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Investigating Structural, Optical, and Electron-Transport Properties of Lithium

Intercalated Few-Layer MoS₂ Films: Unraveling the Influence of Disorder

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Abstract:

Molybdenum disulfide is a promising candidate for various applications in electronics, optoelectronics, or alkali-ion batteries. The natural presence of the van der Waals gap allows intercalating alkali ions, such as lithium, into MoS₂ films. Intercalation can modify the electronic structure, as well as the electrical and optical properties. Here, we present a structural, optical, and electrical characterization of Li-intercalated few-layer MoS₂ films. The intercalation was carried out by annealing MoS₂ film in the presence of Li₂S powder, serving as a lithium source. The initial MoS₂ layers were prepared by pulsed laser deposition (PLD), and by sulfurization of 1 nm thick Mo film (TAC). The presence of lithium was confirmed by synchrotron-based X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy. The Raman spectroscopy, X-ray diffraction, and optical absorption measurements confirmed semiconducting behavior for all samples. All samples exhibited the thermally activated dependence of the electrical resistance, R , typical for the Efros-Shklovskii variable range hopping in a disordered semiconductor,

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$\ln R(T) \propto (T_{ES}/T)^{1/2}$, where $k_B T_{ES}$ is the hopping activation energy. The PLD-grown MoS₂ samples exhibited a relatively mild initial disorder primarily caused by grain boundaries. Lithium intercalation led to an increase in disorder, evident in the increase of $k_B T_{ES}$ and a substantial rise in electrical resistance. The TAC-grown undoped MoS₂ sample already exhibited significant resistance, and the impact of Li intercalation on resistance was minimal. This observation was attributed to the fact that the TAC-grown MoS₂ samples exhibit a perturbed stoichiometry (the S:Mo ratio ~ 2.20), causing strong disorder even before Li intercalation. The electron doping caused by lithium, if any, was completely obscured by the effect of disorder.

Molybdenum disulfide (MoS_2) belongs to the layered two-dimensional transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) family. The structure of MoS_2 consists of the hexagonally arranged S-Mo-S atomic layers that have strong covalent bonds and individual layers are held together by the weak van der Waals forces. Among various TMDs, the MoS_2 is one of the most promising due to its abundant and non-toxic elements.^{1,2} Moreover, MoS_2 is a semiconductor applicable in transistors,^{3,4} solar cells,^{5,6} photodetectors,^{7,8} and sensors.⁹⁻¹¹ In addition, MoS_2 is useful in energy storage and conversion,¹²⁻¹⁴ or as electrode material for lithium-ion^{15,16} or sodium-ion¹⁷ batteries.

Various modifications are applied to MoS_2 to tune its properties. These modifications include dimensional sizing,¹⁸ strain engineering,^{19,20} external field tuning,²¹ doping,²² and intercalation of guest species into the van der Waals gap.²³ Intercalation can modify the electronic structure, as well as the optical, and electrical properties, directly through electron doping or indirectly by inducing structure modification or disorder. Some alkali and alkaline earth metals with small ions radii occupy the space between MoS_2 layers rather than substitute the host atoms. These atoms are believed to transfer electrons to the MoS_2 layers, which is often associated with a phase transformation from semiconducting 2H structure to metallic 1T structure or disordered 1T (1T') phases.²⁴ Besides the phase transition, intercalation of guest species might lead to an exfoliation of bulk MoS_2 .^{25,26} Lithium intercalation/deintercalation of MoS_2 has been studied for a better understanding of charging-discharging cycles in Li-ion batteries.²⁷

The properties of few-layer TMDs can also be affected by the fabrication method. For use in applications, uniform large-area few-layer MoS_2 films are essential, therefore, the growth techniques are more desirable than the exfoliation methods. Growth of a continuous-monolayer to few-layer MoS_2 films could be achieved using molecular beam epitaxy,²⁸ chemical vapor deposition,²⁹ thermally assisted conversion (TAC) - sulfurization of pre-deposited metal/metal

oxide layers,³⁰ or pulsed laser deposition (PLD).³¹ Sulfurization of the pre-deposited Mo films is a practical method for the fabrication of large-area films of nanometer thickness. However, the nanocrystals are oriented rather randomly, with no long-range ordering within the layers. PLD is another suitable technique for the growth of highly crystalline MoS₂.³² Španková et al. reported the growth of large-area few-monolayer thick MoS₂ films with excellent crystalline quality and thickness homogeneity on c-plane sapphire and GaN/sapphire substrates.³³

In this work, we focused on electron transport measurements in as-grown and Li-doped MoS₂ films prepared by two different methods (PLD and sulfurization). The aim was to study the role of Li doping and disorder in the as-prepared films. The samples were characterized by structural, chemical composition, optical, and electrical measurements. The dominant types of disorder were identified in both undoped and Li-doped samples.

The initial MoS₂ layers were grown on the c-plane sapphire substrate by two different techniques: one-zone sulfurization of 1 nm Mo layer (denoted as TAC) and PLD using the MBE/PLD-2000 deposition system equipped with an excimer 248 nm laser Compex 102. For both, TAC and PLD-grown samples, lithium was incorporated into the as-prepared few-layer MoS₂ films by solid-state diffusion during the subsequent sulfurization process, where a part of sulfur powder was replaced by lithium sulfide (Li₂S) as a source of Li.³⁴ The powders of Li₂S and sulfur (with the Li₂S being 20% or 50% of the total weight) were placed in the middle of the one-zone furnace alongside the initial MoS₂ films and annealed at elevated temperatures for 30 minutes with the heating rate of 25 °C/min. The lithiation temperature was 800 °C and 600 °C for TAC and PLD-grown initial MoS₂ layers, respectively.

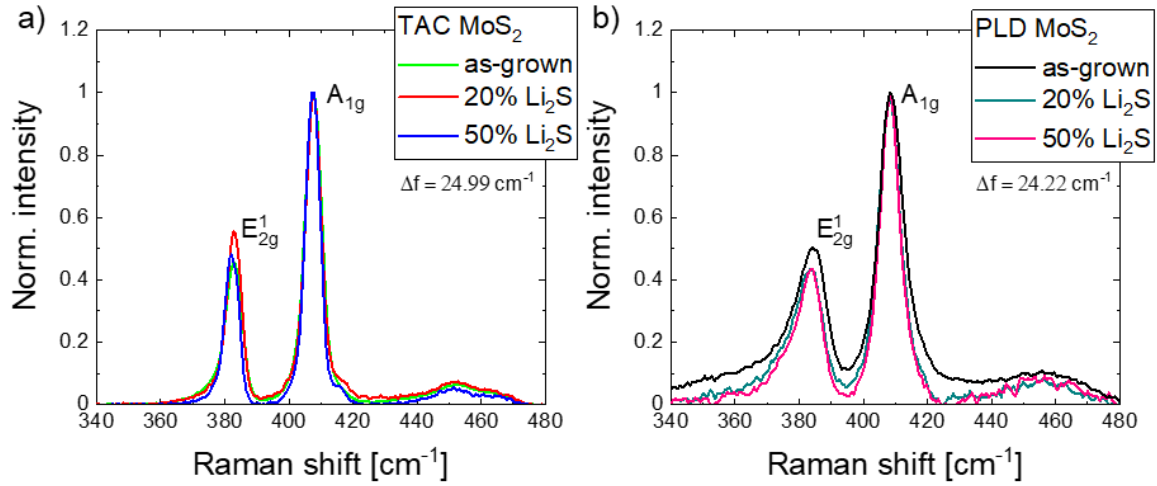


FIG. 1. Normalized Raman spectra of as-grown and Li-doped MoS₂ samples grown by TAC (a) and PLD (b)

A confocal Raman microscope (Alpha 300 R, WiTec, Germany) equipped with a laser excitation wavelength of 532 nm and a 50x objective was used to acquire Raman spectra. Fig. 1 shows the normalized Raman spectra of the undoped and Li-doped MoS₂ samples prepared by TAC and PLD. The existence of MoS₂ in all samples is validated by the presence of the characteristic in-plane E_{2g}¹ (~ 383 cm⁻¹) and out-of-plane A_{1g} (~ 408 cm⁻¹) vibration modes. The frequency difference $\Delta f = (A_{1g} - E_{2g}^1)$ is 24.99 cm⁻¹ for the TAC-grown samples and 24.22 cm⁻¹ for the PLD-grown samples. The peak positions and the frequency difference correspond to the bulk MoS₂. Counting the number of layers from the peak positions and the frequency difference is ambiguous,³⁵ so the thickness of the samples was estimated from x-ray reflectance measurements. The MoS₂ grown by sulfurization of 1 nm Mo film has a thickness of approximately 4 nm, corresponding to 5-6 monolayers (ML).³⁰ The thickness of the PLD-grown samples is about 5 ML. The positions of the main modes' peaks and frequency differences remain constant before and after Li-doping. Structural analysis of the as-prepared samples was done by x-ray diffraction (XRD) in a symmetrical $\theta/2\theta$ configuration. The as-prepared and Li-doped MoS₂ films are c-plane oriented and exhibit epitaxial growth. Further details can be found in Figs. S1-S2 in the Supplementary material.

The chemical composition and stoichiometry of the MoS₂ layers were analyzed by means of synchrotron photoemission spectroscopy and x-ray photoemission spectroscopy (experimental details are provided in the Supplementary material). Li 1s spectra shown in Fig. 2 verify the lithiation of both TAC and PLD samples. The Li 1s spectra exhibit a dominant component centered at a binding energy of 55.8 ± 0.1 eV, attributed to Li atoms intercalated into MoS₂.³⁴ The minor Li 1s component at lower binding energies likely originates from the presence of Li hydroxide and oxide species.^{36,37} The intensity ratio between Li 1s and Mo 4s peaks reflects the relative elemental atomic concentrations. The concentrations of Li measured in the studied samples are summarized in Table I. Similarly, the S:Mo stoichiometric ratio can be determined from S 2p and Mo 3d peak areas (Supplementary material Fig. S3).

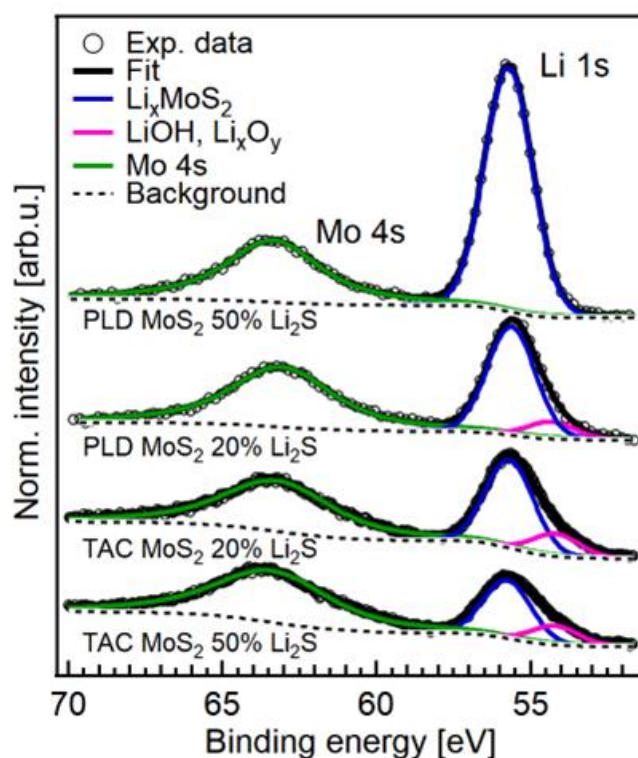


FIG. 2. Li 1s and Mo 4s photoelectron spectra for Li-doped TAC and PLD-grown MoS₂ films. The spectra were acquired at a photon energy of 120 eV.

Using the Shimadzu SolidSpec-3700 spectrophotometer in the UV–VIS range, we measured the transmittance and reflectance from the front side and back side of the samples. This approach provides the absorbance of the MoS₂ layers without assuming any particular

model of the layer dielectric function.³⁸ Fig. 3 shows the absorption spectra of the undoped and Li-doped samples prepared with 50% of Li_2S . All spectra are similar to those reported for the multi-layer samples with a similar number of MoS_2 monolayers,³⁹ all of them show the optical gap of 1.7 – 1.8 eV, demonstrating that both the undoped and Li-doped samples are semiconductors.

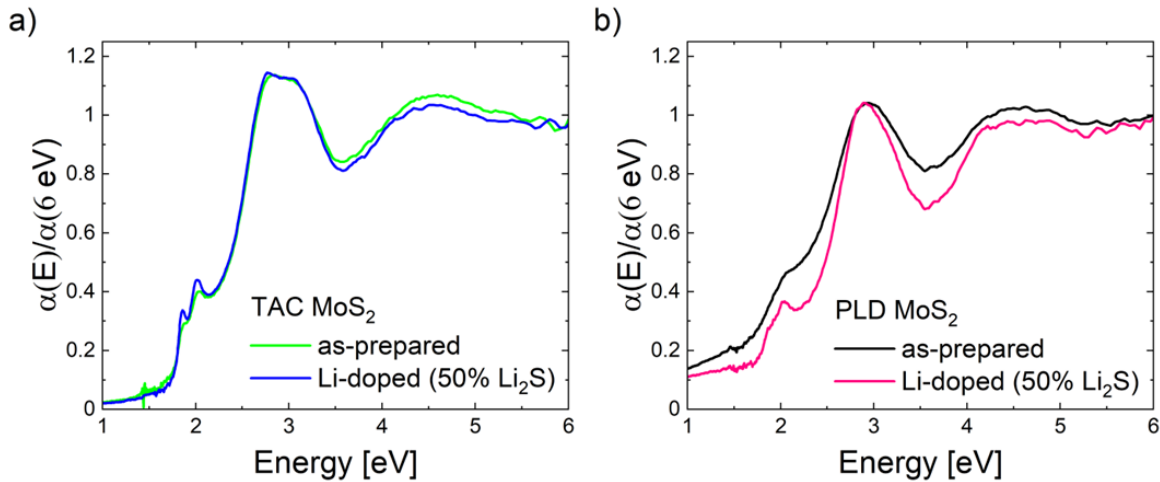


FIG. 3. Absorbance of as-prepared and Li-doped MoS_2 samples grown by a) TAC and b) PLD.

The sample resistance R as a function of temperature T was measured by the four-probe method using the Physical Property Measurement System – Model 6000, from Quantum Design Inc. Fig. 4a shows the measured $R(T)$ data in terms of $\log R$ versus T . For all our samples the $R(T)$ dependence tends to diverge with decreasing T , which is typical for the insulating transport regime.⁴⁰ The Li-free TAC- MoS_2 sample is much more resistive than the Li-free PLD- MoS_2 one. After introducing the Li atoms into the PLD-grown MoS_2 samples, their resistance dramatically increased with the increase of the Li concentration. In the TAC-grown samples, the effect of Li doping on the resistance magnitude is considerably weaker. We will now discuss these results in detail.

Fig. 4b shows the $\log R$ as a function of $1/T$. Evidently, the data do not follow the Arrhenius dependence $\log R \propto 1/T$. Dependence $\log R \propto 1/T$ is typical for the thermally activated transport in semiconductors and for the nearest neighbor hopping in disordered

solids,⁴⁰ as observed in previous transport studies of MoS₂.⁴¹ However, in our case, the increase of $\log R$ with $1/T$ is slower than $\log R \propto 1/T$.

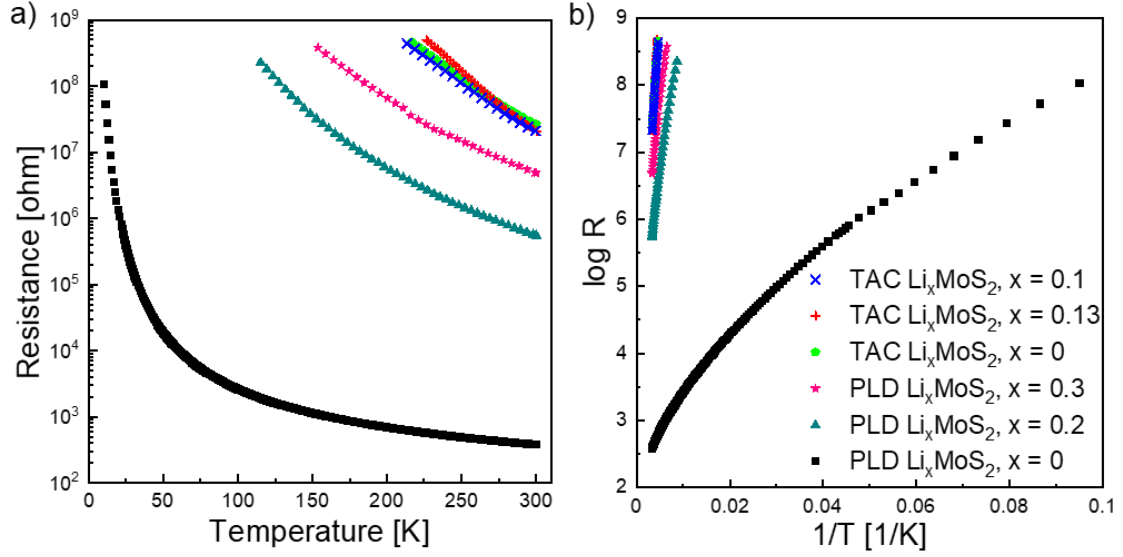


FIG. 4. Measured $R(T)$ dependence for a series of the PLD-grown and TAC-grown MoS₂ layers with corresponding Li stoichiometric coefficients. In panel (a) the data are shown as R versus T , in panel (b) as $\log R$ versus $1/T$.

At low enough temperatures, transport in disordered solids occurs via the Mott variable range hopping (VRH) rather than via the nearest neighbor hopping.⁴⁰ For the Mott VRH, the electron localized at the Fermi level (E_F) moves to another localized state in an optimum hopping distance which is determined by the tradeoff between the lowest energy difference and the shortest hopping distance.⁴⁰ In a non-interacting disordered system, the density of states at the Fermi level, $N(E_F)$, is finite and the resistance of the two-dimensional disordered system is described by Mott VRH with $R(T)$ dependence $\ln(R/R_{\text{Mott}}) = (T_{\text{Mott}}/T)^{1/3}$, where

$$k_B T_{\text{Mott}} = \frac{27}{\pi N(E_F) L_{\text{loc}}^2}, \quad (1)$$

is the hopping activation energy, with L_{loc} being the electron localization length and $1/(N(E_F)L_{\text{loc}}^2)$ being the electron energy spacing the electron overcomes in one hop.⁴⁰

The Mott VRH dependence $\ln(R/R_{\text{Mott}}) = (T_{\text{Mott}}/T)^{1/3}$ has been observed at low temperatures in two-dimensional disordered MoS₂ flakes prepared by the exfoliation.^{41,42} If the disordered film of interest is not sufficiently thin, the Mott VRH exhibits dependence $\ln(R/R_{\text{Mott}}) = (T_{\text{Mott}}/T)^{1/4}$, typical for three-dimensional systems.⁴⁰

Another work reported that the exfoliated MoS₂ flakes treated in n-butyllithium exhibit the dependence $\ln(R/R_{\text{ES}}) = (T_{\text{ES}}/T)^{1/2}$,⁴³ typical for the Efros-Shklovskii VRH.⁴⁴ Efros and Shklovskii have shown that the Coulomb interaction between the localized electrons opens the Coulomb gap at the Fermi level which emerges in the vanishing of $N(E_{\text{F}})$. As a result, below a certain critical temperature the Mott VRH dependence $\ln(R/R_{\text{Mott}}) = (T_{\text{Mott}}/T)^{1/3}$ changes to the Efros-Shklovskii VRH dependence $\ln(R/R_{\text{ES}}) = (T_{\text{ES}}/T)^{1/2}$ with activation energy⁴⁴

$$k_{\text{B}}T_{\text{ES}} = \frac{\Gamma e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_{\text{r}}\epsilon_0 L_{\text{loc}}} \quad (2)$$

where e is the electron charge, ϵ_0 is the permittivity of vacuum, ϵ_{r} is the relative permittivity of the system, and $\Gamma = 6.5$.⁴⁵ The Efros-Shklovskii dependence holds for any system dimensionality.

To determine which $R(T)$ dependence supports our MoS₂ samples, the data from Fig. 4 were plotted in Fig. 5 as $\ln(R)$ versus $1/T^{1/2}$ and as $\ln(R)$ versus $1/T^{1/3}$. For better visibility, Fig. 5a displays solely the data for the Li-free PLD-grown MoS₂ sample, Fig. 5b shows the data for the Li-doped PLD-grown MoS₂ samples, and Fig. 5c shows the data for the TAC-grown MoS₂ samples, both as-grown and Li-doped. The solid lines represent linear fits to the data. The data in Fig. 5a support better the dependence $\ln R(T) \propto (T_{\text{ES}}/T)^{1/2}$, however, the data in Figs. 5b and 5c do not allow to distinguish between $\ln R(T) \propto (T_{\text{ES}}/T)^{1/2}$ and $\ln R(T) \propto (T_{\text{Mott}}/T)^{1/3}$, which is a frequently faced problem.⁴⁵

To demonstrate that all our samples follow dependence $\ln R(T) \propto (T_{\text{ES}}/T)^{1/2}$, we discuss the values of the fitting parameters T_{ES} and T_{Mott} which are presented in Tab. I along with the activation energies $k_{\text{B}}T_{\text{ES}}$ and $k_{\text{B}}T_{\text{Mott}}$. First, we examine the TAC samples and their T_{Mott} values. These values reach $\sim 10^7$ K, corresponding to activation energies $k_{\text{B}}T_{\text{Mott}} \sim 10^3$ eV. For comparison, the largest reported value of T_{Mott} for MoS₂ films was about 10^5 K,⁴² corresponding to the activation energy $k_{\text{B}}T_{\text{Mott}} \sim 10$ eV. Generally, activation energies of various thermally activated transport processes in disordered solids rarely exceed 10 eV, in fact, they are usually much lower.⁴⁰ Thus, activation energies $k_{\text{B}}T_{\text{Mott}} \sim 10^3$ eV are too large to be meaningful, which leads us to conclude that our TAC-grown MoS₂ samples do not exhibit the Mott VRH, despite the R(T) data in Fig. 5c follow the dependence $\ln(R/R_{\text{Mott}}) = (T_{\text{Mott}}/T)^{1/3}$ quite well. On the other hand, the values of T_{ES} are a hundred times lower and correspond to the activation energies $k_{\text{B}}T_{\text{ES}} \sim 7 - 12$ eV, which are quantitatively reasonable. Hence, we conclude that the Li-free and Li-doped TAC-grown MoS₂ samples follow the Efros-Shklovskii VRH dependence $\ln(R/R_{\text{ES}}) = (T_{\text{ES}}/T)^{1/2}$. The same conclusion holds for the PLD-grown MoS₂ samples. In fact, for the Li-doped PLD-grown samples in Fig. 5b, energies $k_{\text{B}}T_{\text{Mott}}$ in Tab. I are still anomalously large (above 10^2 eV) while the energies $k_{\text{B}}T_{\text{ES}}$ are reasonable (less than 3.5 eV).

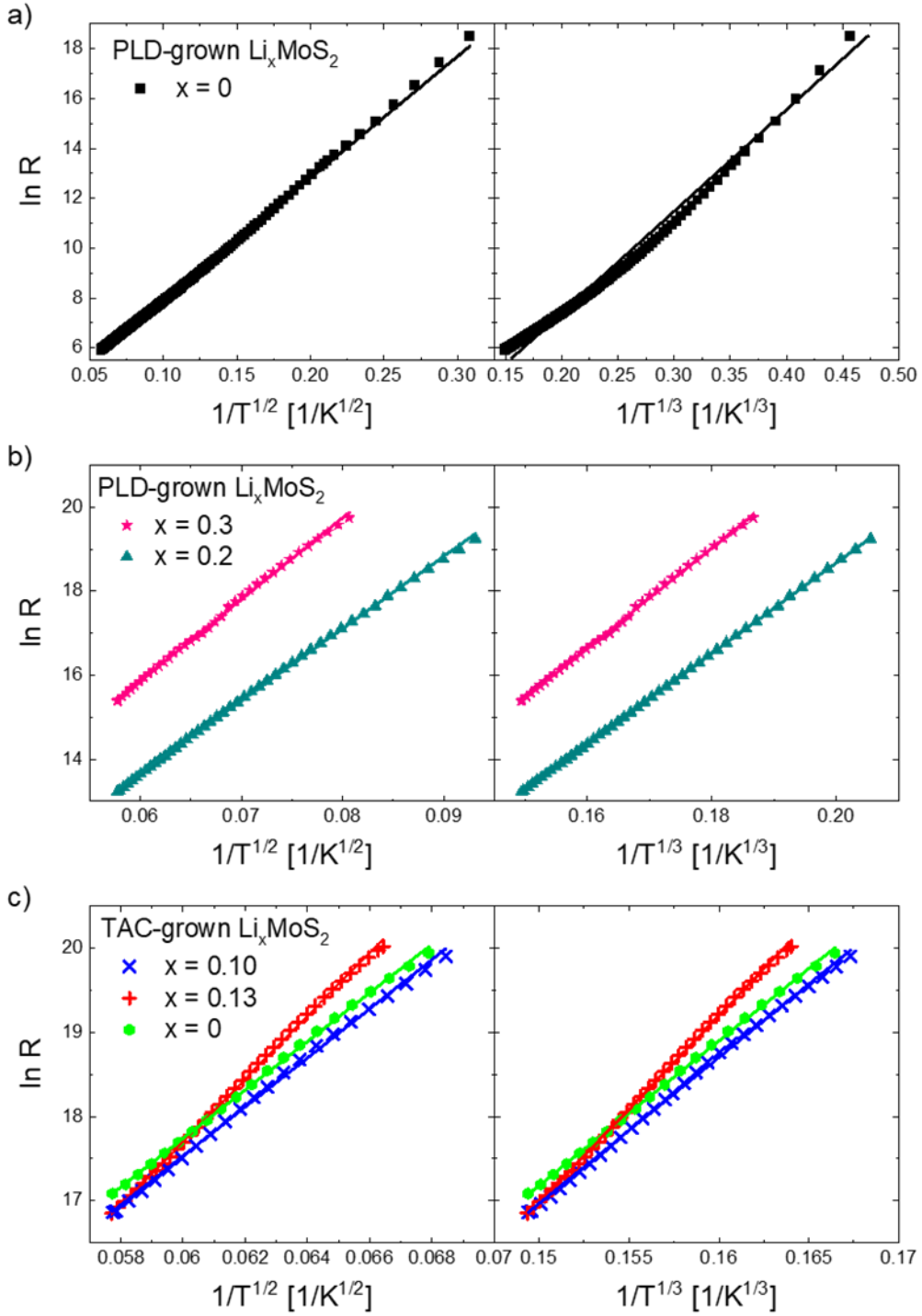


FIG. 5. Experimental data from Fig. 4 are plotted as $\ln R$ versus $1/T^{1/2}$ and as $\ln R$ versus $1/T^{1/3}$. (a) Data for the PLD-grown MoS_2 film without lithium, (b) data for the PLD-grown MoS_2 films with lithium stoichiometric coefficients of $x = 0.2$ and $x = 0.3$, (c) data for the TAC-grown MoS_2 films without ($x = 0$) and with lithium doping ($x = 0.1, x = 0.13$). The solid lines show the fit of the experimental data by the dependencies $\ln(R/R_{\text{ES}}) = (T_{\text{ES}}/T)^{1/2}$ and $\ln(R/R_{\text{Mott}}) = (T_{\text{Mott}}/T)^{1/3}$. The values of the fitting parameters T_{ES} and T_{Mott} are shown in Tab. I.

To further support the above conclusions, using $k_{\text{B}}T_{\text{Mott}} \sim 10^3$ eV, we obtain from equation (1) the energy level spacing $1/(N(E_{\text{F}})L_{\text{loc}}^2) \sim 10^2$ eV, which is again too large to be meaningful. On the other hand, if we use the activation energies $k_{\text{B}}T_{\text{ES}} \sim 0.22 - 12$ eV and

permittivity $\epsilon_r \sim 5$ (valid for few-layer MoS₂ films^{43,46}), from equation (2) we obtain the localization length $L_{loc} \sim 0.16 - 13$ nm. Here, even the smallest value, $L_{loc} \sim 0.16$ nm, is reasonably large and might correspond to a localized state at an impurity.

To distinguish between $\ln(R/R_{Mott}) = (T_{Mott}/T)^{1/3}$ and $\ln(R/R_{ES}) = (T_{ES}/T)^{1/2}$ directly, it would be advantageous to extend the $R(T)$ measurements to significantly lower temperatures than those presented in Fig. 5. However, this would result in extremely high resistances that exceed our contemporary measurement capabilities.

Table I: Studied MoS₂ samples, amount of Li₂S/S, stoichiometric coefficient of Li, and composition determined by photoemission spectroscopy, fitting temperatures T_{ES} , T_{Mott} , and corresponding activation energies $k_B T_{ES}$, $k_B T_{Mott}$, characterizing the transport mechanism in the samples.

Sample	Li ₂ S/S	Stoichiometric coefficient of Li - x	Composition Li _{x} MoS _{y}	T_{ES} [K]	$k_B T_{ES}$ [eV]	T_{Mott} [K]	$k_B T_{Mott}$ [eV]
TAC MoS ₂	0%	0	MoS _{2.2}	82 942	7.1	5 049 152	435
TAC MoS ₂	20%	$x = 0.13 \pm 0.03$	Li _{0.1} MoS _{2.2}	84 772	7.3	5 240 436	451
TAC MoS ₂	50%	$x = 0.10 \pm 0.02$	Li _{0.1} MoS _{2.2}	140218	12.1	10 972 142	945
PLD MoS ₂	0%	0	MoS _{2.0}	2 551	0.22	67 103	5.8
PLD MoS ₂	20%	$x = 0.2 \pm 0.1$	Li _{0.2} MoS _{2.1}	29 503	2.54	1 252 645	108
PLD MoS ₂	50%	$x = 0.3 \pm 0.1$	Li _{0.3} MoS _{2.0}	37 653	3.24	1 681 548	145

According to Tab. 1, $k_B T_{ES}$ for the undoped ($x = 0$) TAC-grown MoS₂ sample is thirty times larger than $k_B T_{ES}$ for the undoped PLD-grown MoS₂ sample. According to equation (2), the larger the activation energy $k_B T_{ES}$ the smaller the localization length L_{loc} due to disorder. This means that disorder in the undoped TAC-grown sample is much stronger than in the undoped PLD-grown sample. The question is what causes this strong disorder. Our chemical composition analyses (Tab. 1 and Supplementary Tab. TS1) show that the TAC-grown MoS₂ samples are non-stoichiometric (the S:Mo ratio is about 2.2), while in the PLD-grown MoS₂ samples, the S:Mo ratio is close to 2. It is important to mention that excess sulfur does not affect the resulting XRD patterns demonstrating the crystalline arrangement (Supplementary Fig. S1). This suggests that the excess sulfur fills the gaps between the neighboring monolayers as an impurity disorder, causing the substantial electrical resistance of the TAC-grown samples.

What remains to be determined is the origin of the disorder in the undoped PLD grown MoS₂ sample. Using atomic force microscopy (see Supplementary Fig. S4-S5 and Tab. TS2), we estimated the lateral grain size distribution. The size of grains L_{grains} for MoS₂ layers grown by TAC and PLD are in the range of 3 – 30 nm suggesting negligible differences in grain sizes for these two fabrication methods. From equation (2) we find for the undoped PLD-grown sample the localization length $L_{\text{loc}} \sim 13$ nm. It clearly exceeds L_{grain} , suggesting that electron localization in the undoped PLD-grown sample is caused by disorder due to the grain boundaries. For the undoped TAC-grown sample is $L_{\text{loc}} \sim 0.3$ nm. It is evident that such a small L_{loc} cannot be ascribed to grain boundary disorder with $L_{\text{grain}} \sim 3 - 30$ nm, therefore it has to be attributed to the non-stoichiometry, as discussed above. The disorder induced by the minor traces of impurities detected via photoemission spectroscopy (see Supplementary Tab. TS1) is likely negligible.

Furthermore, the data in Tab. I reveal that Li intercalation introduces additional disorder, as the increase of x above zero is accompanied by the rise of $k_{\text{B}}T_{\text{ES}}$. The activation energy $k_{\text{B}}T_{\text{ES}}$ increases with the stoichiometric coefficient of Li, x , with one exception - the TAC-grown sample with $x = 0.1$ exhibits a larger $k_{\text{B}}T_{\text{ES}}$ than the sample with $x = 0.13$. This discrepancy could be attributed to experimental uncertainties in the Li concentration determination (in Tab. I), suggesting that the actual lithium concentration in the doped TAC sample synthesized using a 50% Li₂S powder composition might be slightly higher than in the one where 20% Li₂S powder was used, as would be expected.

In conclusion, Li-intercalated few-layer MoS₂ films were fabricated using an innovative approach, the one-zone sulfurization with Li₂S powder which serves as a source of lithium. The initial MoS₂ layers were grown by TAC and PLD. The Li intercalation did not affect the 2H hexagonal structure and semiconducting character of our MoS₂ layers, as verified by Raman, XRD, and optical measurements. Electrical R(T) measurements revealed that all

samples exhibited the insulating dependence $\ln(R/R_{ES}) = (T_{ES}/T)^{1/2}$, typical for the Efros-Shklovskii variable range hopping in a disordered semiconductor.⁴⁴ In recent works⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ the Efros-Shklovskii VRH was observed in undoped semiconducting MoS₂ films only at very low temperatures. On the other hand, in our work, Efros-Shklovskii VRH was observed in wide temperature range (from 300 K down to low temperatures). This was caused by higher disorder in our samples. The same $\ln(R/R_{ES}) = (T_{ES}/T)^{1/2}$ dependence was manifested by the disordered 1T/1T' MoS₂ monolayer flakes which are however metallic.⁴³ The Li intercalation in our MoS₂ layers induced additional disorder, further enhancing the Efros-Shklovskii insulating regime of electronic transport already present in the samples. The strong disorder observed in the undoped TAC-MoS₂ samples is attributed to sulfur non-stoichiometry. The weak disorder in the undoped PLD-grown MoS₂ samples is due to the grain boundaries. Li intercalation might also induce electron doping; however, this effect was entirely obscured by the dominant effect of disorder, which significantly amplifies resistance.

Supplementary material

See supplementary material for supporting results, including XRD, Photoelectron Spectroscopy Analysis, AFM images and grain size distribution for all undoped and Li-doped MoS₂ layers.

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DATA AVAILABILITY

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request. The synchrotron photoemission spectroscopy data are openly available in the Zenodo repository at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10389596>.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors have no conflicts to disclose.

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Supplementary Material for:

Investigating Structural, Optical, and Electron-Transport Properties of Lithium Intercalated Few-Layer MoS₂ Films: Unraveling the Influence of Disorder

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XRD Analysis - Supplementary Fig. S1 - S2

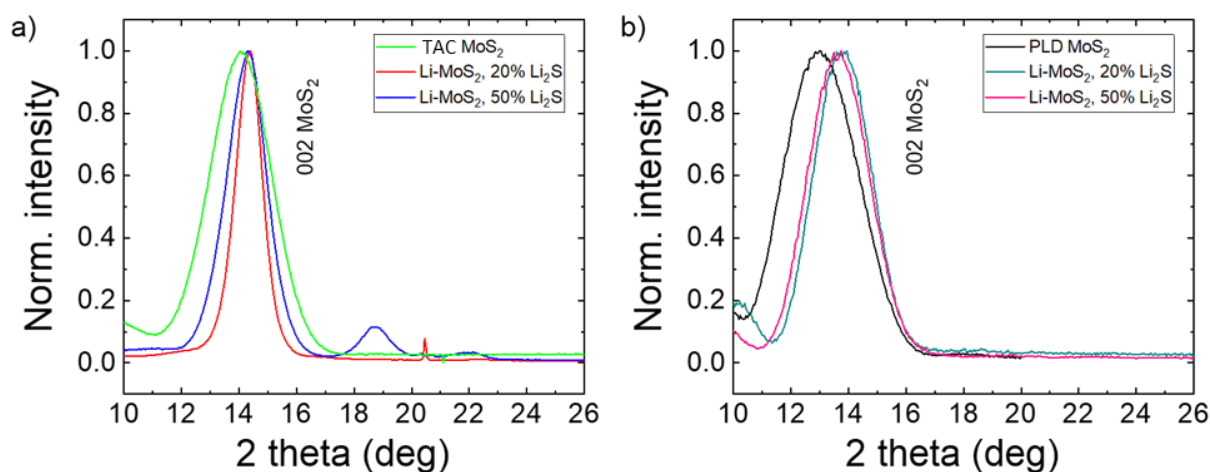


FIG. S1. – XRD patterns of the as-grown and Li-doped MoS₂ were obtained with a diffractometer Bruker D8 DISCOVER equipped with a rotating anode (Cu K α) working at the power of 12 kW. (a) The initial MoS₂ layer (green) was grown by the one-zone sulfurization from 1 nm thick Mo film. The 002 diffraction was at 2 theta 14.05°, after Li doping (red and blue) the 2 theta of the main diffraction peak shifted slightly to 14.40°. This shift might be assigned to the change in lattice parameters of MoS₂ after intercalation with Li,¹ combined with the reduction of the in-plane strains present in the undoped MoS₂ sample.² (b) PLD-grown MoS₂ before (black) and after Li-doping (cyan and pink). The 002 of original MoS₂ was at 2 theta equals 13°, after Li-doping it rises to 13.75°. The same arguments as for the TAC-grown samples might be applied to explain this shift.

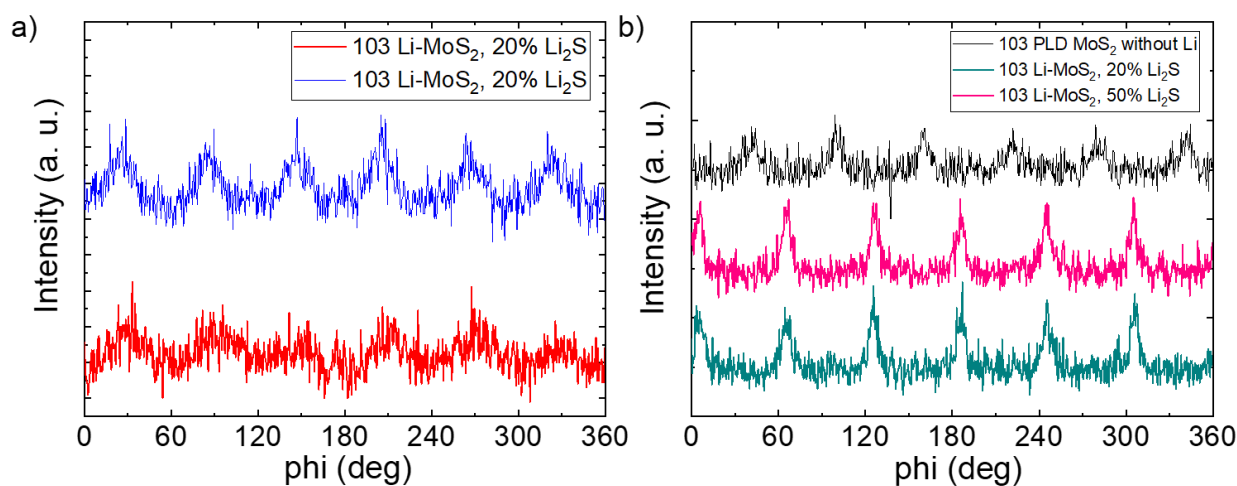


FIG. S2. – The in-plane ordering of the Li-doped (a) TAC-grown, and (b) PLD-grown MoS₂ layers was determined from azimuthal ϕ -scans. We have chosen the strongest 103 diffraction of the hexagonal MoS₂ phase for analysis. Epitaxial ordering was observed for all Li-doped MoS₂. Six peaks separated by 60° are present in the spectra, which corresponds to the hexagonal symmetry of 2H-MoS₂. The presence of distinct maxima in ϕ -scans indicates a tendency of the layers to grow epitaxially. The initial MoS₂ layer grown by TAC was originally not ordered in the a-b plane.

Photoelectron Spectroscopy Analysis - Supplementary FIG. S3, Tab. TS1

The chemical composition of Li-doped MoS₂ thin films was investigated using high-resolution synchrotron photoemission spectroscopy carried out at the BACH beamline of CNR at the Elettra synchrotron facility (in Trieste, Italy). Photoemission spectra were acquired using a Scienta R3000 hemispherical analyzer positioned at an angle of 60° relative to the X-ray incidence direction. The X-rays were linearly polarized with the polarization vector parallel to the scattering plane. The spectra were recorded in normal emission geometry at a take-off angle of 90° using photon energies of 605, 270, and 120 eV and a total instrumental resolution of 0.2 eV. To reduce the surface charging, the samples' temperatures were maintained at 150°C during data acquisition. Binding energies were referenced to the S 2p_{3/2} peak of thin MoS₂ films (161.95 ± 0.05 eV).³⁻⁶ The core-level spectra were fitted with Voigt functions, except for Mo 3d where Gaussian-Lorentzian product functions provided better results. Shirley-type background was applied when appropriate; otherwise, a linear background was subtracted.

Elemental atomic concentrations were determined from the peak areas of the respective elements and the corresponding sensitivity factors. All intensities were normalized to the incident X-ray flux. The relative sensitivity factor for Mo 3d and S 2p core levels was determined from spectra obtained from a reference MoS₂ sample (MoS₂ powder from Acros Organics, 98.5%). Relative sensitivity factors S_i^j for other elements (i) and core levels (j) were estimated using theoretical parameters:

$$S_i^j = T \lambda_i^j \sigma_i^j (1 + 0.625 \beta_i^j),$$

where T is the analyzer transmission function,⁷ λ_i^j is the inelastic mean free path of analyzed photoelectrons in MoS₂,⁸ σ_i^j and β_i^j are theoretical photoionization cross-section and related asymmetry parameters, respectively.⁹

Lithium concentrations were determined by the integrated intensity ratios of Li 1s and Mo 4s peaks. Contribution from lithium oxides and hydroxides was subtracted. Both Li 1s and Mo 4s spectra were recorded at three different photon energies (120, 270, and 605 eV) and the obtained Li:Mo concentration ratio values were averaged.

The relative concentrations of Te and Na impurities were estimated from the peak areas of Te 4d, Na 2p, and Mo 4p measured at a photon energy of 120 eV, while the concentration of potassium was determined from the relative intensities of K 2p and Mo 3d peaks acquired at a photon energy of 605 eV.

Signals from aluminum and oxygen were excluded from the quantitative analysis due to the strong contribution from the sapphire wafer substrate. Additionally, only negligible amounts of Mo oxides were detected in the Mo 3d spectra.

The chemical composition of undoped PLD MoS₂ was analyzed by laboratory XPS setup (Omicron multiprobe system with the hemispherical analyzer, Scienta Omicron, Taunusstein, Germany), using monochromatic Al K-alpha X-rays - 1486.6 eV.

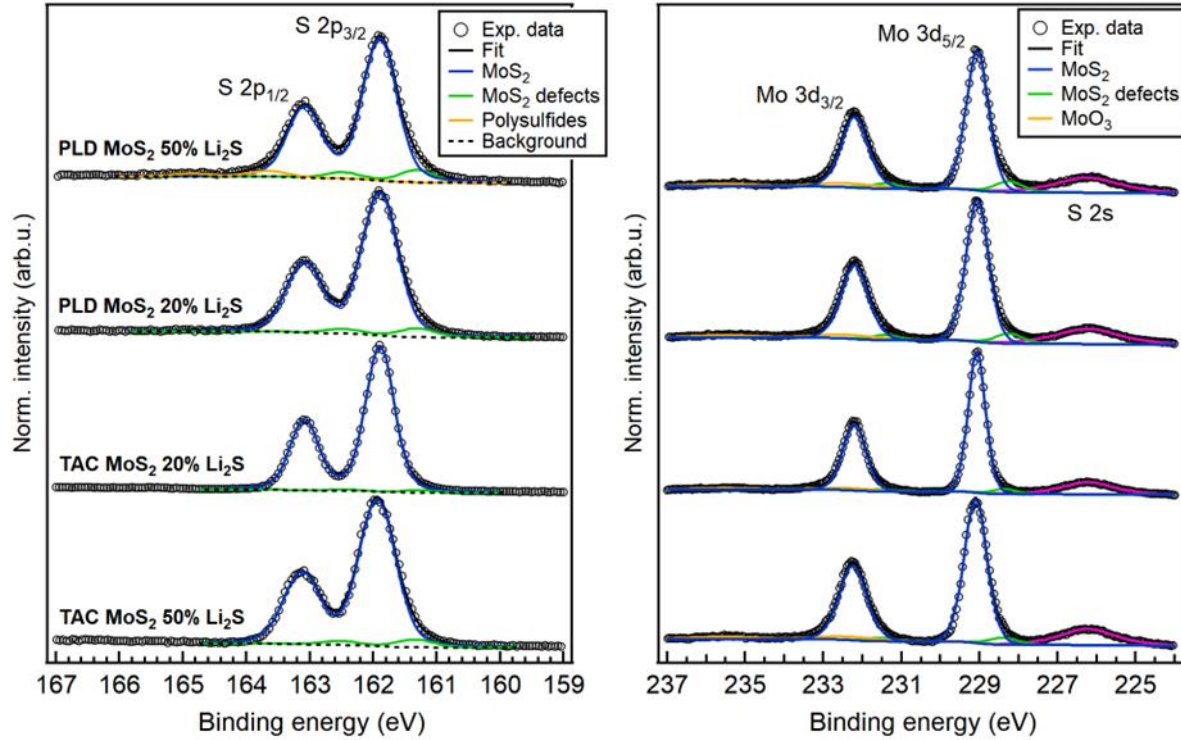


FIG. S3 - S 2p and Mo 3d core level spectra of Li-doped MoS₂ samples taken with $h\nu = 605\text{eV}$. The main S 2p and Mo 3d components, with S 2p_{3/2} at 161.95 eV and Mo 3d_{5/2} at 229.05 eV, correspond to thin-film 2H-MoS₂. Small contributions at lower binding energies (S 2p_{3/2} at 161.35 eV and Mo 3d_{5/2} at 228.3 eV) can be attributed to MoS₂ defect sites, such as sulfur vacancies.¹⁰ Another small contribution to Mo 3d appears at higher binding energies (Mo 3d_{5/2} at 232.4 eV), which is attributed to traces of molybdenum oxides formed on the surface due to air exposure.

Tab. TS1 – The chemical composition of pristine and Li-doped PLD and TAC-grown MoS₂ layers. It is worth noting that the PLD samples, even after Li doping, exhibited an S:Mo ratio close to 2.0. Conversely, the S: Mo ratio for TAC-grown MoS₂ layers, both before and after Li-doping, was approximately 2.2. Moreover, TAC-grown samples exhibited traces of impurities, specifically Te, Na, and K. We assume that the contamination originates from the sulfur powder used in their fabrication. Carbon contamination appears relatively high, most likely due to the contribution of the organic species layer formed on the surface upon air exposure and possible graphitic carbon contamination at the substrate or substrate-MoS₂ interface. However, no direct correlation between the carbon contamination level and electron-transport properties was observed.

Sample	Li ₂ S/S	Equivalent homogenous atomic concentrations (%)						
		Mo	S	Li	Te	Na	K	C
PLD MoS ₂ ^{a)}	0%	22 ± 2	45 ± 4	0	n/d	n/d	n/d	33 ± 3
PLD MoS ₂	20 %	25 ± 1	52 ± 3	5 ± 3	0	0	0	17 ± 8
PLD MoS ₂	50 %	25 ± 1	51 ± 3	7 ± 3	0	0	0	17 ± 8
TAC MoS ₂	0%	25 ± 2	56 ± 4	0	0.5 ± 0.2	0.5 ± 0.1	0	17 ± 6
TAC MoS ₂	20%	29 ± 1	63 ± 3	4 ± 1	0.3 ± 0.1	0	0	4 ± 1
TAC MoS ₂	50%	27 ± 1	60 ± 3	3 ± 1	0.04 ± 0.02	0	0.11 ± 0.02	10 ± 2

^{a)} chemical composition analyzed by laboratory XPS.

AFM - Supplementary S4-S5, TS2

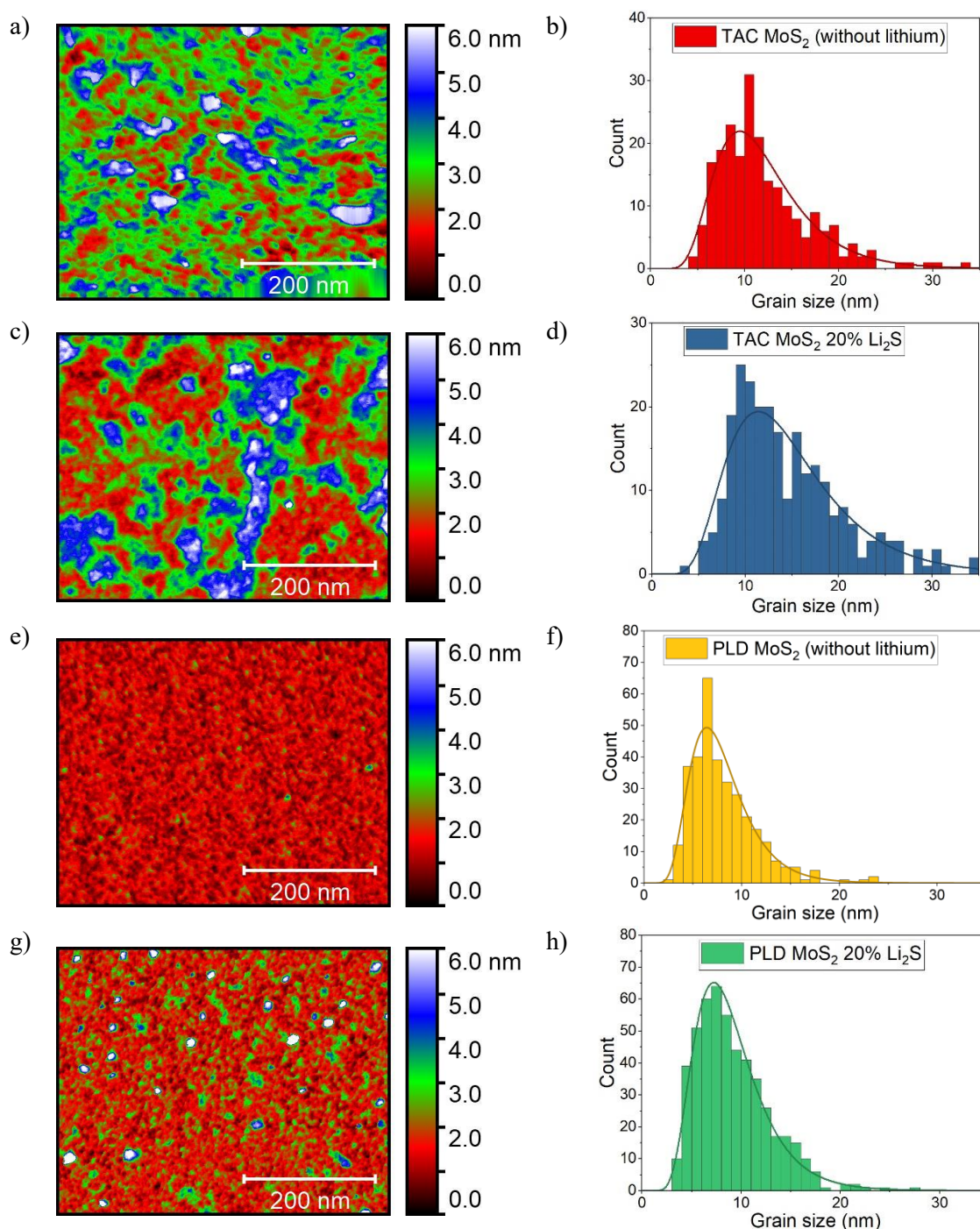


Fig. S4 Atomic force microscopy (AFM) analysis of the MoS₂ layers with and without Li prepared by TAC (a-d) and PLD (e-h). AFM was used to evaluate the surface morphology and topography.

a) AFM scan and b) grain size distribution of undoped TAC-grown MoS₂ layer.

c) AFM scan and d) grain size distribution of Li-doped TAC MoS₂ layer prepared with 20 % of the Li₂S.

e) AFM scan and f) grain size distribution of for undoped PLD-grown MoS₂ layer

g) AFM scan and h) grain size distribution of Li-doped PLD-grown MoS₂ layer prepared with 20 % of the Li₂S.

AFM scans were provided by HR-AFM, Multimode 8 (BrukerNano) with scan areas of 500 x 400 nm with spatial sampling of 1 point per 1 nm. The typical tip radius of fresh AFM was ~ 2 nm to achieve best the resolution of the AFM scan.

The morphology of MoS₂ layers shows a more pronounced height variation for TAC-grown MoS₂ compared to MoS₂ prepared by PLD. For TAC-grown MoS₂ layers, the peak of the grain size distribution is situated around 9 - 10 nm. For PLD-grown samples, the peak of the grain size distribution MoS₂ layers is situated around 6 -7 nm. AFM scans of Li-doped and undoped MoS₂ layers grown by PLD indicate morphology differences after Li-intercalation, while no significant change was observed in the case of TAC samples.

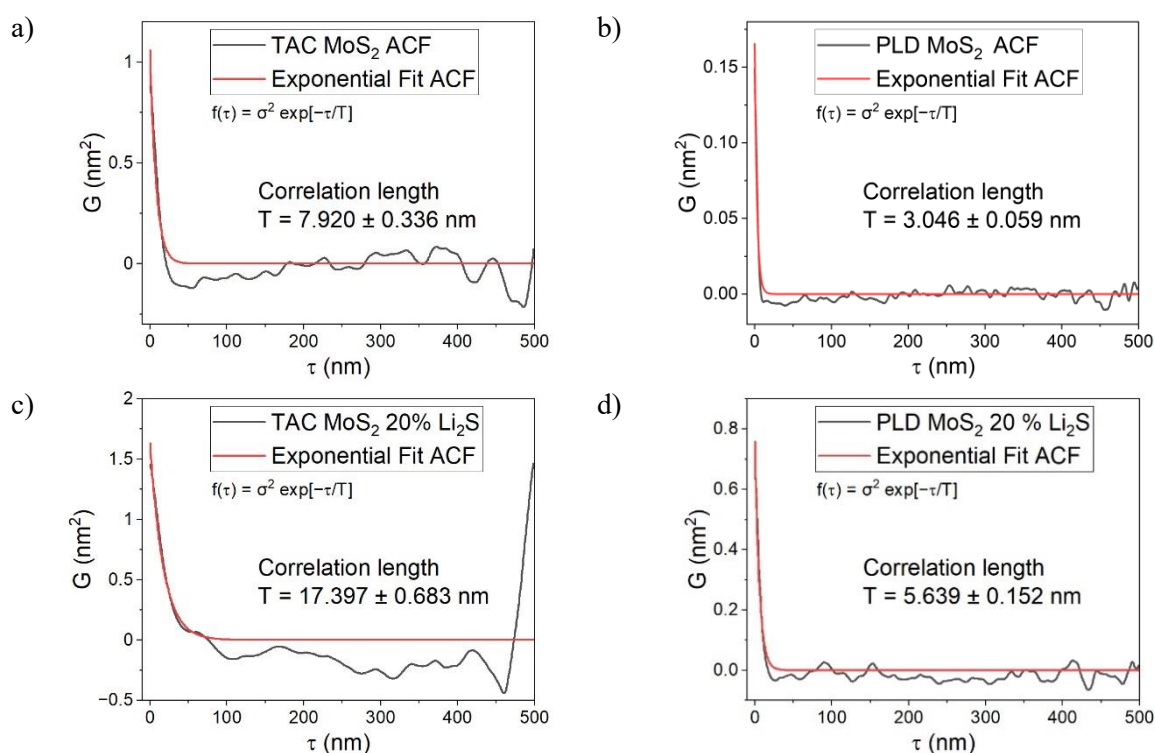


Fig. S5 One-dimensional autocorrelation function (ACF) was performed from the AFM scans of undoped (a) and Li-doped (c) MoS₂ layers grown by TAC and undoped (b) and Li-doped (d) MoS₂ layers grown by PLD. ACF data are approximated by fitting with the exponential function of ACF (the equations are included in Figs), where fitting parameter T represents the correlation lengths of the surface features.

TAB. TS2 Summary of the AFM results.

Sample	RMS Roughness (nm)	Correlation length (nm)	Range of Grain size (nm)
TAC MoS ₂	0.941	7.9	4 - 30
TAC MoS ₂ 20% Li ₂ S	1.211	17.4	3 - 35
PLD MoS ₂	0.387	3.0	2 - 20
PLD MoS ₂ 20% Li ₂ S	0.806	5.6	3 - 22

Surface roughness (RMS), Correlation length, and Range of Grain size for Li-doped and undoped MoS₂ layers grown by TAC and PLD are included. The roughness (RMS) of the MoS₂ layer grown by PLD increased from 0.4 to 0.8 nm after Li-intercalation. The roughness (RMS) of TAC samples changes from

0.9 to 1.2 nm after Li-intercalation. Correlation lengths for Li-doped and undoped MoS₂ layers grown by TAC are 17.4 and 7.9 nm, respectively. Li-doped and undoped MoS₂ layers grown by PLD have correlation lengths of 5.6 and 3 nm, respectively. The size of grains for MoS₂ layers grown by TAC and PLD are in the range of 3 - 30 nm suggesting negligible differences of grain sizes for these two fabrication methods. Limits of Correlation length for MoS₂ layers estimated AFM are given by the resolution limits of AFM measurements suggesting that the real correlation lengths could be even smaller than those determined by AFC analysis.

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