typical size of MAPbI₃ particles were about 10–25 nm in diameter. Figure 6b shows the corresponding KPFM image, which was measured simultaneously with the topography image. The SnS₂ flake has an average potential of −100 mV relative to Au(111), providing an estimate for the Fermi level (E_f) of SnS₂ flake of 5.3 eV. The KPFM image also shows bright spots in the positions corresponding to MAPbI₃ particles in the topography image. The potential of these particles is about 50 mV above that of the SnS₂ flake. Because the system is in equilibrium, the Fermi levels of MAPbI₃ and SnS₂ are the same, and the measured difference of the potentials corresponds to the difference of 0.05 eV between the vacuum levels above the studied materials. On the basis of the results of the KPFM measurements and the energies of the valence and conduction bands of MAPbI₃ and SnS₂,^{3,21} we suggest a band diagram of the MAPbI₃-SnS₂ heterostructure (see Figure 6c). On the basis of the position of Fermi energy, the MAPbI₃ particles are p-type semiconductors, which upon contact with the n-type SnS₂ form a depletion zone with the electric field pointing toward MAPbI₃. When a MAPbI₃ particle absorbs a photon, it forms a pair of long-lived electron and hole with high mobility. The electric field in the depletion zone helps electrons move to the SnS₂ flake, while preventing the holes to do the same. As a result, illuminated MAPbI₃ provides additional electrons to the SnS₂ flake, making it more conductive as observed in our laser experiments. It should be noted again that because the MAPbI₃ nanoparticles did not percolate in the studied device (Figure 2f–h), the enhanced photocurrent should be due to the increased conductance of the SnS₂ channel. Correspondingly, Figure 6c shows that the energies of the valence and conduction bands of both materials relative to a vacuum are such that carriers excited into the conduction band of the

highly absorbing MAPbI₃ can be transferred to the conduction band of the n-type SnS₂, which increases the photocurrent.^{3,45} While the band diagram of the MAPbI₃-SnS₂ heterostructure in Figure 6c could be further verified by ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS), it appears to agree well with the experimental photoresponse data.

In summary, we demonstrate that decoration with MAPbI₃ perovskite nanoparticles is an efficient approach to engineer strong visible light photoresponse in electronic devices based on 2D materials with limited optical absorptivity. This approach was demonstrated using 2D SnS₂, a promising electronic material with a band gap of about 2.3 eV, which makes it transparent to the red region of the spectrum. FET devices based on pristine SnS₂ show an n-type transport with high on–off ratios. Decoration with isolated MAPbI₃ nanoparticles qualitatively retains the transfer characteristics of the devices but dramatically increases their photoresponse in the entire visible range of spectrum. In particular, the photoresponse of the MAPbI₃-decorated devices to the red light is entirely engineered by the perovskite modification of SnS₂, which does not absorb in the red region of spectrum. The photoresponse characteristics of the perovskite-modified SnS₂ devices were shown to be consistent with the intrinsic optical properties of MAPbI₃. The described perovskite decoration approach should be applicable to engineering photoresponse in a variety of other devices based on 2D electronic materials with low optical absorptivity.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsaelm.2c00947>.

Experimental procedures; microscopic characterization of as-grown SnS₂ crystals (Figure S1); AFM images of pristine SnS₂ devices (Figure S2); XRD pattern of MAPbI₃ accompanied by the Rietveld analysis (Figure S3); photoresponse of a MAPbI₃-decorated SnS₂ device to lasers with different wavelengths (Figure S4); cyclic photoresponse of a pristine SnS₂ device to a green (517 nm) laser (Figure S5); comparison of the MAPbI₃-decorated SnS₂ devices with other photodetectors based on 2D materials reported in the literature (Table S1) (PDF)

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Author Contributions

M.J.L. prepared SnS_2 devices and performed their modification with perovskite nanoparticles with assistance from N.S.V. SnS_2 crystals were grown by D.S.M. and J.A., who also did the XRD characterization. M.J.L. performed AFM, UV–vis–NIR measurements, and Raman spectroscopy. H.L. and A.G. performed KPFM experiments and analyzed their results. M.J.L. and A.L. performed the electrical measurements. M.J.L. and A.S. wrote the manuscript. A.S. conceived the idea of this study and supervised the project.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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