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## Experimental verification of $\text{SO}_2$ and S desorption contributing to defect formation in $\text{MoS}_2$ by thermal desorption spectroscopy†

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The defect-free surface of  $\text{MoS}_2$  is of high importance for applications in electronic devices. Theoretical calculations have predicted that oxidative etching could be responsible for sulfur vacancy formation. No direct experimental evidence, however, points out the role of adsorbed oxygen on sulfur vacancy formation for  $\text{MoS}_2$ , especially on an insulating  $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Si}$  substrate. Herein, by applying thermal desorption spectroscopy, we found that sulfur loss can be tightly coupled to adsorbed oxygen, as confirmed by observation of  $\text{SO}_2$  desorption. With annealing  $\text{MoS}_2$ , even under ultrahigh vacuum, oxygen molecules adsorbed on  $\text{MoS}_2$  assist the sulfur atom in dissociating from  $\text{MoS}_2$ , and thus, defects are formed as the result of  $\text{SO}_2$  desorption from 200 °C to 600 °C. At higher temperatures (over 800 °C), on the other hand, direct sulfur desorption becomes dominant. This finding can be well explained by combining the morphology investigation enabled by atomic layer deposition at defective sites and optical transitions observed by photoluminescence measurements. Moreover, a preannealing treatment prior to exfoliation was found to be an effective method to remove the adsorbed oxygen, thus preventing defect formation.

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### 1. Introduction

$\text{MoS}_2$ , a two-dimensional (2D) layered material, is promising as a channel material for next-generation field-effect transistors (FETs) because a natural thin body can overcome the scaling limit for the Si gate length.<sup>1,2</sup> Although the dangling-bond-free surface of the layered  $\text{MoS}_2$  channel is expected to ideally provide an electrically inert interface, sulfur vacancies in reality have been recognized as a dominant defect in  $\text{MoS}_2$  due to the lowest formation energy of ~1.3–1.5 eV under S-poor conditions.<sup>3,4</sup> Moreover, sulfur vacancies are known to introduce defect states in the band gap, which degrades the FET performance.<sup>5–8</sup> Therefore, controlling sulfur vacancies has still been an critical issue due to the limited understanding of its formation mechanism, even though many healing processes based on various adsorbates or S vapor annealing have been proposed.<sup>9–12</sup>

The stability of  $\text{MoS}_2$  has been intensively studied thus far.<sup>13,14</sup> The conventional mechanical exfoliation process for device fabrication leads to exposure to ambient air, which introduces adsorbates on the  $\text{MoS}_2$  surface and edge. These adsorbates, such as oxygen and water, greatly affect chemical

stability, since thermodynamic calculations suggest that most 2D materials show oxidation tendencies.<sup>15</sup> The long-term exposure of  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes to ambient air has proven the gradual oxidation from the edges to the interior of  $\text{MoS}_2$ <sup>16</sup> because the coordinatively unsaturated edge is energetically more favorable for oxidation than the basal plane.<sup>17–20</sup> For intentional exposure to an oxygen environment,<sup>21</sup> the basal plane of  $\text{MoS}_2$  is oxidized, and  $\text{MoO}_3$  is formed during oxidation above 400 °C. This is further supported by the aggressive oxidation using oxygen plasma, where layer-by-layer oxidation was observed since  $\text{MoO}_3$  formed on the  $\text{MoS}_2$  surface prevented further oxidation.<sup>22</sup> Interestingly, for an oxygen/air environment at lower temperatures of 300–340 °C, however, layer-by-layer anisotropic etching of  $\text{MoS}_2$  results in triangular pits, which are initiated *via* intrinsic defects on the basal plane of  $\text{MoS}_2$ .<sup>21,23</sup> This oxidative etching is explained by the reaction of  $\text{MoS}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{MoO}_3 \uparrow + \text{SO}_2 \uparrow$ ,<sup>18,24</sup> where both  $\text{MoO}_3$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  are volatile. Thus, oxidative etching is considered to be an important process when  $\text{MoS}_2$  is exposed to oxygen or air.

Recently, atomic-resolution scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) suggested that the  $\text{O}_2$  adsorbed on the basal plane of  $\text{MoS}_2$  volatilized as  $\text{SO}_2$  by removing S, leaving S vacancies with O saturation on the basal plane.<sup>10</sup> This  $\text{O}_2$ -assisted S vacancy formation in ambient air at room temperature (RT) is estimated to be energetically spontaneous with –0.49 eV by first principles calculation. On the other hand, in a high vacuum environment, the creation of S vacancies has been confirmed not at 127 °C but at elevated temperatures >627 °C by atomic-resolution STM<sup>25</sup>

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and transmission electron microscopy (TEM).<sup>26</sup> These results indicate that the formation of S vacancies at RT cannot be fully explained without the existence of oxygen adsorbed on the basal plane of MoS<sub>2</sub>, suggesting the importance of O<sub>2</sub> adsorption and reaction mechanism. Therefore, further theoretical studies on the initial step of oxidative etching have been conducted in detail.<sup>27</sup> However, direct experimental evidence of SO<sub>2</sub> desorption as well as direct S desorption has not yet been proven.

Here, thermal desorption mass spectrometry (TDS) is used to study the surface reaction and desorption kinetics in Si<sup>28,29</sup> Ge,<sup>30</sup> and HOPG<sup>31</sup> by detecting a small amount of desorption species using a quadrupole mass spectrometer (QMS). By using this TDS system, it may be possible to detect SO<sub>2</sub> and/or S desorption from MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes transferred onto SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrates in ambient air. Although no measurement method to observe S vacancies with atomic resolution is available for MoS<sub>2</sub> on an insulating substrate, it is well known that Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> during atomic layer deposition (ALD) is adsorbed only at the defect sites;<sup>32-35</sup> this will allow us to visualize the defect evolution with the assistance of surface topology observed macroscopically by atomic force microscopy (AFM). In this research, a quantitative characterization of the defect evolution mechanism of MoS<sub>2</sub> on SiO<sub>2</sub> at elevated temperatures up to ~1000 °C is realized by combining TDS and ALD.

## 2. Experimental

2H-MoS<sub>2</sub> crystals purchased from SPI supplies were used in this study. First, a 110 nm SiO<sub>2</sub>/n<sup>+</sup>-Si substrate was sonicated by acetone and isopropyl alcohol for 10 min in laboratory air. After a few exfoliations by metallic tweezers, the bulk MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes were directly transferred to the SiO<sub>2</sub>/n<sup>+</sup>-Si substrate. This procedure provides a sufficiently large surface area of MoS<sub>2</sub> for the TDS measurements, while it prevents any tape residue on the substrate since the tape is not used. Other 2H-bulk transition metal dichalcogenides (WS<sub>2</sub>, WSe<sub>2</sub>, MoSe<sub>2</sub> and MoTe<sub>2</sub>) were grown by chemical vapor transport method<sup>36</sup> and treated by the same method applied for MoS<sub>2</sub>. Alternatively, MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes were

clashed into powders using a mortar to further increase the surface area of MoS<sub>2</sub>. Then, the MoS<sub>2</sub> powders were placed on the SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate. Fig. 1a illustrates the TDS apparatus, which allows selective heating of only the Si substrate *via* infrared radiation from the underlying power-operated lamp under ultrahigh vacuum (UHV) conditions of ~4 × 10<sup>-8</sup> Pa. Since this TDS is cold wall system, the desorption from the inner chamber wall can be avoided during the sample heating. The QMS functions by manipulating the electric field between four orthogonal rods to collect ionized desorbed molecules and atoms and thus enables distinguishing the desorbed species according to its atomic/molecular mass-to-charge ratio. The bulk MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes were heated from room temperature to ~1000 °C with a heating rate of 20 °C min<sup>-1</sup>, and TDS spectra were detected in multi-ion detection mode with a sensitivity up to 10<sup>-15</sup> A.

For ALD, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was deposited on MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes in a hot wall chamber at 200 °C with trimethylaluminum (TMA), water, and nitrogen as the precursor, oxidant, and purge gas, respectively.<sup>32</sup> The pulse time for TMA/water is 0.1 s/0.5 s, respectively. Ten cycles were performed to obtain ~2 nm-thick Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. The surface morphology was measured with dynamic force mode by AFM. The Raman and photoluminescence (PL) spectra were measured at RT in ambient air using a 488 nm excitation laser with a power of 0.06 mW to avoid the degradation of MoS<sub>2</sub> owing to laser heating.

## 3. Results and discussion

First, the desorption of adsorbates on the SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate without MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes should be examined. As shown in Fig. S1a,† in addition to the small amount of H<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O physisorbed on the SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate was clearly detected in the temperature range of 100–300 °C because the SiO<sub>2</sub> surface is hydrophilic.<sup>37</sup> After transferring MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes onto the SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate, the desorption of H<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> was enhanced, as shown in Fig. S1b,† This indicates that many kinds of gas

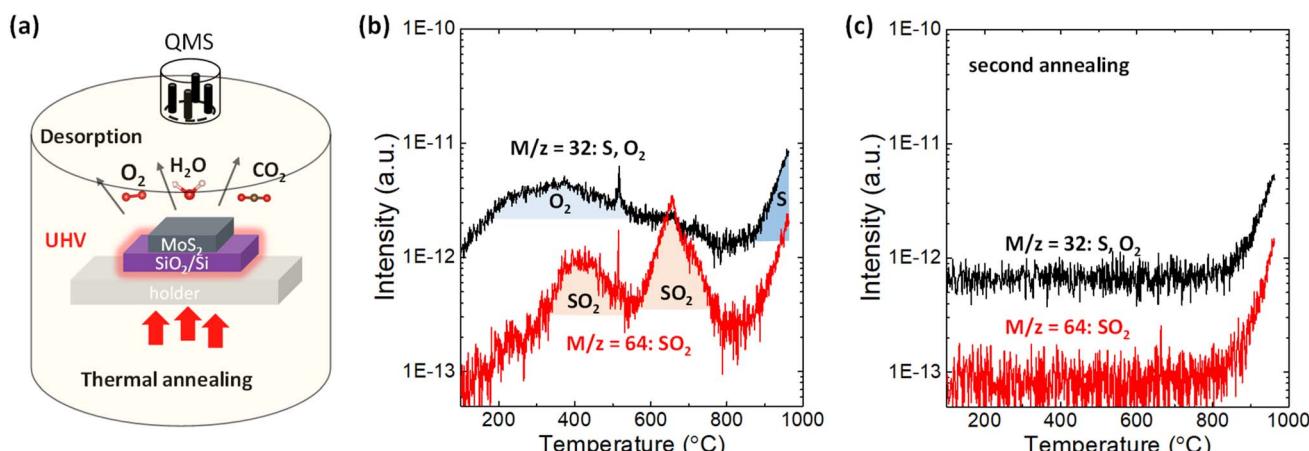


Fig. 1 (a) Illustration of thermal desorption spectroscopy applied in this experiment. (b) TDS spectra with  $m/z = 32$  (O<sub>2</sub> or S) and  $m/z = 64$  (SO<sub>2</sub>) for bulk MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes on the SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate. (c) Comparison of the TDS spectra for  $m/z = 32$  between the first annealing and second annealing.



species are adsorbed on  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes when  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes are mechanically transferred in ambient air.

The desorption of sulfur and sulfur-related compounds is of the highest interest. Fig. 1b shows the TDS spectra for mass-to-charge ratios of  $m/z = 32$  and  $64$ . S and  $\text{O}_2$  can be assigned for the same mass-to-charge ratio of  $m/z = 32$  because QMS can only filter substances by mass-to-charge ratio. To separate them, the second annealing experiments were successively carried out without removing the sample, as shown in Fig. 1c and S1c.<sup>†</sup> The broad peak from  $200$  to  $600$  °C for  $m/z = 32$  is totally removed in the second annealing experiment, with the sharp intensity tail remaining at  $\sim 800$  °C. It can be expected that direct S desorption is observable even in the second annealing, while  $\text{O}_2$  is not detected once it has totally desorbed in the first annealing experiment. Therefore, the broad peak from  $200$  to  $600$  °C in Fig. 1b is assigned as the contribution from  $\text{O}_2$ . Here, it should be noted that the contribution from water adsorbed to the sample was excluded in this discussion, even though the water desorption was observed in Fig. S1.<sup>†</sup> According to the recent paper,<sup>38</sup> no degradation of monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$  was observed after two weeks exposure to the environment of both  $\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2$  with the 75% humidity, suggesting that water itself have no dominant contribution for oxidation. Moreover, the desorption tails observed for all species at a high temperature of  $\sim 800$  °C in Fig. S1<sup>†</sup> basically resulted from the inner pressure enhancement in the TDS chamber, not from the real increase in desorption. Nevertheless, the TDS spectrum of  $m/z = 32$  in the second annealing experiment is greatly enhanced when the surface area of  $\text{MoS}_2$  increases by preparing the  $\text{MoS}_2$  powder, which is reflected as a threshold temperature shift to the lower side in Fig. S2a.<sup>†</sup> This indicates that the desorption tail for  $m/z = 32$  contains real desorption, that is, the contribution from S. Moreover, Fig. S2b<sup>†</sup> compares the TDS spectra of chalcogens (S, Se and Te) for various transition metal dichalcogenides. The direct Te ( $m/z = 128$ ) desorption from  $\text{MoTe}_2$  is stronger than others, which is consistent with the common understanding of the stability of 2D materials.

In addition to direct S desorption, the sulfur oxidation product, that is,  $\text{SO}_2$ , was also observed and expressed as  $m/z = 64$  in Fig. 1b, where two peaks are observed at  $\sim 400$  °C and  $\sim 650$  °C. It should be noted that the  $m/z = 64$  was assigned to be the  $\text{SO}_2$  rather than  $\text{S}_2$  based on the isotope method.<sup>39</sup> Sulfur mainly has stable four isotopes:  $^{32}\text{S}$  (95.02%),  $^{33}\text{S}$  (0.5%),  $^{34}\text{S}$  (4.21%), and  $^{36}\text{S}$  (0.02%). The second abundant  $^{34}\text{S}$  ( $m = 34$ ) was used to distinguish  $\text{S}_2$  ( $m/z = 68$ ) and  $\text{SO}_2$  ( $m/z = 66$ ), as shown in Fig. S3(b).<sup>†</sup> The desorption signal of  $m/z = 66$  well follows  $m/z = 64$ , while no clear feature was observed for  $m/z = 68$ . Moreover, from the viewpoint of activation energy of  $\text{S}_2$  desorption, the higher temperature is expected. Therefore,  $m/z = 64$  was assigned to  $\text{SO}_2$  rather than  $\text{S}_2$ . Furthermore, in the second annealing experiment in Fig. 1c, both peaks disappeared, suggesting that oxygen that constitutes  $\text{SO}_2$  comes from adsorbates on the  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes not from inside of the  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes. Therefore, it is considered that adsorbed  $\text{O}_2$  reacted with S in  $\text{MoS}_2$  and desorbed as  $\text{SO}_2$  at  $\sim 400$  °C and  $\sim 650$  °C. That is, it is suggested that sulfur vacancy formation at relatively low temperature ( $\sim 400$  °C &  $650$  °C) is caused by  $\text{SO}_2$  desorption

assisted by oxygen adsorption on the  $\text{MoS}_2$  basal plane, while it is caused by direct S desorption at high temperature (over  $800$  °C). Although the theoretical simulation<sup>10</sup> has suggested  $\text{SO}_2$  desorption instead of direct S desorption for S vacancy formation, this is the first experimental observation.

The origin of the two  $\text{SO}_2$  peaks in Fig. 1b may be related to different intermediates for the final  $\text{SO}_2$  formation, as suggested in the theoretical calculation.<sup>27</sup> The formation of the intermediate "OSOMo", in which one oxygen atom is inserted into the Mo-S bond, leads to the desorption of  $\text{SO}_2$  with an energy barrier of  $1.49$  eV. On the other hand, the formation of the intermediate "Mo-OSO", which can be seen as the  $\text{SO}_2$  molecule with one oxygen atom bonded to two adjacent Mo atoms, leads to the desorption of SO and  $\text{SO}_2$  with energy barriers of  $0.41$  eV and  $0.78$  eV, respectively. Interestingly, in the reproduced TDS experiment in Fig. S3,<sup>†</sup> it is found that the SO signal highly overlaps with the  $\text{SO}_2$  signal in the low-temperature region, where the first peak is observed in Fig. 1b. The overlapping feature suggests that the formation of SO and  $\text{SO}_2$  at relatively low temperatures is simultaneous. The slight intense peak for SO at  $650$  °C can be attributed to the decomposition of  $\text{SO}_2$  to SO and O due to the ionization in QMS.<sup>39</sup> Although the rigorous separation of SO and  $\text{SO}_2$  is difficult at present, two  $\text{SO}_2$  peaks may result from the different intermediates for the final  $\text{SO}_2$  desorption.

To confirm whether defects form as a result of desorption during TDS annealing,  $2$  nm  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  was deposited by ALD since  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  is formed selectively on defect sites due to the dangling-bond free inert surface of the 2D material.<sup>32–35</sup> For the present ALD-assisted morphology characterization, bulk  $\text{MoS}_2$  were intentionally selected to avoid strain-enhanced ALD growth on monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$  due to the transfer process. To show the importance of ALD, the surface topography of  $\text{MoS}_2$  annealed up to  $835$  °C in the TDS chamber without ALD was examined to assess the resolution of AFM. As shown in Fig. S4,<sup>†</sup> no clear defects could be identified. The situation was inverted when ALD was applied to the  $\text{MoS}_2$  flake after TDS annealing. As shown in Fig. 2b, for the  $\text{MoS}_2$  flake annealed up to  $200$  °C in the TDS chamber, the growth of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  is distributed in dots on the  $\text{MoS}_2$  surface with a greater concentration at the step edge. It should be noted that  $200$  °C was selected as the starting temperature for defect characterization since the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  growth temperature in ALD was  $200$  °C. As the TDS annealing temperature increases,  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  growth is enhanced, occupying more surface area of  $\text{MoS}_2$  (Fig. 2b–e). For the  $\text{MoS}_2$  flake annealed up to  $630$  °C, the growth of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  is no longer preferential at the grain boundaries and the step edges but uniformly covers the entire  $\text{MoS}_2$  surface. The morphology evolution is schematically illustrated below the AFM images.

Next, the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  coverage was extracted from the AFM images and plotted as a function of annealing temperature in Fig. 2a. The coverage rate is relatively slow in the temperature range from  $350$  to  $500$  °C, where the first peak of  $\text{SO}_2$  desorption is observed in Fig. 1b. In contrast, there was a significant increase in the coverage rate from  $550$  to  $630$  °C. This temperature interval matches the second peak of  $\text{SO}_2$  desorption. These results suggest that the evolution of the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  coverage is correlated to  $\text{SO}_2$  desorption. However, further quantitative



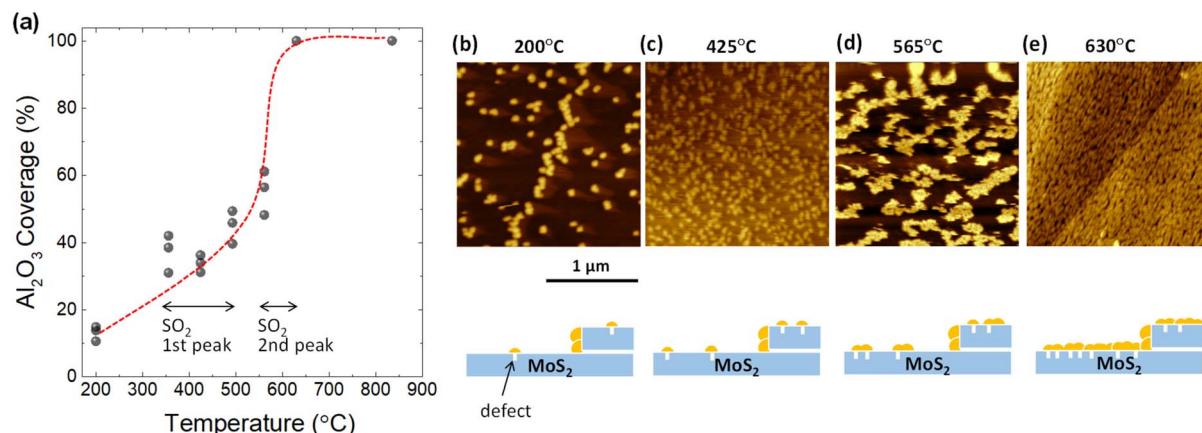


Fig. 2 (a) Coverage estimation of ALD- $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  on TDS-annealed bulk  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes with varying annealing temperatures. The gray point represents the coverage extracted from different AFM images. The red dashed line is an eye guide to reflect the coverage evolution rate. (b)–(e) Representative AFM images for  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{MoS}_2$  at annealing temperatures of 200  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , 425  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , 565  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and 630  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , respectively. In addition, the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  coverage evolution with increasing annealing temperature is schematically illustrated. The yellow particles represent deposited  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ .

estimation of the defect density is not possible here since the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  particle density does not form a one-to-one correspondence with the defect density. That is, new  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  growth occurs not only at the defect site but also on the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  that has already been grown. However, the importance of ALD-assisted AFM characterization is to provide clear evidence that the formation of defects on the basal plane of  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes does arise when  $\text{SO}_2$  desorption occurs.

To reveal the structural change in  $\text{MoS}_2$  after TDS annealing, Raman measurements were conducted. Fig. 3a shows the Raman spectra of monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$  at different TDS annealing temperatures. The frequency difference of  $\text{E}_{2g}^1$  and  $\text{A}_{1g}$  is  $\sim 19.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , which matches well with the characteristics of

monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$ .<sup>40</sup> No detectable shifts of the  $\text{E}_{2g}^1$  and  $\text{A}_{1g}$  peaks were found for any temperature range. On the other hand, the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of these two peaks shown in Fig. 3b is slightly broadened when the annealing temperature was elevated to 835  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; at this temperature, direct S desorption becomes dominant in the TDS spectra of Fig. 1b. This indicates that some damage to the crystallinity is induced by considerable direct S desorption. The change in Raman spectra at temperatures above 800  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  has also been reported.<sup>41</sup> Although Raman spectra are found to be insensitive to temperatures below 630  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , this is not consistent with Fig. 2a, where a clear  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  coverage evolution is observed. In Fig. S3,† the desorption of  $\text{SO}_2$  and S was detected but not for  $\text{MoO}_3$ ,  $\text{MoO}_2$ , and  $\text{MoO}_3$ ,

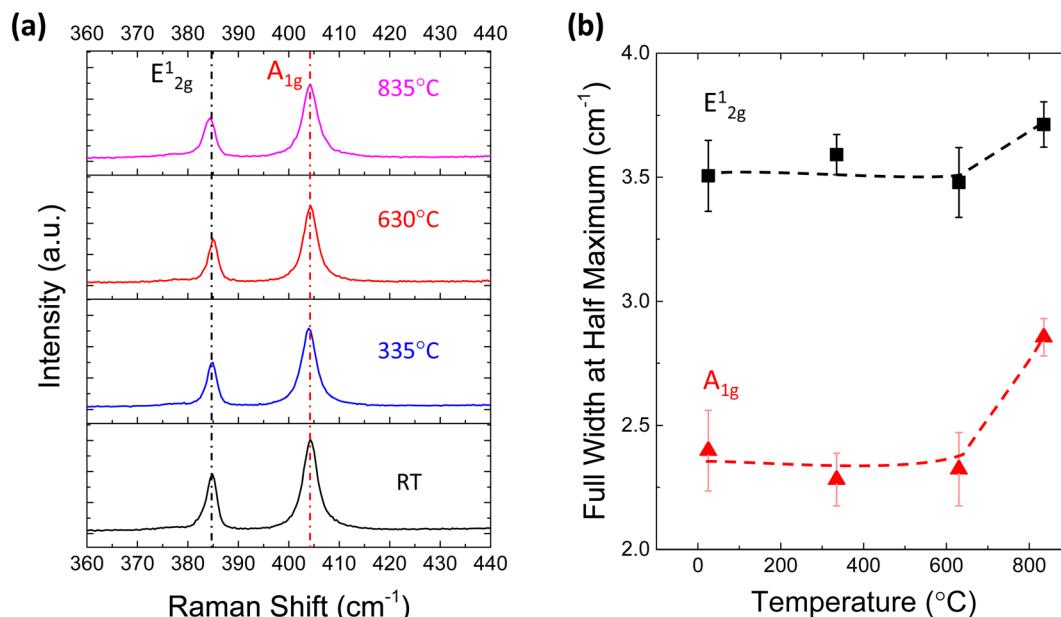
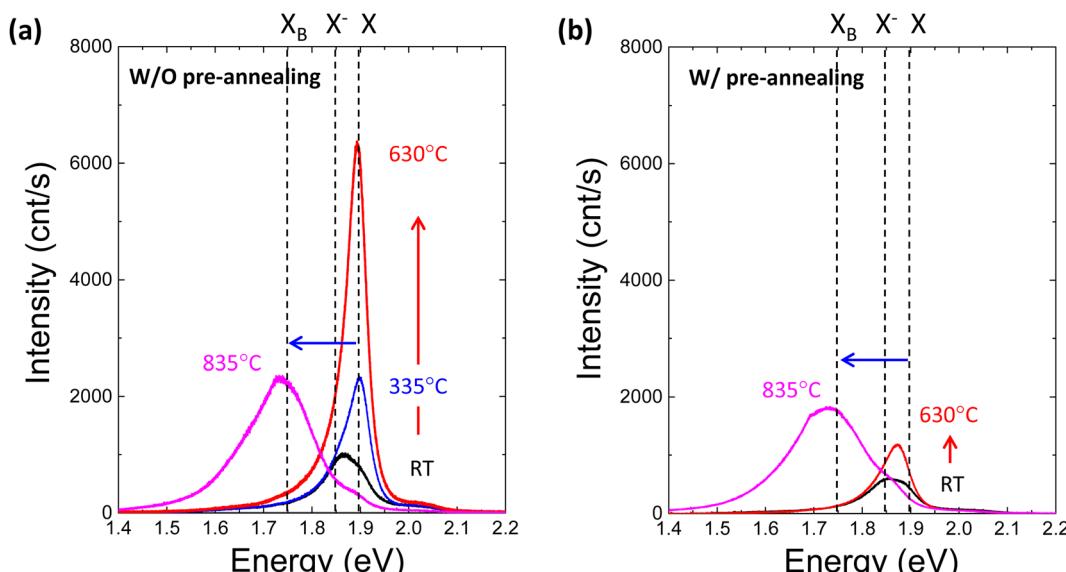


Fig. 3 (a) Raman spectra for monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$  annealed at different temperatures in the TDS chamber. (b) Full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the Raman peaks at different temperatures.





**Fig. 4** (a) Photoluminescence spectra for monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$  annealed at different temperatures in the TDS chamber without preannealing in Ar.  $X^-$  and  $X_B$  represent exciton, trion and defect-induced bound exciton, respectively. The red arrow indicates the intensity enhancement with increasing annealing temperature from RT to  $630\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , while the blue arrow indicates the transition from exciton to defect-induced bound exciton due to high-temperature annealing at  $835\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . (b) Photoluminescence spectra for monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$  annealed at different temperatures in the TDS chamber with preannealing in Ar.

suggesting that the original  $\text{MoS}_2$  crystal lattice can be retained since Mo is located at the center of the  $\text{MoS}_2$  crystal structure. Therefore, Raman spectra could be insensitive to the relatively small change in crystallinity due to S vacancy formation accompanied by  $\text{SO}_2$  desorption.

To further investigate the effect of defect formation more sensitively, PL measurements were performed for monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$  annealed at different temperatures in the TDS chamber. As shown in Fig. 4a, the conventional broad PL peak mixed with exciton ( $X$ ,  $\sim 1.9\text{ eV}$ ) and trion ( $X^-$ ,  $\sim 1.85\text{ eV}$ ) was observed.<sup>42-44</sup> As the TDS annealing temperature increased from RT to  $630\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , the intensity of the exciton peak drastically increased. Since the  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes were exposed to ambient air during the PL measurement after removing the sample from the TDS chamber, the exciton intensity enhancement is attributed to the oxygen chemical adsorption on S vacancies created by  $\text{SO}_2$  desorption during TDS annealing.<sup>43</sup> As shown in Fig. S5,† the trion contribution was reduced at elevated temperature, while the exciton component became dominant. This indicates the p-type doping by oxygen passivation at the defect site.<sup>45</sup> Moreover, when the annealing temperature increased to  $835\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , the defect-induced bound exciton peak ( $X_B$ ,  $\sim 1.75\text{ eV}$ ) became dominant.<sup>46-49</sup> Although  $\text{SO}_2$  formation at relatively low temperatures is limited by the amount of oxygen adsorbed initially on  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes, direct S desorption at high temperatures depends only on the temperature. Therefore, a much broader  $X_B$  peak implies a significant amount of S vacancy formation and clustering due to the enhanced direct S desorption, which is also supported by the broadening of the FWHM in the Raman peaks (Fig. 3b).

Four different types of experiments, namely, of TDS, AFM, Raman and PL, surprisingly, can be well explained by the two

common kinds of defect formation mechanisms in the low and high annealing temperature regions. That is, at a low annealing temperature, the oxygen adsorbed on the basal plane of  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes is the key factor, and it volatizes as  $\text{SO}_2$  by removing S from  $\text{MoS}_2$ , leaving S vacancies. Then, at a high annealing temperature, direct S desorption becomes dominant. Here, it is reasonable to consider that defect formation at low annealing temperatures could be suppressed by removing oxygen adsorbed on  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes before TDS annealing. To verify this idea, the  $\text{MoS}_2$  crystals were preannealed at  $500\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for one hour in an Ar gas flow to remove oxygen adsorbed on the  $\text{MoS}_2$  surface. Then,  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes were transferred onto the  $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Si}$  substrate by mechanical exfoliation in ambient air, followed by TDS annealing. The PL spectra of preannealed monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$  are shown in Fig. 4b. The PL intensity enhancement at temperatures below  $630\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  is greatly suppressed, which strongly indicates that S vacancy formation due to  $\text{SO}_2$  desorption was hindered due to the great reduction in oxygen adsorbed on the  $\text{MoS}_2$  surface. On the other hand, at a high temperature of  $835\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , the  $X_B$  peak was almost the same, which is also evidence for direct S desorption. These results clearly support the two kinds of defect formation mechanisms in the low and high annealing temperature regions. To date, S vacancies have been experimentally observed and recognized as dominant defects because they have the lowest formation energy of  $\sim 1.3\text{--}1.5\text{ eV}$  compared with other types of defects.<sup>3,4</sup> However, this large formation energy could not explain the high S vacancy concentration of  $\sim 10^{13}\text{ cm}^{-2}$ .<sup>50</sup> The present study experimentally proves that oxygen adsorbed on  $\text{MoS}_2$  assists S vacancy formation by desorbing as  $\text{SO}_2$  since this  $\text{O}_2$ -assisted S vacancy formation is energetically spontaneous at  $-0.49\text{ eV}$ .<sup>10</sup>

## 4. Conclusions

Through this experimental desorption study using TDS in combination with ALD, Raman, and PL, two kinds of S vacancy formation mechanisms are realized, that is, O<sub>2</sub>-assisted SO<sub>2</sub> desorption at low annealing temperatures (400 °C to 650 °C) and direct S desorption at high annealing temperatures (over 800 °C). The key finding is that the initially adsorbed oxygen causes S vacancy formation through SO<sub>2</sub> desorption. As a solution, the removal of oxygen is quite effective for preventing the formation of defects and further oxidation.

## Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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