The Role of Transport Agents in MoS2 Single Crystals

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ABSTRACT: We report resistivity, thermoelectric power, and thermal conductivity of MoS2 single crystals prepared by the chemical vapor transport (CVT) method using I2, Br2, and TeCl4 as transport agents. The material presents low-lying donor and acceptor levels, which dominate the in-plane charge transport. Interactions into the van der Waals gap strongly influence the interplane resistivity. Thermoelectric power displays the characteristics of strong electron–phonon interaction. A detailed theoretical model of thermal conductivity reveals the presence of a high number of defects in the MoS2 structure. We show that these defects are inherent to CVT growth method, coming mostly from the transport agent molecules inclusion as identified by total reflection X-ray fluorescence analysis (TXRF) and in-beam activation analysis (IBAA).

Molybdenum disulfide, MoS2, has been known for a long time as a mineral, but the first detailed studies were performed in the 1970s, during the vivid interest for transition metal dichalcogenides. This class of materials possesses a variety of electronic ground states, such as superconductivity, periodic lattice deformation (charge density waves), Mott transition, exciton formation, etc. Within this cavalcade of fascinating properties, MoS2 was left aside, since it had turned out to be a simple, indirect band gap (\(\Delta\)) semiconductor of \(\Delta = 1.2\) eV.

The revival of interest in this material has come with the isolation of graphene from graphite. Mechanical exfoliation of MoS2 is also possible, and it still remains the preferred technique for obtaining single or few layers of this material. MoS2 single layers achieved by chemical or mechanical exfoliation have been extensively studied for both scientific and applicative purposes. Chemical vapor transport (CVT) is the most used method to grow large area single crystals of transition metal dichalcogenides. In order to obtain high quality MoS2 few layers by exfoliation of single crystals, the good quality of the starting CVT-grown material must be ensured. Although other authors have already reported a dependence of the doping sign of WSe2, MoSe2, and WS2 at room temperature on the transport agent used during the CVT growth, a deeper and systematic study on how transport agents influence the electrical and thermal properties of MoS2 single crystals is still missing. Moreover, a recent work has shown that chlorine doping can drastically reduce the width of the Schottky barrier between few layers of MoS2 and metallic contacts allowing high performances in few layers MoS2 field-effect transistors. This observation demonstrates that inclusion of external atoms in MoS2 can also be advantageous for applications.

We measured resistivity of single crystals grown by the CVT method using I2, TeCl4, and Br2 as transport agents. Resistivity was measured parallel to the MoS2 planes (\(\rho_{ab}\)) and out of planes (\(\rho_c\)). The possibility to measure \(\rho_{ab}\) down to 4 K is already strong evidence that charge transport is not dominated by the charge transfer gap. In fact, in the case of a pristine sample with \(\Delta = 1.2\) eV the resistivity would be so high that no measurable current would be able to pass through the sample even at room temperature. Both the in-plane and the out-of-plane \(\rho\) follow a \(\rho_0\) exp\((E_0/k_BT)\) temperature dependence (\(k_B\) is the Boltzmann constant, \(E_0\) is the impurity level activation energy, and \(\rho_0\) is a temperature-independent constant). Figure 1 presents the Arrhenius plot of \(\rho_{ab}\) for a sample grown using I2 as transport agent. The comparison between resistivities measured for different crystals obtained by the same CVT grown with iodine transport agent results in a scattering of \(\rho_0\) and \(E_0\) values as shown in the inset of Figure 1. \(E_0\) is found in the 20–90 meV range. Because of the high level of doping, in some cases already at 100 K a conduction channel opens in the impurity band, and one observes very weak activation energy (4–5 meV). The low temperature flat part is presumably due to hopping conduction within the impurity band.

Figure 2 shows a comparison between the measured \(\rho_c\) and \(\rho_{ab}\) for the same MoS2 single crystal presented in Figure 1. The ratio \(\rho_c/\rho_{ab} = 100\) at 300 K further increases on cooling. The extracted \(E_0\) = 0.3 eV for \(\rho_c\) is \(\sim 6\) times higher than for \(\rho_{ab}\). In
the high temperature regime, the temperature-dependent resistivity ratio suggests that the mechanism of conduction is different along the two directions. The higher activation energy for the interplane charge transport can be ascribed to intercalated atoms between the MoS2 layers. In fact, \( \rho_c \) can be well described by \( \rho_0 \exp(\frac{E_{\text{int}} + E_b}{k_B T}) \), where the additional energy barrier \( E_{\text{int}} \) is due to hopping process between nearest neighbors.\(^{14}\) The charge carriers need phonon assisted hopping to get to the neighboring layer, and this phenomenon manifests itself as an additional activation term in resistivity.\(^{14}\) Since the phonon assistance is diminishing with the lowering temperature, one observes a strongly increasing resistivity anisotropy.

Whether one deals with a donor or an acceptor impurity level may be deduced from the Seebeck coefficient (S). Figure 3 presents the Seebeck coefficient measured parallel to the MoS2 planes for a sample prepared using I\(_2\) as transport agent. The sign of S suggests that at high temperature the dominant type of charge carriers are hole-like (coming from an acceptor level), while at low temperatures the electron like charge carriers dominate (donor level). Furthermore, at room temperature S has a large value of 400 \( \mu V/K \), typical for nondegenerated semiconductors.\(^{15}\) In the latter case, S is given by

\[
S = \frac{k_B}{\epsilon} \left( \frac{E_b}{k_B T} + \text{const} \right)
\]

where \( \epsilon \) is the electronic charge. This expression gives an increase of \( |S| \) with decreasing temperature. However, we find that \( S \) is temperature independent down to 180 K. Such behavior is characteristic of polaronic charge carriers,\(^{16}\) which have been observed in other materials like boron carbide\(^{17}\) and TiO\(_2\) anatase.\(^{18}\) In a simplified picture, the charge carrier excited to the conduction band polarizes the lattice and propagates along the lattice surrounded by this polarization. The energy involved in the creation of this new quasi-particle results with large values of S.

Thermal conductivity was measured for the MoS2 sample prepared by I\(_2\) transport agent. The results are presented in Figure 4. As for other poorly conducting materials, one may expect that the dominant contribution to the thermal conductivity (\( \kappa \)) is of phononic origin. Indeed, assuming an electron density that justifies the usage of the Wiedemann–Franz law, one obtains a very low estimation for the value of the thermal conductivity due to charge carriers, being much less than 1 W/(K m). Therefore, one can safely neglect such term.
and analyze $\kappa$ behavior in terms of purely phonon contribution. At room temperature we measured $\kappa = 15 \text{ W/(K m)}$, a value that is much lower than in other layered materials like graphite ($\kappa = 2000 \text{ W/(K m)}$).\textsuperscript{19} Room temperature thermal conductivity in a few and single layer MoS\textsubscript{2} was measured by a few authors. The measured data span between $\kappa = 30$ and 55 W/(K m), depending on the layer thickness and the way in which the samples were grown.\textsuperscript{20,22} This is a clear indication that impurities and/or strong anharmonicities play a significant role. In particular, from 10 to 300 K, $\kappa$ reveals three different temperature intervals: (i) the low temperature regime, below 40 K, where $\kappa$ quickly diminishes as temperature decreases; (ii) the intermediate temperature regime, from 40 to 70 K, in which $\kappa$ exhibits a maximum; and (iii) the high temperature part, from 70 to 300 K, in which $\kappa$ becomes suppressed by temperature. This behavior has strong resemblances to other semiconducting materials and may be investigated in more details in terms of three independent mechanisms (relaxation times) for phonon scattering: Umklapp phonon scattering, impurity scattering, and sample boundary scattering.\textsuperscript{23} With these three scattering contributions, in the context of the Callaway formalism, the integral expression for thermal conductivity due to the phonons is given by\textsuperscript{25}

$$\kappa = CT^3 \int_0^{\theta_D/T} \frac{1}{a_1 + a_2 T^4 x^4 + a_3 T^2 x^2 \exp[-\omega_0/T]} \frac{x^4 e^{\frac{x}{k_B T}}}{(e^{x/k_B T} - 1)^{\frac{1}{4}}} \, dx$$

with $C = (k_B/\pi^3 v_0)(k_B/\hbar)^3$, $x = \hbar\omega_0/k_B T$, $\theta_D$ is Debye temperature, $k_B$ the Boltzmann constant, $\hbar$ the Planck constant, and $v_0$ the average speed of sound. $a_1$, $a_2$, $a_3$, and $\omega_0$ are parameters that should be determined from experiments, by using a fitting procedure.

All of the scattering mechanisms in eq 2 are active in the entire temperature range shown in Figure 4, however, not with equal importance. Phonon–phonon interaction is dominant at high temperatures, where, thanks to the thermal excitations, the phonon thermal occupation is high for almost all wavelengths and accompanied by strong anharmonicities. By lowering $T$, the phonon thermal occupation decreases and Umklapp scattering becomes less significant, which results in an overall rise of thermal conductivity. Yet, by further lowering the temperature, other scattering processes become more efficient. That is, effects of impurities start to dominate at about 1/5 of Debye temperature ($\theta_D = 500 \text{ K}$ for MoS\textsubscript{2}).\textsuperscript{24} At very low temperatures, only the long-wave phonons remain in the system, with a mean free path being constrained by sample dimensions.

The values found for $a_1$, $a_2$, $a_3$, and $\omega_0$ of eq 2 are given in Table 1. The corresponding fitting curve is shown in blue in Figure 4, nicely reproducing the experimental data in the entire temperature range. While the Umklapp scattering seems less efficient in comparison to results obtained for a semiconductor with similar values of Debye frequency and $\kappa$ at room temperature (rutile TiO\textsubscript{2}),\textsuperscript{25} the scattering due to impurities is significantly enhanced for the MoS\textsubscript{2} sample. For the latter, $a_2$ is 2 orders of magnitude higher than for rutile TiO\textsubscript{2}. This effect is additionally depicted by a low value of $\kappa$ at the maximum with respect to the room temperature value, i.e., only a factor of 4, compared to a factor 100 observed in pure rutile TiO\textsubscript{2}.\textsuperscript{25} The expected low-temperature $T^3$ behavior is suppressed up to very low temperature, well below 15 K, which is the lowest temperature investigated in our experiment in Figure 4. All these findings show that our MoS\textsubscript{2} sample involves very strong scattering due to impurities. In particular, we believe that this effect should be ascribed to iodine contamination.

The results presented so far indicate that the iodine transport agent causes an unintentional doping of the CVT grown MoS\textsubscript{2} and that the charge carriers have a polaronic character. The presence of transport agents into the bulk of MoS\textsubscript{2} single crystals was confirmed by IBAA and TRXF analysis (see Supporting Information). In the particular case of samples grown using I\textsubscript{2}, TXRF reveals iodine contents up to 0.48 mol %. In order to investigate the effect of different transport agents on the electrical properties of MoS\textsubscript{2}, we studied single crystals produced by TeCl\textsubscript{4} and Br\textsubscript{2} transport agents. Figure 5 shows the comparison between Arrhenius plots of the in-plane resistivity of MoS\textsubscript{2} single crystals grown by I\textsubscript{2} (red), TeCl\textsubscript{4} (green), and Br\textsubscript{2} (blue) as transport agents.

![Figure 5. Arrhenius plot of the temperature dependence of the in-plane resistivity of MoS\textsubscript{2} single crystals grown by I\textsubscript{2} (red), TeCl\textsubscript{4} (green), and Br\textsubscript{2} (blue) as transport agents.](image-url)
surface by extensive washing, the removal of substituted or intercalated I$_2$ is more demanding. Probably, high temperature annealing in vacuum or in H$_2$S vapors would reduce its doping effect.

Contrary to the positive sign of Seebeck coefficient of MoS$_2$ grown with I$_2$, single crystals grown with TeCl$_4$ and Br$_2$ transport agents show values of $S(300 \text{ K}) = -460 \, \mu\text{V/K}$ and $S(300 \text{ K}) = -293 \, \mu\text{V/K}$, respectively. Other authors previously reported that CVT growth employing TeCl$_4$ and Br$_2$ transport agents cause n-doping also in WSe$_2$ and MoSe$_2$ crystals. However, WSe$_2$ and MoSe$_2$ samples grown with I$_2$ transport agent display p- and n-doping at room temperature, respectively. Positive Seebeck coefficients were also observed in naturally grown MoS$_2$ crystal. However, none of these samples displayed a change in $S$ at low temperatures. The smooth transition from holes dominated transport to electrons dominated transport in our MoS$_2$ sample grown by I$_2$ indicate that both p and n type of charge carriers are present in the material. We showed before that iodine intercalation could give extra holes. Sulfur vacancies could be instead the cause of extra electrons, as it was observed in WSe$_2$.

In conclusion, we have shown that MoS$_2$ single crystals grown by the chemical vapor transport method suffer from an unintentional doping by the transport agent molecules. Temperature-dependent electrical and thermal transport measurements clearly reveal the presence of defect and inclusions inside the material, as confirmed by our IBAAn and TXRF studies. This shortcoming of CVT grown MoS$_2$ should be always taken into account in the discussion of its physical properties, especially when exfoliated MoS$_2$ single layers are foreseen for applications.

**EXPERIMENTAL METHODS**

First, MoS$_2$ powder was synthesized by heating a mixture containing stoichiometric amounts of molybdenum (99.9% pure, Alfa Aesar) and sulfur (99.999% pure, Alfa Aesar) at 1000 °C for 7 days in an evacuated and sealed quartz ampule. The mixture was slowly heated from room temperature to 1000 °C for 12 h in order to avoid any explosion due to the strong exothermic reaction and the high volatility of sulfur. From this powder, MoS$_2$ crystals were grown using chemical vapor transport (CVT) with iodine, bromine, and tellurium tetrachloride as transport agent at ca. 5 mg/cm$^3$. All quartz tubes used for vapor transport typically have an inner diameter of 16 mm and a length of 20 cm. The total powder charge is 5 g. A very slight excess of sulfur is always included (typically 0.5 wt % of the charge) to ensure the stoichiometry in the resulting crystals. The excess of sulfur is not incorporated into the dichalcogenide crystals but condenses as elemental sulfur onto the wall of the quartz tube at the end of the CVT process. The source and growth zones were kept at 1060 and 1010 °C, respectively, for 7 days in evacuated and sealed quartz ampules. After this time the furnace is turned off, a small fraction of the charge is transported toward the colder end of the tube, forming crystals with diameters of about 2–8 mm and thick tens of microns, with exception of TeCl$_4$, where even 400 μm thicknesses where observed. The resulting crystals were washed with acetone and dried in vacuum. X-ray diffraction study has shown that MoS$_2$ obtained in this way belongs to the 2H polymorphism (see Supporting Information).

Resistivity measurements in the $ab$-plane and along the $c$-axis were performed in a conventional four-probe configuration after evaporation of chromium/gold contacts. Sketches are shown as insets in Figures 1 and 2. For the $\rho$ configuration the outer large circle is the current lead and the point-like contact in the middle is the voltage electrode. For the thermoelectric power measurement the sample was anchored to a ceramic bar on which a temperature gradient ($\Delta T$) was generated by a small heater at one end. The $\Delta T$ across the sample was measured by a differential chromel–constantan thermocouple attached to the sample (the details are described elsewhere). Thermal conductivity ($\kappa$) was measured by the steady state method, using a reference sample to measure the heat current through the MoS$_2$ single crystal as described elsewhere.

**ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

Supporting Information

Experimental details (SEM, XRD, TXRF, IBAAn measurements). This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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