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<th>Journal:</th>
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<td>Manuscript ID</td>
<td>NR-ART-03-2021-001483.R1</td>
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<td>Article Type:</td>
<td>Paper</td>
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<td>Date Submitted by the Author:</td>
<td>21-May-2021</td>
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| Complete List of Authors: | Rao, Rahul; Air Force Research Laboratory Materials and Manufacturing Directorate  
Kim, Hyunil; Air Force Research Laboratory Materials and Manufacturing Directorate  
Lopez, Nestor Perea; Penn State University, Physics  
Terrones, Mauricio; The Pennsylvania State University, Department of Physics; The Pennsylvania State University  
Maruyama, Benji; Air Force Research Laboratory, Materials and Manufacturing Directorate |
Interaction of gases with monolayer WS\textsubscript{2}: An In Situ Spectroscopy Study

Rahul Rao\textsuperscript{1,*}, Hyunil Kim\textsuperscript{1}, Nestor Perea-López\textsuperscript{2}, Mauricio Terrones\textsuperscript{2,3,4}, Benji Maruyama\textsuperscript{1}

\textsuperscript{1}Materials and Manufacturing Directorate, Air Force Research Laboratory, Wright-Patterson AFB, OH 45433

\textsuperscript{2}Department of Physics and Center for Two-Dimensional and Layered Materials, The Pennsylvania University, State College, PA

\textsuperscript{3}Department of Materials Science and Engineering, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA 16802, USA

\textsuperscript{4}Department of Chemistry, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA 16802, USA.

Abstract

The optical and electronic properties of two-dimensional (2D) materials can be tuned through physical and chemical adsorption of gases. They are also ideal sensor platforms, where charge transfer from the adsorbate can induce a measurable change in the electrical resistance within a device configuration. While 2D materials-based gas sensors exhibit high sensitivity, questions exist regarding the direction of charge transfer and the role of lattice defects during sensing. Here we measured the dynamics of adsorption of NO\textsubscript{2} and NH\textsubscript{3} on monolayer WS\textsubscript{2} using \textit{in situ} photoluminescence (PL) and resonance Raman spectroscopy. Experiments were conducted across a temperature range of 25 – 250 °C and gas concentrations between 5 – 650 ppm. The PL emission energies blue- and red-shifted when exposed to NO\textsubscript{2} and NH\textsubscript{3}, respectively, and the magnitude of the shift depended on the gas concentration as well as the temperature down to the lowest concentration of 5 ppm. Analysis of the adsorption kinetics revealed an exponential

* Correspondence: rahul.rao.2@us.af.mil
increase in the intensities of the trion peaks with temperature, with apparent activation energies similar to barriers for migration of sulfur vacancies in the WS$_2$ lattice. The corresponding Resonance Raman spectra allowed the simultaneous measurement of the defect-induced LA mode. A positive correlation between the defect densities and the shifts in the PL emission energies establish lattice defects such as sulfur vacancies as the preferential sites for gas adsorption. Moreover, an increase in defect densities with temperature in the presence of NO$_2$ and NH$_3$ suggests that these gases may also play a role in the creation of lattice defects. Our study provides key mechanistic insights into gas adsorption on monolayer WS$_2$, and highlights the potential for future development of spectroscopy-based gas sensors based on 2D materials.

**Introduction**

Atomically thin two-dimensional (2D) materials possess high surface-to-volume ratios, making it possible to tune their properties through physical and chemical adsorption of gaseous molecules.\(^1\)\(^2\) The adsorption can induce charge transfer between the adsorbate and the 2D material, resulting in p- or n-type doping depending on the direction of charge (electron or hole) transfer. In a semiconducting device configuration, a small amount of adsorbed gas can result in a measurable change in electrical resistance, making monolayer 2D materials such as transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) ideal platforms for gas sensing.\(^3\)\(^5\) Indeed, sensing gases such as NO$_2$ at very high sensitivity (down to ppb-level concentrations) has been recently demonstrated in MoS$_2$, boron-doped graphene and phosphorene.\(^6\)\(^8\) 2D materials are therefore ideally suited for detecting minute quantities of gases for environmental monitoring, process control, medical diagnostics and security.\(^3\)\(^5\)

The overwhelming majority of studies on the interactions of gases with 2D materials have focused on electrical or electrochemical measurements.\(^9\) Depending on whether it is an electron donor or acceptor, the adsorbed gas causes an increase or decrease in electrical resistance, the magnitude of which depends on its concentration.\(^10\) The physical or chemical adsorption of the gas molecules typically occur on the basal plane of the semiconducting TMD; the process is reversible and induces charge transfer, resulting in a change in the electronic bandgap.\(^11\) The
adsorption can also be measured by photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy. The added electrons or holes in the monolayer also affect the neutral exciton (electron-hole pair) and charged exciton (neutral exciton with an extra electron or hole, also called trion) densities, which can be observed in the photoluminescence (PL) emission spectrum through shifts in the emission energies and exciton intensities. Recent experiments on monolayer MoS$_2$ have demonstrated a modulation of the exciton and trion intensities in the PL emission spectrum upon adsorption of 100 ppm of NO$_2$ and NH$_3$.$^{12}$

Despite the numerous studies that have reported gas sensing in monolayer TMDs, discrepancies exist as to the mechanism and direction of charge transfer. For example, both increase and decrease in electrical resistance has been observed upon adsorption of H$_2$O onto monolayer WS$_2$, implying that H$_2$O can behave as an acceptor or a donor.$^{13}$ These contrasting situations could be attributed to differences in the adsorption configurations of the H$_2$O molecules on the monolayer WS$_2$. On the other hand, these discrepancies could also occur due to defects (such as sulfur vacancies) in the monolayer and the manner of gas adsorption, physical or chemical.$^{15,16}$ For example, previous studies have shown physisorption of NO$_2$ to be favorable on the basal plane of MoS$_2$, whereas it is chemisorbed on the edges.$^{17}$ Theoretical and experimental studies have also shown that gas adsorption is higher at lattice defects such as sulfur vacancies.$^{15,18}$

To address these open questions, we used in situ photoluminescence and Raman spectroscopy to understand the interactions between NO$_2$ and NH$_3$ and monolayer WS$_2$ over a range of temperatures between 25 – 250 °C, and gas concentrations between 5 – 650 ppm. Our chosen temperature range was the typical operating range for gas sensors and similar devices. And while the limits of detection in our gas exposure experiments (5 and 15 ppm for NH$_3$ and NO$_2$, respectively) were on par with a large number of published gas sensing studies,$^{3–5,9}$ our experiments were not conducted with the intention to maximize sensitivity, but to gain mechanistic insights into the interactions between the adsorbed gases and monolayer WS$_2$ through their optical and vibrational spectra.

In situ measurements of the exciton and trion emission energies and peak intensities revealed temperature- and concentration-dependent (down to the lowest concentration of 5
ppm) charge transfer between the gases and WS\textsubscript{2} through blue- and red-shifted PL emission energies for adsorption of NO\textsubscript{2} and NH\textsubscript{3}, respectively. Furthermore, we calculated apparent activation energies for the gas adsorption process from the \textit{in situ} kinetics as well as near-resonance Raman spectra to measure defect densities and correlate the adsorption-induced PL emission energies to lattice defects in the monolayer WS\textsubscript{2}. Interestingly, we found that the gases also aid in the creation of defects, and this was proportional to the temperature. Our study highlights the power of Raman and PL spectroscopy to not only provide mechanistic insights into gas adsorption on 2D materials, but also the potential for the future development of spectroscopy-based gas sensors.

**Experimental**

Our gas adsorption and \textit{in situ} spectroscopy measurements were conducted in a custom-built setup (called Autonomous Research System or ARES), which has previously been used to measure crystallization and defect generation kinetics in 2D materials like graphene, MoS\textsubscript{2} and InSe\textsuperscript{19–25}. In ARES, a 532nm laser (6W, Verdi) serves as both heat source and Raman/PL excitation source, and is focused on a silicon substrate consisting of patterned micropillars on an SiO\textsubscript{2} underlayer (10 µm in diameter and height, fabricated by reactive ion etching). The substrates are loaded into a miniature high vacuum chamber with an optical window and whose environment can be controlled through automated vacuum pumps and gas mass flow controllers. Heating of the thermally isolated micropillars is achieved by varying the laser power, allowing rapid increases (within microseconds) in temperatures up to 1200 °C with approximately 200 mW laser power at the sample. The scattered light from the micropillars is coupled to a spectrometer through focusing optics and a notch filter, enabling \textit{in situ} Raman and photoluminescence measurements. The micropillar temperature is estimated from the redshifted Raman peak frequency of Si\textsuperscript{24,26}. For this study, monolayer WS\textsubscript{2} crystals were synthesized by chemical vapor deposition and transferred onto the ARES micropillars using the techniques described in Refs. 27 and 28. Scanning electron microscope images of fully and partially coated micropillars with transferred monolayer WS\textsubscript{2} are shown in Fig. S1 in the Electronic Supplementary Information.
The image of the partially coated micropillar is included just to show the difference in contrast between the WS$_2$ and the underlying silicon. All the *in situ* measurements were performed on fully coated micropillars. For the gas adsorption experiments, samples were loaded into the reactor and pumped down to the base pressure ($10^{-6}$ Torr), followed by backfilling with the appropriate amounts of NO$_2$ or NH$_3$ (5 – 650 ppm). Fully coated micropillars were then heated up to the desired temperature (between 25 – 250 °C) and held for 90 – 120 s. Raman and PL spectra were collected continuously (typical spectral acquisition times were 3-5 s), and the spectra were fit to Lorentzian peaks to calculate intensities, frequencies and widths. Additional experiments were conducted where the temperature was cycled by increasing it to set values and cooling back down to room temperature.

**Results and Discussion**

Figure 1 shows PL emission spectra from monolayer WS$_2$ exposed to 65 ppm NO$_2$ and NH$_3$, and annealed for ~ 90 s at 80 and 120 °C, respectively. The spectra were collected every 4 s, and are plotted in Figs. 1a and 1b with increasing time from bottom to top. Before and after each experiment, a Raman spectrum was collected at a low excitation power (0.2 W, 30 s acquisition time) corresponding to room temperature; these spectra (pre- and post-scans) are plotted on the bottom and top of Figs. 1a and 1b. As expected, the waterfall plots in Fig. 1 show redshifts in the emission upon heating, which is consistent with temperature-induced bandgap reduction.$^{29,30}$ The emission spectra also retained their position and lineshapes during the 90 s gas exposure, which suggests that the absorption did not change significantly during the 90 s timeframe.

The biggest difference due to gas exposure was revealed in the lineshape of the post-scan compared to the pre-scan. To see this difference, the pre- and post-scans were fit with two Lorentzian peaks following a baseline subtraction, and the results of the fits are shown in Figs. 1c and 1d for NO$_2$ and NH$_3$, respectively. The two fitted peaks correspond to emission due to recombination of neutral excitons (X) and charged excitons or trions (T). Firstly, the pre-scans shown in Figs. 1c and 1d exhibit subtle differences in the intensities of the trion and exciton peaks. This suggests a variation in the charge densities across the as-deposited monolayer WS$_2$ (in our
case variations across the ARES micropillars), which could arise from the synthesis or transfer process (Fig. S1). Secondly, and more importantly, the post-scans exhibit clear differences in the relative intensities of the trion and exciton peaks. For NO\textsubscript{2}, the exciton intensity increased after exposure, and the overall spectral weight blueshifted in energy (Fig. 1c). It was the opposite for NH\textsubscript{3} – the trion intensity increased relative to the exciton peak, and was accompanied by an overall redshift in the emission energy after exposure. These changes can be attributed to charge transfer induced by the adsorption of the gas. NO\textsubscript{2} (NH\textsubscript{3}) is an acceptor (donor), whose adsorption onto WS\textsubscript{2} results in p-type (n-type) doping, and the charge transfer is reflected in the changes in emission shown in Figs. 1c and 1d. Similar changes in the PL emission in monolayer MoS\textsubscript{2} due to NO\textsubscript{2} and NH\textsubscript{3} adsorption were previously reported by Cho et al.\textsuperscript{12} We note that varying degrees of charge transfer from the SiO\textsubscript{2} substrate to the monolayer WS\textsubscript{2} could also exist\textsuperscript{31} but we accounted for these differences by measuring the PL emission spectra before and after each heating experiment, thereby ensuring that analysis took into consideration relative changes in the charge state with respect to the initial state.

The blue- and red-shifts due to adsorption of NO\textsubscript{2} and NH\textsubscript{3}, respectively, were found to be consistent across all the measured gas concentrations and annealing temperatures. At low temperatures, the shifts in the emission energies were also accompanied by an increase (decrease) in PL emission intensity due to p-type (n-type) doping, as reported previously\textsuperscript{32}. But the magnitude of the shift and relative intensities of the exciton and trion intensities depended on both the gas concentration and on the annealing temperature. Fig. 2a shows the trion/exciton intensity ratios (calculated by fitting baselines and two Lorentzian peaks to each emission spectrum) before and after adsorption of 650 ppm NO\textsubscript{2} (top panel) and NH\textsubscript{3} (bottom panel). The slight differences in the initial charge densities are reflected in the variations in the trion/exciton intensity ratios before gas adsorption (grey squares in Fig. 2a). After gas exposure, however, the trion/exciton intensity ratios increased (red and blue square data in Fig. 2a) and the increase was greater at higher temperatures (indicated by the dashed vertical arrows). The higher trion intensities can be attributed to greater charge transfer (hole or electron) between the adsorbed gases and WS\textsubscript{2}. The data in Fig. 2a allude to an increase in gas adsorption with temperature, which is contrary to what is expected for physical adsorption.\textsuperscript{33}
FIG. 1. *In situ* experiments in ARES. Waterfall plots showing PL emission spectra from monolayer WS$_2$ exposed to (a) NO$_2$ (65 ppm, 80 °C) and (b) NH$_3$ (65 ppm, 120 °C). PL emission spectra collected before and after gas exposure are shown in (c) and (d). The spectra are fitted to two Lorentzian peaks, corresponding to trion (T) and neutral exciton (X) emission.

From our *in situ* data, we were also able to measure the rates of increase in the trion intensities. An example of this is shown in the inset in Fig. 2b. In this experiment, the trion (exciton) intensity increased (decreased) over the duration of the exposure to NO$_2$. The experimental data were fit with two exponential curves. We estimated the rates of increase of the trion peaks for all experiments, and the results are plotted in Fig. 2b for exposure to NO$_2$ (top) and NH$_3$ (bottom). All the data exhibited an exponential increase in the trion intensity with
temperature. The exciton peak intensities exhibited a concomitant exponential decrease. We fit the logarithms of the rates to an Arrhenius relationship against temperature with the form $A = e^{-\frac{k_B}{T}}$, where $k_B$ and $T$ are the Boltzmann constant and temperature, respectively, and $A$ is a proportionality constant. These fits produced apparent activation energies ranging from 0.27 to 0.43 eV, with the lowest values for the highest gas concentrations. The energies were lower for NH$_3$ (0.27 – 0.3 eV) compared to NO$_x$ (0.36 – 0.43 eV), and could be attributed to differences in the activities of the two gases. Future theoretical investigations may shed more light on the mechanistic differences. But these energies are on par with previous reports of barriers for migration of sulfur vacancies (~0.5-0.6 eV). The activation barriers are also expected to decrease in the case of pre-existing defects and this is discussed further below.

In addition to gas adsorption-induced changes in the trion and exciton intensities, our peak fitting analysis also revealed shifts in the energies of the exciton and trion emission peaks. These shifts were proportional to the gas concentration as well as the annealing temperature. For convenience, and to highlight the magnitude of shifts in the emission energies on gas concentration and temperature, we fit the emission peaks to a single Lorentzian peak, and plot the difference in the emission energies before and after gas exposure ($E_{\text{after}} - E_{\text{before}}$) in Fig. 2c. Some examples of shifts in both exciton and trion energies with temperature for a few gas concentrations are included in the ESI (Fig. S2). The graphs in Fig. 2c show blueshifted and redshifted emissions for exposure to NO$_2$ (top panel in Fig. 2c) and NH$_3$ (top panel in Fig. 2c), respectively. These shifts were also directly proportional to the gas concentration for a given temperature and increased with temperature, reaching a maximum blueshift (redshift) of ~30 meV (~40 meV) for exposure to NO$_2$ (NH$_3$) at the highest temperature.

The results presented in Fig 2. show clear evidence for concentration and temperature-dependent charge transfer due to adsorption of NO$_2$ and NH$_3$. To see the reversibility of the adsorption process, we performed a series of thermal cycling experiments where the temperature was cycled by increasing to a set value, holding then decreasing to room temperature incrementally in high vacuum (10$^{-5}$ Torr) as well as in the presence of Ar and NH$_3$. Fig. 3a shows the variations in the trion and exciton energies with temperatures at 10$^{-5}$ Torr.
During the course of this experiment, the temperature was alternated between room temperature and 150 °C (bottom panel, Fig. 3a). Both trion and exciton emission energies decreased concurrently with the increase in temperature from room temperature to 150 °C, but recovered to their original values upon cooling. The recovery of the PL emission energy indicates that there was no change in the charge state of the WS$_2$ on heating to at least 150 °C. In contrast to the behavior under vacuum, the PL emission energies did exhibit irreversible changes upon exposure to Ar (Fig. 3b) and NH$_3$ (Fig. 3c). In the case of 10 Torr Ar, we annealed incrementally up to 200 °C. The emission energies of the trion and exciton redshifted proportionally to the temperatures and did not go back to their room temperature values on cooling. In fact, the emission energies redshifted continuously even while the temperature was held constant at all values above room temperature. These irreversible effects were much worse for exposure to 650 ppm NH$_3$, and accompanied by a higher redshift in the PL emission energies upon heating up to 150 °C.

![Fig. 2](image_url)

Fig. 2. (a) Trion/Exciton intensity ratios against temperature for exposure to 650 ppm NO$_2$ (top) and NH$_3$ (bottom). The ratios were calculated by fitting the emission spectra (collected at room temperature) to two Lorentzian peaks. Ratios before annealing are plotted in grey and after annealing in blue and red for NO$_2$ and NH$_3$, respectively. (b) Rate of increase in trion intensity as a function of time for different concentrations of NO$_2$. (c) Change in emission energy of trion (after - before) for different concentrations of NO$_2$ and NH$_3$. The data points are fitted with lines to guide the eye.
a function of temperature for exposure to NO\textsubscript{2} (top) and NH\textsubscript{3} (bottom). The exciton (trion) intensity decreased (increased) exponentially with temperature, an example of which is shown in the inset. (c) Difference in emission energies before and after gas exposure as a function of gas concentration and temperature. Here the emission energies blueshifted and redshifted for exposure to NO\textsubscript{2} (top panel) and NH\textsubscript{3} (bottom panel), respectively. These shifts were directly proportional to both gas concentration and temperature.

The trends shown in Figs. 2 and 3 collectively point to defects as the cause of the shifts and irreversibility observed in the PL emission. Lattice defects such as sulfur vacancies are known to be generated on annealing monolayer TMDs at elevated temperatures. Previous reports have shown that vacuum annealing of WS\textsubscript{2} and MoS\textsubscript{2} up to 250 °C does not result in any structural defects, but heating to higher temperatures (up to 600 °C) significantly increases the number of sulfur vacancies.\textsuperscript{36,37} This would explain our observation of full PL recovery during vacuum annealing (Fig. 3a). However, the irreversible redshifts of the PL emission while heating under Ar and NH\textsubscript{3} are likely due to the generation of sulfur vacancies. We have previously shown a direct correlation between redshifted PL emission energies and defect densities due to sulfur vacancies in monolayer MoS\textsubscript{2}.\textsuperscript{38} Our observation of greater redshifts in the PL emission energies upon exposure of WS\textsubscript{2} to NH\textsubscript{3} compared to Ar at the same temperature (Figs. 3b and 3c) indicate higher defect densities due to NH\textsubscript{3}. Note that in the case of 10 Torr Ar, there might be residual oxygen generating the sulfur vacancies.\textsuperscript{38} In general, an increase in defects would lead to greater chemisorption of NH\textsubscript{3} and NO\textsubscript{2}, as previously reported.\textsuperscript{16,39} This in turn would cause the poor recovery of the PL emission energies upon cooling down to room temperature.
Fig. 3. Thermal cycling of the PL emission energies. Variation in exciton and trion emission energies (top panels) over time as the temperature (bottom panels) was increased and lowered incrementally for monolayer WS$_2$ in (a) $10^{-5}$ Torr vacuum, (b) 10 Torr Ar, and (c) 650 ppm NH$_3$. Changes in the PL emission were most severe for exposure to NH$_3$ and less severe under an Ar environment. No change to the PL emission was observed under vacuum up to 150 °C.

To test our hypothesis, we turned to resonance Raman spectroscopy. Excitation with a laser energy close to the optical gap of monolayer WS$_2$ (≈2 eV), for example with 532 nm (2.33 eV), reveals a rich Raman spectrum containing several non-zone center phonon modes and higher order combination modes. Among these, a longitudinal acoustic (LA) mode appears as a result of defect-mediated scattering of the excitation photon with zone boundary phonons. This mode could arise from the M or K point of the WS$_2$ Brillouin zone, and for brevity we call it the LA mode. The exact type of the defect responsible for the appearance of this peak is under investigation. However, its intensity has been correlated previously to sulfur vacancies and the ratio of intensities of the LA mode with respect to the zone-center $E'$ or $A'$ modes ($I_{LA}/I_{E'}$ or $I_{LA}/I_{A'}$) has been used to qualitatively monitor the sulfur vacancy concentration in monolayer MoS$_2$ and WS$_2$. 38,44–47

Figure 4a shows representative Raman spectra collected before and after exposure (i.e. pre- and post-scan) to 650 ppm NH$_3$ (annealed at 95 °C). The peak around 180 cm$^{-1}$ is the LA
mode, and the broader peak around 350 cm\(^{-1}\) is its overtone (2LA). The 2LA mode is very intense for monolayer WS\(_2\) when using 532 nm excitation owing to the double resonance process.\(^{40,48}\) The frequency of the in-plane vibrational mode of WS\(_2\) (\(E'\)) overlaps with the 2LA mode in the near-resonance Raman spectrum. But peak fitting reveals the two distinct \(E'\) and 2LA peaks, as shown in Fig. 4a. Note that the presence of the LA mode in the pre-scan indicates that defects are already present in the as-deposited material, which is expected in CVD-grown (and transferred) monolayer TMDs.\(^{49–51}\) Similar to the case of MoS\(_2\),\(^{38,44}\) we calculated the defect densities from the ratios of the areas of the LA and the \(E'\) modes, and subtracted the value before gas adsorption from the density after gas adsorption (spectra collected at room temperature). The resulting difference values (\(\Delta LA\)) are plotted against temperature in Fig. 4b for exposure of monolayer WS\(_2\) to 650 ppm of NO\(_2\) and NH\(_3\). First, all the \(\Delta LA\) values in Fig. 4b are positive, implying an increase in defect density after exposure to both NO\(_2\) and NH\(_3\). Second, the defect densities increased with temperature by a factor of six, from \(~0.15\) up to \(~0.9\), and the effect was greater for NH\(_3\) compared to NO\(_2\). As mentioned above, lattice defects such as sulfur vacancies are typically generated on heating monolayer TMDs to much higher temperatures (closer to 600 °C). Our observation of increasing defects upon annealing to 150 °C therefore ostensibly implicates NO\(_2\) and NH\(_3\) as being responsible for defect generation in the monolayer WS\(_2\). We therefore hypothesize that sulfur vacancies are generated in the presence of the gases; this effect increases with temperature and results in an increase in adsorbed gas owing to their higher binding affinity to chalcogen vacancies.\(^{15}\) Our hypothesis is supported by our observation of an increase in the LA peak intensity as well as the activation energies obtained by analyzing the rates of increases in the trion peak intensities. Further experimental and theoretical investigations will be needed for verification. We also note that lattice strain imparted due to the transfer and heating of the micropillar could impact the gas adsorption and can be observed through the significant broadening of Raman peaks and redshifts of PL emission energies.\(^{52–55}\) While we cannot preclude these effects, we did not observe significant broadening in the Raman spectra (Fig. 4a and S3) or redshifted PL emission (evidenced in Fig. 3a by the steady recovery of the exciton and trion emission upon rapid heating and cooling under vacuum) before and after heating indicative of strain. Moreover, as mentioned above, such effects can be mitigated by
measuring spectra before and after gas exposure from the same regions. Finally, unlike our previous observation of photothermal dissociation of O$_2$ resulting in defects in graphene,$^{56}$ NO$_2$ and NH$_3$ are expected to dissociate with UV excitation,$^{57,58}$ not visible light. Thus, our observations of defect generation and doping in WS$_2$ upon gas adsorption can be attributed mainly to the interactions between the gases and the WS$_2$ lattice.

Fig. 4. Effect of defect density on gas adsorption. (a) Representative Raman spectra collected before (bottom) and after (top) exposure of monolayer WS$_2$ to 650 ppm NH$_3$. The defect-induced LA(M) peaks and the $E'$ + 2LA(M) peaks are indicated. The LA(M) peak intensity increased after gas exposure. (b) Change in the defect density ($\Delta$LA) after exposure to 650 ppm NO$_2$ and NH$_3$. The increase in defect density with temperature corroborates the blue- and red-shifted PL emission energies due to adsorption of NO$_2$ and NH$_3$, respectively (Fig. 2).

Conclusions
We studied the interaction between NO\textsubscript{2} and NH\textsubscript{3} with monolayer WS\textsubscript{2} using \textit{in situ} PL and Raman spectroscopy. Gas adsorption experiments were conducted for a variety of gas concentrations (5 – 650 ppm) between 20 and 250 °C. The PL emission energies blue- and red-shifted for exposure to NO\textsubscript{2} and NH\textsubscript{3}, respectively, due to charge transfer from the gases upon adsorption. These shifts were proportional to the concentration and temperature. The charge transfer from the gases was also revealed in an exponential increase in trion peak intensity, with activation energies corresponding to migration of sulfur vacancies. The generation of sulfur vacancies (and other possible lattice defects) was also revealed by analysis of resonance Raman spectra, with a positive correlation between the defect density and the observed shifts in PL emission energies. Our studies revealed that, while monolayer WS\textsubscript{2} shows potential for gas sensing via adsorption, the interaction between NO\textsubscript{2} and NH\textsubscript{3} at elevated temperatures can also result in lattice defects such as sulfur vacancies. These results suggest lower operating temperatures for gas sensors based on 2D materials. Moreover, we show the potential for future development of spectroscopy-based gas sensors.
References


