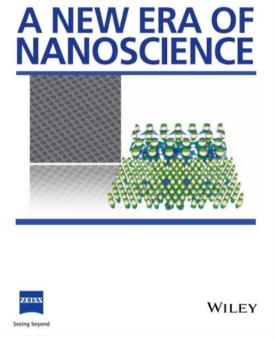
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Substitutionally Doped MoSe₂ for High-Performance Electronics and Optoelectronics

Fang Zhong, Jiafu Ye, Ting He,* Lili Zhang,* Zhen Wang, Qing Li, Bo Han, Peng Wang, Peisong Wu, Yiye Yu, Jiaxiang Guo, Zhenhan Zhang, Meng Peng, Tengfei Xu, Xun Ge, Yang Wang, Hailu Wang, Muhammad Zubair, Xiaohao Zhou, Peng Gao, Zhiyong Fan, and Weida Hu*

2D materials, of which the carrier type and concentration are easily tuned, show tremendous superiority in electronic and optoelectronic applications. However, the achievements are still quite far away from practical applications. Much more effort should be made to further improve their performance. Here, p-type MoSe₂ is successfully achieved via substitutional doping of Ta atoms, which is confirmed experimentally and theoretically, and outstanding homojunction photodetectors and inverters are fabricated. MoSe₂ p-n homojunction device with a low reverse current (300 pA) exhibits a high rectification ratio (10⁴). The analysis of dark current reveals the domination of the Shockley-Read-Hall (SRH) and band-toband tunneling (BTB) current. The homojunction photodetector exhibits a large open-circuit voltage (0.68 V) and short-circuit currents (1 µA), which is suitable for micro-solar cells. Furthermore, it possesses outstanding responsivity (0.28 A W⁻¹), large external quantum efficiency (42%), and a high signal-to-noise ratio ($\approx 10^7$). Benefiting from the continuous energy band of homojunction, the response speed reaches up to 20 µs. Besides, the Ta-doped MoSe₂ inverter exhibits a high voltage gain (34) and low power consumption (127 nW). This work lays a foundation for the practical application of 2D material devices.

1. Introduction

2D materials have attracted lots of attention to electronic and optoelectronic devices owing to van der Waals interaction, large carrier mobility, and large absorption coefficients. Among enormous 2D materials, transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDCs) have been deeply explored, due to the moderate bandgap, tunable conductance type, and good stability.^[1-3] A variety of functional TMDC electronic and optoelectronic devices are fabricated and reported, such as photodetectors and inverters. Graphene/MoTe₂/graphene device and WSe₂/MoS₂ device have been demonstrated with high responsivity.^[4-5] MoS₂/WS₂ device and WSe₂/Bi₂Te₃ device show fast response.^[6,7] Inverters based on MoS₂/BP or MoTe₂ junction have been reported with high gain.^[8,9] Despite vast achievements realized, most of them are composed of heterojunctions according to the general conduction types of TMDCs.

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State Key Laboratory of Infrared Physics Shanghai Institute of Technical Physics Chinese Academy of Sciences Shanghai 200083, China E-mail: heting@ucas.ac.cn; zhanglili@mail.sitp.ac.cn; wdhu@mail.sitp.ac.cn F. Zhong

School of Physical Science and Technology ShanghaiTech University

Shanghai 201210, China

F. Zhong, J. Ye, T. He, L. Zhang, Z. Wang, P. Wang, P. Wu, H. Wang, W. Hu

School of Electronic, Electrical and Communication Engineering University of Chinese Academy of Sciences Beijing 100049, China

The ORCID identification number(s) for the author(s) of this article can be found under https://doi.org/10.1002/smll.202102855.

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T. He, Q. Li, W. Hu Hangzhou Institute for Advanced Study University of Chinese Academy of Sciences Hangzhou 310024, China B. Han, P. Gao Electron Microscopy Laboratory and International Center for Quantum Materials School of Physics Peking University Beijing 100871, China P. Gao Collaborative Innovation Centre of Quantum Matter Beijing 100871, China 7 Fan Department of Electronic and Computer Engineering The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology Hong Kong 999077, China



However, heterojunctions based on the general conduction types of TMDCs commonly limit the performance of devices and their further widespread applications. For example, a large band offset of 2D material heterojunction devices severely hinders carrier transport and further leads to poor optoelectronic performance with a low responsivity and slow response speed. In this regard, homojunction devices are desired and considered as a great potential candidate for excellent optoelectronic devices.

Modulation of conduction type is the key technology for homojunction, and many doping methods are developed. A popular and common way is the external field modulation, such as the gateinduced electric field or ferroelectric field.^[10,11] The field-induced method flexibly modulates conduction type. However, the applied gate limits the device size and increases the power consumption of electric circuits. Surface functionalization is also used to switch conduction types via chemical treatment.^[12] However, the stability of chemical treatment needs further improvement. Above doping methods are more effective for thinner flakes. Compared with the external field modulation and chemical treatment, substitutional doping during the growth process of 2D materials is a more effective and stable method.^[13-15] Mo-doped ReS₂ photodiode shows a rectification ratio of 150.^[16] The photodetector based on Sb-doped SnS2 exhibits a response time of less than 8 ms.^[17] Ta-doped WSe₂ was synthesized and the corresponding homojunction photodetector was reported with a response speed of 38.9 µs but a low responsivity of 95 mA W⁻¹.^[18] Chee et al. realized F-doped MoS₂ and utilized it to fabricate an inverter with the gain of 8.2.^[19] Despite the aforementioned achievements, it is still urgent to further improve the performance of electronic and photoelectronic devices for further applications.

Here, we demonstrate excellent homojunction photodetectors and inverters based on the synthesized n-type MoSe₂ and p-type MoSe₂ via Ta doping. By gradually increasing the percentage of Ta element, the conductance type of the grown $MoSe_2$ crystals changes from n-type to ambipolar, and to p-type, while the crystal structure of $MoSe_2$ remains unchanged. A high-performance homojunction photodetector, consisting of n-type and p-type $MoSe_2$, is achieved. The photodetector operates under zero bias voltage and zero gate voltage, which means that it can serve as a low power consumption device. Thanks to the homojunction, it exhibits a high external quantum efficiency (EQE) of up to 42% and responsivity of 0.28 A W⁻¹. The open-circuit voltage reaches up to 0.68 V. Simultaneously, it operates fast with the rise and fall time of 34 and 20 μ s, respectively. Additionally, the inverter based on the synthesized $MoSe_2$ exhibits a high voltage gain of 34. Importantly, its power consumption is merely 126 nW. Our work exhibits the unique advantages of element doping and paves the way toward the practical applications of 2D materials.

2. Results

2.1. Synthesis and Characterizations of Ta-Doped MoSe₂

We synthesized undoped and Ta-doped MoSe₂ crystals by the chemical vapor transport (CVT) method (more details in the Experimental Section). The optical images of synthesized undoped and Ta-doped MoSe₂ are presented in **Figure 1a** and Figure S1 in the Supporting Information, respectively. Both scale sizes of undoped and Ta-doped MoSe₂ crystals can be as large as up to three millimeters. The shiny and wrinkle-free surfaces and regular edges are obviously shown, which indicates high-quality MoSe₂ crystals. X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns are performed to further confirm the crystal structure of undoped and doped MoSe₂, shown in Figure 1b. Main peaks of undoped MoSe₂ are located at ~13.72°, 27.6°, 41.88°, and

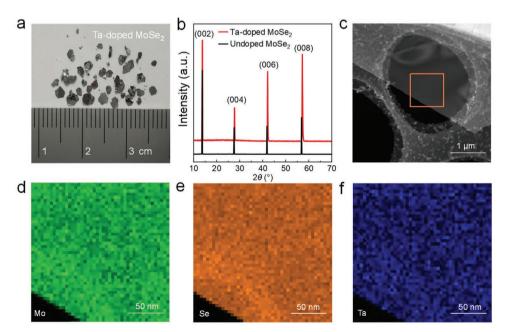


Figure 1. Characterizations of Ta-doped MoSe₂ crystals. a) Optical image of synthesized Ta-doped MoSe₂ crystals. Scale size of most Ta-doped MoSe₂ flakes reaches up to few millimeters. b) XRD pattern of MoSe₂ crystal with and without Ta doping. c) Low-magnification STEM image of Ta-doped MoSe₂ flake. d–f) Elemental distributions obtained from the orange box in panel (c).



56.88°, which correspond to (002), (004), (006), and (008) crystal orientations, respectively, consistent with the pattern of the standard MoSe₂ card (JCPDS-NO.29-0914 in Figure S2a in the Supporting Information). One can find that the pattern of Tadoped MoSe₂ shows similar peaks to that of the standard pattern, which indicates that Ta-elemental doping does not change the intrinsic hexagonal crystal structure of MoSe₂. Both the synthesized MoSe₂ crystals are grown along the *c*-axis. Additionally, more detailed XRD patterns are shown in Figure S2b in the Supporting Information, and relevant lattice constants (a and c) are acquired and shown in Note S1 and Table S1 in the Supporting Information. The lattice constant *c* and the ratio c/adecrease after Ta doping, which indicates substitutional doping, not interstitial doping.^[20] Figure 1c shows the low-magnification scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) image of the few-layer Ta-doped MoSe₂. Furthermore, energy-dispersive X-ray (EDS) spectra are conducted in the orange box to identify the elements of the grown material. Figure 1d-f shows the elemental distributions of Mo, Se, and Ta, respectively. It is obvious that Ta element is successfully doped. The Ta concentration is derived from X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra (Figure S3, Supporting Information) and is listed in Table S2 in the Supporting Information. Although the measured concentration is slightly larger than the nominal value (molar ratio of mixed powder for CVT), the Ta concentration in the synthesized MoSe₂ can be effectively changed with the molar ratio of the mixture. Except for additional instructions, the later mentioned Ta concentration corresponds to the nominal value for easy comprehension. Additionally, atomically resolved STEM is used to further confirm substitutional doping. Figure 2a,d shows the annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (ADF-STEM) images of undoped and Ta-doped MoSe₂ samples, respectively. Mechanically exfoliated MoSe₂

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samples are prepared and then transferred to a transmission electron microscopy (TEM) grid by the PDMS-assisted method. Contaminants are induced and adhere to the surface of the copper grid, as shown in Figure 2d. However, the results are not affected by the contaminants. Figure 2b shows the atomicresolution ADF-STEM image, of which the contrast intensity is positively related to atomic number. From ADF-STEM images, each Mo atom is surrounded by three Se atoms. Notably, undoped MoSe₂ is a 2H phase, consistent with the previous work.^[21,22] For the ADF-STEM image of Ta-doped MoSe₂, there are some atomic positions with brighter contrast, which correspond to Ta atoms due to their large atomic number, marked by violet circles in Figure 2e. Combined with the XRD results, the doping method is substitutional doping. For no matter undoped or Ta-doped MoSe2, fast Fourier transform (FFT) of the STEM images are identical and show the six-fold symmetry (Figure S4, Supporting Information). It also demonstrates the hexagonal crystal structure of MoSe2 does not change after Ta doping.

The valence electron of Ta atom is one less than that of Mo atom, thus substitutional Ta atom would serve as the acceptor. The substitutional doping will result in a p-doping in MoSe₂. To demonstrate the change of conduction type, both theoretical simulations and experimental characterizations are conducted in our work. Energy band structures are obtained by first-principles calculations based on density functional theory (DFT). Monolayer undoped MoSe₂ possesses a direct bandgap of ~1.5 eV (Figure S5a, Supporting Information). Bulk undoped MoSe₂ changes into indirect bandgap semiconductor and the bandgap is ~1.0 eV (Figure 2c), which is in agreement with previous reports.^[23] After the doping, defect states are introduced into both valence and conduction bands. Notably, Fermi level shifts toward to valence band for both monolayer and bulk

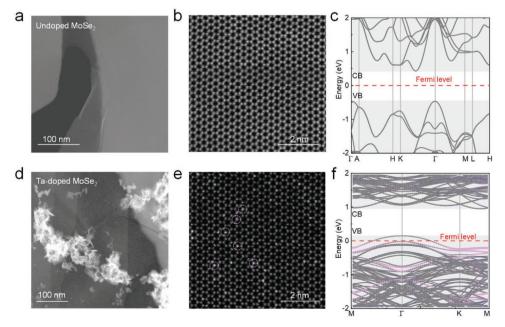


Figure 2. STEM characterization and energy band calculations of undoped $MoSe_2$ and Ta-doped $MoSe_2$. a,b) ADF-STEM images of undoped $MoSe_2$ flake. c) Energy band structure of undoped $MoSe_2$. d,e) ADF-STEM images of Ta-doped $MoSe_2$ flake. Doped Ta atoms are marked by dashed violet circles. f) Energy band structure of Ta-doped $MoSe_2$.



Ta-doped MoSe₂, which shows a p-type MoSe₂ semiconductor (Figure S5b, Supporting Information; Figure 2f). The p-doping is also demonstrated by Raman spectra. As shown in Figure S6c in the Supporting Information, there are three obvious modes ($A_{1g} \approx 241 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, $E_{2g}^{1} \approx 285 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, and $B_{2g}^{1} \approx 353 \text{ cm}^{-1}$), which is consistent with the previous reports.^[24,25] Among them, A_{1g} mode is sensitive to both the number of layers and doping concentration.^[25] Avoiding the effect of the thickness, undoped and 1% Ta-doped MoSe₂ with the same number of layers is used for Raman measurement. The thickness of MoSe₂ is identified by atomic force microscopy (AFM) (Figure S6a,b, Supporting Information). The thickness of both undoped and doped MoSe₂ is approximately four layers. Figure S6d in the Supporting Information shows magnified Raman spectra. Obviously, the A_{1g} mode is blueshifted for the Ta-doped MoSe₂, which confirms the p-doping induced by Ta elements.

Moreover, the conductance type closely depends on the percent of Ta element in MoSe₂. Field-effect transistor (FET) devices with various Ta-doped MoSe₂ (undoped, 1%, 2%, and 3%) are fabricated on the silicon substrates covered with 80 nm Al₂O₃. AFM images and thickness profiles of MoSe₂ FETs are shown in Figure S7 in the Supporting Information. Figure 3a presents the schematic illustration of layered undoped MoSe₂ in which Mo atoms are sandwiched between Se atoms. Transfer characteristics show that undoped MoSe₂ is an n-type dominant semiconductor (Figure 3d). Its electronic mobility (μ) is calculated by the formula below

$$\mu = \frac{L}{W} \frac{1}{\varepsilon_0 \varepsilon_r} \frac{d}{V_{ds}} \frac{dI_{ds}}{dV_{ds}}$$
(1)

where *L* and *W* are the channel length and width, respectively, *d* and ε_r are the thickness and relative dielectric constant of the Al₂O₃ layer, respectively, and ε_0 is the vacuum dielectric constant. For the undoped MoSe₂ FETs with 6.2 nm thickness, high mobility (13 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹) is achieved, which is larger than previous reports.^[26,27] Simultaneously, the carrier concentration (n) of 5.25×10^{12} cm⁻² can be acquired according to the formula below

$$n = \frac{1}{q} \frac{I_{\rm ds}}{W} \frac{L}{V_{\rm ds}} \frac{1}{\mu}$$
(2)

where q is the elemental charge. Compared with undoped MoSe2, the 1% Ta-doped one shows lightly n-type dominant transfer characteristics (Figure S8, Supporting Information). 2% Ta-doped MoSe₂ shows ambipolar behavior (Figure 3b,e). The properties of 2% Ta-doped MoSe2 are similar to that of intrinsic semiconductors, of which the charge neutrality point is ≈ 0 V. 3% Ta-doped MoSe₂ exhibits a p-type semiconductor (Figure 3c,f). For the 3% Ta-doped MoSe₂ FET with 6.2 nm thickness, the hole concentration and mobility of p-type MoSe₂ are 8.42×10^{11} cm⁻² and 2.65 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹, respectively. Compared with electron mobility, the reduction of hole mobility may partly arise from the restrained transportation among valence bonds for holes but free transportation for electrons. Additionally, it may partly arise from larger contact resistance and charge scattering due to the doping.^[28] However, it can be further improved via an optimized growth procedure.^[29,30] Here, the undoped and Ta-doped MoSe₂ is successfully synthesized, which makes it possible to assemble electronic and optoelectronic devices.

2.2. Electronic and Optoelectronic Properties of MoSe₂ Homojunction Device

Homojunction devices play a significant role in fundamental electronics and are assembled by undoped and Ta-doped MoSe₂. **Figure 4**a,b exhibits the schematic and optical image of MoSe₂ homojunction diode based on undoped and Ta-doped MoSe₂. Undoped and 3% Ta-doped MoSe₂ flakes are mechanically exfoliated onto 80 nm Al₂O₃/Si substrate, respectively. Then the undoped MoSe₂ flake is transferred onto doped MoSe₂ flake via poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA)-assisted dry transfer method. Cr/Au

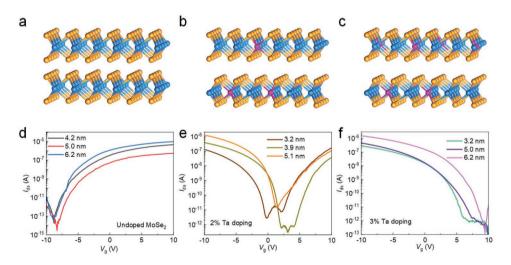


Figure 3. Atomic schematic views of $MoSe_2$ doped by Ta element and transfer characteristic curves of undoped and doped $MoSe_2$ FETs. a,d) Schematic illustration and transfer characteristic curves of $MoSe_2$ crystals without Ta element. b,e) Schematic illustration and transfer characteristic curves of $MoSe_2$ crystals with 2% Ta doping. c,f) Schematic illustration and transfer characteristic curves of $MoSe_2$ crystals with 2% Ta doping. c,f) Schematic illustration and transfer characteristic curves of $MoSe_2$ crystals with 3% Ta doping. All the transfer characteristics are obtained at 0.5 V bias voltage (V_{ds}).



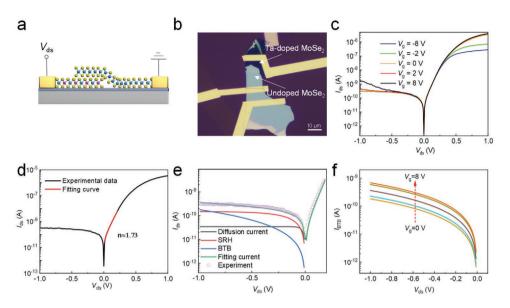


Figure 4. Electrical properties of $MoSe_2$ homojunction diode. a,b) Schematic illustration and optical microscopy image of $MoSe_2$ device, respectively. c) Output characteristics of $MoSe_2$ homojunction device under various gate voltages. d) I_{ds} - V_{ds} curve of $MoSe_2$ device at zero gate voltage. The red curve is the fitting result. e) Dark current components of $MoSe_2$ homojunction device at zero gate voltage. f) Band-to-band tunneling current (I_{BTB}) as a function of the bias voltage (V_{ds}) at gate voltage from 0 to 8 V with 2 V step.

electrodes are patterned and deposited via electron-beam lithography (EBL) and thermal evaporation, respectively. Then, a lift-off process is performed (detailed information in the Experimental Section). Ta-doped and undoped MoSe₂ serve as drain and source electrodes, respectively. Additionally, the crosssection of the homojunction is identified via high-resolution cross-sectional TEM (Figure S9, Supporting Information), which shows a clean interface. From the TEM image, the thickness of undoped and Ta-doped MoSe₂ is 23.7 and 5.5 nm, respectively. Ids-Vds curves of MoSe2 homojunction diode are measured under various gate voltages (Figure 4c). The rectification ratio varies with the gate voltage and exceeds 10⁴ at zero gate voltage. Besides, it possesses a low reverse current at zero gate voltage. Compared with other p-n junction devices, our homojunction photodetector is competent for the low power consumption device at zero gate voltage.^[31,32] To evaluate the quality of the homojunction, we got the ideal factor (n) by fitting the output curve (black curve in Figure 4d) at $V_{g} = 0$ V, which follows the volt-ampere characteristic function below

$$I_{\rm ds} = I_{\rm s} \left(e^{\frac{gV_{\rm ds}}{nkT}} - 1 \right) \tag{3}$$

where I_s is reverse saturation current, q is elemental charge, T = 300 K is Kelvin temperature, and k is Boltzmann constant. The fitting result is shown in Figure 4d and $n \approx 1.73$ is acquired. For the diode, n = 1 indicates an ideal diode. For a factor larger than 1, a recombination current exists.^[33] Analyzing dark current is crucial to the improvement of device performance. The dark current under various gate voltages was analyzed via the developed simultaneous data-processing technique.^[34] Figure 4e shows the analysis results of dark current for MoSe₂ homojunction device at zero gate voltage. The fitting curve consists with that of the experimental result. The simulated ideal factor is ≈ 1.6 and near 1.73. At $V_{ds} > -0.88$ V, the Shockley– Read–Hall (SRH) current dominates, which possibly results from trap states in the gap.^[35] Therefore, further improving the quality of the interface would decrease the SRH current. When V_{ds} is below –0.88 V, the band-to-band tunneling (BTB) current gradually increases and dominates. Because the large bias voltage makes the energy band bend steeply, which increases the tunneling probability. We also analyzed dark current at other gate voltages (Figure S10, Supporting Information). With gate voltage changing, the diffusion and SRH currents change scarcely. However, the BTB current becomes larger by increasing gate voltage from 0 to 8 V (Figure 4f). Because the band structure at the interface also becomes steeper for higher gate voltage, which results in a stronger built-in electric field and further enlarges the BTB probability.

Photovoltaic photodetectors are desired for high-performance photodetection and energy conversion. Here, an MoSe₂ homojunction photodetector is demonstrated, which operates at zero bias voltage and zero gate voltage. To demonstrate the response mechanism of the MoSe₂ photodetector clearly, an MoSe₂ photodetector is assembled to characterize photocurrent mapping (Figure S11, Supporting Information). Obviously, the photocurrent distributes in the junction region. It means that the photoresponse mainly results from the built-in electric field at the interface. **Figure 5a** shows the output characteristics of MoSe₂ photodetector under various power densities (*P*) illuminated by 830 nm wavelength. A photovoltaic response is obviously exhibited. Open-circuit voltage (V_{oc}) gradually reaches the saturation of 0.68 V (Figure 5b), which is higher than reported devices.^[36,37] Short-circuit currents are also extracted and fitted by a power law

$$I_{\rm sc} \propto P^{\alpha}$$
 (4)

where α is a fitting parameter. The obtained $\alpha \approx 0.93$ indicates a good linear relationship. For photovoltaic detectors or solar cells, output electrical power ($P_{\rm el} = I_{\rm ds} \cdot V_{\rm ds}$) is adopted to the

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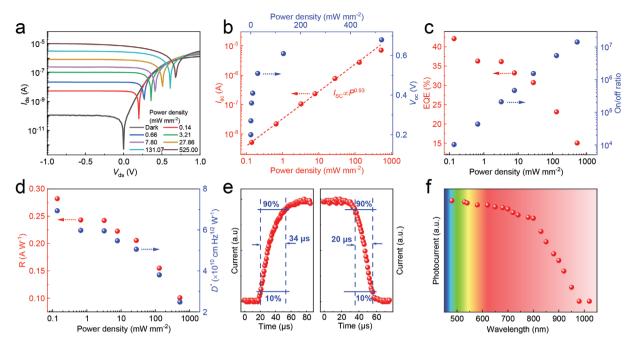


Figure 5. Photoresponse properties of $MoSe_2$ homojunction photodetector. a) Output characteristics of $MoSe_2$ homojunction photodetector under different power densities illuminated by 830 nm laser. b) Power-dependent open-circuit voltage (V_{oc}) and short-circuit current (I_{sc}). c) Power-dependent external quantum efficiency (EQE) and on/off ratio at a bias voltage of 0 V. d) Responsivity (R) and detectivity (D^*) as a function of power density illuminated by 830 nm. e) Time-resolved response of $MoSe_2$ homojunction photodetector at zero bias voltage. f) Photocurrent under various wavelengths.

electricity generation capability. For different power densities, the $P_{\rm el}$ and fill factor (FF = $P_{\rm max}/I_{\rm sc} \cdot V_{\rm oc}$) are acquired in Figure S12a,b in the Supporting Information. The $P_{\rm el}$ increases with the increasing power density, while FF reaches the maximum of 0.66 and is followed by a decline. Concerning the homojunction photodetector, the maximum electrical power $P_{\rm max}$, indicated by the shadow region (Figure S12c, Supporting Information), reaches up to 1.37 μ W, which implies a potential in solar cells.^[38] EQE, responsivity (*R*), and detectivity (D^*) are important parameters of photodetectors. The external quantum efficiency is defined by

$$EQE = \frac{hcI_{\rm ph}}{q\lambda P_{\rm in}}$$
(5)

where *h* is Planck's constant, *c* is the velocity of light, and λ is excitation wavelength. It is the ratio of the number of the photoinduced carrier to incident photons. The responsivity is calculated by

$$R = \frac{I_{\rm ph}}{AP_{\rm in}} \tag{6}$$

where $I_{\rm ph}$ is the photocurrent, *A* is active area, and $P_{\rm in}$ is optical power density. Detectivity is calculated by

$$D^* = R\sqrt{A} / \sqrt{\frac{4kT}{R_0}} \tag{7}$$

where R_0 is the resistance of the MoSe₂ homojunction device at zero bias. For the operation frequency larger than 300 Hz, the

1/f noise is negligible.^[33] At zero bias voltage, the thermal noise dominates.^[39] The EQE is calculated and shown in Figure 5c, which is as large as 42%. The high EQE benefits from a continuous energy band. Because carriers easily pass through the junction with no cusp or notch in conduction or valence bands. Figure 5c also shows the light on/off ratio, which increases for larger power density. MoSe₂ homojunction device exhibits ultrahigh light on/off ratio of $\approx 10^7$, which means a high signalto-noise ratio and is comparable to the reported work.^[40] The excellent on/off ratio attributes to the ultralow dark current and high EQE. The responsivity and detectivity are extracted out and reach up to 0.28 A W⁻¹ and 6.93×10^{10} cm Hz^{1/2} W⁻¹, respectively, as shown in Figure 5d. To demonstrate response speed, MoSe₂ photodetectors are periodically illuminated under 830 nm laser with different power densities. The switching response is recorded and presented in Figure S12d in the Supporting Information. When the power density increases, the photocurrent simultaneously becomes larger. Notably, an obvious signal-to-noise ratio is observed. More importantly, the fast rise time (34 µs) and fall time (20 µs) are demonstrated (Figure 5e). One can find that MoSe₂-based homojunction photodetector possesses both high responsivity and fast response speed, which makes the MoSe₂ homojunction photodetector more competent to detect optical signals in time (Table 1). To further identify the detection wavelength of the MoSe₂ device, the photocurrent is plotted as the function of the wavelength from 480 to 1020 nm and shown in Figure 5f. The photocurrent decreases slowly in the visible region and rapidly in the nearinfrared region (near 800 nm), which is coincident with the bandgap of MoSe₂. Besides, we also performed measurements of the MoSe₂ photodetector under 637 nm laser illumination.



| Table 1. | Parameters | of reported | TMDs | photovoltaic | photodetectors. |
|----------|------------|-------------|------|--------------|-----------------|
|----------|------------|-------------|------|--------------|-----------------|

| Materials | Doping method | Bias [V] | Wavelength [nm] | <i>R</i> [A W ⁻¹] | EQE [%] | Time | Refs. |
|--|-----------------------|----------|-----------------|-------------------------------|---------|--------|-----------|
| MoSe ₂ /MoO ₂ | Intrinsic property | 3 | 532 | 0.1 | 23.5 | 1.2 s | [41] |
| MoSe ₂ /WSe ₂ | Intrinsic property | 0 | 543 | - | - | 6 ms | [42] |
| Thin/thick-MoSe ₂ | Intrinsic property | 0 | 635 | 1 | - | 10 ms | [43] |
| WSe ₂ /MoSe ₂ | Substitutional doping | 0 | 638 | 0.33 | - | 1.5 ms | [44] |
| WSe ₂ /MoS ₂ | Intrinsic property | 0 | 532 | 0.1 | 25 | 5 ms | [5] |
| MoS ₂ /WSe | Intrinsic property | 0 | 532 | 0.12 | 34 | - | [35] |
| p-MoSe ₂ /n-MoSe ₂ | Substitutional doping | 0 | 405 | ≈0.2 | 40 | - | [45] |
| p-MoS ₂ /n-MoS ₂ | Chemical doping | 1 | 655 | 0.03 | - | - | [46] |
| p-WSe ₂ /n-WSe ₂ | Laser-induced doping | 0 | 633 | ≈0.8 | - | 136 µs | [47] |
| p-MoSe ₂ /n-MoSe ₂ | Substitutional doping | 0 | 830 | 0.28 | 42 | 34 µs | This work |

 $MoSe_2$ photodetector also shows a high light on/off ratio (beyond $10^7)$ and fast response (99 μs) (Figure S13, Supporting Information). The measured electronic and photoelectronic properties show that the $MoSe_2$ homojunction photodetector possesses outstanding photoresponse.

2.3. MoSe₂ Inverter

Substitution doping also opens up huge possibilities in logic devices. To demonstrate the logic application, inverters are fabricated. **Figure 6**a shows the schematic of the MoSe₂ inverter, and the corresponding optical microscopy image and transfer characteristic curves are shown in Figure S14 in the Supporting Information. The thicknesses of the undoped and Ta-doped MoSe₂ flakes are 4.5 and 4.3 nm, respectively, identified via AFM (Figure S15, Supporting Information). Figure 6b exhibits

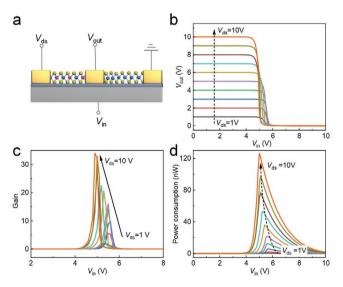


Figure 6. Electrical characteristics of MoS₂ inverter. a) Schematic illustration of the inverter, which is composed of p- and n-doped MoSe₂. Input port (V_{in}) and supply voltage (V_{ds}) connect the back gate and the Ta-doped MoSe₂, respectively. Output port (V_{out}) connects the undoped and doped MoSe₂ flakes. b) V_{out} - V_{in} curve under various voltages. c,d) Gain and power consumption of MoSe₂ inverter at various drain voltages.

the input voltage dependent on the output voltage of the MoSe₂ inverter at various supply voltages. The output voltage is equal to the supply voltage at low input voltage. It decreases to 0 V at high input voltage. Significantly, the output voltage drops rapidly from high level to low level. To quantitatively evaluate the inverter, the voltage gain is derived and defined as gain = $-dV_{out}/dV_{in}$. The gain is elevated gradually with increasing supply voltage and reaches up to 34 at $V_{ds} = 10$ V (Figure 6c). Such a high gain is higher than that of reported inverters (Table 2) and desired for logic circuits. It can be further improved by decreasing the thickness of the dielectric layer or adopting the dielectric materials with a high dielectric constant.^[48,49] Figure 6d exhibits the power consumption under various supply voltages. The power consumption becomes larger with the supply voltage increasing and reaches up to \approx 127 nW at V_{ds} = 10 V. Balancing the gain and power consumption, the MoSe₂ inverter is more suitable for the logic circuits with high gain and low power complementary.

3. Conclusion

In conclusion, the undoped and Ta-doped MoSe₂ crystals are successfully synthesized via substitutional doping, and conduction type is flexibly modulated from n-type behavior to ambipolar and p-type behaviors. The modulation of conductance type greatly extends the application of TMDCs. Based on the undoped and Ta-doped MoSe₂, high-performance homojunction photodetector and inverter are assembled. The homojunction photodetector shows an obvious photovoltaic response, stemming from the homojunction. It shows a large open-circuit voltage (0.68 V) and an output electrical power (1.37 μ W), which indicates the potential in microcell applications. Importantly, the photodetector exhibits a large responsivity (0.28 A W⁻¹) and external quantum efficiency (42%). Moreover, fast rise time (34 µs) and fall time (20 µs) are demonstrated. Excellent and fast photoresponse exhibits the advantage of homojunction. Besides, the MoSe₂ inverter exhibits a high gain of 34 and low power consumption of 127 nW. Such a large gain is desired for excellent logic circuits. Our works lay the foundation of substitutional doping in 2D materials and provide an opportunity to fabricate excellent electronics and optoelectronics based on 2D materials.

Та

| Materials | Doping method | Bias voltage [V] | Gain | Power consumption [nW] | Refs. |
|--|-----------------------|------------------|------|------------------------|-----------|
| WSe ₂ /IGZO | Intrinsic property | 5 | 14 | - | [50] |
| p-WSe ₂ /n-WSe ₂ | Chemical doping | 9 | 10 | ≈0.17 | [51] |
| p-MoSe ₂ /n-MoSe ₂ | Substitutional doping | 1 | 0.5 | - | [45] |
| WSe ₂ /MoSe ₂ | Intrinsic property | 3 | 23 | - | [52] |
| MoS ₂ /WSe ₂ | Intrinsic property | 2 | 11.6 | ≈0.07 | [53] |
| o-MoTe ₂ /n-MoTe ₂ | Laser-induced doping | 2 | 28 | 120 | [54] |
| p-MoSe ₂ /n-MoSe ₂ | Substitutional doping | 10 | 34 | 127 | This work |

Material Synthesis: Both the undoped and Ta-doped MoSe₂ crystals were prepared via CVT. For undoped MoSe₂ crystals, Mo power (99.999%) and Se powder (99.999%) were mixed fully with the molar ratio of 1:6. The mixture was sealed in a guartz tube at 10^{-6} mbar. Iodine power was also sealed into the same tube and served as a transport agent. The tube was placed in a two-zone furnace. The source and growth zones were set to 780 and 980 °C, gradually. Both zones were kept for 9000 min. Finally, the undoped MoSe₂ crystals were synthesized. For Ta-doped $MoSe_2$ crystals, the Ta power (99.999%, molar ratio of 1%, 2%, and 3% for doping, respectively) was added into the mixture (mentioned above). The iodine power served as the transport agent. The mixture was sealed in a quartz tube at 10^{-6} mbar and placed in a twozone furnace. The source and growth zones were set to 790 and 1050 °C, respectively, for 9000 min. After the process, the two-zone furnace was slowly cooled to room temperature and Ta-doped MoSe₂ crystals were synthesized.

Material Characterization: The atomically resolved ADF-STEM was performed using a Nion HERMES 200 microscope. Transmission electron microscope (JEOL JEM-2100F) was performed for TEM images and EDS element mappings. XRD was conducted by Bruker D8 X-ray diffractometer. Raman spectra were measured by HR800 with 532 nm laser. The thickness profiles were acquired by AFM (Bruker MultiMode 8).

Simulation: For band simulation, first-principles calculations were performed with Vienna Ab-initio Simulation Package (VASP), and the projector augmented wave (PAW) method was adopted.[55-57] The exchange-correlation interactions were addressed with Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) functional.^[58] Plane-wave cutoff energy was set to 500 eV. Lattice constants and atom coordinates were relaxed via the conjugate gradient method with energy and force convergence criteria of 10^{-9} eV and 10^{-4} eV Å⁻¹, respectively. For the first Brillouin zone sampling, Γ -centered Monkhorst–Pack *k*-point meshes of 11 × 11 × 9 and 11 × 11 × 1 were used to sample the unit cell of bulk and monolayer during structure relaxation. The optB88-vdW scheme was employed to take van der Waals interactions into account.^[59] In addition, a 15 Å vacuum spacing was added to reduce the artificial interactions between adjacent monolayers. To investigate the effect of Ta dopant, $3 \times 3 \times 2$ and $4 \times 4 \times 1$ supercells of bulk and monolayer $MoSe_2$ were respectively constructed. For the current analysis, dark current characteristics were analyzed by the series of separated current component models, including minority carrier diffusion current, band-to-band tunneling current, and generationrecombination current.^[60,61] By fitting the dark current of device under zero and small forward bias, the reverse saturation current and ideal factor can be obtained. Trap-assisted recombination (dominated by SRH process for the uncontrollable defects) was dominated under middle reverse bias. The band-to-band tunneling process always happens when the electric field in the junction is large enough. The SRH current and band-to-band current in the analytical model is fitted by $ae^{bV^{-1}}$ and $m Ve^{nV^{-1}}$, respectively, where *a*, *b*, *m*, and *n* are the fitted parameters.

Device Fabrication and Measurement: Undoped and doped MoSe₂ flakes were mechanically exfoliated onto 80 nm Al₂O₃/Si substrates using Scotch tape, respectively. Then, a PVA film was attached onto

2 flake was transferred onto the Ta-doped MoSe₂ flake using a homemade transfer system. After the dissolution of PVA film in deionized water, the homojunction photodetector was fabricated. For the inverter device, the undoped MoSe₂ was transferred near the Ta-doped one with the method mentioned above. Electron-beam lithography (FEI F50) was used to define the source and drain patterns. The thermal evaporation and the lift-off process were conducted to fabricate the electrodes (15 nm Cr/45 nm Au). All the MoSe₂ FET, photodetector, and inverter were measured in the atmosphere and at room temperature. The Agilent B1500 semiconductor parameter analyzer was utilized to analyze the electronic and photoelectronic properties of MoSe₂ devices, which were put in the lakeshore probe station. The time-resolved speed was recorded by Tektronix Oscilloscope MDO3014. For response spectra, a light source (YSL, SC-PRO) was modulated by Omni monochromator, and response curves were recorded by a source meter (Keithley, B2192A). The photocurrent mapping was measured by a homemade photocurrent scanning system.

Supporting Information

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

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Author Contributions

F.Z. and J.Y. contributed equally to this work. W.H., Z.W., L.Z., and Z.F. conceived the project. F.Z., T.X., Y.W., H.W., T.H., and Y.Y. fabricated the devices. F.Z. and Z.Z. performed electronic and photoelectronic

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characterizations. J.Y. and Z.W. synthesized the MoSe₂ crystals. J.G. conducted the XRD characterizations. B.H. conducted the STEM characterizations under the direction of P.G. X.G. performed the DFT calculations under the direction of X.Z. Q.L. performed the current simulations. J.Y. conducted the AFM experiments. M.P. performed the speed measurements. P.W. performed the spectra experiments. P.W., T.H., and M.Z. assisted in analyzing experiments. All authors discussed the results and revised the manuscript.

Data Availability Statement

Research data are not shared.

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