

Highly Sensitive Wide Bandwidth Photodetector Based on Internal Photoemission in CVD Grown p-Type MoS₂/Graphene Schottky Junction

PhaniKiran Vabbina,^{*,†} Nitin Choudhary,[‡] Al-Amin. Chowdhury,[†] Raju Sinha,[†] Mustafa Karabiyik,[†] Santanu Das,[‡] Wonbong Choi,[‡] and Nezhil Pala^{*,†}

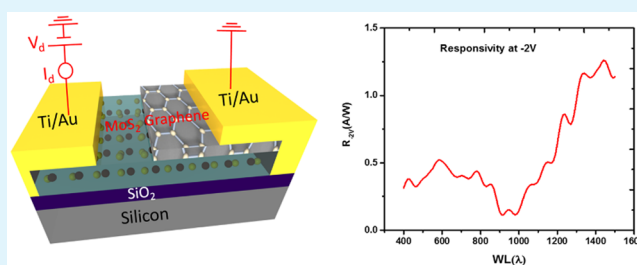
[†]INSYST Laboratory, Electrical and Computer Engineering, Florida International University, Miami, Florida 33174, United States

[‡]Nanomaterials and Device Laboratory, Department of Materials Science and Engineering, University of North Texas, Denton, Texas 76207, United States

Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Two dimensional (2D) Molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂) has evolved as a promising material for next generation optoelectronic devices owing to its unique electrical and optical properties, such as band gap modulation, high optical absorption, and increased luminescence quantum yield. The 2D MoS₂ photodetectors reported in the literature have presented low responsivity compared to silicon based photodetectors. In this study, we assembled atomically thin p-type MoS₂ with graphene to form a MoS₂/graphene Schottky photodetector where photo generated holes travel from graphene to MoS₂ over the Schottky barrier under illumination. We found that the p-type MoS₂ forms a Schottky junction with graphene with a barrier height of 139 meV, which results in high photocurrent and wide spectral range of detection with wavelength selectivity. The fabricated photodetector showed excellent photosensitivity with a maximum photo responsivity of 1.26 AW⁻¹ and a noise equivalent power of 7.8×10^{-12} W/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ at 1440 nm.

KEYWORDS: atomic layer MoS₂, graphene, Schottky junction, 2D hybrid materials, photodetector, CVD



1. INTRODUCTION

Graphene, a semimetallic, two-dimensional (2D) material with a single atomic layer, has been the most widely researched material owing to its superior electrical, mechanical, and optical properties such as high carrier mobility ($\sim 200\,000\text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$), high mechanical strength, flexibility, transparency, and high absorption rate (2.30% of incident light per each layer) among many other properties.^{1,2} Further, the gapless nature of graphene enables charge carrier generation over a wide energy spectrum from ultraviolet (UV) to terahertz (THz), making it a unique material for photonics and optoelectronics applications.³ Making use of the unique capabilities of graphene, many studies have been performed over the past decade to demonstrate highly efficient graphene photodetectors (GPDs) from visible to infrared (IR) range.^{4–6} Despite the many favorable properties, factors such as low total absorption due to single layer nature of graphene limited the responsivity of conventional GPDs to few tens of mA W^{-1} .³ Alternative methods such as colloidal quantum dots, microcavities, or plasmonic nanostructures have been used to improve the responsivity of the GPDs but these devices were found to respond to very limited spectra of the incident light.⁷ However, 2D semiconductor transition metal dichalcogenides (sTMDs) have also been widely used for photodetector applications.⁸ Atomically thin sTMDs provide a wide range of advantages in

optoelectronics when compared to their bulk counterparts owing to their high transparency, flexibility, and tunable bandgap. In particular, MoS₂ is a unique semiconductor material whose bulk counterpart has an indirect-gap of 1.20 eV but when reduced to a monolayer, it changes into direct bandgap material with a bandgap of 1.80 eV due to quantum confinement. This results in higher absorption coefficient and efficient electron–hole pair generation under photo excitation in monolayer MoS₂. A 10^4 fold enhancement of luminescence quantum yield for monolayer MoS₂ compared to bulk MoS₂ has been observed.⁹ There are several reports on the fabrication of MoS₂-based photodetectors. The first phototransistor based on monolayer MoS₂ showed a relatively poor photo responsivity of 7.50 mA W^{-1} .¹⁰ Choi et al. used multilayer MoS₂ to achieve 100 mA W^{-1} photo responsivity,¹¹ showing an improvement over the first phototransistor but still low compared to GPDs. Since then, much progress has been made, and more recently, phototransistors with responsivities ranging from few hundreds of mA W^{-1} to hundreds of AW^{-1} were reported.^{12,13} However, the reported MoS₂-based photo-

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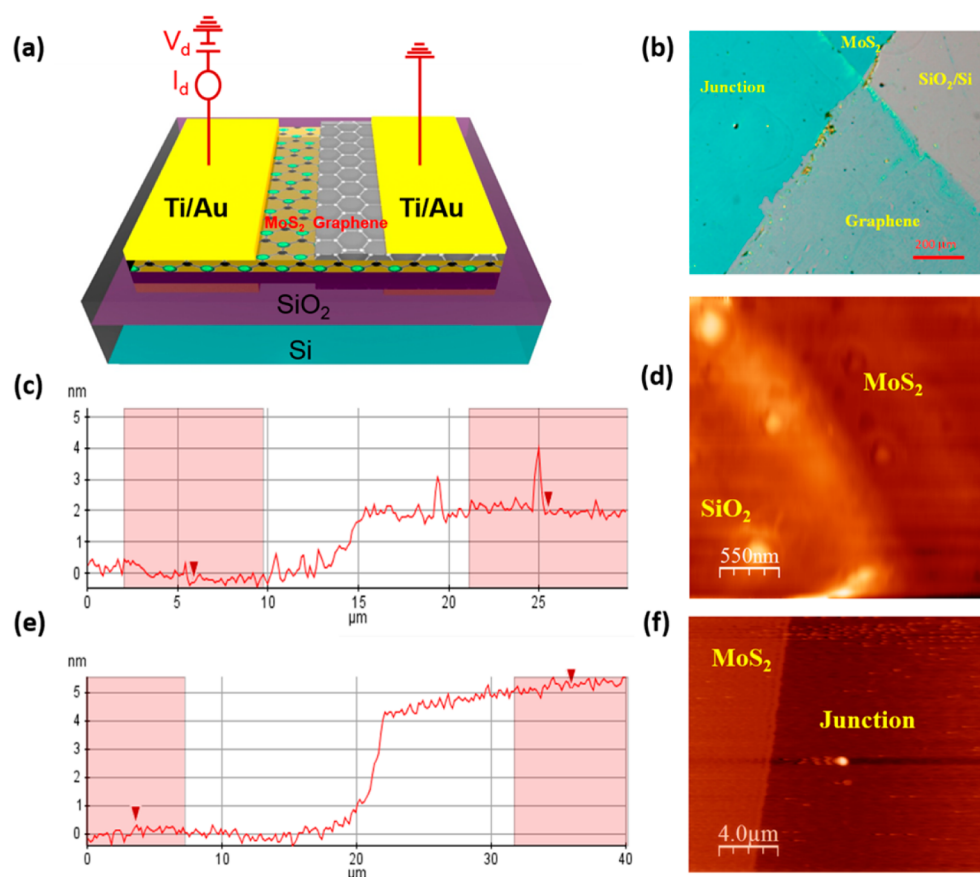


Figure 1. (a) Schematic of p-type MoS₂/graphene junction device; (b) optical image of MoS₂/graphene junction with individual areas clearly visible; (c) AFM height profile showing height of MoS₂; (d) AFM image of MoS₂-SiO₂ interface; (e) thickness of graphene at MoS₂/graphene junction; and (f) AFM image of MoS₂/graphene junction.

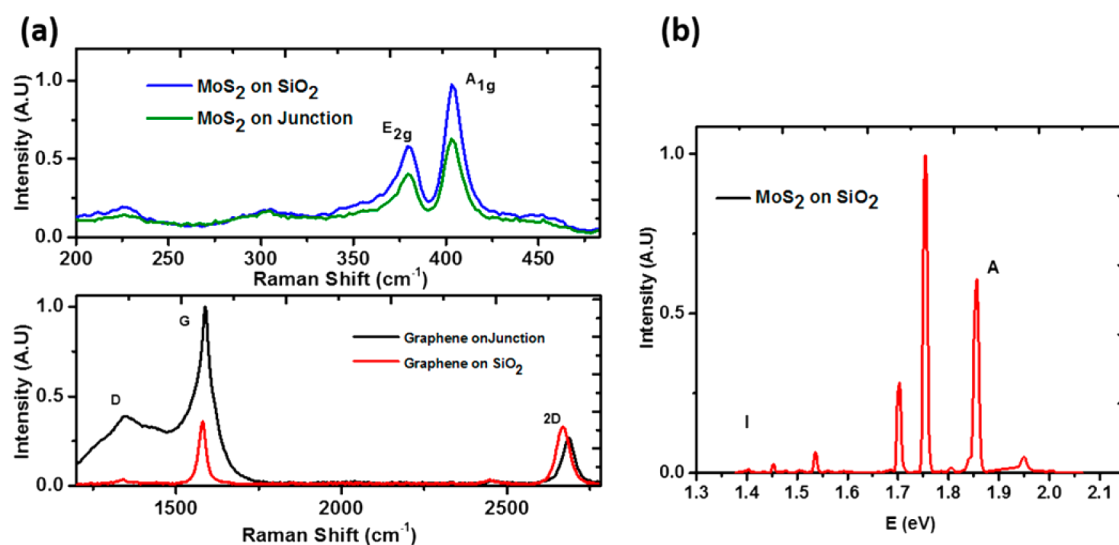


Figure 2. (a) Raman spectrum of MoS₂ and Graphene on SiO₂ and junction and (b) photoluminescence of MoS₂ on SiO₂ showing sharp peaks at 1.7, 1.75, and 1.85 eV, and smaller ones at 1.4 and 1.55 eV.

detectors are limited by narrow wavelength range and long response times.

To further improve the properties of graphene and MoS₂-based photodetectors, it is imperative to design new device structures like composites, heterostructures, or functionally graded thin films. Numerous efforts have been made to combine the properties of TMDs and graphene by assembling

graphene with other 2D crystals to create multifunctional high-performance hybrid devices.^{14–20} One of the hybrid structures includes the combination of graphene and MoS₂ in the form of thin film heterostructures. Coupling graphene with MoS₂ can produce a hybrid material that can utilize the high photon absorption capability in MoS₂ and high electron mobility in graphene to realize a highly efficient photodetector as shown by

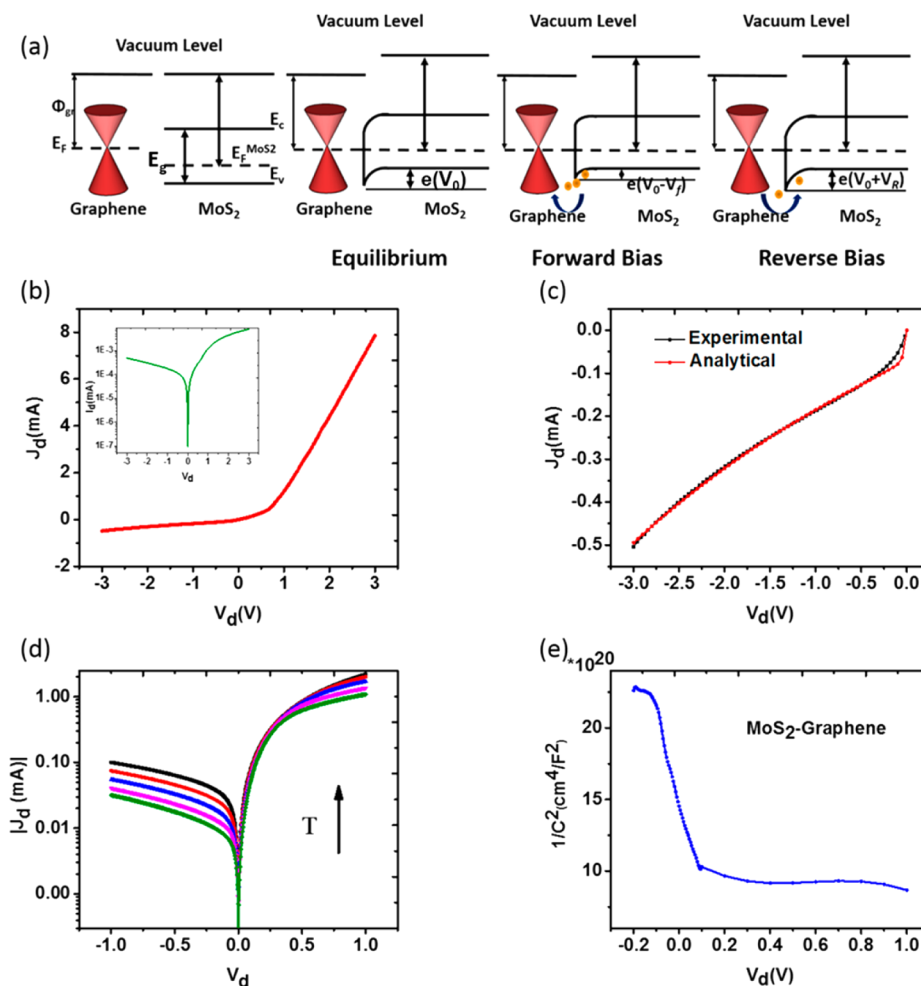


Figure 3. (a) Energy level alignment for MoS₂/ graphene structure, band diagram at junction in equilibrium, forward bias and reverse bias with carrier flow; (b) J - V curve showing rectification under reverse bias and exponentially increasing current in forward bias (inset: Absolute value of J - V plotted in logarithmic scale); (c) J - V at different temperatures showing an increase in J with increase in temperature; (d) $1/C^2$ plotted against voltage; and (e) reverse current from experimental and analytical model.

Zhang et al., who have achieved a high responsivity of 1.2×10^7 A/W by applying a gate voltage of -10 V at 690 nm laser illumination by simply stacking n-type monolayer MoS₂ over graphene.²¹ In the present study, we assembled few layers of graphene with few layers of p-type MoS₂ to form a simple MoS₂/graphene Schottky junction photodiode. We found that p-type MoS₂ provides a much lower Schottky barrier height with graphene with a broad spectral range of detection.

2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 1a shows the schematic of the studied photodiode. Sputtering-CVD technique was used to synthesize a few layers of MoS₂, as described by Choi et al.,²² while the CVD process is used to synthesize graphene.²³ Figure 1b shows the optical microscope image depicting the color contrast over the four different regions: (1) SiO₂, (2) MoS₂, (3) Graphene, and (4) MoS₂/graphene junction (MGJ). Atomic force microscopy (AFM) was used to study the thickness and the interface of MoS₂ and graphene. Figure 1, parts c and e, shows the thickness measured using AFM. We observed that the average thickness of MoS₂ layer is 2 nm and that of graphene is 5 nm, which suggests that as-grown MoS₂ was about 3–4 layers thick. Raman spectroscopy is a widely used method to determine the

number of layers, quality and defects present in these 2D materials.²⁴

Figure 2a shows the Raman spectra of MoS₂ and graphene, measured over SiO₂ and junction regions using a 532 nm excitation laser line. We observed strong peaks at 379.77 and 403.52 cm⁻¹, corresponding to the in plane E_{2g} mode and out-of-plane A_{1g} mode of MoS₂, respectively. The peak frequency difference of 23.75 cm⁻¹ between the two modes indicates that as-grown MoS₂ is 4–5 layers thick, which is in agreement with the previously reported results²⁵ and also with our results obtained by AFM height analysis. The Raman spectra of graphene on SiO₂ evidence the formation of 2D and “G” characteristics peaks at 2666.83 and 1580.16 cm⁻¹, respectively, which is consistent with the previous reports on few layer graphene.²⁶ However, a red peak shift of ~ 18.8 cm⁻¹ was observed in the 2D peak of graphene when Raman spectra was taken at the junction. The observed peak shift could be attributed to an increase in hole concentration at the MoS₂/graphene junction.²⁷ This is a common phenomenon for p-type semiconductor-metal Schottky junction where holes travel from the p-type semiconductor to metal as their Fermi levels are aligned. Figure 2b shows photoluminescence (PL) spectrum measured at room temperature. Peak “A” associated with excitonic transitions at the “K” point of Brillouin zone is

observed at 1.85 eV while peak “I” at 1.40 eV corresponding to indirect gap which is prominent in bulk MoS₂ is almost negligible, confirming that the fabricated device is formed by few layers of MoS₂.^{28,29} We also observe a strong emission at 1.75 eV which has been attributed to radiative recombination of neutral excitons bound to defects (X⁰) caused by Sulfur (S) vacancies.^{30,31}

The conduction behavior of MoS₂ films deposited on Si/SiO₂ substrates was determined by fabricating field effect transistor (FET) devices with 50 nm thick Au as source and drain electrodes, 300 nm thick SiO₂ served as the dielectric layer, while doped silicon was used as the back gate. The output and transfer characteristics of our MoS₂ FET, as shown in Figure S1 in the Supporting Information (SI), confirm a p-type conduction behavior with a field effect mobility of ~12.24 cm²V⁻¹s⁻¹, which is higher than mechanically exfoliated and CVD grown MoS₂ FETs on Si/SiO₂ substrates^{32,33} and I_{on/off} ratio of ~10⁶.²² The origin of p-type conduction in MoS₂/SiO₂ system is not fully understood yet. On the basis of ab initio DFT calculations. Douli et al. showed that a p-type conduction in MoS₂ films on SiO₂ substrates could be due to the presence of localized trap states arising from impurities or defects within the oxide substrate or at the interface with the conducting channel. Such states can redefine the effective Fermi level of the hybrid system to make it either n-type or p-type. The effect of the trap states could be especially pronounced in low dimension materials, as in the case of few layer MoS₂.³⁴ The trap states might have originated from the immobile ionic charges, SiO₂ surface oxygen dangling bonds or foreign impurities presented at the SiO₂/MoS₂ interface during MoS₂ synthesis. The defects present at the SiO₂ and MoS₂ interface could also be due to the Mo diffusion into SiO₂ when it was sulfurized in the CVD furnace at the high temperature of 600 °C.^{35,36}

When a semimetallic graphene is assembled over semiconducting MoS₂, a Schottky junction like behavior is expected. The schematic of carrier transport at MoS₂/graphene junction under forward and reverse bias is shown in Figure 3a. In Figure 3b, the current–voltage (*J*–*V*) characteristics measured at MoS₂/graphene is displayed. As can be seen from the *J*–*V* plot and the *I* vs *V* plot shown in the inset, the junction shows a clear rectification as exponentially increasing current passes in the forward bias, while there is strong resistance in the reverse bias, which prevents flow of holes from graphene to MoS₂. From the current–voltage and the Raman measurement results showing an influx of holes in to graphene from MoS₂ at the junction, it can be concluded that a Schottky barrier junction (SBJ) similar to a metal–semiconductor junction is formed between graphene and MoS₂. However, we observe that the current never reaches a complete saturation in reverse bias unlike an ideal metal–semiconductor Schottky junction. This is due to the bias dependent Fermi level observed in graphene which results in a variable Schottky barrier height (SBH) at different bias voltages. Recently Tongay et al. have proposed a model for the current observed in graphene–semiconductor junctions taking into account the change in graphene Fermi level with applied bias.³⁷ The current in the Schottky diode is given by the following:

$$J(V) = A^*T^2 \exp\left(-\frac{e\Phi_{\text{SBH}}^0 + e\Delta\Phi_{\text{SBH}}(V)}{k_B T}\right) \left[\exp\left(\frac{eV}{k_B T}\right) - 1\right] \quad (1)$$

where *A** is Richardson’s constant, Φ_{SBH}⁰ is Schottky barrier height (SBH) at zero bias and *e*ΔΦ_{SBH}(*V*) is the difference in Schottky barrier height due to change in the Fermi level of Graphene with applied bias and is given by the following:

$$e\Delta\Phi_{\text{SBH}}(V) = -(\Delta E_F^G(V)) = \hbar v_{\text{FL}} \left[\sqrt{\pi(n_0 - n_{\text{induced}})} - \sqrt{\pi n_0} \right] = -\frac{1}{2} \hbar v_{\text{FL}} \sqrt{\frac{\pi \epsilon_s \epsilon_0 N_A (V_0 + V_R)}{2en_0}} \quad (2)$$

where *N*_A is acceptor concentration in the semiconductor, *V*₀ is the built-in voltage, *V*_R reverse bias voltage, and *n*₀ the carrier density in graphene. The modified saturation current is as follows:

$$J_s(V) = A^*T^2 \exp\left(-\frac{e\Phi_{\text{SBH}}^0 + e\Delta\Phi_{\text{SBH}}(V)}{k_B T}\right) \quad (3)$$

Zero bias Schottky barrier height (Φ_{SBH}⁰) was measured from the temperature dependent *J*–*V* measurements carried at four different temperatures and capacitance–voltage (*C*–*V* measurements were used to measure acceptor concentration *N*_A and built in voltage *V*₀. The change in current (*I*) with temperature is shown in Figure 3c, which shows that the current increases with temperature in both bias directions. The value of Φ_{SBH}⁰ can be obtained from the slope of Richardson’s plot given by the following:^{38,39}

$$\Phi_{\text{SBH}}^0 = \frac{V_1}{n} - \frac{k}{q} \frac{\partial[\ln(I/T^2)]}{\partial(1/T)} \quad (4)$$

We measured the Φ_{SBH}⁰ of MGJ at *V*₁ = 0.3 V to be 139.20 meV, where the ideality factor “*n*” is obtained from intercept of the linear region of the *J*–*V* plot and measured to be 1.86 while Richardson’s constant *A** is 0.70 × 10⁻⁶ A cm⁻² K⁻². The greater than unity value of the ideality factor can be attributed to enhanced image-force lowering across the MGJ and Schottky-barrier inhomogeneity.³⁷ Capacitance–Voltage measurements are used to obtain built-in voltage (*V*₀) and doping density values, from Schottky–Mott relationship. When square of inverse of capacitance (1/*C*² (cm⁴F⁻²)) plotted against applied voltage in reverse bias, (1/*C*²) varies linearly with applied bias before saturating this can be extrapolated to intersect the abscissa to obtain built-in potential *V*₀ = (Φ_{MoS₂} – Φ_{Gr}), and the slope of the linear region gives the doping density (*N*_A) of MoS₂. From Figure 3d, we can see that the measured values hold the linearity in reverse bias. We measured *V*₀ and *N*_A values to be 280 mV and 6.64 × 10²¹ cm⁻³ (3.32 × 10¹⁵ cm⁻²) respectively. By considering the work function of graphene from literature to be 4.50 eV, the work function of *p*-type MoS₂ is found to be 4.78 eV.⁴⁰ Experimental and theoretical values of reverse current obtained from the analytical model developed shown in Figure 3e closely match each other.

One of the most interesting application of Schottky diodes is their use as photodetectors. MoS₂/graphene hybrid structure would be an excellent material for photodetection, as both

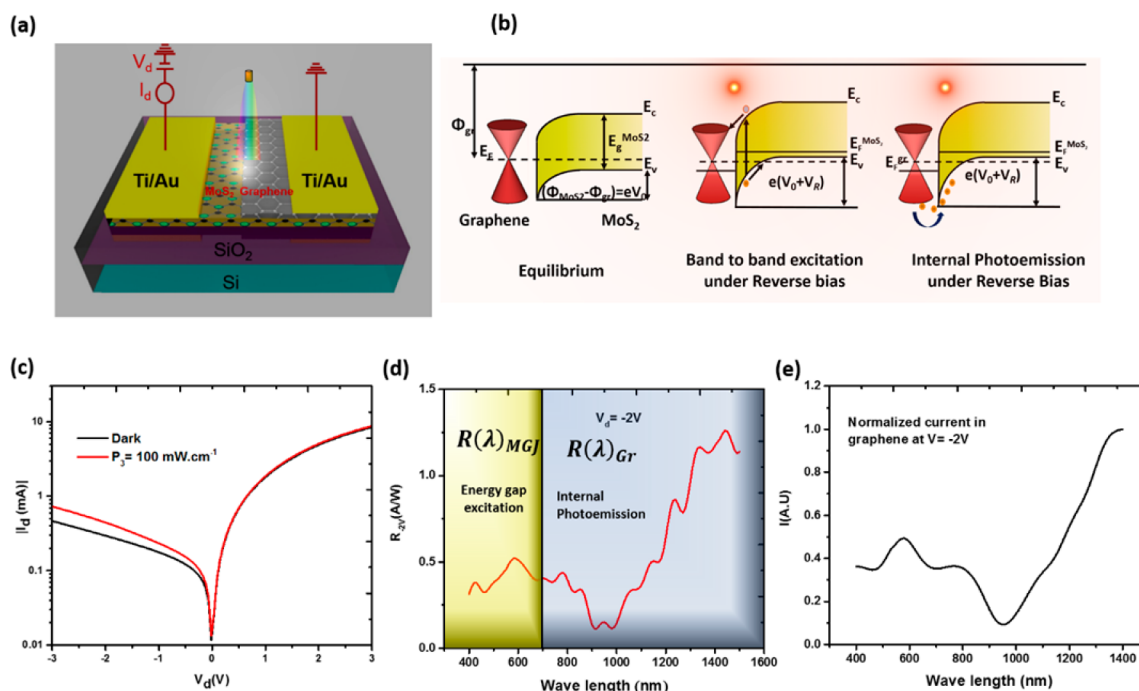


Figure 4. (a) MGPD under illumination; (b) illustration of photocurrent generation in a Schottky diode under illumination; (c) J - V at dark and under 100 mW/cm^2 illumination; (d) photo responsivity of MGPD at different wavelengths (spectral response); and (e) photoconductivity of graphene.

materials show high photosensitivity. Graphene being a gapless material exhibits sensitivity to light over a wide range of wavelengths from visible light to mid and far-infrared. High electron mobility and high absorption would also contribute toward high responsivity in graphene. However, atomically thin MoS_2 has shown some interesting optical phenomenon such as 10^4 fold increase in photoluminescence when compared to bulk MoS_2 and significant responsivity in visible light.²⁹ By stacking both MoS_2 and graphene together to form Schottky junction, we would be able to harness these features of both materials to build high performing photodetectors. In general, Schottky photodiodes operate in two modes: (1) Energy gap excitation where electron–hole pairs are generated by band to band excitation in the semiconductor when energy of photon is greater than the band gap of semiconductor $h\nu > E_g$ and (2) internal photoemission which is observed when the incident light energy is greater than the Schottky barrier energy and smaller than the bandgap of semiconductor ($\Phi_{\text{SBH}} < h\nu < E_g$) resulting in photo emission of carriers from metal surface close to the junction which are then driven toward the semiconductor over the Schottky barrier due to the electric field in the junction. This leads to a wide spectral range of detection based on the SBH values obtained.⁴¹ Both schemes are explained in Figure 4b. A Schottky barrier photodiode is conventionally operated in reverse bias where the increase in barrier results in very small reverse current and hence any increase in current by the photocurrent can be detected with a high sensitivity. This makes it easy to exactly measure the photocurrent generated. The expression for diode current is given by the following:

$$J(V) = A^*T^2 \left[\exp\left(\frac{eV}{k_B T}\right) - 1 \right] - J_{\text{op}} \quad (5)$$

where J_{op} is the photon induced current equal to R^*P_{op} , where R is the responsivity of the photodiode, and P_{op} is the power of incident light, the first part of the equation is the current equation in ideal Schottky diode. By replacing the diode current term with the modified Schottky diode current presented in eq 1, we can write the diode current equation as follows:

$$J(V) = A^*T^2 \exp\left(-\frac{e\Phi_{\text{SBH}}^0 + e\Delta\Phi_{\text{SBH}}(V)}{k_B T}\right) \left[\exp\left(\frac{eV}{k_B T}\right) - 1 \right] - J_{\text{op}} \quad (6)$$

In order to study the operation of the photodiode in both modes we have studied the performance of the device in a wide spectral range from 400 to 1500 nm. The spectral response “ R ” of the device measured at 2 V reverse bias is shown in Figure 4d. When the diode is operated in energy gap excitation mode where $h\nu > E_g^{\text{MoS}_2}$ a maximum photo responsivity of $R_{\text{max}} = 0.52 \text{ AW}^{-1}$ is observed at 590 nm. Beyond 670.00 nm, where the incident photon energy is smaller than $E_g^{\text{MoS}_2}$ the photo current is due to internal photo emission in Graphene where photo generated holes move toward MoS_2 . We find that the responsivity actually increases from 980 nm reaching a maximum value of 1.26 AW^{-1} at 1440 nm before starting to fall. The obtained responsivity is not the highest but higher than many state of the art devices. A comparison of the MoS_2 /graphene photo detectors is provided in Table 1 of the SI. This increase in responsivity follows the increase in photoconductivity observed in graphene which is shown in Figure 4(e). This kind of increased optical conductivity in graphene has been observed in intra band conductivity in earlier studies.⁴²

One of the most important detector characteristics is the noise equivalent power (NEP), which represents the lowest

input power giving a unit signal/noise ratio. In a Schottky junction photodetector, both Johnson noise which is due to thermal noise associated with the resistance and shot noise, which is associated with the overall current contribute toward the overall noise. The Johnson noise current i_j is given by $i_j = ((4k_B T)/(R_{eq}))^{1/2}$ where k_B is the Boltzmann constant, T is the absolute temperature, and R_{eq} is the equivalent resistance. The R_{eq} is obtained from the slope of $I-V$ of MGPD at -2 V measured in dark. For R_{eq} of 5.83 M Ω and for normalized bandwidth (B) at room temperature the Johnson noise i_j is 1.68 pA. The shot noise is given by the following:

$$i_s = \sqrt{2q(I_{ph} + I_d)B}$$

where I_{ph} is the photo current, and I_d is the dark current. The measured shot noise current at -2 V is 11.2 pA at 1400 nm. The total noise current i_n is 11.3 pA, and the NEP, which is the ratio of i_n and the responsivity, is calculated.^{43,44} We obtain a minimum NEP of 7.8×10^{-12} W/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ and corresponding detectivity of 4.2×10^{10} cm. $\sqrt{\text{Hz/W}}$ at 1400 nm. The measured NEP of MGPD is less than typical Si photodetectors.

3. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we succeeded in fabricating high bandwidth photodetectors by stacking a few layers of p-type MoS₂ over a few layers of graphene to form a Schottky junction photodiode. Stable optical properties of MoS₂ and high carrier mobility in graphene contribute to efficient charge separation at the junction. Apart from the impressive charge carrier properties, graphene also exhibits a wide bandwidth absorption, which allows for the photodiode to operate in both energy gap excitation mode and internal photo emission mode, thereby extending the detection range to higher wavelengths than those reported in earlier MoS₂/graphene Schottky junctions. From the spectral response, we find that the fabricated device performs well over a wide range of wavelengths from visible region to mid infrared region with internal photo emission in graphene playing a major role in extending the range of the device. We have studied the junction characteristics and presented the underlying phenomenon of charge transfer in a 2D MoS₂/graphene Schottky junction. The CVD process is used in growing large area MoS₂ and graphene which, along with the simplicity of fabrication, can be easily integrated with metal oxide semiconductor (CMOS) technology.

4. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

4.1. Fabrication. MoS₂/graphene junction devices were fabricated by growing atomically thin MoS₂ film on Si/SiO₂ substrates followed by the transfer of graphene. For MoS₂ deposition, the first step involves the sputtering of Mo thin films on (100) oriented *n*-type (As doped, resistivity <0.005 Ω .cm) silicon substrates coated with 300 nm thick SiO₂ layer. A high purity (99.99%) Mo metal target of 50 mm diameter was used for sputtering Mo thin films. In the second step, magnetron sputtered Mo/SiO₂/Si films were subsequently placed in a low-pressure chemical vapor deposition (LPCVD) system (Graphene Square CVD) and sulfurization was proceeded at 600 °C for 30 min. The detail of MoS₂ synthesis can be found in our recent report.²² Polycrystalline copper foils (Nimrod Hall, 99.9% purity, 25 μ m thick) were used as the substrates for graphene growth. The Cu foil was electro-polished using a home-built electrochemistry cell, rinsed in methanol and deionized water solution (1:1), and then gently blown with compressed nitrogen for drying. The cleaned Cu foil was loaded into the low-pressure thermal CVD system. The reaction chamber was evacuated to ~ 0.1 mTorr and refilled with 2.5 sccm of pure H₂. The temperature was increased to 1000 °C within 40 min and then

annealed for 1 h. After annealing, 20 sccm of CH₄ and 2.5 sccm of H₂ were introduced into the chamber for graphene growth at 1000 °C under the pressure of 5 Torr for a certain growth time. After the growth, the CH₄ flow was turned off, and the chamber was cooled down under H₂ environment.

The graphene transfer method used was as follows: (1) PMMA (MicroChem Corp. 495 PMMA A2) solution was spin-coated onto the graphene/Cu foil at 5000 rpm for 1 min, followed by drying the sample in the air; (2) the Cu foil was etched with metal etchant (type I, Transene company, Inc.), resulting in the PMMA/graphene film floating to the top of the etchant solution; (3) the PMMA/graphene film was washed in a beaker containing deionized water, and floated on 10% HCl solution for 10 min, and transferred to a beaker with deionized water for another wash (done 3 \times); (4) the film was transferred to a beaker with deionized water for another wash, and this process was repeated three times; (5) the film was then finally scooped onto a Si/SiO₂/MoS₂ substrate with the PMMA side up and dried in the air; (6) the PMMA layer was removed by immersing the sample in a large volume of acetone; and (7) the sample was dried with compressed nitrogen. Figure 1a shows the schematic of the MoS₂/graphene photodetector device structure simply formed by a manual stacking of a graphene onto MoS₂. 50-nm thick Au/Ti metal contacts were deposited by electron beam evaporation after using a shadow mask. The shadow masks were carefully prepared using a laser writer so as to maintain the contact area and position accurately. The deposited contacts were later annealed at 350 °C for 30 min.

4.2. Characterization. Atomic force microscopy (Parks NX-10) and Raman spectroscopy (Bay Spec spectrometer) were employed to measure the thickness of MoS₂ and graphene layers. In order to determine the conduction in MoS₂, electrical measurements were performed at room temperature using an Agilent B2912A precision source/measure unit (2 ch, 10 fA, 210 V, 3A DC/10.5A Pulse) connected to a probe station with 20 μ m size tungsten probes. Room temperature photoluminescence (PL) using He-Cd laser line at 325 nm and 10 mW laser power, and visible spectroscopy was employed to characterize the quality of MoS₂/graphene heterostructure. The spectral response measurement system QEX10 from PV Measurements Inc. which houses a Xenon arc lamp was used to measure the spectral response of the MoS₂/graphene photodetectors.

The optical power of the xenon lamp at different wavelengths was measured using a multifunction optical meter from Newport. A plot of optical power of the xenon lamp with respect to the wavelength is given in Figure S2 in the SI. The responsivity of the MGPD was calculated by taking the ratio of photocurrent density and power density at every 10 nm between 400 and 1500 nm.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

📄 Supporting Information

Detailed MoS₂ transfer characteristics and the power of xenon lamp with respect to wavelength, and a comparison of fabricated MGPD with other MoS₂. The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acsami.5b00887.

■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Authors

*E-mail: pvabb001@fiu.edu (P.V.).

*E-mail: npala@fiu.edu (N.P.).

Author Contributions

The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have contributed equally and have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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