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Stable, high-responsive and broadband photodetection based on large-area multilayer WS₂ films grown by pulsed-laser deposition

J. D. Yao, Z. Q. Zheng, J. M. Shao & G. W. Yang *

State Key Laboratory of Optoelectronic Materials and Technologies, Nanotechnology

Research Center, School of Physics & Engineering, Sun Yat-sen University,

Guangzhou 510275, Guangdong, P. R. China

*Corresponding author: <u>stsygw@mail.sysu.edu.cn</u>

Abstract

The progress of graphene has aroused the renaissance of keen research interests on the layered transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs). Tungsten disulfide (WS₂), a typical TMD with favorable semiconducting band gap and strong light-matter interaction, exhibits great potential in high-responsive photodetection. However, WS₂-based photodetection is currently unsatisfactory due to the low optical absorption (2%-10%) and poor carrier mobility (0.01-0.91 $cm^2 V^{-1} s^{-1}$) of the thin WS₂ layers grown by chemical vapor deposition (CVD). Here, we introduce pulsed-laser deposition (PLD) to prepare the multilayer WS₂ films. Large-area WS₂ films at the magnitude of cm^2 are achieved. Comparative measurements of a WS₂-based photoresistor demonstrate its stable broadband photoresponse from 370 to 1064 nm, the broadest range demonstrated in WS₂ photodetectors. Benefit from the large optical absorbance (40%-85 %) and high carries mobility $(31 \, cm^2 V^{-1} s^{-1})$, the responsivity of the device approaches a high value of 0.51 A/W in the ambient environment. Such a performance far surpasses the CVD-grown WS₂-based photodetectors ($\mu A/W$). In the vacuum environment, the responsivity is further enhanced to 0.70 A/W along with external quantum efficiency of 137% and a photodetectivity of an $2.7 \times 10^9 \ cm \cdot Hz^{1/2} \cdot W^{-1}$. These findings stress that the PLD-grown WS₂ film may constitute a new paradigm for the next-generation stable, broadband and high-responsive photodetectors.

Introduction

Over the past few years, transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) have made significant steps forward in the field of photodetection owing to their strong light-matter interaction and favorable semiconducting band gaps $(1 \sim 2 \text{ eV})^{1, 2}$ In general, they are a family of layered materials consist of stacked covalently bonded X-M-X (M = Mo, W, Nb, Ta, Ti, Re and S = S, Se, Te) molecular layers held together via weak van der Vaals interactions. Among the family of TMDs, molybdenum disulfide (MoS_2) is the representative and has undergone the most extensive researches. The first monolayer-MoS₂ based phototransistor exhibits fast response time within 50 ms and shows good stability.³ However, it suffers low responsivity of 7 mA/W due to its low optical absorbance and poor carrier mobility of 0.11 $cm^2V^{-1}s^{-1}$.³ Later, benefit from the increase of optical absorbance, multilayer-MoS₂ based photodetectors demonstrated their superiority with the responsivity more than one magnitude higher, from 100 to 570 mA/W.4, 5 Besides, due to the relatively weak confinement effect, the multilayer- MoS_2 based device offers a broader response spectral from visible to near-infrared, which can be superior to their monolayer/few-layer counterparts in multifunctional applications.^{4, 5}

Tungsten disulfide (WS₂), another typical member among the TMD group, has proven wider working temperature range than other TMD materials, suggesting superior thermal stability for widespread application.⁶ Meanwhile, theoretical calculation has pointed out that WS₂ enjoys a smaller electron effective mass and thus have a higher carrier mobility.⁷ Consequently, there are many attractive potential

opportunities for WS₂-based photodetectors. However, to date, attempts on WS₂ photodetectors are scarce. Photodetectors based on mechanical exfoliated WS_2 nanosheets exhibits high responsivity from 0.1 A/W to 5.7 A/W.⁸⁻¹¹ Nevertheless, they suffer the predicament in practical device implement because the lateral dimensions of the exfoliated flakes are mostly limited to hundreds of micrometers, not to mention the randomness of the shape, thickness and crystal quality. Electronic-grade WS_2 films, which are essential for imaging pixels and display applications requiring large arrays of photodetectors, are unattainable due to the uncontrollability and low efficiency of the mechanical exfoliation method. Recently, chemical vapor deposition (CVD) was developed to successfully obtain large-area WS₂ flacks.¹² However, the yield of CVD is so low that the CVD-grown WS₂ samples are usually monolayer or few-layer instead of the preferable multilayer, which seriously limits their optical absorbance. On the other hand, the CVD-grown WS₂ layers usually suffer low carrier mobility from 0.01 to 0.91 $cm^2V^{-1}s^{-1}$ due to the serious scattering. Such scattering is probably induced by the external environment, e.g. the adsorbate at the top surface, the phonons generated by the vibration of the absorbate and the trapped defects induced by the SiO₂ at the bottom surface.^{3, 13} Consequently, photodetectors based on them exhibit low responsivity at the magnitude of $\sim \mu A/W$ even with the help of a large electric field.^{14, 15} So far, high-responsive WS₂ photodetectors based on high-efficient, large-area deposition techniques have not been reported yet. Consequently, there is an emerging demand for an alternative deposition technology for large-area WS₂ films.

Pulse laser deposition (PLD) is a facile and scalable deposition technique which can reproduce the components of the target precisely onto the substrate.^{16, 17} Unlike CVD and molecular beam epitaxy (MBE), it is easy to operate and holds the advantages of high efficiency, while the cost is low. Recently, high-quality PLD-grown MoS₂ films and GaSe nanosheets networks for photodetection application were developed.^{18, 19} Considering the great applicability of PLD, it is tempting to exploit it to prepare large-area WS₂ films and develop their possibility for high-responsive broadband photodetection.

Here, we introduced PLD to prepare multilayer WS₂ films. Interestingly, high-quality, large-area multilayer WS₂ films were prepared. Meanwhile, a photoresistor-like device was constructed by patterning two Pt electrodes at two opposite sides of the PLD-grown WS₂ film (Supplementary information S1) and the photoresponse was characterized systematically. Comparative measurements demonstrate its stable broadband photoresponse from 370 to 1064 nm with good reproducibility. The photoresponsivity approaches 0.51 A/W in the air environment. Besides, the photocurrent exhibits positive dependence on both the source-drain voltage and the incident power, offering good tunability for multi-purpose applications. In the vacuum environment, the responsivity of the device is further enhanced to 0.7 A/W along with an external quantum efficiency of 137% and a photodetectivity of $2.7 \times 10^9 \ cm \cdot Hz^{1/2} \cdot W^{-1}$. Therefore, these results demonstrate a promising methodology for the development of TMD material in the future.

Experiment

PLD was exploited to prepare the WS₂ thin films. In our experiment, the deposition parameters are as follows. The base pressure of the growth chamber is better than 1×10^{-4} Pa. The target is consisted of stoichiometric W (99.9%) and S (99.9%) elements with the W: S atomic ratio of 1: 2. Prior to loading into the growth chamber, the substrates were washed following a standard cleaning procedure to obtain a clean surface. Pre-growth annealing at 500° C for 30 minutes was performed to remove the native contaminations from the substrate. Large-area WS₂ films were deposited at the optimized substrate temperature of 500° C, and the working pressure was set at 50 Pa with flowing Ar₂ as the working gas in the rate of 50 sccm.

Illuminations with wavelength of 370, 532, 635 and 1064 nm were generated from the semiconductor lasers. The transport characteristics of the WS_2 photoresistor were evaluated using a Keithley 4200-SCS semiconductor parameter analyzer equipped with a probe station. All measurements were performed at room temperature under ambient condition unless specially noted.

Results and Discussion

Fig. 1 (a) presents a digital photograph of a PLD-grown multilayer WS_2 film on a Si substrate with a 300 nm thermally grown oxide layer. To get a shape contrast, the substrate is partly covered with a stainless steel mask during the growth process. As can be seen, the uncovered area all appears in light green color while the covered area remains purple, indicating the growth of WS_2 . Hence, a large-area WS_2 film with the lateral size at the magnitude of one centimeter is achieved. Scalable WS_2 film can be readily obtained by just changing the size of the substrate. Compared to quantum dots

and nanowires, films are more compatible and easier to be fabricated into various complex integrated structures with the state-of-art thin film micromanufacturing techniques. Thus, such result is of great significance to practical device implement. Then, scanning electron microscope (SEM), atomic force microscopy (AFM), energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS), X-ray diffraction (XRD) and Raman spectroscopy were conducted to access the morphology, constituent, crystalline quality and structure of the PLD-grown WS₂ film. Fig. 1(b) presents a typical SEM image, showing continuous polycrystalline morphology. The corresponding EDS result (Supplementary information S2, Fig. S2(a)) presents only the peaks of W and S, suggesting high purity of the PLD-grown WS₂ film. The component analysis (Supplementary information S2, Fig. S2(b)) shows the stoichiometry W to S atomic ratio of $\sim 1:2$. Then, the AFM surface topography image is shown in Fig. 1(c). The surface of the WS₂ film is found to be quiet smooth with a RMS of c.a. 1.8 nm. The thickness of the film is measured by the AFM thickness profile. Specimen for the thickness measurement was prepared by scratching the film using a blade. It is found that the thickness is c.a. 60 nm (Supplementary information S2, Fig. S2(c)). The XRD pattern of the sample is presented in Fig. 1(d). There is only one prominent peak indexed as (002), suggesting highly oriented property of the film. To further access the crystal structure, Raman scattering measurement with the 514 nm excitation laser was conducted, as shown in Fig. 1(e). There are three main peaks at 175, 356.5 and 420.6 cm⁻¹, assigned respectively as the first order Raman modes LA(M), E_{2g}^1 and $A_{1\sigma}$. There are also other weaker peaks corresponding to the second order Raman

modes, which are marked in the labels. Our Raman spectroscopy agrees well with that of previous results obtained from the CVD-synthesised and mechanically-exfoliated samples.^{8, 14} Generally, the above-mentioned systematic characterizations indicate that the PLD-grown WS₂ film is of good quality and offers an attractive material platform to develop opportunities hidden in WS₂.

Fig. 2(a) depicts the optical absorption spectrum of the PLD-grown WS_2 film. Compared to the monolayer/few-layer counterparts, whose absorption spectrum cuts off at a relatively short wavelength of c.a. 700 nm,²⁰ the multilayer WS₂ film enjoys a much broader absorbance range covering from the ultraviolet to the near-infrared. The broadening of the absorption range is benefit from the weakened confinement effect of the multilayer WS_2 . As depicted in the inset of Fig. 2(a), for the monolayer WS_2 , only the direct excitation corresponding to a large bandgap is allowed. When the film grows to multilayer, the indirect excitation corresponding to a smaller band gap is also allowed, thus leading to the broadening of the absorption range.²¹ Besides, the interfacial state in the grain boundaries and defects may constitute an impurity band residing inside the band gap, which may further extend the absorption edge to a longer wavelength. On account of the increase of the optical active layers, the absorption rate of the multilayer WS_2 exceeds 40 % over the whole measured range with the absorption peak of 85 % at c.a. 700 nm, far exceeding the value of 2 % \sim 10 % reported for monolayer WS₂.^{22, 23} The appearance of the absorption peak at c.a. 700 nm is probably due to the stronger light matter interaction at a wavelength matching the band gap of the monolayer/few-layer WS₂.

The mobility of the PLD-grown films is measured by the Hall system and the corresponding distribution histogram for nine samples is summarized in Fig. 2(b). The average mobility is calculated to be $31 \, cm^2 V^{-1} s^{-1}$, far surpassing the value of the CVD-grown flakes from 0.01 ~ 0.91 $cm^2 V^{-1} s^{-1} V^{-1} s^{-24}$. The reason for the higher mobility is the relatively weaker scattering of a thicker sample. For the multilayer sample, the surface-to-volume ratio is relatively small. That is, surface channel only counts a little portion of the total transport. Therefore, contrary to the monolayer/few-layer case, the degradation effects of the external-environment induced scattering on the total transport are negligible. Finally, the cross-sectional view of a typical WS₂ photoresistor is delineated in Fig. 2(c). The device is consisted of a PLD-grown WS₂ film and two Pt electrodes, manufactured onto a Si wafer with a 300 nm-thick SiO₂ dielectric layer to avoid the interference of the substrate channel on the transport measurements, ensuring that the response comes from the WS₂. Fig. 3 presents the switching behavior of the WS_2 photoresistor under a periodic illumination with different laser wavelengths from the ultraviolet to the near-infrared, including (a) 370, (b) 532, (c) 635 and (d) 1064 nm. In all illumination cases, the device yields a significant photocurrent and exhibits a good reproducibility during all on-off cycles, demonstrating the feasibility for broadband photodetection. As far as we know, this is the broadest responsive range reported for WS₂ hitherto.

To have a further insight into the WS_2 photodetector, the response time, the influences of the incident light intensity and the source-drain voltage on the device performance as well as the air stability were investigated. As shown in Fig. 4(a), on

light illumination, the photocurrent rises to a high level state quickly at the beginning, followed by a relatively slow tail. A reversed behavior is observed when the light is turned off. The rise and decay time (the time needed to change by 90%) extracted from the temporal response curve are 4.1 s and 4.4 s, respectively. Fig. 4(b) presents the power dependent photocurrent, the photocurrent increase with the increase of incident light intensity, due to the increase of photogenerated carriers. The data are fitted by the power law $I = AP^n$ and the *n* is extracted to be 0.87, indicating a near linear relationship. Fig. 4(c) presents the voltage dependent photocurrent and the corresponding responsivity. The responsivity R of the device is calculated by $R = \frac{I_p}{P \times S}$, where I_p is the photocurrent, P is the power density and S is the active area. The photocurrent increases with the voltage, benefit from the increased separation efficiency of photogenerated carriers and enhancement of impact ionization. The responsivity of the device under a 635 nm illumination with a source-drain voltage of 9 V reaches a decent value of 0.51 A/W. Such responsivity is comparable to the exfoliated WS₂ based devices and several orders of magnitude larger than that of the CVD-grown samples, e.g. 2.5×10^6 times of that of monolayer WS₂ and 5.5×10^3 times of that of few layer WS₂ (Supplementary information S3). As far as we know, this is the largest value reported for a WS_2 photodetector based on a large-area deposition technique.

The corresponding $EQE = \frac{hcR}{e\lambda}$, where *h* is the Planck constant, *c* is the light speed, e is the elementary charge and λ is the wavelength, is calculated to be 101%. And the detectivity $D^* = A^{\frac{1}{2}R} / (2eI_d)^{\frac{1}{2}}$, I_d , is the dark current and *A* is the active area,

is calculated to be $1.93 \times 10^9 \ cm \cdot Hz^{1/2} \cdot W^{-1}$. Such a decent device performance can be attributed to the higher mobility and absorption of our multilayer WS₂ film. Generally, on light illumination, the photocurrent can be expressed as $I_p \propto \alpha \mu \tau$, where α is the absorption of incident light, μ is the carrier mobility and τ is the carrier lifetime. Compared to the monolayer and few layer WS₂, the PLD-grown multilayer WS₂ enjoys a higher light absorption rate α . Besides, they are demonstrated to possess higher mobility μ than that of the CVD-grown thin WS₂ layers. Consequently, the alliance of such two advantages results in excellent device performance. Additionally, the endurance of the device to the air environment is evaluated. The device was placed in the air without sealed encapsulation for a month and then its photoresponse was evaluated, as depicted in Fig. 4(d). Excitingly, the device still enjoys definite switching behavior with good reproducibility. Such high stability is originated from the excellent chemical stability of WS₂, suggesting great potential to widespread commercial photodetectors.

Considering that TMDs are excellent gas-sensing materials,²⁶ the effects of chemisorptions on the photoresponse of the PLD-grown multilayer WS₂ based photoresistor were explored. Firstly, the photoresponse of the WS₂ photoresistor to a cyclical light illumination under vacuum environment is presented in Fig. 5(a). The device exhibits definite switching behavior, demonstrating good reproducibility in the vacuum environment. Fig. 5(b) presents the power dependent photocurrent, the photocurrent also increase with the increase of the incident light intensity. The data are fitted by the power law $I = AP^n$ and the *n* is extracted to be 0.88, indicating a

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near linear relationship. Fig. 5(c) depicts the voltage dependent photocurrent and the corresponding responsivity. The photocurrent also increases with the increase of source-drain voltage. For comparison, the voltage dependent photocurrent in air (black dash line) is also plotted in Fig. 5(c). As can be seen, the photocurrent in the vacuum environment is larger than that in air. Such enhancement of the photocurrent in the vacuum indicates great potential in aerial photodetection. The responsivity of the device under a 635 nm illumination with a source-drain voltage of 9 V reaches a decent value of 0.7 A/W, with the corresponding EQE of 137% and detectivity of $2.7 \times 10^9 \text{ cm} \cdot \text{Hz}^{1/2} \cdot W^{-1}$. Fig. 5(d) presents the temporal response of the photodetector in vacuum. The rise and decay times in vacuum are 9.9 s and 8.7 s, slower than that of 4.1 s and 4.4 s in air. More than 10 devices have been produced and similar results were duplicated. All of the above results indicate that the atmosphere environment has a great influence on the device performance.

Then, the mechanism underneath the enhancement of the responsivity of the WS₂ photodetector in the vacuum environment is investigated. The air is consisted of 78 % N₂, 21 % O₂ and 1 % of the rest. Considering that the N₂ is an inactive gas, the influence of the air can thus be mainly attributed to the O₂. As is well known, O₂ molecules are active electron acceptors.²⁷ Therefore, the WS₂ film tends to absorb a large number of O₂ molecules when it is transferred into the ambient environment. As depicted schematically in Fig. 5(f), the absorption of O₂ will lead to the consumption of electrons

$$O_2 + e^- \to O_2^- . \tag{1}$$

On the other hand, the O_2^- can combine with a hole and escape back to the air

$$O_2^- + h \to O_2 \ . \tag{2}$$

The combination of the adsorption and desorption processes equals to the recombination of the electron-hole pairs, i.e. O_2^- acts as recombination centers for the photogenerated carriers. Therefore, the more the number of adsorbed O_2 molecules, the easier the recombination of the photogenerated carriers, that is, the shorter of the carrier life τ . In the vacuum environment, the rarefied atmosphere leads to the less absorbate and thus less recombination centers. Considering that the response time of the device is usually negatively correlated with the life time of the photogenerated carriers, the response time in the vacuum should be longer than that in the ambient, which is in good agreement of our experimental results.

Another possible reason for the difference of the photoresponse between air and vacuum is the change of the carrier mobility induced by the absorbate. Note that the absorption of O_2 also induces negatively charged impurities on the surface in concentrations of the absorbate. Besides, the oscillation of the adsorbate may further introduce the local phonons. As a result, the scattering of the carriers is enhanced and therefore the mobility μ of the film decreases.¹³ However, unlike the monolayer/few-layer cases, for the multilayer sample, the surface channel only accounts for a little portion of the total transportation. Consequently, the influence of the adsorbate on the transport of the multilayer sample should be weak. Fig. 5(e) presents the I-V curves in the ambient (dark curve) and vacuum environments (red curve), respectively. The two curves exhibit almost the same slope, suggesting the

same mobility in both environments. Consequently, the mobility of the PLD-grown multilayer WS₂ film is insensitive to the environmental factors. Given that the photocurrent can be expressed as $I_p \propto \alpha \mu \tau$. Therefore, the larger photocurrent in the

vacuum condition should be attributed to its longer carrier life time considering the same absorbance and mobility.

Conclusion

In summary, we have exploited PLD to deposit the multilayer WS₂ films and explored its photoresponse. The fabricated device showed stable broadband photoresponse with a good reproducibility. The photoresponse in air reaches 0.51 A/W, several orders of magnitude larger than that of the CVD-grown monolayer and multilayer WS₂ film. In the vacuum environment, the photoresponse can be enhanced to 0.7 A/W. Our studies also showed that the performance of the device may be further improved by appropriate strategies, e.g. optimizing the contacts,²⁸ plasmonic enhancement of optical absorbance,²⁹ tailing the electronic structure by doping or surface modification³⁰ and constructing a heterojunction with newly emerging wide band gap material.³¹ These results evidenced that PLD offers a convenient mean for large-area WS₂ films. Consequently, the scheme for practical high-responsive broadband WS₂ photodetectors may be actualized in the near future.

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Figure Captions

Figure 1. Characterizations of the PLD-grown WS₂ film. (a) Digital photographs of a large-area multilayer WS₂ film on a $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ Si substrate with 300 nm oxide layer. (b) SEM image, scale bar: 300 nm. (c) AFM surface topography image. (d) 2θ - ω X-ray diffraction pattern. (e) Raman spectroscopy with the 514 nm excitation laser.

Figure 2. Optical and electrical properties of the PLD-grown WS₂ film. (a) UV-VIS absorption spectrum. (b) Histogram of the mobility with the average value of $31 \ cm^2V^{-1}s^{-1}$. (c) Cross-section schematic diagram of a WS₂ photoresistor.

Figure 3. Switching behavior of the WS₂ photoresistor under various illuminations. The wavelengths of the incident light are (a) 370 nm, 110 mW/cm², (b) 532 nm, 10 mW/cm², (c) 635 nm, 55 mW/cm², (d) 1064 nm, 42 mW/cm². In all cases, the WS₂ photodetector yields significant photoresponse, demonstrating broadband photoresponse from ultraviolet to near-infrared.

Figure 4. Photoresponse in the ambient environment. (a) Temporal photoresponse of the WS_2 photoresistor. Power density: 18 mW/cm². Source-drain bias: 0.5 V. (b) Power dependent photocurrent. Source-drain bias: 1.75 V. (c) Voltage dependent photocurrent and the corresponding responsivity. Power density: 18 mW/cm². (d) Switching behavior over time. Source-drain bias: 0.6 V. Power density: 55 mW/cm².

Figure 5. Photoresponse in the vacuum environment. (a) Switching behavior under cyclical illumination. Power density: 18 mW/cm². Source-drain bias: 0.5 V. (b) Power dependent photocurrent. Source-drain bias: 1.75 V. (c) Voltage dependent photocurrent and the corresponding responsivity. Power density: 18 mW/cm². (d) I-V curves in ambient and vacuum condition, the curves are vertically shifted for clarity. (e) Temporal photoresponse of the WS₂ photoresistor. Power density: 18 mW/cm². Source-drain bias: 0.5 V. (f) Schematic illustration for the absorption and desorption process of an O₂ molecular.

Figure 1



Figure 2







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Figure 4





