Tightly Bound Trions in Transition Metal Dichalcogenide Heterostructures

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ABSTRACT We report the observation of trions at room temperature in a van der Waals heterostructure composed of MoSe$_2$ and WS$_2$ monolayers. These trions are formed by excitons excited in the WS$_2$ layer and electrons transferred from the MoSe$_2$ layer. Recombination of trions results in a peak in the photoluminescence spectra, which is absent in monolayer WS$_2$ that is not in contact with MoSe$_2$. The trion origin of this peak is further confirmed by the linear dependence of the peak position on excitation intensity. We deduced a zero-density trion binding energy of 62 meV. The trion formation facilitates electrical control of exciton transport in transition metal dichalcogenide heterostructures, which can be utilized in various optoelectronic applications.

KEYWORDS: transition metal dichalcogenides · van der Waals heterostructure · exciton · trion · charge transfer · photoluminescence

Two-dimensional transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) have emerged as a new class of semiconducting nanomaterials. One unique aspect of these materials is the strong Coulomb interaction between electrons and holes due to the lack of dielectric screening of the electric field outside the material. This results in strongly bound excitons with unusually large exciton binding energies on the order of several hundred millielectronvolts (meV), and hence provides a unique platform to explore exciton physics and many-body interactions. From an application point of view, since these excitons are stable at room temperature, they play dominant roles in determining optical properties of these materials.

Recent studies have revealed that the strong Coulomb interaction in two-dimensional TMDs also leads to formation of tightly bound charged excitons, also known as trions, mostly at cryogenic temperatures. In MoS$_2$ monolayers, a trion is formed by an exciton with an extra electron or hole, which can be introduced by gate-doping, photoionization of impurities, substrates, or functionalization layers. These trions have been observed in low-temperature photoluminescence (PL) spectra, electroluminescence, and absorption spectra, as extra peaks on the low-energy side of the neutral exciton peaks. From these measurements, the trion binding energy in MoS$_2$ was found to be in the range of 18–50 meV, which is sensitive to the laser excitation intensity, the doping concentration, and the dielectric environment. Moreover, strong sample-to-sample variation of the trion binding energy was also reported. Similarly, trions were also observed in other TMDs by PL, electroluminescence, and absorption spectroscopy, including MoSe$_2$ with binding energies of 20–30 meV, WS$_2$ with binding energies of 40–45 meV, and WSe$_2$ with binding energies of 25–30 meV. Furthermore, theoretical models on trion states in TMDs have been developed, which are consistent with experimental results.

Here we extend studies of trions to van der Waals heterostructures formed by different types of TMD monolayers. Very recently, several types of TMD heterostructures have been fabricated by manual assembly of exfoliated TMD monolayers and chemical vapor deposition. Since advantages of each participating monolayer can potentially be combined, these heterostructures have shown great promise in applications of field effect transistors, vertical tunneling transistors, photovoltaic devices, and light-emitting devices. We show that efficient charge transfer processes in TMD heterostructures facilitate formation of trions, without external supply of charge carriers. As a model system, we study a heterostructure sample formed by...
MoSe₂ and WS₂ monolayers. A pronounced trion peak from WS₂ is observed at room temperature in the heterostructure sample, which is absent in WS₂ monolayer. The trion binding energy is found to be about 62 meV, slightly larger than previously reported values in monolayer WS₂ and increases linearly with the excitation intensity. The formation of trions facilitates electrical control of exciton transport in TMD heterostructures.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The MoSe₂–WS₂ sample is fabricated by a manual transfer technique (see Methods). Flakes of MoSe₂ and WS₂ that contain monolayer regions are first exfoliated from bulk crystals to polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) substrates, as shown in Figure 1a,b, then sequentially transferred to a silicon substrate with a 90 nm SiO₂ layer [Figure 1c,d]. In addition to the heterostructure region, the flake also contains individual monolayers of MoSe₂ and WS₂, and hence facilitates direct comparison of the heterostructure and the participating monolayers.

Figure 2 shows the PL spectra measured under the excitation of a continuous-wave 405 nm laser beam, with the laser spot located on the regions of WS₂ monolayer (blue), MoSe₂ monolayer (red), and heterostructure (black), respectively. The individual WS₂ and MoSe₂ monolayers have PL peaks at about 2.01 and 1.58 eV, respectively, both with widths of about 50 meV. These are consistent with previously reported values and further confirms the monolayer thickness of these flakes. The peak of WS₂ is significantly quenched in the heterostructure, by a factor of about 23. Quenching of PL in heterostructures compared to individual TMD layers has been previously reported, which is caused by charge transfer across the interface: According to first-principles
calculations, most heterostructures formed by two TMD monolayers have type-II band alignments, where the bottom of the conduction band and the top of the valence band are located in different layers.37 Hence, once excited, electrons and holes transfer to different sides of the interface, resulting in formation of spatially indirect excitons, and therefore, the PL peaks of the individual layers are quenched. A strong peak at about 1.53 eV is also observed from the heterostructure. Since it is about 50 meV below the expected MoSe2 exciton peak and about 2 times stronger than the PL from the individual MoSe2 monolayer, we can rule out the excitons in MoSe2 as its origin, and attribute it to indirect excitons formed by electrons in WS2 and holes in MoSe2. This assignment is also consistent with results of first-principles calculations, which predicted small offsets of conduction bands of 60 meV in MoSe2–WS2 heterostructures.38

A shoulder on the low-energy side of the exciton peak in the heterostructure sample can be clearly seen, which is absent in the spectra of WS2 monolayer. We assign this feature to trions formed by excitons in WS2 and electrons transferred from MoSe2. To confirm this assignment, we measure PL spectra of the heterostructure at various excitation levels. The results are shown in Figure 3. We find that this trion peak can be reliably separated from the main exciton peak. By fitting the spectra with two Gaussian functions, shown as the solid lines in Figure 3, we obtain parameters describing the two peaks. These parameters are summarized in Figure 4.

As we increase the excitation level, the energies of the exciton (E_x) and trion peaks (E_T) both decrease, as shown in panels a and b of Figure 4. The change in E_T is about 20 meV in this range, larger than the change of E_x of less than 4 meV. Figure 4c shows that the difference between these two peaks, E_X - E_T, increases linearly with the excitation level. This energy difference, known as trion binding energy, is the energy required to convert the trion to an exciton and a free charge (electron or hole). Since the free charge needs to be released to above the Fermi surface where unoccupied states are available, the trion binding energy increases with the Fermi surface, which increases with the excitation level. Previously, the increase of the trion binding energy with carrier density has been observed in monolayer TMDs, such as MoS2,3 WS2,4 WSe2,14 and has been regarded as one of the signatures of trions. From a linear extrapolation, shown as the solid line in Figure 4c, we find a trion binding energy of about 62 meV at zero excitation power. This value is similar to, and slightly larger than, the trion binding energies in monolayer WS2 (40–45 meV) previously reported,12,13 considering potential sample-to-sample variations of the binding energy.4

From the double-peak fits shown in Figure 3, we also deduce the height of the two peaks, H_X and H_T, as a function of the excitation power. The results are summarized in Figure 4d,e. Both peaks increase with the excitation power at a rate faster than linear. By fitting the data, as shown as the solid curves, we find that this increase is of power 1.6 in both cases.
The superlinear increase of PL with excitation power is usually attributed to the presence of defects allowing for nonradiative recombination and trapping of excitons that compete with radiative recombination. As the excitation power increases, higher carrier densities are injected, and the fraction of injected carriers that are affected by these defects decreases, resulting in a superlinear increase of PL. Given the very low excitation power used in this study, this mechanism is likely the origin of the observed power dependence. The ratio of the two peaks is relatively constant in the range of the measurement, as shown in Figure 4f.

Previously, trions have been observed in monolayer TMDs when the sample is doped or when extra carriers are introduced by other means. We show that TMD heterostructures allow observation of trions at room temperature without an external source of carriers. We attribute this observation to the efficient charge transfer process in such heterostructures. First-principle calculations have predicted that TMD heterostructures form type-II band alignment with the bottom of the conduction band and the top of the valence band located in different layers. For the heterostructure of MoSe$_2$–WS$_2$, the predicted band alignment is shown in Figure 5a, with the offsets of 60 and 270 meV in conduction (C) and valence (V) bands, respectively. In this scheme, the exciton binding energy is not included for clarity. The 405 nm pump excites both layers by populating the conduction and valence bands with electrons (–) and holes (+), as shown in Figure 5a. The electrons (holes) injected in MoSe$_2$ (WS$_2$) are expected to transfer to the lower energy state in WS$_2$ (MoSe$_2$), indicated by the red dashed line in Figure 5b. Recent time-resolved studies on similar TMD heterostructures, such as MoS$_2$–WS$_2$ and MoS$_2$–MoSe$_2$, have shown that the charge transfer across the van der Waals interface is highly efficient and ultrafast. Under the continuous excitation of the 405 nm laser, the interlayer charge transfer process results in extra electrons (holes) in WS$_2$ (MoSe$_2$) layer. As a consequence, trions are formed in each with two electrons and one hole, as indicated by the gray dotted shape in Figure 5. We note that Figure 5 also suggests the possibility of formation of positively charged trions in the MoSe$_2$ layer. However, due to the relatively low PL yield of MoSe$_2$, no features related to MoSe$_2$ excitons or trions are observable in the heterostructure sample.

**CONCLUSION**

In summary, we provide evidence of trion formation in TMD heterostructures at room temperature without external supply of charge carriers. This process is facilitated by, and provides evidence for, ultrafast and efficient charge transfer in TMD heterostructures owing to their type-II band alignment. We found a zero-density trion binding energy of about 62 meV in the MoSe$_2$–WS$_2$ heterostructure studied. Since most TMD heterostructures are expected to form type-II band alignments, trion formation can be expected in other similar structures as well. Observation of trions in TMD heterostructures opens up a new platform to study excitonic physics in low-dimensional systems and the Coulomb interaction between charge carriers, and can be utilized in optoelectronic devices for electric control of optical excitations.

**METHODS**

The samples used in this study are fabricated by mechanical exfoliation followed by a manual transfer technique. First, polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) substrates are made onto glass slides to allow for a rigid and transparent backing. Next, MoSe$_2$ flakes are mechanically exfoliated onto a PDMS substrate. Utilizing an optical microscope, monolayer flakes are easily identified by optical contrast, as shown in Figure 1a. The PDMS substrate with MoSe$_2$ flakes is inverted under the microscope and lowered onto a silicon substrate with a 90 nm oxide layer. Slowly lifting the PDMS substrate allows the MoSe$_2$ monolayer flake to adhere to the silicon substrate, as shown in Figure 1c. The sample is then cleaned in acetone, rinsed with isopropyl alcohol, and dried under nitrogen. To ensure little to no residue from the exfoliation or transfer processes remains, the sample is thermally annealed for 2 h at 200 °C in a H$_2$/Ar (10 sccm/100 sccm) environment with a pressure of 3 Torr. Next, a WS$_2$ flake is mechanically exfoliated and processed in the same way, and is precisely transferred on top of the MoSe$_2$ flake. The heterostructure, shown in Figure 1d, is cleaned in acetone and isopropyl alcohol, and thermally annealed to allow for proper contact between the two flakes.

The PL system is based on a Horiba iHR550 imaging spectrometer equipped with a thermoelectrically cooled charge-coupled device (CCD) camera. A diode laser of 405 nm is used for excitation. The laser beam is focused to the sample through a microscope objective lens, to a spot size of less than 1 μm. The PL from the sample is collected by the same objective lens and is guided to the spectrometer. All the measurements are performed with the sample in ambient condition.

**Conflict of Interest:** The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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![Figure 5. Charge transfer of trion formation in TMD heterostructure.](image-url)