

Enabling Fast Photoresponse in Hybrid Perovskite/MoS₂ Photodetectors by Separating Local Photocharge Generation and Recombination

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Abstract:

Interfacing $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ (MAPbI₃) with two-dimensional van der Waals materials in lateral photodetectors can suppress the dark current and driving voltage, while the interlayer charge separation also renders slower charge dynamics. In this work, we show that more than one order of magnitude faster photoresponse time can be achieved in MAPbI₃/MoS₂ lateral photodetectors by locally separating the photocharge generation and recombination through a parallel channel of single-layer MAPbI₃. Photocurrent (I_{ph}) mapping reveals electron diffusion lengths of about 20 μm in single-layer MAPbI₃ and 4 μm in MAPbI₃/MoS₂ heterostructure. The power scaling of I_{ph} and time-resolved photoluminescence studies point to the dominant roles of the heterostructure region in photogeneration and single-layer MAPbI₃ in charge recombination. Our results shed new lights on the material design that can concurrently enhance photoresponsivity, reduce driving voltage, and sustain high operation speed, paving the path for developing high performance lateral photodetectors based on hybrid perovskites.

The organolead trihalide perovskites such as $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ (MAPbI₃) have received significant research interest over the past decade due to their high power conversion efficiency,¹⁻³ strong solar absorption,^{1, 2} broad-spectrum photoresponse,^{4, 5} and long charge diffusion lengths,^{6, 7} making them promising for developing high-performance photovoltaic and optoelectronic devices. Previous studies of hybrid perovskite-based photodetectors have focused on the vertical device configuration, which requires high sample uniformity and full coverage of the active layers with large area electrodes.⁸ The presence of the top electrode also reduces the efficiency of light adsorption. There have been emerging interests in developing lateral-structure photodetectors for their simplified production, high responsivity, and compatibility with flexible substrates.⁸ For hybrid perovskite photodetectors, however, adopting the lateral structure yields higher dark current and requires larger driving voltage due to the lack of a charge blocking layer and the large spacing between electrodes.⁸⁻¹¹ To overcome these performance limitations, MAPbI₃ has been interfaced with a charge transfer layer, such as two dimensional (2D) van der Waals graphene¹²⁻¹⁴ and transition metal dichalcogenide (TMDC),¹⁵⁻¹⁸ to promote charge separation. Even though suppressed dark current (< 1 nA),¹⁶ low drive voltage (down to 1 V),¹⁴ and broad-spectrum response¹⁵⁻¹⁸ have been achieved in these MAPbI₃/2D heterostructures, the photoresponse speed is highly compromised (2.7 ms-20s)^{9-11, 15-18} compared with single-layer MAPbI₃^{8, 19} due to the much slower charge dynamics in the charge depletion region. For technological implementation of perovskite lateral photodetectors, a critical challenge is to satisfy the competing material requirements for enhanced photoresponsivity, small dark current, low driving voltage, and high operation speed.

A possible route to tackle this challenge is to provide parallel conduction channels that spatially separate the dominant photocharge generation and recombination processes. For example, when a

hybrid perovskite/2D heterostructure is under detailed balance with a single-layer hybrid perovskite, it is possible to harness the enhanced photoresponsivity in the former channel, with the charge dynamics dominated by the fast recombination in the latter. By gaining microscopic understanding of the various charge processes and assessing the critical length and time scales, one can anchor the parameter space for optimized device performance.^{20, 21}

In this work, we report fast photoresponse in high performance lateral photodetectors consisting of parallel MAPbI₃/few-layer MoS₂ heterostructure and single-layer MAPbI₃ channels (Figure 1a). The devices exhibit high photoresponsivity (\sim 1,200 A W⁻¹) with low dark current (< 5 pA) under ultralow driving voltage (0.2 V). Photocurrent (I_{ph}) mapping via scanning photocurrent microscopy (SPCM) shows that I_{ph} in the heterostructure region is about 40 times higher than that in single-layer MAPbI₃. The electron diffusion lengths are about 20 μ m in single-layer MAPbI₃ and 4 μ m in MAPbI₃/MoS₂ heterostructure. The photocurrent switching under global illumination reveals rising and decay time of about 200 μ s, more than one order of magnitude faster than those reported in lateral photodetectors based on hybrid perovskite/2D heterostructures. The illumination power scaling of I_{ph} indicates a fast bimolecular radiative recombination in single-layer MAPbI₃ and a slow quadruple molecular process in MAPbI₃/MoS₂. Time-resolved photoluminescence (TRPL) studies yield a faster timescale for charge separation in the heterostructure (31 ± 13 ns) than charge recombination in MAPbI₃ (96 ± 19 ns), confirming that the device response is dominated by the latter under detailed balance. Our study provides important material parameters for designing hybrid perovskite-based lateral photodetectors that can concurrently enhance photoresponsivity, reduce dark current and driving voltage, and sustain high operation speed.

Results and Discussion. We interfaced few-layer MoS₂ with MAPbI₃ for constructing the hybrid photodetectors. Compared with monolayer MoS₂, few-layer MoS₂ possesses smaller Schottky barrier height (< 0.05 eV) with the metal contact (Ti/Au),²² which enhances the collection efficiency of photogenerated carriers at electrodes. Their higher density of states also promote enhanced interlayer charge transfer of photocarriers from MAPbI₃.¹⁶ On the other hand, it is desirable to have the MoS₂ layer fully depleted to achieve suppressed dark current and enhanced photoresponsivity. The upper bound of MoS₂ thickness is thus imposed by the Thomas-Fermi screening length.

We mechanically exfoliated 3-5 nm MoS₂ flakes (5-7 layer) onto SiO₂/Si substrates, with the layer thickness identified by Raman spectroscopy²³ (Figure S1, Supporting Information) and atomic force microscopy (AFM). Selected MoS₂ flakes were fabricated into two-point devices using e-beam lithography followed by metal deposition (10 nm Ti/50 nm Au). The electrode length is about twice of the width of MoS₂ flake to enable parallel conduction channels. After depositing 500 nm thick MAPbI₃ on the device via spin coating, the sample was annealed at 100 °C.^{24,25} X-ray diffraction (XRD) θ -2 θ scan (Figure 1b) shows that the MAPbI₃ film is polycrystalline with dominating (110)-orientation of the tetragonal phase ($a = 8.90$ Å, $c = 12.61$ Å). Figure 1c shows the optical image of a MAPbI₃ coated 5-layer MoS₂ device. AFM topography images reveal smooth surface morphology of MAPbI₃ in regions on MoS₂, SiO₂, and Au (Figure 1d), with a root-mean-square roughness of about 19 nm. The data reported was obtained from three devices, denoted as D1, D2, and D3.

Figure 1e shows the dark current (I_{dark}) vs driving voltage V_{SD} taken on device D1 between the drain (D) and source (S) electrodes before and after the MAPbI₃ deposition. With MAPbI₃, I_{dark} becomes more than six times smaller, which can be attributed to the band alignment between

MAPbI₃ and MoS₂ induced charge depletion (Figure 1f). Few-layer MoS₂ has a band gap of about ~ 1.4 eV²⁶ and is electron-doped,²⁷ while MAPbI₃ is slightly hole-doped with a band gap of ~ 1.6 eV (Figure S2, Supporting Information).^{28, 29} Assuming the Fermi energy (E_F) is 0.1 eV below the conduction band minimum (E_C) for MoS₂³⁰ and 0.7 eV above the valence band maximum (E_V) for MAPbI₃,^{28, 29} we deduced a depletion width of about 10 μm for MAPbI₃ and a Thomas-Fermi screening length of about 7.7 nm for few-layer MoS₂ (Section 3, Supporting Information). These values are much larger than the layer thickness, confirming that the entire sample is in the depletion region. The large built-in electric field ($\sim 10^3$ V/cm) can thus facilitate efficient charge separation for photogenerated electron-hole pairs.³¹

Next, we map out the source-drain current (I) on device D1 via SPCM, a technique widely used to characterize charge drift, diffusion, and local accumulation in semiconductor nanowires and thin films.²⁰ Figure 2a shows the spatially resolved photocurrent ($I_{\text{ph}} = I - I_{\text{dark}}$) at $V_{\text{SD}} = 0.2$ V ($I_{\text{dark}} = 4.5$ pA). Compared with the single-layer MAPbI₃, the MAPbI₃/MoS₂ heterostructure region shows significantly higher I_{ph} . Along an equipotential line of the device, I_{ph} decreases by a factor of 10 across the MoS₂ edge over a length of about 20 μm (Figure 2b). The enhanced photocurrent in the heterostructure can be attributed to the suppressed photocarrier recombination. In our device structure, the light absorption and photocarrier generation occur mostly in the 500 nm MAPbI₃ top layer,¹⁷ and the built-in electric field facilitates efficient transfer of photogenerated electrons into MoS₂. The interlayer charge separation can effectively prevent electron-hole recombination, which significantly extends the carrier lifetime, leading to higher photocarrier density and thus enhanced photocurrent.^{15, 16, 31, 32} The charge transfer effect is supported by the reduced photoluminescence (PL) intensity for the 1.6 eV MAPbI₃ exciton in the heterostructure¹⁶ (Figure S2, Supporting Information).

Beyond a few micron distance from the MoS₂ edge, I_{ph} exhibits an exponential decay:

$$I_{ph} \propto \exp(-x/L_D), \quad (1)$$

where x is the position of laser excitation and L_D is the decay length. In single-layer MAPbI₃, this variation reflects the diffusion of photocarriers into the heterostructure region, where radiative recombination is suppressed. As MAPbI₃ is *p*-type, the diffusion current is dominated by the minority electrons. Fitting the photocurrent to Equation 1, we deduced a diffusion length for electrons in MAPbI₃ of $L_{MAPbI_3,e} = 20.2 \mu\text{m}$. This value is close to previously reported minority diffusion length in MAPbI₃ polycrystalline films,³³⁻³⁵ single crystalline nanowires,³⁶ and bulk single crystals³⁷ under similar illumination, confirming the high quality of our MAPbI₃ samples. A similar mechanism may contribute to the exponential growth of I_{ph} inside the heterostructure region, where the diffusion of photocarriers into the single-layer MAPbI₃ region would effectively reduce the net photocurrent. As the photogenerated electrons will be swept into MoS₂, the diffusion current in the heterostructure will be dominated by holes in MAPbI₃, and we deduced a corresponding diffusion length of $L_{hetero,h} = 16.3 \mu\text{m}$.

We also examined the I_{ph} profile along the current direction (Figure 2c). Between the source and drain electrodes, I_{ph} is ununiform and asymmetric in both the single-layer MAPbI₃ and heterostructure regions: the maximum I_{ph} occurs within the channel, and the drain electrode side exhibits a higher I_{ph} level compared with the source electrode side. Similar channel I_{ph} variation has been observed in previous SPCM studies of hybrid perovskite,³⁶ reflecting the net contribution of drift and diffusion current of photogenerated electron and holes.^{20, 38, 39} In the single-layer region, as the diffusion length of MAPbI₃ well exceeds the channel length, the current variation is determined by the drift current. Such an asymmetric profile suggests a higher hole mobility, as expected for *p*-doped MAPbI₃.^{35, 37} In the heterostructure region, due to the interlayer charge

separation, the I_{ph} distribution reflects the higher hole mobility in MAPbI_3 compared to the electron mobility in MoS_2 , consistent with our sample characterizations.^{24, 40, 41}

The photocurrent decay beyond the two electrode regions is also highly asymmetric. In the heterostructure region, I_{ph} is significantly suppressed and shows a dip in the vicinity of the source electrode due to the effective cancelation of hole drift current in MAPbI_3 with the electron diffusion current in MoS_2 . In single-layer MAPbI_3 , such cancellation does not occur due to the Schottky contact with Au for electrons.²⁰ Beyond the drain electrode, I_{ph} is dominated by electron diffusion and decays exponentially in both regions, with a decay length of 21.0 μm (3.96 μm) in the single-layer MAPbI_3 (heterostructure).^{20, 36} The electron diffusion length for MAPbI_3 agrees well with $L_{\text{MAPI,e}}$ extracted from the channel region (Figure 2b). The value in the heterostructure is consistent with the electron diffusion length in MoS_2 obtained via SPCM⁴² and PL imaging.⁴³

Figure 3a shows I_{ph} vs laser power (P) taken on device D1 under local and global illumination (Figure S3, Supporting Information). For both conditions, I_{ph} exhibits a power-law dependence on P , $I_{\text{ph}} = \alpha P^\beta$, suggesting that the sample has reached the detailed balance between the photocharge generation rate ($\propto P$) and recombination rate (U_{rec}).⁴⁴ Here the prefactor α is a fitting parameter, and the exponent β characterizes the dominating charge recombination process.⁴⁵ Under local illumination, I_{ph} in the single-layer MAPbI_3 exhibits $\beta_{\text{MAPI}} = 0.51 \pm 0.02$, agreeing well with the theoretical value of $\frac{1}{2}$ for the bimolecular band-to-band recombination (Figure 3b). In this scenario, U_{rec} is proportional to the density product for the electron (n) and hole (p), leading to a quadratic dependence on the photocarrier density (Section 5, Supporting Information). In contrast, I_{ph} in the heterostructure region possesses $\beta_{\text{hetero}} = 0.24 \pm 0.01$, pointing to a distinct charge annihilation mechanism. Due to the interlayer charge separation, the monomolecular processes

(e.g., exciton annihilation) and bimolecular processes (electron-hole recombination) in both layers are significantly suppressed, and the higher-order charge recombination processes such as excitonic complexes involving quadruple charges^{46, 47} become dominant. As illustrated in Figure 3c, photogenerated electrons in MAPbI_3 drifted to the interface can pair with holes, forming instant excitonic complexes with out-of-plane electric dipole moments. Their annihilation can be facilitated by the dipole-dipole interaction, resulting in an effective quadrupole molecular process. The corresponding U_{rec} scales as n^2p^2 , leading to an exponent $\beta = 1/4$. Such recombination processes are localized around the interface and have been observed previously in charge-separated graphene,^{14, 31} few-layer MoS_2 ,³² and semiconductor nanowires on substrates.²⁰ The small error bars for the fitting parameters α and β over a broad power range confirm the robustness of the bimolecular and quadrupole charge recombination processes (Section 4, Supporting Information).

What is interesting is the power scaling of photocurrent under global illumination, with the excited area consisting of both single-layer MAPbI_3 and heterostructure regions. Within the measured power range, the global I_{ph} is over one order of magnitude higher than the local I_{ph} in single-layer MAPbI_3 . Considering the small device area ($\sim 570 \mu\text{m}^2$) compared with the laser spot (800 μm diameter), only a small fraction of the photons ($\sim 0.1\%$) in global illumination can participate in photocarrier generation within the channel. The high global I_{ph} confirms the dominating contribution from the heterostructure region (Figure 3a). On the other hand, the power scaling exponent for global I_{ph} is 0.474 ± 0.006 , close to 0.5 and similar to that for single-layer MAPbI_3 , indicating that the detailed balance of the entire device area is dominated by bimolecular charge recombination in the single-layer MAPbI_3 region. This spatial separation between photocarrier generation and annihilation processes can be explained by the higher probability of the two-particle process in single-layer MAPbI_3 than four-particle process in $\text{MAPbI}_3/\text{MoS}_2$, as

depicted by the Fermi's golden rule (Section 5, Supporting Information). We then calculated the photoresponsivity $R = I_{\text{ph}}/P_{\text{eff}}$ under global illumination, with P_{eff} the effective illumination power on the conducting channel. At a driving voltage of $V_{\text{SD}} = 0.2$ V, R is maximized at the lowest measured power, reaching 1.2×10^3 A W⁻¹, comparable with previously reported values in MAPbI₃/TMDC heterostructures.¹⁵⁻¹⁸ Using the shot noise approximation $R = D^* \times (2eI_{\text{dark}})^{1/2}$,⁸ we deduced the corresponding detectivity D^* of about 10^{18} Jones. This value is significantly higher than the reported values due to the much lower dark current ($I_{\text{dark}} = 4.5$ pA) in our device.

The existence of bimolecular recombination process in our device due to the parallel single-layer channel can facilitate a high-speed photocurrent response. Figure 4a shows the I_{ph} switching in device D1 under global illumination of a pulsed laser, which exhibits consistent on/off behaviors. By fitting multiple I_{ph} switching periods to the exponential time dependence (Figure 4b):

$$I_{\text{ph}} \propto \begin{cases} 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta t}{\tau_r}\right) & (\text{light on}) \\ \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta t}{\tau_d}\right) & (\text{light off}) \end{cases}, \quad (2)$$

we extracted the average photocurrent rising time of $\tau_r = 209 \pm 8$ μs and decay time of $\tau_d = 229 \pm 8$ μs . The response time is more than one order of magnitude faster than that of the MAPbI₃/TMDC heterostructures (> 2.7 ms)^{9-13, 15-18} and more than two orders of magnitude faster than that of the MAPbI₃/graphene heterostructures (> 28.8 ms).¹²⁻¹⁴

To elucidate the microscopic origin of the high-speed photocurrent response, we performed time-resolved photocurrent measurements in different regions of the device. Figure 4c shows the transient photocurrent in device D2 under local illumination. The measurements taken on two

different spots in the single-layer MAPbI_3 region yield highly consistent results, with an average decay time of $\tau_{d,\text{MAPI}} = 164 \pm 15 \mu\text{s}$, comparable with previous results reported in MAPbI_3 lateral devices.⁸⁻¹¹ In the heterostructure region, we obtained a slower decay time $\tau_{d,\text{hetero}} = 306 \pm 14 \mu\text{s}$, which can be attributed to charge diffusion to the single-layer region. The fact that the device under global illumination possesses response times τ_r and τ_d between the local values of $\tau_{d,\text{MAPI}}$ and $\tau_{d,\text{hetero}}$ point to the net contributions of both regions in determining the photocurrent. In other words, under detailed balance, while the photocurrent level is dominated by the heterostructure region, the response speed is determined by the convoluted effect of the bimolecular charge annihilation in single-layer MAPbI_3 and the charge diffusion between the parallel channels. This scenario naturally explains the I_{ph} vs P scaling under global illumination (Figure 3a), where the I_{ph} enhancement and recombination dynamics are associated with distinct origins.

To evaluate the individual time scales of charge recombination in the single-layer MAPbI_3 and interlayer charge separation in the heterostructure, we conducted local time-resolved photoluminescence measurements. Figure 5a shows the normalized PL intensity vs time taken on device D3, with the laser focused on multiple spots along a line cut across the MoS_2 channel (Figure 5a inset). The heterostructure region exhibits significantly faster decay of the PL signal compared with the single-layer MAPbI_3 after stimulation. At 100 ns, the former decays to about 5% of initial intensity while the latter possesses about 45% of the initial level. The signals for both the single-layer and heterostructure regions fully recover to their original intensity levels within 400 ns (Figure S5, Supporting Information). Due to the relatively high baseline of the PL signal, it is possible that the PL signal decays to the baseline before the device full recovers.^{48, 49} Since the PL signal originates from the photon emission during electron-hole recombination, the fast

decay in the heterostructure reflects the suppressed band-to-band radiative recombination, yielding strong evidence for the interlayer charge separation.⁴⁸ We then fitted the local PL decay to a single exponential model.⁴⁸ The deduced decay time τ_{PL} characterizes the timescales of charge recombination in the single-layer MAPbI₃ and interlayer charge transfer in the heterostructure regions. As shown in Figure 5b, the average τ_{PL} in the single-layer MAPbI₃ region is 96±19 ns, consistent with previous TRPL studies of hybrid halide perovskites.^{48, 50, 51} The heterostructure region exhibits a reduced τ_{PL} of 31±13 ns. The significantly faster interlayer charge transfer process confirms the lack of radiative recombination process in the power scaling of photocurrent (Figure 3a). The charge recombination time τ_{PL} is significantly smaller than the photoresponse time of the device, showing the device speed is limited by charge diffusion from the heterostructure to the single-layer region. The relative length scales between the dimensions of the parallel channels and charge diffusion lengths thus play a critical role in determining the photocurrent responsibility and response time.

Conclusions. In summary, we have demonstrated a prototype lateral photodetector with high responsivity and fast photoresponse by adopting parallel single-layer MAPbI₃ with MAPbI₃/MoS₂ heterostructure channels. The I_{ph} switching is more than one order of magnitude faster than those in hybrid perovskite/van der Waals heterostructures. Local photocurrent mapping, power scaling of, and time-resolved photoluminescence measurements collectively point to the distinct origins of enhanced photon current and fast photoresponse, with the former determined by enhanced photocarrier lifetime in the heterostructure region and latter facilitated by the fast radiative recombination in the single-layer MAPbI₃. We have also extracted the electron diffusion lengths in both regions, providing important design parameters for optimized device performance. Our

study points to a new material strategy for achieving high photoresponsivity, low driving voltage, and high operation speed in hybrid perovskite-based photodetectors.

Experimental Method. *Scanning photocurrent microscopy.* The scanning photocurrent microscopy studies were carried out in a micro-Raman system with a collimated laser. The photocurrent mapping was generated by measuring the channel current under illumination while scanning the laser spot on the surface of the device. For Figure 2a, we set the laser power of 2 μ W with a laser step size of 0.8 μ m scanning over an area of 31 μ m by 60 μ m.

Time-resolved photoluminescence. The sample was excited with a 408 nm, 2.5 MHz repetition rate pulsed laser (PicoQuant, MDL 300) focused by an objective lens (Nikon, CFI Plan Apo Lambda 60XC). The PL signal was collected by the same objective lens and then coupled into a single-mode fiber (Thorlabs, P1-780A-FC-2). Then the PL signal was detected by a single-photon avalanche photodiode (PicoQuant, SPAD) and recorded with a time-correlated single-photon counting system (PicoQuant, PicoHarp 300). For the line scan of the PL lifetime, sample was moved along the y axis with a 2.5 μ m step size using a piezo stage (MCL, Nano-LPS100).

Supporting Information

Raman Spectrum of Few-Layer MoS₂; Photoluminescence Spectra of Single-Layer MAPbI₃ and MAPbI₃/MoS₂ Heterostructure; Calculation of Depletion Width and Built-in Electric Field; Illumination Power Dependence of Photocurrent; Modeling of Recombination Dynamics; Time-Resolved Photoluminescence

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Data Availability

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

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Figure Caption

Figure 1. Sample fabrication and characterization. (a) Schematic experimental setup. (b) Optical image of a MAPbI₃ coated 5-layer MoS₂ device (D1). (c) XRD θ -2 θ scan of a 500 nm MAPbI₃ film on SiO₂. (d) AFM topography image of the boxed area in (b). The dashed lines mark the edges of MoS₂ and Au electrodes. (e) I_{dark} vs V_{SD} for device D1 before and after the deposition of MAPbI₃. (f) Schematic band diagram for MAPbI₃/MoS₂ heterointerface. The shadowed area highlights the depletion region. The arrow indicates the built-in electric field direction.

Figure 2. Photocurrent mapping. (a) I_{ph} mapping in log scale taken on device D1 (laser wavelength: 633 nm; beam size: 1 μm ; scan step size: 0.8 μm). The dotted lines illustrate the edges of MoS₂ and Au electrodes. (b) I_{ph} profiles (open symbols) along the vertical dashed line (i) in (a) with fits (dashed lines). (c) I_{ph} profiles (open symbols) along the horizontal dashed lines in (a) with fits (dashed lines): (ii) single-layer MAPbI₃, (iii) MAPbI₃/MoS₂ heterostructure. Inset: Expanded view of I_{ph} profile (ii) in linear scale with the fit. The shadowed area marks the electrodes.

Figure 3. Photocurrent annihilation processes. (a) I_{ph} vs P under local illumination (laser wavelength: 633 nm; beam size 1 μm) on single-layer MAPbI₃ (blue triangles) and heterostructure region (red circles), and global illumination (laser wavelength: 633 nm; beam size 800 μm) (black squares). Dashed lines represent fits to $I_{\text{ph}} \propto P^\beta$, with β values labeled. (b) Schematic of photocharge generation and radiative recombination in single-layer MAPbI₃. (c) Schematic of interlayer photocharge transfer and quadruple-molecular recombination in MAPbI₃/MoS₂ heterostructure.

Figure 4. Time-resolved photocurrent response. (a) Normalized I_{ph} switching of device D1 upon turning on (shadowed area) and off the global illumination light (laser wavelength: 405 nm; beam size: 800 μm). Pulse duration: 2 seconds. (b) One I_{ph} switching period (open circles) with exponential fits (dashed lines). (c) Transient photocurrent of device D2 under localized stimulation (laser wavelength: 408 nm; beam size: 1 μm) in single-layer MAPbI₃ (black and blue lines) and heterostructure (red line) regions. The laser spot locations are indicated in the optical device image (inset).

Figure 5. Time-resolved photoluminescence. (a) Normalized PL intensity vs time after excitation taken on device D3 (pulsed laser wavelength: 408 nm; beam size: 1 μm). Inset: Optical device image, with the spots for the TRPL measurements marked. (b) τ_{PL} as a function of location along the white arrow in the inset of (a). The dashed lines mark the MoS₂ edges.

Figure 1

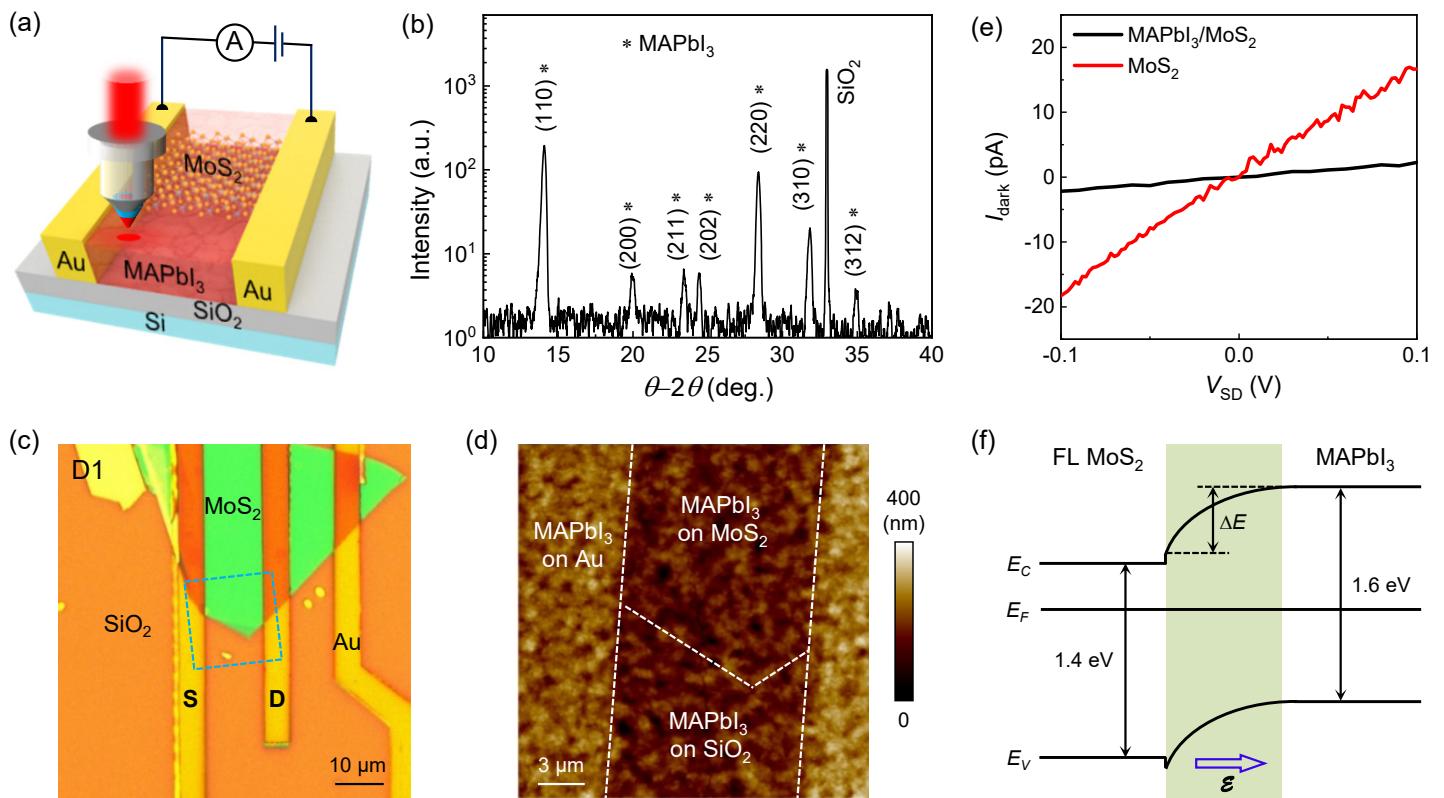


Figure 2

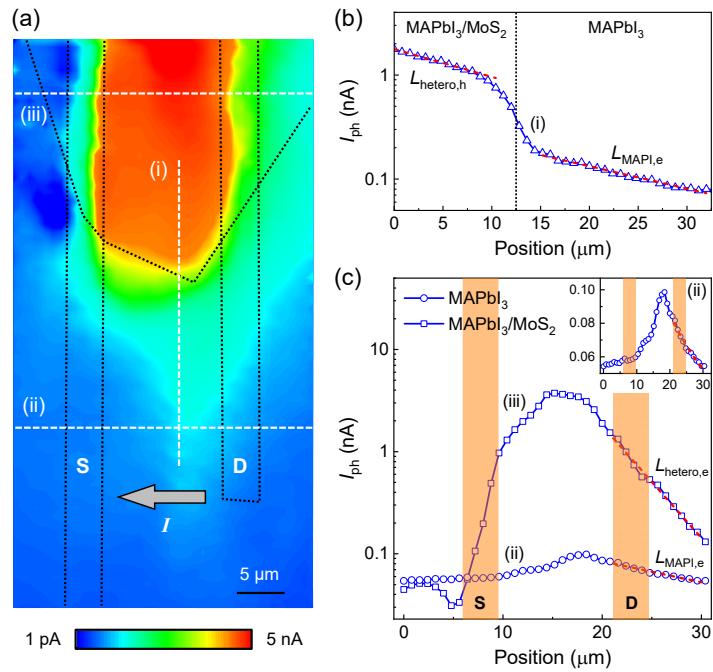


Figure 3

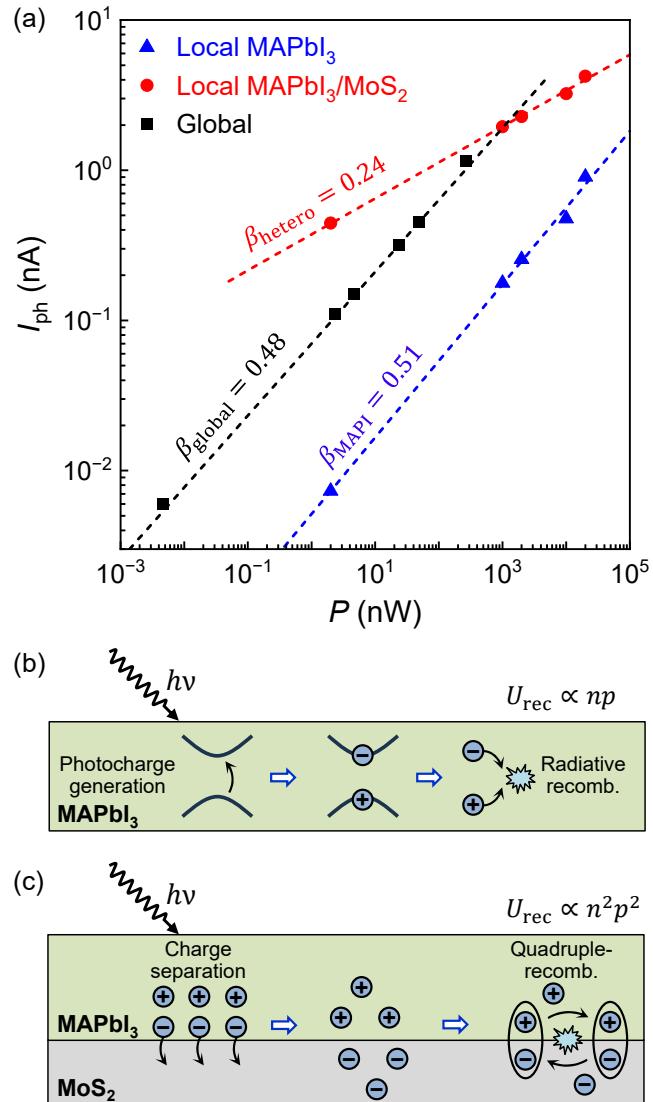


Figure 4

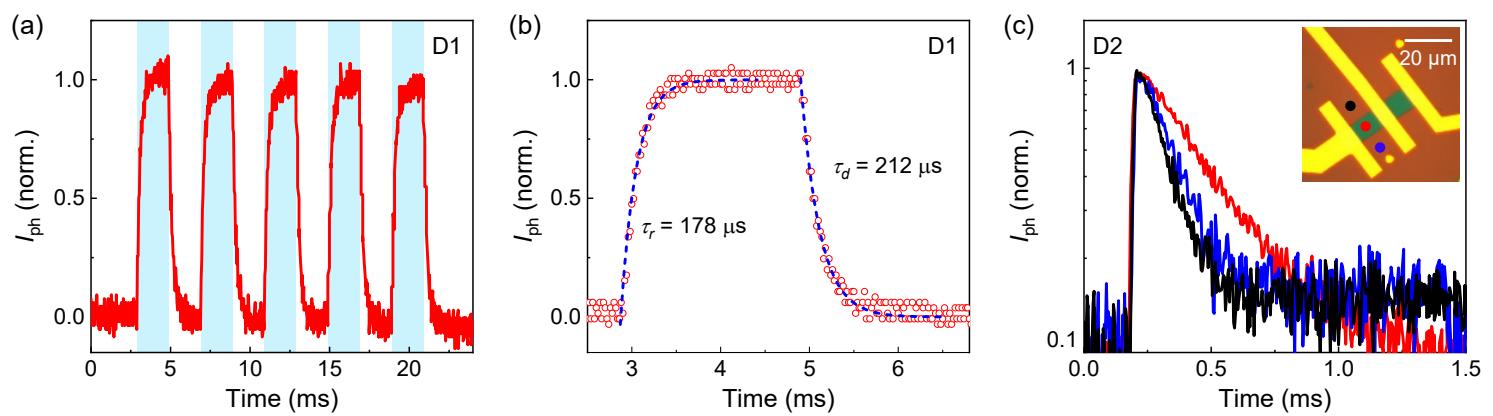


Figure 5

