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Increased monolayer domain size and patterned growth of tungsten disulfide through controlling surface energy of substrates

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Abstract

We report a surface energy-controlled low-pressure chemical vapor deposition growth of WS₂ monolayers on SiO₂ using pre-growth oxygen plasma treatment of substrates, facilitating increased monolayer surface coverage and patterned growth without lithography. Oxygen plasma treatment of the substrate caused an increase in the average domain size of WS₂ monolayers by 78% ± 2% while having a slight reduction in nucleation density, which translates to increased monolayer surface coverage. This substrate effect on growth was exploited to grow patterned WS₂ monolayers by patterned plasma treatment on patterned substrates and by patterned source material with resolutions less than 10 μm. Contact angle-based surface energy measurements revealed a dramatic increase in polar surface energy. A growth model was proposed with lowered activation energies for growth and increased surface diffusion length consistent with the range of results observed. WS₂ samples grown with and without oxygen plasma were similar high quality monolayers verified through transmission electron microscopy, selected area electron diffraction, atomic force microscopy, Raman, and photoluminescence measurements. This technique enables the production of large-grain size, patterned WS₂ without a post-growth lithography process, thereby providing clean surfaces for device applications.

Keywords: TMD, WS₂, tungsten disulfide, synthesis, chemical vapor deposition, patterning

 Online supplementary data available from stacks.iop.org/JPhysD/49/325304/mmedia

(Some figures may appear in colour only in the online journal)

Introduction

Monolayer WS₂ has been of interest for the past five years for its semiconducting nature, optical properties, and high environmental sensitivity. With a direct bandgap in the visible spectrum near 2 eV [1–3], WS₂, along with other transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs), has been used for field effect transistors and other semiconductor devices [4, 5] and has

also been investigated as a nonclassical light source [6]. These applications require high quality, patterned WS₂, two requirements which are at odds as the typical patterning and material transfer techniques reduce the quality of WS₂, observed as a reduction in carrier mobility or photoluminescence intensity.

Patterning is usually accomplished by growth followed by optical or electron beam lithography, plasma etching of the sample, and then stripping resist. This patterning requires the spin coating and patterning of a masking layer and later, usually incomplete, removal of that layer. By this process the

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quality of devices made from these materials can be compromised from contamination [7–13]. Direct patterning through growth without a post-lithography process thus would allow for a reduction of potential contaminants. However, previous reports on patterned growth of TMDs focus on multilayer TMDs [14, 15] and graphene [16–20].

Research on CVD growth of WS₂ has focused on controlling growth through choice of precursor, controlling flow rates, growth pressures, growth temperatures, or ramp rates [2, 21–25]. However, growth of monolayer van der Waals materials is closely linked to substrate interactions including substrate surface energy, a consequence of the high surface area to volume ratio of these materials. A pre-growth oxygen plasma treatment of the growth substrate was recently shown to increase average grain size with decreased nucleation density for CVD growth of monolayer MoS₂ with submicron grains [26]. In addition, oxygen plasma treatment of substrates improved another van-der-Waals growth, the atomic-layer-deposition of alumina on MoS₂ substrates [27].

Though chip-scale growth of MoS₂ was demonstrated using low-pressure chemical vapor deposition (LPCVD) as early as 2013 [28–30] and later with WSe₂ [31], chip-scale monolayer WS₂ growth has only recently been demonstrated on Au substrates [32, 33] and by MOCVD on fused silica and SiO₂ substrates [29]. In comparison, MoS₂ semiconducting devices have been further developed (including signal mixers, memory devices, logic devices, and photonic devices) [34–39], due to the relative difficulty of growth and exfoliation of WS₂. However, WS₂ has value over other TMDs for certain applications. WS₂ has large spin-orbit band splitting for spintronics applications (426 meV for WS₂, 148 meV for MoS₂, though exceeded by WSe₂ at 456 meV) [40]. The mobility is theoretically higher than other semiconducting TMDs (MoS₂ is higher in the experimental literature) [41]. Also, though the broadband sunlight absorption by WS₂ is less than other TMDs [42], it has been particularly investigated for photonics due to its high PL efficiency and high exciton binding energy [43–47] including use as a gain medium for lasing [48], chosen over MoS₂ or WSe₂ for its higher quantum efficiency.

Here we report the effect of pre-growth oxygen plasma treatment on the LPCVD growth of WS₂ and exploit that effect for patterned growth of monolayer WS₂. We show that oxygen plasma pretreatment of substrates dramatically increases the average crystal grain size of monolayer WS₂ CVD growth and encourages monolayer WS₂ surface coverage, while slightly reducing the nucleation density. We further demonstrate that control of growth through surface treatment lends itself to directly patterned growth of WS₂. We show that increased monolayer growth from WS₂ also enables patterned growth of WS₂ through patterning the WO₃ source material or the growth substrate through etching. We furthermore demonstrate multi millimeter scale growth of predominantly monolayer WS₂ on an oxidized silicon substrate using the increased surface energy from a pre-growth oxygen plasma treatment.

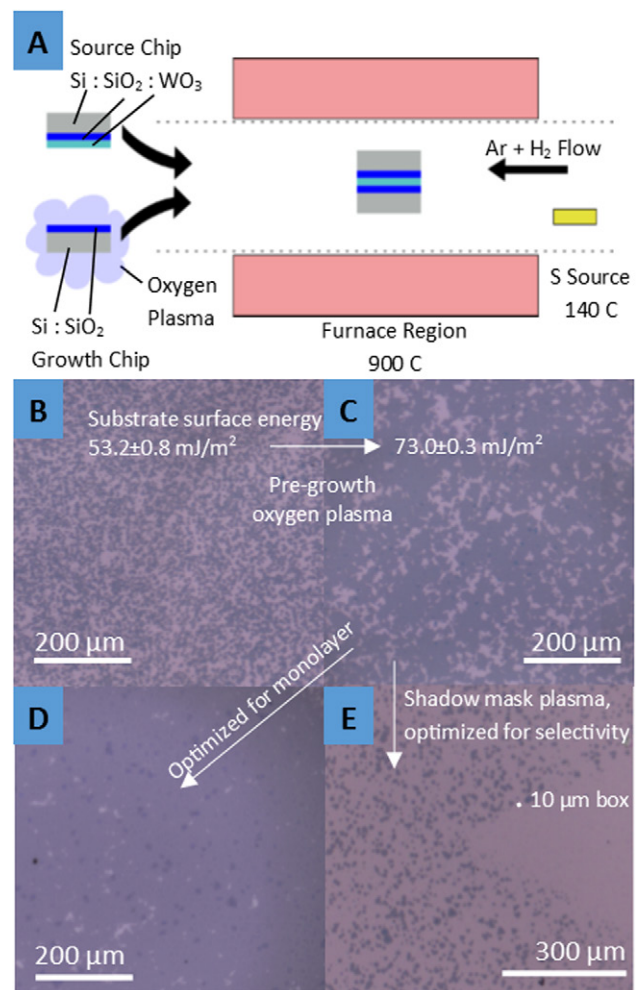


Figure 1. CVD growth setup and growth of WS₂ with or without O₂ plasma. (A) Furnace setup: a WO₃ source substrate is placed face to face with a growth substrate in the center of the furnace. Ar, H₂, and S are delivered from upstream. (B) and (C) are optical images of different growth chips run concurrently, (B) with no substrate pretreatment and (C) with 3 min of oxygen plasma, increasing the average crystal size by 78% while decreasing nucleation density by 8%. The lighter regions are bare SiO₂, the darker purple are monolayer WS₂, and the darkest blue are thick WS₂ (verified using Raman and PL measurements). (D) Shows a plasma treatment growth optimized for monolayer coverage while (E) shows growth with a shadow mask patterned pre-growth plasma treatment.

Results and discussion

Growth of WS₂ monolayers was performed in an MTI 1200X one-zone split-top furnace with a 3 inch quartz tube, run with a 36 mTorr base pressure and a few hundred mTorr operating pressure when fed with Ar and H₂ gas and S vapor evaporated from molten S (illustrated in figure 1(A)). The maximum temperature was 900 °C but growth interruption experiments show that growth occurred during the ramping process from 815 °C to 900 °C and after reaching 900 °C. The samples were unloaded when the furnace cooled to under 40 °C. The total time including cooling, from loading to unloading the samples, was 3 h. Growth substrates were 1 cm × 1 cm chips with

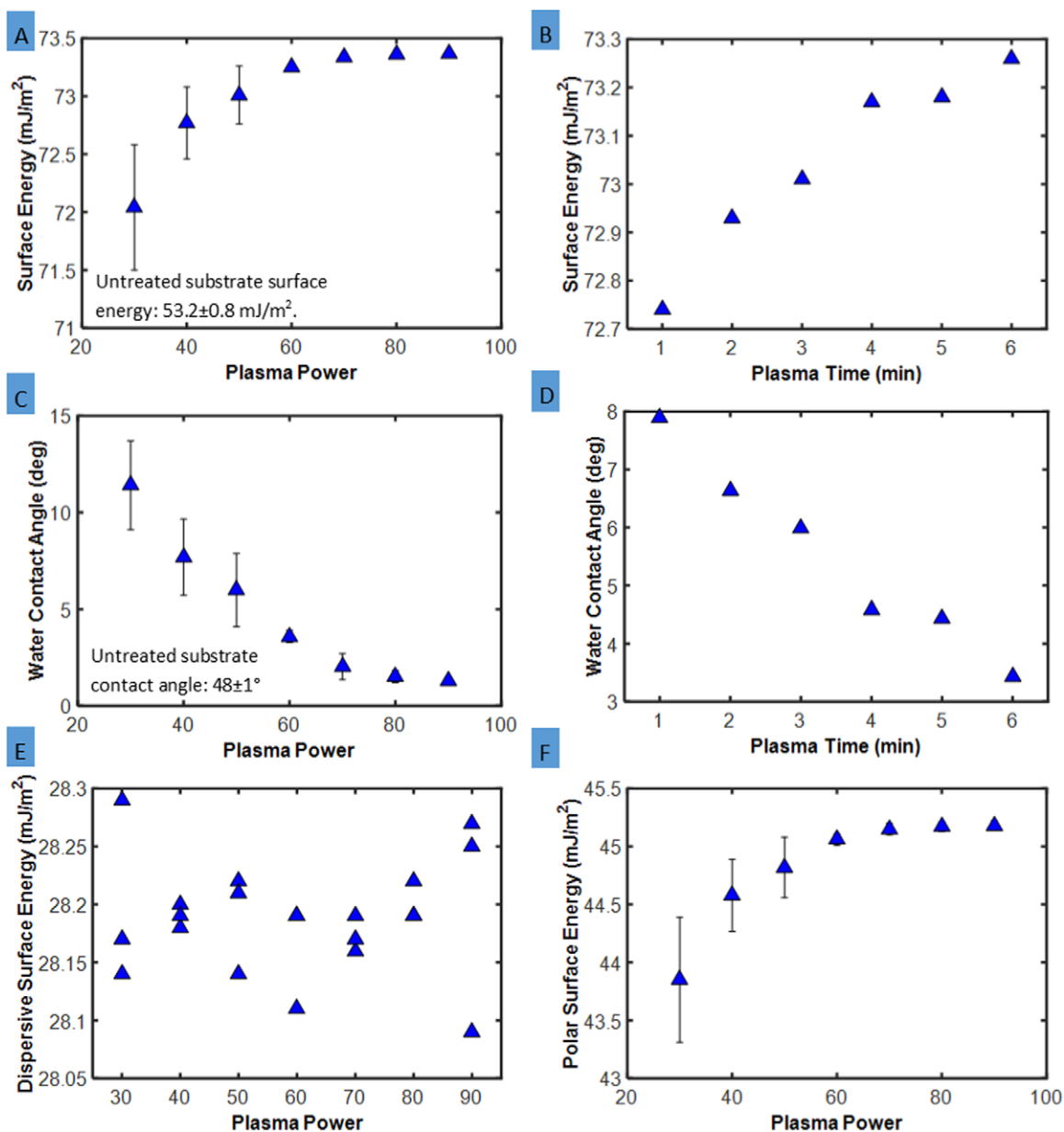


Figure 2. Contact angle-based Owens–Wendt surface energy measurements of plasma treated substrates using toluene and water. The untreated substrate showed a contact angle of $48 \pm 1^\circ$ and surface energy $53.2 \pm 0.8 \text{ mJ m}^{-2}$. (A) Surface energy versus plasma power. (B) Surface energy versus plasma time. (C) Water contact angle versus plasma power. (D) Water contact angle versus plasma time. (E) and (F) illustrate that the increase in surface energy is attributed to a polar component, consistent with formation of silanol groups on the surface.

90 nm SiO_2 on Si (‘growth chips’) and were placed face to face with other chips (‘source chips’) which were covered with 5 nm of evaporated WO_3 . For oxygen plasma assisted growth, the growth substrates were exposed to plasma directly before growth (details in Methods). After growth, the WO_3 source substrate was covered with thick, nonuniform WS_2 (figure S1 (stacks.iop.org/JPhysD/49/325304/mmedia)) while the target substrate was covered in predominantly monolayer WS_2 (figures 1(B)–(E)).

Pre-growth oxygen plasma treatment was found to increase the crystal size of the monolayer WS_2 while causing a smaller, negative effect on the nucleation density. A representative run of WS_2 chips with and without oxygen plasma treatment grown simultaneously is shown in figures 1(B) and (C). The

untreated substrate had a nucleation density of $940 \pm 15 \text{ crystals mm}^{-2}$ and an average WS_2 crystal size of $56 \pm 1 \mu\text{m}^2$. With plasma treatment, the nucleation density decreased by 8% to $871 \pm 11 \text{ crystals mm}^{-2}$ while the average WS_2 crystal sized increased by 78% to $101 \pm 2 \mu\text{m}^2$. By optimizing the growth, a continuous WS_2 film which is predominantly polycrystalline monolayer (up to multi- mm^2 in size) can be obtained (figure 1(D)). Additional characterization of the large area growth appears in figure S2. The percentage increase in domain size between treated and untreated samples is given as a representative example as it is sensitive to the growth recipe, an order of magnitude difference being possible. For example, the patterned growth in figure 1(E) has separated monolayer growth in the plasma treated region

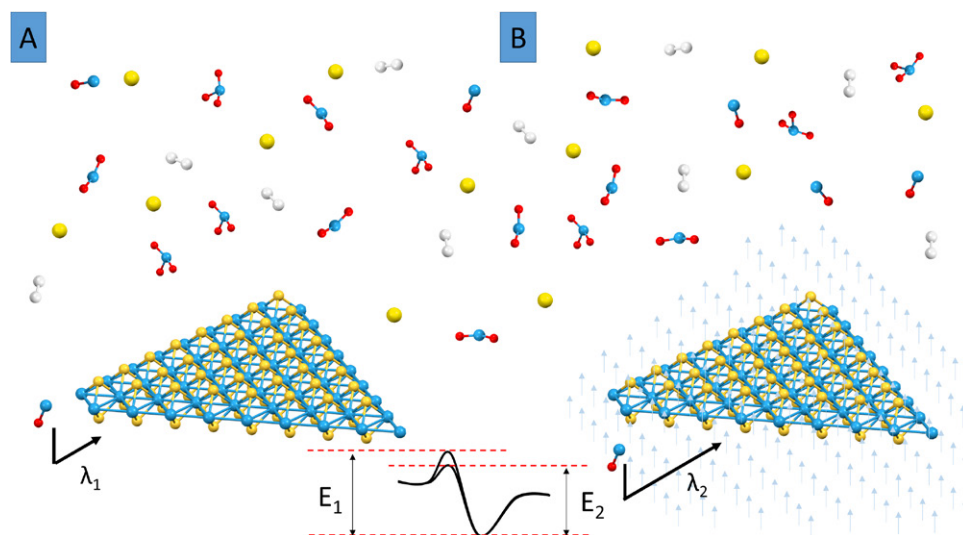


Figure 3. Growth kinetics of WS_2 with oxygen plasma surface treatment. Growth on an untreated, low energy substrate is shown on the left (A) and on a plasma treated substrate on the right (B). The vertical arrows serve to illustrate the higher energy of the surface. In the vapor phase are shown H_2 gas (white), S vapor (yellow) and various W oxides (blue and red). Drawn are qualitative representations of the longer surface diffusion length λ_2 and lower activation energy E_2 than the plasma treated substrate.

and almost no growth in the untreated region. To produce the patterned growth in figure 1(E), (a) contact shadow mask was used during the plasma treatment process; the mask was removed before growth leaving only the surface energy difference to do the patterning. The growth in figure 1(E) was run with process parameters optimized for selectivity between the plasma treated and untreated regions, while avoiding multilayer growth in the plasma treated regions. Polished Si and rolled Cu shadow masks both resulted in well-defined patterns, suggesting that one can use any mask which conforms to the substrate and resists the oxygen plasma treatment process. Polymer masks redeposited on the exposed regions during the plasma treatment and became nucleation sites favouring multilayer WS_2 growth.

Grain size measurements on the grown WS_2 monolayers were performed by exposing the sample in ambient conditions to oxidize the crystal at the grain boundaries over an approximately 7 d period (figure S3), then taking optical microscope images and analysing using the Particle Analysis plugin of ImageJ [49]. In order to measure average grain sizes, optical images of the same region were taken before and after oxidizing the sample with the total area of monolayer WS_2 taken from the un-etched samples and the number of grains counted using the second image when the grain boundaries were revealed by oxidation. The correspondence of the oxidation with the grain boundaries has been established by several reports [22, 23, 50], which also showed that the grain boundaries can also be revealed by heating the sample on a hot plate in air in 20 min [22] or by UV treatment in humid atmospheres [50].

To elucidate the effect of oxygen plasma on growth and to inform the growth model, we performed surface energy measurements of plasma treated samples. The surface energy was found by performing contact angle measurements and fitting to the Owens–Wendt model which divides the surface energy into polar and dispersive components [51]. Toluene was used

as a purely dispersive liquid and water as a strongly polar liquid. After plasma treatment for 1–6 min with powers 30–90 W, the surface energy of the untreated state jumped from a surface energy of $53.2 \pm 0.8 \text{ mJ m}^{-2}$ (water contact angles 48 ± 1) into the range $71\text{--}73 \text{ mJ m}^{-2}$ (water contact angles $1\text{--}13^\circ$) (figures 2(A) and (B)). While surface energy increased 74% compared to untreated substrates, the variation in surface energy was only 3% for the experimental parameters 1–6 min and 30–90 W. Higher powers and longer times (5 min, 100 W) resulted in reduced grain size and increased percentage of thick growth of WS_2 (figure S4). The small variation in surface energy despite a noticeable trend in water contact angle (figures 2(C) and (D)) is due to the contact angle appearing in a cosine. Though difficult to measure contact angles less than a few degrees using the sessile drop method, the error on the surface energy is only $\pm 0.04 \text{ mJ m}^{-2}$ for a contact angle range of $0.1\text{--}2^\circ$, so errors of measurement on low angles do not affect the conclusions. Figure 2(E) shows how the toluene contact angle and thus the dispersive surface energy does not depend on the plasma power, while figure 2(F) shows how polar component of the surface energy increasing monotonically with plasma power.

The existence of silanol groups on treated surfaces has been experimentally verified through pH dependent contact angle [52] and XPS measurements [53]. Polar-dispersive contact angle measurements on H_2O plasma treated mica showed the same polar-only trend as the experiments presented here and correlated the result with XPS measurements of OH groups [53]. Several experiments and simulations correlate contact angle with surface silanol density [54, 55]. Though several studies support contamination removal as the mechanism for contact angle reduction without reference to surface bonds or silanol groups [56, 57], it is unclear how pure contamination removal would result in a polar surface and be as rapid as we observed. Increased roughness could reduce contact angle, based on the Wenzel model, or could

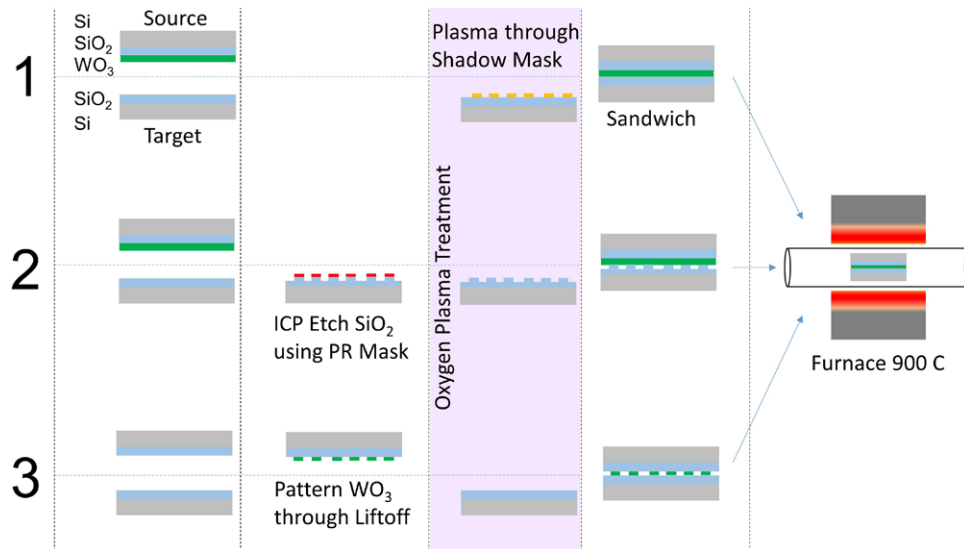


Figure 4. Three process flows for patterned growth of monolayer WS_2 . Each process begins with source and growth substrates, subjects them to different processes, then sandwiches them together for growth. In process 1, the growth substrate is treated to oxygen plasma through a shadow mask. In process 2, the glass surface of the growth substrate is etched in a pattern using CHF_3 plasma. In process 3, the source WO_3 material on the source substrate is patterned using liftoff while the growth substrate is unpatterned.

provide more surface area for silanol group attachment [58]. In our experiments, surface roughness measurements showed an RMS roughness less than our tool's measurement limit of 0.5 nm for both untreated and treated samples, in agreement with others' measurements of less than 1 nm roughness after 20 min in a high power system [59]. The effect cannot be entirely excluded, but it would be based on sub-nm roughness. The increase of polar surface energy without a change in surface roughness is consistent with the formation of silanol groups on the SiO_2 surface. The largest increase in surface energy, from 53 to 72 $mJ m^{-2}$, was rapid, with an additional 3% increase to 73.5 $mJ m^{-2}$ over several minutes or with higher powers. In the first minute adsorbed water and organic contaminants are likely removed and replaced with silanol groups. Simple contaminant removal is not expected to be so rapid, resulting in a polar surface. The additional effect over several minutes cannot be explained by the same short term desorption mechanism, but could be explained by etching of organics or surface reconstruction.

Increased grain size was observed for samples that had rested for up to 30 min before loading, but the best results were obtained from those loaded as quickly as possible (3–5 min) and ramped rapidly to the growth temperature (18 $deg min^{-1}$). Rapid heating above this rate caused poor growth, attributed to overheating the substrates due to the furnace design causing radiative heat transfer from the coils.

The effect of plasma pretreatment on the growth mechanism is illustrated in figure 3. In order to explain the range of results observed we deduce that both the activation energies for nucleation and growth are reduced and the surface diffusion length of the reaction product is increased. This means that the growth is highly dependent on the local supersaturation which explains the wide range of results we observed. Figure 3(A) shows growth kinetics for an untreated surface and figure 3(B) shows a treated surface. Illustrated in the vapor phase are various W oxides, S vapor, and H_2 gas which

participate in the reaction (Ar carrier not shown and concentrations taken as the same in figures 3(A) and (B)). Pure W is not shown in the vapor phase as it is not volatile at the growth temperature, though the W suboxides are known to be volatile at those temperatures. H_2 or H_2O react to reduce the W oxides as part of the reaction; in our experiments there is no WS_2 growth from WO_3 in a H_2 and H_2O free atmosphere. The growing crystal forms bonds between the existing crystal and the substrate which both contribute to the interfacial energy and thus the activation energy. The increased interfacial energy should result in a decreased activation energy for both lateral crystal growth and nucleation, however we observed decreased nucleation density, which can be explained by deconstructing the free energy driving nucleation (Δg) into the supersaturation σ and interfacial energy α . The nucleation rate is proportional to the exponential of the free energy [60],

$$\text{Nucleation rate} \propto e^{-\Delta g/kT}$$

where Δg is the free energy, k is the Boltzmann constant, and T is the temperature. Here, the free energy is related to the supersaturation and interfacial energy by

$$-\Delta g/kT \propto -\frac{\alpha^3}{\sigma^2}$$

where σ is supersaturation and α is interfacial energy. Thus, a decrease in interfacial energy has a strong effect on both the crystal growth rate (and ultimate size) and on the nucleation density. We conclude that a second effect must come into play to reduce the nucleation density. An increase in surface diffusion length is a plausible explanation. The high energy of the surface lowers energy barriers for surface diffusion, increasing the surface diffusion length and consequently decreasing the nucleation density. When reactants arrive at the growing crystal interface they are more easily incorporated due to the lower surface activation energies.

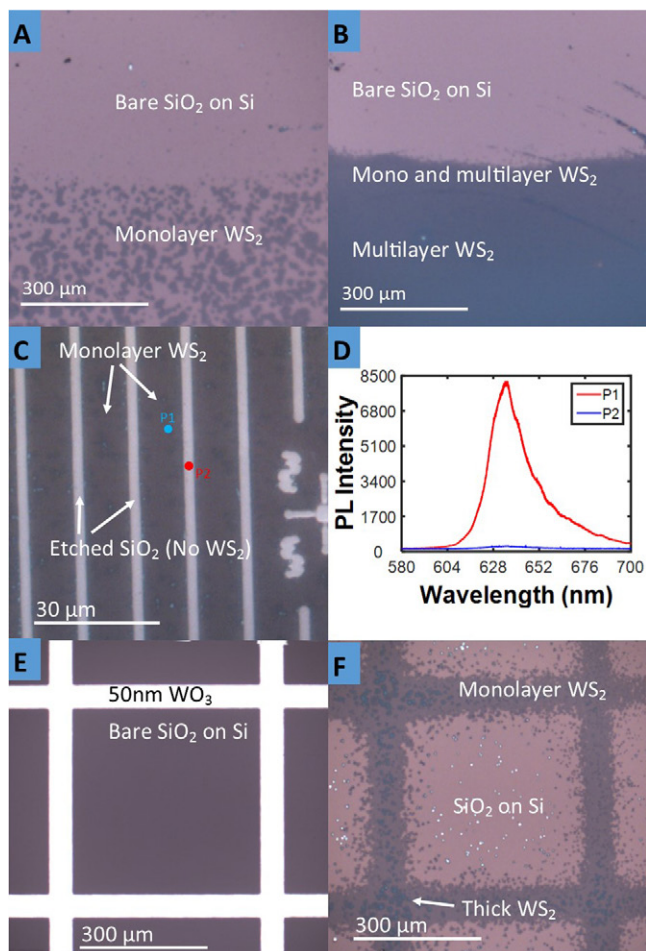


Figure 5. Patterned growth using oxygen plasma. Through tailoring the growth process and patterning either the surface energy, source, or substrate, WS_2 crystals can be selectively grown. (A) WS_2 growth in line and notch patterns using a shadow mask during oxygen treatment. (B) Shadow masked growth of thick, continuous WS_2 . (C) Patterned growth on a substrate which has been etched by CHF_3 plasma with PL characterization in (D). (E) An optical image of the WO_3 precursor patterned using lift-off and (F) shows the resulting monolayer growth which matches the precursor pattern on the source substrate.

The supersaturation, which correlates to local reactant concentrations, is a parameter which is highly local and drives the relative importance of the surface diffusion length and the activation energy. This interplay between the two effects results in a high variability between samples which have an increase in grain size and a lower nucleation density and other samples which show both a high increase in nucleation density and a high increase in grain size, as is seen in some of the patterned growth results exhibited in this paper.

Controlling growth by substrate preparation lends itself to patterned growth of monolayer WS_2 by promoting growth only in certain areas. Here we demonstrate directly grown, patterned WS_2 through three methods (figure 4). In the first method, patterned growth resulted from directly controlling the local surface energy of the substrate by exposing the growth substrate to oxygen plasma pretreatment through a shadow mask. Shadow masks were made from both polished Si and rolled Cu foils. In this case, the chip carrying

the WO_3 source material was not treated or modified. The result was already shown in figure 1(E) using a triangular mask made from polished Si; figure 5(A) shows the result from a square Si mask and figure 5(B) shows the result at the edge of a region patterned using a Cu foil disk. The differences between figures 5(A) and (B) stem not from the mask but from different growth process parameters. Figure 5(B) had higher sulfur concentration during growth. By selecting appropriate process parameters, either disconnected WS_2 monolayers can be grown (figures 1(E) and 5(A)) or connected, few-layer WS_2 can be grown (figure 5(B)). In our experiments, the mask material did not affect the growth results as long as the mask conformed well to the substrate (using polished or rolled masks without wrinkles), and could withstand the oxygen plasma treatment. In figures 5(A) and (B) the interface region is sharp, with a transition region smaller than $10\ \mu\text{m}$.

The addition of a pre-growth plasma treatment to the process increased the monolayer WS_2 coverage from partial coverage and separated triangular crystals to a continuous polycrystalline monolayer WS_2 film. The growth chip was patterned by ICP etching in CHF_3 plasma using a photoresist mask followed by resist stripping using acetone (55 nm deep in a 90 nm oxide). The growth chip was exposed to oxygen plasma before growth while the WO_3 source chip was not modified. Figure 5(C) is an optical image of the result, with continuous polycrystalline monolayer WS_2 films separated by regions devoid of WS_2 growth, confirmed by photoluminescence data (figure 5(D)). The grown monolayer WS_2 has a PL/Raman intensity ratio of 20 while P2 has a ratio of approximately 1. The decreased PL intensity is an indication that there is either no WS_2 or thick (>3 layer) WS_2 [2], and optical and SEM investigation shows there is no WS_2 in the etched trenches (P2). The existence of a Raman signal in P2 is attributed to the probe spot size being near the same size as the features, so signal is picked up from the neighboring monolayer WS_2 .

Furthermore, oxygen plasma treatment caused nucleation and growth of monolayer WS_2 near the WO_3 source material, enabling patterned WS_2 growth from patterned WO_3 . The WO_3 source material on the source substrate was patterned using lift-off and electron beam evaporation of 50 nm WO_3 from pellets. The growth substrate was unpatterned but was still subjected to the oxygen plasma treatment. Figure 5(E) depicts an optical image of the patterned WO_3 before growth and figure 5(F) shows the resulting WS_2 growth. While polycrystalline monolayer follows the pattern, thicker WS_2 appears near the center of the WO_3 source strip and at the intersections. In figure 5(F), The $50\ \mu\text{m}$ WO_3 lines expanded to approximately $100\ \mu\text{m}$ of monolayer WS_2 growth. Without oxygen plasma treatment, the growth process resulted in randomly distributed triangular monolayer crystals.

The growth method of contacting the substrates face to face was key to our patterning results, which we attribute to its role in limiting diffusion of W source material. WS_2 growth behaves fundamentally differently than Mo-based growth such as MoS_2 because both the WO_3 and suboxides ($\text{WO}_{2.9}$, $\text{WO}_{2.72}$, and WO_2 are all stable oxides) will

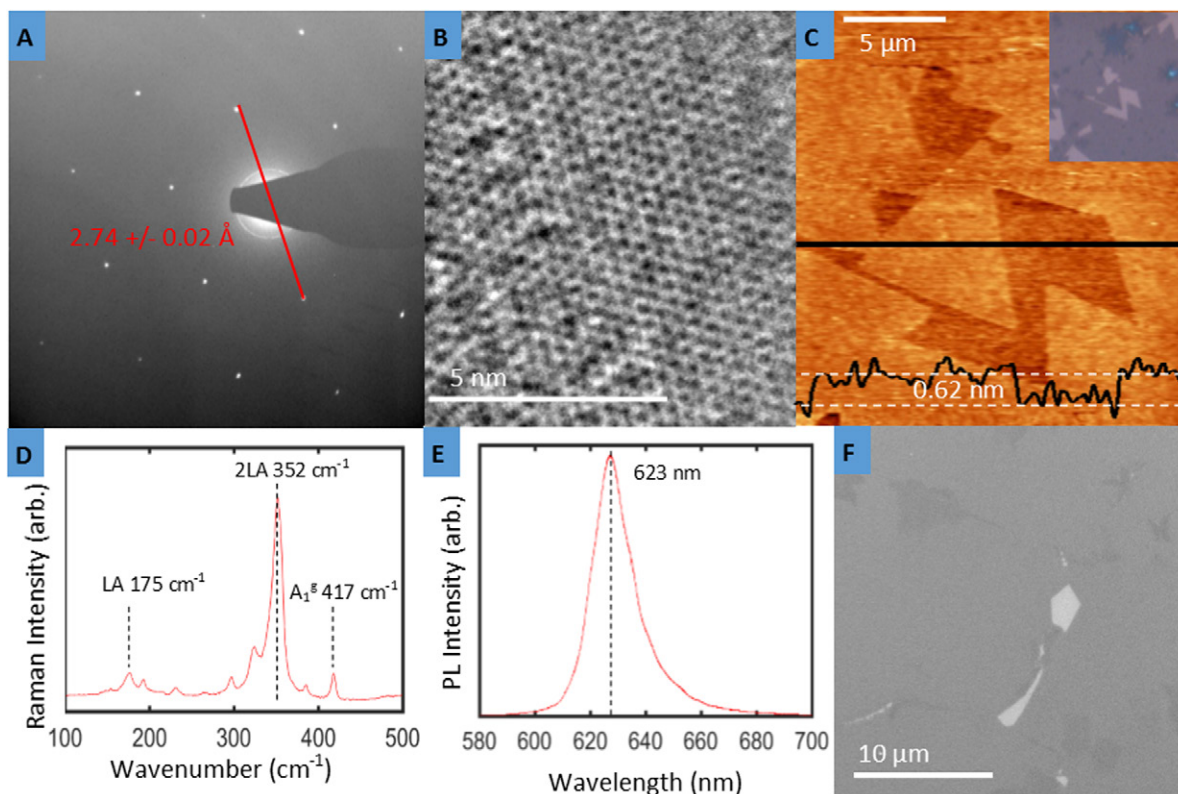


Figure 6. Characterization of oxygen-plasma treatment assisted growth. (A) SAED pattern showing well crystallized monolayer WS_2 with a lattice spacing of $2.74 \pm 0.02 \text{ \AA}$. (B) HRTEM image showing the WS_2 hexagonal lattice with $1.85 \pm 0.03 \text{ \AA}$ side length. (C) An AFM image of a void within a polycrystalline WS_2 region, shown monolayer by the 0.62 nm step height. (D) WS_2 Raman spectrum and (E) PL spectrum. The PL/Raman peak intensity ratio is 102. The strength of the PL signal implies it is a high quality monolayer sample, (F) is an SEM micrograph of a connected growth region.

not melt at the typical growth temperatures (below 900°C). In a non-reducing atmosphere WO_3 is completely stable at those temperatures. The suboxides are much more volatile than WO_3 at the growth temperatures, with volatility starting around 700°C and sharply increasing around 900°C [61]. Thus, growth of WS_2 and transport of the W source must occur by vapor phase transport of the suboxides. In the W system, both H and H_2O are known to dramatically reduce the temperature at which suboxides sublime [26], which means those two have a large effect on CVD WS_2 growth. In our experiments, H gas is required to see any growth of WS_2 at 900°C or below, and H_2O contamination actually improves growth to a point, though too much H_2O will damage grown WS_2 . Because it does not melt, in the W system the amount of WO_3 source material does not affect the resulting crystal thickness as much. With patterned WS_2 growth, 50 nm WO_3 layers were typically used which is a larger amount of material than is needed to grow monolayers. As monolayer growth results from this thick layer, the sublimation of deep W source material is blocked by the top layers, with remaining material visible on the source substrate after growth using optical microscopy. Thus the reaction is limited by time and the amount of sulfur source which makes controlling the sulfur source during WS_2 growth critical.

Figure 6 characterizes WS_2 growth using oxygen plasma pretreated substrates. Figure 6(A) is a single area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern (TEM model FEI CM 20) from

a WS_2 monolayer, grown on a plasma treated substrate and transferred to a lacey carbon grid. The sharp points in a six-fold pattern confirm the monolayer nature of the WS_2 growth and the high crystallinity. The lattice spacing is measured to be $2.74 \pm 0.02 \text{ \AA}$, in agreement with reported values [23]. Figure 6(B) is an aberration corrected HRTEM image (Jeol JEM2100F at Brookhaven National Lab) showing the hexagonal lattice of WS_2 with a hexagon side length of $1.85 \pm 0.03 \text{ \AA}$, in agreement with literature and with the expected value of 1.836 \AA from the WS_2 crystallographic file 591003.cif from the Crystallographic Open Database [62]. For HRTEM, we observed both hexagonal lattices and triangular lattices (supplementary figure S5). Both types of lattices have been reported for confirmed monolayer WS_2 (hexagons [2, 23] and triangles [21–23]). Figure 6(C) is an AFM scan of a void surrounded by polycrystalline WS_2 , with an optical image inset. The step height from the substrate to the WS_2 was 0.62 nm , averaged over many lines, supporting the conclusion that the WS_2 is monolayer and supporting our use of optical contrast to identify monolayers in many samples. Typical Raman and photoluminescence spectra from our WS_2 samples are shown in figures 6(D) and (E). Spectra were taken on a Horiba Xplora at an excitation wavelength of 532 nm and $16 \mu\text{W}$. The tallest Raman peak is the 2LA peak at 352 cm^{-1} which subsumes the E_{2g}^1 peak; the A_{1g} peak is visible at 417 cm^{-1} , which indicates the existence of WS_2 in agreement with the literature [63]. The PL spectrum was fit by a Gaussian–Lorentzian and appears at

623 nm (1.99 eV) in figure 6(E). Amongst different samples we have observed PL peak energies ranging from 621 nm to 641 nm (2.00 eV–1.94 eV) (figure S6) which agrees with the range observed by other research groups [2, 3]. Raman and PL spectra were taken in a single scan, with PL peak/Raman 2LA peak intensity ratios ranging from 80 to 150, indicating that the sample is monolayer [25]. Figure 6(F) is an SEM image of a connected growth region grown from oxygen plasma. SEM analysis reveals the existence of generally clear monolayer grain surfaces with bilayers appearing mostly at grain boundaries and more rarely over the interior of a grain. These bilayers appear at a similar density in samples grown with or without oxygen plasma (figure S7).

Taken together, the evidence suggests that the WS₂ grown on plasma treated substrates is the same quality as on non-plasma treated substrates. If the WS₂ resulting from oxygen plasma treatment had a higher defect density, the result would be seen in a decreased PL intensity and the possible appearance of the charged trion peak which is visible at room temperature [12]. Strain or substrate interactions could shift the Raman peaks, which was not seen in our samples. Possible inclusion of oxide defects into the crystal could not be detected using EDX due to the signal being obscured by the oxygen content of the SiO₂ substrate.

Conclusions

We have demonstrated that oxygen plasma pretreatment of SiO₂ substrates increases the average grain size and surface coverage for CVD growth of monolayer WS₂. The proposed growth model was consistent with the range of observations required both lowered activation energy for growth and increased lateral diffusion on the substrate. The polar surface energy increase from oxygen plasma treatment was ascribed to desorption of surface water and organics, and the formation of silanol groups. The reaction products were verified through HRTEM, SAED, Raman, AFM, and photoluminescence techniques. Through Raman and photoluminescence spectroscopy, WS₂ was found to be the same quality whether grown on untreated substrates, oxygen plasma treated substrates, or patterned substrates. Furthermore, oxygen plasma treatment of substrates was shown to improve the results of growth-patterned WS₂. Patterned growth of polycrystalline WS₂ monolayers resulted from three distinct methods: using a contact shadow mask during plasma treatment, by prepatterning the growth substrate, and by patterning the source material. An improved CVD synthesis route such as presented here, using plasma-prepared growth substrates and contact between the source and growth substrates, could spur development of WS₂ devices which rely on high quality, large area or patterned materials. Directly patterned growth of WS₂, enabled by growth substrate pretreatment, is a possible avenue towards high quality devices without contamination from transfer or patterning processes.

Methods

Growth

An MTI 1200X 1-zone furnace with a 3" diameter quartz tube was loaded in the center with 0.5–1 cm target substrates with matching size source substrates (5 nm WO₃ on 90 nm SiO₂ on 500 μm Si) facing down, in contact. A graphite crucible with 0.8 g of powdered S (Sigma-Aldrich) was placed 10.1 cm outside of the furnace region, in the quartz tube. Two Aalborg MFCs delivered Ar at 40 sccm and H₂ at 60 sccm from 700 °C while ramping until 560 °C while cooling. A Welch 8907 pump created a base pressure of 36 mTorr. The temperature was programmed to wait 5 min, ramp at 18 deg min⁻¹ to 700 °C, then ramp at 5.8 deg min⁻¹ to 900 °C, wait at 900 °C for 25 min, then turn off the heater. The furnace cooled naturally to 560 °C at which point the gases were turned off and the furnace split open for rapid cooling.

Oxygen plasma treatment

Chips were placed face up in the chamber center of a PlasmaEtch PE-50 system operating at 13.56 MHz. The chamber was pumped to 130 mTorr, flushed with O₂ for 3 s, then pumped to the tool base of 88 mTorr. O₂ flowed at 15 sccm for 20 s to stabilize before plasma ignition. After the treatment the chamber was flushed with air and pumped to 130 mTorr before venting. Plasma times/powers used were 1–6 min and 30–100 W.

Transfer

WS₂ grown on SiO₂ was coated with a thin layer of PMMA 950 A4 using a dropper, then heated at 180 °C for 5 min to drive off the solvent. The chips were floated in 30% KOH (aq); after 20–40 min the Si chip fell to the bottom leaving the PMMA + WS₂ square floating on the surface. The PMMA was cleaned in filtered DI water and blown dry with room temperature air. The PMMA + WS₂ was successfully transferred to new SiO₂ substrates and lacey carbon TEM grids by placing the square WS₂ side down and removing PMMA by annealing at 400 °C for 30 min under 200 mTorr vacuum in an MTI OTF 1200X compact furnace with a 2" quartz tube.

Characterization

Raman and PL measurements were taken with a Horiba Xplora system with an Andor iDus 420 detector. HRTEM images were taken with a Jeol JEM2100F at Brookhaven National Lab. SAED patterns were taken with an FEI CM 20 TEM in the Laboratory for Multiscale Imaging at Stevens. Roughness measurements were done using a Nanonics MV2000 AFM system with glass fiber tips and AFM data analyzed using WSxM [64]. Surface energy measurements were performed using a Ramé-Hart 250 goniometer by fitting 1–3 μl drops as circular caps and finding the contact angle, then fitting the contact angles of Toluene (purely dispersive surface tension 28.5 mJ m⁻²) and water (dispersive 21.8 and polar 51) to an

Owens–Wendt surface energy model as implemented in the Surface Energy Tool of the DropImage software. Optical images were taken with an Olympus BX41 microscope. WO₃ was electron beam evaporated from pellets (Sigma-Aldrich) using a Denton Explorer system. WO₃ was patterned for using lift-off using SPR3012 photoresist and patterned using photoplot masks using a Karl Suss MA-6 aligner. SiO₂ was patterned using a BMR Technology HiEtch ICP system using CHF₃ plasma.

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