An Ultralow Power Mixed Dimensional Heterojunction Transistor Based on the Charge Plasma pn Junction

Onejae Sul,* Hojun Seo, Eunsuk Choi, Sunjin Kim, Jinsil Gong, Jiyoung Bang, Hyoungbeen Ju, Sehoon Oh, Yeonsu Lee, Hyeonjeong Sun, Minjin Kwon, Kyungnam Kang, Jinki Hong, Eui-Hyeok Yang, Yunchul Chung, and Seung-Beck Lee*

Development of a reliable doping method for 2D materials is a key issue to adopt the materials in the future microelectronic circuits and to replace the silicon, keeping the Moore's law toward the sub-10 nm channel length. Especially hole doping is highly required, because most of the transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDC) among the 2D materials are electron-doped by sulfur vacancies in their atomic structures. Here, hole doping of a TMDC, tungsten disulfide (WS₂) using the silicon substrate as the dopant medium is demonstrated. An ultralow-power current sourcing transistor or a gated WS₂ pn diode is fabricated based on a charge plasma pn heterojunction formed between the WS₂ thin-film and heavily doped bulk silicon. An ultralow switchable output current down to 0.01 nA μ m⁻¹, an off-state current of $\approx 1 \times 10^{-14}$ A μ m⁻¹, a static power consumption range of 1 fW μ m⁻¹–1 pW μ m⁻¹, and an output current ratio of 10³ at 0.1 V supply voltage are achieved. The charge plasma heterojunction allows a stable (less than 3% variation) output current regardless of the gate voltage once it is turned on.

1. Introduction

Transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDC) are expected to be candidate materials to keep the current trend of miniaturization of microelectronics.^[1] To continue the Moore's law below 10 nm channel length and to overcome the short channel effect, the thickness of a channel material also needs to be reduced.^[2] TMDC has an advantage over bulk semiconductor materials in

O. Sul, S.-B. Lee Hanyang University Seoul 04763, Republic of Korea E-mail: ojsul@hanyang.ac.kr; sbl22@hanyang.ac.kr H. Seo, E. Choi, S. Kim, J. Gong, H. Sun, M. Kwon, S.-B. Lee Department of Electronic Engineering Hanyang University Seoul 04763, Republic of Korea J. Bang, H. Ju, S. Oh, Y. Lee, S.-B. Lee Department of Nanoscale Semiconductor Engineering Hanyang University Seoul 04763, Republic of Korea

The ORCID identification number(s) for the author(s) of this article can be found under https://doi.org/10.1002/smll.202202153.

DOI: 10.1002/smll.202202153

2202153 (1 of 9)

terms of switching performance when its thickness approaches atomic thickness.^[3] Besides of its atomic thickness, TMDCs have no dangling or broken bonds on their surfaces, which gives another advantage over silicon by suppressing scattering of the charge carriers from the surfaces.

However, TMDCs have major issues hindering its adoption in microelectronics to replace the silicon; one is the reduction of the contact resistance, and the other one is the modulation of doping. Formation of Schottky barrier between a contacting metal and a TMDC is known from the early stage of the TMDC research.^[4] Ohmic contacts have been demonstrated by several methods, such as insertion of graphene between the metal and TMDC,^[5] or use of a specific metal, like Bi.^[6] Thus there has been progress toward realizing the ohmic contact on the TMDC. The

most intensively researched TMDC materials, such as MoS_2 , WS_2 , HfS_2 , HfS_2 are electron-doped (n-doped or n-type) materials due to the sulfur vacancies,^[7] and $MoSe_2$, $MoTe_2$, WSe_2 are ambivalent.^[4] There are lots of on-going efforts to find a stable and reliable hole-doping (p-doped or p-type) method for the above materials,^[8] albeit the number of reports on the p-doping is still relatively smaller than that of the n-doping. Representatively, there are three groups of method, charge

K. Kang, E.-H. Yang Department of Mechanical Engineering Stevens Institute of Technology Hoboken, NJ 07030, USA J. Hong Department of Display and Semiconductor Physics Korea University Sejong Campus Sejong City 30019, Republic of Korea E.-H. Yang Center for Quantum Science and Engineering Stevens Institute of Technology Hoboken, NJ 07030, USA Y. Chung Department of Physics Pusan National University Busan 46241, Republic of Korea



transfer, substitution, and intercalation to achieve the p-doping. Charge transfer doping refers to a doping method in which charge transfer interaction happens between the hosting TMDC and any adjacent dopant medium including molecules.^[9] or particles.^[10] Because the dopants lie outside of the host material, the charge transfer doping avoids lattice distortion and enables high mobility transport. However, due to the pristine surface of 2D materials, charge transfer doping effects from adsorbates are usually unstable. The second doping method is substitution. Cation elements (metal atoms) can be replaced by elements such as niobium,^[11] to achieve p-type doping during its growth. Anion atoms (chalcogen atoms) can be replaced by phosphorus.^[12] A patternable doping can be achieved by exposure to the plasma. However, lattice distortion or lattice defects lead to performance degradation. Intercalation method uses the van der Waals nature of the 2D materials. Cu,^[13] can be intercalated between layers of SnS₂. The limitation of this technique is the relatively long intercalation time and irrelevance to monolaver materials.

In this article, we report a new charge transfer doping method using a heavily hole-doped silicon substrate as a dopant medium. Based on the method, we could convert a segment of an n-type 2D material into p-type, and fabricated an ultralow power switching device containing a pn junction. Our device can be operated at a 0.1 V supply voltage with 10 pA μ m⁻¹ output current and 1 pW μ m⁻¹ static power consumption. The leakage current was reduced down to 0.5 fA μ m⁻¹, and the magnitude of the forward current could be controlled by changing the supply voltage from 10⁻¹¹ to 10⁻⁸ A μ m⁻¹. A gate voltage could turn on the forward current of the pn junction, and once the gate voltage passed a threshold voltage, the forward current was stable down to 3% of the current magnitude.

2. Device Fabrication

The charge plasma junction refers to a junction between two materials with significantly different carrier concentrations and work functions (φ) like a metal-semiconductor junction.^[14–18] When a metal with a large work function ($\varphi_{\text{Metal}} > \chi_{\text{Si}} + E_{\text{G,Si}}/2$) forms a junction with intrinsic silicon (**Figure 1**a), electrons in the silicon conduction band (CB) diffuse into the metal. The excess holes left in Si, referred to as "charge plasma," raise the silicon band at the junction



Figure 1. The concept of charge plasma and a device structure with band diagrams. a) Energy bands of intrinsic Si and a metal with large work function before making a junction. The E_{Vacr} , χ , E_{C} , E_{G} , E_{F} , and E_{V} in the figure imply the vacuum level, electron affinity, conduction band minimum, bandgap energy, Fermi level, and valence band maximum, respectively. b) Schematic view of a Schottky junction after making a heterojunction from a). The blue circles describe holes. c) Energy bands of WS₂ and p⁺⁺-silicon before making a junction. d) Schematic diagram of the Schottky junction after making a heterojunction from c). e) Schematic perspective and cross-sectional view of the device, and an optical image before the gate stack formation. The green dashed arrow between A and B indicates the electron flow path and signifies drawing direction of the band diagram shown in f). f) Band diagram across the carrier flow path between A and B indicated in e). Note that the diagram is not to scale, and its drawing direction does not align just to a single geometrical direction in the real device, but to multiple directions following the current. Note that the band of WS₂ on Si (pink region) follows along the vertical direction inside the WS₂ in the figure e) (see Text S4 and Figure S5 for detailed information, Supporting Information). The pinned junction by the charge plasma is in the green box (see explanation in the main paragraph) and is identical to the magnified view in d).



interface (Figure 1b). If the Si is in bulk form, the energy band rise diminishes gradually away from the interface, recovering its intrinsic nature. If the Si is thin (< 15 nm), the entire Si film remains p-type.^[14-16] When a metal with a small work function $(\varphi_{\text{Metal}} < \chi_{\text{Si}} + E_{\text{G,Si}}/2)$ forms a junction with Si, the thin Si film becomes n-type.^[14–17] Thus, the choice of metal work function determines the doping type of the Si thin-film. There are three conditions responsible for charge plasma,^[14-17]: 1) a large difference in mobile charge densities (ratio > 50), 2) a large difference in Fermi levels (> 0.5 eV) in the pairing materials, and 3) a small thickness (< 20 nm) of the less-doped material. The charge plasma phenomenon has been utilized as a technique for doping thin semiconductor film by metals without impurity implantation in simulated or fabricated electronic devices.[14-17] The charge plasma junction is another kind of semiconductor p-n junction, but it is different in several aspects. First, the doping type of the weakly doped semiconductor switches following the heavily doped one. Second, there is no depletion zone at the interface after the junction formation. Finally, doping inversion requires a thin film of the weakly doped semiconductor and a bulk of the heavily doped semiconductor.

Charge plasma was also formed in a pair of thin-film multilayer n-WS₂ and heavily doped bulk Si (p⁺⁺-Si) as it satisfied the conditions mentioned above in terms of the charge density difference ($\approx 10^{18}$ cm⁻³ in WS₂,^[19] and $\approx 5 \times 10^{19}$ cm⁻³ in p⁺⁺-silicon^[20]) and the Fermi level difference (≈ 1.4 eV). The multilayer WS₂ is known to have an electron affinity, χ_{WS2} of ≈ 3.9 eV,^[21,22] a Fermi level ≈ 0.2 eV below the CB minimum,^[23] and the p⁺⁺-Si has a Fermi level ≈ 0.1 eV below the valence band (VB) maximum,^[24] (Figure 1c). If the thickness of WS₂ is thin enough (typically less than 20 nm by our choice), then the entire n-WS₂ contacting the p⁺⁺ Si will be converted into p-WS₂ in the same manner as a Si/metal junction (Figure 1d). Figure 1e shows a fabricated device where a thin WS₂ flake (≈5.6 nm, confirmed by atomic force microscopy, AFM) was used. The WS2 flake was transferred across an edge of a 30 nm thick SiO₂ window on the p++-Si substrate via a dry transfer method (see Text S1 (i.e., Text S1, Supporting Information) and Figure S1 (i.e., Figure S1, Supporting Information) for details about the dry transfer and AFM of the WS₂ flake.), followed by Ni/Au contact electrode deposition (see Text S2 for an explanation for why we ignored the effect of the metal contact on our device characteristics, Supporting Information). The flake lies across an oxide step, having a curvature due to the oxide edge. In this report, we assume that the curvature does not affect the electronic band structure of the WS₂. Figure 1f illustrates the energy band diagram along the current path (the green dashed arrow between A and B in Figure 1e). At the WS₂/Si heterojunction, WS₂ contacting Si converts to p-type due to the charge plasma. On the other hand, the WS₂ located on the oxide keeps its natural n-type doping state. Thus, a p-n homojunction is created inside WS₂ across the oxide window.

3. Results and Discussion

Figure 2a shows the current – supply voltage $(I-V_S)$ characteristics of the device shown in Figure 1e (black curve). In the measurements throughout this article, p⁺⁺-Si was grounded (GND) and $V_S > 0$ V in the text signifies the forward bias and



Figure 2. Channel band structure by the charge plasma heterojunction and comparison with a 2D/2D junction. a) Output characteristics under forward bias (Si or WSe₂ is grounded) from the two devices, $WS_2/p^{++}Si$ and WS_2/WSe_2 junction devices. b) A band diagram of the $WS_2/p^{++}Si$ when V_S close to 0 V, and c) when $V_S > 0$ V. d–f) Schematic band diagrams of WS_2/WSe_2 heterojunction under increasing V_S explaining the NDR. For above diagrams, the electron doping density of WS_2 is assumed to be 10^{18} cm⁻³, the hole doping density of p^{++} Si to be 5×10^{19} cm⁻³, and the hole doping density of WSe2 to be 10^{18} cm⁻³.

 $V_{\rm S}$ < 0 V is the reverse bias (i.e., the opposite polarity to the actually applied bias to the metal contacting WS_2), while V_S in the graphs implies the amplitude of the potential energy. The gate potential, $V_{\rm G}$ has the same polarity with the actually applied bias both in the text and in the graphs. A monotonous increase in I was observed with increasing Vs because the p-WS₂ energy band at the heterojunction was pinned at the Si energy band regardless of V_s (i.e., the energy band alignment modulation dependence on $V_{\rm S}$ is negligible). The strength of the dipole electric field across the interface due to the charge plasma would be much higher than the local electric field applied at the junction by the metal contact. The pinned p-WS₂ acts as a barrier limiting the thermal or tunneling current (Figure 2b). When Vs > 0 (Figure 2c), the electrons flow over the WS₂ homojunction and WS₂/Si heterojunction entering the CB of p-WS₂ by thermal injection. This thermal process explains the monotonous increasing current observed in Figure 2a. The pinned junction is unique in the WS₂/p⁺⁺-Si ($\approx 5 \times 10^{19}$ cm⁻³) charge plasma junction because pinning was not observed in a less hole-doped Si ($\approx 10^{18}$ cm⁻³),^[25] junction. We claim that these two phenomena (i.e., the doping inversion of a TMDC by the charge plasma and observation of the pinned junction effect by a highly asymmetrically doped p-n semiconductors junction) are reported experimentally for the first time.

The characteristics of the black curve in Figure 2a are different from the p-n heterojunction between TMDCs, where the negative differential resistance (NDR),^[26,27] or NDR-like,^[28,29] features were observed. The NDR feature arises during the transition of transport phenomena between the tunneling and the thermal injection across the junction, depending on the supply bias. To make an experimental comparison, we prepared an n-type WS₂/p-type WSe₂ (≈10¹⁸ cm⁻³),^[30] junction device, replacing the p++-Si with a WSe2 thin flake (Text S3, Supporting Information). The red curve in Figure 2a acquired from the device clearly shows the NDR, demonstrating the unpinned p-n junction described in Figure 2d-f. The unpinned junction originates from the lack of the charge plasma by the lightly doped WSe2 and the small difference in Fermi levels ($\approx 0.15 \text{ eV}$).^[31] Comparing the curves in Figure 2a, we concluded that the absence of NDR and the pinning of the $WS_2/p^{++}-Si$ junction originated from the charge plasma.

To confirm the observation, we simulated and verified the appearance of the charge plasma and the p–n homojunction in WS₂ across the p⁺⁺-Si/SiO₂ edge (see Text S4 for details on the simulation tool, material properties used in the simulation, and the simulation results, Supporting Information). In the simulation, Si doping concentration strongly correlates to the WS₂ doping inversion (see Figure S6 for the effects from doping concentration difference and from material difference, Supporting Information). Due to the doping inversion, a built-in potential (ϕ_{bi}) of ~1.07 eV is generated across the homojunction (Figure 2b). The n-WS₂/p-WS₂ homojunction forms a step-shaped energy bandstructure along the conduction path inside the WS₂ bandgap to ~2.5 eV from its intrinsic bandgap (~1.4 eV),^[21] emulating a larger bandgap material.

Figure 3a shows a schematic of the same device with a gate stack. Using a gate configuration, WS_2 channel under the gate could be divided into two separate regions: a region on the

oxide (region I), and a region on the p++-Si (region II). Figure 3b shows the output characteristics of the device under gate voltage $(V_{\rm G})$ sweep, and Figure 3c,d displays the energy band diagrams depending on the relative magnitude of V_G. We characterized the switching operation of the device with V_S from 0.1 to 4.6 V and $V_{\rm G}$ sweep from -5 to 5 V (for the full data up to $V_{\rm S}$ = 7.1 V with hysteresis, see Text S5, Supporting Information). The cause of the hysteresis is the gate oxide because if the channel was covered by hexagonal boron nitride (hBN) as a gate oxide the hysteresis was removed (see Figure S14 for hBN effect, Supporting Information). The leakage current through the gate dielectric Al₂O₃ was measured simultaneously and its magnitude was kept at the noise level (Figure S7b, Supporting Information), confirming the switching operation was by the $V_{\rm C}$. The switching mechanism can be explained by the gate field effect on regions I and II. For example, when the Vs was 1.6 V and the $V_{\rm G}$ was -2 V, the device was off. In this configuration, the charge carrier flow is blocked by the bandgaps of region I and II (Figure 3c and location A in Figure 3b). When $V_{\rm G}$ was -1 V, the device started to turn on. When $V_{\rm G}$ was increased to 1 V, the device was fully on (Figure 3d and location B in Figure 3b) with a subthreshold swing of 150 mV per decade. Both CB minima of regions I and II are below the quasi Fermi level due to the gate field effect, so the charge carriers reach the CB of Si by overcoming the heterojunction. Once the energy bands of regions I and II are below the quasi Fermi level, V_G does not affect the thermal injection across the pn homojunction anymore. This explains the abrupt saturation and the definite plateauing of the on-current, suggesting a possible application as a current regulator. Figure 3e shows variations of the on-currents of Figure 3b for Vs = 0.1 and 4.6 V only on a linear scale. For the on-currents, the variation (standard deviation divided by an average value of the on-currents of the device in percent) is mostly less than 3% (6% at vs = 0.1 V) (Figure 3f). This value is comparable to a 7% variation of output current reported in a gated-Schottky barrier transistor, which also shows plateauing output current less than a microampere.[32] Although it is not possible to directly compare our device with other sub-microampere current reference circuits, several articles report 8-26% variation of output current due to combined effects from variations in temperature, fabrication process, and supply voltage.^[33] Thus, further research is required considering those parameters for a fair comparison of the stability of the output current. The variation of the output current at Vs = 0.1 V in Figure 3e can be understood as the thermal energy of the electrons. Multiplication of the magnitude of the current variation with the output resistance of the device gives the energy of 0.03 eV, which is similar to the thermal energy of electrons at room temperature.

The variation of the on-current in Figure 3b with respect to $V_{\rm S}$ could be understood as charge transport across the heterojunction. The WS₂/p⁺⁺-Si junction, while being a junction of semiconductors only, could be approximated as a metal-semiconductor Schottky barrier^[34] (Figure 4a, inset). To account for the on current dependence on the $V_{\rm S}$ in the transconductance measurement, the current passing the pn homojunction and the Schottky heterojunction thermally and arriving at the CB of Si, could be described by a following equation^[35]

$$I(V_{\rm G}, V_{\rm S}) = I_0 \left(e^{V_{\rm G}^*/(sV_{\rm T})} - 1 \right) e^{-\Phi_{\rm B}/V_{\rm T}} \left(e^{(E_{\rm Fn} - E_{\rm F,SI})/V_{\rm T}} - 1 \right)$$
(1)



www.small-journal.com



Figure 3. Switching operation for stable output currents. a) Cross-sectional view of the complete device including the gate stack and its band diagram in equilibrium. The band is identical with Figure 1f, but with gate coverage and region designations. b) Output characteristics under forward biases. The best subthreshold swing is 150 mV per decade. The "W" in the y-axis implies the width of the WS₂ flake, 15 μ m. c,d) Bands explaining the switching operation of the device depending on the gate bias. Depending on the magnitude of the V_G, the bandgaps in regions I and II move up or down to allow or to prohibit current flow across the heterojunction. The dashed band in d) indicates the location of the band in c). The red arrow in c) indicates the quasi-Fermi level, E_{Fn} , of region I in WS₂. e) Output current plots from the same datasets of b) in a linear scale for $V_S = 0.1$ V (black) and $V_S = 4.6$ V (red). f) On-current deviations ($\sigma(I)/I$) for various V_S values from 0.1 to 4.6 V.

where I_0 is the off-current, V_G^* is the gate voltage increase required to raise the current from noise to the saturation level, s is a gate field reduction factor (see Text S6 for an explanation of V_{G}^{*} and s, Supporting Information), V_{T} is the thermal voltage, $\Phi_{\rm B}$ is the Schottky barrier height, and $E_{\rm Fn}$ is the quasi-Fermi level in the region II against the Fermi level in the silicon. Equation (1) is the multiplication of the Shockley diode equation and the Schottky diode equation, where $V_{\rm S}$ -IR in the original Shockley diode equation is replace by $V_{\rm G}$ *, because in the transconductance measurement, $V_{\rm S}$ is fixed and $V_{\rm G}$ has the role of $V_{\rm S}$ in a diode. The $\Phi_{\rm B}$ and $E_{\rm Fn}$ are functions of $V_{\rm S}$, but they are not functions of $V_{\rm G}$. When $V_{\rm S}$ rise, both $\Phi_{\rm B}$ and $E_{\rm Fn}$ will rise accordingly. Because we did not know their exact numerical relationships, we assumed that Φ_B did not vary significantly compared to $E_{\rm Fn}$. Thus, we could calculate the shift of $E_{\rm Fn}$ against the Fermi level of Si, $E_{\rm F,Si}$, at the saturated current. Figure 4a shows the calculated $E_{\rm Fn} - E_{\rm F,Si}$ (blue triangles) for various $V_{\rm S}$. Using this information, we could calculate $\Phi_{\rm B}$. The red squares in the same figure confirm that Φ_{B} does not vary significantly compared to $E_{\rm Fn}$. From the variations of $E_{\rm Fn}$ and $\Phi_{\rm B}$ under $V_{\rm S}$, we can understand the characteristics of the on-current in Figure 3b. Namely, the rise of $E_{\rm Fn}$ allows more electrons to overcome the Schottky barrier, but the increase in $E_{\rm Fn}$ is less significant at higher $V_{\rm S}$. The gate threshold voltage $V_{\rm g,th}$ depends on $V_{\rm S}$ (Figure 3b). This dependency can be

explained as the variation of quasi-Fermi level, $E_{\rm Fn}$ in the region I due to $V_{\rm S}$. When $V_{\rm S}$ increases, for example, from 1.6 to 2.6 V, $E_{\rm Fn}$ in region I (red arrow in Figure 3c) will rise. Then, the $V_{\rm g,th}$ required for electrons to overcome the homojunction barrier decreases, shifting from -0.9 to -2 V. The $V_{\rm g,th}$ dependency on $V_{\rm S}$ results in various controllable transfer characteristics and on-current modulation.

To verify the energy band model in Figure 3 from a different perspective, we swept the $V_{\rm S}$ under various $V_{\rm G}$. Figure 4b shows the output characteristics of the device under negative $V_{\rm G}$, and Figure 4c–e display the energy bands depending on the magnitude of $V_{\rm S}.$ When $V_{\rm S} \leq 0$ and $V_{\rm G} = -3$ V (location C in Figure 4b), there was no current flow since the flow of charge carriers is blocked by the energy bandgaps of regions I and II in the WS₂ (Figure 4c). When a small positive $V_{\rm S}$ (< 1 V) was applied under $V_{\rm G} = -3$ V, such as at location D in Figure 4b, the current flow was still not observed (Figure 4d). At the $V_{\rm S}$, the $E_{\rm Fn}$ in region I is not high enough to overcome the homojunction barrier. However, when $V_S > 1 \text{ V}$ applied (location E in Figure 4b), the device was on. The raised $V_{\rm S}$ can increase the $E_{\rm Fn}$ and carrier concentration in region I, and the height of the homojunction barrier is reduced, so that carriers can be injected into CB of region II and Si (Figure 4e). The supply voltage threshold $V_{s,th}$ depends on V_G . For example, when V_G was -5 V, the energy bands I and II would be raised beyond



www.small-journal.com



Figure 4. Proof of band structure by V_s -I scans and a monolayer device. a) Variation of the quasi-Fermi level, E_{Fn} , and Schottky barrier height, Φ_g , depending on the supply bias. Inset: Schematic diagram explaining the Schottky junction at the hetero interface. b) Supply voltage sweep results with various gate biases. c) Band diagram explaining the off-state observed in b when $V_s < 0$. d) Band diagram when $0 V < V_s < 1 V$ and $V_G = -3 V$. e) Band diagram explaining on-state when $1 V < V_s$ and $V_G = -3 V$. f) Gate sweep results from an identical device based-on a monolayer WS₂ (refer to Text S12 for details, Supporting Information). The best subthreshold swing is 300 mV dec⁻¹.

their levels at $V_{\rm G} = -3$ V. Then, the relatively smaller $E_{\rm Fn}$ in region I can make the charge carrier transport over the homojunction more difficult, thus requiring a larger $V_{\rm s,th}$ like ≈ 2.5 V. In contrast, if $V_{\rm G}$ were -1 or 0 V, lowered regions I and II could make the carrier transport easier, thus requiring a smaller $V_{\rm s,th}$

Our device has a pn homojunction and a Schottky junction simultaneously along the channel. Thus the diode mechanism of the on current as observed in Figure 4b needs to be identified for clear understanding. Either of the diffusion model across the pn junction or the thermionic emission across the Schottky junction can explain the on current in Figure 4b. To clarify this issue, we did low temperature measurements (Figure 5a,b). If thermionic emission model is right, the offstate current is $I_0 = AA^{**}T^2 \exp(-q\phi/kT)$, where A is the diode area, A^{**} is the Richardson constant, T is the absolute temperature, q is the unit charge, φ is the Schottky barrier height, and k is the Boltzmann constant. When the Richardson plot is plotted, where $Ln(I_0/T^2AA^{**})$ lies along vertical axis, and 1/T in horizontal axis, the barrier height can be obtained by fitting the data points with a strait negative slope as $-q\phi/k$. In Figure 5a, there are two $I-V_S$ graphs when $V_G = 0$ V at 77 and 300 K. Because the off current of 77 K measurement was too small to be detected by our measurement (below the minimum detectable current level, a few 10^{-13} A μ m⁻¹), we cannot make the Richardson's plot. Instead, we can use measurements when $V_{\rm G}$ = 2 V in Figure 5b. If the magnitudes of the two off currents at $V_s = -8$ V in the 77 and 300 K graphs are inserted in the offcurrent equation, the value, $Ln(I_0/T^2AA^{**})$ gives -14.5 at 1/77 K⁻¹, and -18 at 1/300 K⁻¹, resulting in a positive slope. That is a negative barrier height and this calculation results rejects the thermionic explanation on the observations in Figure 5a,b. Thus,

the diffusion correctly explains the exponential current increase of the plots. According to the diffusion theory,^[36] the current follows the Shockley equation, $I = I_0(\exp(qV/kT) - 1)$. But the low temperature graph in Figure 5a suggests that there is an additional term, $\varphi_{\rm bi} \approx 1 \text{ eV}$ such that $I = I_0(\exp(q(V_{\rm S} - \phi_{\rm bi})/kT) - 1)$. We believe that this φ_{bi} is the activation energy, because the quasi-Fermi level in the region I needs to raise above the builtin potential across the pn homojunction, depicted as the double headed black arrow in Figure 4d, to turn on the current. Also this value agrees our simulation result on the pn homojunction barrier height (\approx 1.07 eV). Additionally, the barrier height can be measured in another method, capacitance-voltage (CV) measurement. If a CV measurement under a reverse bias is plotted as $1/C^2$ versus V_s , the x-intercept gives the value. Figure 5c shows the measurement, and the x-intercept was \approx 1.5 eV, which was larger than the expected value of $\varphi_{\rm bi} \approx 1$ eV. We interpret that this value can be the sum of the $\phi_{\rm bi}$ across the pn homojunction and the Schottky barrier height (≈0. 35 eV) at the heterojunction. The small remaining deviation (≈0.15 eV) might came from additional parasitic capacitances in the device (such as capacitance between the gate electrode and the channel). In conclusion on the diode mechanism, the diffusion process across the pn junction correctly describes the I-V_S relationships in our device.

We characterized the static power consumption of the device. According to the results shown in Figure 3b, when V_S is 1.1 V, the static or off-state power consumption is about 10^{-14} W μ m⁻¹. These values are comparable to the static power consumption of an oxide semiconductor device operating in the deep sub-threshold regime.^[37] Furthermore, when V_S was reduced to 0.1 V, the power consumption was further decreased to about





Figure 5. Proof of thermal switching mechanism by low temperature measurements and *C*–*V* measurement. a, Supply voltage sweep when $V_G = 0$ V at two different temperatures, 77 and 300 K. b) Supply voltage sweep when $V_G = 2$ V at the same temperatures. c) Capacitance–voltage measurement of the device, when a reverse bias ($V_S < 0$) was applied to the metal contact and $V_G = 0$ V. f) Interpretation of the measurement in c) as the summation of the barriers of pn homojunction and the Schottky junction.

 10^{-15} W μm^{-1} . These ultralow quiescent power characteristics likely result from the effectively amplified (≈ 2.5 eV) WS₂ bandgap. When the device is off, the charge carriers are not blocked just by the nominal WS₂ bandgap but by an effectively amplified bandgap (≈ 2.5 eV) that is much larger than 1.4 eV. Compared to the conventional substrate-gated field-effect transistors (FETs) based on a WS₂ thin-film, the off-currents of the device are at least 10 times smaller (Figure S9, Supporting Information), even though the measurement of the off-currents is limited due to our measurement limit (10^{-13} – 10^{-14} A μm^{-1}). This novel ultralow current switching mechanism using the pseudoamplified energy band structure as a switch, may provide an alternate way to demonstrate ultralow-power current sourcing transistors.

We explored the device as an amplifier (Text S7, Supporting Information). In the investigation, we obtained an intrinsic gain and cut-off frequency of 70 V V⁻¹ and 170 kHz at $V_{\rm S}$ = 7.1 V. The parameters indicate that our device is better than Si metal-oxide-semiconductor field effect transistor(MOSFET) in terms of intrinsic gain. For assessing our device as a diode, we used the Shockley diode equation to extract the diode ideality factor, *n*, and we obtained a minimum of 1.5, which suggests a similar rectification performance (mostly in the range of 1–2) compared to other mechanically exfoliated TMDC materials based diodes (Text S8, Supporting Information).^[38–44] The small current dips (dashed circle) before turning on the current at $V_{\rm G}$ = –5, –3, and –1 V in Figure 4b may have originated from the potential well existing at the heterojunction (Text S9, Supporting Information).

The measurements from a chemical vapor deposition (CVD)grown monolayer WS₂/p⁺⁺-Si device shown in Figure 4f suggest an identical switching mechanism (Text S10, Supporting Information). However, the device exhibits normally-on characteristics with a lower on-off current ratio than multilayer WS_2/p^{++} -Si. We attribute the normally-on characteristic to the smaller pn homojunction barrier height inside the monolayer WS₂. A smaller homojunction barrier means weaker charge plasma, and weaker charge plasma may originate from a smaller Fermi level difference between the monolayer WS2 and Si. The location of the Fermi level in a CVD-grown few-layer WS_2 was reported at 0.8 eV,^[45] below the CB minimum, which implies less n-doping in the CVD-grown WS2 than the exfoliated one. Therefore, a CVD-grown monolayer WS_2 results in a smaller $V_{g,th}$. The lower on-off current ratio cannot be explained solely by monolayer thickness because the difference in the on-current at the same $V_{\rm S}$ is larger than the thickness ratio between the monolayer and multilayer flake ($\approx 0.7-0.8$ vs ≈ 5.6 nm). A possible explanation is based again on the smaller n-doping state of the CVD-grown monolayer WS₂. In that case, the rise of $E_{\rm Fn}$ with increasing $V_{\rm S}$ is significantly smaller than the multilayer WS_2 , resulting in a much smaller on-current. The subthreshold swing of the device is much larger (300 mV per decade) than the one based on the exfoliated material (150 mV per decade). This can be explained by a much larger number of charge traps existing at the surfaces of the material, because the CVD-grown film has a relatively larger number of defect sites than exfoliated ones and the defect sites act as charge traps.^[46] Thus, the electrostatic field

www.small-journal.com

by the traps will screen the field from the gate potential. Finally, the energy band structure and the operation principle were verified from other devices including another WS_2 devices with difference thickness (8.5 and 2.6 nm) and MoS_2 or SnS_2 -based devices (Text S11, Supporting Information). From this consideration, we can conclude that the operation principle of the WS_2 , MoS_2 , and SnS_2 -based devices are analogous to the WS_2 -based device in Figure 1.

4. Conclusion

ADVANCED SCIENCE NEWS _____

In conclusion, a novel way to hole dope a 2D material and to generate an ultralow-power steady current-sourcing transistor has been proposed and verified. The performance has been achieved through the charge plasma pn heterojunction, which simply made out of a contact between the TMDC material and silicon. As a result, an ultralow stable current of 0.01 nA μ m⁻¹ with a supply voltage 0.1 V was achieved, enabling ultralow-power reference current applications. The new p-doping method reported in this article is the first experimental demonstration on the doping conversion into p-type of sub-10 nm TMDC material by electrostatic doping.^[47] and will be useful for development of diverse novel electronic devices based on TMDC materials-based pn or bipolar junctions.

5. Experimental Section

Device Fabrication and Electrical Measurement: A 525 µm thick heavily p-type (100)-oriented Si (0.001 Ω cm, boron doping concentration of $\approx 10^{20}$ cm⁻³) with dry oxidation of 30 nm thick silicon dioxide wafer was used to make the charge plasma heterojunction. We exposed the silicon surface by dry etching of the oxide layer using $CF_4:O_2 = 6:1$ mixing gas with an RF power of 30 W at 5 mTorr. A 70 \times 70 μ m² area of the oxide was etched, and a flake of WS₂ was transferred across the edge of the silicon window through the dry transfer method (Text S1, Supporting Information). For electrical contact to the silicon, a corner of the wafer was scratched to expose the silicon surface, and a probe tip was contacted at the corner. Both the deposited metal electrode and the wafer corner served either as a source or a drain depending on the polarity of the potential. All the junction areas, including the electrode, were covered by a 30 nm thick Al_2O_3 grown by atomic layer deposition at 100 °C. A gate electrode was formed covering the flake across the oxide edge using thermal evaporation of 10/70 nm thick Ni/Au. Finally, a 180 \times 180 μ m² area of Al₂O₃ was etched to make electrical contact with the metal electrode in contact with WS₂. After device fabrication was complete, a B1500a semiconductor device analyzer (Keysight) was used to obtain output curves and transfer curves at room temperature in a dark-box probe station.

Monolayer WS_2 Film Growth and Device Fabrication: The sample consisted of a tungsten source carrier chip (5 nm WO₃ on 90 nm SiO₂ on Si) and bare SiO₂/Si substrate (90 nm thick SiO₂, WRS materials). Tungsten oxide (WO₃, 99.99%, Kurt J. Lesker) was utilized as the tungsten source, deposited on SiO₂ via electron beam evaporation. The tungsten source chip was covered, in face-to-face contact, by a bare SiO₂/Si substrate as the growth substrate. The sample was loaded into the center of a 3 in diameter and 1 m long quartz tube (MTI Corp.), and a ceramic boat with 0.8 g of sulfur powder (99.98%, Sigma-Aldrich) was located upstream in the quartz tube. The location of the ceramic boat containing the sulfur powder was calculated so that the sulfur melted at 780 °C. The furnace was an MTI 1200×1-zone furnace. After loading, the ambient gas of the tube was purged out via a mechanical pump to the base pressure of 400 mTorr. The furnace was heated to 700 °C at a 20 °C min⁻¹ ramping rate and then to 900 °C at 5 °C min⁻¹.

60 sccm of Ar gas (5.0 UH purity, Praxair) was introduced at 150 °C (increasing temperature) to reduce moisture inside of the tube and was discontinued at 600 °C (decreasing temperature). Hydrogen (40 sccm, 5.0 UH purity, Praxair) gas was supplied to improve WO₃ reduction from 700 °C (increasing temperature) to 600 °C (decreasing temperature). The growth pressure was 7 Torr. After 25 min at 900 °C, the furnace was cooled down to room temperature.

Statistical Analysis: For the calculation of the values, $\sigma(I)$ and \overline{I} in the graph of Figure 3f, following methods are used. 1) Preprocessing of data—the current values in Figure 3e were divided by the width of the WS₂ flake to normalize the output current value per channel width. 2) Data presentation— $\sigma(I)$ is the standard deviation of the normalized output current, I, and \overline{I} is the mean value of the output current. 3) Sample size (n) of each statistical values—For the calculations of $\sigma(I)$ and \overline{I} , 82 data from $V_S = 0.1$ V graph and 203 data from $V_S = 4.6$ V graph were used. Only the turned-on output currents were used in those graphs. 4) Statistical methods used to assess significant differences with sufficient details— $\sigma(I)$ and \overline{I} are simply for reporting of the values, not for accessing of a hypothesis or a theoretical claim. 5) Software used for statistical analysis—OriginPro 2016.

Supporting Information

Supporting Information is available from the Wiley Online Library or from the author.

Acknowledgements

O.S. and H.S. contributed equally to this work. This research was supported by several grants. 1) National Research Foundation of Korea with Grant No.: 2016R1D1A1B03934731. 2) National Research Foundation of Korea with Grant No.: 2019R111A1A01057620. 3) National Research Foundation of Korea with Grant No.: 2012R1A6A1029029. 4) National Research Foundation of Korea with Grant No.: 2014M3A7B4049369. 5) BK 21 FOUR (Brain Korea 21 Fostering Outstanding Universities for Research) program. The authors thank the Institute of Nano Science and Technology (INST) of Hanyang university for their support on this research.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Data Availability Statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Keywords

diodes, doping, heterojunctions, homojunctions, silicon, transistors, transition metal dichalcogenides

Received: April 6, 2022 Revised: June 5, 2022 Published online:

[1] International Roadmap For Devices and Systems, *Beyond CMOS*, IEEE, Piscataway, NJ **2020**.

[2] M. Chhowalla, D. Jena, H. Zhang, Nat. Rev. Mater. 2016, 1, 16052.

ADVANCED SCIENCE NEWS

www.advancedsciencenews.com



- [3] W. Cao, J. K. Jiang, X. J. Xie, A. Pal, J. H. Chu, J. H. Kang, K. Banerjee, IEEE Trans. Electron Devices 2018, 65, 4109.
- [4] D. S. Schulman, A. J. Arnold, S. Das, Chem. Soc. Rev. 2018, 47, 3037.
- [5] Y. Liu, J. Guo, Y. C. Wu, E. B. Zhu, N. O. Weiss, Q. Y. He, H. Wu, H. C. Cheng, Y. Xu, I. Shakir, Y. Huang, X. Duan, *Nano Lett.* **2016**, 16, 6337.
- [6] P. C. Shen, C. Su, Y. X. Lin, A. S. Chou, C. C. Cheng, J. H. Park, M. H. Chiu, A. Y. Lu, H. L. Tang, M. M. Tavakoli, G. Pitner, X. Ji, Z. Y. Cai, N. N. Mao, J. T. Wang, V. C. Tung, J. Li, J. Bokor, A. Zettl, C. I. Wu, T. Palacios, L. J. Li, J. Kong, *Nature* **2021**, *593*, 211.
- [7] S. S. Chee, C. Oh, M. Son, G. C. Son, H. Jang, T. J. Yoo, S. Lee, W. Lee, J. Y. Hwang, H. Choi, B. H. Lee, M. H. Ham, *Nanoscale* 2017, *9*, 9333.
- [8] P. Luo, F. W. Zhuge, Q. F. Zhang, Y. Q. Chen, L. Lv, Y. Huang, H. Q. Li, T. Y. Zhai, *Nanoscale Horiz.* **2019**, *4*, 26.
- [9] Y. M. Chang, S. H. Yang, C. Y. Lin, C. H. Chen, C. H. Lien, W. B. Jian, K. Ueno, Y. W. Suen, K. Tsukagoshi, Y. F. Lin, *Adv. Mater.* **2018**, *30*, 1706995.
- [10] M. S. Choi, D. Qu, D. Lee, X. Liu, K. Watanabe, T. Taniguchi, W. J. Yoo, ACS Nano 2014, 8, 9332.
- [11] J. Suh, T. E. Park, D. Y. Lin, D. Y. Fu, J. Park, H. J. Jung, Y. B. Chen, C. Ko, C. Jang, Y. H. Sun, R. Sinclair, J. Chang, S. Tongay, J. Q. Wu, *Nano Lett.* **2014**, *14*, 6976.
- [12] A. Nipane, D. Karmakar, N. Kaushik, S. Karande, S. Lodha, ACS Nano 2016, 10, 2128.
- [13] Y. J. Gong, H. T. Yuan, C. L. Wu, P. Z. Tang, S. Z. Yang, A. K. Yang, G. D. Li, B. F. Liu, J. van de Groep, M. L. Brongersma, M. F. Chisholm, S. C. Zhang, W. Zhou, Y. Cui, *Nat. Nanotechnol.* 2018, 13, 294.
- [14] B. Rajasekharan, C. Salm, R. J. E. Hueting, T. Hoang, J. Schmitz In, Dimensional Scaling Effects on Transport Properties of Ultrathin Body p-i-n Diodes, 2008 9th International Conference on Ultimate Integration of Silicon, 12–14 March 2008, IEEE, Piscataway, NJ 2008, p. 195.
- [15] R. J. E. Hueting, B. Rajasekharan, C. Salm, J. Schmitz, IEEE Electron Device Lett. 2008, 29, 1367.
- [16] M. J. Kumar, S. Janardhanan, IEEE Trans. Electron Devices 2013, 60, 3285.
- [17] C. Sahu, J. Singh, IEEE Electron Device Lett. 2014, 35, 411.
- [18] B. Rajasekharan, R. J. E. Hueting, C. Salm, T. van Hemert, R. A. M. Wolters, J. Schmitz, IEEE Electron Device Lett. 2010, 31, 528.
- [19] M. W. Iqbal, M. Z. Iqbal, M. F. Khan, M. A. Shehzad, Y. Seo, J. Eom, Nanoscale 2015, 7, 747.
- [20] W. R. Thurber, R. L. Mattis, Y. M. Liu, J. J. Filliben, J. Electrochem. Soc. 1980, 127, 2291.
- [21] Y. Guo, J. Robertson, Appl. Phys. Lett. 2016, 108, 233104.
- [22] J. Kang, S. Tongay, J. Zhou, J. Li, J. Wu, Appl. Phys. Lett. 2013, 102, 012111.

- [23] P. K. Chow, R. B. Jacobs-Gedrim, J. Gao, T.-M. Lu, B. Yu, H. Terrones, N. Koratkar, ACS Nano 2015, 9, 1520.
- [24] S. C. Jain, D. J. Roulston, Solid-State Electron. 1991, 34, 453.
- [25] S. Aftab, M. F. Khan, K.-A. Min, G. Nazir, A. M. Afzal, G. Dastgeer, I. Akhtar, Y. Seo, S. Hong, J. Eom, *Nanotechnology* **2017**, *29*, 045201.
- [26] A. Nourbakhsh, A. Zubair, M. S. Dresselhaus, T. Palacios, Nano Lett. 2016, 16, 1359.
- [27] R. Yan, S. Fathipour, Y. Han, B. Song, S. Xiao, M. Li, N. Ma, V. Protasenko, D. A. Muller, D. Jena, H. G. Xing, *Nano Lett.* **2015**, *15*, 5791.
- [28] D. Sarkar, X. Xie, W. Liu, W. Cao, J. Kang, Y. Gong, S. Kraemer, P. M. Ajayan, K. Banerjee, *Nature* **2015**, *526*, 91.
- [29] M.-H. Doan, Y. Jin, S. Adhikari, S. Lee, J. Zhao, S. C. Lim, Y. H. Lee, ACS Nano 2017, 11, 3832.
- [30] Z. Wang, J. Shan, K. F. Mak, Nat. Nanotechnol. 2017, 12, 144.
- [31] A. Rawat, N. Jena, Dimple, A. De Sarkar , *J. Mater. Chem. A* **2018**, 6, 8693.
- [32] A. S. Dahiya, R. A. Sporea, G. Poulin-Vittrant, D. Alquier, Sci. Rep. 2019, 9, 2979.
- [33] R. Sanjay, K. H. Kumar, B. Venkataramani, Analog Integr. Circuits Signal Process. 2019, 98, 615.
- [34] Y. Umemoto, W. J. Schaff, H. Park, L. F. Eastman, Appl. Phys. Lett. 1993, 62, 1964.
- [35] S. S. Li, Semiconductor Physical Electronics, Plenum Press, New York 2006.
- [36] S. M. Sze, K. K. Ng, Physics of Semiconductor Devices, 3rd ed., 2007, p. 94.
- [37] S. Lee, A. Nathan, Science 2016, 354, 302.
- [38] S. Chuang, R. Kapadia, H. Fang, T. C. Chang, W. C. Yen, Y. L. Chueh, A. Javey, Appl. Phys. Lett. 2013, 102, 242101.
- [39] H. S. Lee, J. Y. Lim, S. Yu, Y. Jeong, S. Park, K. Oh, S. Hong, S. Yang, C. H. Lee, S. Im, Adv. Opt. Mater. 2019, 7, 1900768.
- [40] B. W. H. Baugher, H. O. H. Churchill, Y. F. Yang, P. Jarillo-Herrero, Nat. Nanotechnol. 2014, 9, 262.
- [41] S. Aftab, M. F. Khan, P. Gautam, H. Noh, J. Eom, Nanoscale 2019, 11, 9518.
- [42] H. J. Chuang, X. B. Tan, N. J. Ghimire, M. M. Perera, B. Chamlagain, M. M. C. Cheng, J. Q. Yan, D. Mandrus, D. Tomanek, Z. X. Zhou, *Nano Lett.* **2014**, *14*, 3594.
- [43] H. M. Li, D. Lee, D. S. Qu, X. C. Liu, J. J. Ryu, A. Seabaugh, W. J. Yoo, Nat. Commun. 2015, 6, 6564.
- [44] P. Gehring, R. Urcuyo, D. L. Duong, M. Burghard, K. Kern, *Appl. Phys. Lett.* **2015**, 107, 139902.
- [45] I. Sharma, B. R. Mehta, J. Alloy Compd. 2017, 723, 50.
- [46] L. S. Li, E. A. Carter, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2019, 141, 10451.
- [47] G. Gupta, B. Rajasekharan, R. J. E. Hueting, IEEE Trans. Electron Devices 2017, 64, 3044.