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## Original Article

# Structural and optical behaviors of 2D-layered molybdenum disulfide thin film: experimental and ab-initio insights



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## ABSTRACT

The two-dimensional (2D) layered molybdenum disulfide (MoS<sub>2</sub>) material represents a nominee potent for optoelectronic devices application. In this research work, the experimental characterizations of 2D- MoS<sub>2</sub> thin films are reported in terms of various microscopic and spectroscopic techniques. The synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub> thin films are grown by employing the pulsed laser deposition (PLD) procedure on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrates. In order to monitor the deposition rates of ablated films, the buffer argon-gas pressures are varied during the pulsed laser deposition at substrate temperature of 700 °C. The field emission scanning electron microscopy and atomic force microscopy analyzes revealed a change in the surface morphology of MoS<sub>2</sub> films when the buffer Ar-gas pressure is varied between 0 and 100 mTorr. For all samples, a 2H-phase is revealed from X-ray diffraction patterns, indicating a reflection (2θ) around 14.85°. By varying the deposition pressure of laser-ablated MoS<sub>2</sub> films, the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy divulged the chemical compositional elements and valence states of Mo and S on the surface of MS<sub>2</sub> films with low density of defects. Analysis of the photoluminescence spectroscopy illustrated emission bands spanning from the visible (Vis) to near-infrared (NIR) regimes in the deposition pressures range ~ 0–100 mTorr. This is mainly owing to the change in the recombination of electron–hole pairs and charge transfer between the deposited MoS<sub>2</sub> films and SiO<sub>2</sub> substrate surface under various buffer gas pressures. Additionally, first-principles electronic structure calculations are performed to qualitatively examine the effect of native point-defect species (sulfur-monovacancy and sulfur-divacancy defects) on the electronic structure and optical properties of 2D- MoS<sub>2</sub> sheets. It is unveiled that the variation of compositional sulfur-vacancy defect in MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer creates an in–gap defect levels above the valence states, leading to an acceptor character. Importantly, the enhancement in the optical absorption spectra divulged a shift in the optical gap from Vis-NIR window with the increase of sulfur vacancy contents in MoS<sub>2</sub> single-layer. The identification of intrinsic point defects may be beneficial for photovoltaic energy conversion at higher wavelengths by designing next generation 2D-semiconductors,

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which could be of vital significance for growing 2D layers and multilayers into practical technologies.

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## 1. Introduction

New plethora of two dimensional (2D) layers has captivated a worthwhile enthusiasm owing to their distinctive characteristics [1–3]. Recent evolution in the layered 2D materials has comprised enormous benefits for devices fabrication, such as dielectric, semiconductor, and conductor layers [4–8]. The synthesized 2D layered materials have acquired an outstanding performance for the new generation 2D-devices, like photodetectors, flexible thin film transistors, phototransistors, heterogeneous catalysis, heterojunction diodes, gas sensors, and lithium ion batteries [9–14]. Transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) are classified into the category of the most promising 2D layered materials. The atomically thin molybdenum disulfide ( $\text{MoS}_2$ ) belongs to 2D-TMD materials, containing layers weakly interacting and could be isolated from its bulk parent compound. Accordingly, the 2D- $\text{MoS}_2$  layered atomic structure possesses distinctive and flexible optical transparency. This is owing to the tailoring of its indirect band gap of 1.2 eV of bulk semiconductor to the direct transition via the thinning to a few layers number unlike the semi-metallic behavior of graphene [15–21]. By thinning bottomward to monolayer,  $\text{MoS}_2$  exhibits striking electronic, optical, and mechanical characteristics. However, Van der Waals interactions constitute the bonding of inter-layered S–Mo–S via the strong covalent bonding between Mo and S atoms in the basal plane. Both experimental and theoretical realizations revealed a wide direct band gap  $\sim 1.9$  eV for the single layered  $\text{MoS}_2$  material and exhibited a significant photoluminescence as well as superior quantum efficiency [19–22]. Furthermore, single-layer and few-layered  $\text{MoS}_2$  material induced peculiar electrical and optical performance, significant carrier mobilities between 200 and 500  $\text{cm}^2/\text{V}$ , and outstanding ratios of on/off current exceeding  $10^3$ . This can turn this promising 2D material accessible into the field-effect transistors (FETs) application and the thinnest transistor based on  $\text{MoS}_2$  was previously proposed [23–26]. Eventually,  $\text{MoS}_2$  is regarded as an eminent candidate for the next-generation electronic devices because of its extraordinary valley, excitons, and spin behaviors [27–30].

Up to date, various researches have been focused on the preparation of  $\text{MoS}_2$  layers by utilizing diverse experimental techniques, the so-called lithium intercalation, magnetron sputtering, liquid exfoliation, mechanical exfoliation, chemical bath deposition, laser thinning, and chemical vapor deposition (CVD) [31–37]. The disadvantages of the chemical synthesis and mechanical exfoliation techniques are related to the inconvenience of handling large area for practical devices [34–36]. Despite the simplicity, the scalability, and short time consumption of the magnetron sputtering, the shortages are attributed to the roughness of crystal, poorness quality of

crystal, and the consumption of elevated energy [37–40]. By employing CVD procedure, the nucleation of layer is troublesome, which induces non-uniformed  $\text{MoS}_2$  layers. Also, it is possible to manipulate the thickness and scale size of samples. The growth time is lengthy that can only be facilitated at higher temperatures. However, it is necessary to look for an alternative procedure with several advantages over the traditional growth methods, like pulsed laser deposition (PLD). This is due to its simplicity, safety, cleanness, accessibly controllable, low price, rapidity, scalability, highly manipulation, and lower contamination during the growth process. The preparation of layered  $\text{MoS}_2$  films by using the PLD technique provides various benefits comparatively to the traditional CVD procedure, where the stoichiometric transmission of ablated species can be established from the target into the substrate. The monitoring of thickness would be attained by controlling the growth kinetics and repetitive rate (frequency) under the change of deposition pressure and laser energy. Thus, the PLD procedure is proper for the growth of multi-elemental elements at different stoichiometry parameters in order to prevent the use of costly and likely risky precursors (i.e.  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ) utilized in other synthesis techniques [41–46]. Heretofore, the PLD technique has been effectively employed in the deposition of various 2D-layered materials, like graphene, black phosphorous (BP),  $\text{MoS}_2$ , and  $\text{WS}_2$ , and so on [46–48]. This technique is a useful step for a large scale deposition of multi-elemental layered materials fabricated in a wafer-scale of electronic devices.

It is well recognized that the intrinsic point defects in 2D materials can significantly alter their chemical and physical properties, yielding either wanted or undesirable response. The previous works have been already focused their attention on the vacancies defects that affect the change of magnetic levels in graphene and boron nitride [49–51]. From the experimental perspectives, the mono-sulfur vacancies remain the most prevailing defects, divulging both acceptor and donor behaviors [52–56]. It was reported that the insertion of oxygen vacancies is much accessible than the rest of native point defect species. Thereby, the impurity states will be created in both valence states and in band gap level. Subsequently, the impurity levels resulting from the low composition of native point defects, may enhance the photon absorption in the visible light regime useful in photovoltaic energy conversion at higher wavelengths. Extra native point defects of constituent atoms, the so-called anti-sites, vacancies, and interstitials of the host atoms would contribute to the reduction in the bond strain by incorporating the doping impurity with different atomic sizes. Thereby, the charge imbalanced can be compensated via the aliovalent impurity atom and the electronic structure of semiconducting material would be altered nearby Fermi level. In contrast to the oxide analogous materials, the annealing process is troublesome in

a gaseous environment with sulfur atoms. Thermodynamically, MoS<sub>2</sub> materials containing sulfur are not easy to be stabilized comparatively to oxide analogous materials. Various stable or meta-stable allotropic materials based on sulfur may constitute hypervalent molecules, although, the stabilization of MoS<sub>2</sub> samples without native defects is more difficult than the oxide materials. However, the stabilized oxide materials are much easier for the manipulation of partial pressure of O<sub>2</sub> by employing the annealing process at higher temperature.

For this key purpose, we address experimental investigations on the structural and optical characteristics of MoS<sub>2</sub> thin films deposited on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrates by employing various characterization instruments under the influence of buffer Ar-gas pressures in the range of 0–100 mTorr. The depositions of laser-ablated MoS<sub>2</sub> thin films on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrates, are carried out using PLD technique. In order to control the structural morphology of the samples, the deposition of thin films are cautiously prepared from the MoS<sub>2</sub> targets grown on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrates by varying the buffer Ar-gas pressure and selecting a proper ablated laser pulse number at substrate temperature of 700 °C. The morphology of surface, thickness size, and optical features of MoS<sub>2</sub> films are found to vary versus the change of deposition pressure rate. By employing the PLD technique, it is possible to minimize the typical vacancies in the prepared specimens. It was found previously that the S vacancies contribute into the degraded electronic and optical characteristics of the 2D-materials [54–56]. Hitherto, the decisive relationship between the vacancy defects and the degraded physical features of MoS<sub>2</sub> layered atomic structures was a disclosed inquiry. The most dominant defects in MoS<sub>2</sub> layered structures are instances of lacking mono-S atoms, which are created from S-mono-vacancies. All the above mentioned potential issues, triggered our attention to report first-principle calculations to examine the impact of intrinsic defects, like mono-sulfur vacancy (V-S), di-sulfur vacancy (V-S<sub>2</sub>) on the physical properties of MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayers that are supportive to our experimental investigations. The creation of both V-S, and V-S<sub>2</sub> typical native defects in the host lattice can tailor or enhance the electronic and optical behaviors of MoS<sub>2</sub> single-layer, to find desirable properties, which are missing in the pristine monolayers [57–68]. A deep acceptor-like state would be created in the host material with the presence of native point defect, leading to a p-type semiconductor. The intrinsic defects describe a proper route for the next generation 2D-semiconductor devices which could be indispensable for growing 2D layers into realistic industrialized technologies.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Experimental setup

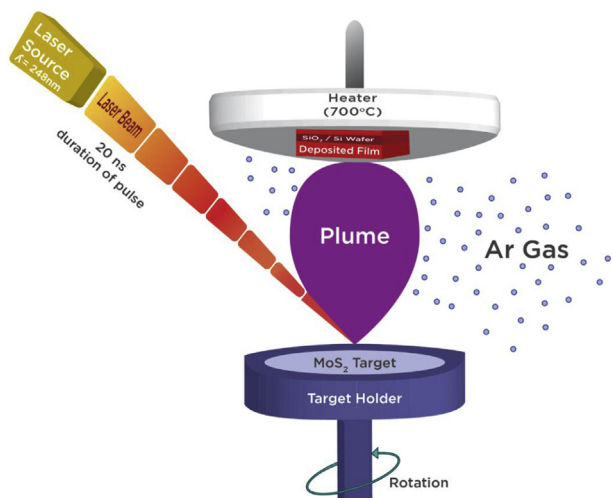
In the PLD setup, a plasma plume is generated by ejecting the energy laser pulse of MoS<sub>2</sub> species on the substrate that is placed at a few cm in front of the target. In order to control the morphology and deposition rate of structural materials, various parameters are needed to be monitored suitably, such as the excitation voltage, laser energy, number of ablated laser

pulses, repeating rates, and pressure of background gas. The growth mechanisms are optimized and performed on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrates by setting a laser pulse of 20,000 on the MoS<sub>2</sub> target to eject a similar quantity of material at each deposition step. For SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate, the growth temperature of 700 °C is selected for the deposited samples. The generated plasma that involves both ions and atoms, will attain the substrate at struck laser pulses on the solid target of MoS<sub>2</sub>. Then, Mo and S atoms are implanted onto SiO<sub>2</sub> substrate surface at a reduced time, which is undertaken as the source of atoms during the delivering of an energetic source of PLD. Moreover, the SiO<sub>2</sub> surface acts as a growth template for MoS<sub>2</sub> films. A cautious manipulation of MoS<sub>2</sub> particles number is carried out on the SiO<sub>2</sub> surface of the resulting films. This procedure can be established by changing the laser energy and time of deposition. The films quality can also be organized by selecting suitable rates of cooling and pressures of background gas. The deposited MoS<sub>2</sub> films are carried out on cleaned and polished SiO<sub>2</sub> substrates.

The deposition of MoS<sub>2</sub> films is achieved by employing a KrF laser ( $\lambda = 248$  nm) Lambda Physik excimer PLD system. The distance between the target and substrate is selected at 5 cm. Before the deposition of samples, the chamber is evacuated at a base pressure of  $<10^{-7}$  Torr for preventing the oxidation of MoS<sub>2</sub> films. The ablated MoS<sub>2</sub> target is implemented on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate at an excitation voltage of 22 Kvolt, a frequency of 10 Hz, and a duration of pulse of 20 ns. The time of ablated target is realized at 10 s to prevent the transfer of MoS<sub>2</sub> species (less than 5 nm) onto the substrate. The laser spot size is focused on the target at 1 mm<sup>2</sup> by utilizing the ablated laser of fluence  $\sim 6$  J/cm<sup>2</sup>, which possesses a circular outline of a radius  $\sim 7$  cm. Then, the sample was delivered inside the chamber of preparation (buffer Ar-gas pressure  $\sim 0$  mTorr) after the PLD procedure. For the deposited samples, the cooling of SiO<sub>2</sub> substrate surfaces are established at rates of 3 °C/min. The samples are synthesized at various buffer Argon gas pressures of 0, 50, and 100 mTorr, respectively. A commercial pellet of MoS<sub>2</sub> (Stanford advanced materials) is utilized as a sputtering target with purity of 99.9%. The PLD-grown MoS<sub>2</sub> films are implemented at a dimension of 10 mm  $\times$  10 mm on a cleaned surface of SiO<sub>2</sub>/p + -Si wafer substrate of 50 nm thickness. The fabricated MoS<sub>2</sub> films on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrates illustrated a particle-like structure because of the sensitivity of SiO<sub>2</sub> surface [40–43]. Fig. 1 displays the experimental setup of PLD system that is employed during the growth of MoS<sub>2</sub> films. To improve the quality of films, a suitable choice of laser fluence and cooling rate are required. For the preparation of various samples, a flowing of buffer Ar gas (pressures of 0, 50, and 100 mTorr, respectively) and a diffusion pump are used for both target and substrate that are settled inside a vacuum chamber. In order to acquire less S deficiency during the deposition process, the buffer Ar-gas is utilized for the control of pressure in the chamber and stoichiometry of deposited films.

### 2.2. Thin film characterization and measurements

After the PLD synthesis of MoS<sub>2</sub> films, the morphological shapes of structures (the variation of magnitude is between nm and  $\mu$ m) are measured and characterized by changing the



**Fig. 1 – Schematic diagram of deposition of MoS<sub>2</sub> films by PLD technique.**

buffer-Ar gas pressure from 0 mTorr up to 100 mTorr. The structural characterizations of MoS<sub>2</sub> samples are carried out with X-ray diffractometer (XRD) patterns, a Philips PW1710 diffractometer, while the radiation source of Cu-K $\alpha$  is used with a wavelength of 0.1542 nm. The structural morphologies are analyzed by employing the field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM; JSM-7610 F FE-SEM; JEOL) of MoS<sub>2</sub> films that are grown on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrates. In addition, the surface topography of MoS<sub>2</sub> films are determined from the atomic force microscopy (AFM; Bruker, Germany). The changes in the structural bonds and transmission modes of MoS<sub>2</sub> samples are estimated by means of Fourier transform infrared (FTIR; Nicolet 6700, Thermo Scientific, USA) spectra as a function of the variation of wavenumbers between 350 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 4000 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Additionally, the measurements of optical absorbance spectra of MoS<sub>2</sub> films are determined via the ultraviolet–visible–near infrared (UV–Vis–NIR) spectroscopy (JASCO UV/VIS/NIR spectrophotometer (V670)) by varying the wavelengths between 200 nm and 1200 nm. The binding energies of Mo, and S elements in MoS<sub>2</sub> films are measured from the monochromatic Al K $\alpha$  at 1486.6 eV, with X-ray photon spectroscopy (XPS) (PHI 5600 Multi-Technique XPS: Physical Electronics, Lake Drive East, Chanhassen, MN, USA). The photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy is utilized for the measurements of emission spectra of all samples at continuous wave laser of 473 nm.

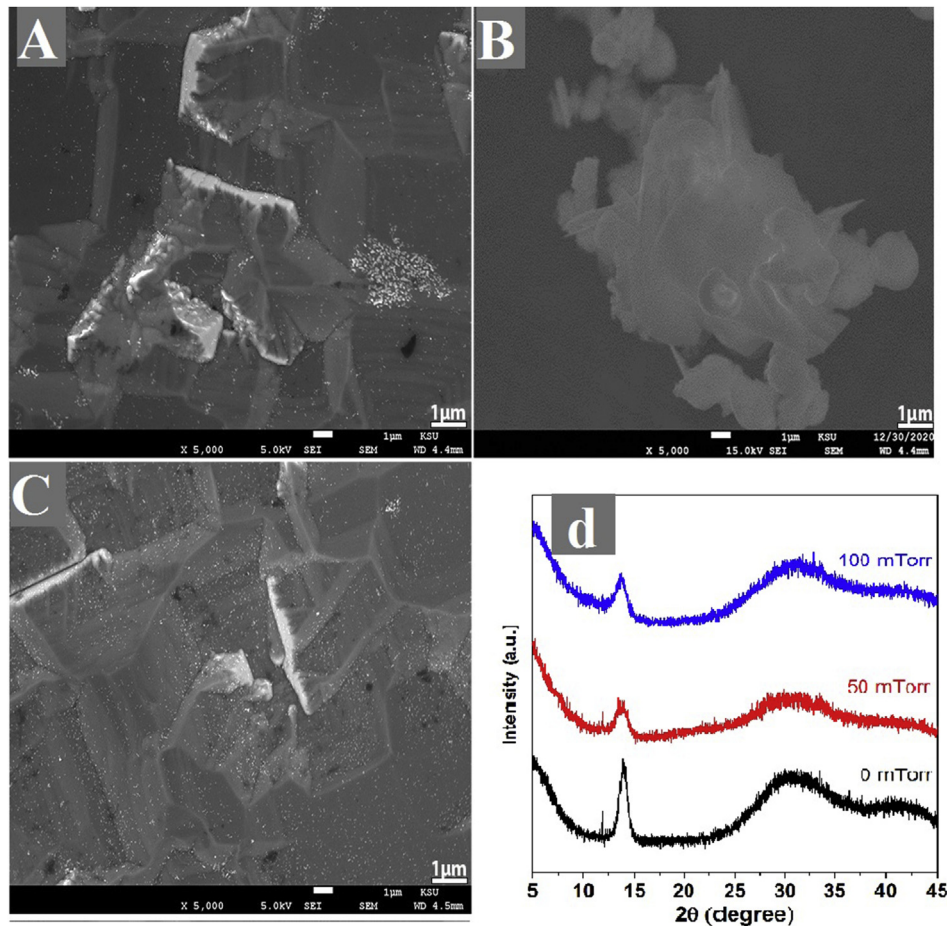
### 3. Results and discussion

The effect of deposition pressure on the crystalline patterns, chemical stoichiometry, and optical characteristics of the layered MoS<sub>2</sub> films are discussed in this section. The variation of deposition pressure influences MoS<sub>2</sub> thickness on the substrate surface by selecting proper PLD deposition parameters.

#### 3.1. Structural characterizations

##### 3.1.1. FE-SEM analysis

The FE-SEM measurement is a useful tool to inspect the changes in the morphological, surface characteristics, and structural properties of the specimens grown at different deposition pressure regimes. Fig. 2(a)–(c) illustrate the high resolution SEM images of the deposited MoS<sub>2</sub> films on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate surfaces. After PLD procedure, the Mo and S species can be grown conveniently on the substrate surfaces during the deposition process and substrate cooling. Therefore, the deposition pressure is crucial to alter the mean free path of the ablated species in which the energy will be maximized or minimized to arrive the substrate surface. The nucleation of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanostructures occurs at the first stage on the substrate after the deposition process at different buffer Ar-gas pressures (see Fig. 2(a)–(c)). This may be associated with the different domain boundaries formed of agglomerated structures having different orientations. The FE-SEM images reveal twisted triangular domains for the synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub> films under the variation of buffer Ar-gas pressures, as portrayed in Fig. 2(a)–(c). After optimizing the growth conditions, the layered MoS<sub>2</sub> nanostructures acquired polycrystalline patterns with hexagonal shape. The formation change of triangular islands is associated with the growth environment of MoS<sub>2</sub> films at deposition pressures of 0, 50, and 100 mTorr, respectively. Obviously, the modification of nanoparticles arrangement induces in laser ablated MoS<sub>2</sub> films under the variation of buffer Ar-gas pressures. The SEM image displays that the prepared MoS<sub>2</sub> film from target possesses layered structures at deposition pressure of 0 mTorr, while various zones contain wavy-type structures (see Fig. 2(a)). The nucleation and Van der Waal layers occur on substrate from MoS<sub>2</sub> nanostructured films that have flakes arrangement along different directions. As pictured in Fig. 2(b), small nanocrystals are grown on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate surface. Therefore, the deposited film illustrates shapes of gradual triangular islands when the deposition pressure is increased up to 100 mTorr (see Fig. 2(c)). The coverage of MoS<sub>2</sub> is almost complete on the substrate surface at 100 mTorr, as anticipated to grow layer-by-layer mode. Thus, the structural morphology of MoS<sub>2</sub> films on the surface of SiO<sub>2</sub> substrate, confirms pyramidal patterns. In PLD processes, only the stoichiometry is transferred from the target onto the substrate and the crystalline phase of the resulting film is not necessarily similar to the target. At 0 mTorr, the appearance of resputtering from the film surface is owing to the existence of energetic particles inside the plasma plume. Conversely, a reduction in the particle energy is accompanied with a reduced resputtering as the gas pressure augments. Then, the scattering of ablated Mo and S atomic species getting out of the deposited path between the target and substrate surface will be increased at 100 mTorr. This may conduct to a reduction in the deposition rate. At higher deposition pressure, the kinetic energy would be diminished for the deposited particles to attain the optimal deposition rate and to prevent the particles implantation. Thereupon, the deposition of the films from the target would



**Fig. 2** – (a) FE-SEM images of MoS<sub>2</sub> films deposited on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate prepared at 0 mTorr, (b) 50 mTorr, (c) 100 mTorr and d) X-ray diffraction patterns of all samples deposited at 20,000 pulses on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate.

be grown at various stoichiometries. At deposition pressures of 0 mTorr, 50 mTorr, and 100 mTorr, the Mo/S ratios are 0.75, 0.54, and 0.54, respectively. The variations between the three samples, are subject to the minor local stoichiometry alterations in the films, owing to the depleted areas from sulfur. At elevated deposition pressure, the loss of sulfur element is reduced during the laser ablation against the deposition process in the vacuum.

### 3.1.2. XRD characterization

The crystalline structure and layer spacing of laser-ablated MoS<sub>2</sub> films are assessed by using XRD measurements. For a suitable control of the structural morphology of samples, the buffer Ar-gas pressures are varied between 0, 50, and 100 mTorr, respectively. Accordingly, the XRD patterns of the three prepared MoS<sub>2</sub> films are portrayed in Fig. 2(d), which are recorded in 2θ range of 0–45°. They exhibit broad and sharp diffracted peaks. Then, the synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub> films are ascertained from the intensity of diffracted peaks taking place between 14° and 36°. Apparently, the three samples display quite similar XRD patterns with some details at 2θ varying between 13.5° and 36°. In Fig. 2(d), the pronounced sharp peaks that occurred in the three samples, illustrate observable reflections at 2θ = 14.85°, 15.02°, and 15.16°, in the deposition

pressure range of 0, 50, and 100 mTorr, respectively. These characteristic peaks are assigned to (002) crystallographic plane of hexagonal (2H–MoS<sub>2</sub>) phase, appertaining to the P63/mmc space and describing the well-recognized standard spectrum (JCPDS 00-37-1492) [45]. For all samples, the feature peak (002) is indicated by the in-plane along C-direction of MoS<sub>2</sub> material, proposing layered structures with interlayer spacing of 0.625 nm. The structural formation permits the crystallization of the deposited particles of MoS<sub>2</sub> film at 0 mTorr because of the first peak sharpness. The second superimposed broadened peaks emerge around 34.3°, 35.3°, and 35.7°, respectively, corresponding to (101) plane. They are due to the partial restacking of few layers along the deposition procedure. Also, the intensity of first peak is decreased when the deposition pressure of buffer Ar-gas is increased. The second peak position of MoS<sub>2</sub> film is relocated somehow to a higher position due to the variation of sulfur deficiency in the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes. Thus, the discernible peaks are related to the hexagonal crystalline phase of MoS<sub>2</sub> films and other polycrystalline phases with the existence of some impurity phases of SiS<sub>2</sub> and MoO<sub>3</sub>, which are induced from the interaction between the films and substrate surfaces under the variation of deposition pressure.

From X-ray diffraction based on Scherrer equation, the thicknesses of MoS<sub>2</sub> films, are found around 17.3, 15.7, and

14.1 nm, respectively for the three samples (buffer Ar-gas pressures ~ 0, 50, 100 mTorr, respectively). The decreased intensity of the feature peak (002) reveals the stacked MoS<sub>2</sub> layered films along the C-axis, which is due to the reduced thickness size at higher deposition pressures. This may reflect the nanocrystalline behavior of MoS<sub>2</sub> films. It can be attributed to the dissipation of kinetic energy out of the ablated species that are scattered in the presence of gas Ar atoms. Furthermore, the ablated particles will scatter significantly as the deposition pressure increases, and the particles number will be reduced to arrive onto the substrate surface. Then, the surface mobility of the species diminishes after arriving to the substrate at higher deposition pressure because of their reduced kinetic energy. As inspected from the morphology of synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub> films, the particle size decreases as the deposition pressure increases. Thus, the diffraction patterns indicated the mixture of trigonal structure with insignificant intermediate phases of SiS<sub>2</sub> and MoO<sub>3</sub> [44–46]. At various buffer argon-gas pressures, the deposited MoS<sub>2</sub> films have polycrystalline behavior with a hexagonal crystallinity shape and their physical properties are analogous to MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes comprising S-vacancy type defects.

### 3.1.3. AFM characterization

To acquire an insight on the surface homogeneity and structural morphology of the grown-PLD MoS<sub>2</sub> samples at different conditions, the high resolution AFM images are inspected. Fig. 3(a) and (c) depict the AFM topographies of MoS<sub>2</sub> structures deposited on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate surface at various buffer gas pressures. At 0 mTorr, the MoS<sub>2</sub> film has a polycrystalline distribution on the entire surface, constituting few isolated aggregates on the top of substrate. However, the favorable formation of MoS<sub>2</sub> film is composed of layered nanoclusters with brighter aggregated structures that are partially embedded on the top of SiO<sub>2</sub> surface, as seen in Figs. 3(a)–(c). It is noticeable that the deposited MoS<sub>2</sub> sample at 0 mTorr, starts its growing with the nucleation of atomic islands. Subsequently, the Mo and S atomic species are favorably occupied atop substrate surface, and their micrographs are illustrated by bright spots with images of atomic resolutions. The inspection of AFM topography of MoS<sub>2</sub> film characterized at 50 mTorr, exhibits the growth of triangular shapes comprising few layered MoS<sub>2</sub> with wider lateral sizes. Consequently, this sample encompasses flake pattern of few-layered MoS<sub>2</sub> films. The surface of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals illustrates also irregular morphological patterns because of the

existing of various defective points, as portrayed in the AFM images of Fig. 3(c). For the formation of crystalline films with Van der Waals layers, the interaction of MoS<sub>2</sub> layers occurs on the underlying substrate. At deposition pressure of 100 mTorr, the atomic nucleation of MoS<sub>2</sub> island patterns, is indicated by atomic resolution images with brightest spots due to the sulfur deficiencies on the substrate surface. The notches under the brightest spots reflect the nearest neighboring of Mo elements with S atoms in trigonal configurations, which contain few-layered MoS<sub>2</sub> triangular islands. When the deposition pressure increases, the substrate surface will be covered with Mo and S atomic species as flat grains with diminished size of aggregates and the particles assemble in disk shaped islands. AFM images of the synthesized films under various deposition pressures, exhibit a reduction in the RMS surface roughness as the deposition pressure increases. At 0, 50, and 100 mTorr, the averaged roughness values are around 12.5 nm, 4.5 nm, and 1.75 nm, respectively. Thus, the systematic reduction in the RMS surface roughness and crystallites size are detected with the increase of buffer Ar-gas pressure. This can be attributed to the decrease in the kinetic energy when the ablated Mo and S particles are scattered out of the path of deposition by the gas Ar atoms. Also, the deposition rate reduces due to the scattering of ablated species with Ar-gas atoms and the aggregates size diminishes comparatively to the deposited samples at 0 mTorr. Thereupon, the MoS<sub>2</sub> species that are ablated from the target possess an elevated kinetic energy to arrive quickly to the substrate. The increase in the deposition pressure leads to the increase in the collision of ablated atomic species with Ar molecules inside the chamber. Therefore, the film fabricated at 100 mTorr, characterizes the thinnest MoS<sub>2</sub> islands and comprises the smaller triangular pattern of few-layer MoS<sub>2</sub>. Interestingly, the MoS<sub>2</sub> thickness size is marginal irrespective to the recognized distance of interlayer in the MoS<sub>2</sub> bulk structure (6.15 Å [54–57]). Eventually, the deposition pressure variation is a good signature for the alteration of the growth process of samples, although the aggregates size of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals have been modified at elevated deposition pressure.

### 3.2. XPS characterization

The XPS measurements are moreover utilized to inspect the films evolutions and to ascertain sulfur deficiencies in MoS<sub>2</sub> films under the variation of buffer Ar-gas pressures. From the XPS spectrum, the compositional elements and bonding

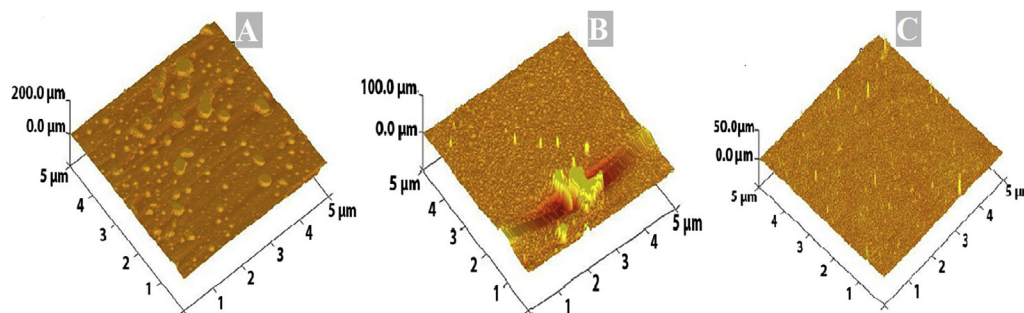


Fig. 3 – AFM of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanostructured films achieved on SiO<sub>2</sub> wafers at 20,000 pulses (a) 0 mTorr, (b) 50 mTorr, and (c) 100 mTorr, respectively.

character in MoS<sub>2</sub> films are identified. A survey scan of the high-resolution profile corresponding to these compositional elements is displayed in Fig. 4. These compositional elements, such as Mo, and S occur at some distinct regions of XPS survey spectrum. As apparent, the characteristic peaks analysis of S 2p, and Mo 3 d core levels, respectively, appear at certain binding energies (Fig. 4). The plot of Mo 3 d core level illustrates an intense sharp peak around 230 eV which is diminished and relocated to lower binding energies at 228, and 225 eV at deposited pressures of 50 mTorr and 100 mTorr, respectively. At 0 mTorr, a weak peak sited at 169 eV, is attributed to S 2p profile, although two feature peaks reduce that are split into doublet Sp<sub>1/2</sub> and Sp<sub>3/2</sub> and shift to lower binding energies around 165 and 166 eV, for deposition pressures of 50 mTorr and 100 mTorr, respectively.

For all samples, the schematic XPS spectra of Mo 3 d core levels measured in different deposition pressures (0, 50, and 100 mTorr), are depicted in Fig. 5. The characteristic peaks of Mo 3d states reveal the essential binding energies for the deposited MoS<sub>2</sub> thin films from the targets as a function of the change of buffer Ar-gas pressures. As apparent from Fig. 5 (a)–(c), four typical peaks of Mo 3 d states are determined, and their corresponding values are gathered in Table 1. Two characteristics peaks corresponding to the Mo3d<sub>5/2</sub> and Mo 3d<sub>3/2</sub> concomitant states, respectively, are assigned to the Mo<sup>4+</sup> state in MoS<sub>2</sub> films (see Table 1). Two core level peaks associated to the Mo<sup>6+</sup> 3d<sub>3/2</sub> and Mo<sup>6+</sup> 3d<sub>5/2</sub> species, emerge from the oxidation of Mo atoms in the films. It is likely that the implantation of Mo atoms occurred on SiO<sub>2</sub> substrate surface. Also, the reaction may be stemmed with oxygen when the sample is taken out of the chamber, leading to an intermediate phase of MoO<sub>3</sub>. From the XPS spectra of the deposited films at higher buffer Ar-gas pressure, the amplitude of peaks reduces compared to the film prepared at 0 mTorr. However, the laser-ablated MoS<sub>2</sub> films affirmed smaller peaks of S atom due to the lower S vacancies at both 50 and 100 mTorr, respectively. A disorder is generated around the surrounding atom because of the lower S defects, which is subject of lower peaks intensity of Mo3d, and S 2s atoms in the film compared to the synthesized films at 0 mTorr. Low intensities are developed in the spectral peaks at higher deposition pressures, which are assigned to the S 2s state and S vacancies in MoS<sub>2</sub> films. Also, the relocation of Mo<sup>4+</sup> 3 d doublet takes place at the lower binding energy ~0.1 eV, which suggests a low degree of

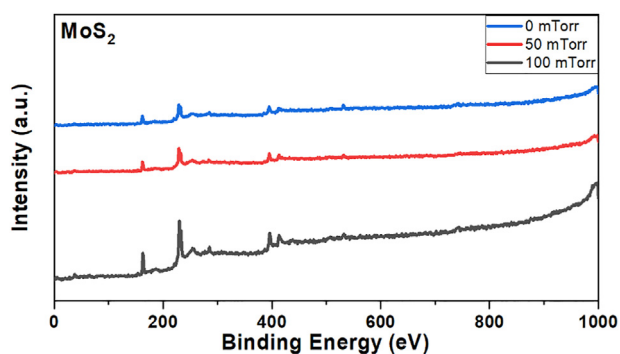


Fig. 4 – XPS survey spectra of MoS<sub>2</sub> films fabricated using different deposition pressures at 20,000 pulses.

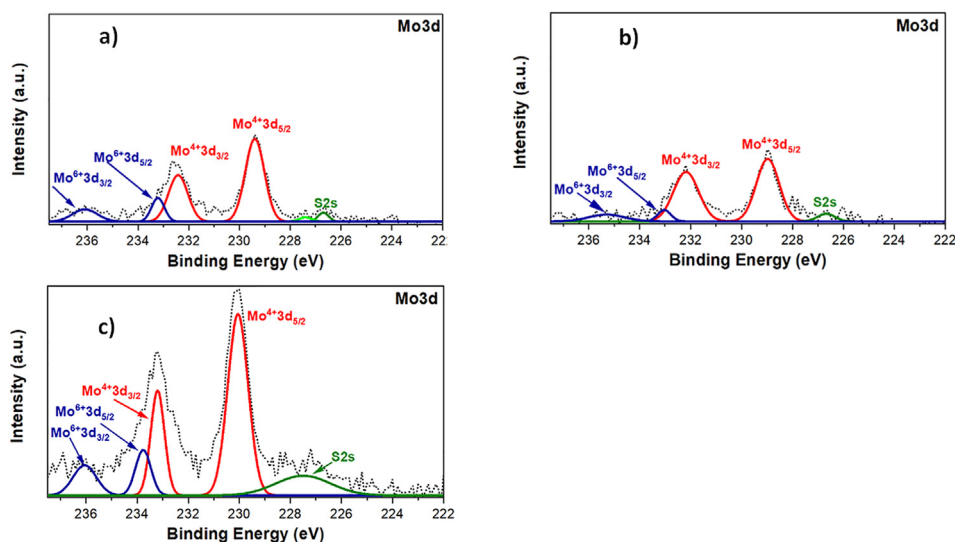
sulfurization of Mo at higher deposition pressure. Then, the increased deposition pressure yields a reduction in the Mo 3 d spectral peaks. Thereby, the feature Mo peaks are narrower for the films deposited in the vacuum chamber, containing more sulfur defects. For the three samples deposited from the target at various pressures, the change in the S2p core level regimes is detected for the film obtained at 0 mTorr, as portrayed in Fig. 5 (a)–(c). During the ablation procedure, the evaporation of sulfur atoms arises from the target which enables the change in the stoichiometric MoS<sub>2</sub> prepared on the substrate at low and high deposition pressures.

The dissimilarities in the XPS spectra acquired in the three samples can be elucidated by changing the deposition pressures (see Fig. 6). The ejection of Mo and S atoms took place at a specific energy amount after the laser ablating the target. The samples are eventually cooled down at 3 °C/min, although, the temperature of 700 °C was fixed directly after the interruption of ablated laser nearby the equilibrium conditions. Sufficient heat was hence kept in such a way the Mo and S atoms acquired enough mobility for reorganizing themselves and thereby a quite ordered crystalline structure can be achieved. Hence, the deposition of Mo and S atoms implanted onto SiO<sub>2</sub> substrate surface, took place in the vicinity-surface areas of the film. However, the formation of SiS<sub>2</sub> at the surface areas of the film emerges from the interaction of S atoms on the substrate surface [44–46]. The reaction of the rest of S atoms occurs on the sample surface with Mo atoms to acquire the formation of MoS<sub>2</sub> on top of the SiO<sub>2</sub> layer. In the S 2p spectra, the doublet Sp<sub>1/2</sub> and Sp<sub>3/2</sub> peaks of MoS<sub>2</sub> films fabricated at various pressures are collected in Table 2. This is due majorly to the Fermi level pinning that originates from sulfur vacancies. The defective structures acquire a displacement to the lower binding energies of the Mo<sup>4+</sup> 3 d peaks via the XPS spectra. At 0 mTorr, the excessive Mo species are developed in MoS<sub>2</sub> films grown on SiO<sub>2</sub>, substrate surface right after the formation of MoS<sub>2</sub> films comparatively to the two samples prepared at higher deposition pressures. This can be referred to the extra S atoms that are consumed in the formation of SiS<sub>2</sub>. However, the excessive Mo atoms are preserved as metallic in the vacuum. Their reaction with oxygen emerged upon the exposure to the atmospheric conditions to achieve the oxides, which may sit on top of the MoS<sub>2</sub> layer, as inferred via the XPS characterizations. Control of the chemical composition and crystallinity of the synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub> films can be established by varying the buffer gas pressure. Then, the argon gas pressure affects chiefly the acceleration of sulfur deposition rate without notably accelerating the Mo deposition rate. This can be reflected to the pulsed laser procedure, while the voltage excitation will also enable the formation of a quite ordered structure comprising Mo and S atoms at a short time of cooling.

### 3.3. FT-IR characterization

The elements bonding comprising the attachment of functional with different vibrational modes groups, are assessed by using the IR spectrum. For the sake of comparison, the spectra are represented at various deposition pressures for the synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub> samples, as depicted in Fig. 7. The FTIR

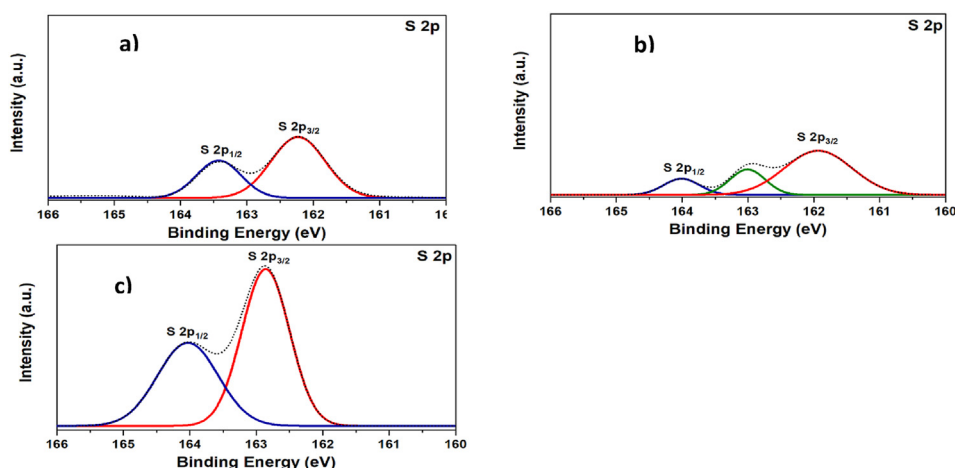




**Fig. 5** – XPS spectra of Mo3d core level for MoS<sub>2</sub> films prepared at 20,000 pulses: (a) 100 mTorr (b) 50 mTorr. (c) 0 mTorr, respectively.

profiles of the PLD grown MoS<sub>2</sub> films on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrates reveal the change in the peak position and intensity of vibrational modes which report the modification in the stretching and bending vibrational modes undergoing between the lower and higher frequency regimes. The FTIR inspection of MoS<sub>2</sub> films displays specific vibration modes, resulting from the alteration of Mo–S bonds under various deposition pressures. The vibrational modes of MoS<sub>2</sub> groups and some other elements arise from the Si–S and Mo–O interactions between films and substrates. The low transmitted peak occurring around ~1098 cm<sup>-1</sup>, alluded to the S–O stretching bonds, although the broad IR peak at around ~3450 cm<sup>-1</sup> is attributed to the Mo–O bonding after the interaction of films with the substrate surfaces. Also, the FTIR spectrum illustrates a sharp peak located around ~2300 cm<sup>-1</sup>, owing to the stretching and bending of O–Mo vibrations. Marked peaks positioned at 450 cm<sup>-1</sup> are credited to the S–Mo–S bond stretching of the Mo–S bonds which reduce with the increase of deposition pressure as well as the Si–O

stretching bond, respectively. Moreover, these characteristic peaks emerge from the Mo–S bonding in MoS<sub>2</sub> films. The IR plots of MoS<sub>2</sub> films prepared at various deposition pressures, contain two lower and elevated vibrational characteristic modes, which display an insignificant shift in the expected vibrational modes of MoS<sub>2</sub> spectra. With the change of deposition pressures, the dissimilarities in the vibrational modes are owing to the dipolar interaction between the SiO<sub>2</sub> substrate and MoS<sub>2</sub> films. This behavior was mainly related to the change in the interaction between the substrate and sulfur atoms, as well as the electrostatic surroundings that influence the MoS<sub>2</sub> vibration modes [33,36,43,45]. According to the AFM measurements, it is noticeable that the films are quite thin, corroborating the vibrational modes of FTIR of MoS<sub>2</sub> films. The intensity variation in these IR peaks can be a good indication of S defects in the thin films fabricated at various deposition pressures. As apparent from FTIR spectra, the S-vacancy is a favored position for the interaction of Van der Waals inter-layer without a significant bond creation via the S-vacancy.



**Fig. 6** – XPS spectra of S 2p core level for MoS<sub>2</sub> films prepared at 20,000 pulses: (a) 100 mTorr (b) 50 mTorr. (c) 0 mTorr.

**Table 1 – The binding energy peaks of Mo and S states extracted from Mo3d core level for MoS<sub>2</sub> films at 100 mTorr, 50 mTorr, and 0 mTorr, respectively.**

peak	Binding energy (eV) 100 mTorr (a)	Binding energy (eV) 50 mTorr (b)	Binding energy (eV) 0 mTorr (c)
Mo <sup>6+</sup> 3d <sub>3/2</sub>	236	236.1	235.3
Mo <sup>6+</sup> 3d <sub>5/2</sub>	233.8	233.2	233
Mo <sup>4+</sup> 3d <sub>3/2</sub>	233.2	232.5	232.2
Mo <sup>4+</sup> 3d <sub>5/2</sub>	230	229.4	229
S2s	227.4	226.7	226.6

These results support the XPS spectra finding, which indicate the effective interaction between the compositional elements of MoS<sub>2</sub> films and substrate surface under various deposition pressures.

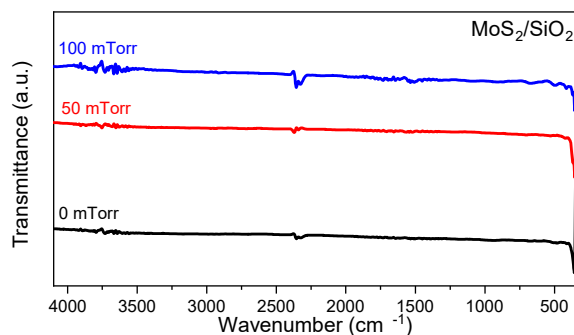
### 3.4. Optical properties

#### 3.4.1. Photoluminescence measurement

Analysis of the electronic and optical properties of MoS<sub>2</sub> films, can be revealed within PL spectroscopy. A wavelength of 473 nm (~2.64 eV) of excitation source was selected by pumping the light in MoS<sub>2</sub> films. The PL emission profiles are registered for the three synthesized samples at 0, 50, and 100 mTorr, respectively, that can divulge both excitonic-emission bands in the Vis-NIR spectrum (see Fig. 8(a)). From the PL plots, the laser-ablated MoS<sub>2</sub> films possess a direct band gap at different deposition pressures, as displayed by the PL emission signal around 1.65 eV that is associated with the recombination of excitons. Thus, the band gap results in electron-hole pairs with transition spanning from the Vis-NIR window, corresponding to the red light. For the deposited samples at 0, 50, and 100 nm, the emission bands reveal feature peaks sited at wavelengths about 759, 760, and 761 nm, respectively, indicating a direct excitonic transitions of the K point in the Brillouin zone [3,20–22]. The relaxed excitons of MoS<sub>2</sub> films will induce in the photons emission of an energy band gap ~1.9 eV at the K-point. Hence, the PL analysis enables us to detect the quantum confinement in MoS<sub>2</sub>, which is correlated to the band gap as well as the energy transitions correspondence with the interlayer interaction in MoS<sub>2</sub>. The alterations in the band gap is insignificant when the deposition pressure is increased in the samples, which indicates that the semiconductor features are broadly restored via the photoluminescence. The PL spectra illustrate a broad peak with marginal amplitude occurred at elevated energies, owing to the substrate effect. Pronounced PL emission signals revealed

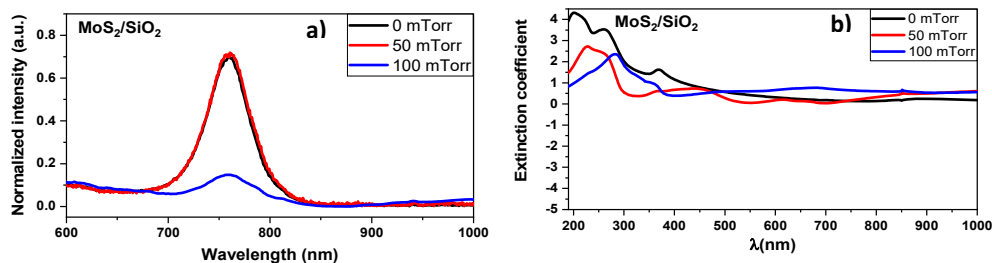
**Table 2 – The binding energy peaks of S states extracted from S 2p core level for MoS<sub>2</sub> films at 100 mTorr, 50 mTorr, and 0 mTorr, respectively.**

peak	Binding energy (eV) 100 mTorr	Binding energy (eV) 50 mTorr	Binding energy (eV) 0 mTorr
S 2p <sub>3/2</sub>	162.9	162.2	161.9
S 2p <sub>1/2</sub>	164	163.4	164



**Fig. 7 – FTIR spectra of the deposition MoS<sub>2</sub> films by PLD on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si wafer fabricated using different deposition pressures.**

that the exciton peaks are almost unchanged for the deposited MoS<sub>2</sub> films at 0–50 mTorr. This behavior was clearly elucidated from the AFM images, leading to the change in the crystallinity of nanoparticles at different deposition pressures. As the deposition pressure increases, the PL intensity signal is significantly affected owing to the change in the order–disorder structural degree of MoS<sub>2</sub> films and the localized states in the band gap will occur at higher wavelength. However, a low PL emission develops with a red-shift wavelength in the NIR regime. This is mainly owing to the scattering of MoS<sub>2</sub> species with Ar-gas atoms for the film grown at 100 mTorr. Thereupon, the crystalline structure quality of MoS<sub>2</sub> is influenced, leading to the change in the stoichiometry and occurrence of low S vacancies in the films comparatively to the samples produced at 0 mTorr. The low PL amplitude revealed the insignificant recombination of the electron–hole pairs and the red emission is attributed to the deep defects. Thus, the electrons will simply attain the surface films, inhibiting the direct recombination of charge carriers. As the buffer Ar-gas pressure increases, a deceleration in the kinetic energy appeared for the ablated particles and the scattering of ablated Mo and S atomic species will rise. Therefore, the particles number will be reduced when reaching the substrate surface since the gas molecules number is greater than the ablated particles number. The existence of buffer Ar-gas environment affects also the expansion dynamics of the plasma. Conversely, the deposited films at 0 and 50 mTorr, have intense emission peaks in the visible regime revealing the charge carriers recombination. Therefore, the intense PL peaks associated to the excitonic emission are indicated by the recombination of valence band (VB)—conduction band (CB) and the electron–hole pair separation may be increased in the Vis regime for these films. The PL spectra variation would also be attributed to the charge transfer modification between MoS<sub>2</sub> films and SiO<sub>2</sub> surface in terms of excitonic emission features under various deposition pressures. The intensity of PL features for the layered MoS<sub>2</sub> films on wafer substrates, can be influenced from the existing of extra non-radiative pathways for the recombined exciton, like the process of charge transfer and the dipolar–dipolar interactions. Moreover, it is well recognized that SiO<sub>2</sub> substrates can diminish the intensity of the PL emission via the scattering



**Fig. 8 – (a) Photoluminescence spectra of as-grown MoS<sub>2</sub> samples and (b) Extinction coefficients of MoS<sub>2</sub> films fabricated using different deposition pressures.**

and interference phenomena with the optical phonons of the surface [22,46,60–62].

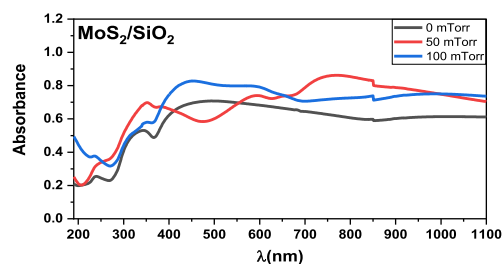
### 3.4.2. Extinction coefficient

The extinction coefficient reveals the viability of light penetration into a material at a certain wavelength and it also describes the absorption of light radiation. Fig. 8(b) displays the extinction coefficient of MoS<sub>2</sub> films synthesized under various deposition pressures. It is well noticed that MoS<sub>2</sub> films possess two separated exciton peaks around 320 nm and 385 nm for the sample prepared at 0 mTorr (see Fig. 8(b)), revealing the favorable light absorption comparatively to MoS<sub>2</sub> films prepared at elevated deposition pressures. Extinction is associated with the transmittance, as displayed in Fig. 8(b). Plots of the optical extinction spectra illustrate also several characteristic peaks located at 290, 310, and 340 nm for the MoS<sub>2</sub> films synthesized at 0, 50, and 100 mTorr, respectively. The outcome drawn from the extinction curves of the synthesized samples at elevated deposition pressures, is owing to the light absorption in the visible window. This can be reflected to the alteration of defective states into other energetic states. This behavior corresponds to the power law for the background of non-resonant scattering higher than 720 nm in these samples. All films spectra exhibit excitons around 385, 361, and 358 nm, respectively, corresponding to deposition pressures of 0, 50, and 100 mTorr, respectively. Furthermore, the dispersion of extinction spectra relies on the variation of the stoichiometry of films and aggregates size at low and high deposition pressures. It is well distinguished that the extinction coefficient displays a feature peak ~690 nm at higher deposited pressure. This is an indication of the high absorption of light at low wavelength in MoS<sub>2</sub> films. However, the extinction coefficient is insignificant in MoS<sub>2</sub> films, prepared in the vacuum pressure. This can be reflected to a transparent material at wavelength above 690 nm and an attenuated intensity is noticed at elevated wavelengths. When the deposition pressure varies, the generation of charge carriers that occurred on the substrate surface may tailor the band gap of MoS<sub>2</sub> films. Also, the deposition gas pressure affects significantly the expansion of laser-generated plasma due to the interaction of the ablated species with the gas molecules. The low intensity of first peak of MoS<sub>2</sub> film synthesized at 50–100 mTorr is attributed to the presence of low S-deficiency and to the decrease of incident particles on the substrate surface. It was also inferred that the quantum confinement in the layered Mo 4d-electron material is

significant irrespective to those determined in sp-bonded semiconductor nanostructures [47–51].

### 3.4.3. Absorbance spectra

The deposition pressure effects on the light absorption of MoS<sub>2</sub> films are characterized via UV–Vis–NIR spectroscopic technique. As apparent from Fig. 9, the absorption pursues an analogous tendency like the extinction coefficient up to the incident radiation energy around 4.27 eV. For the incident light possessing a photon energy bigger than 4.27 eV, the enhancement in the absorption spectra occurs even for a reduced extinction coefficient behavior. The UV–Vis–NIR absorption spectrum of MoS<sub>2</sub> films (0 mTorr) exhibits a visible wide peak positioned at 332 nm, which ascertains the excitonic character of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. The sample prepared at 100 mTorr deposition pressure, possesses a wide optical gap (2.85 eV) in the blue shift range. Also, features are assigned to two excitons of wavelengths ~600 and 830 nm that split by 130 nm because of the spin–orbit splitting and interlayer interaction. Clearly, these two broad peak positions exhibit a red-shift in the MoS<sub>2</sub> films. The absorption spectra of all three samples illustrate shoulders altering between 350 nm and 750 nm, which are ascribed to the inter-band transitions arising from the Mo-4d to S-3p states. The two samples prepared at higher deposition pressures display six typical peaks, respectively at 50 mTorr (349, 591 and 745 nm), and 100 mTorr (332, 435 and 830 nm) corresponding to the characteristic absorption band in the MoS<sub>2</sub> films. The feature peaks located around 745 and 830 nm are assigned to the K point of the Brillouin zone [3,22,51]. However, the feature peaks positioned around 349 and 435 nm, are related to the direct transition arising from the valence states to the conduction states of



**Fig. 9 – Absorbance spectra of MoS<sub>2</sub> films fabricated using different deposition pressures.**

MoS<sub>2</sub> films. A typical peak is noticeable in the near-UV span (less than 300 nm) corresponding to the excitonic behavior of MoS<sub>2</sub>. For the film prepared in the vacuum, the optical band gap assigned to the substantial peak of the optical absorbance, is owing to the presence of defects in it. Therefore, the defects will be diminished and the optical band energy is decreased at higher deposition pressure. At Ar-gas pressure of 50 mtorr, a red shift occurs in the optical band gap of the synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub> film, which takes place in NIR or far-infrared regimes of the electromagnetic spectrum. The increased RMS surface roughness in the laser ablated MoS<sub>2</sub> film prepared at 0 mTorr will also participate to increasing the optical band gap. Therefore, the optical band gaps of the MoS<sub>2</sub> films are somehow affected as the buffer Ar-gas pressure increases and thereby the S vacancies reduce in the chamber over the deposition process. Importantly, the buffer gas-pressure renders the ejected species to be decelerated in the plasma, owing to the interaction of the species that strike the molecules of the gas. The buffer Ar-gas pressure affects significantly the quality of crystalline growth of MoS<sub>2</sub> films. The high absorption in MoS<sub>2</sub> films prepared at deposition pressure of 0 mTorr is attributed to the deposition rate, as exhibited by AFM observation. A pronounced blue shift wavelength (~460 nm) is detected in the MoS<sub>2</sub> films prepared at elevated deposition pressures. It was reported that the occurrence of significant blue shift wavelength in the optical absorption is assigned to the quantum confinement effects when the lateral size is diminished for the MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. The presence of Mo–S bond character in all sample was further assigned via FTIR spectra. The marginal peak at 450 cm<sup>-1</sup> is accredited to the Mo–S vibrational mode of MoS<sub>2</sub> films, while the band positioned around 750 cm<sup>-1</sup> matches with Mo–O vibrational modes. This can reveal the coexistence of sulfides and oxides in the prepared films at various deposition pressures. Our results exhibit that MoS<sub>2</sub> films would be beneficial for the detection of light in the visible span (lesser than 500 nm) for photodetectors applications, owing to their sensibility to the wavelength of 450 nm.

### 3.5. First principles calculations

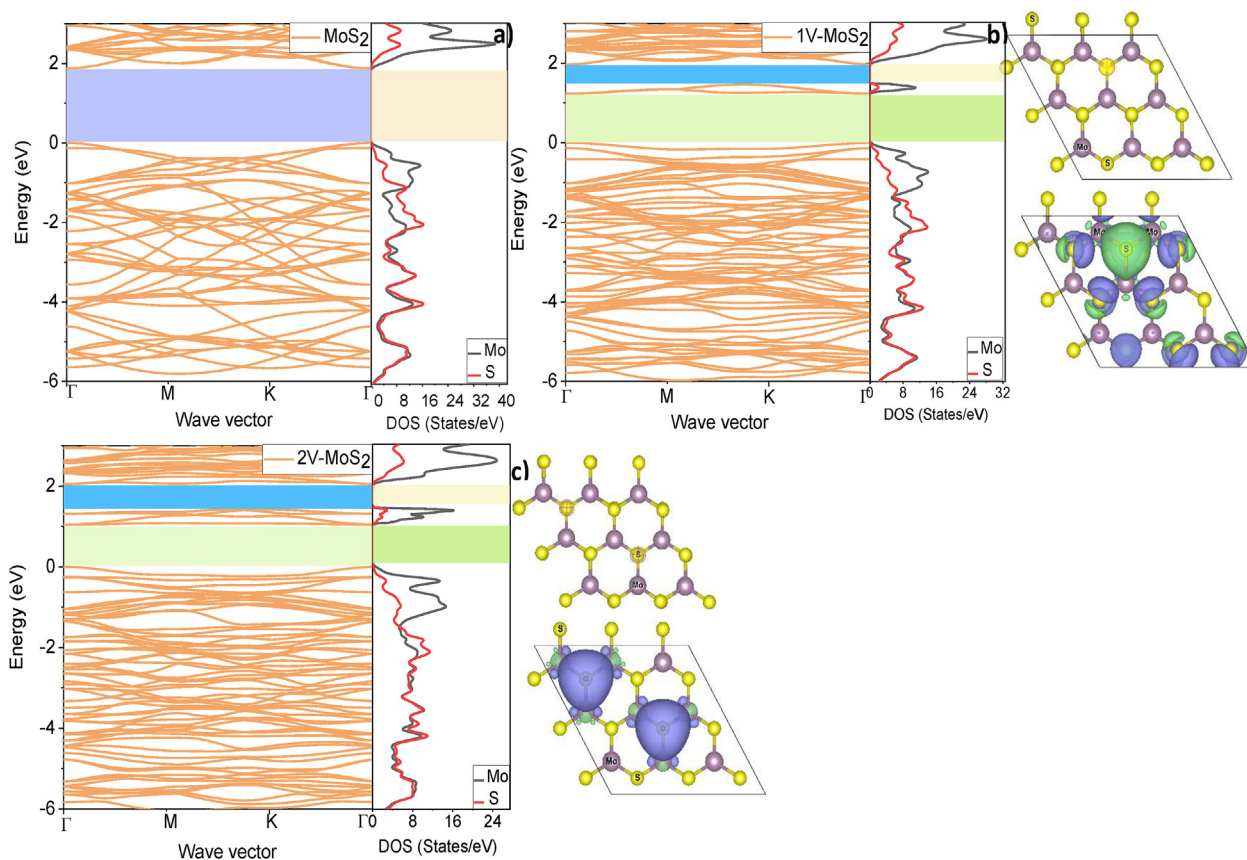
#### 3.5.1. Electronic properties

The computational modellings based on density functional theory calculations are very useful to elucidate the experimental results and to predict the properties of new complex materials [22–25]. In this regard, we executed first principles calculations based on pseudopotential method to compute the electronic and optical properties of pristine and vacancy point-defective in MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer. The Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) is employed for this purpose [65]. The basis set of plane-wave involving inner fixed core states, is employed for the electronic structure calculations within projector augmented wave (PAW) approach [66]. A generalized gradient approximation (GGA) for the exchange correlation functional was used, in terms of Perdew, Burke and Ernzerhof (PBE) approach [67]. For the calculations of electronic properties of all systems, HSE06 scheme is used for both pristine and vacancy defects in 2H–MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayers. A 15 × 15 × 1 dense mesh was selected for the calculations of optical properties. To ensure a better convergence for the total energy less than 1

meV/atom, the plane-wave energy cutoff of 390 eV as well as sufficient fine grid of fast Fourier transformation relying on the supercell are employed. For the optimization of structural geometries and electronic structures of the pure and sulfur vacancy defective in MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayers, the criteria of convergence of  $1.0 \times 10^{-4}$  eV/Å and  $1.0 \times 10^{-6}$  eV/cell, is selected by involving the total relaxation of shape and cell size for the overall atomic coordinates, respectively, in order to acquire reliable results. A  $3 \times 3 \times 1$  supercell for the MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer is constructed to create mono-vacancy and divacancy of sulfur atoms. In order to prevent the important slab interactions, a vacuum of 17 Å is involved. The generation of  $15 \times 15 \times 1$  k-mesh of k-point sampling is established by employing the Monkhorst–Pack technique [68]. The relaxation of all atomic positions are achieved in the plane and the vertical positions are persevered unchanged.

The optimization of the structural parameters are performed for the hexagonal lattice MoS<sub>2</sub> after minimizing the total energy versus the cell lattice. Then, the outcome equilibrium structural lattice parameters  $a_0 = 3.184$  Å and  $c_0 = 12.97$  Å are determined, which are in line with the earlier theoretical and experimental works [20–22,56]. The space group P6<sub>3</sub>/mmc is referred to the unit cell of MoS<sub>2</sub> bulk which is composed of 6 atoms (2 Mo and 4 S). Here, the stacking of MoS<sub>2</sub> layers is settled along c-direction of the unit cell of 2H–MoS<sub>2</sub>. This is owing to the neglecting of Van der Waals interaction between MoS<sub>2</sub> layers along c-direction, analogous to graphene-type hexagonal order. To acquire a covalent bonding for MoS<sub>2</sub> sheet, the coordination of each Mo atom is connected to six S atoms at both lower and upper sides of layers (c-direction) in a pattern of triangular prismatic. Also, the bonding of each sulfur atom is made in c-direction with three Mo atoms and bonded to six sulfur atoms in the basal plane to acquire a hexagonal order. The interatomic distance of Mo–S is about 2.41 Å (Fig. 10). All the computed properties are executed for the free-standing MoS<sub>2</sub> single-layer by generating a  $3 \times 3 \times 1$  supercell, as depicted in Fig. 10. As typical point defects, the attachment of a single S vacancy (V-S) and divacancies (V-S<sub>2</sub>) of two sulfur atoms (one atom at the upper layer and the other one at the lower side of MoS<sub>2</sub> layer) are indicated for the same Mo atom (see Fig. 10). Illustrative structural geometrical models for 2H–MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayers with  $3 \times 3 \times 1$  supercell are displayed in Fig. 10 (b) and (c), involving both V-S and V-S<sub>2</sub> point defects.

To assist the experimental determinations, we examined the electronic features, such as the band structures, and density of states (DOS) of perfect MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer and defective structures with the alteration of sulfur vacancies (as sulfur and two sulfurs point defect species) in the host 2D-material. In our investigation, solely neutral point defects are introduced for simplicity. The electronic band structures of defect-free MoS<sub>2</sub>-monolayer compared to the defective monolayers comprising V-S and V-S<sub>2</sub> vacancies, are displayed in Fig. 10(a)–(c). Also, the inspection of DOS can be elucidated immediately via the electronic band structure curve of free-defect MoS<sub>2</sub> sheet, as displayed in Fig. 10(a). The optimized structure of MoS<sub>2</sub> single layer has a semiconductor behavior with a direct band gap transition of 1.85 eV along  $\Gamma$ - $\Gamma$  direction of k points in the Brillouin zone (see Fig. 10(a)). The band structures of V-S into the host MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer acquired localized defect states. It is noticeable that the defective states



**Fig. 10** – The hexagonal structural configurations of perfect 2H–MoS<sub>2</sub>-single-layer with  $3 \times 3 \times 1$  supercell geometry, while (Mo atom are in purple, and S atom in yellow). In 2H–MoS<sub>2</sub>-single-layer with  $3 \times 3 \times 1$  supercell geometry, one sulfur and two sulfurs are removed to create vacancy point defects, in both top and bottom sides of layer of MoS<sub>2</sub> by preserving the symmetry of the lattice, as portrayed in right sides (b) and (c). Simplified band structures for defect-free of 2H–MoS<sub>2</sub>  $3 \times 3 \times 1$  supercell-sheet and native vacancy point defects, such as single-vacancy and di-vacancy of S atoms are indicated (a), (b), and (c) along with their charge density difference around the sulfur vacancies. The electronic structures display impurity states at the mid-gap for V-S and V-S<sub>2</sub> anion atoms in the host MoS<sub>2</sub>-single layer, yielding a narrow band gap systems. The perfect MoS<sub>2</sub> single-layer displays a semiconducting character with a direct band gap of 1.85 eV between the lower conduction states and the uppermost valence states, owing to the zone-folding over the  $\Gamma$ - $\Gamma$ -direction of k points in the Brillouin zone. In (b) and (c), the density of states are modified by the introduction of S-V and S-V<sub>2</sub> in MoS<sub>2</sub> single-layer comparatively to the pure defect-free MoS<sub>2</sub> sheet. The feature peaks emerge between the upper valence states and lower conduction states confined between green and yellow areas.

are located at mid-gap above the upper valence states in MoS<sub>2</sub>-monolayers containing both single-vacancy and divacancy of S atoms. For single-vacancy of S atom, the V-S defective states in MoS<sub>2</sub> sheet are located near the lower conduction with a band gap reduction. Conversely, the V-S<sub>2</sub> defective states are located at the midgap, arising into the band gap depression. It is remarkable that the number of defective subbands rises when the number of S-vacancy increases in MoS<sub>2</sub> single-layer. The dispersion of electronic band structures plots display a band folding multiple times for any vacant point defect species. However, the band gap is reduced comparatively to the defect-free MoS<sub>2</sub> sheet and the midgap defective states are significantly localized because of the hybridization between Mo-4d and S-3p orbitals. These states turned fully into dispersionless and flatness that are located in the bandgap. This is owing to the weakening of covalent character of Mo–S bonding near the S-vacancy position. Also, the midgap

between  $\Gamma$ - $\Gamma$  direction is positioned around 1.4 and 1.2 eV for the defective monolayers with V-S and V-S<sub>2</sub> vacancies, respectively. The vacancy defects tailor the band gap, while the subbands number increases at the mid-bandgap with the increase of S-vacancy in MoS<sub>2</sub> sheets.

To trace the evolution of both electronic structures of perfect and defective monolayers MoS<sub>2</sub>, we computed their projected density of states (PDOSs) on Mo and S atoms, as portrayed in Fig. 10(a)–(c). From the analysis of PDOS plots, the S-p-orbitals of defective atoms are subject to the feature peaks of upper valence states that are responsible in the formation of electronic states nearby Fermi-state. In correspondence with the band-structure dispersion curve, the band-gap acquired from the DOS is about 1.85 eV for the perfect MoS<sub>2</sub> sheet (see Fig. 10(a)). It is clearly noticed that the upper valence states and lower conduction states of defect-free MoS<sub>2</sub> single-layer are mainly formed of hybridized Mo 4d and S 3p states,

leading to a strong covalent character of Mo–S bond. For S mono/di-vacancies into MoS<sub>2</sub> sheets, many impurity levels arise in the mid-band gap (see Fig. 10(b) and (c)). These impurity levels are composed of hybridized Mo 4 d and S 3p states, and become delocalized when S-vacancy number increases. This will rise the participation of Mo-3d states in the DOS of V-S<sub>2</sub> structure with the increased number of non-terminated bonds of the defected S atoms comparatively to its perfect structure. The total spectral peaks of the lower conduction states of Mo/S atoms included in the pure MoS<sub>2</sub> sheet, are altered in both V-S and V-S<sub>2</sub> defective structures. For the V-S structure, the first peak sets contain principally S-3p states which are owing to the dangling bonds of the neighbors of S atoms, developed from the lower valence states, although both Mo-4d and S-3p arising from the second and third peak sets are quite unchangeable (–5.7 to –3 eV) (see Fig. 10(b)). As displayed in Fig. 10(c), the spectral peaks of DOS of V-S<sub>2</sub> structure nearby Fermi level became narrow. The Mo-4d-orbitals are responsible for the participation of lower conduction states and upper valence states, while the S-3p-orbitals reveal a weak peak in the conduction states ~1 eV. For S-divacancy inserted into MoS<sub>2</sub> layered structure, the defective states relocate toward the conduction states, inferring a p-type semiconducting nature. Whilst the localized midgap states may significantly impact the electron transport of 2D material, these defective states are dominant for the enhancement in the photoluminescence intensity [36,39,56–63].

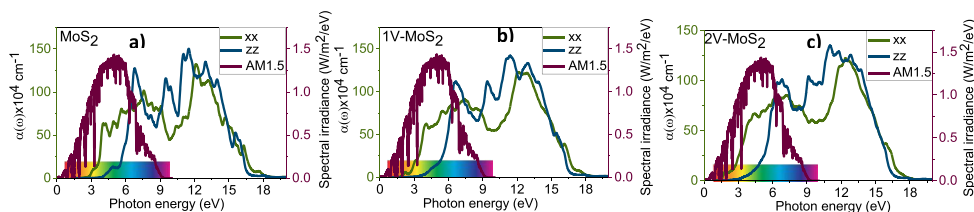
For the purpose to inspect the change in the chemical bonding of defective monolayers, the charge density differences of the first neighbors around the Mo–S bonding at S-mono-vacancy and S-divacancy defects in MoS<sub>2</sub> single layers, are plotted in Figs. 10(b) and (c). The calculated charge density difference is acquired from the electron densities of monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub>, Mo atoms, and S atoms, respectively. The charge redistribution is formed from the vacancy point defect, although the modification in the electron density is owing to the atomic bonding. Note that the S and Mo atoms located below and above the purple zone, exhibit an increase in the electron density nearby the S-divacancy defects. The green area illustrates the electron density loss after the bonding. The significant charge transfer arising from S-monovacancy is the outcome of significant interaction between the vacancy sites and Mo stemming in the highly stabilized system. It is revealed that Mo–S bonding gives rise to a covalent nature around the single vacancy of S atom and edge atomic sites between Mo–S bonding in MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer. Note that the increase in S-vacancy concentration, induces a weakening of Mo–S bonding caused by V-S<sub>2</sub> type defect. Subsequently, the charge density difference reduces with the augmentation in S-vacancy concentration, inferring a weakened covalent bonding behavior of Mo–S (Fig. 10). This can simply due to the reduction in the ionic bonding character of defective monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub>. Thus, the generation of dangling bonds happened around Mo atoms when the S-vacancies type defects are present in MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer. This would conduct to the modification in bond-lengths around the vacancy point defects. In a defect-free structure, the bonding of each sulfur atom that possesses two valence electrons is connected with two molybdenum electrons. Hence, for the missing of sulfur

atom, these two molybdenum electrons became unsaturated, referring to the neutral state of the typical point defect. For both V-S and V-S<sub>2</sub> typical defects, the distribution of charge is shared between Mo and S atoms, surrounding the point defect (see Fig. 10). Accordingly, the modifications of the confined charge occurs at the nearest atomic sites around S atoms for V-S point defect. Conversely, the change in the charge is remarkable for V-S<sub>2</sub> defect close to the first-neighbor and second-neighbors of Mo atomic sites. This can be attributed to the more delocalization behavior of Mo-4d orbitals irrespective to S-3p orbitals.

### 3.5.2. Optical properties

The frequency-dependence dielectric property corresponding to incident photons, characterizes the optical aspects of materials that can be computed on the basis of self-consistent charge density. The estimated dielectric response dependent on frequency, is associated with the large number of vacant states to enable wider interval of interband excitations between the valence states and conduction states. By this way, it is feasible to establish better results for the optical properties of the systems under study. The key factor, such as the complex dielectric function is divided into two terms, which are the real and imaginary components for providing reliable information about the optical properties of a material. Then,  $\epsilon(\omega) = \epsilon_1(\omega) + i\epsilon_2(\omega)$  is formulated via the material response to the light spectrum. On the basis of optical spectra of incident radiation represented by the real and imaginary expressions of  $\epsilon(\omega)$ , the absorption coefficient, and energy loss function can be extracted [37].

To gain a better knowledge about the optical behaviors of V-S and V-S<sub>2</sub> vacancy point defects involved into the free-standing MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer with hexagonal symmetry, their optical absorption coefficients ( $\alpha(\omega)$ ) are systematically analyzed. The optical spectra of pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer, V-S-MoS<sub>2</sub>, and V-S<sub>2</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> defective monolayers are computed along both polarization vectors of light for  $E_{\parallel}$  (in a-b-plane) and  $E_{\perp}$  (out-of-plane). They are indicated by  $\alpha^{\parallel}(\omega)$  and  $\alpha^{\perp}(\omega)$  components at photon energy range of 0–20 eV. First of all, the spectral features of  $\alpha^{\parallel}(\omega)$  curves are intense irrespective to that of  $\alpha^{\perp}(\omega)$  component, manifesting an anisotropic trend at the lower photon energy interval for this 2D crystal structure without and with points defects. As clearly seen from Fig. 11, the absorption edge starts around 1.97, 1.6, and 1.3 eV, respectively, for the pristine MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer, V-S-MoS<sub>2</sub>, and V-S<sub>2</sub>-MoS<sub>2</sub> defective monolayers, revealing the optical band gap ( $E_{\text{gopt}}$ ) along with the global solar spectrum (AM1.5G) of incident light on the earth. The AM1.5G incorporates the direct and diffusing rays of light arising from the sun that is utilized as references for photovoltaic materials [5]. The threshold of optical absorption coefficient exhibits an alteration from the blue shift to the red shift of the solar spectrum regime and the solar irradiance is displayed in radish color. It is well noticed that the optical absorption coefficient spectra  $\alpha^{\parallel}(\omega)$  and  $\alpha^{\perp}(\omega)$  have an anisotropic shapes for all systems at photon energies below 13 eV, and thereafter their patterns turn into isotropic profile upward 13 eV, as depicted in Fig. 11. Also, the first spectral peaks are the signature of electron transitions between the valence bands of S 3p states and conduction bands of Mo 4 d states. Secondly,  $\alpha^{\parallel}(\omega)$  and  $\alpha^{\perp}(\omega)$  components

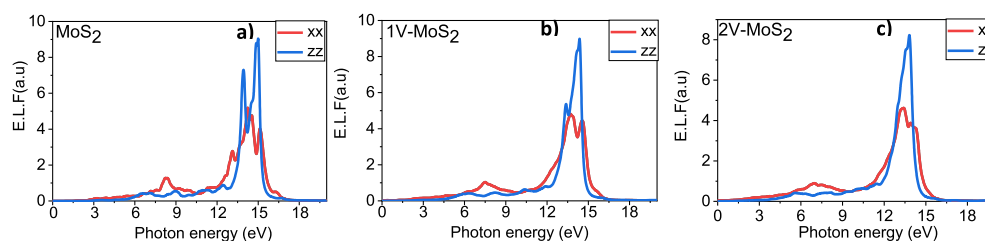


**Fig. 11** – Calculated in-plane and out-of-plane of optical absorption coefficient of (a) free-defect 2H–MoS<sub>2</sub> 3 × 3 × 1 supercell – monolayer, (b) V-S, and (c) V-S<sub>2</sub> as a function of photon energy. Green and blue curves correspond to basal-plane and out-of-plane polarization of incident photons, respectively.

of the optical absorption coefficients exhibit analogous trends for defective monolayers except for the threshold value. Thirdly, the main spectral peaks are located below 13.5 eV, while the optical spectra curves are almost unchanged at higher energy regime. The second remarkable peak of  $\alpha^{\parallel}(\omega)$  occurs around 3.1 eV corresponding to the energy located in the midsection of  $\Gamma$ -M k-points for V-S defective monolayer. A noticeable spectral peak is detected at 6.3 eV in the out-of-plane spectrum for V-S point defect in MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer. It is well noticed that a low peak occurs at 1.4 eV related to the excitation arising from the filled valence states to conduction states. Also, the spectral peaks emerge at 1.85 and 1.4 eV for V-S and V-S<sub>2</sub> point defects in MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer that can be reflected to the excitation via the defective filled states. The first broad spectral peaks emerged in the defective MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayers, are owing to the valence band around the mid-gap impurity level. Specifically, the appearance of a shoulder in  $\alpha^{\parallel}(\omega)$  around 3.3 eV is associated with the occupied valence states to the empty defective levels, which are developed from the transition of S 3p states to Mo 4 d conduction states in both V-S and V-S<sub>2</sub> defective monolayers. The optical absorption spectra of  $\alpha^{\parallel}(\omega)$  and  $\alpha^{\perp}(\omega)$  components for defective monolayers have a quite analogous dispersed spectral at higher frequencies (as noticed in Fig. 11). The absorption in a-b plane polarization of defective monolayers vanishes in the regime of 9–12 eV since the energy of incident photons is minor (Fig. 11). Both  $\alpha^{\parallel}(\omega)$  and  $\alpha^{\perp}(\omega)$  profiles are almost unchanged in the light energy regime ~ 15.5–19.5 eV. For both mono/divacancy defective monolayers, the absorption spectral peaks shifts systematically to the lower light energy comparatively to the defect-free case. The augmentation of S vacancy contents in the MoS<sub>2</sub> sheet, yields the material to have impurity levels developing a significant light absorption from the visible to the NIR span. Hereafter, the optical absorption profiles display a redshift with a reduced band gap referred to the solar cell

irradiance spectrum. Furthermore, several extra spectral peaks are detected at low photon energy in the defective MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayers with enhanced optical absorption spectra when S vacancy content increases. This assumes that the dependence on the vacancy type-defect, such as the atomic defects in MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayers render them compelling candidates in the sunlight absorbers with an enhancement of solar cells efficiency in photovoltaic systems [44,48,60–62].

Electron energy loss function spectra provide a guidance about the interband transitions of single electron that can be discerned at low energy range from the oscillations of collective plasma [18]. This may characterize the loss of electrons, traveling along a uniform dielectric medium. The electron energy loss function  $L(\omega)$ , contains two parts, the first one is in a-b-plane ( $L(\omega)_{\parallel}$ ) (over a- and b-axis) and the second one is out-of-plane ( $L(\omega)_{\perp}$ ) (over c-axis). The energy loss function of intrinsic MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer and S-vacancy defective monolayers are displayed in Fig. 12. Three major energy loss peaks occur in  $L(\omega)$  spectra owing to the resonance frequency of plasma  $\omega_p$ . The position of energy loss peaks are associated with the critical points, while the material transitions take place from dielectric to metal. In the case of sulfur mono- and divacancies into MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayers, the beginning energy loss peak is insignificant at low radiation energy irrespective to the perfect MoS<sub>2</sub> single layer, while the plasmon peak in the loss function occurs about 7.8 and 6.6 eV for the polarizations in a-b-plane and out of plane. It is noticeable that the first plasmon peaks in  $L(\omega)_{\parallel}$  are reduced and relocated to 6.3 and 6.0 eV for V-S and V-S<sub>2</sub> vacancies in MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayers. As illustrated in Fig. 12, the second marked sharp peaks in energy loss spectra are centered between 12 and 15 eV for both  $L(\omega)_{\parallel}$  and  $L(\omega)_{\perp}$  of all MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayers. A substantial anisotropic trend emerges for free-defect and defective monolayers at the same light photon energy span. Thus, the loss energy behavior disappear approximately around the radiation energy regime of



**Fig. 12** – Energy loss function of (a) free-defect 2H–MoS<sub>2</sub> 3 × 3 × 1 supercell – monolayer, (b) V-S, and (c) V-S<sub>2</sub> as a function of photon energy. Red and blue curves correspond to basal-plane and out-of-plane polarization of incident photons, respectively.

16–17 eV. It is well noticeable that the electron energy loss function displaces to the lower energy when S-vacancy increases in MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer. The electron energy loss function describes the decomposition of two significant resonance characteristics for defect-free MoS<sub>2</sub> in basal plane polarization (E||c) located below 9.1 eV because of  $\pi$  plasmons ( $\pi$ - $\pi^*$  transitions) and upward 9.1 eV is owing to  $\pi$ + $\sigma$  plasmons ( $\sigma$ - $\sigma^*$  as well as  $\pi$ - $\sigma^*$  transitions) (see Fig. 12). For polarization perpendicular to a-b plane (E⊥c) the solely resonance characteristics is upward 9.5 eV, arising from significant  $\sigma$ - $\sigma^*$  and  $\pi$ - $\sigma^*$  transitions. Note that MoS<sub>2</sub> possesses 18 valence electrons. Hence, the Mo–S strong bonding is composed of 12 electrons/molecule with mixtures of s, p, and d states that stem into the  $\sigma$  valence states, although the rest six electrons are subject to the  $\pi$ -plasmon states. The two filled states containing the d<sub>z<sup>2</sup></sub> orbitals of the metal atom are among the six electrons in the  $\pi$ -plasmon states that displace marginally. Therefore, the substantial red-shift can be detected in the  $\pi$ + $\sigma$  plasmon peaks for both  $L(\omega)$ || and  $L(\omega)$ ⊥ when altering from the defect-free to the vacancy defective monolayers with the increase of S-vacancy content. It is inferred that the incident electrons of various energies take place on the surface of MoS<sub>2</sub>, while the loss of energy cropped up more conveniently at the vacancy sites because of elastic collision with electrons between 8 and 9 eV. The peak signal in the defective monolayer is minor comparatively to the intrinsic MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer. Hence, the energy loss of electron traversing the defective monolayer is sluggish, which has a redshift nature.

#### 4. Conclusion

In summary, the synthesis of MoS<sub>2</sub> films on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrates were successfully achieved within the PLD technique under different buffer Ar-gas pressures at substrate temperature of 700 °C. In this respect, the structural, morphological, and optical properties of these films were inspected employing various characterization tools. Our experimental measurements revealed the influence of buffer Ar-gas pressure on the morphology surface, and optical behaviors of MoS<sub>2</sub> films grown on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate. Accordingly, this can affect the interaction variation between the laser-ablated MoS<sub>2</sub> films and SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate surface. The SEM characterizations revealed that the deposited MoS<sub>2</sub> films possess hexagonal crystallinity domains. Therefore, the buffer Ar-gas pressure variation influences significantly the surface morphology of the deposited films, while a quasi-uniformed dense distribution of crystallites was obtained for the synthesized films at 0 mTorr. XRD patterns exhibited a 2H-phase for MoS<sub>2</sub> films, as divulged from (002) facet. Also, the AFM analysis indicated a systematic reduction in the thickness of films versus the increased buffer Ar-gas pressure. The UV–vis–NIR and FTIR spectra revealed the occurrence of Mo–S as well as Mo–O bonds in the films. As apparent from XPS, the S-deficiencies represent the preferential positions for Van der Waals interaction with low density of defects. The PL spectroscopy illustrated emission bands spanning in the Vis–NIR regimes with the signature of charge transfer between MoS<sub>2</sub> films and SiO<sub>2</sub> surface via the inspection of excitonic emission features. Subsequently, the formation of films illustrated a decrease in the intensity of PL peak

with the increase of deposition pressure. A red-shift is detected in the optical gap versus the increase of buffer Ar-gas pressure in the chamber during the deposition process. This is essentially owing to the smoothness of surface morphology and thereby sulfur vacancies will be diminished in these films. Using first-principles calculations, the electronic band structure and density of states outcomes illustrated that the perfect MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer has a semiconductor behavior with a direct band gap transition. Interestingly, it was unveiled that the increased compositional sulfur-vacancy defects in MoS<sub>2</sub> single-layer created impurity levels at the mid-band gap above the upper valence states, leading to an acceptor type character with a reduced band gap. For defective vacancies in MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayers, the optical spectra profiles of polarization in-plane revealed extra spectral peaks at lower photon energy regime versus the increase of sulfur vacancy content in MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer. Furthermore, the localized mid-gap states represent a significant property for the activation of new optical transitions altering from the visible to NIR spans of incident photon energy below the band-gap of defect-free 2D-structures. A pronounced plasmon peak in the energy loss function was relocated to the lower photon energy versus the increase of sulfur vacancy defects. Our investigation would be informative for future design of optoelectronic devices based on PLD-synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub> films under the effect of buffer Ar-gas pressure. It is therefore expected that our experimental and theoretical outcomes will afford promising functionalities, such as the generation of light emission in the defective layered MoS<sub>2</sub> materials. This will eventually give rise to desired optical transitions suitable for higher efficiency of photovoltaic devices, solar cell window layer, infrared detectors, and light emitting diodes.

#### Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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