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By

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WSe₂-Based Devices and Oxide Structures

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WSe₂-Based Devices and Oxide Structures

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Abstract

WSe₂-Based Devices and Oxide Structures

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In this work the transition metal dichalcogenide WSe₂ is exfoliated and characterized. It is shown from the electrical measurements that the material can display both p-type conduction as well as ambipolar characteristics. WSe₂ flakes were also oxidized through thermal and laser treatments to produce oxide structures. The structures and oxidation processes are characterized and described in this thesis.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

A brief introduction to two dimensional (2D) materials is given in this chapter. A rough overview of graphene and h-BN is presented in 1.1, and transition metal dichalcogenides will be discussed in 1.2.

1.1 TWO DIMENSIONAL MATERIALS

2D materials are structurally planar materials that display highly anisotropic properties, having different in-plane and out-of-plane characteristics. The materials, at atomically thin layers, are known to exhibit novel properties that differ from their bulk counterpart.

One such 2D material, which has been the primary material of research in this field for the past decade, is graphene. Since the successful isolation and characterization of graphene, an atomic layer of sp^2 bonded carbon, vast amounts of interest has been generated in researching the material's properties and devices. [1, 2]. Graphene and graphene-derived materials have been considered for a wide array of applications including flexible electronics [3, 4], energy storage [5], plasmonics [6], high frequency electronics [7], and more. The interest in graphene sparked widespread investigations in other 2D materials, which includes hexagonal boron nitride (h-BN), transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDCs), phosphorene, and transition metal oxides among others. **Figure 1.1** shows a few of the 2D material structures.

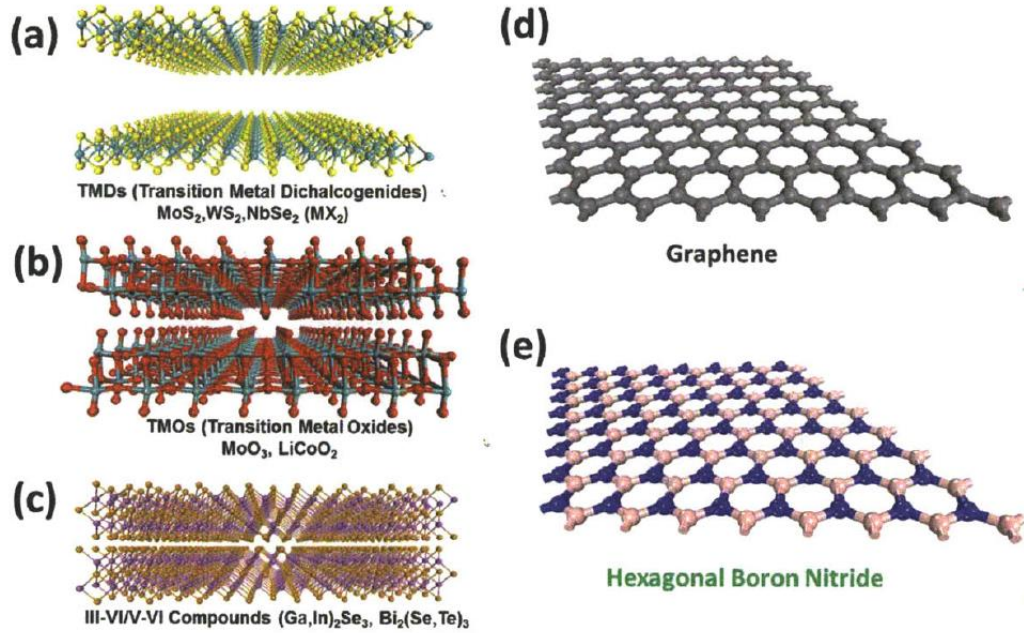


Figure 1.1. Structure of 2D materials. The structures of (a) transition metal dichalcogenides, (b) transition metal oxides, (c) III-VI/V-VI compounds, (d) graphene, and (e) hexagonal boron nitride are shown. [8]

Among these materials, h-BN has been studied as a dielectric for graphene due to its wide band gap, structural similarity (1.8% lattice mismatch), chemically inert stability and atomic flatness [9, 10]. On h-BN, graphene can achieve much higher mobility values than that on top other dielectrics such as SiO₂ [9]. These properties has led to the research of encapsulating other 2D materials such as graphene within h-BN to reduce the extrinsic environmental effects that may occur during or after processing [11]. Beyond graphene, TMDCs are currently under investigation for their intrinsic band gaps, which offer higher current on/off ratios for electronic applications. The transition to a direct energy band gap in various TMDCs at the monolayer limit also opens up possibilities optoelectronic applications. [12]

The stacking of these 2D materials to create vertical heterostructures has become an increasingly pursued area of recent research [13]. By selectively layering 2D materials in varying configurations, it's possible to achieve numerous structures for different analyses and applications. **Figure 1.2** shows one such structure, an alternately layered bilayer graphene and h-BN superlattice, as imaged by scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) [14]. These heterostructures introduce additional directions in the research of two dimensional materials.

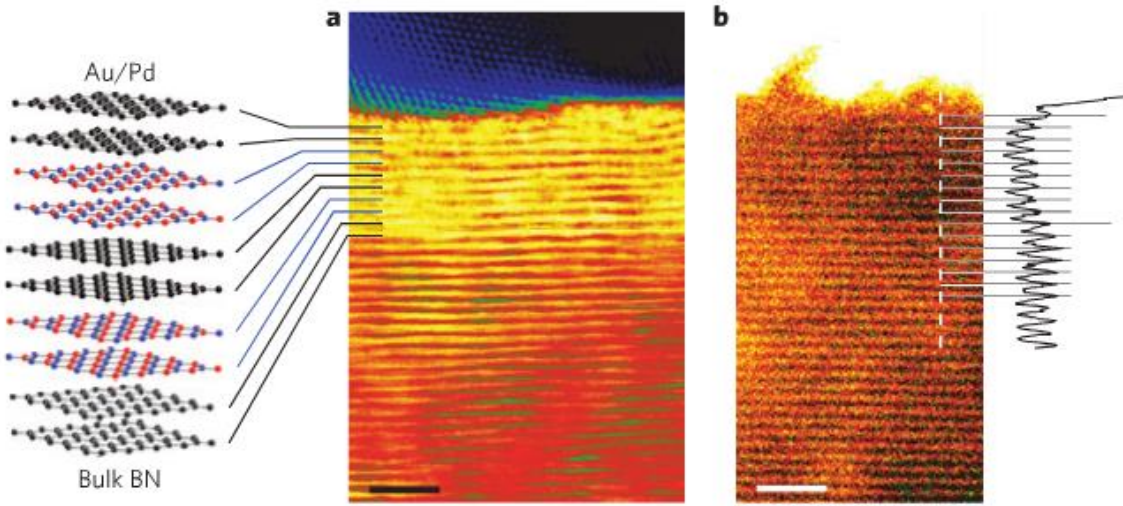


Figure 1.2 (a) Schematic and bright field STEM of a graphene bilayer and h-BN stacked superlattice. The high-angle annular dark field (HAADF) STEM is shown in (b) along with the intensity line profile of the layers. [14]

1.2 TRANSITION METAL DICHALCOGENIDES

TMDCs are of the chemical composition MX_2 , where M is the metal and X is the chalcogenide, e.g. S, Se, etc. These materials are layered in the structure, where each TMDC layer contains three atomic layers: one layer of transition metal bonded to two chalcogenide layers, one below and one above. In materials with more than one TMDC

layer, the layers are held together by weak van der Waals interactions between the layers.

The layers can be stacked in 3 different ways, shown in **Figure 1.3**. [12]

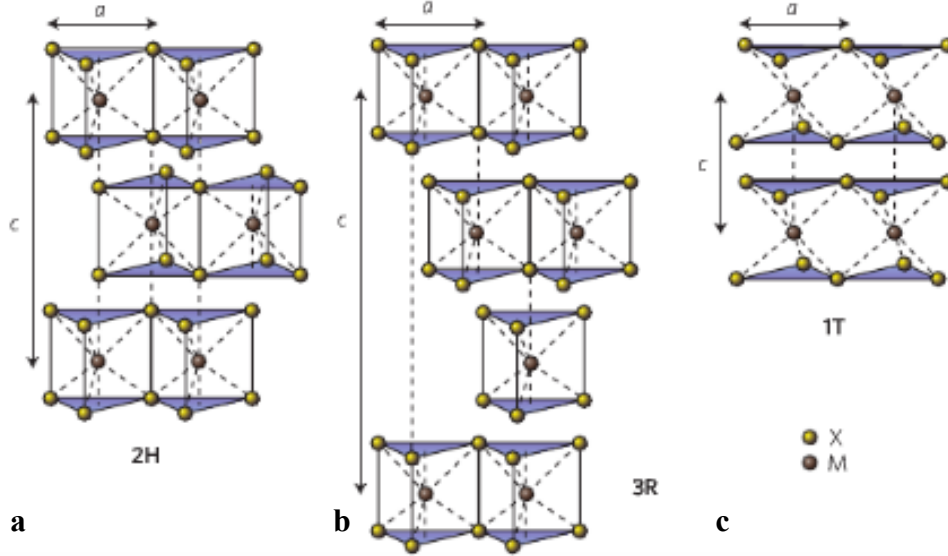


Figure 1.3. The possible stacking configurations of MX₂. (a) The 2H hexagonal configuration repeats every two layers. (b) The 3R rhombohedral configuration repeats every 3 layers. (c) The 1T tetragonal configuration repeats every layer. [12]

At atomically thin layers, the band structure in semiconducting TMDCs changes from that of bulk, as depicted in **Figure 1.4** for MoS₂ and WS₂. [12] The direct band gap at the K point remains much unchanged, but near the Γ point the indirect band gap is increased, and the direct band gap at K becomes the lowest energy gap. [15]

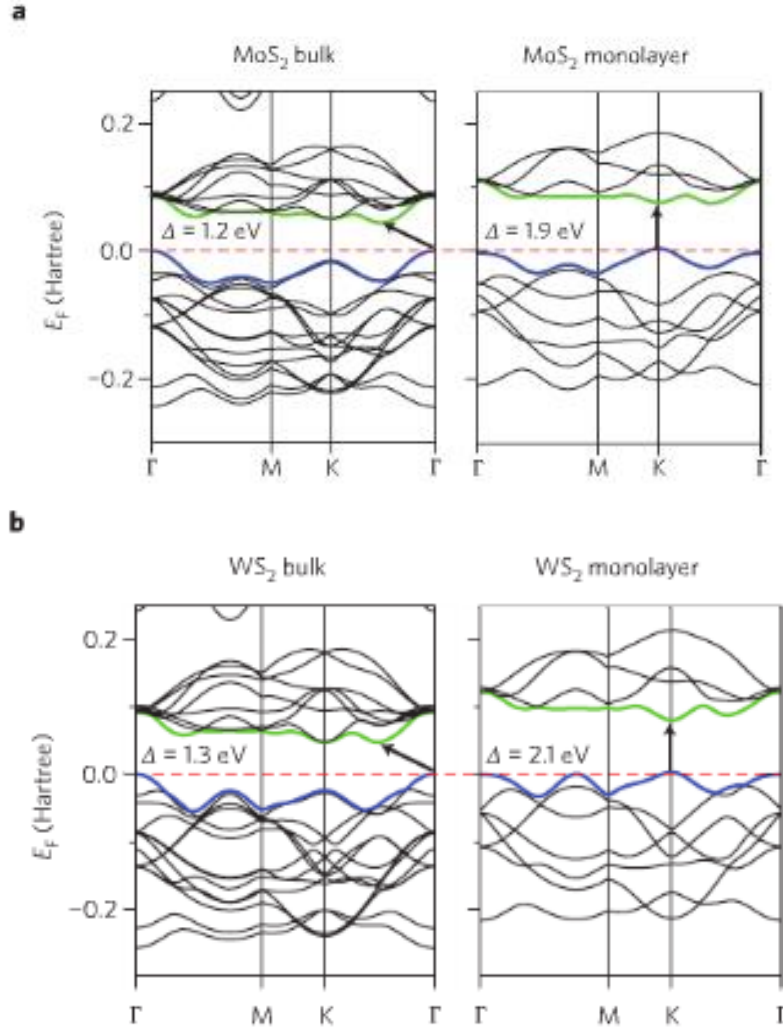


Figure 1.4. Band diagrams for MoS₂ bulk (a, left), MoS₂ monolayer (a, right), WS₂ bulk (b, left), and WS₂ monolayer (b, right). As the semiconducting TMDCs transitions from bulk to monolayer, the band structure transitions into a larger direct band gap from an indirect band gap. [15]

The existence of a band gap in TMDCs has led to much interest in their electronic applications as two dimensional materials. Research in this area include electronic characterization[16] and contact materials[17], logic devices[18], flexible electronics[19], as well as optoelectronics[20]. In addition, the TMDCs has been researched in vertical heterostructures in an effort to combine the electronic band gap

with the high mobility of graphene, shown in **Figure 1.5** [21]. By using WS_2 as an intermediate layer between graphene layers, a $\sim 10^6$ on/off ratio is achieved via the TMDC band gap, which serves a tunnel barrier for carrier injection.

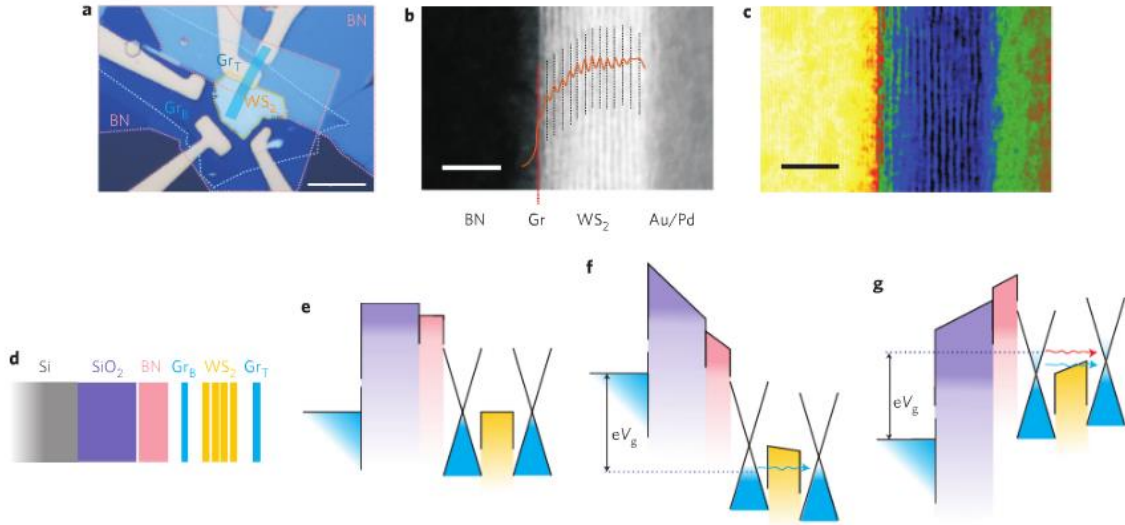


Figure 1.5. (a) Optical image (scale bar, 10 μm). (b) Cross-section high-resolution high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF STEM) image (scale bar, 5 nm). (c) Bright-field STEM image (scale bar, 5 nm). (d) Schematic of vertical architecture of transistor. (e) Band diagram corresponding to no V_g and applied V_b . (f) Negative V_g shifts the Fermi level of the two graphene layers down from the neutrality point, increasing the potential barrier and switching the transistor OFF. (g) Applying positive V_g results in an increased current between Gr_B and Gr_T (bottom and top graphene layers, respectively) due to both thermionic (red arrow) and tunneling (blue arrow) contributions. [21]

Among structures, molybdenum oxide (MoOx) has been researched as contact layer to MoS_2 field effect transistors, where the high work function of substoichiometric MoOx is used for hole injection into the MoS_2 layer [22]. In this work, the primary focus will be on the specific TMDC WSe_2 and its properties as well as the processes of obtaining lateral WSe_2 -oxide structures. These processes and the obtained structures are characterized in order to shed light on the resulting materials.

Chapter 2: Preparation of WSe₂

This chapter outlines the characterization of the WSe₂, as acquired and exfoliated from bulk.

2.1 EXFOLIATION OF WSe₂

To characterize and fabricate structures as well as devices from WSe₂, the standard mechanical exfoliation technique was used to obtain flakes from a bulk crystal. WSe₂ purchased from NanoSurf and 2DSemiconductors were exfoliated using Scotch® Magic™ ('magic') and UltraTape® 1310TB100-P5D ('blue') tape. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of the WSe₂ flake are shown in **Figures 2.1a-b**. The atomic structure, which is layered in the out of plane direction and hexagonal within the plane, is shown in the **Figure 2.1c**. (Images were taken with the assistance of Dr. Karalee Jarvis, Avinash Nayak, Maria Hall, and Dr. Jiping Zhou.) 90 nm and 270 nm SiO₂/Si were used as substrates during the exfoliation for enhanced optical contrast; as shown by simulated results in **Figure 2.2**: TMDCs are typically visible on 50-100 nm and 200-300 nm SiO₂ substrates [23]. Both tapes were observed to leave behind residues, the magic tape especially so, as shown in the atomic force microscopy (AFM) map in **Figure 2.3a**. The residue left behind by magic tape can be alleviated via a 400 °C degree anneal in an Ar/H₂ (50/1) atmosphere for ~1 hr. (**Figure 2.3b**). Residue from the blue tape, while observably fewer, is less readily broken down by the annealing process. The blue tape was also detected by AFM to sometimes leave behind smaller flakes during the exfoliation process (**Figure 2.4**). For the remainder of this work, unless otherwise noted, the flakes were exfoliated with magic tape and annealed in 50/1 Ar/H₂ atmosphere for ~1 hr. at 400 °C prior to additional processing.

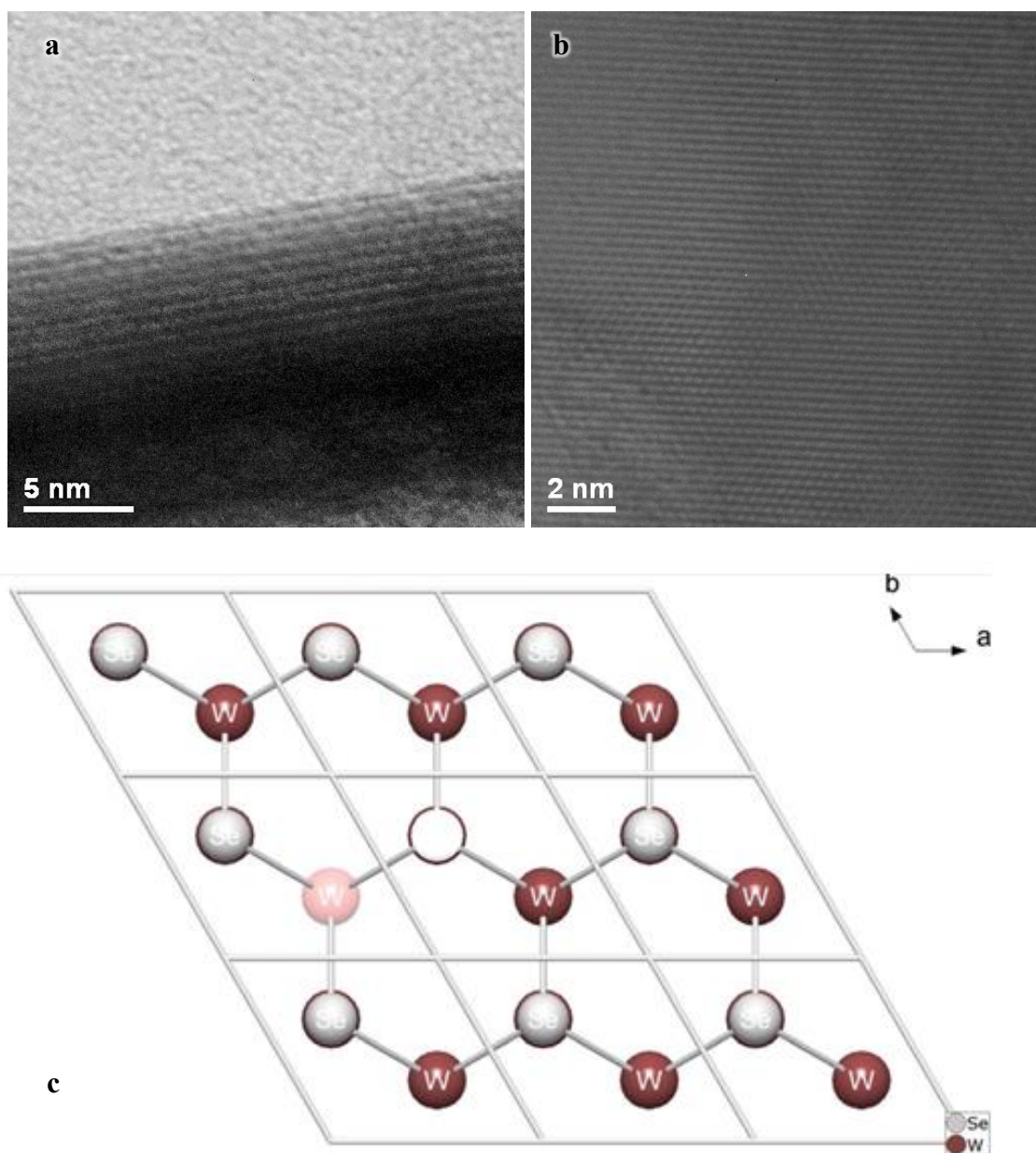


Figure 2.1. (a) Cross-sectional and (b) plain-view TEM image of WSe₂ flakes, clearly showing the layered structure and hexagonal lattice, as displayed in the schematic (c).

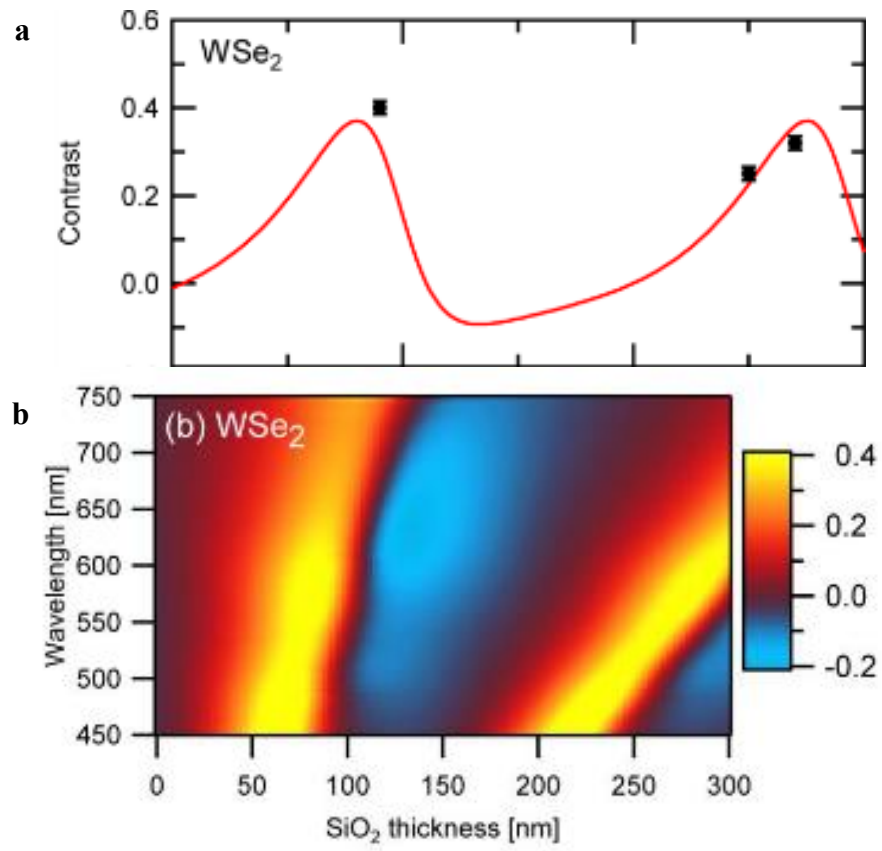


Figure 2.2. (a) Calculated (red) experimental (black) contrasts for broadband illumination detected with the green channel (495-530nm) of a camera. (b) A color plot of contrast as function of SiO₂ substrate thickness and incident wavelength. [23]

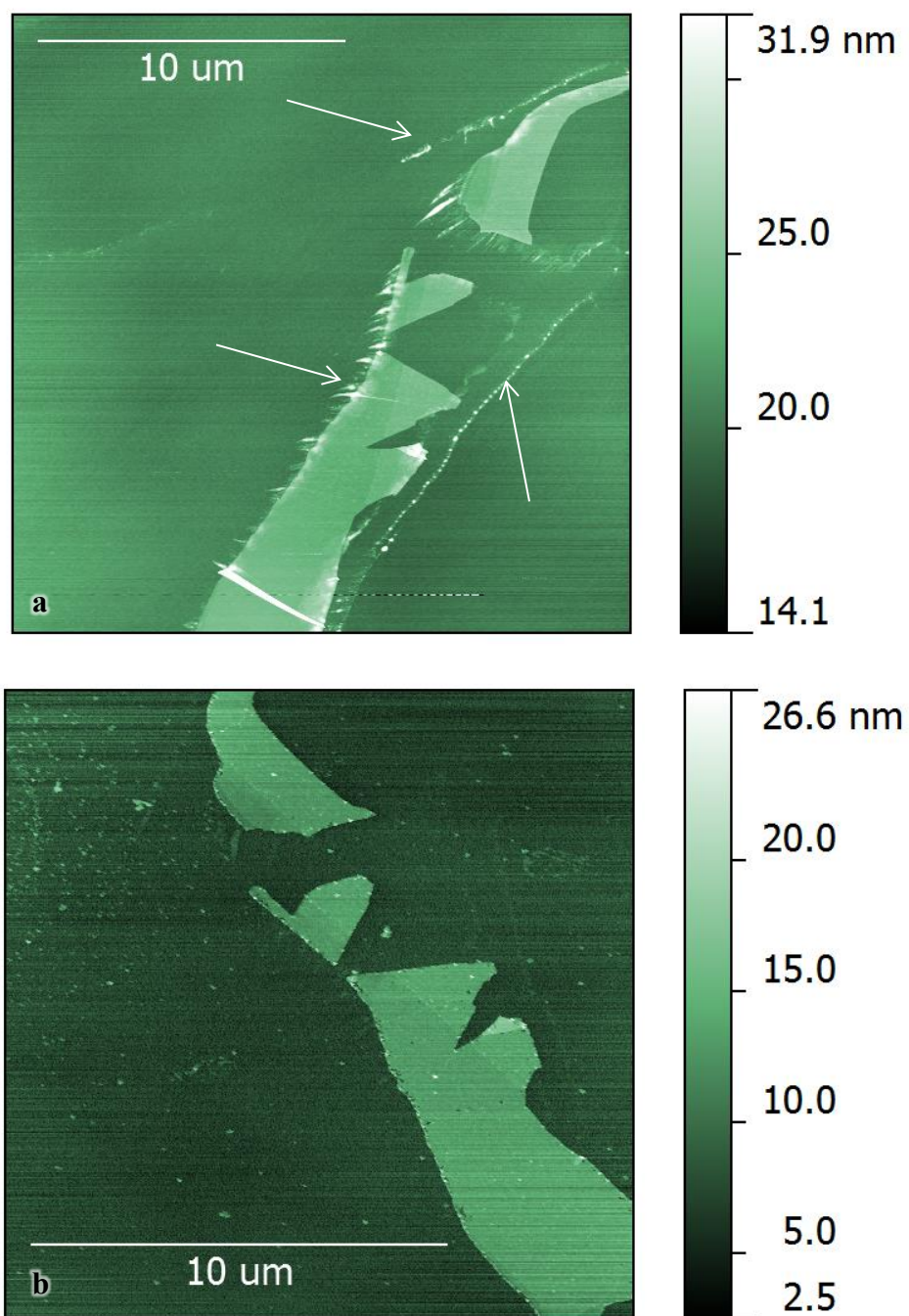


Figure 2.3. AFM images of a WSe₂ multilayer flake exfoliated with Scotch® Magic™ tape (a) before and (b) after hour-long anneal in Ar/H₂ at 400 °C. The continuous residue (marked by arrows) in (a) is observed to have broken down after the anneal (b).

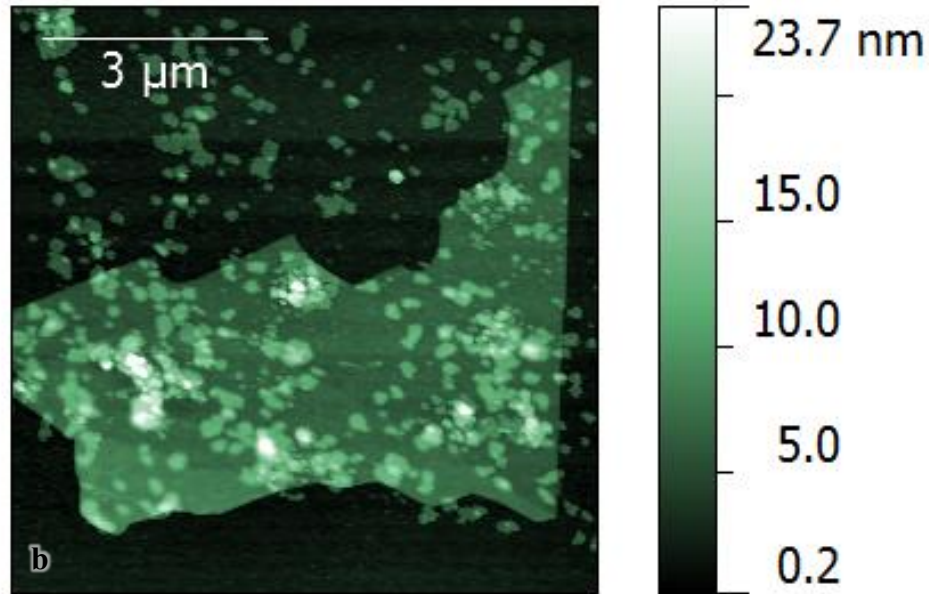


Figure 2.4. AFM image of a WSe₂ multilayer flake exfoliated with blue tape. Small mini flakes are scattered throughout the entire area.

2.2 MATERIAL PROPERTIES AND CHARACTERIZATION

Figure 2.5 shows the band structure of WSe₂, like that of other semiconducting TMDCs (e.g. MoS₂, WS₂, etc.), shifts from a lower indirect band gap for the bulk crystal to a higher direct band gap as it becomes atomically thin [24]. At the K point, the direct excitonic transition is relatively unaffected by layer thickness whereas the indirect gap transition between the K and Γ points increases with decreasing thickness [24]. Such a phenomenon has been attributed to quantum confinement and resulting changes in the hybridization of orbitals in previous literature [12].

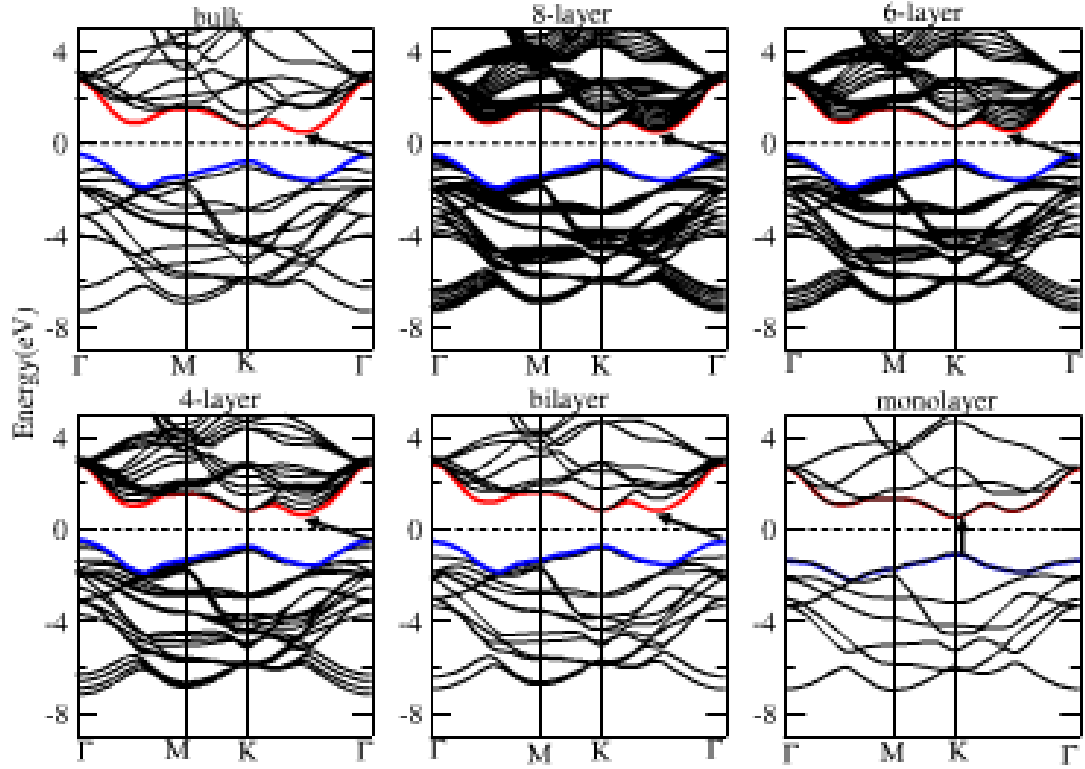


Figure 2.5. The calculated band structure for bulk-to-monolayer WSe₂, as labeled. The red outlines the lower most conduction band and blue outlines the uppermost valence band. At monolayer thickness, the lowermost valley of the conduction band occurs at the K point, forming the direct band gap. [24]

WSe₂ can be identified by its unique Raman signature, due to the active Raman modes shown in **Figure 2.6**. Of the four active Raman modes, E_{2g}^1 and A_{1g} are observed experimentally [25]. However, the laser wavelength also plays a role in the optical signature. Twin Raman peaks at 248 cm⁻¹ and 257 cm⁻¹ (corresponding to E_{2g}^1 and A_{1g} , respectively) are extracted using a 532 nm laser for ~5 layer WSe₂ sample exfoliated on 25 nm Al₂O₃/Si (**Figure 2.7**). The peak at ~257 cm⁻¹ is greatly diminished for the lower laser wavelength 442 nm comparatively. A peak was also observed at ~310 cm⁻¹, which has been attributed to different modes in literature. [26] The 532 nm laser also revealed

additional peaks: the $2E_{1g}$ peak at $\sim 355 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, the $A_{1g} + \text{LA}$ at $\sim 372 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, and the $2A_{1g} - \text{LA}$ at $\sim 395 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, where LA is the longitudinal acoustic phonon [27].

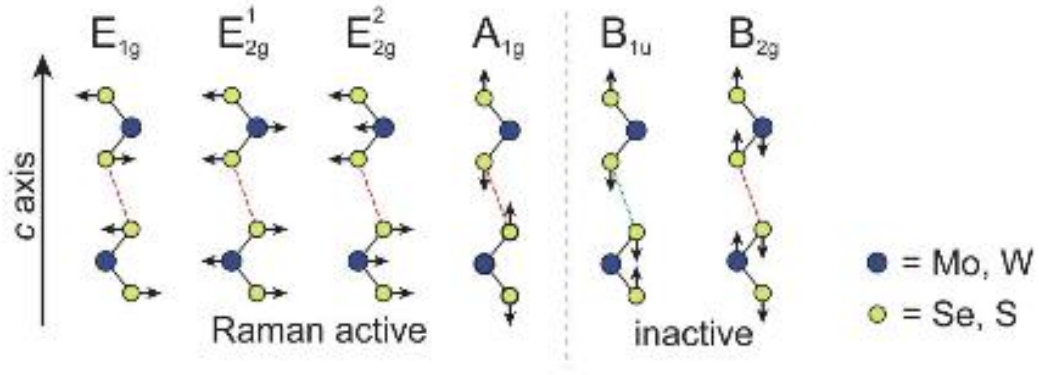


Figure 2.6. Schematic of Raman modes in TMDCs, the yellow represents the chalcogens and the blue is the transition metal. Of these modes, typically E_{2g}^1 and A_{1g} are experimentally observed. [25]

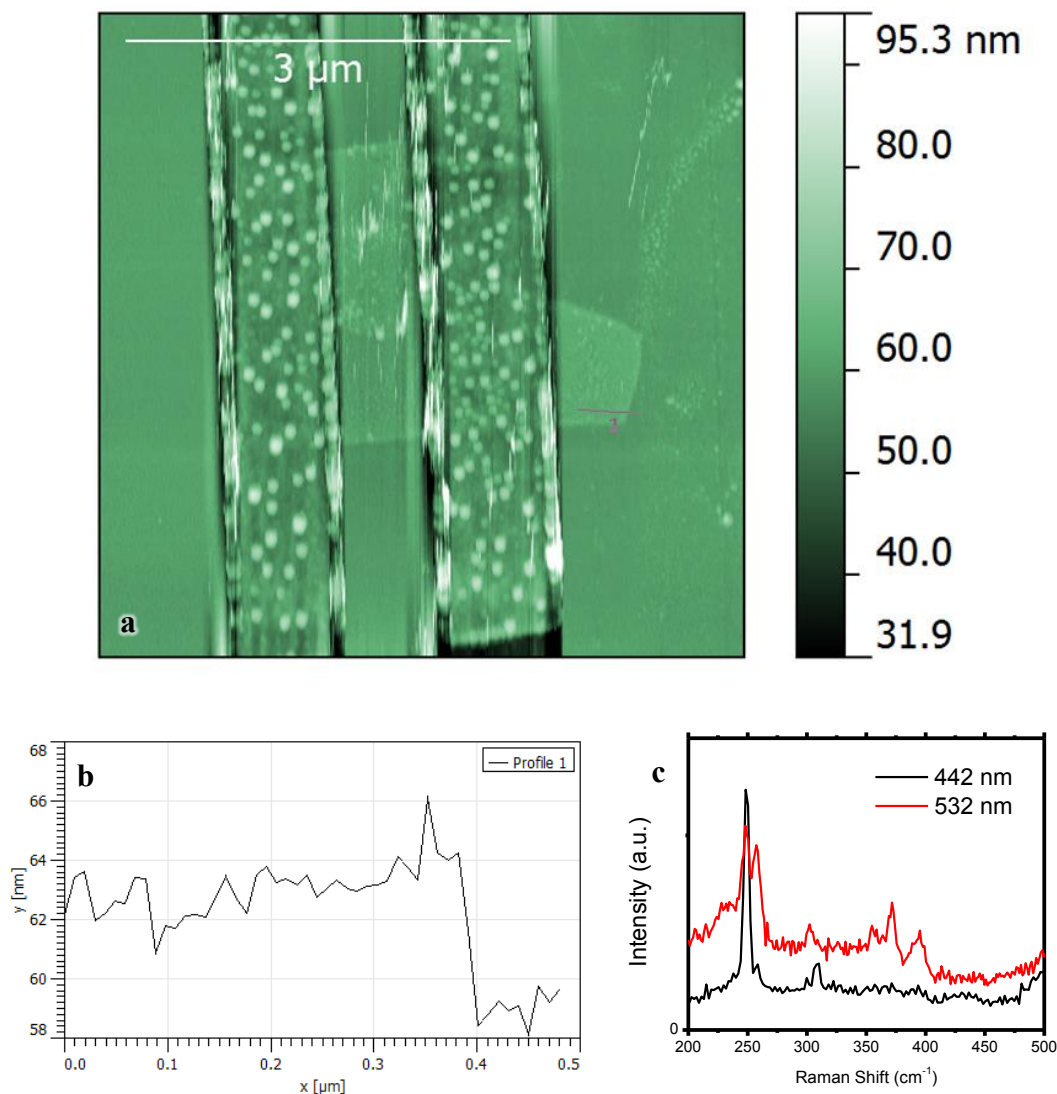


Figure 2.7. (a, top) AFM image of a few-layer WSe₂ flake after contact deposition. The line profile is shown in (b), with a step height of ~4 nm. (c) Raman spectroscopy measurements were taken of the flake using both a 442 nm laser and a 532 nm laser, exhibiting different signatures.

Microwave impedance microscopy (MIM) and simultaneous AFM measurements of exfoliated WSe₂ on 270 nm SiO₂/Si were completed through collaborations with Yingnan Liu of Professor Keji Lai's group, as shown in **Figure 2.8**. The imaginary and real maps show that the conductivity of the flakes changes with the layer thickness. From

these plots, we can see qualitatively that thicker flakes have exhibit higher measured conductivity, whereas the conductivity of the monolayer region is close to that of the background SiO_2 . It is noted that these are measured without a back gate voltage applied, and the semiconducting material is not considered to be “on.”

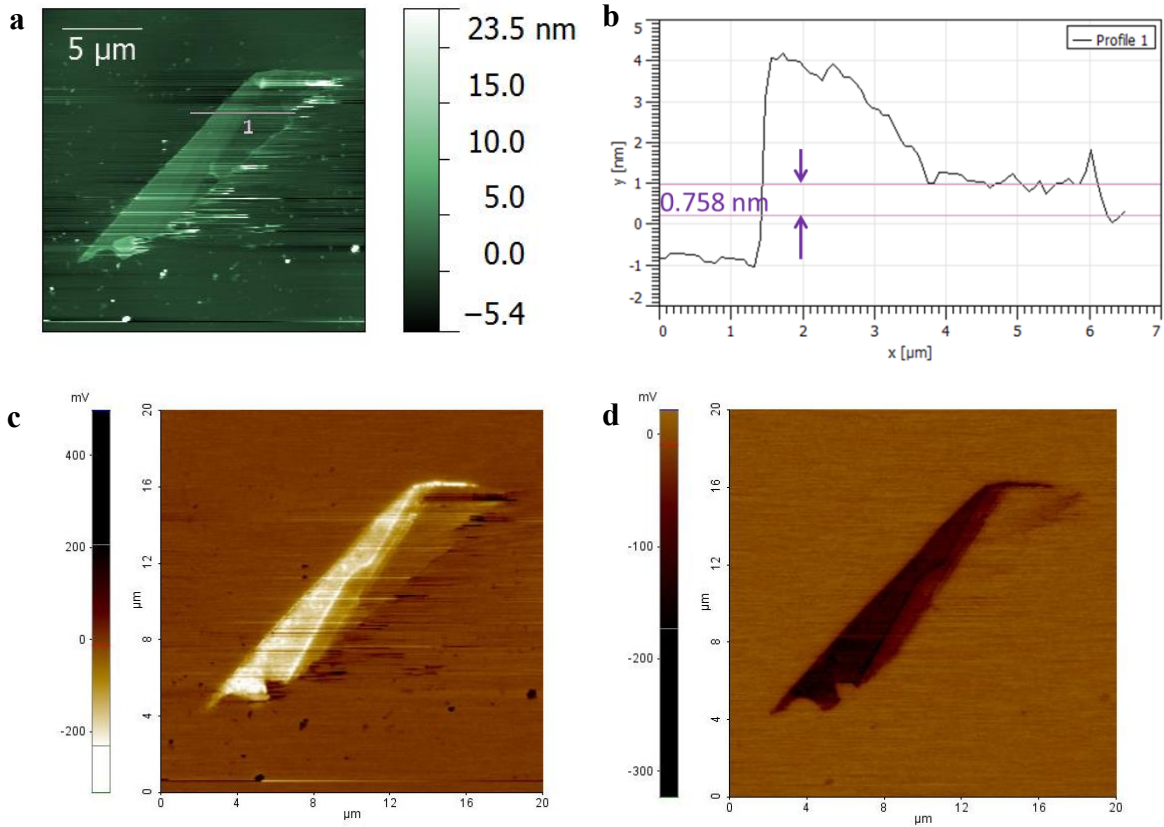


Figure 2.8. (a, top left) AFM image of an exfoliated flake; the monolayer region is outlined in the line profile, as shown in (b, top right). (c, bottom left) Imaginary and (d, bottom right) real parts of impedance maps, as obtained from microwave impedance microscopy.

Chapter 3: Fabrication and Characterization of WSe₂ Devices

In this chapter, the electronic characteristics of WSe₂ are presented. Section 3.1 outlines the fabrication methods of WSe₂ field effect transistors, and 3.2 outlines the measured electrical properties.

3.1 DEVICE FABRICATION

Back-gated field effect transistors were made from exfoliated WSe₂ flakes using electron beam lithography. The sample was coated with PMMA 495 A4 via spin coating at ~4000 rpm for ~40 s and baked with a hot plate at ~150 °C for 2 min prior to electron-beam exposure and development. ~50 nm Pd contacts were then fabricated via electron beam evaporation and subsequent acetone liftoff. **Figure 2.7** shows the AFM image of a fabricated device, and **Figure 3.1** shows the optical image of a typical device.

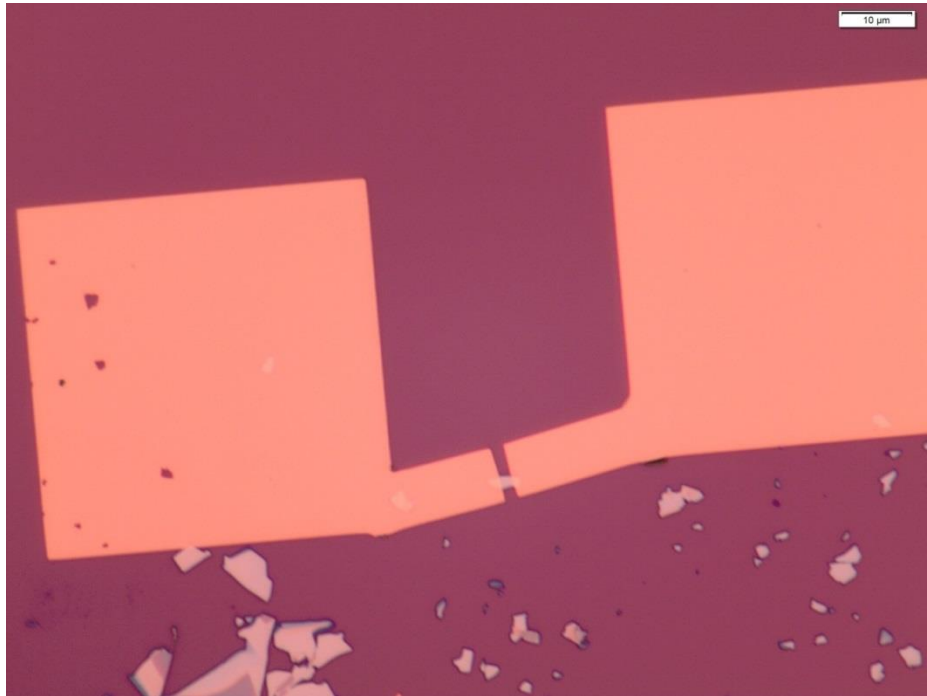


Figure 3.1. Optical image of a typical device fabricated using electron beam lithography after contact evaporation and lift off.

3.2 DEVICE CHARACTERIZATION

Figure 3.2a shows the AFM map of a ~ 9 nm WSe₂ flake exfoliated onto 90 nm SiO₂/Si, which was then fabricated into a device with ~ 45 nm Pd contacts; the inset shows the profile across the flake. The drain-source current I_D was measured as a function of the back gate voltage V_G for the device at drain voltages $V_D = -0.1$ V and $V_D = -1$ V, in ambient atmosphere (**Figure 3.2b**). The ‘- to +’ and ‘+ to -’ denote the V_G sweep direction. The device shows clear p-type conduction with an on/off ratio of $\sim 10^6$ and a large hysteresis. This hysteresis is hypothesized to be caused by adsorbed molecules on the surface of the flake (e.g. water); the same device measured under 10^{-5} mbar vacuum atmosphere shows much less hysteresis, as shown in **Figure 3.2c**. In **Figure 3.2c**, the on/off ratio is $\sim 10^8$, two orders of magnitude higher than that measured under ambient atmosphere, despite a smaller V_G range (-40 V to 40 V as opposed to -60 V to 60 V). I_D - V_D characteristics (observed in **Figure 3.2d**) show the linear operation mode and the onset of saturation. Using the Y-function method, the device was extracted to have a low-field carrier mobility of ~ 50 cm²/V·s and a contact resistance upper bound of ~ 60 Ω ·mm [28, 29].

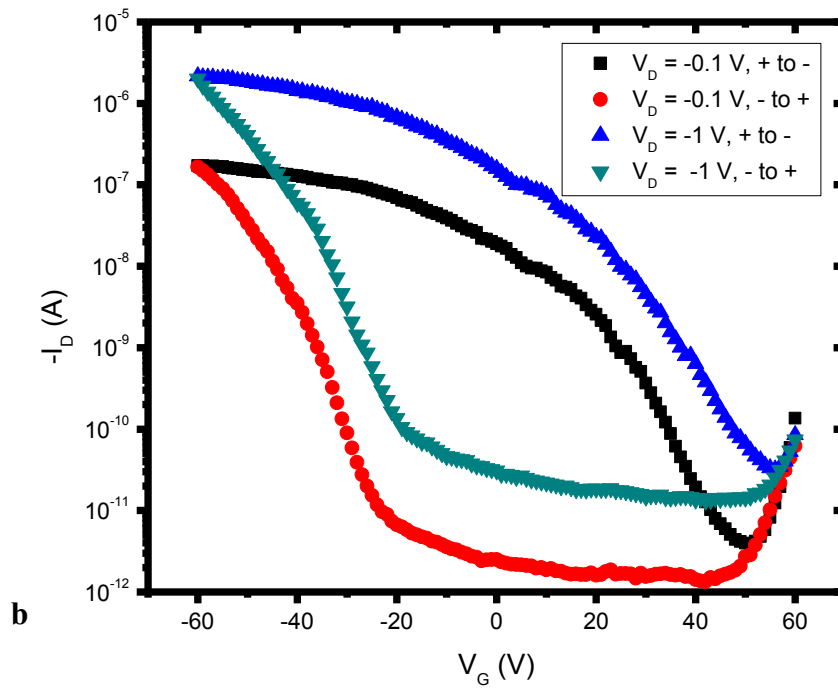
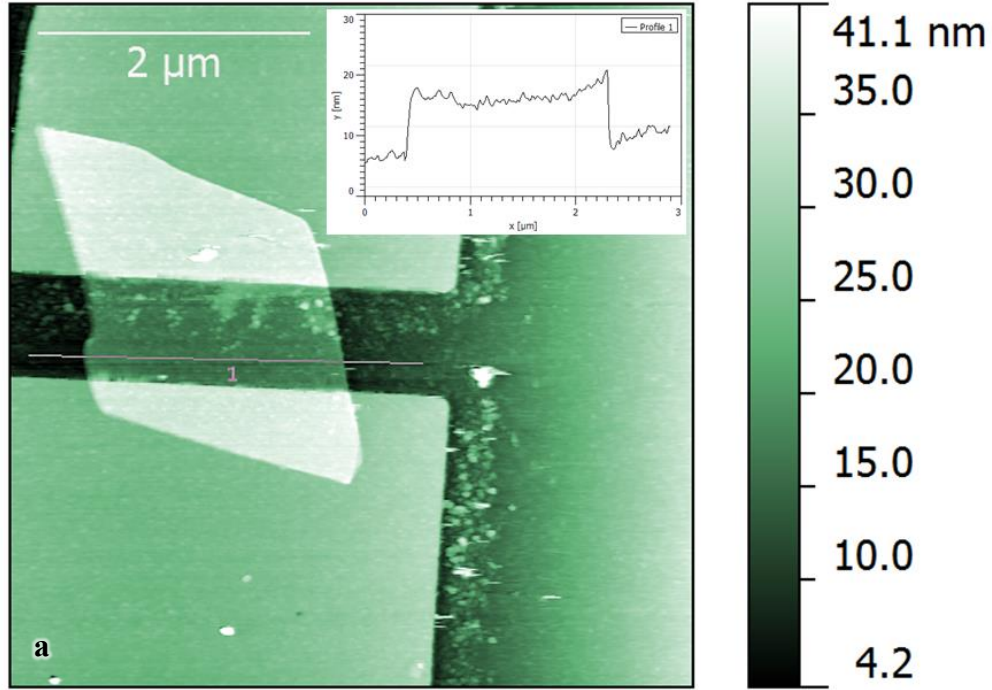
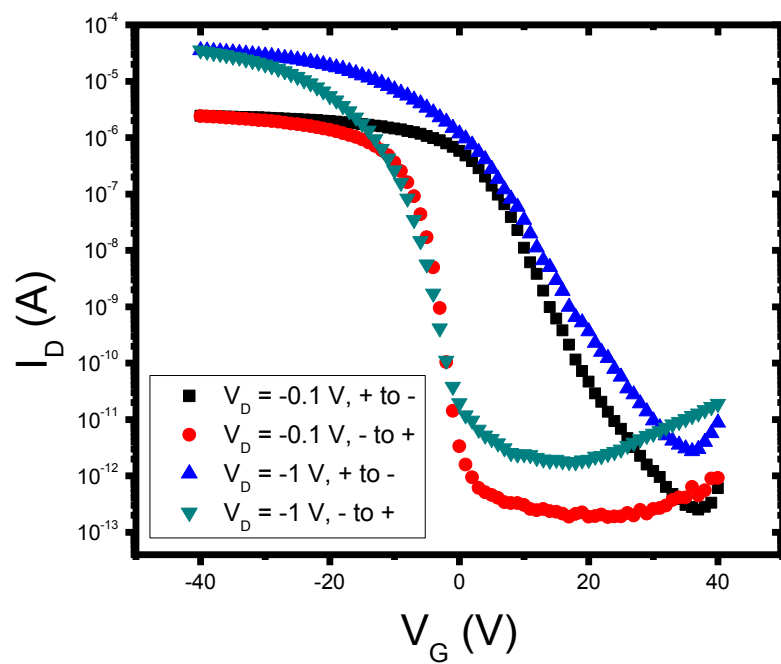
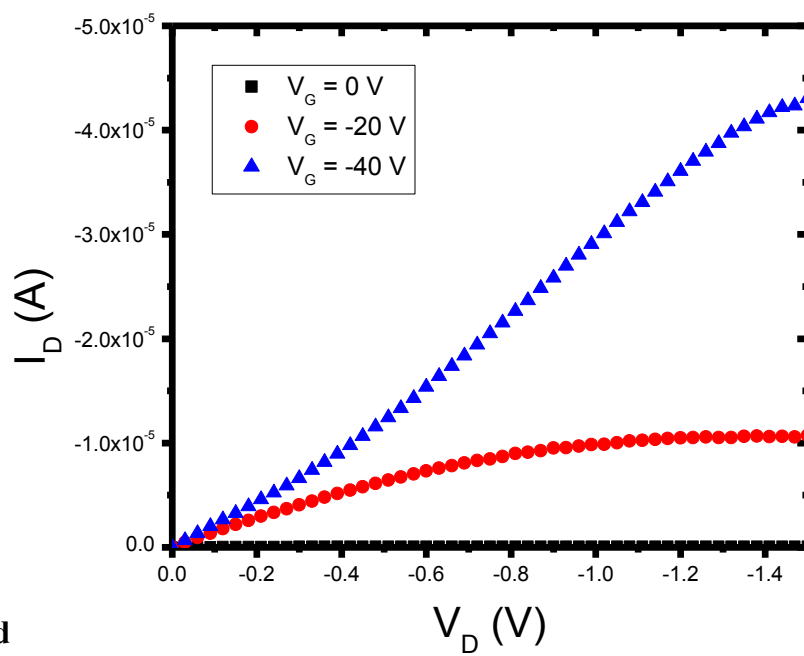


Figure 3.2



c



d

Figure 3.2

Figure 3.2. Electrical characterization of field effect transistors fabricated from WSe₂ flakes with Pd contacts. (a) AFM map of a device fabricated from a ~9 nm thick WSe₂ flake. (b) Ambient I_D-V_G characteristics plotted logarithmically at two different source drain voltages V_D = -0.1 V and V_D = -1 V. Large hysteresis is observed. The same device is measured under vacuum conditions of 10⁻⁵ mbar. (c) The I_D-V_G characteristics are shown with reduced hysteresis and improved on/off ratio, while (d) displays the I_D-V_D characteristics, including the onset of saturation in the device.

Variations in properties of were measured across different fabricated devices. For example, **Figure 3.3** shows an ambipolar device with both n and p-type conduction, measured in a vacuum pressure of $\sim 10^{-5}$ mbar. The $V_D = -0.1$ V current on/off ratio was approximated to be $\sim 10^8$ and $\sim 10^5$ at the negative and positive gate biases, respectively. The asymmetry has been reported to be potentially caused by different thresholds for electron and hole type operation, as well as the negative polarity of V_D [30]. The variations in conduction methods across devices has been previously reported in MoS_2 and attributed to intrinsic defects [31]. A ~ 20 V hysteresis is observed in the I_D - V_G characteristic. The linear I_D - V_D plots of both the positive and negative V_G biases are shown in **Figure 3.3b-c**. Due to the magnitudes of difference in the currents, I_D for $V_G = 60$ V and -60 V are observed in the plots. The $\log(I_D)$ vs. V_D plot is thus shown in the insets. Current saturation is only observed at negative back gate voltage. The noise level of the Agilent 4156C used to measure the current was around $10^{-14} \sim 10^{-13}$ A.

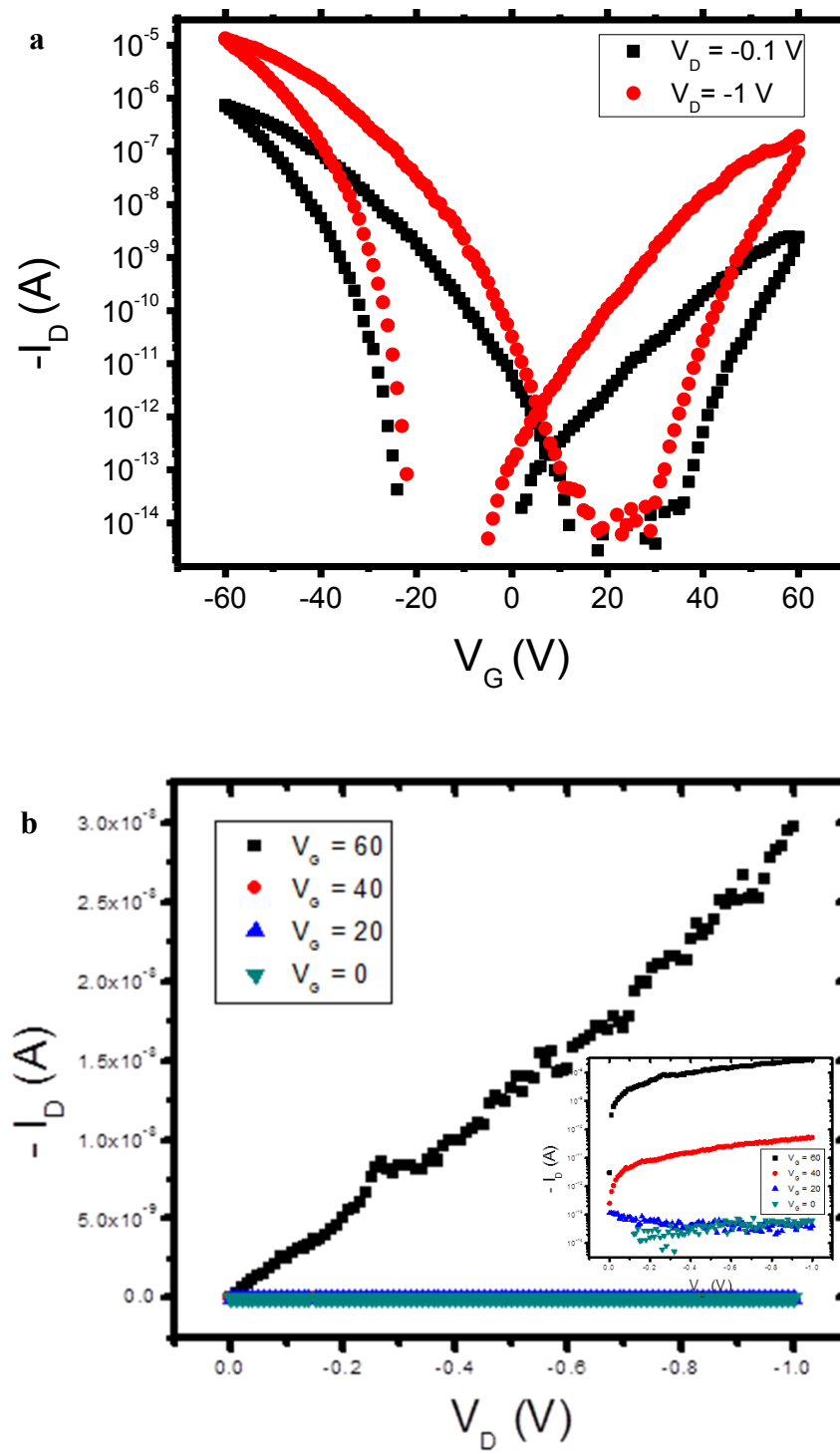


Figure 3.3.

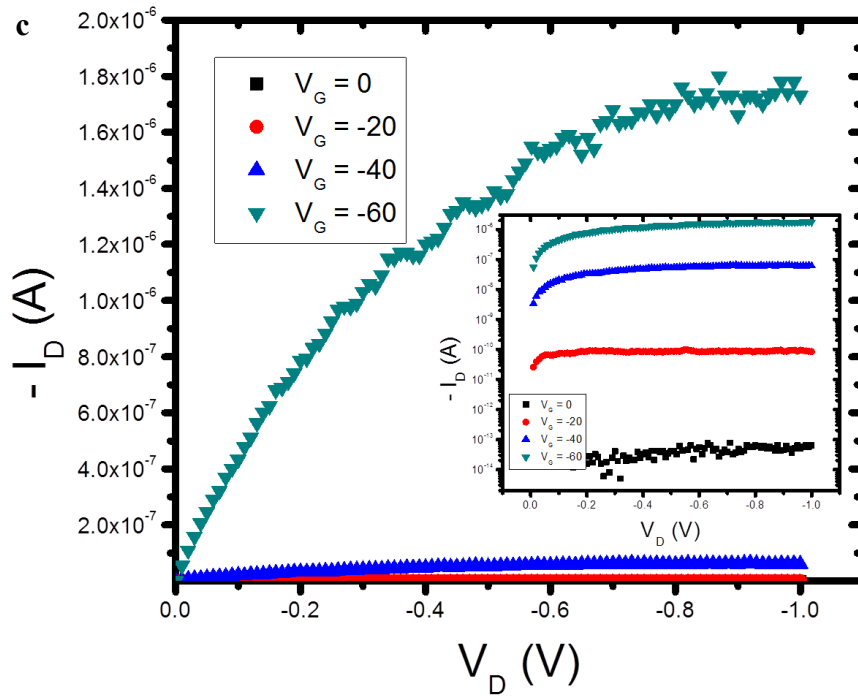


Figure 3.3. Electrical measurements of ambipolar field effect transistors fabricated from WSe₂ flakes with Pd contacts. (a) I_D - V_G characteristics plotted logarithmically at two different source drain voltages $V_D = -0.1$ V and $V_D = -1$ V. The I_D - V_D characteristics at (b) positive and (c) negative V_G show the conduction properties for electrons and holes, respectively. The insets of (b) and (c) plot I_D logarithmically against V_D .

Chapter 4: Thermal Oxidation of WSe₂

WSe₂ were found to thermally oxidize under certain conditions. This chapter outlines the process of oxidation and characterizes the material before and after oxidation. The oxidation process produces lateral structures of WSe₂ and WO₃.

4.1 SYNTHESIS

Exfoliated WSe₂ flakes could be oxidized in an ambient or oxygen atmosphere at ~400 °C. The sequence is captured with a 20x optical microscope in **Figure 4.1**, with the assistance of Avinash Nayak and Prof. Jung-fu Lin. The oxidation begins at the edge of the WSe₂ flakes, and a clear color contrast is observed between the center of the flake and the outer ring. With time, the oxide spreads inwards until the entire flake becomes oxidized. The resulting oxide is referred to as WO_x in this chapter.

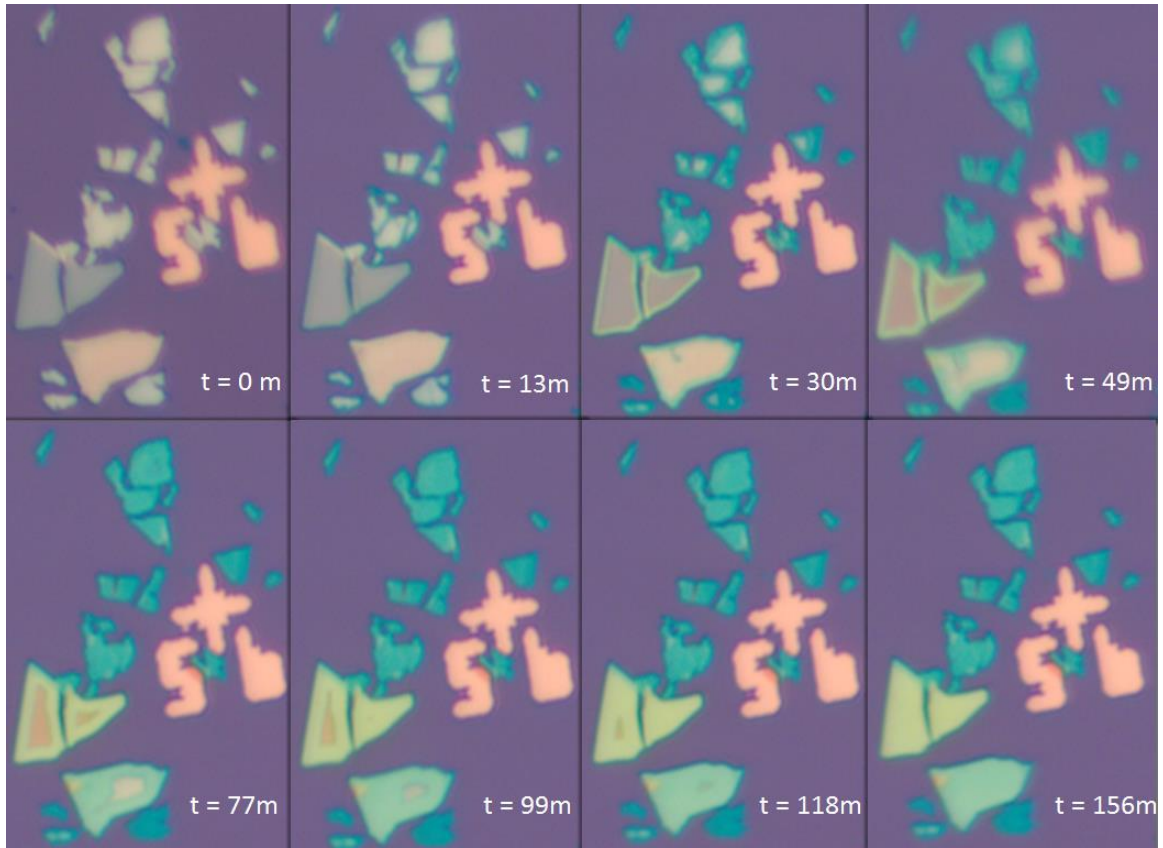


Figure 4.1. Time-lapsed image of WSe₂ flakes oxidized at 400 °C. Oxidation is observed to start at the edge of the flake and move inwards. Taken with 20x objective.

4.2 CHARACTERIZATION

As shown in the optical images in **Figure 4.1**, oxidation takes place from the edge in towards the center, changing the color of the flakes as it occurs. **Figure 4.2** characterizes the process. **Figure 4.2a** displays the AFM image (obtained from collaborations with Prof. Keji Lai and Yingnan Liu) of original bulk WSe₂ flake before oxidization, in which red arrows outline the original defects. Oxidation along these defects as well as the flake edge is observed (**Figure 4.2b**). These oxidized bands are also visually observed in **Figure 4.2c**.

The atomic composition of the oxidized flake is obtained through time of flight secondary ion mass spectrometry (ToFSIMS, **Figure 4.2d**) with the assistance of Harry Chou. The figure shows the compiled image after 20 seconds sputter time, the composition at the surface of these oxidized bands are composed of W and O, and little to no Se signature is detected. The lack of Se at the outer edge may be due to the formation of SeO_2 in the process, which sublimates at 350 °C. However, in the bulk material below the surface (**Figure 4.2e**), only the edge is oxidized, suggesting that the oxidation due to the surface defects is only limited to the topmost layers, and edge oxidation is the primary method of oxidation lower layers. MIM measurements can also be used to characterize the process, as shown in the imaginary maps before and after oxidation (**Figure 4.2f-g**, in collaboration with Prof. Keji Lai and Yingnan Liu). **Figure 4.2g** shows the oxidized bands as having higher conductivity than the unoxidized WSe_2 .

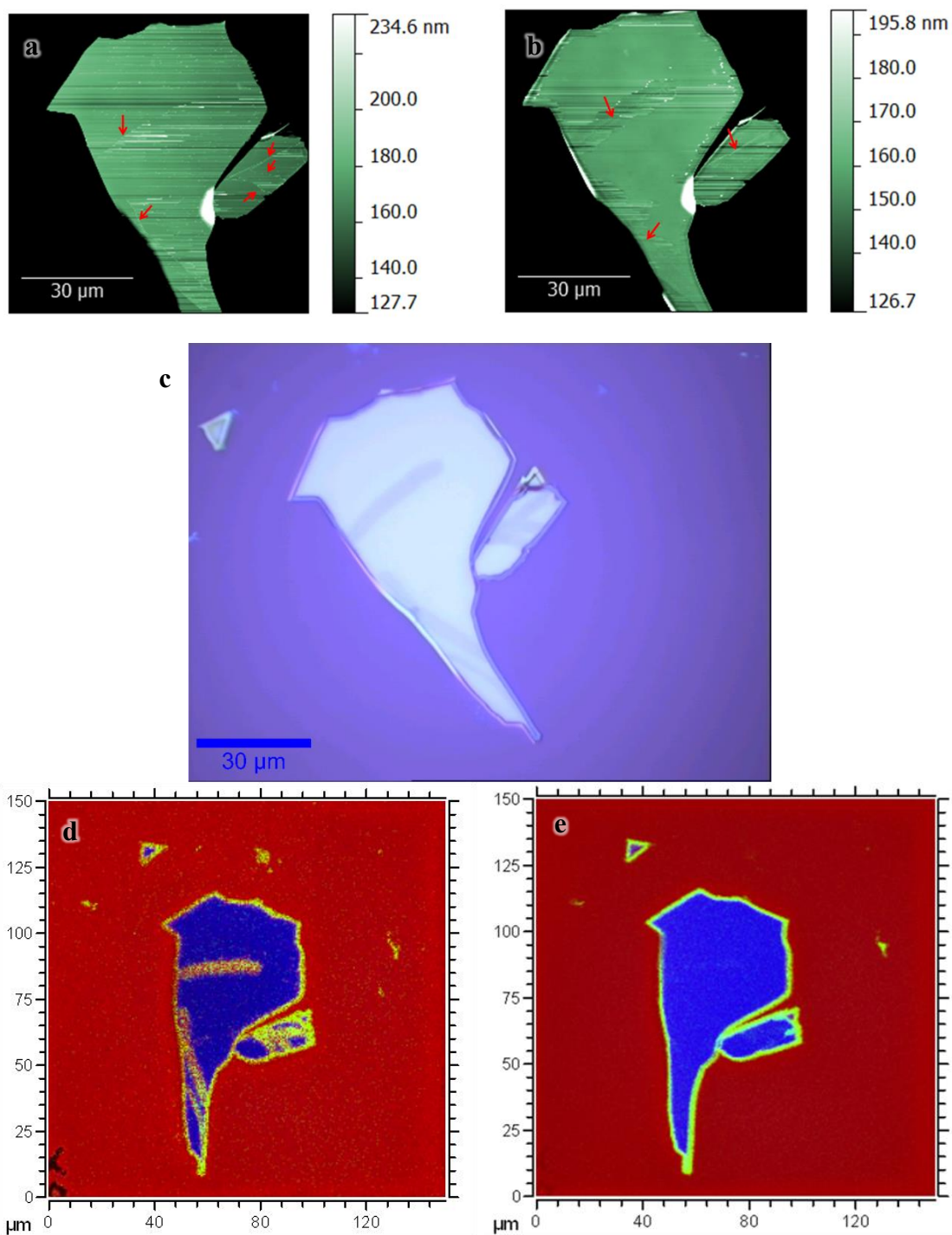


Figure 4.2.

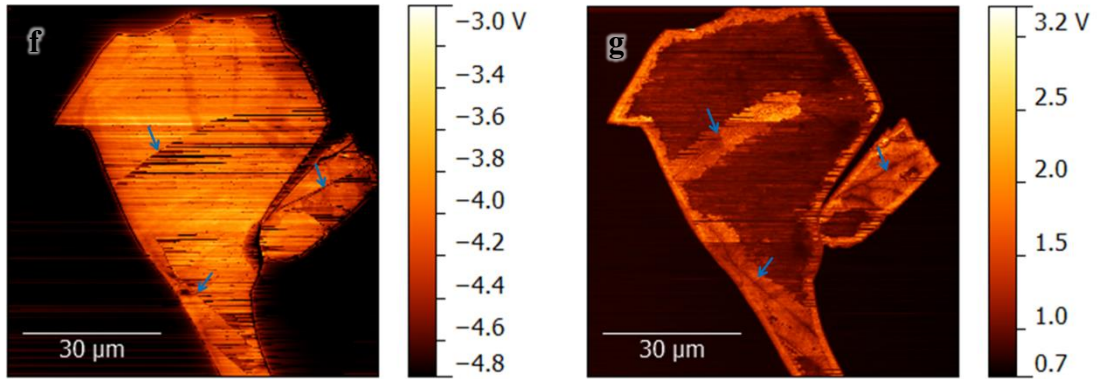


Figure 4.2. Characterizations of a WSe₂ flake before and after oxidation. (a) AFM image of a bulk WSe₂ flake before oxidation. Arrows mark the defects in the flake. (b) AFM image of the same flake after oxidation, arrows mark the original defects prior to oxidation. A band of oxidation is observed around these defects as well as the edges. (c) Optical image of the same flake post oxidation. The bands shown in the AFM image are visible here due to the optical contrast. (d) ToFSIMS map of oxidized WSe₂ flake after first 20 seconds of sputtering. The red corresponds to O⁻ ions, blue to Se⁻, and the green to WO₂⁻. (e) Accumulated ToFSIMS map the oxidized WSe₂ scan. The bands in (d) are not observed in (e). (f-g) Contrast adjusted imaginary MIM maps for WSe₂ before (f) and after (g) oxidation, defects are outlined by blue arrows. The bands are more easily observed through MIM than AFM due to a higher contrast from the surrounding WSe₂.

Raman spectra in **Figure 4.3a** shows a comparison of the WSe₂ flake before and after oxidation, and WO₃ powder for reference. After oxidation, four distinct Raman modes are observed in the spectrum at $\sim 131\text{ cm}^{-1}$, $\sim 268\text{ cm}^{-1}$, $\sim 713\text{ cm}^{-1}$, and $\sim 805\text{ cm}^{-1}$, which correspond well with the Raman modes observed in the WO₃ powder as well as the $\sim 130\text{ cm}^{-1}$, $\sim 271\text{ cm}^{-1}$, $\sim 711\text{ cm}^{-1}$, and $\sim 808\text{ cm}^{-1}$ modes of monoclinic (V) and triclinic (VI) WO₃ reported in literature [32-34]. In the oxidized WSe₂, the $\sim 130\text{ cm}^{-1}$ mode has been previously attributed to O-O deformations and the 271 cm^{-1} mode to W-O deformations, whereas the other two modes have been assigned to W-O/O-W-O stretching/vibrational modes in the WO₆ octahedral units [32, 34]. A summed intensity map of the 131 cm^{-1} peak can be seen in **Figure 4.3b**, which outlines the oxidized regions.

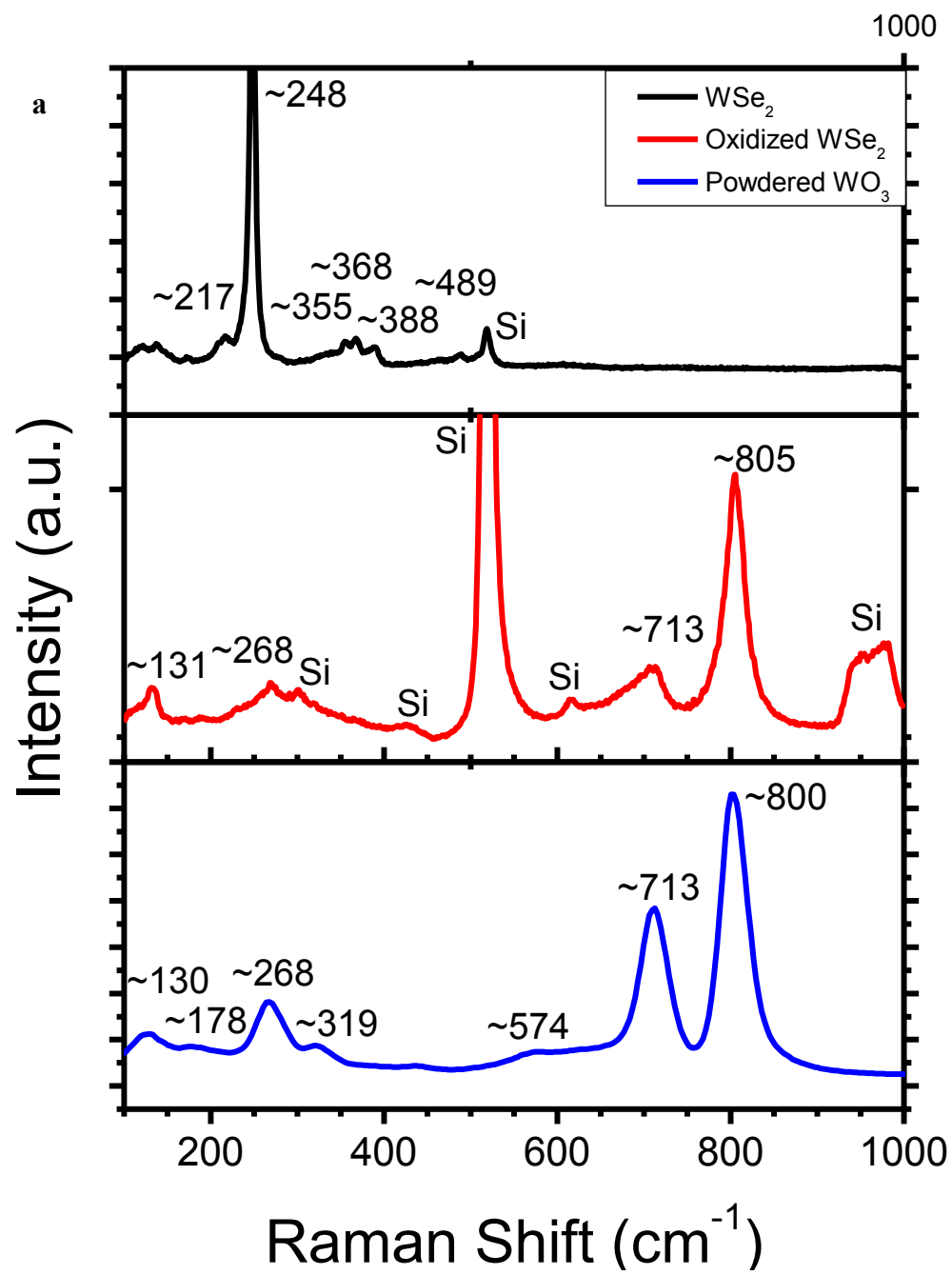


Figure 4.3.

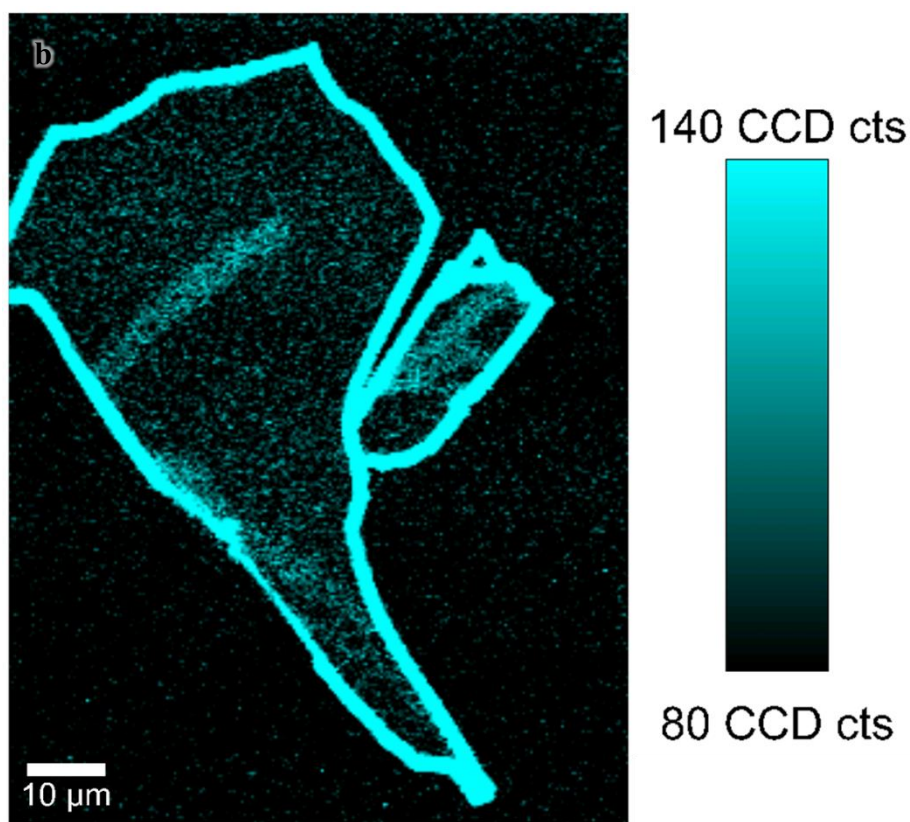


Figure 4.3. Raman characterization of oxidized WSe₂. (a) Raman spectra of unoxidized WSe₂, oxidized WSe₂, and WO₃ powder, from top to bottom. Silicon peaks are as labeled. The oxidized WSe₂ portion retains none of the original signature, and exhibits four modes resembling that of WO₃, which can be identified as Raman modes active in monoclinic (V) and triclinic (VI) WO₃. (b) Raman intensity map summed over the 130 cm⁻¹ peak, the bright regions corresponds to the oxidized regions, as characterized in prior figures.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was used to study the details of the oxidized samples, as shown in **Figure 4.4**, with the assistance of Dr. Karalee Jarvis and Avinash Nayak. It is observed from the mass contrast in the center of the oxidized flake (**Figure 4.4a**), that the layered structures of WSe_2 are left intact. At the junction between WSe_2 and WO_x (**Figure 4.4b**), there is no clear-cut heterojunction. Instead, WSe_2 is observed (towards the bottom of the image) along with the lattice fringes of WO_x , the two distinguished by the lattice spacings, as shown in **Figure 4.4c**. The WSe_2 interlayer distance is measured to be ~ 0.7 nm while the fringes in the WO_x lattice are ~ 0.35 nm. Due to the polycrystalline nature of WO_x , different lattice fringes are observed, as shown in **Figure 4.4d**. The directions of the fringes are outlined by the parallel lines.

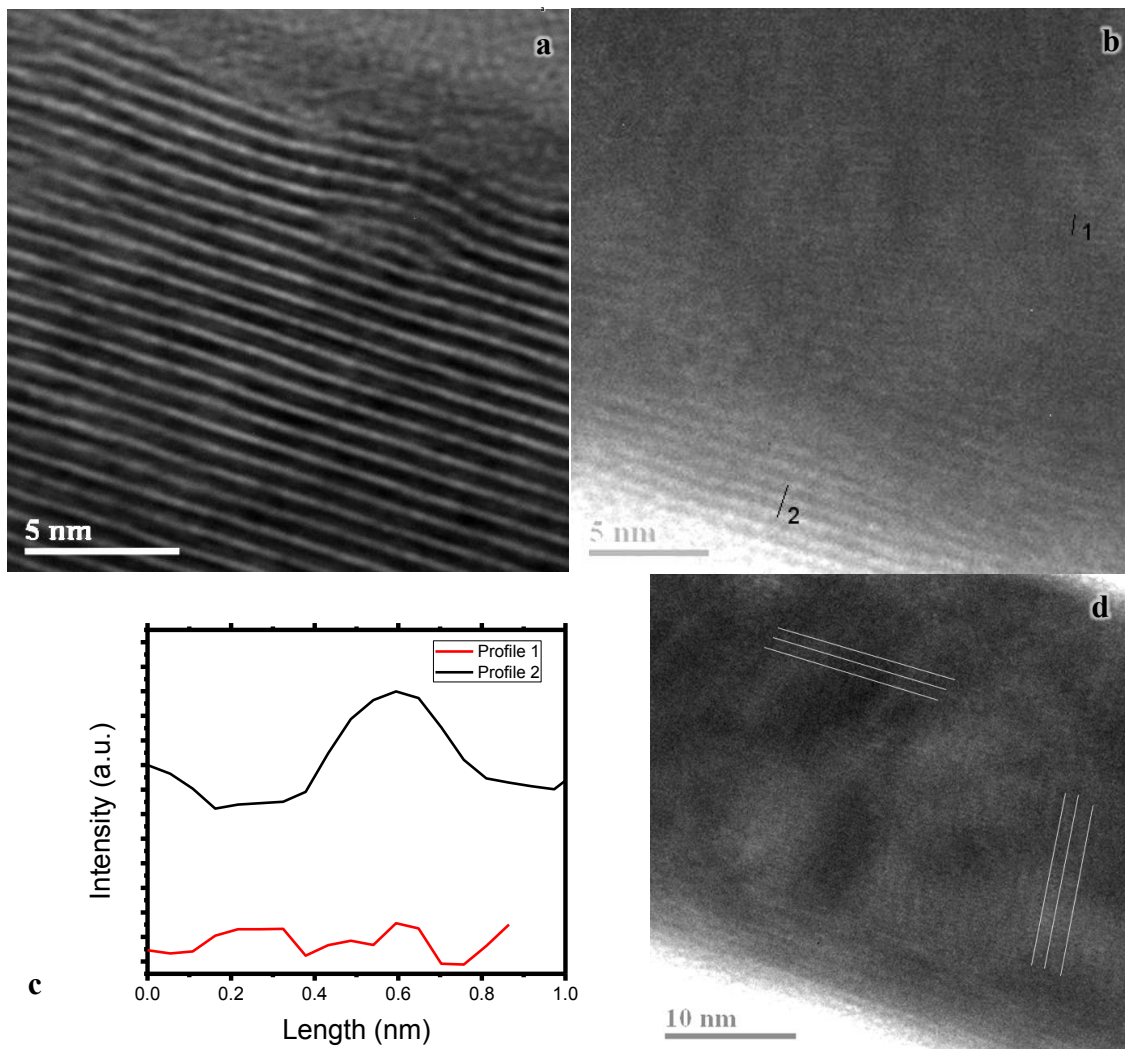


Figure 4.4. TEM characterization of oxidized WSe₂. (a) TEM image of unoxidized area, the lattice fringes of WSe₂ are clearly seen. (b) TEM image of both the WSe₂ (bottom of the image) as well as the WO_x (top of the image), the profiles of which are seen in (c). The profiles show that the interlayer distance of the WSe₂ to be ~0.7 nm whereas the interfringe distance in the WO_x is ~0.35 nm. (d) TEM image of the oxidized region showing the different lattice fringes of the crystals, as outlined by the parallel white lines. These fringes correspond to different planes in the crystals, suggesting that the region is polycrystalline.

Previously in **Figure 4.2**, the MIM map showed for the large flake that the conductivity was higher for the oxidized samples. However, for the smaller flakes, where more of the flake is oxidized, this is not the case. **Figure 4.5a** and **Figure 4.5b** shows the AFM topography image for a WSe₂ flake before and after oxidation. In the center the flake thickness increases from 30 nm to 31 nm whereas at the edge, a decrease in thickness occurs instead. The decrease at the edge of the flake is attributed to the lack of the large distance van der Waals gaps in the WO_x lattice. The slight thickness increase in the center is possibly due to the formation of surface oxides in the uppermost layers, while the van der Waals gap separation is still intact in the WSe₂ layers below. From the imaginary MIM map shown in **Figure 4.5c** and **Figure 4.5d**, the edge oxide shows a decrease in conductivity from the WSe₂, but also a ring of a higher conductivity material closer to the center in the slightly larger flake. This differs from the larger flake in **Figure 4.3**, which only shows the higher conductivity edge (the very edge, however, shows an almost unnoticeable drop in conductivity). This is possibly due to the oxidation starting from the edge towards the center, and the oxide at the edge has had the time to completely oxidize and reorder, whereas near the oxidation front the material may still contain O vacancies or Se impurities, as it has not completely oxidized. The lack of reordering may explain how the higher conductivity region still retains the original thickness of the flake (and even slightly thicker) (shown in **Figure 4.5b**), as well as the Raman signature of WSe₂.

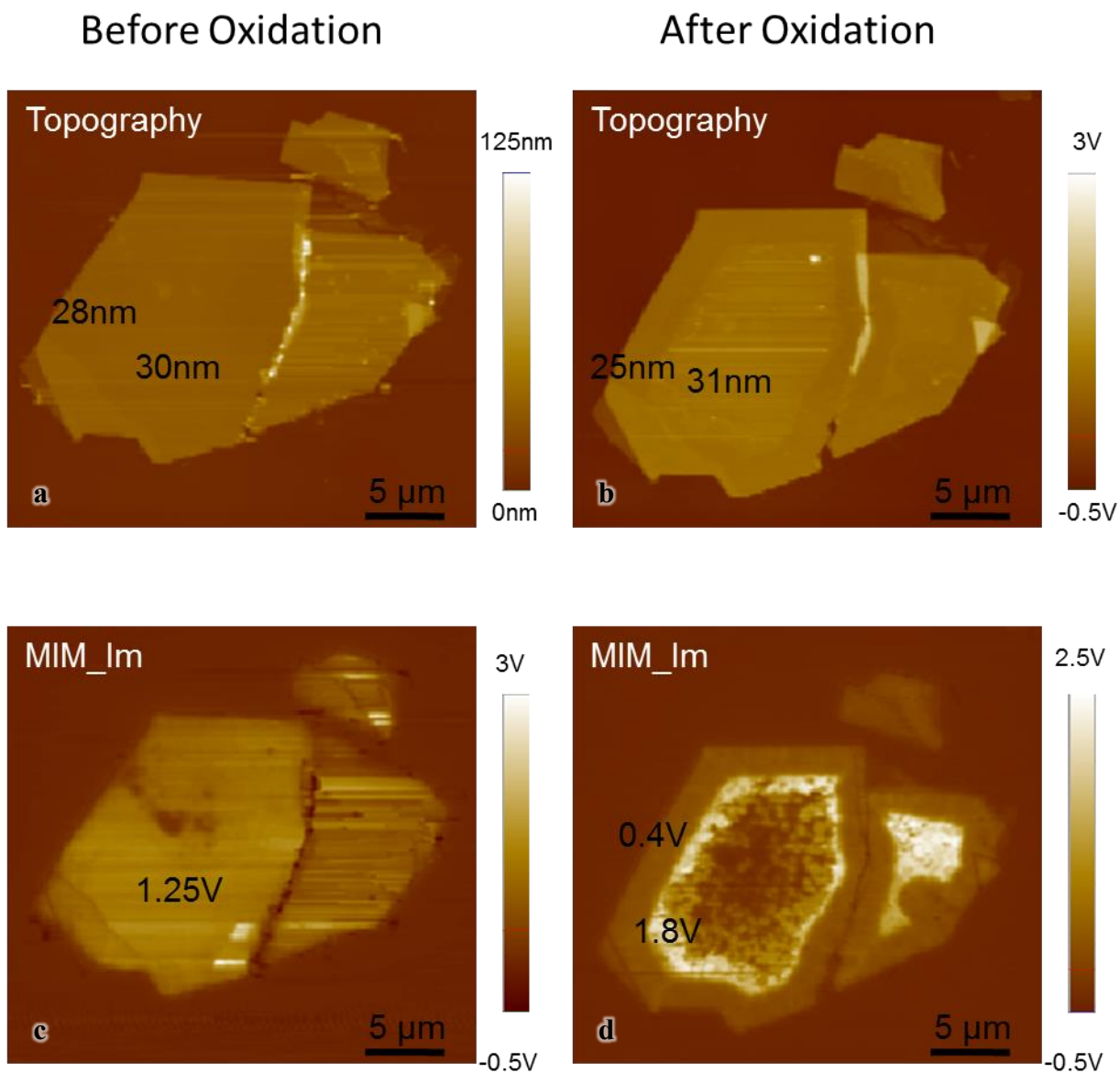


Figure 4.5. AFM and MIM characterization of oxidized WSe_2 . AFM topography images (a) before and (b) after oxidation. A thickness decrease in the oxidized edge is observed, whereas in the center there is a slight increase in thickness, possibly due to surface oxidation. Imaginary MIM maps of WSe_2 flakes (c) before and (d) after oxidation. A decrease in conductivity is seen at the outer edge, whereas there is a ring of higher conductivity around the center in the larger flake.

Chapter 5: Laser Oxidation of WSe₂

In addition to thermal oxidation, it was also found that it is possible to selectively oxidize areas of WSe₂ using a laser at room temperature. The details of the process and the subsequent characterizations are outlined in this chapter.

5.1 SYNTHESIS

A 488 nm laser was used with a WiTec Alpha 300 micro-Raman imaging system to oxidize the exfoliated WSe₂ flakes. Setting the objective to 100x (~250 nm spot diameter) and the laser to ~11 mW output, the power density was calculated to be $\sim 2.24 \times 10^{-4}$ mW/nm². Using this method, it is possible to selectively oxidize areas of interest, presumably through localized heating of the WSe₂ surface. The resulting oxide is referred to as WOx in this section.

Due to the discrete movement of the system stage, lines of oxidation are observed. **Figure 5.1a** shows the AFM map of a WSe₂ flake that was first scanned horizontally and then vertically (bottom of map is unscanned). Trenches are due to the non-uniform oxidation from discrete stage movement. Also, scanning in both directions does not create a checkered pattern. Instead, the region that was scanned horizontally does not appear to experience further oxidation in the subsequent vertical scan. The non-uniformity problem can be alleviated through the changing scan settings via the pixel density. **Figure 5.1a-e** shows the AFM image of scans taken with pixel densities of 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 pixels/um, respectively. The oxidized areas (top of images) are shown to become more uniform with higher pixel densities, at the expense of longer scanning times. At 8 pixels/um, the trenches are only observed at the edges, where the resetting of scan (from +y to -y for every line) direction may have led to the uneven heating in these areas. This problem is solved by alternating the scan direction between every line of the scan, as shown in **Figure 5.1e**, which shows the result of a 8 pixel/um scan using

alternating horizontal scan directions. The profile across the WSe_2/WO_x junction is shown in **Figure 5.1f**, and the oxide is shown to have depressed by ~ 4 nm across the junction (profile in **Figure 5.1g**).

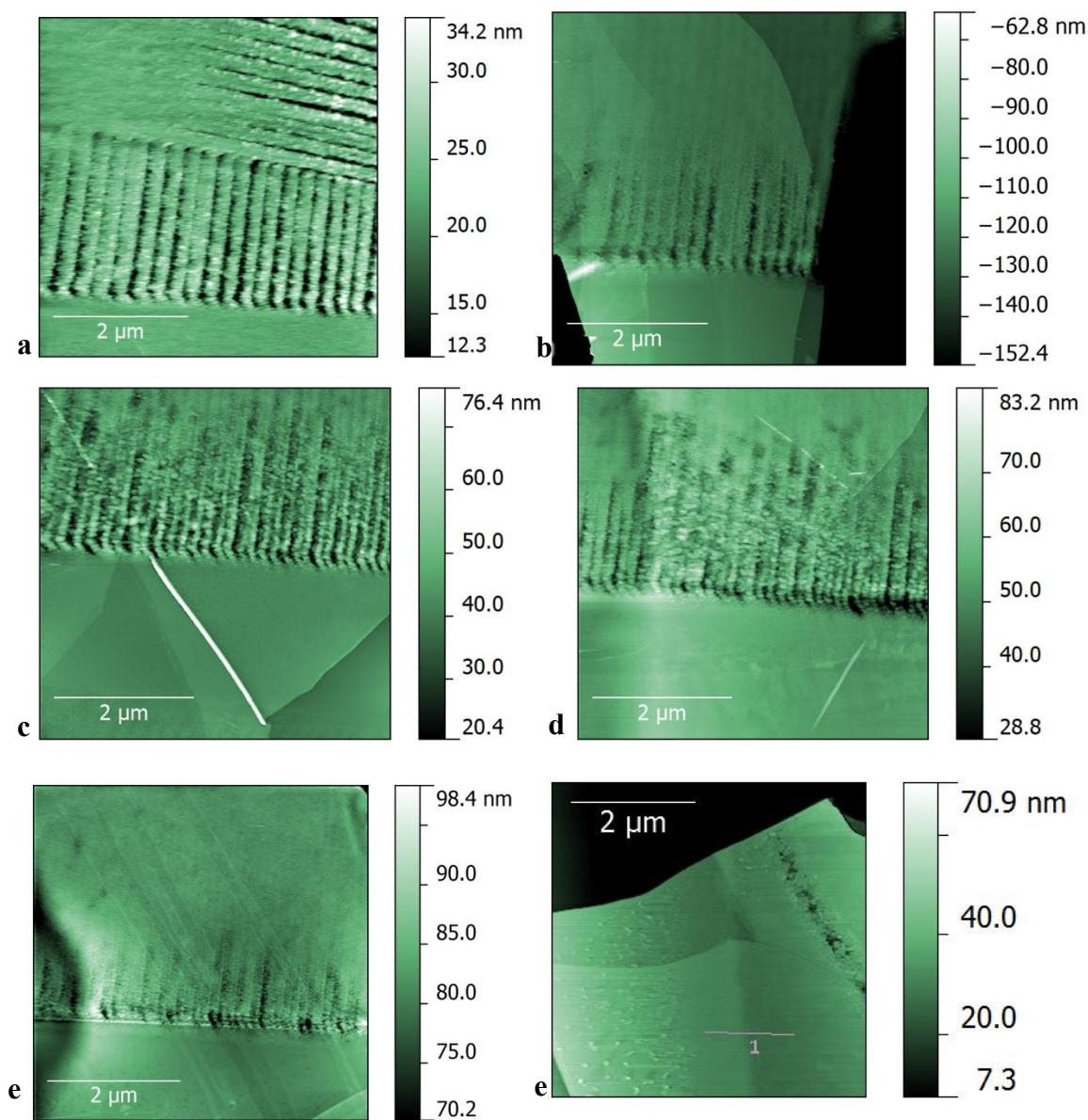


Figure 5.1.

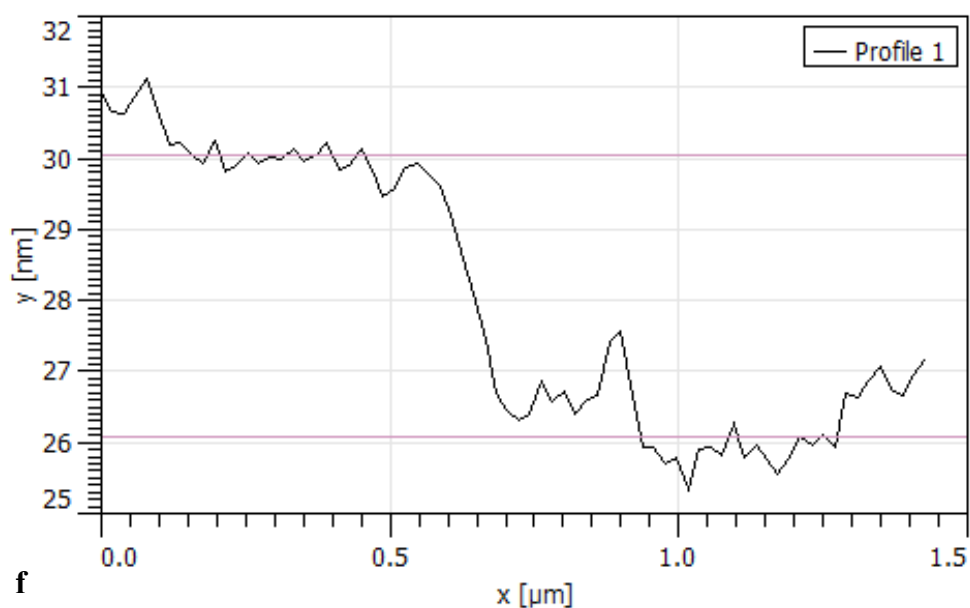


Figure 5.1. AFM characterization of laser oxidized WSe₂. (a) AFM map of a WSe₂ flake scanned first horizontally and then vertically at 4 pixels/um. The trenches from the scan are apparent. Additional vertical scans were done at (b) 5 pixels/um, (c) 6 pixels/um, (d) 7 pixels/um, and (e) 8 pixels/um. With increasing pixel density there is greater uniformity. The trenches near the edge of the scan can be removed by alternating the scan direction between lines, as shown in (f). The profile in (f) is shown in (g), where the vertical distance between the two lines is measured to be ~4 nm.

5.2 CHARACTERIZATION

Figure 5.2a shows a ToFSIMS overlay map of two laser-oxidized WSe₂ flakes. The dark blue represents O⁻, the light blue WO₂⁻, and the red Se⁻. In the unoxidized smaller flakes, only Se⁻ signature was found. For the oxidized flakes, the cross sectional depth profile in **Figure 5.2b** shows that these flakes are not completely oxidized, as Se⁻ is still detected in the bottom most regions.

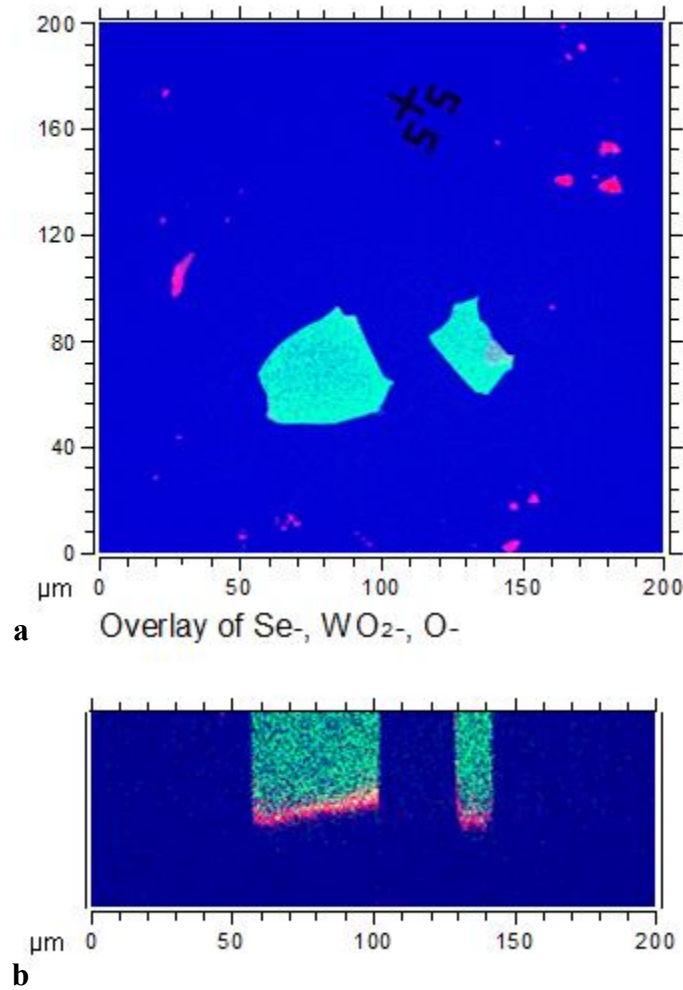


Figure 5.2. (a) ToFSIMS map of laser oxidized flakes, showing the selectivity of the oxidation and the elemental composition. The red represents Se⁻ signature, the blue O⁻, and the light blue WO₂⁻. (b) X-direction cross sectional depth profile of the two oxidized flakes, showing that the bottom of the flakes still contain Se⁻ signature.

Raman spectroscopy of oxidized flakes (**Figure 5.3a**) shows both the $\sim 248\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $\sim 255\text{ cm}^{-1}$ modes of WSe_2 as well as the $\sim 130\text{ cm}^{-1}$, $\sim 707\text{ cm}^{-1}$, and 806 cm^{-1} modes of WO_3 . The Raman spectrum provides additional evidence that the flakes are not completely oxidized. Raman intensity mapping of a partially oxidized flake over the $\sim 806\text{ cm}^{-1}$ peak is shown in **Figure 5.3b**. The unoxidized half of flake is not apparent in the map. The entire flake is shown in the optical image in **Figure 5.3c**, and the oxidized area is optically distinguishable. The contrast between oxidized and unoxidized regions is observed in both the optical image and the MIM maps, as shown in **Figure 5.4** (In collaboration with Prof Keji Lai and Yingnan Liu). From the MIM results, the oxidized region is shown to have a higher conductivity than the semiconducting WSe_2 . A stark contrast exists between the two sides of the 15 nm thick flake.

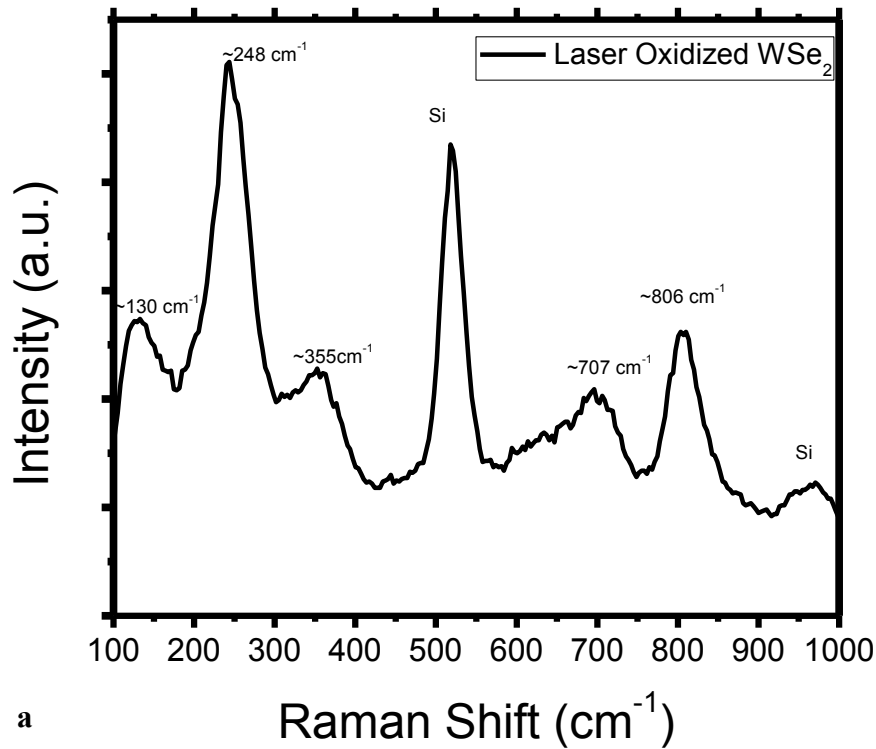


Figure 5.3.

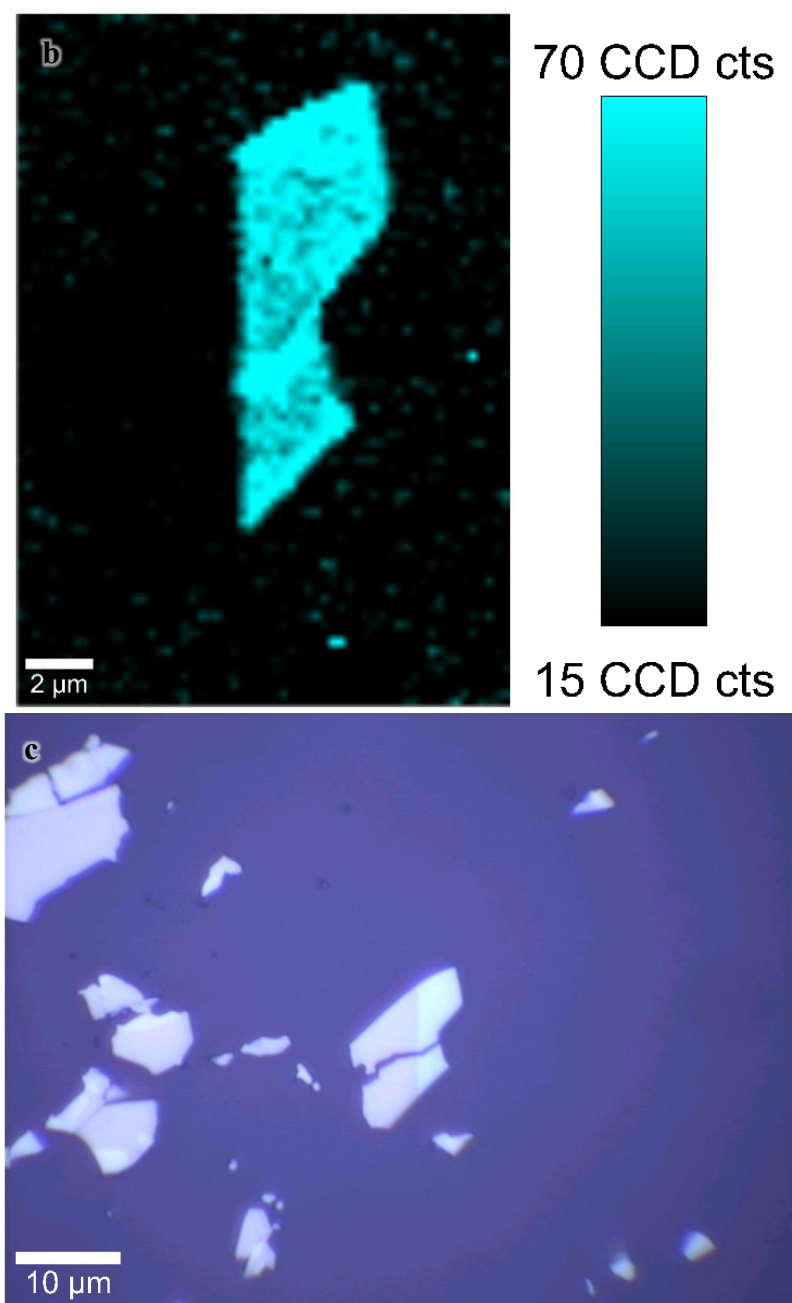


Figure 5.3. (a) Raman spectrum of a typical laser oxidized flake. Both WSe_2 and WO_3 signature are observed. (b) Raman intensity map of the $\sim 806 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ mode of a half oxidized flake, the optical image of which is shown in (c) and a slight optical contrast is observed between the two regions.

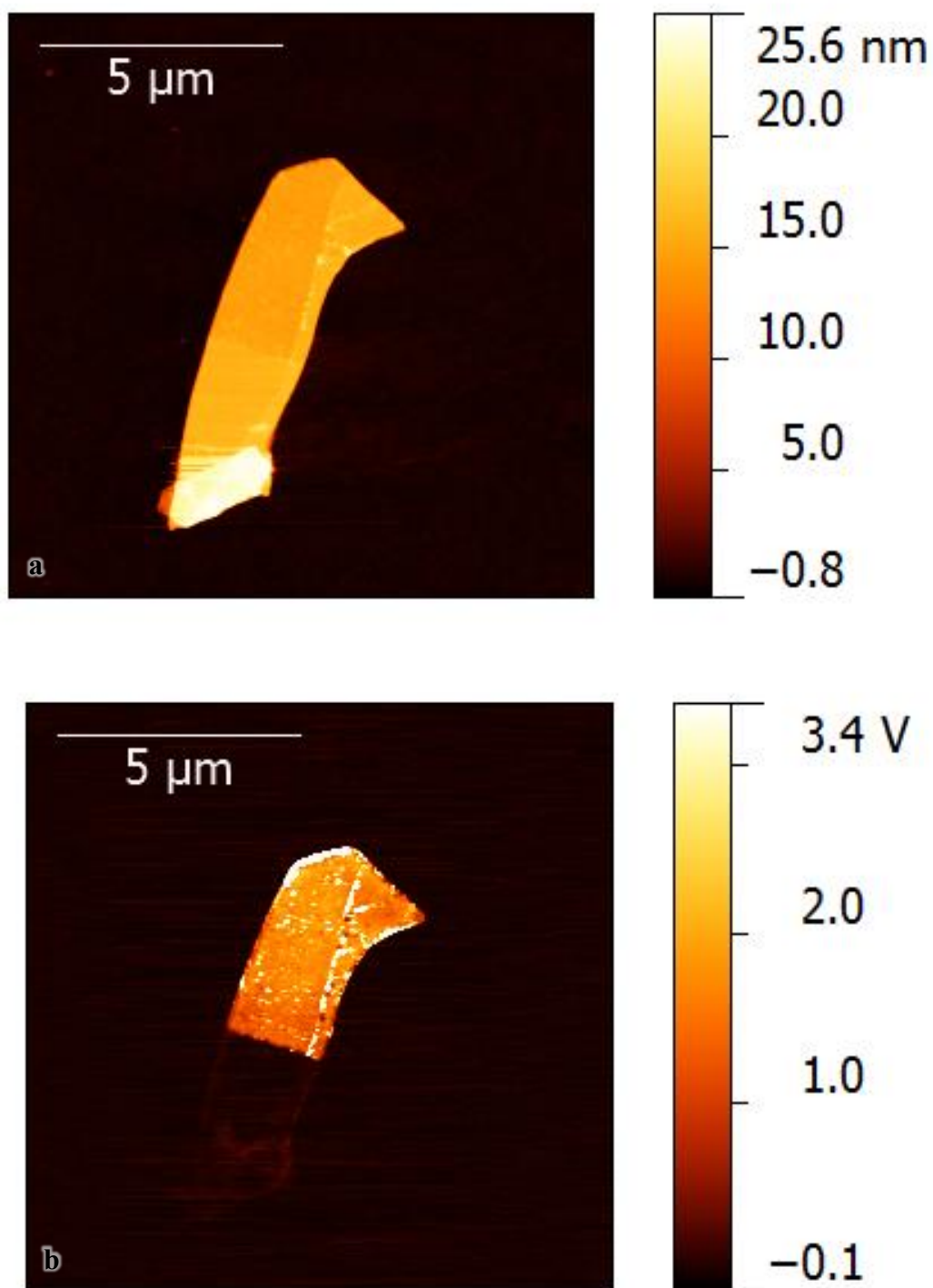


Figure 5.4

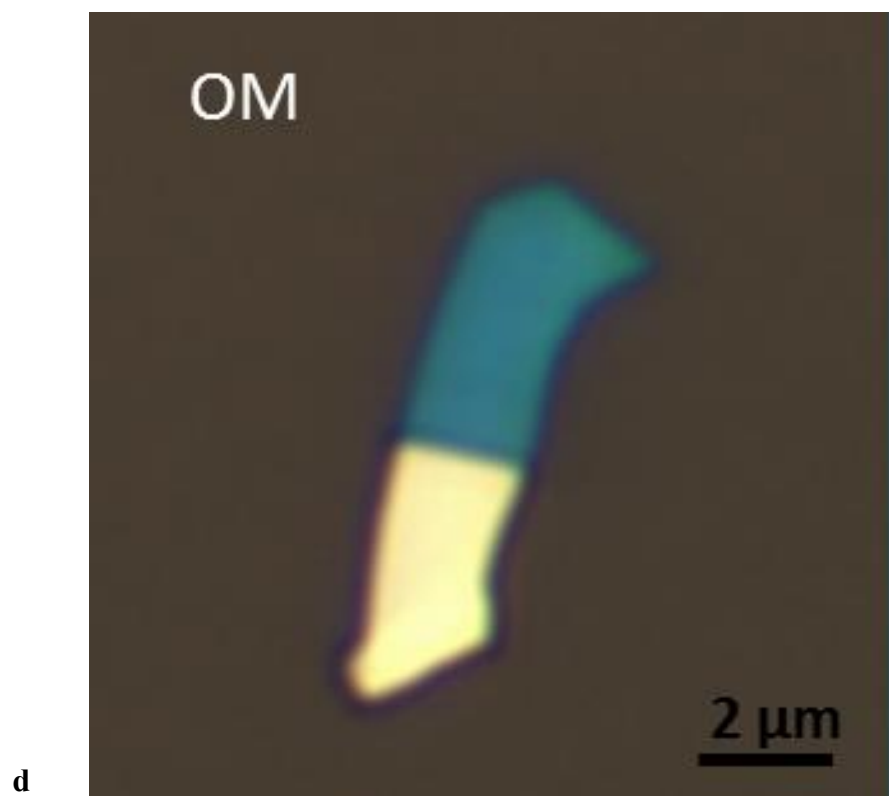
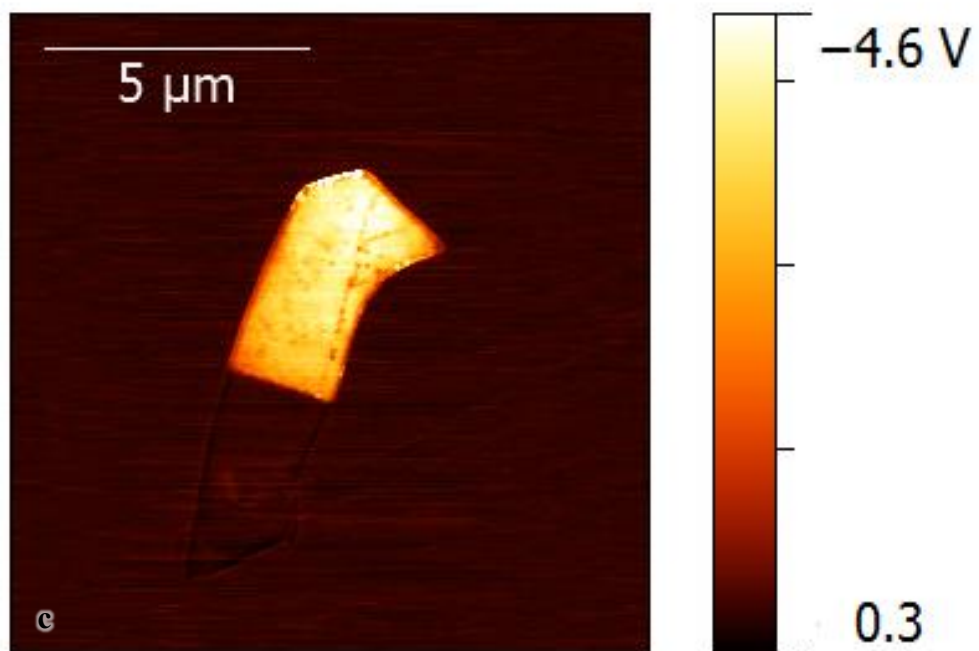


Figure 5.4

Figure 5.4. (a) AFM topography map of a WSe₂ flake with the top half laser oxidized. (b) MIM (b) real and (c) imaginary maps of the oxidized flake. (d) Optical image of the flake, the blue region is the oxidized region.

To further investigate the electronic properties of WOx, four point probes were fabricated on each side of the flake (90 nm SiO₂/Si substrate) using electron beam lithography followed by contact deposition and subsequent lift-off (see Chapter 3.1 for more details). The fabricated device is shown in **Figure 5.5** along with the measured four point sheet resistances of WSe₂, WOx, and the WSe₂/WOx junction as a function of applied back gate voltage V_G as well as drain voltage V_D . The device was measured in a vacuum atmosphere of $\sim 10^{-5}$ mbar. The sheet resistance of the WOx was found to be $\sim 4 \times 10^6 \Omega/\square$ at $V_G = 0$ V and high V_D ($|V_D| > 1.5$ V); the sheet resistance of the junction area was found to be $\sim 2 \times 10^8 \Omega/\square$ while WSe₂ was measured at $\sim 10^{10} \Omega/\square$. This result qualitatively matches that of the MIM map, which shows the semiconducting WSe₂ as less conductive when there are no applied gate voltages. However, by biasing V_G , a $10^6 \sim 10^8$ change is observed in the sheet resistance of WSe₂, depending on the polarity of V_G . When WSe₂ is “on,” the resistance of WSe₂ drops below or approaches that of WOx. While WSe₂ experiences significant gate control, sheet resistance across the junction and WOx show little gate control comparatively.

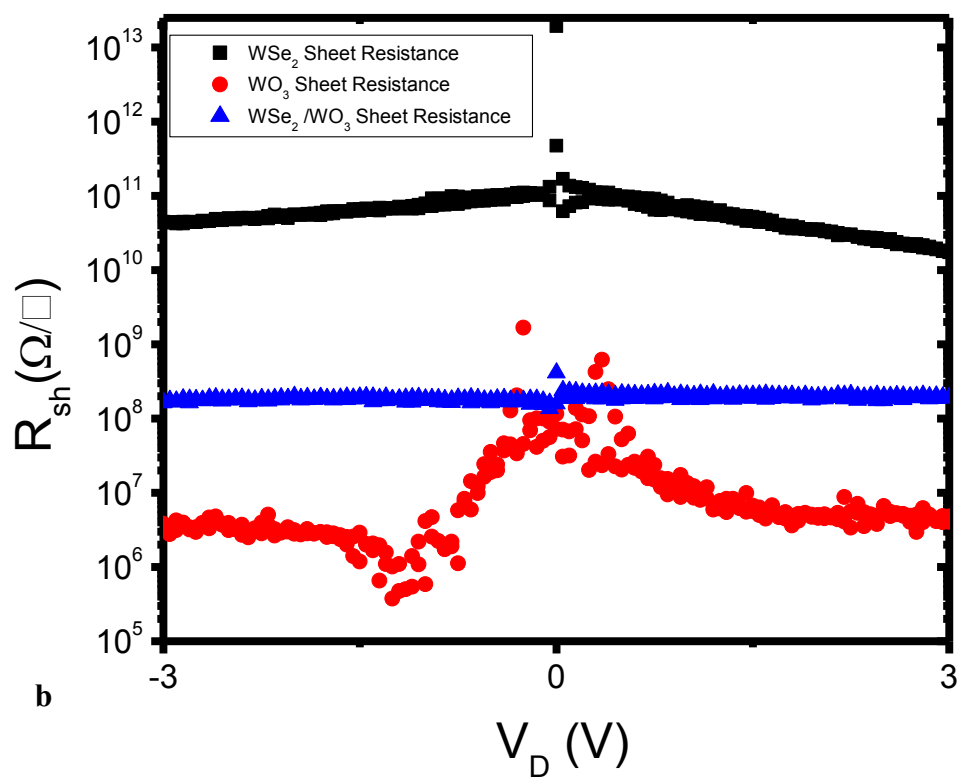
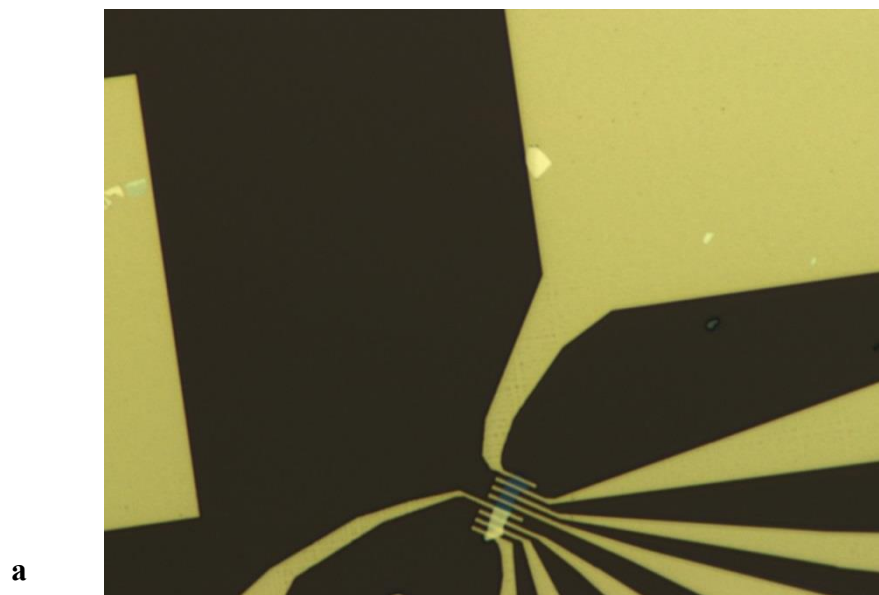


Figure 5.5.

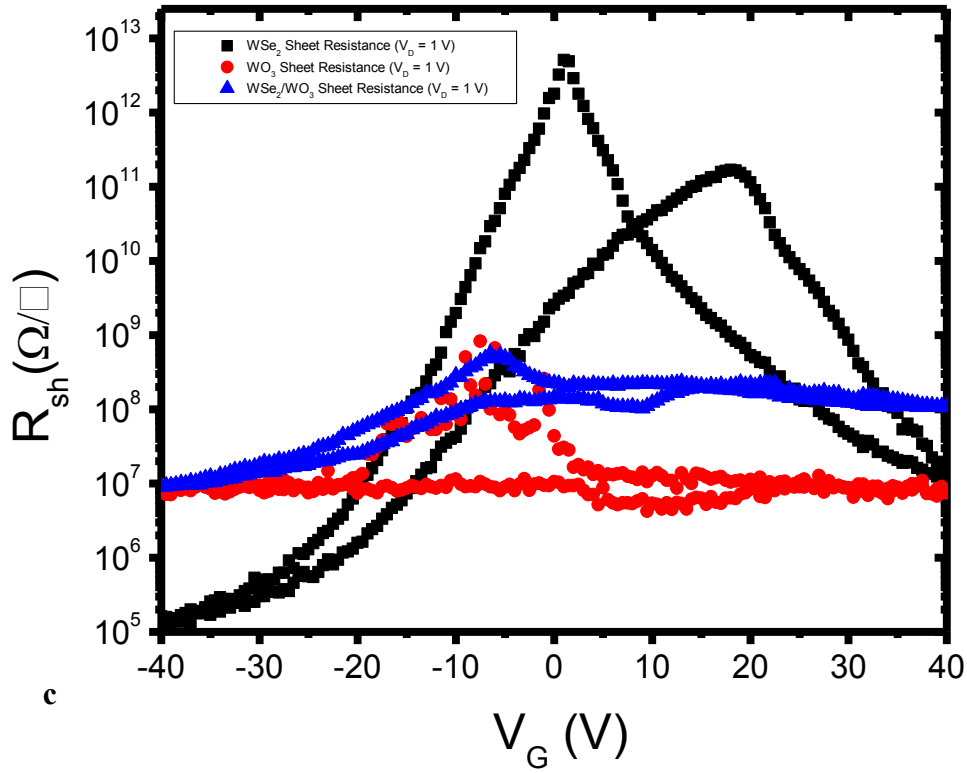


Figure 5.5. (a) Optical image of the device fabricated with Pd four point probes on 90 nm SiO₂/Si. (b) Sheet resistances of the WSe₂, WO_x, and WSe₂/WO_x interface as a function of the drain voltage with no gate bias. WSe₂ is observed to have the highest sheet resistance. (c) Sheet resistance as a function of the gate voltage. WSe₂ sheet resistance experiences significant gate modulation, approaching that of WO_x at 40 V and drops below that of WO_x and -40 V. The other two however, show little gate control comparatively.

Chapter 6: Summary and Future Work

6.1 SUMMARY

This work focused on the characterization and development of WSe₂-based devices and oxide structures. WSe₂ flakes were exfoliated and characterized via Raman spectroscopy, MIM, AFM, etc. These flakes were then fabricated into field effect transistors with Pd contacts using electron beam lithography. The devices fabricated showed both p-type conduction and ambipolar conduction, which varied from device to device. Hysteresis was observed for devices measured in ambient atmosphere, but was greatly decreased for those measured in vacuum. The devices exhibited high on/off ratios on the I_D - V_G curve as well as current saturation on the I_D - V_D curve. The low field carrier mobility was extracted to be $\sim 50 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$ using the Y function method, and the upper limit of the contact resistance was approximated to be $\sim 60 \text{ }\Omega\cdot\text{mm}$.

Exfoliated WSe₂ flakes were also oxidized via thermal oxidation. The oxidation process was characterized to be anisotropic, progressing primarily around the edges and surface defects. TEM revealed the center of the flakes to be unaltered and the edges to be polycrystalline. The oxides were shown to have similar Raman signature as monoclinic (V) and triclinic (VI) WO₃. In addition, MIM shows the oxides to have a higher conductivity at the oxidation front, but the conductivity is then lowered with further oxidation.

This thesis shows that WSe₂ could also be oxidized by a 488 nm Raman laser. The Raman signature is similar to that of the thermally oxidized WSe₂, but the WSe₂ Raman signature is observed to remain, likely due to the underlying unoxidized WSe₂, as shown from ToFSIMS. Using this method, WSe₂ flakes could be selectively oxidized and

patterned. The electrical properties of the materials were measured via MIM and devices. It was observed in both methods that the oxidized region was more conductive than WSe₂ without a back gate voltage applied.

To summarize, the properties of WSe₂ and its derived oxide structures have been studied. Such structures hold future possibilities for integration with WSe₂ based applications.

6.2 FUTURE WORK

Future work would focus on the integration of WO₃ into WSe₂ based applications, such as contact material for devices. Having a WSe₂ derived oxide could also mean WSe₂-based material systems similar to that of the Si/SiO₂ system. This also introduces the possibilities of other TMDC materials and their potential for such material systems. Exploration of other materials and their structures would be a worthwhile direction to pursue. More research could also uncover better processing conditions for the production of these oxides, leading to better quality structures and devices. An additional option to explore is to utilize the electro chromic properties of WO₃.

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