

Large-Area Transfer of 2D TMDCs Assisted by a Water-Soluble Layer for Potential Device Applications

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Cite This: ACS Omega 2022, 7, 11731–11741



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ABSTRACT: Layer transfer offers enormous potential for the industrial implementation of two-dimensional (2D) material technology platforms. However, the transfer method used must retain the as-grown uniformity and cleanliness in the transferred films for the fabrication of 2D material-based devices. Additionally, the method used must be capable of large-area transfer to maintain wafer-scale fabrication standards. Here, a facile route to transfer centimeter-scale synthesized 2D transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDCs) (3L MoS₂, 1L WS₂) onto various substrates such as sapphire, SiO₂/Si, and flexible substrates (mica, polyimide) has been developed using a water-soluble layer (Na₂S/Na₂SO₄) underneath the as-grown film. The developed transfer process represents a fast, clean, generic, and scalable technique to transfer 2D atomic layers. The key strategy used in this process includes the dissolution of the Na₂S/Na₂SO₄ layer due to the penetration of NaOH solution between the growth



substrate and hydrophobic 2D TMDC film. As a proof-of-concept device, a broadband photodetector has been fabricated onto the transferred 3L MoS₂, which shows photoresponse behavior for a wide range of wavelengths ranging from near-infrared (NIR) to UV. The enhancement in photocurrent was found to be 100 times and 10 times the dark current in the UV and visible regions, respectively. The fabricated photodetector shows a higher responsivity of 8.6 mA/W even at a low applied voltage (1.5 V) and low power density (0.6 μ W/mm²). The detector enables a high detectivity of 2.9 × 10¹¹ Jones. This work opens up the pathway toward flexible electronics and optoelectronics.

1. INTRODUCTION

Silicon-based electronic devices pose critical challenges in the sub-10 nm regime.¹ Rapid miniaturization of electronic devices needs exploration of new semiconducting materials. In the recent decade, two-dimensional (2D) transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDCs) are seen as a new hope for the electronic market due to their exotic mechanical, electrical, thermal, and optical properties.²⁻⁴ Indirect to direct band gap cross-over of TMDCs from bulk to monolayers makes them suitable semiconducting materials for nanoscale electronic devices.⁵ In the last few years, researchers have been optimistic that TMDCs could be the potential replacement of silicon (Si) in front-end-of-line (FEOL) technologies due to spectacular improvement in their performance. For example, the Hall mobility of 6L MoS₂ has been achieved up to 34 000 $\text{cm}^2/(\text{V}$ s) at low temperature,⁶ and the room temperature (RT) current on/off ratio of 1L MoS₂ can reach up to $\sim 10^{8.7}$ Initially, TMDC-based devices have been fabricated onto exfoliated flakes or some micrometer-sized flakes to optimize the material quality and device performance. However, the synthesis of large-area TMDCs is required to realize their commercial applications, so considerable efforts have been made to grow large-area 2D TMDCs.

Recently, Yang et al. have synthesized 6 inch large and uniform $1L MOS_2$ by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) on

soda-lime glass at a growth temperature of 720 °C.⁸ However, the growth requirements for large-area, high-quality materials, namely high growth temperatures (>700 °C), the choice of substrates and precursors used for growth, etc., limit the potential applications.⁹⁻¹¹ Exemplifying this, the growth process negatively affects the underlying substrate at high temperatures, which degrades the performance of the fabricated devices.^{12,13} In contrast, the growth temperature can be reduced by choosing appropriate precursors that avoid unwanted doping and contamination on the growth substrate.^{14,15} Layer transfer of 2D TMDCs from the growth substrate to the application substrate is a viable approach to overcome these issues. Layer transfer is also needed for the fabrication of 2D/three-dimensional (3D) heterojunctionbased devices^{16–18} and flexible and transparent devices.^{19,20} Due to the good optical transparency, high strain limit, and high surface area-to-volume ratio,^{21,22} 2D TMDCs are

Received:December 4, 2021Accepted:February 2, 2022Published:April 2, 2022







Figure 1. Schematic illustration of the water-soluble layer transfer process developed for MoS₂ and WS₂.

perfectly suited for use in flexible and wearable electronics and for Internet of things (IoT) applications.¹⁵ Significant efforts have been made to transfer 2D material films without degrading the film quality, which is critical for the success of 2D materials. $^{23-28}$ In early studies, hazardous chemical etchants such as hydrofluoric acid (HF), hydrochloric acid (HCl), and nitric acid (HNO₃) were used to transfer 2D materials, which are environmentally unfriendly and degrade the film quality.^{24,29} Strong bases such as KOH and NaOH have also been used to transfer the 2D material film, which are more attractive than hazardous chemical etchants.^{30,31} However, these etchants degrade the film quality and device performance due to high corrosivity and dopping in the transferred film.³² An ultrasonic bubbling transfer process³³ was also developed in which millions of microbubbles are generated by ultrasonication. These bubbles penetrate into the interface between the growth substrate and 2D film. However, this process is etchant-free but provides cracks and wrinkles on the transferred film due to the formation of bubbles at the film/substrate interface. Therefore, improvement and automation of layer transfer processes are needed for its industrial implementation.

In this work, we have developed a nondestructive, crack-free, and clean transfer technique based on the dissolution of the Na_2S/Na_2SO_4 layer. Although the Na_2S/Na_2SO_4 layer can be dissolved in DI water, we chose NaOH solution because cracks/wrinkles were observed on the film when it was transferred using pure DI water. To reduce the effect of the etchant on the transferred film, we took 0.5 M NaOH solution instead of 2 M solution. Trilayer (3L) MoS_2 and monolayer (1L) WS₂ have been transferred onto arbitrary substrates using this layer transfer method. Furthermore, we have demonstrated the fabrication of a photodetector onto the transferred 3L MoS₂ to show the potential of this process in device applications. The photodetector shows significant photoresponse for a wide range of wavelengths ranging from nearinfrared (NIR) to UV. The photo-to-dark current ratio (PDCR) is 100 and 10 in the UV and visible (vis) region, respectively. Broadband photoresponse (NIR-vis-UV) of trilayer MoS₂ has been observed in this work. Furthermore, in most transfer methods, poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) residues are not completely removed, which significantly

impacts device performance. In the proposed process, PMMA residues were completely removed by putting the transferred film in an Ar flow of 480 sccm at 350 $^\circ$ C for 2 h.

2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The complete layer transfer process is schematically illustrated in Figure 1. The substrate with as-grown 2D TMDCs was first spin-coated using PMMA for 120 s at a speed of 1000 rpm. The assembly was kept at room temperature (RT) overnight for better adhesion of PMMA and TMDC. Afterward, the complete assembly was dipped into a solution of 0.5 M NaOH. Before dipping into the solution, one edge of PMMA/TMDC was scratched so that the NaOH solution can easily penetrate from there to the interface of the growth substrate (GS) and TMDC. Within 1 min of dipping in the solution, the PMMA/ TMDC stack started to lift off from the GS and float onto the surface of the solution. The lift-off process occurred as a result of the combined effect of the Na2S/Na2SO4 layer dissolution and partial etching of SiO₂ by NaOH solution. The PMMA/ TMDC stack was then rinsed in DI water to remove the contaminations from the NaOH solution and transferred onto the target substrate (TS). After that, the PMMA/TMDC/TS assembly was blown with N2 gas to evaporate the water molecules and again kept overnight so that the transferred TMDC film gets better adhesion with TS. The hot acetone removed the PMMA, but still, there were some PMMA residues over the TMDC film. To remove these residues, the transferred film was placed in an Ar flow of 480 sccm at 350 °C for 2 h. Also, in this transfer process, we have selectively chosen 0.5 M NaOH solution for the lift-off instead of 2 M NaOH^{30,31} and pure hot DI water. In 2 M NaOH solution, we observed that the transferred film was highly damaged due to the high corrosivity of the etchant (Figure S1). Similarly, when the complete PMMA/TMDC/TS stack was treated with hot DI water for lift-off, cracks and wrinkles were generated in the transferred film, worsening the film quality (Figure S2). Also, delamination of the PMMA/MoS₂ stack occurs at more than 15 min in water.

We can readily transfer large-area TMDCs using the aforementioned transfer process onto arbitrary substrates. To illustrate the viability of this process, we transferred centimeter-scale CVD-grown trilayer (3L) MoS_2 onto $SiO_2/$



Figure 2. (a) Camera images of centimeter-scale as-grown and transferred $3L MoS_2$. (b) Optical microscopy (OM) images of $3L MoS_2$ synthesized on the SiO_2/Si substrate and MOS_2 transferred onto the sapphire substrate. (c) OM images of the as-synthesized $3L MoS_2/SiO_2$ (GS) and transferred MoS_2/SiO_2 (TS). (d) SEM image of $3L MoS_2$ transferred onto the sapphire substrate. (e) AFM image of transferred $3L MoS_2$ onto the sapphire substrate. Inset: the thickness of $3L MoS_2$ is shown by the height profile.



Figure 3. Raman spectra of 3L MoS₂ transferred from (a) SiO₂/Si (GS) to SiO₂/Si (TS) and (b) SiO₂/Si to the sapphire substrate.

Si and sapphire substrates. Figure 2a shows the transferred 3L MoS₂ film from SiO₂/Si to the sapphire substrate, which indicates the complete lift-off and release of the film from the GS. Through optical microscopy (OM), we observed that transferred films are clean, continuous, and uniform with no cracks and wrinkles (Figure 2b,c). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and atomic force microscopy (AFM) images further confirm the clean nature and uniformity of the transferred MoS₂ film. The SEM image clearly shows that the transferred 3L MoS₂ film is clean and wrinkle-free without polymer residues over it (Figure 2d). From the AFM analysis, it was observed that the surface roughness of the transferred 3L MoS₂ film was comparable to that of the as-grown film. The film thickness was measured to be around 1.9 nm from the line scan along the white line, confirming the trilayer nature of the MoS₂ film (Figure 2e).

We examined the optical quality of the transferred 3L MoS_2 using Raman spectroscopy, which is widely used to investigate the structural and layer properties of 2D materials.³⁴ Figure 3 depicts the Raman spectra of the as-synthesized and transferred 3L MoS_2 film. Raman spectra of MoS_2 consist of the two fundamental vibrational modes A_{1g} and E_{2g}^{-1} , corresponding to out-of-plane and in-plane vibrations of atoms, respectively.³⁵ The peak position of these vibrational modes mainly depends

on layer numbers and strain in the materials.^{36,37} The frequency difference $(\Delta \omega)$ between A_{1g} and E_{2g}^{-1} is an indicator of the number of layers in MoS2. For the as-grown MoS₂, we observed that $\Delta \omega$ is 22.3 cm⁻¹, indicating that the MoS₂ film is trilayer in nature.³⁸ It is noteworthy that $\Delta \omega$ changes slightly from 22.3 to 22.6 and 22.3 to 22.5 $\rm cm^{-1}$ transferring the 3L MoS₂ film onto SiO₂/Si (TS) and the sapphire substrate, respectively (Figure 3a,b). This indicates that no strain was introduced in the film during the transfer process.³⁹ The small shift occurs due to the change in the interaction between the film and substrate rather than the change in layer numbers and the strain-induced one during the transfer. The as-grown film strongly interacts with the substrate as compared to the transferred film.39 From the Raman and AFM measurements, it has been confirmed that no MoS₂ is left on the GS after the transfer, which ensures the complete lift-off of MoS₂ from the GS (Figures S3 and S4). From the AFM measurements, we have already confirmed that 3L MoS₂ remains as 3L after the transfer (Figure 2e).

We did XPS analysis of the as-grown and transferred 3L MoS_2 (GS-SiO₂/Si; TS-SiO₂/Si) to understand the effect of transfer on the stoichiometry and chemical composition of the MoS_2 film. Figure 4b shows the core-level spectra of Mo 3d and S 2s orbitals of the as-grown 3L MoS_2 film. The Mo^{+4} 3d



Figure 4. XPS spectra of 3L MoS₂ synthesized on SiO₂/Si (GS) and transferred onto SiO₂/Si (TS). (a, d) Survey spectrum of synthesized and transferred MoS₂, respectively. Core-level spectra of (b, e) Mo 3d and (c, f) S 2p peaks of as-grown and transferred MoS₂, respectively. (g) Na 1s binding energy spectrum of as-grown MoS₂ signifies the presence of the Na₂S/Na₂SO₄ layer underneath the MoS₂ film. (h) Na 1s peak was not observed in the transferred 3L MoS₂, confirming the dissolution of the Na₂S/Na₂SO₄ layer during the transfer process. (i) Contact angle measured for the transferred 3L MoS₂/SiO₃.



Figure 5. (a) UV-visible absorbance spectra and (b) XRD graph of transferred 3L MoS_2 onto the sapphire substrate. (c) SAED pattern showing the single-crystalline nature of 3L MoS_2 .

spectra consist of two peaks centered at 229.8 and 233.0 eV, corresponding to $3d_{5/2}$ and $3d_{3/2}$, respectively. The full width at half maximum (FWHM) values of $3d_{5/2}$ and $3d_{3/2}$ peaks are

~0.65 and ~0.87 eV, respectively. A small hump at 227.0 eV in the spectra, in addition to the peaks of Mo 3d, corresponds to S 2s. The spectra of S 2p deconvoluted into two peaks of $2p_{3/2}$



Figure 6. Photographs of the large-area (centimeter scale) transferred $3L MoS_2$ film onto flexible (a) mica and (b) polyimide substrates. The insets of (a) and (b) show $MoS_2/mica$ and $MoS_2/polyimide$ bending, respectively. (c) OM images of as-synthesized $3L MoS_2/SiO_2$ and transferred $MoS_2/mica$. (d) OM images of as-synthesized $3L MoS_2/SiO_2$ and transferred $MoS_2/polyimide$. (e) Raman spectra of as-grown and transferred $3L MoS_2$ onto mica and polyimide substrates, respectively.



Figure 7. XPS spectra of core levels of (a) Mo 3d and (b) S 2p binding energies of transferred 3L MoS_2 onto the mica substrate. (c) No significance of the Na 1s peak in the transferred 3L MoS_2 . (d) Survey scan of transferred 3L $MoS_2/mica$.

and $2p_{1/2}$, centered at 162.7 and 163.8 eV, with FWHM values of ~0.65 and ~0.68 eV, respectively (Figure 4c). All the values correctly match the previous literature reports.^{40,41} As shown

in Figure 4e,f, it has been observed that all the peak positions and FWHMs of the transferred film are almost similar to those of the as-grown film, indicating no change in the stoichiometry



Figure 8. (a) Photographs of as-grown and transferred 1L WS₂ from sapphire to mica substrates. W1 and W2 are the monolayer regions of asgrown WS₂/sapphire. Similarly, WT1 and WT2 are the mica substrates onto monolayer. WS₂ was transferred from W1 and W2, respectively. (b) OM images of synthesized 1L WS₂/sapphire and transferred 1L WS₂/mica. (c) Raman and (d) PL measurement of as-grown and transferred WS₂.

and chemical composition of the 3L MoS_2 film after the transfer. The presence of Na_2S/Na_2SO_4 underneath the MoS_2 film was confirmed by Na 1s core-level spectra of the as-grown film positioned at 1071.2 eV^{42,43} (Figure 4g). However, no Na 1s peak was observed in the transferred 3L MoS_2 , confirming the dissolution of the Na_2S/Na_2SO_4 layer during the transfer process (Figure 4h). Figure 4i shows the water contact angle of transferred 3L MoS_2/SiO_2 . The contact angle was around ~94.0°, which clearly shows the hydrophobic nature of MoS_2 . The surface energy was calculated using the Fowkes model using the contact angles of diiodomethane and DI water.⁴⁴ The total surface energy of 3L MoS_2 was 35.72 mN/m, which is the sum of two components: polar component (0.72 mN/m) and

dispersive component (35.00 mN/m). The dispersive component arises from the induced dipole–dipole interaction, and the polar component originates from the permanent dipole–dipole interaction.⁴⁵

The optical properties and crystallinity of the transferred 3L MoS₂ film were investigated using UV-visible and X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements on the transferred MoS₂/ sapphire. In the UV-vis absorbance spectra of 3L MoS₂, we observed two prominent peaks at wavelengths 663 and 614 nm corresponding to A and B excitonic bands, respectively (Figure 5a). These two excitons get generated due to the direct transition between the conduction band minimum and the split valence band's maxima at the *K*-point of the Brillouin



Figure 9. (a) Schematic illustration of the MSM photodetector with a monochromatic light beam. (b) I-V characteristics of the photodetector in the dark and under 650 and 250 nm illuminating wavelengths. (c) Variation of responsivity of the device with illuminating wavelength ranging from UV to NIR. (d) Behavior of responsivity and detectivity with wavelength.

zone.^{3,22} The absorbance peak (C exciton) around ~440 nm was also observed, which corresponds to van Hove singularities in the electronic density of states of MoS_2 .^{36,46} As shown in Figure 5b, the XRD analysis of 3L MoS_2 shows a broad peak corresponding to the (002) plane at Bragg's angle $2\theta \approx 13.7^{\circ}$. The XRD pattern matches the JCPDS card number 37-1492, confirming the hexagonal structure of MoS_2 with an interlayer spacing of 1.1 nm.⁴⁷ The selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern also ensures the single-crystalline nature and hexagonal symmetry of the 3L MoS_2 film (Figure 5c). Therefore, UV–visible spectroscopy and XRD confirm the high optical quality, uniformity, and single-crystalline nature of the large-area 3L MoS_2 film.

2.1. Transfer onto Flexible Substrates. To enhance the potential application of TMDCs in flexible electronics, we have transferred 3L MoS₂ onto flexible substrates: muscovite mica (highly flexible and high-temperature-stable) and polyimide. Optical microscopy images clearly show the clean and wrinklefree transferred films (Figure 6c,d). From the Raman measurements shown in Figure 6e, we found that $\Delta \omega$ changes from 22.2 to 22.6 and 22.2 to 22.5 cm⁻¹ for MoS₂ transferred onto mica and polyimide substrates, respectively. This again indicates that no strain was introduced in the film during the transfer process.³⁹ We also did the XPS analysis of the transferred 3L MoS₂/mica to confirm that our transfer process does not change the stoichiometry and chemical composition of the MoS₂ film. From Figure 7a,b, we observed no change in the peak positions and FWHM of peaks $3d_{5/2}$, $3d_{3/2}$, $2p_{3/2}$, and $2p_{1/2}$, which clearly shows that the stoichiometry and chemical composition of the transferred MoS₂ film are consistent with those of the as-grown film. The significance of the Na 1s peak

was also not observed in the transferred $MoS_2/mica$ sample (Figure 7c).

2.2. Layer Transfer of Large-Area Monolayer WS₂. To show the universality and feasibility of the transfer process, we implemented our transfer process to the transfer of large-area monolayer WS₂ from sapphire to mica substrates. Figure 8a shows an as-grown sample of 1L WS₂ on the sapphire substrate where W1 and W2 are the monolayer regions. The monolayer WS₂ film has been transferred from W1, W2 to WT1, and WT2 (WT1 and WT2 are mica substrates). The OM images shown in Figure 8b confirm the cleanliness of the transferred film. Raman and photoluminescence (PL) measurements were performed to examine the quality of transferred 1L WS₂. The Raman spectra of as-grown and transferred WS₂ are depicted in Figure 8c. Raman spectra contain two first-order vibrational modes: E_{2g}^{-1} (in-plane) and A_{1g} (out-of-plane) modes. We also observed two peaks at 324.1 and 352.5 cm⁻¹ corresponding to $2LA(M)-E_{2g}^{2}$ and 2LA(M) modes, respectively. The E_{2g}^{1} mode of transferred WS₂ exhibits a blue shift of ~ 1.5 cm⁻¹ as compared to that of as-grown WS₂ due to the tensile strain release effect.48 However, no shift was observed in the A1g mode after the transfer because it was not impacted by strain. Conversely, the A_{1g} mode is susceptible to the charge doping effect, while the \tilde{E}_{2g}^{-1} mode is unaffected by charge doping because of the strong electron–phonon coupling.^{49–51} In this transfer process, no additional charge doping was introduced; as a result, the A1g mode of transferred and as-grown WS2 remains identical. The 1L WS₂ shows the optical response from A and B excitonic transitions, which arise from the splitting of valence band maxima due to the spin-orbit interaction.^{52,53} In the PL spectrum of as-grown 1L WS₂, a single peak was observed at 1.99 eV, which may contain both



Figure 10. (a) Temporal response of the device recorded at 5 V biased voltage and fitted with the biexponential equation. The device was exposed to light for a period of 100 s, and then, the light was turned off for 100 s. (b) Linear response of photocurrent with incident power density.

charged (X⁻ and X⁺ trions) and neutral (X) A excitons (Figure 8d). The B excitonic peak is not measurable with this laser excitation. The PL spectrum of transferred WS₂ clearly shows the two distinct components neutral exciton (X) at 2.02 eV and negatively charged trion (X⁻) at 1.99 eV, which are wellfitted by the Lorentzian function. Note that the neutral exciton is fully absent in as-grown WS_{2} , while the X⁻ trion peak of transferred WS_2 is very similar to that of as-grown WS_2 .⁵⁰ The suppression of the neutral excitonic peak in as-grown WS₂ is due to the unintentional doping of electrons from the watersoluble layer underneath WS₂ and the n-type semiconducting nature of WS2. The water-soluble layer was completely dissolved during the transfer, reducing the unintended electron doping in WS₂.²⁶ This is the reason for that the intensity of the X exciton dominates the intensity of the X⁻ trion in the PL spectrum of transferred WS₂. Raman and PL spectra confirm that 1L WS₂ retains its optical properties after the transfer.

2.3. Device Application of the Water-Soluble Transfer Method. The compatibility of this transfer method with the nanoscale device fabrication technology was demonstrated by fabricating a broadband photodetector onto the transferred 3L MoS_2 /sapphire. The typical schematic of a metal-semiconductor-metal (MSM) photodetector is shown in Figure 9a. The electrical contacts of Ag/Au (40/60 nm) were deposited onto the MoS₂ film by thermal evaporation using a metal mask. The photo-to-dark current ratio (PDCR), responsivity (*R*), detectivity (D^*), and response time (t_{res}) are the key parameters for the performance of a photodetector. PDCR, *R*, and D^* are defined as

$$PDCR = \frac{I_{\rm p}}{I_{\rm d}} \tag{1}$$

$$R = \frac{I_{\rm p} - I_{\rm d}}{P_{\lambda} A_{\rm eff}} \tag{2}$$

$$D^* = \sqrt{\frac{A_{\rm eff}}{2eI_{\rm d}}} \times R \tag{3}$$

where I_d and I_p are the dark current and photocurrent, respectively, the power density is symbolized by P_{λ} corresponding to wavelength λ , A_{eff} is the effective area of the device illuminated with light, which is found to be 4.9 mm² for the present case, and *e* is the unit charge. Figure 9b shows the room temperature dark and photocurrent at wavelengths of 250 and 650 nm with power densities of 1 and 23.34 μ W/ mm², respectively. A significant increase can be seen in the photocurrent upon illumination of light. Interestingly, the photocurrent increased 10 times the dark current for the wavelength of 650 nm (visible region), while it increased 100 times for the wavelength of 250 nm (UV region). The enhancement in the current can be attributed to the generation of electron-hole pairs when the device is exposed to light under a biasing voltage. Figure 9c shows the spectral responsivity measurements carried out from 230 to 800 nm wavelengths at a fixed applied voltage (1.5 V). Responsivity continuously increases with a decrease in the illuminated wavelength. At a wavelength of 800 nm (NIR region) corresponding to the band gap of ~ 1.5 eV of trilayer MoS₂, the device shows weak photoresponse because the power density used here is very small (12.65 μ W/mm²). As reported by Choi et al., high power density is required for the noticeable photoresponse at the wavelength of 800 nm due to the weak absorption tail of the indirect band gap transition.⁵⁴ The first significant increase in responsivity was observed at 650 nm, corresponding to the band gap of monolayer MoS₂. However, responsivity is significantly increased in the UV region compared to that in the visible region, and the maximum value of R is 8.6 mA/W even at a low applied voltage (1.5 V)and low power density (0.6 μ W/mm²). The obtained responsivity value at a relatively low applied voltage is higher than that of some of the previously reported UV photo-detectors based on 2D materials.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶ Figure 9d shows the calculated D^* of photodetector at different wavelengths. The maximum detectivity was found to be 2.9×10^{11} Jones, which is comparatively higher than that of some of the previously reported photodetector devices. $^{\rm 57-60}$

Furthermore, the temporal response was taken to evaluate the detection speed of the photodetector. We have measured the time-dependent photocurrent at 3 V under UV illumination of 230 nm wavelength. The following biexponential equation was fitted with experimental data of the timeresponse curve to analyze the fast and slow components of the rise and decay times.⁶¹

$$I = I_0 + A_1 e^{-t/\tau_1} + A_2 e^{-t/\tau_2}$$
(4)

where *I* is the current at any time *t*. I_0 is steady-state current, A_1 and A_2 are fitting constants, and τ_1 and τ_2 are relaxation time constants. The fast (slow) components of the rise time were denoted by τ_{r1} (τ_{r2}). The fast and slow decay time components were denoted by τ_{d1} and τ_{d2} , respectively. Figure 10a shows the time-dependent photoresponse curve fitted with the biexponential eq 4. The fast and slow components of rise time were

found to be 0.7 and 12 s, respectively. Also, fast and slow decay components were extracted as 6 and 23 s, respectively. The decay time of current is relatively slow compared to the rise time, which may be due to the presence of traps and vacancies in the material.⁶² In addition, power density-dependent photoresponse was also investigated, and photocurrent was fitted with the power law.⁶³

$$I_{\rm p} = a P_{\lambda}^{\ b} \tag{5}$$

where P_{λ} is the power density and *a* and *b* are the proportionality constant and empirical constant, respectively. b = 1 indicates the trap-free carrier transport, and b < 1 suggests the trap-influenced carrier transport in the material. At 3 V applied voltage and 230 nm wavelength, *b* was found to be 0.73, showing the trap-assisted photocurrent transport (Figure 10b). Hence, the present work paves the way to utilize the 2D TMDCs for nanodevice fabrication.

3. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we have demonstrated a water-soluble layer-based transfer method enabling the clean transfer of large-area (centimeter scale) CVD-grown 2D TMDCs onto arbitrary substrates, including flexible substrates such as mica and polyimide. The preservation of the crystalline quality of the transferred film was confirmed by performing various characterization techniques. The versatility of the transfer method has been shown by transferring 3L MoS₂ and 1L WS₂ onto different substrates. Large-area transfer of TMDCs onto flexible substrates (mica, polyimide) allows the fabrication of flexible devices. This water-soluble layer-based transfer technique can be a good alternative to the wet-etching transfer method. The photodetector fabricated onto transferred 3L MoS_2 shows the compatibility of this transfer method with the nanoscale device fabrication technology. In addition, the photodetector exhibits broadband photoresponse (NIR-vis-UV) with a maximum responsivity of 8.6 mA/W and detectivity of 2.9×10^{11} Jones. The photocurrent significantly increased 100 times the dark current in the UV region, while it increased 10 times in the visible region. This work will serve the interest of the research community working toward the manufacturing of devices based on 2D materials for electronics, optoelectronics, bioinspired electronics, and flexible electronics. This transfer process can also integrate 2D materials with various platforms such as Si augmentation/replacement, IoT, and 2D/2D heterostructures.

4. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

4.1. Synthesis of Large-Area Trilayer MoS₂. A singlezone atmospheric pressure chemical vapor deposition (APCVD) system with a long quartz tube (45 cm) having 5 cm diameter was used to achieve the large-area synthesis of trilayer (3L) MoS₂ over the SiO₂ (300 nm, thermally oxidized Si)/Si substrate. Before the synthesis, the tube was purged at 300 °C with a 480 sccm argon (Ar) gas flow for 10 min to remove the preoccupied precursors, moisture, and other contaminations. In the typical procedure, we have chosen a molybdenum trioxide (MoO₃)-to-sulfur (S) particle ratio of ~1:30 (MoO₃ = 15 mg, S = 100 mg). For the growth of MoS₂, 100 mg of NaCl powder was mixed with MoO₃ powder in a quartz boat and placed in the middle of the CVD furnace tube. Another boat was placed 13.5 cm away from the middle of the tube, which contains S powder. MoS₂ was successfully grown at 650 °C for 20 min. Large-area growth of 3L-MoS₂ was achieved by controlling the concentration boundary layer formation in NaCl-assisted CVD of MoS₂. The concentration boundary layer is composed of sulfur and MoO₃ reactants, which react in a gaseous phase under the influence of NaCl powder. However, to investigate the role of the concentration boundary layer in CVD growth, we have tuned the distance between MoO₃ + NaCl precursors and the growing substrate. We have synthesized a high-quality large-area (centimeter scale) 3L-MoS₂ film over the SiO₂/Si substrate with good repeatability in synthesis. As reported in our previous work, a water-soluble layer (Na₂S/Na₂SO₄) was also grown underneath MoS₂.^{42,64} The Na₂S/Na₂SO₄ layer functions as a seed promoter and supports the nucleation of the large-area, uniform, and continuous MoS₂ film.

4.2. Synthesis of Large-Area Monolayer WS₂. The same single-zone APCVD system was used to grow the large-area monolayer (1L) WS₂ over the sapphire substrate. The tube was purged at 150 °C with a 480 sccm Ar gas flow for 30 min to remove humidity and the predeposited contaminants. A mixture of NaCl and WO₃ (99.995%, Sigma-Aldrich, 204781) powder was placed in the middle of the CVD furnace for 1 min at 820 °C, and 200 mg of sulfur (99.98%, Sigma-Aldrich, 414980) was placed at 20 cm away from the center of the furnace to achieve sulfurization in a 120 sccm Ar gas flow environment.

4.3. Characterization Techniques. We have performed photoluminescence (PL) and Raman measurements at room temperature (RT) using a Horiba Scientific (LabRAM HR Evolution) with 514 nm laser wavelength to study the optical properties of 3L MoS₂ and 1L WS₂ films. To analyze the surface morphology and thickness of the film, atomic force microscopy (AFM) was performed using a Bruker (Dimension ICON). A monochromatic Al K α X-ray line (probe size ~1.7 mm \times 2.7 mm energy 1486.7 eV) was used for X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis. A Philips Xpert Pro system with Cu K α (λ = 1.54 Å) was used to perform the X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements. An FESEM-Zeiss microscope (backscattering mode) was used to perform field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM). The photocurrent measurements were performed using a DC probe station (EverBeingEB6) coupled with a Keithley semiconductor characterization system (SCS4200). A xenon lamp (75 W) was used to measure the photoresponse of the device, which is combined with a computer-interfaced monochromator (Bentham TMC-300V). A Thorlabs power meter (PM-100D) was used for the power spectrum of the xenon lamp.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsomega.1c06855.

Transfer of 3L MoS_2 in 2 M NaOH solution, optical image of transferred 3L MoS_2 lifted off in hot DI water, optical and AFM images of the as-grown sample after transfer, and Raman spectra of the as-grown sample after transfer (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Madan Sharma thanks the Department of Science and Technology (DST) for the award of the research fellowship. The authors acknowledge the Nanoscale Research Facility (NRF) and Central Research Facility (CRF), Indian Institute of Technology Delhi, New Delhi, for providing the characterization facilities. We would also like to acknowledge "Grand Challenge Project on MBE growth of 2D materials" sponsored by the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD), India, and IIT Delhi for partial financial support for this work.

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