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Plasmonic enhancement of photocurrent generation in two-dimensional heterostructure of WSe₂/MoS₂

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Abstract

Enhancing the photoresponse of single-layered semiconductor materials is a challenge for high-performance photodetectors due to atomically thickness and limited quantum efficiency of these devices. **Band engineering in heterostructure** of transition metal chalcogenides (TMDs) can sort out part of this challenge. Here, we address this issue by utilizing the **plasmonics** phenomenon to enrich the optoelectronics property of the **WSe₂/MoS₂ heterojunction** and further enhancement of photoresponse. The introduced approach presents a **contamination-free, tunable and efficient way to improve light interactions with heterojunction devices**. The results showed a **3600-fold enhancement in photoresponsivity** and a **46-fold increase in external quantum efficiency (549%)** along with a **fast photoresponse time (~2 μs)** and **light polarization dependence**. This improvement may assign to **multiple light scatterings by the Au nanoarrays** and creation of **strong local electrical fields (hot spots)** at the interfaces of the gold nanoarrays and the TMDs heterostructure. The high-energy electrons (**hot electrons**) **originating from hot spots surmount easily to conduction bands of heterojunction** which is leading to a remarkable **enhancement of photocurrent**. The plasmons assisted photoresponse strategy can be easily matched with the semiconductor industry to boost the performance of optoelectronics devices for practical applications.

Supplementary material for this article is available [online](#)

Keywords: heterostructure, hot electrons, photoresponse, dimer plasmonic nanoarrays, light polarization

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

1. Introduction

After isolation of graphene as zero energy bandgap two-dimensional material from graphite in 2004 [1], transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) attract vast attention as layered semiconducting nanostructures with **tunable electronic and optical properties** [2] in which their **energy bandgaps can be tuned by the number of layers, electrostatic and chemical doping** [3, 4]. Among large members of the TMDs family such as MoS₂, MoSe₂, WS₂ and WSe₂ are emerging as exciting systems for a new generation of ultrathin optoelectronics and photovoltaic devices in visible wavelength range such as photodetectors [5], lasers [6], solar cells [7], light-

emitting diode [8], electroluminescence emission [9] and polarizers [10]. In this regard, the **monolayers of the TMDs** are particularly more interesting for photon detection due to their **direct and larger energy band gaps** [11]. In the application point of view, the photodetectors play important roles in many fields of our daily life including electro-optical displays, imaging, environment monitoring, optical communication, military, etc [5]. Despite all these promising points, photodetectors fabricated by monolayers of TMDs are **suffering from some drawback points** such as **low light absorption (0.2% in the best situation)** [12] **lack of intrinsic charge carriers (~10¹² cm⁻²)** [13], **small wavelength detectivity** [5] and **low speed of photoresponse** [14].

The heterostructures of the TMDs as a novel approach and artificial assembly of two-dimensional materials can compensate some of these issues. In well-matched energy band alignment of heterojunction, increased light absorption [15], more charge carriers separation (less recombination of photo-generated carriers) [16, 17], and wavelength range selectivity [5, 18]. These advantages have made these structures as potent candidates for fundamental and applied researches and the new class of photodetectors and photo-transistors [5, 19]. One of the most amazing heterostructures among TMDs is the $\text{WSe}_2/\text{MoS}_2$ heterostructure due to its exceptional energy band alignment, relatively high carrier mobility ($\sim 200 \text{ cm}^2 \text{V}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$) [20], high light absorbance ($\sim 10\%$) [15] and well-defined current rectification effects (rectification ratio $\sim 10^4$) [21]. Due to these features, photodetectors based on $\text{WSe}_2/\text{MoS}_2$ heterostructure displays the photoresponsivity of 0.05 A W^{-1} , external quantum efficiency (EQE) of 12% in the wavelength range of 514 nm–633 nm [22].

However, further improvement of the photoresponsivity and EQE in $\text{WSe}_2/\text{MoS}_2$ heterostructure has been hindered by the limited low light adsorption coefficient, insufficient scattering and reflection of the incident light at the interface. Since plasmonic nanostructures are well-known as potent light harvesters, this challenge can be surpassed by plasmonic properties of the Nobel metallic nanoparticles by modifying their size and shapes. Here, we have utilized gold (Au) nanodots as plasmonic arrays to intensify light interactions in the $\text{WSe}_2/\text{MoS}_2$ heterostructure. Using Au nanoarrays as an optically active substrate, we could boost the photoresponsivity and reduce the response times. This approach can push further the TMDs based heterostructures towards real application in photon detections.

2. Experimental methods

The Au nanoarrays on SiO_2 ($\sim 300 \text{ nm}$)/Si substrate were prepared by electron beam lithography process on spin-coated Poly (methyl methacrylate) (C3 PMMA 950K Microchem corp.) following by physical vapor evaporation of Cr (2 nm)/Au (30 nm). The periodic Au nanoarrays as pairs of gold nanoparticles denoted as dimer arrays of Au nano-dots in a rectangular lattice can be obtained by liftoff step in acetone. Then, mechanically exfoliated flakes (WSe_2 and MoS_2) from their high-quality crystals (hq graphene) on PMMA/PVA film, were transferred on Au nanoarrays using a home-made transferring system. Finally, the electrodes were deposited on both sides of the heterostructure through standard photolithography and Cr/Au deposition by electron gun evaporator.

Electrical characterization of the devices was recorded by KEITHLEY 6487 picoammeter voltage source instrument. To evaluate time response of the device, a pulsed light has been used controlled by GWINSTEK GDS-1052-U oscilloscope along with a current to voltage converter circuit. In the UV-to-NIR region, 13 LEDs were employed to illuminate the

samples by wavelengths of 395, 415, 435, 445, 470, 510, 520, 595, 625, 650, 735, 850, and 970 nm.

3. Results and discussion

Figure 1 demonstrates the design and images of the device fabrication steps. It schematically shows the structure of a hybrid photodetector based on heterostructure of $\text{WSe}_2/\text{MoS}_2$ and Au nanoarrays. Figure 1(b) also depicts the cross-section of this device. On top of Au nanoarrays, the $\text{WSe}_2/\text{MoS}_2$ heterojunction is transferred and the Ti/Au contacts are taken from two layers of WSe_2 and MoS_2 . The field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM; TeScan–Mira III) image of Au nanoarrays has been illustrated in figure 1(c). As shown in figure 1(d), the Au nanoarrays consist of dimer (pairs) arrays of circular dots which are arranged on the Si/ SiO_2 substrate. The inter-distance between the Au nanoparticles (edge-to-edge separation) in each dimer array was $\sim 25 \text{ nm}$ (as shown in the inset of figure 1(d)), and the lattice spacing of the Au arrays in the horizontal and vertical directions were 300 and 500 nm, respectively. Figure 1(e) demonstrates the optical microscopy image of the device. The MoS_2 flake (red dashed line in a figure 1(e)), and WSe_2 flake (green dashed line in a figure 1(e)) are labeled to highlight the device structure. A top view optical image of the device with electrical contacts is depicted in figure 1(f). One of the contacts was taken from the upper flake (WSe_2) and another contact was from another flake (MoS_2).

To do topography analysis of the flakes on Au nanoarrays, atomic force microscopy (AFM, Park Scientific CP-Research, VEECO) was used (as shown in figure 2(a)). Figure 2(b) represents step-height profiles of the WSe_2 flakes on Au nanoarrays. The red line shows height profile of the deformed flakes on a physical gap of the Au dimer islands and the blue line indicates the area containing no flake. According to the height profile in figure 2(b), the thickness of the Au dots is $\sim 30 \text{ nm}$, and the difference of 20 nm between the two profiles originating from flake sagging. These deformations of the flakes around Au nanoarrays produce tensile strain ($\sim < 2\%$) which reduce the band gap of the flakes ($\sim 0.2 \text{ eV}$) [23, 24] (see S1 section (available online at stacks.iop.org/NANO/32/325203/mmedia)). The SEM image of transferred flakes on Au nanoarrays proves the presence of the flakes on Au nanoarrays as a black area. Raman analysis is a potent technique to investigate the fingerprint vibrational modes of 2D materials. To Raman spectra acquisition from the heterostructure area, a confocal Raman scattering microscopy (Witech Alpha300 R) was utilized by a laser wavelength of 532 nm as an excitation source at room temperature (figure 2(d)). The Raman spectrum indicates characteristics peaks at 380 cm^{-1} and 408 cm^{-1} corresponding to MoS_2 monolayer flake assigning to E_{2g}^1 and A_{1g} modes, respectively. Moreover, the peaks centered at 250 cm^{-1} and 260 cm^{-1} attributes to the monolayer of the WSe_2 , corresponding to the E_{2g}^1 and A_{1g} modes of the WSe_2 monolayer [25].

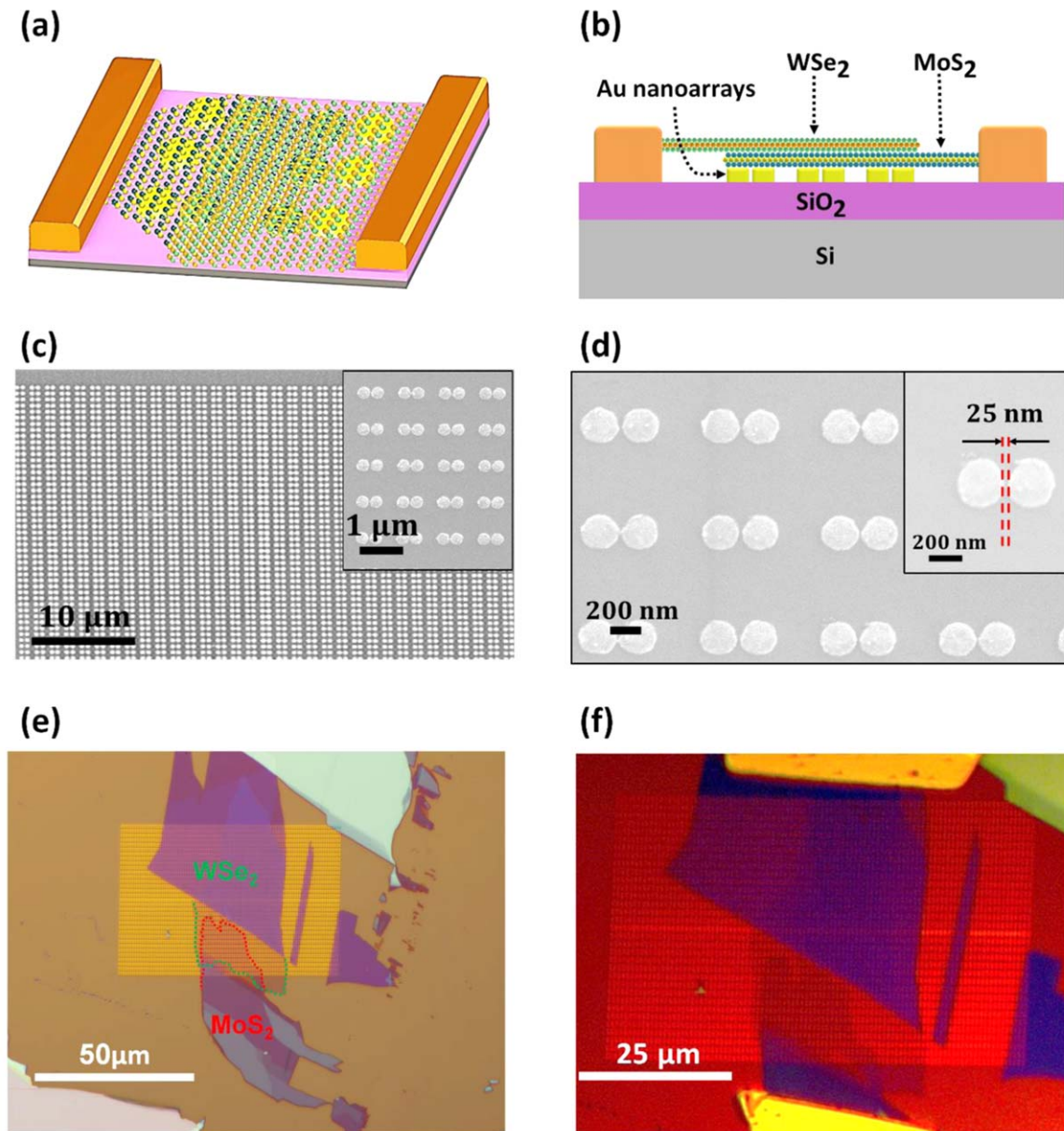


Figure 1. (a) A schematic illustration of WSe₂/MoS₂ vertical heterojunction and Au nanoarrays. (b) The schematic demonstrates cross-section of the WSe₂/MoS₂ heterojunction and Au nanoarrays. (c) SEM image of Au nanoarrays. (d) SEM image with higher magnification from Au nanoarrays. (inset shows the dimer structure of Au nanoparticle) (e) Optical image of WSe₂/MoS₂ /Au nanoarrays device, with WSe₂ layer specified by the green line and MoS₂ layer by a red line. (f) optical image of the final device after electrodes fabrication.

The $I-V$ characteristics of the heterostructure device are shown in figure 3 as logarithm and linear scales. In general, the energy barrier (0.38 eV) created for the holes is less than electrons (0.55 eV) due to the difference in the bandgap and band alignment between conduction and valence bands of the MoS₂ and WSe₂ flakes [26]. In reversed regime marked as **A** in figure 3(a), the electrons tend to transfer from the WSe₂ valence band to the conduction band of the MoS₂. This mechanism is so-called band-to-band tunneling (BTBT) [27], which leads to tunneling of charge carriers through the barrier to have a contribution in electrical conduction. In regime B as an unbiased state, the charge carriers are hindered by the potential barrier and cause much smaller current values. At low forward bias (regime C), the holes in the WSe₂ can

transport to the MoS₂ valence band and leading to an increase in the electrical conduction. However, few electrons overcome the potential barrier and participate in the conduction. As the forward bias increases, the MoS₂ conduction band shifts upwards, so that more electrons and holes can participate in the conduction (Region D in figure 3(a)) [25, 28]. In the **C** and **D** sections of figure 3, direct tunneling takes place. To explain this kind of tunneling, the current-voltage diagram is drawn as a double-log curve. (inset of figure 3(b)) Two linear regimes can be observed in the forward bias region: $0.02 \text{ V} < V_{ds} < 0.1 \text{ V}$ with a slope of ~ 0.27 and $0.3 \text{ V} < V_{ds} < 1.5 \text{ V}$ with a slope of ~ 0.52 . This gives us an estimation of the depletion layer thickness in the WSe₂/MoS₂/Au nanoarrays structure. Under low and

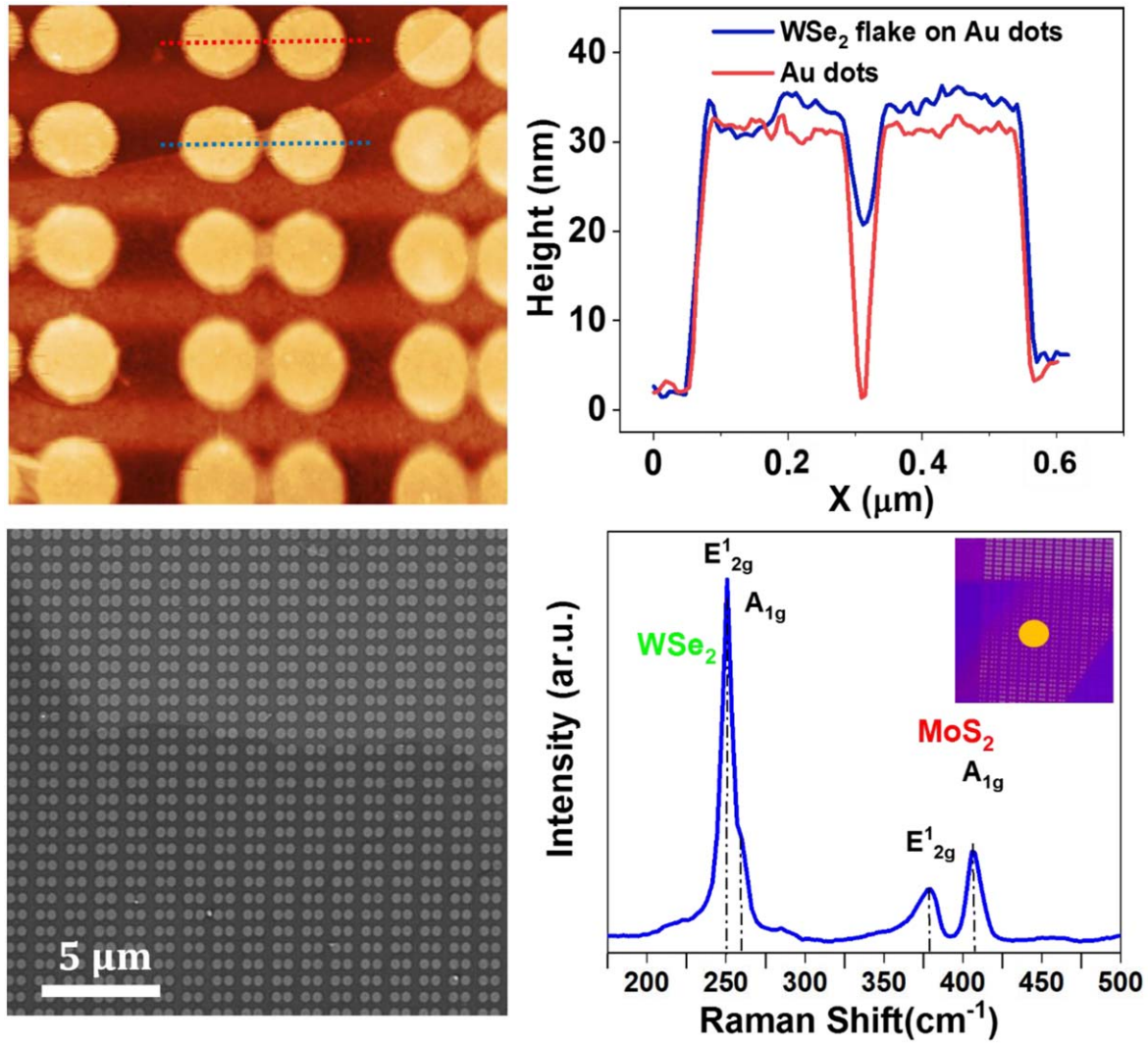


Figure 2. (a) AFM image of WSe₂/Au nanoarrays. (b) The AFM step-height profiles for Au dots (red line) and WSe₂/Au nanodots (blue line). (c) SEM image of WSe₂/Au nanoarrays. (the black area shows WSe₂/Au nanoarrays and the gray region is corresponding to Au nanoarrays.) (d) Raman spectrum of WSe₂/MoS₂ /Au nanoarrays (The pronounced peak at ~250 cm⁻¹ assigns to WSe₂ and peaks at ~380 and ~410 cm⁻¹ are attributing to MoS₂ flake).

intermediate applied voltage, the direct tunneling current is proportional to the voltage, expressed by [29, 30]:

$$I \propto V \exp\left(-\frac{2d\sqrt{2m^*\phi}}{\hbar}\right), \quad (1)$$

Where d , m^* , \hbar and ϕ are the tunneling thickness, effective electron mass, reduced Planck constant and tunneling barrier, respectively. Although in this case, there is no Fowler-Nordheim (FN) tunneling, we can still use the threshold voltage of the FN tunneling to calculate the energy barrier. The threshold voltage, $V_{th} \sim 0.2$ V, corresponds to ϕ/e . Therefore, the ϕ can be estimated as ~ 0.2 eV. Using the direct tunneling formula, where $m^* \sim 0.5 m_0$ [31], we get $d_1 \sim 0.4$ nm and $d_2 \sim 0.2$ nm in the first and second regimes (See inset of figure 3(b)). Due to the monolayer nature of WSe₂ and MoS₂ flakes, the thickness of these layers is about ~ 1 nm. Hence, the formation of 0.4 nm and 0.2 nm of depletion layers is reasonable [30]. As the V_{ds} increases, the depletion

layer thickness decreases, which facilitates more electrons and holes tunneling. Photoresponse dependency to light power intensity under illumination of 445 nm is displayed in Fig. S6.

To investigate the effect of electrostatic doping, the I_{sd} was monitored by swiping gate voltages at a constant applied $V_{sd} = +4$ V (figure 4(a) and fig. S7). For a positive gate voltage, the electrical field created in heterojunction, assists the charges separation which causes more charge carriers.

However, the negative gate voltages, prevents separation of charge carriers and so the electrical conduction decreases. The field-effect mobility of charge carriers was calculated as ~ 10 cm²V⁻¹ s⁻¹ through the following equation [32]

$$\mu = [dI_{ds}/dV_g] \times [L/(WC_i V_{ds})], \quad (2)$$

where L and W are the length and width of the device channel, respectively. The C_i is the capacitance of the gate oxide ($C_i = 1.17 \times 10^{-4}$ Fm⁻² for 300 nm SiO₂), and the V_g represents the applied back gate voltage. It worthy to mention that the Au nanoarrays are screening some part of the

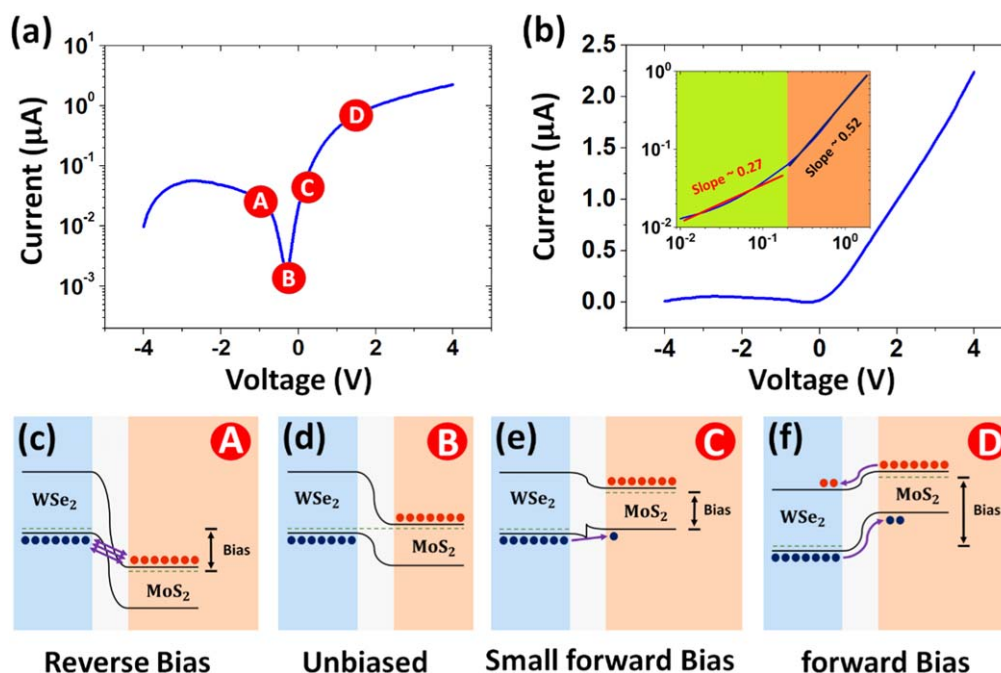


Figure 3. I – V characteristics of the device, on linear (a) and logarithmic (b) scales. (c) Energy band diagram at a reverse bias, which causes BTBT phenomenon. (d) Energy band diagram at unbiased mode which no current will be measured. (e) Energy band diagram at small forward bias, which holes transferred and participate in conduction. (f) Energy band diagram at a forward bias, in which electrons and holes are transferred and participate in conduction. (g) I – V characteristic of the $\text{MoS}_2/\text{WSe}_2/\text{Au}$ nanoarrays in double-log scale.

heterostructure and make in-plane homojunction which may modify concentration/type of the charge carriers. This should be taken into account in electrical characterizations of denser Au nanoarrays and nanometer scale electrodes.

To study the photoresponse of the device, the I – V characteristic by no electrical gate (figure 4(b)) and applying gate voltage of +10 V, were measured under the illumination of different wavelengths (figure 4(c) and Fig. S7). As observed, the gate voltage noticeably enhances the photocurrent due to more separation of the charge carriers. Besides, as we move toward shorter wavelengths (<500 nm), the photons with more energies excite more free and hot electrons in the Au nanoarrays due to the localized surface plasmons resonance (LSPR) effect. These hot electrons can easily break the potential barriers and inject to the conduction band of the heterostructure [33].

The Au nanoarrays play two important roles during light irradiation. Each of the Au nanoparticles individually can absorb light due to the LSPR effect. It is well known that light absorption by LSPR depends on the dielectric properties of the medium and geometry of the particles such as diameter and height. For particles larger than 100 nm in diameter, light absorption occurs over a wide range of visible and ultraviolet regions [34]. In the case of a particle diameter of 250 nm, the maximum absorption wavelength is in the range of 395 to 580 nm (Fig. S8) [33]. This absorption of light is coming from collective oscillations of free electrons in Au nanoparticle which causes to decay of the surface plasmons and hot electrons generation. The Plasmonic nanostructures exhibit tunable Fano resonances, which leads to strongly suppressing of light scattering and hot electron generation.

The hot electrons may transfer from plasmonic islands into the $\text{WSe}_2/\text{MoS}_2$ heterostructure and consequently have contribution in photocurrent. In addition, the strengthened near field associated with plasmons are capable of efficiently enhancing the excitation of electrons and holes in heterostructures accompanied by reducing their recombination.

In contrast to isolated or single plasmonic particles, the dimer structure shows a much larger absorption cross-section resulting in larger electrical field enhancements. In other words, the binary-fold hot spots lead to increased yield of hot electrons injection and more separation of the electron–hole pairs by light irradiation. The dimer form of Au nanoarrays has an asymmetric structure on the substrate. In the strong coupling state of the LSPR with incident light, polarization dependence of the photocurrent generation can be expected. To study this effect, two linear polarizations of light (parallel to dimer axis of Au array indexed as \parallel and perpendicular to it marked as \perp , (figure 5(a))) was irradiated on the sample as a normal angle in similar intensity conditions. As it can be seen in figure 5(b), the effect of polarization of incidence light was significant on photocurrent in the wavelength range of 395 to 580 nm. This highlights the plasmonic effect of Au nanoarrays on photocurrent enhancement due to carrier multiplication.

In parallel polarization of the incidence light, the small spatial gap between the Au nanoparticles interacts with the electromagnetic oscillations. In addition to hot electrons generation and then injection into the heterostructure, it creates an intensified local electrical field at the inter-distances of the dimer gaps because of overlapping of the surface plasmons decay. The intensified local electric field supports more

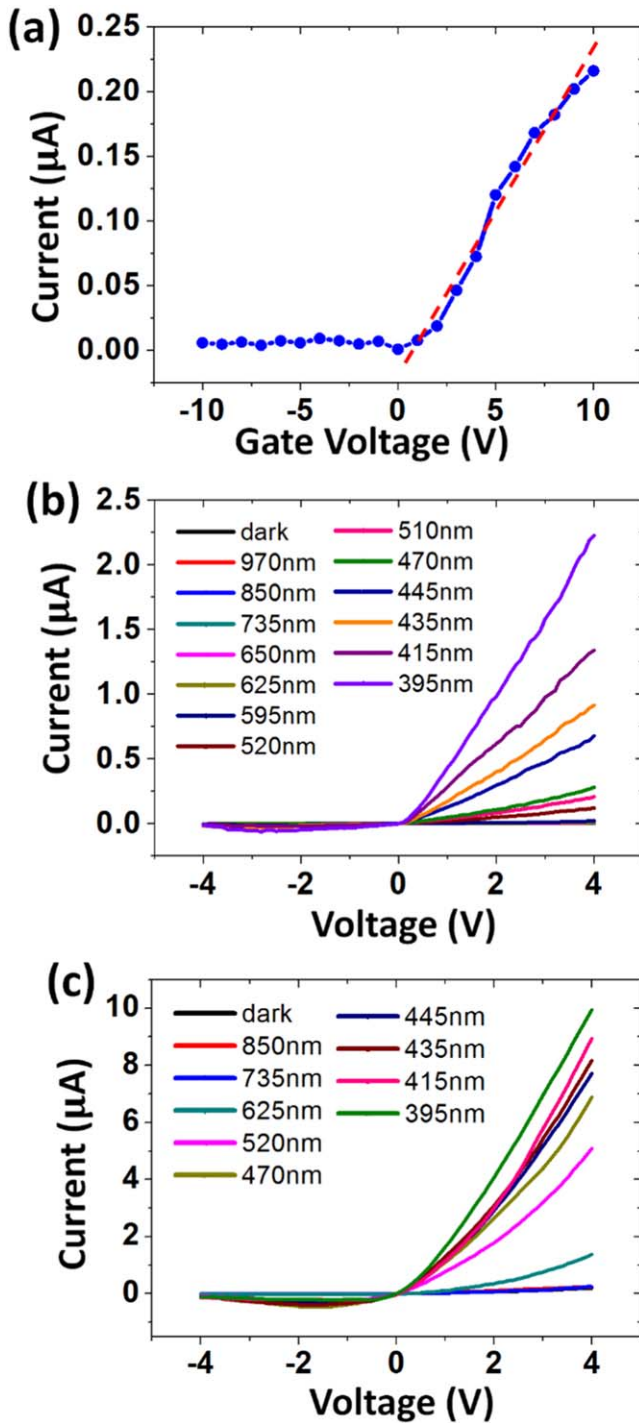


Figure 4. (a) The effect of gate voltage on the current of the device. (b) Photocurrent I – V curves without applying gate voltage. (c) Photocurrent I – V curves of the device at +10 V applied gate.

separation of photoinduced carriers on flakes heterojunction [35, 36].

In consistent with theoretical predictions and experimental suggestions on dimer plasmonic structures, the larger gap between the Au dimers causes a blue shift of optical absorption and the lower gap/diameter ratio causes more absorption than single plasmonic nanoparticles [37–39]. In the current device, the physical gap/particle diameter ratio is

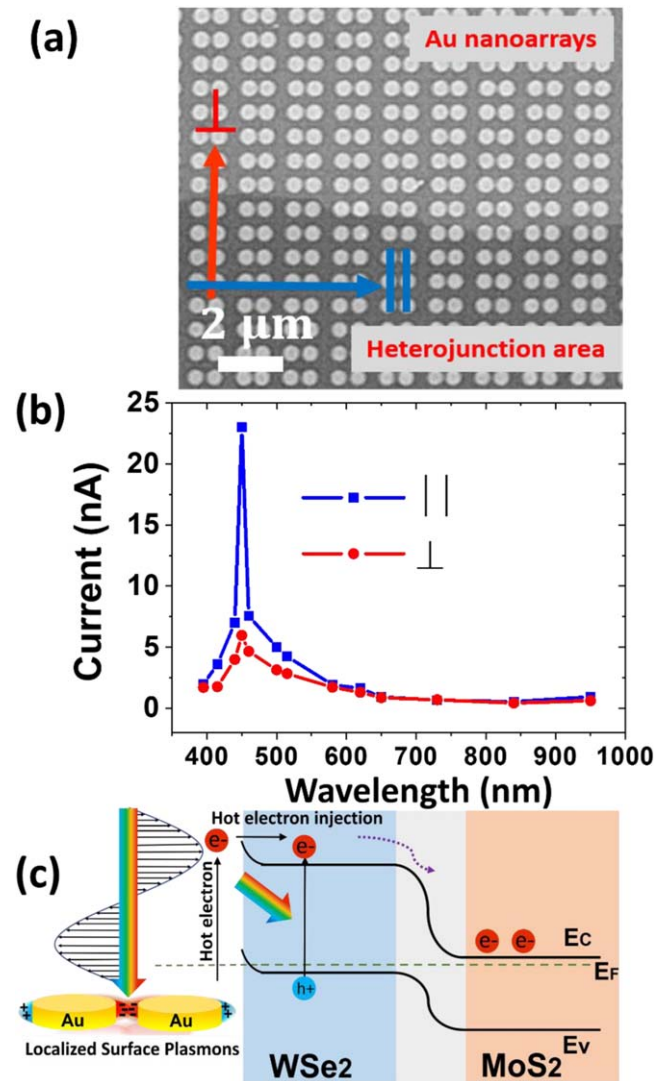


Figure 5. (a) Specification of \perp and \parallel polarization on the SEM image of the device. (b) The effect of \perp and \parallel polarizations on the generation of charge carriers. (c) Schematic illustration of photo-generated charge carriers in dimer Au nanoparticles and transferring to the WSe₂ and MoS₂ layers.

0.1 which leads to four times photocurrent amplification than another polarization [39]. The effect of hot spots in dimer Au nanoparticles on photogenerated charge carriers is schematically depicted in figure 5(c).

Due to these facts, in the parallel direction, polarized incident photons can be well coupled with the LSPR of the Au dimers which remarkably yielding high electrical field enhancement factors [40]. As mentioned above, this intensified near field can efficiently separate the photogenerated electron and holes in the flakes and postpone recombination of the charge carriers. However, in another \perp direction, these photocurrent multiplications are diminished because of the weaker coupling and overlapping of the surface plasmons (figure 5(b)). Therefore, the LSPR can have significant contribution in photoresponse of the photodetector in the wavelength range of 395 to 580 nm.

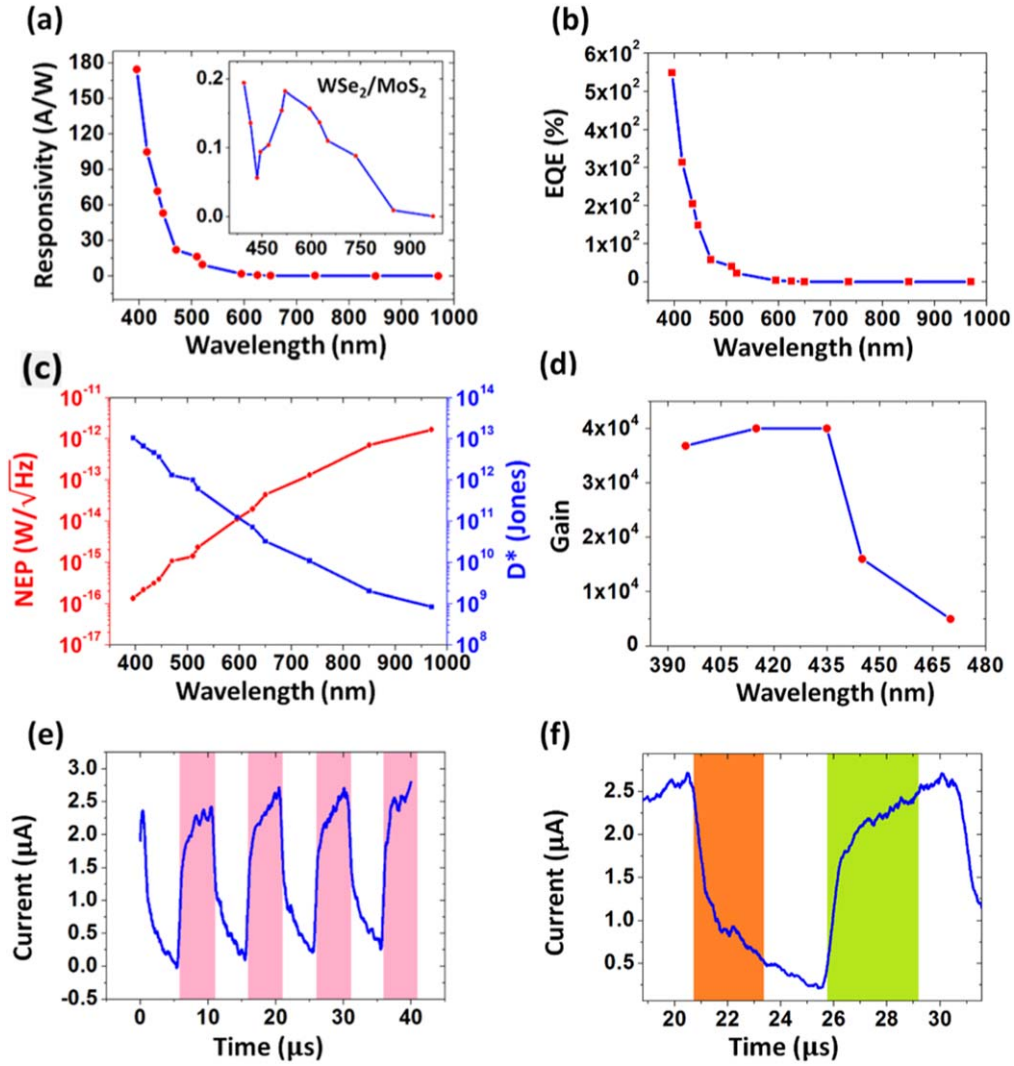


Figure 6. (a) Responsivity as a function of LED irradiance at different wavelengths at $V_g = 0V$ and $V_{ds} = +4V$. (inset depicts the responsivity of WSe_2/MoS_2 device with no Au nanoarrays). (b) External Quantum efficiency (EQE) as a function of LED irradiance at different wavelengths at $V_g = 0V$ and $V_{ds} = +4V$. (c) Spectral dependence of the NEP and specific detectivity (D^*) of the device. (d) Gain as a function of LED irradiance at different wavelengths of $V_g = 0V$ and $V_{ds} = +4V$. (e) The response of the device to a pulsed light (395 nm) source (the turn on and turn off times are 5 μs .) (f) Rising and falling times of the device at pulsed light (395 nm) source (the turn on and turn off times set as 5 μs .)

In figure 6, under the illumination of unpolarized LEDs light at different wavelengths, the photodetection results of the heterostructure device are presented including photoresponsivity (R), EQE, noise equivalent power (NEP), specific detectivity (D^*) and photoconductivity gain (G). The Photoresponsivity (R) defined as the ratio of produced photocurrent to the incident light power as.

$$R = (J_{ph} - J_d) / P_{in} \quad (3)$$

Where J_{ph} and J_d are the current density under light irradiation and dark states, respectively. The P_{in} denotes the optical power density of the incident light.

The photoresponsivity of the device is shown in figure 6(a) for the wavelengths range from 395 to 970 nm. As it can be seen, in shorter wavelength of 550 nm, the photoresponsivity of the device reaches to a value of $9.4 A W^{-1}$ at 520 nm to $174 A/W$ for 395 nm, which represents a 188-fold

and 3480-fold improvement, respectively [22]. Although the device responds to incident photons in wide ranges of the wavelengths (from 395 to 970 nm), its maximum photoresponsivity is in the range of 395 to 520 nm. As mentioned above, apart from well energy band alignment of the WSe_2/MoS_2 heterostructure, the main feature behind this considerable photoresponsivity attributes to the hot electrons and intensified local field coming from the presence of the dimer Au nanoarrays underneath of the heterostructure.

The EQE parameter is the ratio of the number of the collected charge carriers (N_C) to the number of photons (N_I) irradiated on the device as following:

$$EQE = (N_C / N_I) = (hcR / e\lambda), \quad (4)$$

where h is Planck constant, c represents the speed of light, e is the electron charge, and λ is the wavelength of the incident light.

Table 1. Performance of current devices in comparison with similar structures.

Structures	Wavelength [nm]	Responsivity [A/W]	Response time	References
MoS ₂	Visible	7.5×10^{-3}	50 ms	[42]
MoS ₂	UV-Visible	6.3×10^{-5}	20 ms	[43]
WSe ₂	Visible	4.4×10^{-2}	5.5×10^{-9} s	[44]
WSe ₂ /MoS ₂	514–633	0.05	—	[22]
G - GQDs	532–10,000	861–0.4	30 s	[45]
WSe ₂ / GaSe	520	6.2	30 μ s	[46]
G/ Si Nanorods/ Au NPs	850	1.5	73 μ s	[47]
ZnO NWs/ Al NPs	367	1.59	40 s	[48]
ZnSe NWs/ Ag NPs	480	1.85×10^{-1}	—	[49]
WSe ₂ /MoS ₂	Visible	0.2	—	This work
WSe ₂ /MoS ₂ / Au nanoarrays	395–520	15–180	2.5 μ s	This work

The figure 6(b) illustrates the EQE as a function of wavelengths of the incidence light. Due to the direct relationship between the R and EQE parameters, amazing improvement as high as 549% at 395 nm obtained which is a remarkable in comparison to similar heterostructure of WSe₂/MoS₂ reported before [22].

The evaluated NEP parameter defines as the minimum light signal power which can be detected from the total noise by a photodetector is shown in figure 6(c). In other words, the NEP represents required optical input power to achieve a signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of one within a bandwidth of 1 Hz. The NEP is calculated as:

$$NEP = \frac{\sqrt{S_I}}{R}, (S_I = S_I(1/f) + S_I(\text{shot}) + S_I(\text{thermal})), \quad (5)$$

Where R shows Responsivity and S_I is the total spectral density. As it can be seen in figure 6(c), the NEP values vary from 10^{-12} to 10^{-16} in the wavelength range of 970 to 395 nm. (See S6) The sensitivity of photodetector depending on different parameters such as bandwidth, device geometry and effective surface area of the detector which can be expressed in specific detectivity (D^*). This parameter estimated by:

$$D^* = \sqrt{A}/NEP \quad (6)$$

where A is the area of the photodetector. The data in figure 6(c) indicates that the D^* rises from 10^9 to 10^{13} in the wavelength range of 970 nm to 395 nm which is important results.

The G parameter presents the ratio of the detected charge carriers per single incident photons and is given by:

$$G = \tau_{\text{life}}/\tau_{\text{transit}}. \quad (7)$$

In this ratio, τ_{life} defined as $\tau_{\text{life}} = L^2/\mu V_{\text{ds}}$, where L is the length of the channel and μ is the carrier mobility. The τ_{transit} is approximated by the falling time of the transient J_{ph} during ON/OFF cycles of illumination [35]. Regard to the G values reported in figure 6(d), in the range of 395 nm to 470 nm more photocurrent is produced in the photodetector leading to larger photoconductive gains. Therefore, at smaller wavelengths of 435 nm, high photoconductive gain ($\sim 4 \times 10^4$) can be seen while for wavelengths longer than 435 nm, it drops to 1×10^4 .

In figure 6(e), the response of the device to the pulsed irradiated light has been reported. The wavelength of light was 395 nm (for other wavelengths see Fig. S10), and the turn-on (marked as pink regions) time was 5 μ s equal to the turn off time (white regions). From the response time of the device in one cycle of light exposure (figure 6(f)), one can estimate rising and falling times. The rising time (time interval from increasing of the signal from 10% to 90% of the peak value) which is exhibited as the green color region in figure 6(f) and falling time (decreasing of the signal from 90% to 10% of the peak value) displaying as orange color region, were measured as fast as 2.5 μ s and 3.5 μ s, respectively. This reflects rapid photoinduced carrier generation and transport through the device.

In table 1, the photodetector parameters of this study named as WSe₂/MoS₂ /Au nanoarrays have been compared with similar reported devices. The reference WSe₂/MoS₂ device with no Au nanoarrays was also fabricated and optoelectronic properties have been studied (Fig. S9). As it can be observed, the major challenges of heterostructures are their small photoresponsivity, EQE and response/falling times. However, the presence of the Au dimer nanoarrays has a great promotion on the photoresponsivity of the device within a few microsecond times scales. This photoresponse enhancement is mainly assigned to three mechanisms: (1) Heterojunction of energetically well-matched TMDs on plasmonic arrays drastically enriches the light interactions. More interaction of light with TMDs leads to more optical energy absorption rather than dissipating in the surrounding space which results in more photoinduced electron and hole [41]. (2) by light irradiation in wavelengths ranges of LSPR coupling with noble particle geometry, the free electrons as plasmonic waves oscillate at a resonance frequency. This creates a local electric field as hot spots on the surface of the nanoparticles, which increases the separation of the photo-induced charge carriers in the heterostructure. (3) The hot electrons generated from plasmonic coupling in the nanoparticles, cross through the potential barrier of the nanoparticles and can have involvement in increasing of electrical conduction [35, 36, 41].

It is worthy to note that when noble metallic nanoparticles such as Au, Ag, and Al are used in photodetectors,

as an important obstacle for the fabrication of fast switchable photodetectors the response time of these systems increases due to carrier scattering at the interfaces [45, 48]. Here, simultaneous using ordered Au nanoarrays and WSe₂/MoS₂ heterostructure, less carrier recombination and rapid charge transferring to the electrodes can be occurred [50]. This reduces the system response time as fast as 2.5 μ s, which is a considerable record for photodetectors containing plasmonic nanoparticles. Regard to table 1, the presented device in this research showed exceptional values to most of the photo-detection parameters. Therefore, it can be supposed that the introduced approach as WSe₂/MoS₂ /Au nanoarrays device is applicable for the fabrication of rapid and high performance photodetectors.

4. Conclusion

In summary, the improvement of photoresponsivity of atomically thin WSe₂/MoS₂ heterostructure on Au nanoarrays has been investigated using plasmon-induced photo-carriers. Due to the LSPR effect in dimer arrays of the Au nanoparticles act as an active and light-harvester substrate for WSe₂/MoS₂ heterojunction. This approach indicated a high photoresponsivity (174 A W⁻¹), high external quantum efficiency (549%), and fast response time (2.5–3.5 μ s) for fabricated photodetectors. The operation mechanism behind this photodetectivity enhancement can be assigned to increasing light interactions at heterostructure, hot electron generations and efficient charge separations because of the intensified local field. The introduced structure is a model for merging the novel characteristics of plasmonic nanoparticles and tunable photonic properties of TMDs heterostructures which can open up a new pathway to ultra-fast and sensitive optoelectronic devices.

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Data availability statement

All data that support the findings of this study are included within the article (and any supplementary files).

Author disclosure statement

The authors declare no competing financial and conflicts of interest.

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