

Electron Irradiation of Metal Contacts in Monolayer MoS₂ Field-Effect Transistors

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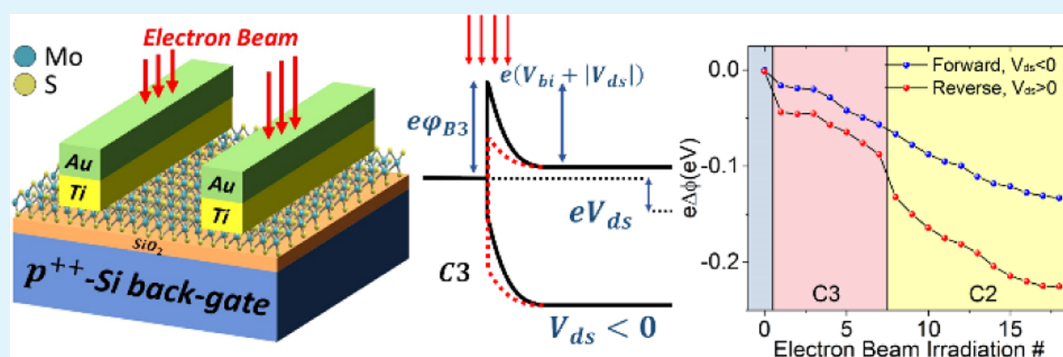


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ABSTRACT: Metal contacts play a fundamental role in nanoscale devices. In this work, Schottky metal contacts in monolayer molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂) field-effect transistors are investigated under electron beam irradiation. It is shown that the exposure of Ti/Au source/drain electrodes to an electron beam reduces the contact resistance and improves the transistor performance. The electron beam conditioning of contacts is permanent, while the irradiation of the channel can produce transient effects. It is demonstrated that irradiation lowers the Schottky barrier at the contacts because of thermally induced atom diffusion and interfacial reactions. The simulation of electron paths in the device reveals that most of the beam energy is absorbed in the metal contacts. The study demonstrates that electron beam irradiation can be effectively used for contact improvement though local annealing.

KEYWORDS: molybdenum disulfide, field-effect transistors, Schottky barrier, scanning electron microscopy, Raman spectroscopy, photoluminescence, electron beam irradiation, electron interactions in solids

INTRODUCTION

Molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂) is one of the most studied transition metal dichalcogenides, owing to its layered structure and useful mechanical, chemical, electronic, and optoelectronic properties.^{1–4} A molybdenum (Mo) atomic plane sandwiched between two sulfur (S) planes constitutes the monolayer that is bonded to other monolayers by weak van der Waals forces to form the bulk material. MoS₂ is a semiconductor suitable for several applications,^{5–9} having a 1.2 eV indirect band gap in the bulk form that widens up to 1.8–1.9 eV and becomes direct in the monolayer.³ Despite the lower field-effect mobility than graphene,^{10,11} ranging from few tenths to hundreds of cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹, MoS₂ field-effect transistors (FETs) have recently become very popular as alternatives to graphene FETs^{12–17} for next-generation electronics based on 2D materials.^{18–25}

The fabrication and characterization of devices based on 2D materials greatly rely on the application of electron beam (e-beam) lithography or focused ion beam processing and on

scanning electron microscopy (SEM) or transmission electron microscopy, which imply irradiation by charged particles. The exposure to low-energy electrons and/or ions can modify the electronic properties of the 2D materials or their interfaces.^{9,17,26} Indeed, structural defects can locally modify the band structure and behave as charge traps, thereby changing the device characteristics both in the case of e-beam^{27,28} and ion beam irradiation.^{29,30} Conversely, electron beam, ion irradiation, or plasma treatments can be intentionally used for nanoincisions,³¹ for pores,³² or to purposely create defects, for instance, to reduce the contact resistance.^{33–35} Choi et al. 44

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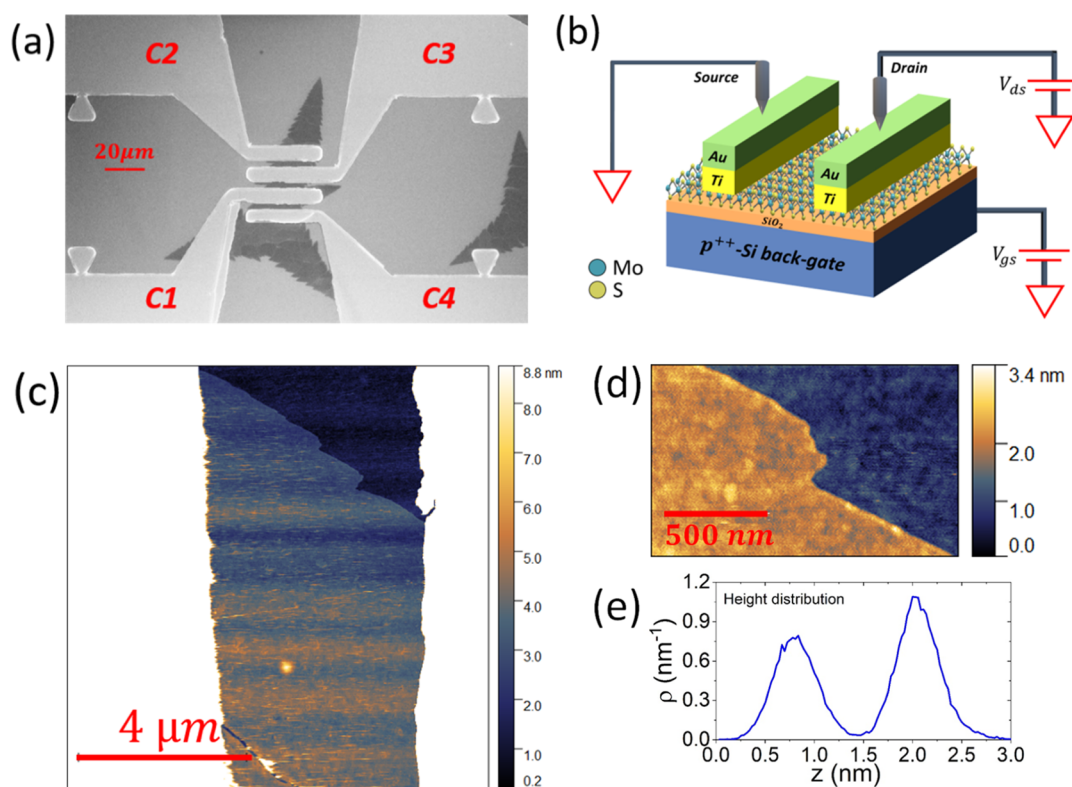


Figure 1. (a) SEM image of the MoS₂ device and contact labels. (b) MoS₂ FET layout and schematic of the common source configuration used for electrical characterization. (c) AFM image of the MoS₂ flake between the electrical contacts, which appear here in white as the scale has been adjusted to properly image the MoS₂ flake. (d) Zoom-in into the upper region of (c), showing that the flake is flat and structurally intact. The rms roughness is 0.221 nm for the SiO₂ substrate and 0.237 nm for MoS₂. (e) Height distribution taken from image (d), yielding a height of ~1.2 nm.

45 reported the effects of 30 keV electron beam irradiation of
 46 monolayer MoS₂ FETs, showing that irradiation-induced
 47 defects act as trap sites by reducing the carrier mobility and
 48 concentration and shifting the threshold voltage.³⁶ A study of
 49 point defects in MoS₂ using SEM imaging and first-principles
 50 calculations, by Zhou et al., demonstrated that vacancies are
 51 created by e-beam irradiation at low energies,³⁷ below 30 keV.
 52 Durand et al. studied the effects of e-beam on the MoS₂-based
 53 FET, reporting an increase in carrier density and a decrease in
 54 mobility explained as irradiation-induced generation of
 55 intrinsic defects in MoS₂ and as Coulomb scattering by
 56 charges at the MoS₂-SiO₂ interface, respectively.³⁸ Giubileo et
 57 al. reported a negative threshold voltage shift and a carrier
 58 mobility enhancement under 10 keV electron irradiation of
 59 few-layer MoS₂ FETs attributed to beam-induced positive
 60 charge trapped in the SiO₂ gate oxide.

61 In this paper, we present the spectroscopic and electrical
 62 characterization of monolayer MoS₂-based FETs, with
 63 Schottky Ti/Au contacts, focusing on the effects of low-energy
 64 e-beam irradiation. We show that the long exposure of the
 65 metal contacts to 10 keV e-beam in a SEM chamber enhances
 66 the transistor's on-current. We explain such an improvement
 67 by radiation-induced lowering of the Schottky barrier at the
 68 metal contacts. We perform Monte Carlo simulation to track
 69 the e-beam through the device and show that when the beam is
 70 focused onto the contacts, most of the beam energy is
 71 absorbed within the metal. The local heat can induce atomic
 72 diffusion and interfacial reactions that change the chemical
 73 composition and structure of the metal-MoS₂ interface or can
 74 generate or release tensile strain. Both effects cause the

lowering of the Schottky barrier and the consequent increase in
 transistor current.

Our study shows that electron beam exposure during SEM
 imaging has non-negligible effects on MoS₂ devices; however,
 it also highlights that a suitable exposure, with the e-beam
 focused on the contact region, can be conveniently exploited to
 reduce the contact resistance of the transistor. Compared to
 thermal annealing, our finding provides a way to improve the
 contact resistance by local conditioning, which avoids the
 exposure of the entire wafer to a high thermal budget.

FABRICATION AND EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

The MoS₂ monolayer flakes were grown via chemical vapor
 deposition in a three-zone split tube furnace, purged with 1000 N
 cm³/min Ar gas for 15 min to minimize the O₂ content. The growth
 SiO₂/Si substrate was spin-coated with a 1% sodium cholate solution;
 then, a saturated ammonium heptamolybdate (AHM) solution was
 first annealed at 300 °C under ambient conditions to turn AHM into
 MoO₃ to be used as the source for molybdenum. The target material
 was placed in a three-zone tube furnace along with 50 mg of S
 powder, positioned upstream in a separate heating zone. The zones
 containing S and AHM were heated to 150 °C and 750 °C,
 respectively. After 15 min of growth, the process was stopped, and
 the sample was cooled rapidly.

We realized FETs using the SiO₂/Si substrate (thickness of the
 dielectric: 285 nm) as the back gate and evaporating the drain and
 source electrodes on selected MoS₂ flakes through standard
 photolithography and lift-off processes. The contacts were made of
 Ti (10 nm) and Au (40 nm) used as adhesion and cover layers,
 respectively. Ti was deposited in high vacuum, which could not
 exclude the formation of TiO₂, contributing to the resistance and
 Schottky barrier at the contacts. Figure 1a,b shows the SEM top view
 of a typical device and its schematic layout and measurement setup.

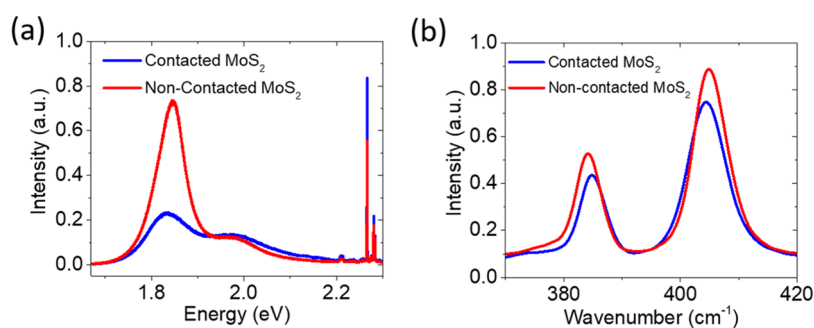


Figure 2. (a) PL and (b) Raman spectrum of monolayer MoS₂ after FET processing. Blue: contacted MoS₂ monolayer flake and red: noncontacted monolayer MoS₂ flake.

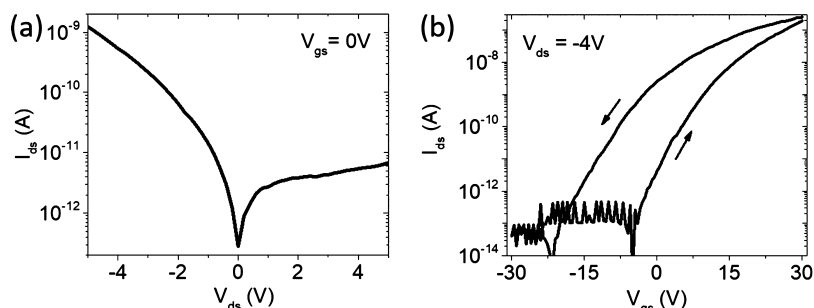


Figure 3. Output (a) and transfer (b) characteristics of the device between C2 and C3 contacts, with C3 used as the drain and C2 as the grounded source.

107 The channel is made up from a monolayer flake [as confirmed by
108 Raman and photoluminescence (PL), see below] of width and length
109 of 20 and 4 μm , respectively, and a nominal thickness of 0.7 nm.
110 Atomic force microscope (AFM) images (Figure 1c,d) show that the
111 flake has an average height of 1.0–1.3 nm (which is typical for single-
112 layer MoS₂ measured in air by AFM) and appears to be extremely flat
113 (roughness rms < 0.25 nm) and structurally intact. There are some
114 contaminants because of the lithography process, which are weakly
115 bound and can be swept by the AFM tip. Contacted and
116 noncontacted flake areas do not differ with respect to contamination
117 density—spectroscopic data should thus be comparable.

118 A total of seven MoS₂ channels of identically prepared FETs have
119 been characterized by Raman and PL spectroscopy just after
120 processing. The measurements were performed with a Renishaw
121 InVia Raman microscope at the Interdisciplinary Center for Analytics
122 on the Nanoscale (ICAN). The excitation laser wavelength was 532
123 nm, and the power density was kept below 0.1 mW/ μm^2 to avoid
124 damage to the MoS₂ flake. Exemplary spectra of Raman character-
125 ization are shown in Figure 2. The chosen reference measurements
126 are spectra obtained from MoS₂ flakes on the same substrate, which
127 were also in contact with the photoresist and various solvents during
128 the processing and lift-off for the production of the FETs, but are not
129 in contact with metal electrodes themselves. The shape of the PL
130 spectra (Figure 2a) and the difference of the Raman modes (Figure
131 2b) differ significantly. The PL intensity (sum of all excitons and
132 trions) for noncontacted MoS₂ flakes is higher by a factor of 1.7 ± 0.8
133 than that for contacted MoS₂. The mode differences for noncontacted
134 and contacted MoS₂ are $21.3 \pm 0.7 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $19.7 \pm 0.7 \text{ cm}^{-1}$,
135 respectively. Both the changes in PL and Raman mode difference can
136 be associated with built-in strain or changes in the electronic
137 properties and the band structure of the MoS₂ sheets.^{39–43} From the
138 linear dependencies of Raman mode positions on doping and
139 strain,^{39,40} we find a reduction of tensile strain by $(0.46 \pm 0.28) \%$ and
140 an increase in electron doping of $0.44 \pm 0.36 \times 10^{13}$ electrons per cm²
141 for the contacted 2D material in comparison with noncontacted MoS₂
142 (details of the calculation method can be found in ref 44). Hence, the
143 significant alterations in the spectroscopic precharacterization of the

MoS₂ channels can be clearly attributed to electronic and structural
changes at the metal contact.

In the following, most of the electrical characterization refers to the
transistor between the contacts labeled C2 and C3 in Figure 1a. The
contact C3 was used as the drain and C2 as the grounded source. The
electrical measurements were carried out inside a SEM chamber
(LEO 1530, Zeiss), endowed with two metallic probes with
nanometer positioning capability, connected to a Keithley 4200
SCS (source measurement units, Tektronix Inc.), at room temper-
ature and a pressure of about 10^{-6} mbar. The e-beam of SEM, set to
10 keV and 10 pA, was used for the time-controlled irradiation of
specific parts of the device.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The output ($I_{\text{ds}}-V_{\text{ds}}$) and the transfer ($I_{\text{ds}}-V_{\text{gs}}$) characteristics
of the transistor are shown in Figure 3a,b, respectively. The
output curve shows rectification with the forward current
appearing at negative V_{ds} , typical of a p-type Schottky diode,
while the transfer characteristic shows an n-type transistor.
This apparently contradictory behavior has been previously
reported for MoS₂ and WSe₂ transistors and explained by the
formation of two back-to-back and possibly asymmetric
Schottky barriers at the contacts.^{45,46} The forward current at
negative V_{ds} is caused by the different contact areas and by the
image force barrier lowering of the forced junction (i.e., the
drain, C3, in our case), while the reverse current at $V_{\text{ds}} > 0 \text{ V}$ is
limited by the grounded junction at the source (C2) contact.
As the barrier lowering is more effective on the forced junction,
the voltage being directly applied to it, the negative bias gives
rise to the higher (apparently forward) current.

After the initial electrical characterization, we performed two
sets of exposures to the SEM electron beam. Each exposure
lasted 300 s, corresponding to a fluence of $\sim 180 \text{ e}^-/\text{nm}^2$, over
a surface of $\sim 100 \mu\text{m}^2$. The two sets of irradiations were
carried out first on the drain contact (C3) and then on the

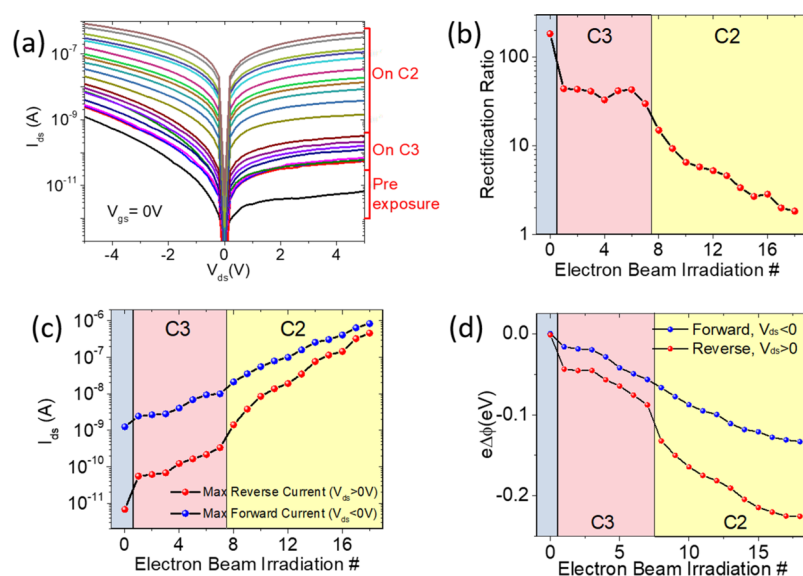


Figure 4. (a) Output characteristics at $V_{gs} = 0$ V of the transistor formed by contacts C2–C3 exposed to two sets of electron irradiations performed first on contact C3 and then on C2. (b) Rectification ratio and (c) maximum forward and reverse current, at $V_{ds} = \pm 5$ V, as a function of the irradiation number. (d) Zero-bias Schottky barrier variation at the contacts C2 and C3 as a function of the irradiation number.

178 grounded source contact (C2). A final exposure of the MoS₂
179 channel to the e-beam was performed as well.

180 **Figure 4** summarizes the obtained results. The I_{ds} – V_{ds}
181 curves were measured at the end of each irradiation, ~ 120 s
182 after the blanking of the e-beam, to allow cooling down.
183 Starting from the bottom (black) line in **Figure 4a**,
184 representing the output curve of the unexposed device, the
185 current increases with the e-beam exposures. We note two
186 major discontinuities in the sequence of I_{ds} – V_{ds} curves,
187 corresponding to the start of the two irradiations sets. These
188 gaps are likely due to the uncontrolled exposure of the whole
189 device during the selection of the drain (C3) and grounded
190 source (C2) contact areas for the respective irradiation sets.

191 A different behavior of the forward with respect to the
192 reverse current can be observed in **Figure 4a**, and a distinction
193 of the effects of the irradiations on the drain (C3) and the
194 grounded source (C2) can be made. Although the irradiation
195 of the drain increases both the forward and the reverse
196 currents, keeping the rectification ratio almost constant (see
197 **Figure 4 b**), the irradiation of the source augments the reverse
198 current in a faster way, rendering the output curves more
199 symmetric. **Figure 4b** shows that repeated irradiations of the
200 drain contact (C3) do not change the rectification ratio (at V_{ds}
201 = ± 5 V), while the irradiation of the grounded source contact
202 (C2) dramatically decreases the rectification ratio. **Figure 4c**
203 shows that the maximum reverse and forward currents, at $V_{ds} =$
204 ± 5 V, have different variation rates when the irradiation is
205 either on the drain or source. Noticeably, **Figure 4c** shows that
206 the increase in both the reverse and forward currents is an
207 exponential function of the fluence, which is proportional to
208 and can be parametrized by the irradiation number.

209 As the shape and the current intensity of the output
210 characteristics are related to the Schottky barrier heights at the
211 contacts, the exponentially increasing current and the changing
212 rectification ratio point to radiation-induced Schottky barrier
213 lowering. The energy release in the metal contacts can modify
214 the chemistry of the metal–MoS₂ interface or create stress and
215 defects that can lead to a lowering of the barrier and
216 consequent contact resistance reduction. We note that the

reduction of contact resistance by chemical reactions between
the metal contacts and MoS₂ channel has been reported for the
metal deposited under ultrahigh vacuum⁴⁷ and contact laser
annealing.⁴⁸ A disordered, compositionally graded layer,
composed of Mo and Ti_xS_y species, forms on the surface of
the MoS₂ crystal following the deposition of Ti, and thermal
annealing in the 100–600 °C temperature range can cause Ti
diffusion inducing further chemical and structural changes at
the Ti–MoS₂ interface.^{49,50} It is also possible that diffusion of
Au atoms to the interface with MoS₂ occurs under the
energetic electron beam irradiation. Au does not react with
MoS₂ but reduces the contact resistance and therefore the
Schottky barrier height.⁵¹

Similarly, tensile strain has been demonstrated to induce
considerable Schottky and tunneling barrier lowering.⁵²

A Schottky barrier of ~ 0.2 eV is formed by several metals on
MoS₂ because of Fermi level pinning below the MoS₂
conduction band.^{53–55} Density functional theory calculations
have indicated that the pinning at the metal–MoS₂ interface is
different from the well-known Bardeen pinning effect, metal-
induced gap states, and defect/disorder-induced gap states,
which are applicable to traditional metal–semiconductor
junctions. At metal–MoS₂ interfaces, the Fermi level is pinned
either by a metal work function modification due to interface
dipole formation arising from the charge redistribution or by
the production of gap states mainly of Mo d-orbitals,
characterized by the weakened intralayer S–Mo bonding
because of the interface metal–S interaction.^{56,57} The observed
decrease in the Schottky barrier by e-beam irradiation, up to its
complete disappearance, supports the occurrence of interface
modifications that cause Fermi level depinning.

As the forward current at $V_{ds} < 0$ V is limited by the
Schottky barrier at the drain contact (C3), while the reverse
current at $V_{ds} > 0$ V is limited by the Schottky barrier at the
grounded source contact C2 (which are the reverse-biased
junctions for negative and positive V_{ds} , respectively), the
output curves of **Figure 4a**, which correspond always to reverse
current, can be used to extract the behavior of the Schottky
barriers as a function of the fluence (i.e., the e-beam irradiation

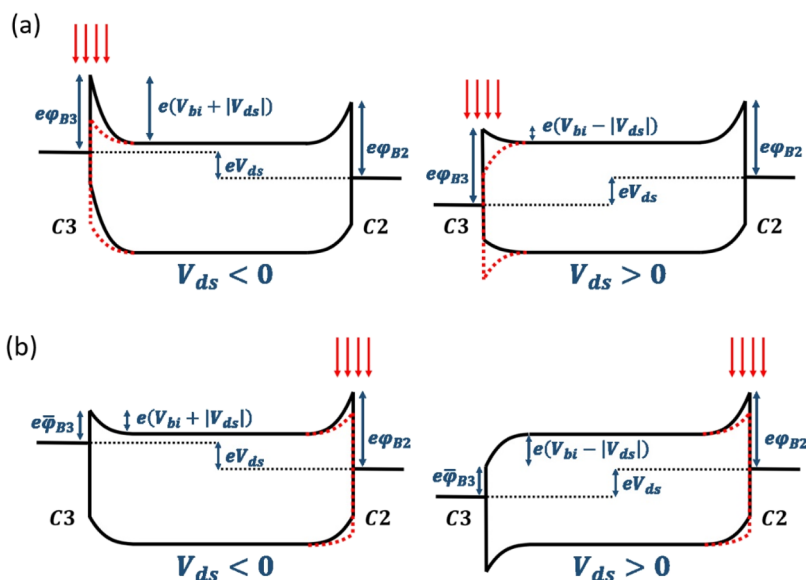


Figure 5. Low-bias energy band diagrams (black) and their modification under electron irradiation (red) of C3 (a) and of C2 (b) contacts resulting in barrier lowering ($\bar{\varphi}_B$).

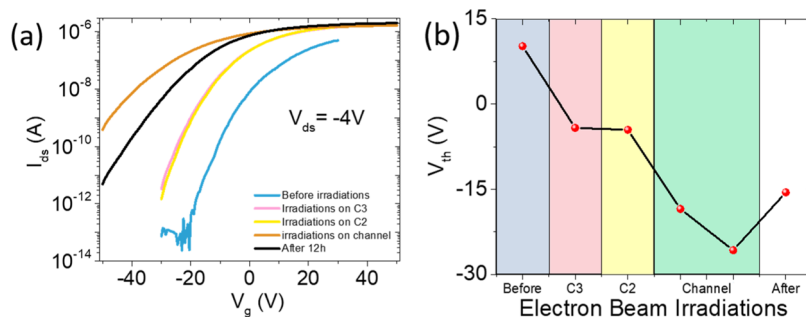


Figure 6. (a) FET transfer characteristics at $V_{ds} = -4$ V before and after e-beam irradiations of contacts C3 and C2 and of the channel. (b) Left shift of the threshold voltage extrapolated from the transfer characteristics over the e-beam exposure.

256 number). Let us consider the thermionic current through a
257 reverse-biased Schottky barrier^{58,59}

$$I_n = I_{sn} [e^{eV_a/nkT} - 1] = [SA_{2D}^* T^{3/2} e^{-e\varphi_{Bn}/kT}] [e^{eV_a/nkT} - 1] \quad (1)$$

$$\approx -SA_{2D}^* T^{3/2} e^{-e\varphi_{Bn}/kT}$$

259 where φ_{Bn} and I_{sn} are the barrier height and the reverse
260 saturation current at the n-th e-beam irradiation, S is the
261 junction area, A_{2D}^* is the 2D Richardson constant, k is the
262 Boltzmann constant, T is the temperature, n is the ideality
263 factor, and V_a is the negative voltage across the barrier that
264 makes $e^{eV_a/nkT} \approx 0$. Let us define I_0 as the reverse saturation
265 current before e-beam exposure, that is, associated to the
266 maximum barrier height φ_{B0} . To avoid the effect of bias which
267 can induce image-force barrier lowering,⁶⁰ both I_n and I_0 are
268 obtained by extrapolating the measured currents to zero bias.
269 Then, eq 1 can be used to evaluate the variation of the
270 Schottky barrier, $\Delta\varphi_{Bn} = \varphi_{Bn} - \varphi_{B0}$, as a function of the
271 irradiation number

$$\ln\left(\frac{I_n}{I_0}\right) = -\frac{e\Delta\varphi_{Bn}}{kT} \rightarrow \Delta\varphi_{Bn} = -\frac{kT}{e} \ln\left(\frac{I_n}{I_0}\right) \quad (2)$$

273 The zero-bias Schottky barrier variation, $\Delta\varphi_{Bn}$, is shown in
274 Figure 4d for both source (C2) and drain (C3) contacts. The
275 overall reduction of both barriers is comparable to the

276 expected initial barrier height based on Fermi level pinning,²⁷⁶
277 meaning that the long irradiation can completely remove the
278 barriers. The plot indicates that the two barriers behave
279 differently for the irradiation of C2 or C3. Although the beam
280 irradiation of either contact results in a lowering of both
281 Schottky barriers, the barrier decrease is faster for the
282 irradiation of the grounded source. Besides, the Schottky
283 barrier at the source contact is the most affected by the
284 irradiation of the source.

285 To explain these results, we propose the model based on the
286 energy band diagrams, shown in Figure 5. A negative (positive)
287 voltage applied to the drain contact (C3) causes an upward
288 (downward) shift of the energy bands in the drain region.
289 Electron beam irradiation of the contact lowers the Schottky
290 barrier and the relative built-in potential, as shown by the red
291 dashed lines in Figure 5. The reduction of a Schottky barrier
292 and of its associated built-in potential, at the irradiated contact,
293 results also in the lowering of the unexposed barrier, which can
294 experience a stronger potential drop because of the reduced
295 contact resistance of the first contact. Figure 5a represents the
296 situation in which the e-beam is focused on the biased drain
297 contact (C3). At $V_{ds} < 0$ V, the current is limited mainly by the
298 drain contact barrier which is lowered by the successive
299 irradiations, causing the exponential increase in maximum
300 forward current. At $V_{ds} > 0$ V, the current is limited by the un-

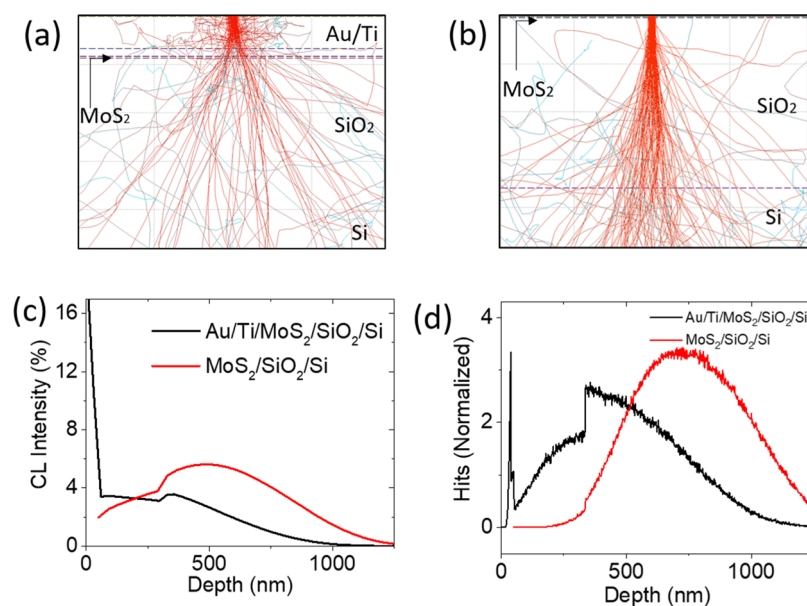


Figure 7. Monte Carlo simulation using CASINO v2 of e-beam irradiation of the device (a) contacts and (b) of the MoS₂ channel. (c) Simulated cathodoluminescence intensity through the sample, with the e-beam focused onto contacts and onto the flake. (d) Simulation of the electron's penetration depth through the sample.

irradiated source contact (C2) barrier, and its dependence on the irradiation cycle is caused by the lowering of the built-in potential at the drain (C3). As the barrier and built-in lowering are the same, the rectification ratio remains almost constant. For irradiation of the grounded source (C2, Figure 5b), the current increases because of a similar mechanism, with the difference that the drain contact barrier limits the current for $V_{ds} > 0$ V to a lesser extent, having been already irradiation-lowered. Therefore, the reverse current increases faster with the repeated irradiation and the rectification ratio decreases.

The effect of irradiation on the transfer characteristic of the transistor is shown in Figure 6 and confirms the radiation-induced increase in channel current. Besides, Figure 6a shows that the e-beam, independent of onto which contact it is focused on, causes a left shift of the transfer curve. Such a shift corresponds to a decrease in threshold voltage, defined as the x-axis intercept of the linear fit of the transfer curve on the linear scale. The threshold voltage as a function of the irradiation is displayed in Figure 6b. Although the e-beam exposure of the contacts provokes a left shift (the transfer curves are taken at the end of the two irradiation sets on the drain (C3) and grounded source (C2)), further left shift of the threshold voltage is observed when two successive irradiations are performed in the channel region.

The observed negative shift of the threshold voltage has been reported and discussed before.²⁷ It can be explained by the pile-up of positive charge in trap states of the SiO₂ gate dielectric or at the SiO₂-Si interface. The e-beam exposures produce electron-hole pairs in the SiO₂ gate oxide and in the Si substrate: although mobile electrons are easily swept by the applied bias, the positive charges can be stored for long times.²⁷ The positive charge storage acts as an extra gate (similarly to the gating effect under light irradiation^{61,62}) and enhances the n-type doping of the channel.

Indeed, Figure 6 shows that there is a slight recovery of the threshold voltage after 12 h of annealing at room temperature. However, we highlight that, as demonstrated by Figure 6a, the maximum channel current, which is limited by the contact

resistances, remains unchanged after annealing, demonstrating that the irradiation-induced improvement of the contacts is permanent.

To further confirm our model, we performed a Monte Carlo simulation to track the path of the electrons under the contacts and in the channel region (Figure 7a,b), using the CASINO software package.⁶³⁻⁶⁵ We simulated a 10 keV beam with one million electrons and a radius beam of 10 nm. The cathodoluminescence spectrum (Figure 7c) shows that electrons lose their energy and are stopped (Figure 7d) mostly in the Ti/Au metal stack, while they reach and are absorbed in the Si substrate when the irradiation is on the channel. The high release of energy in the metal contacts, similarly to thermal annealing,^{66,67} induces Ti-MoS₂ reactions and creates contact with the reduced Schottky barrier and contact resistance. Conversely, when we directly irradiate the MoS₂ channel, energy is prevalently adsorbed in the Si bulk and its effect manifests only through the positive charge traps generated in the SiO₂ layer.

CONCLUSIONS

We investigated the effects of 10 keV electron beam irradiation of the Schottky metal contacts in MoS₂-based FETs. Spectroscopic analysis by Raman and PL shows that the presence of metal contacts changes the properties of monolayer MoS₂ with respect to strain and doping. The electrical measurements revealed that electron beam irradiation improves the device conductance, reduces the rectification of the output characteristic, and causes a left shift of the threshold voltage. To explain such a feature, we propose that the energy absorbed in the metal contacts induces atomic diffusion and interfacial reactions that lower the Schottky barrier at the contacts and improve the contact resistance. We corroborate our model by direct measurement of the Schottky barrier height variation and by simulation of the electron trajectories in the contact regions.

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