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The effects of intercalated environmental gas molecules on carrier dynamics in WSe₂/WS₂ heterostructures†

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Effective tuning of carrier dynamics in two-dimensional (2D) materials is significant for multi-scene device applications. Using first-principles and *ab initio* nonadiabatic molecular dynamics calculations, the kinetics of O₂, H₂O, and N₂ intercalation into 2D WSe₂/WS₂ van der Waals heterostructures and its effect on carrier dynamics have been comprehensively explored. It is found that the O₂ molecule prefers to dissociate into atomic O atoms spontaneously after intercalation of WSe₂/WS₂ heterostructures, whereas H₂O and N₂ molecules remain intact. O₂ intercalation significantly speeds up the electron separation process, while H₂O intercalation largely speeds up the hole separation process. The lifetime of excited carriers can be prolonged by O₂ or H₂O or N₂ intercalations. These intriguing phenomena can be attributed to the effect of interlayer coupling, and the underlying physical mechanism for tuning the carrier dynamics is fully discussed. Our results provide useful guidance for the experimental design of 2D heterostructures for optoelectronic applications in photocatalysts and solar energy cells.

Introduction

The van der Waals (vdW) heterostructures constructed by vertically stacking different 2D materials bring new physical properties and enrich the family of 2D materials.^{1–5} Compared with pristine 2D materials, vdW heterostructures show unique

New concepts

The 2D van der Waals transition metal dichalcogenide (TMD) heterostructures with type-II band alignment are promising for applications in optoelectronics. During the process of fabrication and transfer, gas molecules can be easily intercalated into the interlayer space of the heterostructure. However, knowledge about the effect of gas molecule intercalation on the photo-generated carrier dynamics of heterostructures is still lacking. Herein, we systematically explore the carrier dynamics of environmental gas molecule (O₂/H₂O/N₂) intercalation in WSe₂/WS₂ heterostructure using the advanced TDDFT method. Intercalation of either O₂ or H₂O or N₂ reduces the band gap of pristine WSe₂/WS₂ heterostructure. The type-II band alignment is robust after O₂/H₂O/N₂ intercalation. Importantly, intercalation suppresses the electron-hole recombination and thus prolongs the lifetime of excited carriers. Our exploration provides new ideas for using gas molecule intercalation to modulate the carrier dynamics of van der Waals TMD heterojunctions.

electronic and optical properties that can be used for transistors and photodetectors.^{6–9} Recent theoretical and experimental studies have demonstrated the feasibility of band alignment engineering by stacking different 2D monolayer materials.^{7,10–13} Indeed, ultrafast electron transfer in transition metal dichalcogenide (TMD) vdW heterostructures, such as MoS₂/MoSe₂, WSe₂/MoSe₂, and MoS₂/WS₂, has been confirmed.^{14–19} In particular, the unique type-II band alignment promotes the interlayer exciton formation^{20–22} and effectively separates the photo-generated electron-hole pairs, which holds promise in the fields of photocatalysts and solar cells.^{23–26} Due to the robust type-II band alignment, WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructure has attracted considerable attention.^{27–38}

In vertical heterostructures, the vdW gap between monolayer components offers space for the intercalation of ions and molecules, thereby giving rise to new opportunities for property modulation. It has been evidenced that ion intercalation into TMD heterostructures has a significant impact on the chemical and physical properties and leads to broad applications in energy storage.^{39–41} For example, Liang *et al.* proposed a strategy

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of water and oxygen incorporation to tune the interlayer space and hydrophilicity of MoS₂ and achieved high Zn²⁺ storage capacity.⁴² Zhang *et al.* significantly enhanced the photoluminescence and photocurrent of TMD materials through tailoring the interlayer interaction by soft plasma intercalation.⁴³ Recently, Qian *et al.* successfully synthesized a chiral molecule-intercalated TaS₂ or TiS₂ superlattice, which provides a platform for studying the chiral-induced spin selectivity effect.⁴⁴ Beyond, Liu *et al.* successfully synthesized Cu atom intercalated NbS₂, which improves the electrical conductivity and suppresses the transition temperature and volume fraction of the superconductor.⁴⁵

In the laboratory, the vdW heterostructures can be synthesized by mechanically-assembled stacking, chemical vapor deposition, and physical epitaxy method.^{46,47} In the process of fabrication and transfer, intercalation of the ambient gas molecules into the interlayer space is inevitable.⁴⁸ On the one hand, similar to the effects of ion intercalation, molecule intercalation could also have a significant influence on the electronic and optoelectronic properties of TMD heterostructures,^{40,43} which should be carefully considered. On the other hand, intercalation of ambient gas molecules could be an easy but powerful way to modify the structure, stacking mode, and related properties of 2D TMD materials.⁴⁹ Small molecule (such as O₂, H₂O) intercalation in interlayer space has been extensively observed experimentally.^{50–57} To our best knowledge, however, the intercalation behavior of ambient gas molecules such as O₂, H₂O, and N₂ and their influence on the carrier dynamics of vdW heterostructures has been rarely studied.

In this study, taking the WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructure as an example, the intercalation effect of O₂, H₂O, and N₂ molecules on the carrier dynamic was carefully investigated by using the state-of-the-art Hefei-NAMD⁵⁸ code (more details in ESI†), which can well describe the dynamic behavior of excited state carriers at time, space, momentum, and energy scales.^{59–64} We find that O₂, H₂O, and N₂ intercalation reduces the band gap of the system but would not change the type-II band alignment of the pristine heterostructure. Interestingly, O₂ intercalation, H₂O intercalation, and N₂ intercalation can effectively modulate carrier dynamics in WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructures. Our work provides a new perspective into the carrier dynamics modulation in WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructures by molecule intercalation.

Results and discussions

The equilibrium lattice constants of monolayer WS₂ and WSe₂ are 3.183 Å and 3.317 Å, respectively, in agreement with previous theoretical results.^{65–68} According to previous study, the WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructure with C7 stacking is the most stable configuration.^{35,37,38,65,69,70} Thus, we focus on C7 configuration in this study, while our test calculations on other geometries like T stacking demonstrate that molecule intercalation would not change the sequence of energies for the bilayer heterostructures. In order to reduce the lattice mismatch, the lattice constant of the WSe₂/WS₂ heterostructure is set to be the average value of the lattice constants of WSe₂ and WS₂.

The WSe₂ layer is compressed by 2%, and the WS₂ layer is stretched by 2%. To check the strain effect on the band gap, we calculated the band structures of WSe₂ and WS₂ monolayers with different strain values, as shown in Fig. S1 (ESI†). The results show that a strain of 4% has a significant effect on the band gap. Fortunately, a strain of 2% has only a small effect on the band gap. Therefore, the deformation of both layers is a good choice to maintain the band gap, consistent with the previous theoretical work.^{67,71} According to the projected density of states (DOS) in Fig. 1(e) and the orbital projected band structures in Fig. S2 (ESI†) for pristine WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructure, the valence band maximum (VBM) mainly originates from WSe₂ and the conduction band minimum (CBM) mainly comes from WS₂. Therefore, WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructures exhibit typical type-II band alignment, which is promising for photocatalysts and solar cells due to the easy separation of photo-generated electron-hole pairs. Using the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof functional (PBE) functional, the theoretical band gap of WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructure is 0.81 eV, which is rather close to the previous reports (0.82 eV).⁶⁵ The band gap is largely reduced in the heterostructure compared with monolayer WS₂ (1.80 eV) and WSe₂ (1.54 eV),^{66,72} as shown in Fig. S1 (ESI†).

As shown in Fig. 1(a)–(d), we build a 3 × 3 × 1 orthogonal supercell for WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructure and insert one O₂ or H₂O or N₂ molecule per supercell to investigate the intercalation effect. The lateral dimensions of the supercell are 9.75 Å and 16.89 Å, which are sufficiently large to avoid the intercalated molecule and its periodic replicas. Different intercalation sites for O₂ molecules were tested (see Fig. S3, ESI†). O₂ molecules are more likely adsorbed and dissociated on the WS₂ layer. Notably, O₂ intercalation did not change the stacking geometry of C7. Upon intercalation, the O₂ molecule will spontaneously dissociate. As depicted in Fig. 1(b), one S–W bond is broken, and a new W–O–S–O bond geometry is formed. The detailed bond lengths are summarized in Table S1 (ESI†). Intercalation of the O₂ molecule increases the interlayer spacing *d* by about 0.07 Å. (see Table S1, ESI†). Fig. S4 (ESI†) shows that the dissociation barrier of the O₂ molecule in the interlayer of the WSe₂/WS₂ heterostructure is 0.18 eV. In contrast, the O₂ molecule prefers physisorption on pristine monolayer WS₂.^{72,73} Therefore, the confinement environment does activate O₂ molecules, which can be understood by analyzing the charge transfer. The charge density difference ($\Delta\rho$) was calculated as follows,

$$\Delta\rho = \rho_{\text{total}} - \rho_{\text{WSe}_2} - \rho_{\text{WS}_2} - \rho_{\text{O}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{N}_2} \quad (1)$$

where ρ_{total} , ρ_{WSe_2} , ρ_{WS_2} and $\rho_{\text{O}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{N}_2}$ denote the charge density of heterostructure, monolayer WSe₂, monolayer WS₂, O atoms and H₂O and N₂ molecule, respectively. After O₂ intercalation, electrons accumulate on two O atoms, and the heterostructure loses electrons. The electrons transferred from the heterostructure to the intercalated O₂ molecule promote the dissociation of the O₂ molecule. The charge density difference is plotted and shown in Fig. S5b of ESI†.

Different intercalation sites for H₂O molecules have also been tested (Fig. S6, ESI†), and the most stable configuration is

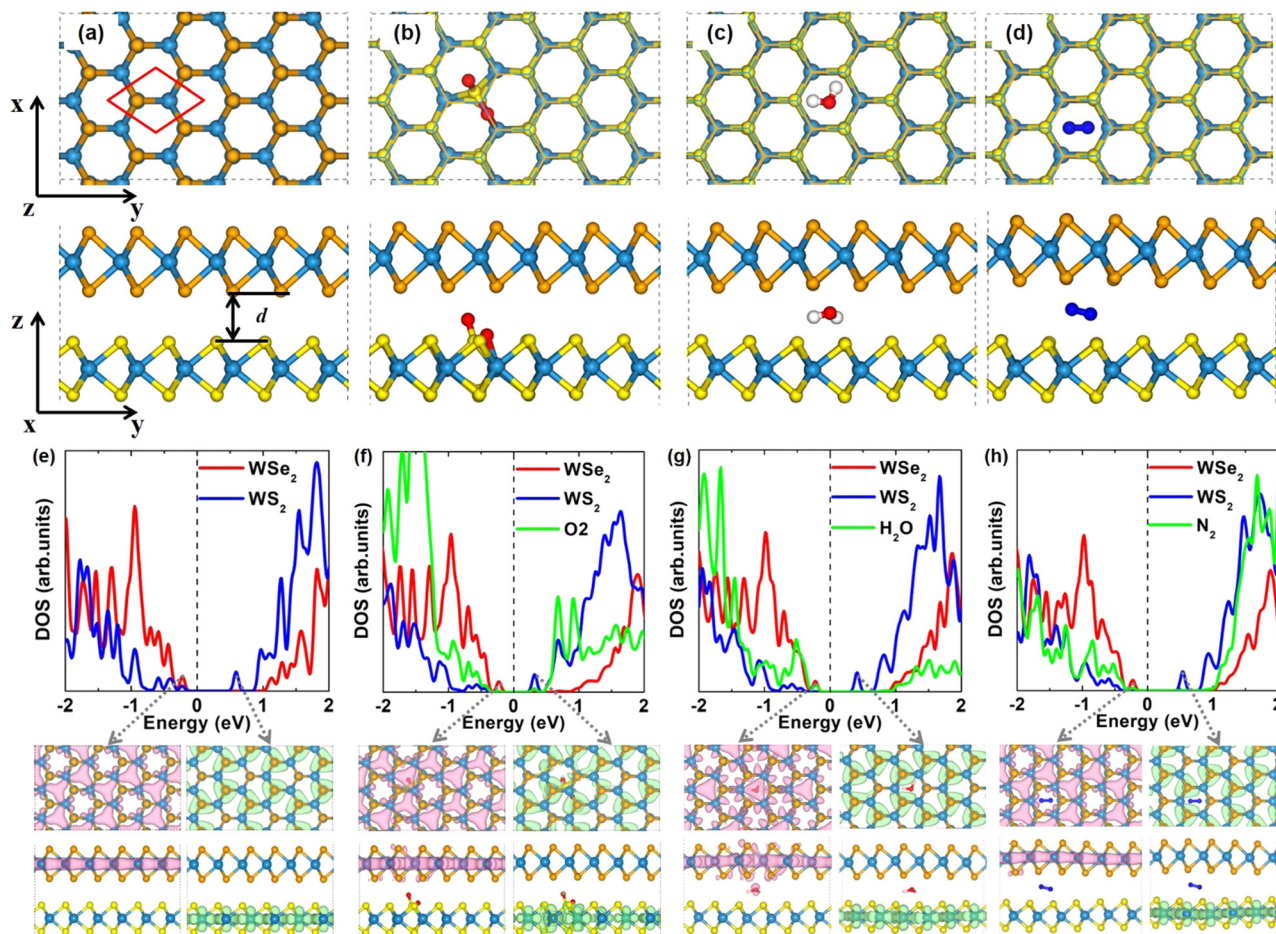


Fig. 1 Optimized structure, projected density of states (DOS), and charge density of (a), (e) pristine, (b), (f) O_2 and (c), (g) H_2O , and (d), (h) N_2 intercalated WSe_2/WS_2 vdW heterostructures. The white, red, dark blue, yellow, orange, and blue balls represent H, O, N, S, Se, and W atoms, respectively. To visualize the structure of molecules in the interlayer space, the WSe_2 layer is shown in thin-stick style in (b)–(d). The pink and green colors represent the charge density of VBM and CBM, respectively. The isosurface value is set as $0.0008 |e| \text{ Bohr}^{-3}$.

presented in Fig. 1(c). Again, the stacking pattern of C7 is not changed by H_2O intercalation. In contrast to the case of O_2 intercalation, the intercalated H_2O molecule would not dissociate. The H_2O molecule prefers to locate at the hollow site independent of initial configurations. The two H atoms of the H_2O molecule tend to be closer to the S atoms of the WS_2 layer. Intercalation of the H_2O molecule enlarges the interlayer distance by $0.13 \text{ \AA}$. The details of the interlayer distances of H_2O intercalated heterostructures can be found in Table S2 of ESI†. Compared to the H_2O molecule in vacuum, the intercalated one has a longer O–H bond and a narrower H–O–H bond angle, indicating that the confinement environment also activates the H_2O molecule. The charge density difference (Fig. S5c, ESI†) reveals the electron transfer between the heterostructures and the H_2O molecule.

Possible intercalation sites for the N_2 molecule are examined as shown in Fig. S7 (ESI†), and the most stable configuration is shown in Fig. 1(d). N_2 molecule intercalation also did not change the stacking pattern of C7, and the N_2 molecule did not dissociate. N_2 molecule prefers to locate at the hollow site after optimization independent of initial configurations. Intercalation of the N_2 molecule increases the larger interlayer distance by

about $0.32 \text{ \AA}$. The details of the bond lengths and interlayer distances of N_2 intercalated heterostructures are shown in Table S3 of ESI†. Furthermore, the charge density difference of the N_2 intercalated heterostructure is calculated as shown in Fig. S5d (ESI†), from which we can see that the interface charge is reduced compared with the pristine heterostructure (Fig. S5a, ESI†).

It is noted that the pristine WSe_2/WS_2 heterostructure is built by deforming both layers. Whether it is the strain that causes O_2 dissociation is unclear. To examine this, the O_2 , H_2O , and N_2 intercalation in an unstrained bilayer WS_2 layer with 2H stacking was investigated, as shown in Fig. S8 (ESI†).^{68,74} Similar to the case of the intercalation in WSe_2/WS_2 heterostructure, in the bilayer WS_2 , O_2 tends to dissociate while H_2O and N_2 remain intact. Therefore, the strain effect on the dissociation of O_2 molecules can be excluded. In experiments, small molecule intercalation in the interface of graphene and substrate has been extensively observed.^{50–52,56} For example, O_2 and H_2O intercalation in the interface of graphene/Cu(111) surface leads to surface oxidation and promotes the decoupling of graphene from the substrate.⁵⁶ Besides, the surface and

catalysis are strongly influenced by a 2D cover, and the interface between adjacent 2D layers or 2D overlayers and metal substrates can be interesting 2D nanocontainers as well as 2D nanoreactors.⁵³ According to the above analysis, the dissociation of the O₂ molecule is expected to be the result of the space confinement effect.

According to the projected density of states (DOS) and charge densities in Fig. 1(e)–(h), intercalation of O₂ or H₂O or N₂ does not change the feature of type-II band alignment of the WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructure, *i.e.*, the VBM mainly from WSe₂ and the CBM mainly from WS₂, respectively. However, molecule intercalation can prominently reduce the band gap of the system. The band gaps of O₂, H₂O, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures are 0.54 eV, 0.63 eV, and 0.76 eV, respectively. As shown in Fig. 1(e), the VBM and CBM of pristine heterostructure are located at −0.276 eV and 0.538 eV, respectively. It can be seen in Fig. 1(f) that the decreased band gap in O₂ intercalated heterostructure is caused by the downward movement of conduction bands of the WS₂ layer (CBM: 0.304 eV) and slightly upward shift of valence bands of the WSe₂ layer (VBM: −0.233 eV) after O₂ intercalation. The downward movement of conduction bands near CBM can be used as an intermediate state of electron transfer from the WSe₂ layer to the WS₂ layer and is expected to promote the fast charge transfer from the WSe₂ layer to the WS₂ layer. To clearly see the energy positions of O-related defect levels in the electronic structures, the projected density of states of molecules in Fig. 1 is magnified by a factor of one hundred. From Fig. 1(f), we can see that O defect levels do not contribute to the VBM and CBM. Impurity energy levels induced by O₂ dissociation locate between the CBM of the WS₂ layer and the CBM of the WSe₂ layer in the conduction band region. Therefore, during the electron transfer process, the donor state is not changed. O defect levels can be regarded as intermediate states of electron transfer from the WSe₂ layer to the WS₂ layer. In the valence band area, the valence bands of the WS₂ layer are shifted down, the coupling of the WSe₂ layer and WS₂ layer is reduced after O₂ intercalation, and a small part of O impurity energy levels exist between the VBM of the WS₂ layer and VBM of WSe₂ layer. As shown in Fig. 1(g), the reduced band gap in H₂O intercalated heterostructure is due to the shift down of the conduction bands of the WS₂ layer (CBM: 0.407 eV) and mildly upward shift of VBM of the WSe₂ layer (VBM: −0.223 eV). The conduction bands near the CBM of the WS₂ layer are moving down, which can also serve as an intermediate state of electron transfer between the WSe₂ and WS₂ layers. In the valence band area, the valence bands of the WS₂ layer are shifted down and the coupling of WSe₂ and WS₂ is reduced, similar to O₂ intercalation. To clearly show the effect of the H₂O molecule, the project DOS of the H₂O molecule is magnified by 100 times in Fig. 1(g). From this, we can see that the projected DOS of the H₂O molecule located between the VBM of the WS₂ layer and VBM of the WSe₂ layer, which can be an intermediated state between the WS₂ layer and the WSe₂ layer and promote hole transfer. The charge density of VBM is composed of H₂O molecule and WSe₂ layer, indicating that the highest occupied molecular orbital of the H₂O

molecule is elevated and can be a hole acceptor. As shown in Fig. 1(h), in the conduction band area, N₂ intercalation also induced the conduction bands of the WS₂ layer (CBM: 0.513 eV) and VBM of the WSe₂ layer (VBM: −0.248 eV) to move down and up slightly. The conduction band near CBM is also moved downward, which can be as an intermediate state between the CBM of the WSe₂ layer and the CBM of WS₂ layer and promote electron transfer. In the VBM, the coupling of WSe₂ and WS₂ is also reduced. The projected DOS of the N₂ molecule is also magnified 100 times for clarity, which has less effect on the VBM than the H₂O molecule.

The large supercell-induced band folding containing seven irreducible K points is shown in Fig. S9 (ESI†). In order to clearly show the changes in band edge position, the band structures of pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated WSe₂/WS₂ heterostructures are unfolded as shown in Fig. S10b, d, f and h (ESI†), respectively.⁷⁵ Compared with the pristine heterostructure, the CBM band offset ΔE_C between the CBM at K of WS₂ (CB-WS₂@K) state and the CBM at K of WSe₂ (CB-WSe₂@K) state increased after molecule intercalation. The VBM at Γ of WSe₂ (VB-WSe₂@ Γ) state moved down after molecule intercalation. The VBM at K of WS₂ (VB-WS₂@K) state also shifted down. Correspondingly, the VBM band offset ΔE_V between the VB-WS₂@K state and the VB-WSe₂@K state increased after molecule intercalation. The ΔE_C and ΔE_V of pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures are summarized in Table S4 (ESI†).

As illustrated in Fig. 2(a), we focus on three processes about carrier dynamic behavior of the heterostructures: (I) transfer of photo-generated electrons from WSe₂ to WS₂, (II) transfer of photo-generated holes from WS₂ to WSe₂, (III) recombination of the photo-generated electrons and holes.

The time-dependent electron localization behavior of process (I) for pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated vdW heterostructures at 300 K has been carefully investigated. (for details, see Fig. S11a–d of ESI†). For pristine heterostructure, the initial electron distribution on the WSe₂ and WS₂ layers is 29% and 71%, respectively. After 12 fs, the spatial electron population on the WSe₂ layer decreases to 11%. Our finding agrees well with a previous theoretical study, which suggested ultrafast electron transfer from the WSe₂ layer to the WS₂ layer. In addition, recent experimental transient absorption spectroscopy has verified the ultrafast electron transfer from WSe₂ to WS₂ (~40 fs).^{65,76} In this process, the adiabatic (AD) mechanism makes the main contribution, indicating that the process is sensitive to phonon excitation. We will discuss the dominant phonon modes in the charge transfer process later. For O₂ intercalated heterostructures, the initial electron population on the WSe₂ layer is 39%. After 18 fs, the electron population on WSe₂ decreases to 19%. At 463 fs, the electron population on the WSe₂ layer completely diminishes to 0%. In this process, both AD and nonadiabatic (NA) mechanisms contribute to ultrafast electron transfer. The NA mechanism is related to direct charge hopping. For H₂O intercalated heterostructures, the initial electron distribution on the WSe₂ layer is 34%. After 18 fs, the electron population on WSe₂ decreased to 22%. At 1 ps, the electron

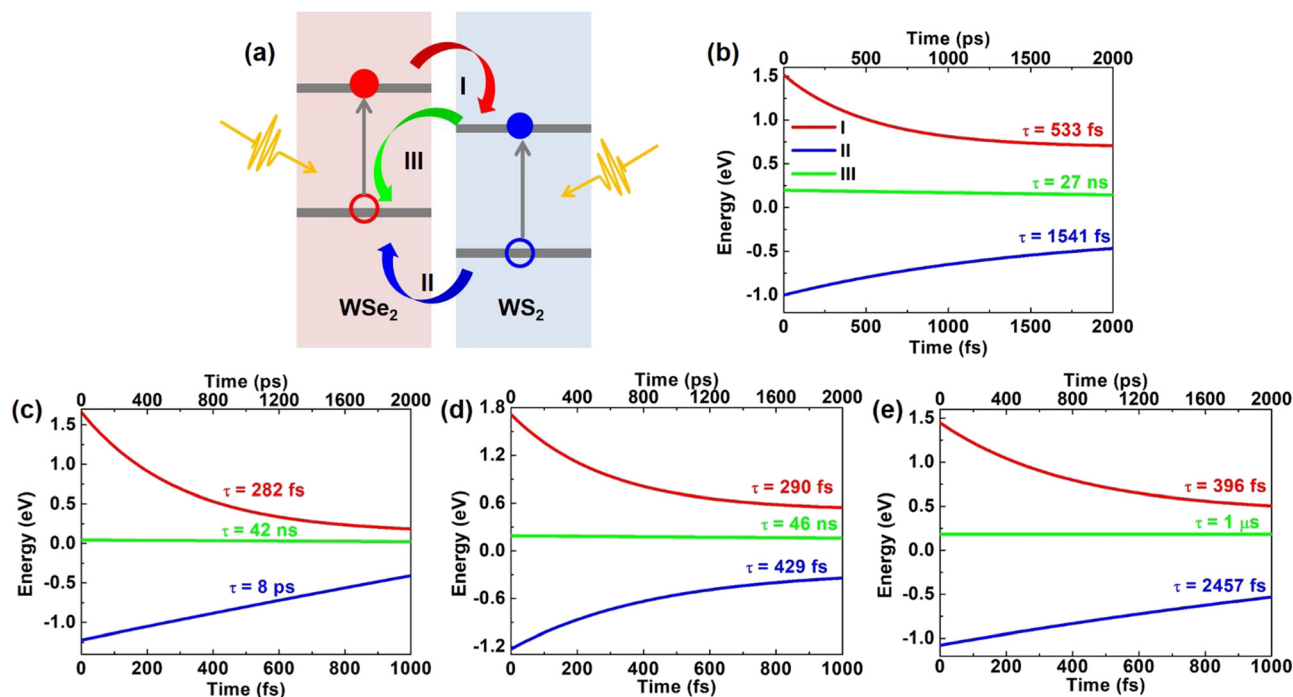


Fig. 2 (a) Schematic plots of (I) electron transfer, (II) hole transfer, and (III) electron and hole recombination processes. (b–e) show the fitting curves of time-dependent carrier energy change of three processes in (a) for pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructures.

population on the WSe₂ layer decreases to 2%. In this process, the AD mechanism plays a key role. For the N₂ intercalated heterostructure, the initial electron distribution on the WSe₂ layer is 70%. After 18 fs, the electron population on WSe₂ decreased to 21%. AD mechanism dominates the fast charge transfer. Then, the electron population on the WSe₂ layer decreased and converged to 2% within 1 ps. In this process, AD and NA mechanism plays a key role. By fitting the average electron energy with exponential decay function [$A \times \exp(-t/\tau)$], the electron transfer time for pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures is 533 fs, 282 fs, 290 fs, and 396 fs, respectively, as shown in Fig. 2(b)–(e) (red lines). Therefore, O₂, H₂O, and N₂ intercalation can speed up the intervalley electron transfer process effectively. Details of the time-dependent electron energy profile of process (I) are shown in Fig. S11e–h (ESI[†]). The electron transfer pathway in momentum spaces is CB-WSe₂@K → CB-WS₂@3 → CB-WS₂@K state for pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures.

For pristine heterostructure, the initial hole distribution on the WS₂ layer is 94%. Then, holes migrate from the WS₂ layer to the WSe₂ layer quickly. Within 40 fs, the hole population on the WS₂ layer decreases to 57%. Subsequently, at 1 ps, the hole in the WSe₂ layer gradually increases and converges to 76%. From Fig. S12e (ESI[†]), we can see that within 2 ps, the hole transfer pathway in momentum spaces is VB-WS₂@K → VB-WSe₂@5 → VB-WSe₂@K state. The average hole energy reached the VB-WSe₂@5 state within 1 ps. For O₂ intercalated heterostructures, the initial hole distribution on the WS₂ layer is 97%. After 25 fs, the hole population on the WS₂ layer decreases to 76%. At 73 fs,

the hole population on the WS₂ layer decreases to 57%. In this process, the AD mechanism dominates. Subsequently, there is a slow hole transfer until 1 ps, where the hole population on the WSe₂ layer converges to 74%. In this process, both AD and NA mechanisms take effect. As shown in Fig. S12f (ESI[†]), the hole transfer pathway in momentum spaces is VB-WS₂@K → VB-WSe₂@Γ → VB-WSe₂@K state and the average hole energy reached the VB-WSe₂@Γ state within 1 ps. For H₂O intercalated heterostructures, the initial hole population on the WS₂ layer is 90%. After 18 fs, the hole population on the WS₂ layer decreases to 52%. In this process, the AD mechanism dominates. Then, the hole population on the WSe₂ layer slowly increased and converged to 74%. In this process, AD and NA mechanisms together promote hole transfer. As shown in Fig. S12g (ESI[†]), the hole transfer pathway in momentum spaces is VB-WS₂@K → VB-WSe₂@Γ → VB-WSe₂@K state and the average hole energy approaches the VB-WSe₂@K state within 1 ps. For N₂ intercalated heterostructures, the initial hole population on the WS₂ layer is 98%. The hole from the WS₂ layer transfers to the WSe₂ layer, and the hole population on the WS₂ layer decreases to 39% within 60 fs. AD mechanism contributes to the fast hole transfer. Then, the hole localization on the WS₂ layer oscillated until 230 fs. In this process, the AD mechanism makes the main contribution. Subsequently, the hole population on the WSe₂ layer slowly increased and converged to 66%. In this process, AD and NA mechanisms together promote hole transfer. As shown in Fig. S12h (ESI[†]), the hole transfer pathway in momentum spaces is VB-WS₂@K → VB-WSe₂@Γ → VB-WSe₂@K state and the average hole energy approaches the VB-WSe₂@Γ state within

1 ps. Details of the time-dependent hole localization of process (II) are given in Fig. S12a–d (ESI†). By fitting the average hole energy with an exponential decay function [$A \times \exp(-t/\tau)$], we derive the hole transfer time as 1541 fs, 8062 fs, 429 fs, and 2457 fs for pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated and N₂ intercalated heterostructures, respectively, as shown in Fig. 2(b)–(e) (blue lines). Therefore, H₂O intercalation can promote ultrafast hole transfer from the VB-WS₂@K state to the VB-WSe₂@K state, while O₂ and N₂ intercalation cannot promote hole transfer. Details of the time-dependent hole energy of process (II) are shown in Fig. S12e–h (ESI†).

To investigate the electron–hole recombination, *i.e.*, the process (III) in Fig. 2(a), the time-dependent electron populations on the VBM of heterostructures have also been calculated for pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures at 300 K. (details in Fig. S13a–d, ESI†). The initial electron population on the WSe₂ layer (VBM of the heterostructures) is 0%. For pristine heterostructure, after 2 ns, the electron population on the VBM rises to 7.6%. For O₂ intercalated heterostructures, after 2 ns, the electron population on the VBM grows to 4.9%. For the case of H₂O intercalation, after 2 ns, the electron population on the VBM rises to 4.5%. For the N₂ intercalated heterostructure, the electron population on the VBM is only 0.2% after 2 ns. By fitting the population of the electron with exponential decay: $\exp(-t/\tau) \approx 1 - t/\tau$, the electron–hole recombination time is calculated to be 27 ns, 42 ns, 46 ns, and 1 μ s for pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures, respectively, as shown in Fig. 2(b)–(e) (green lines). Therefore, molecular intercalation can effectively slow down the recombination. In the process of recombination, the NA mechanism dominates because there is no crossing between the donor state and the acceptor state.

Furthermore, we consider the effect of temperature on the carrier dynamics by performing NAMD simulations at 78 K. Our results show that for both pristine and molecule intercalated heterostructures, the decrease in temperature slightly slows down the electron transfer process but greatly slows down the hole transfer process and the recombination process. The detailed discussion can be found in the ESI† (Fig. S11–S19).

The time dependent energy level evolution of pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures at 300 K is shown in Fig. 3(a)–(d), respectively. From this, we can see that the donor state (CB-WSe₂@K) is strongly orbital hybridized and mixed with the intermediate state during the electron transfer process. These hybrid states confirm that the AD mechanism dominates the fast electron transfer process. Especially, the CBM + 3 level and CBM + 4 level cross in intercalated heterostructures, which promotes fast electron transfer. O₂ intercalation introduces a large number of intermediate states, which further promotes the rapid transfer of electrons. In the hole transfer process, the hybrid VBM-2 level in pristine heterostructure becomes flat, localized, and gapped with VBM-1 level and VBM-3 level after O₂ intercalation, which suppresses the hole transfer. Similarly, the VBM-2 level is gapped with the VBM-1 level in N₂ intercalated heterostructure, which inhibits the hole transfer. For H₂O intercalated heterostructure, the donor state (VB-WSe₂@K) is mixed with the intermediate states, which promotes rapid hole transfer.

Electron–phonon coupling during charge transfer can be obtained from the Fourier transform of the time-dependent energy level evolution. The electron–phonon coupling during charge transfer in pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures at 300 K and 78 K is shown in Fig. 3(e)–(l) and Fig. S14(e)–(l) (ESI†), respectively. First, we

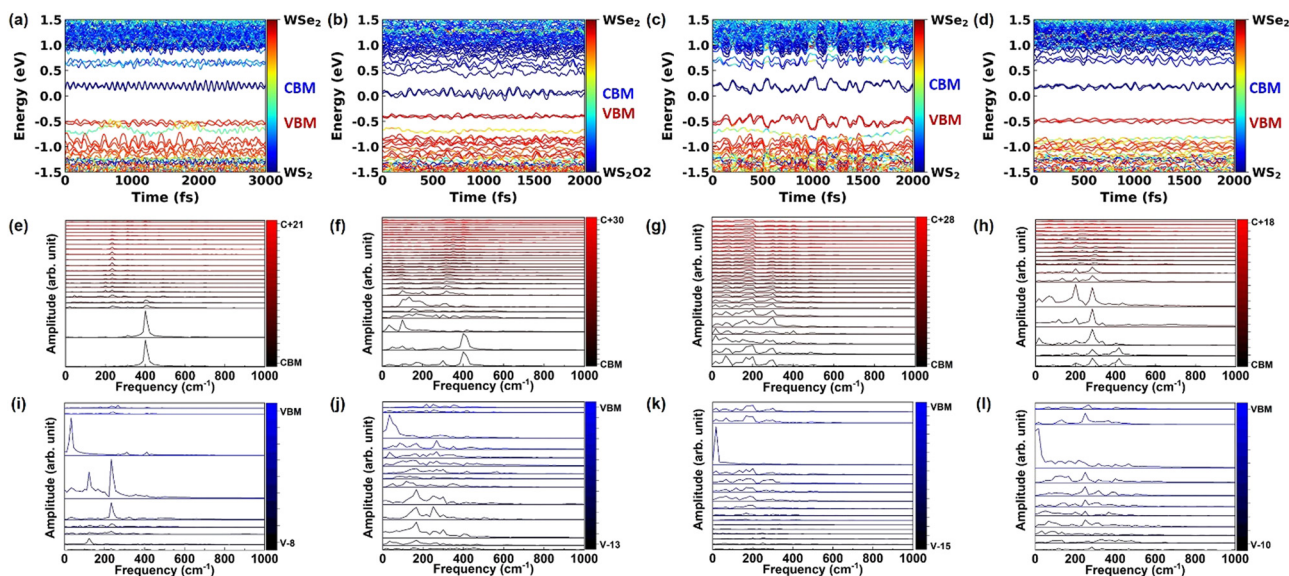


Fig. 3 The time-dependent energy evolution at Γ point of (a) pristine, (b) O₂ intercalated, (c) H₂O intercalated, and (d) N₂ intercalated heterostructures at 300 K, respectively. The color bar in (a)–(d) represents the contribution from WSe₂ layer (red part) and WS₂ layer (blue part), respectively. Fourier transforms of the donor and relevant acceptor energy states during the process of electron transfer and hole transfer in (e), (i) pristine, (f), (j) O₂ intercalated, (g), (k) H₂O intercalated, and (h), (l) N₂ intercalated WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructures at 300 K, respectively. The color bar in (e)–(l) represent the band number.

discuss the phonon coupling in the pristine heterostructure. In the electron transfer process, the donor state (CBM + 21), intermediate states (CBM + 1–CBM + 20), and acceptor state (CBM) mainly couple with phonons located at 200 cm^{-1} , 233 cm^{-1} , and 400 cm^{-1} (Fig. 3(e)). In the hole transfer process, the donor state (VBM-8), intermediate state (VBM-7–VBM-1), and acceptor state (VBM) mainly couples with phonons located at 33 cm^{-1} , 122 cm^{-1} , 178 cm^{-1} , 233 cm^{-1} , 267 cm^{-1} , and 411 cm^{-1} (Fig. 3(i)). Compared with the pristine heterostructure, molecule intercalation induces many low-frequency phonon modes participating in the electron and hole transfer process, as shown in Fig. 3(f)–(h) and (j)–(l), respectively. The phonon spectra⁷⁷ of pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated WSe₂/WS₂ heterostructures are shown in Fig. S15a–d (ESI†). It can be seen that molecule intercalation induces high-frequency phonons, but phonons with a frequency larger than 1000 cm^{-1} do not participate in band edge coupling, as shown in Fig. 3(e)–(l) and Fig. S14e–l (ESI†).

Furthermore, we investigate the origin of different carrier dynamic behavior in pristine and intercalated WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructures. The transfer probability of charge carriers is determined by the value of nonadiabatic coupling (NAC), which is described as:^{78,79}

$$d_{jk} = \left\langle \phi_j \left| \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right| \phi_k \right\rangle = \frac{\langle \phi_j | \nabla_{\mathbf{R}} H | \phi_k \rangle}{\varepsilon_k - \varepsilon_j} \dot{\mathbf{R}} \quad (2)$$

Here, ε_k and ε_j are the eigenvalues of the electronic states k and j ,

$\langle \phi_j | \nabla_{\mathbf{R}} H | \phi_k \rangle$ is the electron–phonon coupling element, $\dot{\mathbf{R}}$ is the velocity of nuclear motion. According to eqn (2), a larger NAC value would promote faster charge transfer. The averaged NAC values between electronic states around the VBM and CBM for pristine and intercalated heterostructures are presented in Fig. 4.

In the process of electron transfer (process (I) in Fig. 2(a)), the averaged NAC values between different electronic states for pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures are plotted in Fig. 4(a)–(d). In Fig. 4, each square represents the average NAC value between two different orbitals. The average NAC value is indicated by the color of the square. The color ruler is shown on the right. The darker the color, the higher the NAC value. The NAC value for two identical orbitals is zero, which is represented by white squares on the diagonal. The size of the square is meaningless. In general, according to eqn (2), the NAC value between adjacent energy levels is larger than that between distant energy levels. For example, in the pristine heterostructure, the averaged NAC value between CBM + 21 and CBM + 20 is 0.087 eV, while the NAC between CBM + 21 and CBM + 19 is 0.025 eV. Therefore, photo-excited electrons prefer to relax to the energetically adjacent states. The average NAC values between conduction states and the VBM are very small, as seen in Fig. 4(i)–(l). This accounts for the difficulty of electron–hole recombination, *i.e.*, process (III) in Fig. 2(a). The average NAC values between CBM and VBM are 1.59×10^{-4} , 1.53×10^{-4} , 1.19×10^{-4} ,

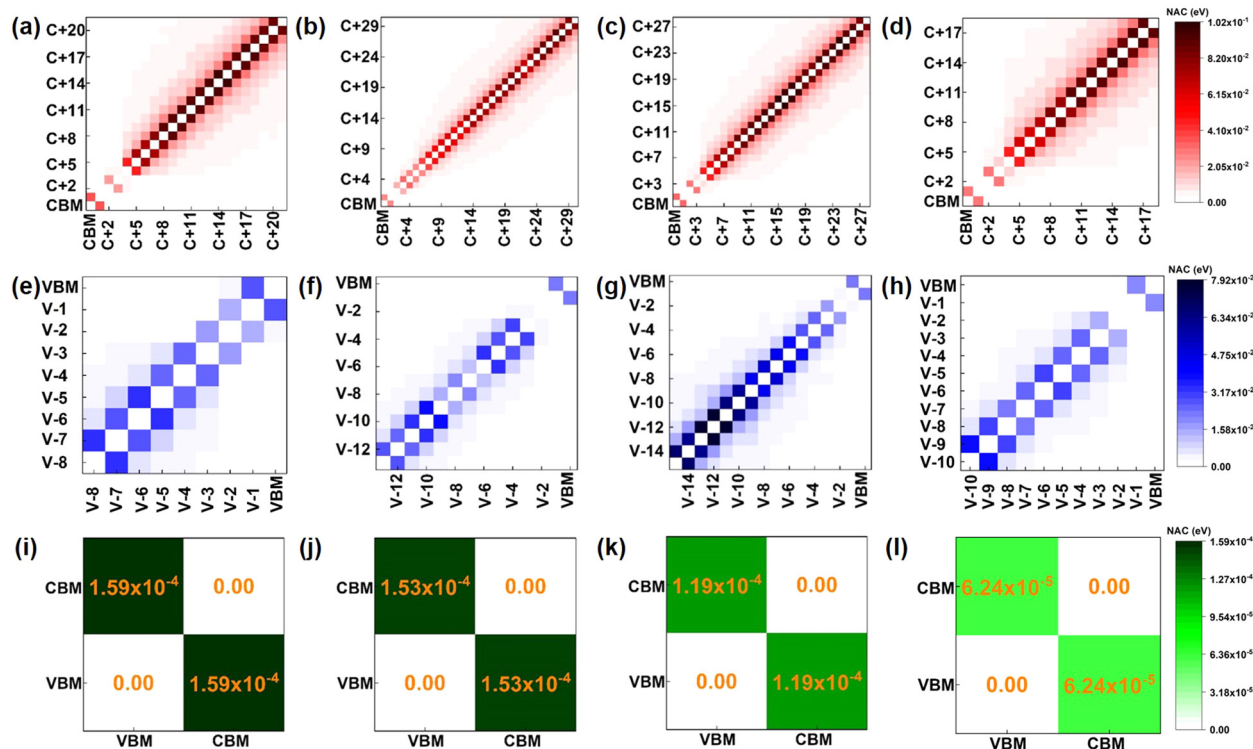


Fig. 4 The averaged NAC values between the orbitals in the process of electron transfer, hole transfer, and recombination in (a), (e), (i) pristine, (b), (f), (j) O₂ intercalated, (c), (g), (k) H₂O intercalated, and (d), (h), (l) N₂ intercalated WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructures at 300 K, respectively. Here, C+1, C+2, ... means CBM+1, CBM+2, ... level, respectively; V-1, V-2, ... means VBM-1, VBM-2, ... energy level, respectively.

and 6.24×10^{-5} for pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated heterostructure, respectively. Therefore, the recombination of electron and hole is the most difficult in N₂ intercalated heterostructure.

The average NAC values of O₂, H₂O, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures are smaller than the pristine heterostructure, which agrees with the result of Fig. S13a–d (ESI†). Within 2 ns, pristine heterostructure has a fast recombination rate, followed by O₂ intercalation, H₂O intercalation, and N₂ intercalation. As shown in Fig. S17 (ESI†), we plot the band gap distribution during MD simulation, and the average band gap of pristine, O₂, H₂O, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures are reduced compared with the static computation. The average band gaps of pristine, H₂O, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures are 0.69 eV, 0.67 eV, and 0.64 eV, respectively. In contrast, O₂ intercalation induced a small average energy gap of 0.42 eV. A small band gap is expected to lead to large NAC values and promote fast electron–hole recombination in O₂ intercalated heterostructure. Thus, the energy level difference is not the main factor for NAC. As mentioned above, except for energy level difference, electron–phonon coupling element $\langle \phi_j | \nabla_{\mathbf{R}} H | \phi_k \rangle$ and nuclear velocity $\dot{\mathbf{R}}$ also play an important role in determining NAC values. The larger the energy level oscillations, the more phonons are excited and the stronger the electron phonon coupling.⁵⁸ As shown in Fig. S18a (ESI†), the relative phonon amplitude of CBM and VBM states of pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures at 300 K are plotted. It can be seen that after molecule intercalation, the phonon amplitudes of CBM state and VBM state are reduced, indicating the smaller phonon occupation and weaker electron–phonon coupling element. Furthermore, we calculated the root mean square displacement^{75,80} (RMSD) of pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures using MD trajectories, which is defined as:

$$\text{RMSD}(t) = 1/N_{\alpha} \sum_{i \in \alpha} \sqrt{(r_i(t) - r_i(0))^2} \quad (3)$$

where N_{α} is the number of atoms including S, Se, W, $r_i(t)$ is the position of atom i at time t . The time dependent RMSD of pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures at 300 K is shown in Fig. S19a–d (ESI†), respectively. It can be seen that O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated heterostructures have a larger RMSD than pristine heterostructure, indicating a larger nuclear velocity, which is expected to lead to larger NAC values. Thus, the reduced electron–phonon coupling element of the CBM state and VBM state is the major reason for the smaller average NAC values in molecule intercalation heterostructures.

In summary, in O₂ intercalated heterostructures, the downward shifted conduction band and the O impurity energy level induce more intermediate states between donor and acceptor, resulting in fast electron transfer from the WSe₂ layer to the WS₂ layer. In H₂O intercalated and N₂ intercalated heterostructures, the downward shifted conduction band increasing intermediate states also promote the fast intervalley electron

transfer from CB-WSe₂@K state to CB-WS₂@K state at 300 K. H₂O intercalation gives rise to fast hole transfer from VB-WS₂@K state to VB-WSe₂@K state, while O₂ and N₂ intercalation do not promote hole transfer. Molecule intercalation alters the hole transfer pathway compared to pristine heterostructure. More importantly, molecule intercalation generally suppresses the recombination of electrons and holes. Overall, O₂, H₂O, and N₂ intercalation can effectively tune the carrier dynamic of WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructures at a certain temperature.

Conclusions

The equilibrium structure and carrier dynamics of pristine, O₂ intercalated, H₂O intercalated, and N₂ intercalated WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructures have been systematically investigated by first-principles and *ab initio* nonadiabatic molecular dynamics calculations. Our results show that at the interface of WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructure, O₂ molecules will spontaneously dissociate, whereas H₂O and N₂ molecules will not. Either O₂ or H₂O or N₂ intercalation reduces the band gap of the heterostructure but will not change the type-II band alignment. At 300 K, O₂ or H₂O, or N₂ intercalation significantly speeds up the electron separation process from the CB-WSe₂@K state to the CB-WS₂@K state. At 300 K, H₂O intercalation largely accelerates the hole separation process. All three molecules suppress the recombination of electrons and hole due to the reduced electron–phonon coupling element. Our results reveal a new atomistic perspective of modulating the carrier dynamics in WSe₂/WS₂ vdW heterostructures by molecule intercalation and provide valuable guidance for the experimental design of functional 2D heterostructures.

Author contributions

Y. Zhang initialized the project, carried out the calculations, and wrote the draft. H. L., Y. Z., J. L., Y. B., J. G. and J. Z. helped with the calculation process and provided inspiring suggestions for improvement. J. G. and J. Z. supervised the whole project. All authors contributed to the discussion of the results and writing the manuscript.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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