

Isotropic thermal atomic layer etching of 2D MoS₂ using formic acid vapor

Hyewon Han ^{a,1}, Jieun Kang ^{b,1}, Jimin Kim ^a, Sunjae Jeong ^c, Siyeon Kim ^c, Gahee Oh ^c, Dahun Ko ^c, Sihoon Son ^d, Hyunbin Choi ^a, Doosan Kim ^{b,e}, Minjong Lee ^f, Taesung Kim ^g, Jiyoung Kim ^{e,f}, Geunyoung Yeom ^{b,*}

^a Department of Semiconductor Convergence Engineering, Sungkyunkwan University, 2066 Seobu-ro, Jangan-gu, Suwon-si, Gyeonggi-do 16419, South Korea

^b Department of Advanced Materials Science & Engineering, Sungkyunkwan University, 2066 Seobu-ro, Jangan-gu, Suwon-si, Gyeonggi-do 16419, South Korea

^c Department of Display Engineering, Sungkyunkwan University, 2066 Seobu-ro, Jangan-gu, Suwon-si, Gyeonggi-do 16419, South Korea

^d SKKU Advanced Institute of Nanotechnology (SAINT), 2066 Seobu-ro, Jangan-gu, Suwon-si, Gyeonggi-do 16419, South Korea

^e Department of Materials Science and Engineering, The University of Texas at Dallas, Richardson, TX 75080, USA

^f Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, The University of Texas at Dallas, Richardson, TX 75080, USA

^g Department of Mechanical Engineering, 2066 Seobu-ro, Jangan-gu, Suwon-si, Gyeonggi-do 16419, South Korea

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

MoS₂
Atomic layer etching
Isotropic etching
Remote oxygen plasma
Formic acid

ABSTRACT

Two-dimensional (2D) transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) such as 2D MoS₂ exhibit diverse electronic and optoelectronic properties depending on their thickness, making reliable layer control essential for their integration into advanced materials and devices. As device architecture evolves into three-dimensional configurations, highly layer controlled isotropic etching has become increasingly important. In this study, we introduce an isotropic thermal atomic layer etching (ALE) process of 2D MoS₂ monolayers for the fabrication of 3D devices through the surface modification of monolayer MoS₂ by a remote oxygen plasma, followed by exposure to formic acid vapor for the removal of the oxidized monolayer by a chemical reaction under annealing conditions. This approach enables highly controllable, layer-by-layer etching while minimizing surface damage, as confirmed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), Raman spectroscopy, atomic force microscopy (AFM), and device-level measurements. Additionally, transmission electron microscopy (TEM) analysis of MoS₂ films suspended over three-dimensional trench structures confirmed the isotropic etching behavior. This study highlights the potential of organic-vapor-assisted ALE as a key technique for damage-free control of 2D material layer thickness, offering a promising pathway for next-generation semiconductor applications.

1. Introduction

Two-dimensional (2D) materials have garnered significant interest for next-generation electronics and optoelectronics owing to their tunable properties and atomically thin geometry [1–5]. Among them, molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂) is a representative transition metal dichalcogenide (TMD) with a thickness-dependent bandgap, transitioning from ~1.29 eV (indirect) in bulk to ~1.9 eV (direct) in the monolayer [6–8].

The unique electronic characteristics of MoS₂ not only make it a strong candidate for replacing silicon in planar devices but also underscore its potential in emerging three-dimensional (3D) device architectures such as gate-all-around (GAA) and complementary FET (CFET) configurations [9–11]. As device scaling approaches the sub-5 nm

regime, silicon channels in CFETs suffer from severe mobility degradation. In contrast, 2D materials like MoS₂ can retain high mobility and low leakage current even at monolayer thickness, enabling high-performance operation of monolayer MoS₂ transistors even in the subthreshold regime [12,13]. Furthermore, its wide bandgap and high effective mass further suppress direct source-to-drain tunneling, offering clear advantages for sub-10 nm—and even sub-1 nm—gate lengths in three dimensional stacked GAA nanoribbon and CFET devices [14,15]. To fully realize these benefits in these devices, highly controlled and damage-free thickness control is essential, emphasizing the importance of isotropic atomic layer etching (ALE).

To achieve atomic-level thickness control of MoS₂, a variety of ALE strategies have been investigated. (Table 1) For example, chlorine radical adsorption followed by low-energy Ar⁺ ion desorption enables

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: gyeom@skku.edu (G. Yeom).

¹ These authors contributed equally.

Table 1
Comparison of previously reported MoS₂ ALE processes and this work.

Reference #	Gas	Direction	Temperature
15	Cl, Ar	Anisotropy	RT
16	O ₂	Isotropy	500 °C
17	MoF ₆ , H ₂ O	Isotropy	150–300 °C (500 °C for the removal of residual MoO _x)
This work	O ₂ , Formic acid	Isotropy	300 °C

anisotropic, atomic layer etching with minimal substrate damage; however, its anisotropic nature makes it difficult to apply to three-dimensional structures [16]. Remote O₂ plasma oxidation followed by high-temperature annealing (≥ 500 °C) can remove oxidized layers but the high thermal budget limits compatibility with device integration [17]. Thermal ALE using MoF₆ and H₂O achieves isotropic etching at 150–300 °C, yet leaves residual MoO_x requiring additional 500 °C desorption for surface cleaning [18].

Therefore, we propose a formic acid-assisted ALE process for MoS₂ that enables isotropic, layer-by-layer removal at low temperatures (~ 300 °C) while avoiding the drawbacks of prior methods. The process alternates (i) surface modification of a MoS₂ monolayer by oxygen radicals from a remote plasma and (ii) thermally driven desorption of the modified layer by chemical reaction via formic acid vapor exposure. This method enables reliable thickness control without apparent damage even under repeated cyclic process, and its successful application to chemical vapor deposition (CVD)-grown MoS₂ films demonstrates strong potential for wafer-scale fabrication. Accordingly, this isotropic thermal ALE provides a promising pathway for the integration of 2D materials into advanced 3D device architectures.

2. Experimental

2.1. Sample preparation

Monolayer and multilayer (over 5 layers) CVD-grown MoS₂ films (1 cm x 1 cm) were purchased from 6Carbon Co., Ltd. and monolayer MoS₂

films were transferred onto SiO₂/Si substrates to prepare the bilayer and trilayer MoS₂ samples. For transfer, polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA; 495 PMMA A6, Kayaku Advanced Materials) was spin-coated onto the as-grown monolayer MoS₂, and thermal release tape (TRT) was attached. The TRT-supported film was separated in deionized water (18.2 M Ω -cm, ELGA LabWater), and subsequent stacking steps were performed without PMMA coating. The resulting stacks were aligned on SiO₂/Si substrates and released by heating at 110 °C. Residual PMMA was removed by sequential rinsing with acetone and isopropyl alcohol (IPA; 2-propanol, 99.9 %, Samchun). For isotropy experiments, MoS₂ was transferred onto oxide trench-patterned substrates with a 30 nm spacing, resulting in suspended regions suitable for cross-sectional analysis.

2.2. Thermal atomic layer etching of MoS₂

MoS₂ samples were exposed to oxygen radicals generated in a remote inductively coupled plasma (ICP) reactor equipped with dual crossed-hole grids, which effectively blocked energetic ions from reaching the substrate. The plasma was ignited under an O₂ pressure of 100 mTorr with a 13.56 MHz radio-frequency (RF) power of 300 W at 200 °C. Subsequent removal of the oxidized surface layer was carried out by exposing it to formic acid (FA) vapor mixed with nitrogen (FA:N₂ = 1:2) at 300 °C. The substrate temperature was monitored using a thermocouple in direct contact with the sample holder and further validated by a surface temperature-indicating label (THERMAX, 5-grid thermometer).

2.3. Device fabrication

Bottom-gated FETs were fabricated using CVD-grown MoS₂ transferred onto Si substrates with a 300 nm SiO₂ dielectric and heavily doped p-type Si (p⁺⁺) (TASCO) serving as the global back-gate electrode. Following transfer, source and drain electrodes were defined by photolithography. Chromium (5 nm) and gold (50 nm) were subsequently deposited via electron-beam evaporation to form the contacts. The lift-off process was carried out in acetone, and the samples were then rinsed sequentially with isopropyl alcohol and deionized water to

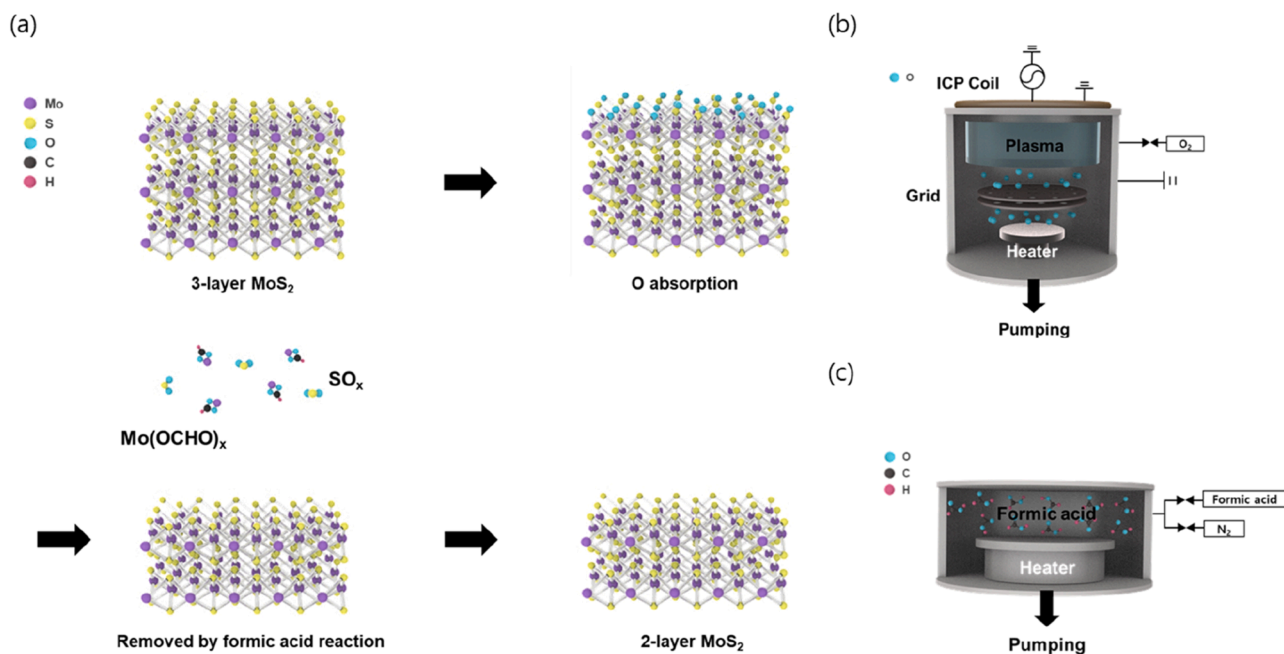


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of (a) an ALE cycle for MoS₂ consisting of oxidation and formic acid reaction steps, (b) a remote inductively coupled plasma (ICP) system with dual grids for oxidation, and (c) a formic acid treatment system for desorption by reaction.

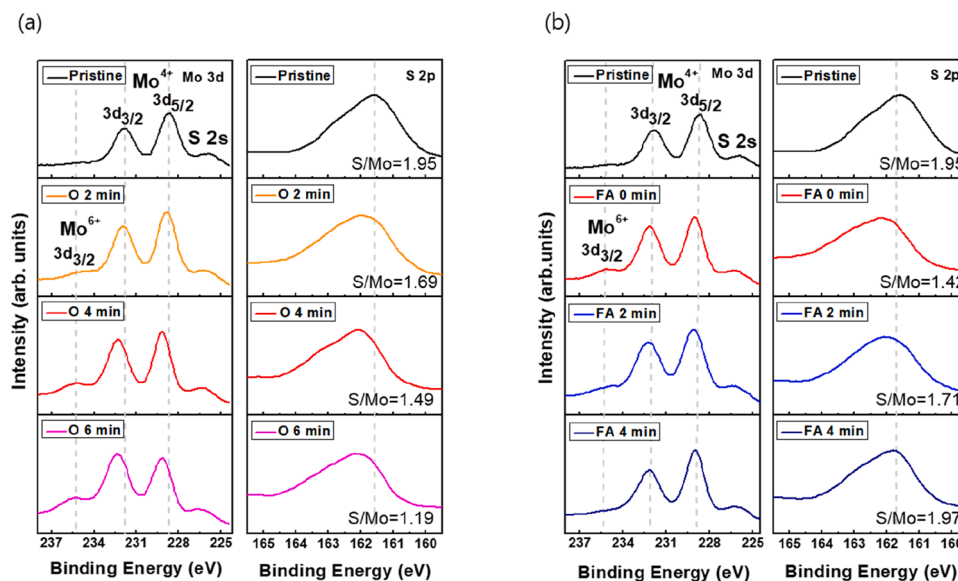


Fig. 2. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra of Mo 3d and S 2p on a bilayer MoS₂ surface according to the (a) oxygen radical exposure time (pristine, 2, 4, and 6 min) and (b) formic acid vapor exposure time (pristine, 0, 2, and 4 min) following 4 min of oxidation.

remove residual resist and solvents.

2.4. Characterization methods

2.4.1. Raman and photoluminescence spectroscopy

Raman and photoluminescence (PL) spectra were measured using a confocal Raman microscope (WITec Alpha 300 M+) with a 532 nm excitation laser. These measurements were used to evaluate the layer number and bandgap characteristics of the MoS₂ before and after ALE processing.

2.4.2. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy

XPS (XPS, MultiLab 2000, Thermo VG, Mg K α source) was employed to analyze the chemical composition and oxidation states. A monochromatic Al K α X-ray gun operated at 12 kV and 180 W was used with an Alpha110 hemispherical electron energy analyzer. High-resolution spectra were collected using a pass energy of 30 eV and a step size of 0.1 eV. A Shirley background was subtracted from all spectra, and the binding energies were calibrated to the C 1 s peak at 284.8 eV to correct for charging effects.

2.4.3. Atomic force microscopy

Surface morphology and thickness evolution were characterized using AFM (Park Systems, XE-100) operated in non-contact mode with a PPP-NCHR silicon cantilever (spring constant \approx 42 N/m, resonance frequency \approx 330 kHz). Both height profiles and root-mean-square (RMS) surface roughness were analyzed at each ALE step.

2.4.4. High-resolution scanning transmission electron microscopy

HR-TEM/STEM analysis was carried out using a JEOL JEM-ARM200F operated at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV with a ZrO/W(100) Schottky field-emission electron source. High-angle annular dark-field (HAADF) STEM imaging was employed to directly visualize the MoS₂ lattice and to determine the number of layers with atomic-scale contrast. The instrument provides a HAADF-STEM resolution of \sim 0.1 nm, enabling clear identification of layer stacking and structural evolution in suspended MoS₂ films across oxide trench patterns.

2.4.5. Electrical and optoelectronic measurements

Electrical properties of MoS₂ field-effect transistors were measured using a semiconductor parameter analyzer (Keithley 4200A-SCS) in a

probe station. Threshold voltage and current level changes were monitored as a function of thickness in transfer curves. Photoresponse measurements were performed under pulsed illumination using red (650 nm) and blue (450 nm) light sources to probe optoelectronic performance.

3. Results and discussion

Fig. 1 presents the schematic illustration and experimental setup of the ALE process for MoS₂. As shown in **Fig. 1a**, the ALE cycle used in the experiment consists of two sequential steps: (i) oxidation of the MoS₂ surface by reactive oxygen radicals, followed by (ii) removal of the oxidized layer through a chelation-type reaction with a vaporized formic acid. This two-step sequence enables atomic-scale layer-by-layer thinning of MoS₂. The oxidation step was conducted in a remote inductively coupled plasma (ICP) system equipped with dual crossed-hole grids, shown in **Fig. 1b**. The grid structure prevented energetic ions from reaching the substrate while permitting neutral radicals to interact with the surface, thereby ensuring chemical oxidation without plasma-induced physical damage. In addition, the SiC heater located beneath the sample holder supplied thermal energy to enhance surface reactivity, that is, by performing the oxidation at 200 °C to achieve efficient and controlled surface modification. Following the oxidation step, the sample was introduced into an organic vapor treatment, as shown in **Fig. 1c**. In this step, vaporized formic acid carried by a N₂ gas flow reacted with the surface oxide species via a chelation mechanism. The oxidized Mo species were bonded with the carboxyl group in the formic acid to form volatile compound layer, which were subsequently desorbed from the surface [19]. The substrate was heated to 300 °C to supply sufficient thermal energy for desorption of the compound layer. Repetition of the oxidation and desorption sequence defines the cyclic isotropic thermal ALE cycle, providing layer-by-layer thickness control without introducing noticeable damage to the underlying lattice.

To investigate the ALE characteristics of MoS₂, involving an oxidation step followed by removal through formic acid vapor treatment, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was performed. **Fig. 2a** and **2b** present the XPS spectra of Mo 3d and S 2p on a bilayer CVD-grown MoS₂ surface as a function of oxygen radical exposure time and formic acid vapor exposure time, respectively. As shown in **Fig. 2a**, with increasing oxygen radical exposure, a Mo⁶⁺ peak—a clear signature of Mo—O bond formation—emerges in the Mo 3d region. Consistently, the

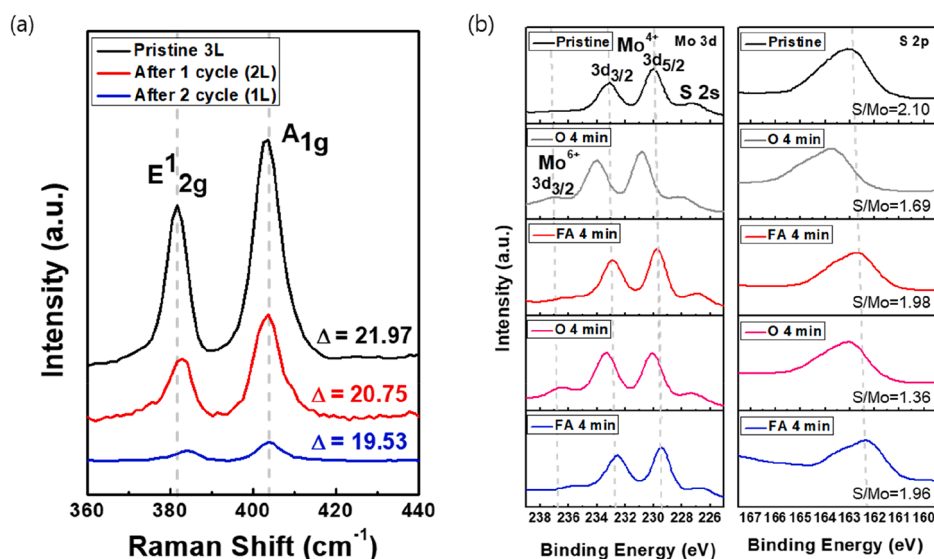


Fig. 3. (a) Raman spectra of a trilayer MoS₂ measured over two ALE cycles. (b) XPS spectra of a trilayer MoS₂ measured at each step over two ALE cycles consisting of sequential oxidation and formic acid vapor treatment.

S/Mo atomic ratio, calculated from Table S1, decreases from 1.95 (pristine) to 1.69, 1.49, and 1.19 with increasing oxidation time, confirming the progressive formation of surface oxide layer (MoS_xO_y) on MoS₂ [20]. The shift of Mo 3d and S 2p peaks toward higher binding energies arises from oxygen substitution-induced lattice distortions and vacancy defects, which introduce donor states in the band gap of MoS₂ and alter carrier transport [21–24]. Fig. 2b shows the XPS spectra after a 4 min oxidation step followed by sequential formic acid treatments. With increasing formic acid vapor exposure time, the Mo⁶⁺ peak introduced during oxidation is gradually suppressed and nearly disappears after 4 min, indicating complete removal of the oxidized layer. Simultaneously, the binding energy positions return toward those of the

pristine sample, and the S/Mo ratio recovers to 1.71 and 1.97 after 2 and 4 min of formic acid treatment, respectively. After 4 min of formic acid vapor exposure, both the peak positions and stoichiometry are nearly restored to the pristine state. This recovery indicates that the structural and compositional changes induced by oxygen substitution during oxidation are reversed as the oxidized surface layer is selectively removed by the formic acid reaction. Moreover, formic acid treatment alone did not produce noticeable changes, and oxidation followed by annealing without formic acid also showed no significant alteration. (Figure S2) These observations confirm the proposed ALE mechanism, in which oxygen radical exposure oxidizes the surface layer and subsequent formic acid vapor treatment selectively removes the resulting

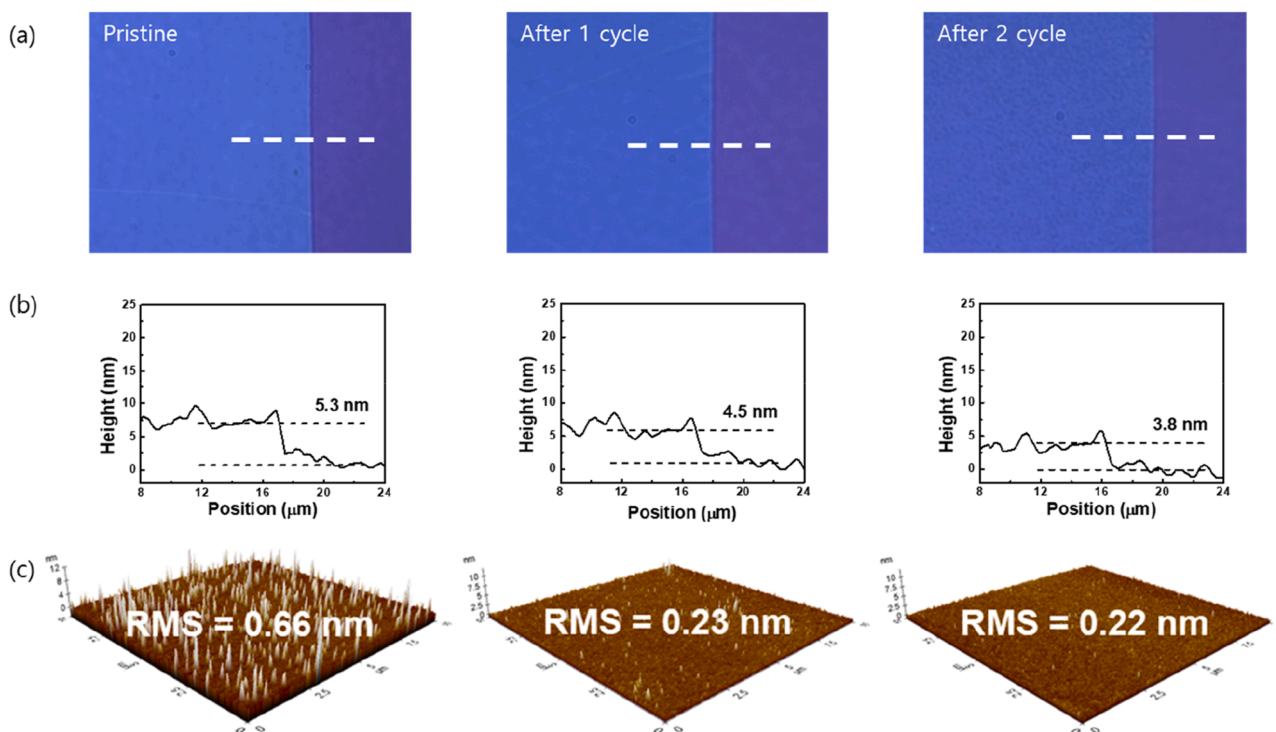


Fig. 4. (a) Optical images, (b) atomic force microscopy (AFM) height profile, and (c) root mean square (RMS) surface roughness images of a multilayer MoS₂ measured at each step over two ALE cycles consisting of sequential oxidation and formic acid vapor treatment.

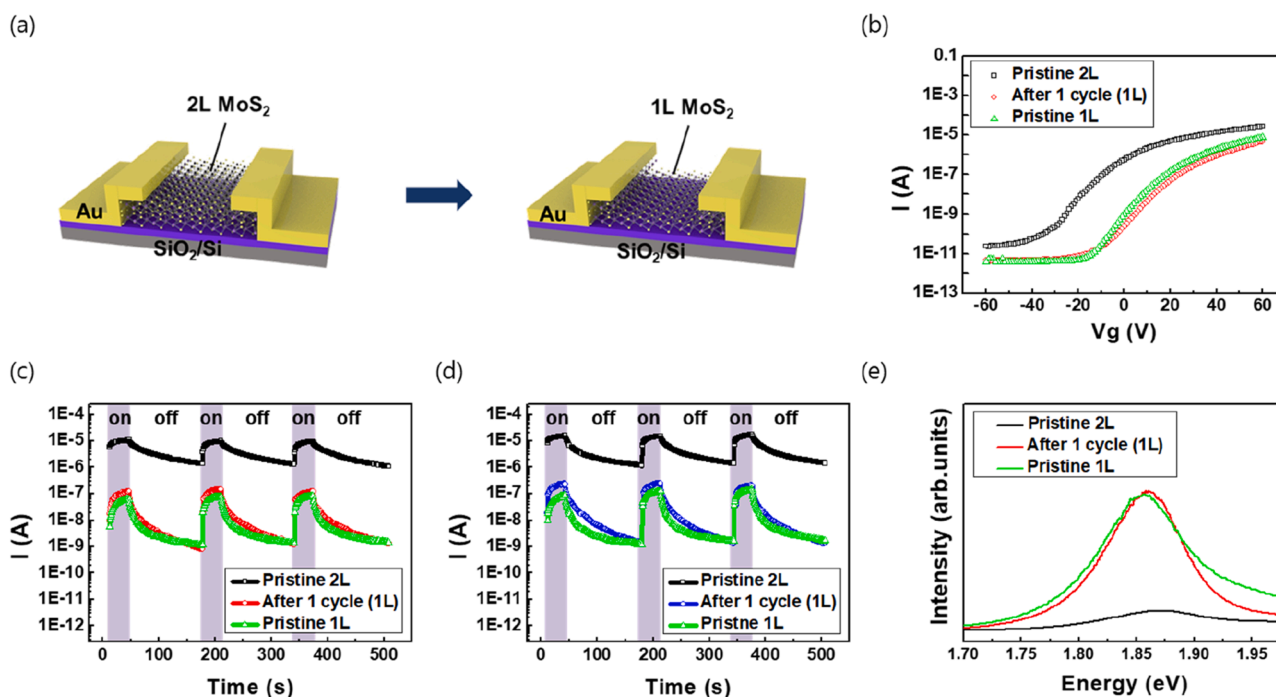


Fig. 5. (a) Schematic illustration of bilayer MoS₂ bottom-gate field-effect transistors (FETs) before and after one ALE cycle. (b) Transfer curves, photocurrent responses under pulsed (c) red- and (d) blue-light illumination, and (e) photoluminescence (PL) spectra for pristine bilayer, after one ALE cycle, and pristine monolayer MoS₂ FETs.

oxide, enabling layer-by-layer thinning of MoS₂.

The cyclic nature of the proposed ALE process was further verified using Raman spectroscopy and XPS, as shown in Fig. 3. Fig. 3a shows the Raman spectra of trilayer MoS₂ after successive ALE cycles. For the pristine trilayer, the separation (Δ) between the E_{2g}¹ and A_{1g} modes was 21.97 cm⁻¹. After the first and second ALE cycles, this separation decreased to 20.75 cm⁻¹ and 19.53 cm⁻¹, respectively, values consistent with previously reported layer-dependent Raman shifts for bilayer and monolayer MoS₂ [16,25–27]. These results demonstrate that one atomic layer is removed in each ALE cycle. Fig. 3b presents the XPS spectra measured at each step of two ALE cycles. After oxidation step, the Mo⁶⁺ component appeared along with a binding energy shift, while subsequent formic acid treatment removed the oxidized layer and restored both the peak positions and the S/Mo ratio to near-pristine values, consistent with Fig. 2. Importantly, this behavior was reproduced in the second ALE cycle as well, confirming that the process can be repeated without introducing cumulative structural damage or compositional degradation.

To further analyze thickness evolution, atomic force microscopy (AFM) measurements were performed. For accurate thickness determination, a multilayer CVD-grown MoS₂ was transferred onto a 300-nm SiO₂/Si substrate, and the step height between the film and substrate was measured. The optical images of the transferred samples at each ALE step are shown in Fig. 4a. As presented in Fig. 4b, the thickness of the pristine multilayer MoS₂ was 5.3 nm, which decreased to 4.5 nm after the first ALE cycle and to 3.8 nm after the second cycle. This corresponds to an etch rate of ~0.7–0.8 nm per cycle, consistent with the theoretical thickness of a monolayer MoS₂ layer, confirming once again the layer-by-layer nature of the process. In parallel, the root mean square (RMS) surface roughness was evaluated across a 1 × 1 cm² sample by dividing it into nine measurement points (Figure S3). The central region, shown in Fig. 4c, revealed that pristine CVD MoS₂ exhibited an RMS roughness of 0.66 nm, which decreased markedly to 0.23 nm after the first ALE cycle. This reduction can be attributed to the removal of protruding MoS_x domains formed during the CVD growth [28,29]: oxygen radicals preferentially adsorb on these extruded regions, and subsequent formic

acid vapor treatment removes them, thereby reducing local surface irregularities. As a result, the isotropic reactions of radicals and vapor promote uniform smoothing across the surface [19]. After the second ALE cycle, the RMS roughness remained low at 0.22 nm, indicating that repeated cycles maintain a smooth surface without introducing additional surface damage. The reduced and stabilized roughness demonstrates that the ALE process uniformly smooths the MoS₂ surface over a large area.

The electrical and optoelectronic properties of MoS₂ after one ALE cycle were further investigated using bilayer bottom-gate field-effect transistors (FETs) shown in Fig. 5a. As shown in Fig. 5b, the transfer characteristic of the device after one ALE cycle is nearly identical to that of pristine monolayer MoS₂. From these transfer curves, the field-effect mobility was extracted as 12.03 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ for pristine 2L, 2.07 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ for the etched monolayer (after 1 cycle), and 3.41 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ for pristine 1L devices, indicating that the etched monolayer exhibits a mobility comparable in order to the pristine monolayer. These results demonstrate that the thinning process preserves device functionality. Also, the transfer characteristics of the MoS₂ FET after one ALE cycle were re-measured after 7 days and the results showed the similar characteristics exhibiting good stability (Figure S5). Fig. 5c and 5d display the photocurrent responses under pulsed red- and blue-light excitation, respectively. The device subjected to one cycle of etching exhibits an enhanced photocurrent on/off ratio, approaching the values of pristine monolayer MoS₂. This enhanced photocurrent on/off ratio can be attributed to the direct band gap nature of monolayer MoS₂, which enables stronger optical absorption and more efficient electron-hole pair generation under illumination, in contrast to the indirect band gap bilayer that exhibits distinct optoelectronic characteristics [30, 31]. Complementary evidence is provided by the photoluminescence (PL) spectra shown in Fig. 5e. After one ALE cycle, the PL intensity increases markedly compared to pristine bilayer MoS₂ and closely resembles that of pristine monolayer MoS₂. This observation confirms that the etched sample has transitioned to a monolayer with a direct band gap. Collectively, these results demonstrate that the proposed ALE method enables reliable layer control of MoS₂ while preserving

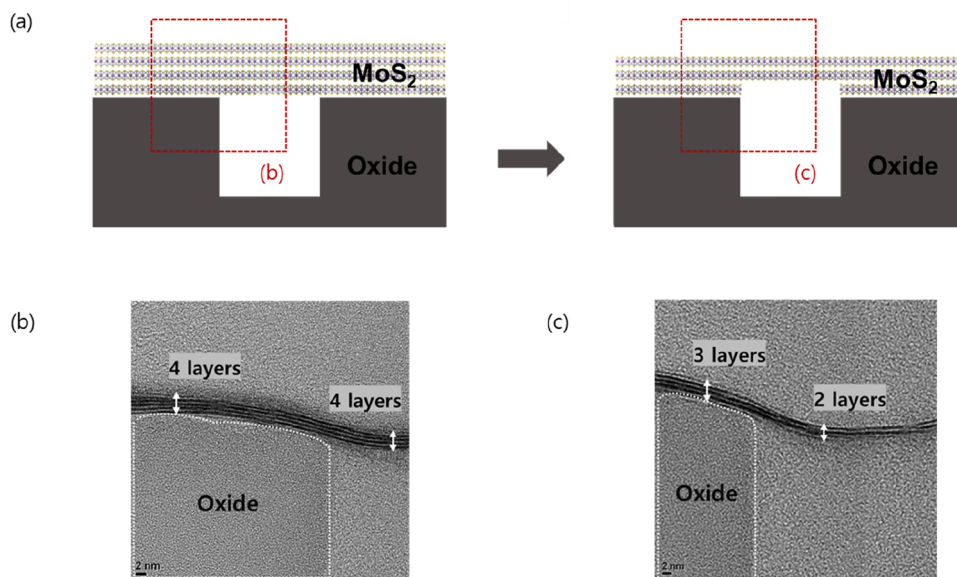


Fig. 6. (a) Schematic illustration of a four-layer MoS₂ transferred onto an oxide trench-patterned substrate before and after one ALE cycle. Cross-sectional TEM images of the trench region showing the layered structure of MoS₂ (b) before and (c) after one ALE cycle.

high-quality electrical and optical performance at the device level.

Fig. 6a illustrates the process schematic designed to probe the isotropic nature of the proposed ALE method. A four-layer MoS₂ film was transferred onto an oxide trench pattern with a 30 nm spacing, creating a suspended three-dimensional configuration [32]. The presence of this suspended structure was further confirmed by energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) mapping, as shown in Figure S4. Following one ALE cycle, the structural evolution was examined by cross-sectional TEM. As shown in Fig. 6b, the reference TEM image confirms that both the supported and suspended regions of the transferred MoS₂ film maintained a uniform thickness of four layers prior to etching. In contrast, after one ALE cycle (Fig. 6c), the supported region on the oxide trench was reduced to three layers, while the suspended region decreased by two layers, yielding a bilayer structure. This difference arises from the non-directional nature of both the oxygen radicals and formic acid vapor, which can penetrate through the trench void and access the MoS₂ surface from all directions. Consequently, regions exposed from both the top and bottom were etched within one ALE cycle. These results clearly demonstrate the isotropic characteristics of the ALE process and validate its suitability for application to three-dimensional device architectures.

4. Conclusions

In this work, we demonstrated an isotropic thermal ALE process for MoS₂ using a remote oxygen plasma and a formic acid vapor, operating at a relatively low temperature (~300 °C) compared with previous thermal ALE approaches for MoS₂. The process proceeds via surface oxidation of the topmost MoS₂ layer followed by its removal through a chelation reaction with formic acid, thereby enabling controlled, cycle-by-cycle thinning of monolayers while minimizing structural damage. These characteristics were systematically confirmed through spectroscopic, microscopic, and device-level characterizations. XPS and Raman analyses verified the sequential oxidation-desorption mechanism and confirmed layer-by-layer thickness control, while AFM measurements revealed smooth surface morphology preserved after multiple etch cycles. Electrical and optoelectronic measurements of bilayer field-effect transistors further showed that devices subjected to one cycle ALE exhibited characteristics consistent with monolayer MoS₂, underscoring the preservation of material quality and functionality. Moreover, cross-sectional TEM analysis of suspended MoS₂ films over oxide trench

structures directly demonstrated the isotropic nature of the process, highlighting its applicability to three-dimensional device architectures. Overall, these results establish organic-vapor-assisted ALE as a versatile and damage-free strategy for controlled thinning of two-dimensional semiconductors. The combination of isotropic etching behavior, large-area uniformity, and integration compatibility highlights its potential as an enabling platform for incorporating 2D materials into next-generation 3D semiconductor technologies.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Hyewon Han: Writing – original draft, Validation, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Conceptualization. **Jieun Kang:** Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Conceptualization, Writing – original draft. **Jimin Kim:** Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization, Writing – original draft. **Sunjae Jeong:** Formal analysis, Validation, Writing – review & editing. **Siyeon Kim:** Data curation, Writing – review & editing. **Gahee Oh:** Investigation, Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Dahun Ko:** Resources, Investigation, Writing – review & editing. **Sihoon Son:** Data curation, Writing – review & editing. **Hyunbin Choi:** Writing – review & editing, Formal analysis. **Doosan Kim:** Writing – review & editing, Validation. **Minjong Lee:** Writing – review & editing, Validation. **Taesung Kim:** Supervision, Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing. **Jiyoung Kim:** Supervision, Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing. **Geunyoung Yeom:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Data curation, Conceptualization.

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.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the Technology Innovation Program

(Public-private joint investment semiconductor R&D program (K-CHIPS) to foster high-quality human resources) (RS-2023-00235484, “Development of High Quality MX₂ Materials and Processes through In situ Defect Analysis”) funded by the Ministry of Trade, Industry & Energy (MOTIE, Korea) (1415187770) and a National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) grant funded by the Korea government (MSIT) (No. 2022R1A2C2091660).

Supplementary materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at [doi:10.1016/j.surfin.2026.108587](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.surfin.2026.108587).

References

- [1] W. Choi, M.Y. Cho, A. Konar, J.H. Lee, G.B. Cha, S.C. Hong, S. Kim, J. Kim, D. Jena, J. Joo, S. Kim, High-detectivity multilayer MoS₂ phototransistors with spectral response from ultraviolet to infrared, *Adv. Mater.* 24 (2012) 5832–5836, <https://doi.org/10.1002/adma.201201909>.
- [2] Q.H. Wang, K. Kalantar-Zadeh, A. Kis, J.N. Coleman, M.S. Strano, Electronics and optoelectronics of two-dimensional transition metal dichalcogenides, *Nat. Nanotechnol.* 7 (2012) 699–712, <https://doi.org/10.1038/nnano.2012.193>.
- [3] T. Cao, G. Wang, W. Han, H. Ye, C. Zhu, J. Shi, Q. Niu, P. Tan, E. Wang, B. Liu, J. Feng, Valley-selective circular dichroism of monolayer molybdenum disulfide, *Nat. Commun.* 3 (2012) 887, <https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms1882>.
- [4] Y.H. Lee, X.Q. Zhang, W. Zhang, M.T. Chang, C.T. Lin, K.D. Chang, Y.C. Yu, J.T. Wang, C.S. Chang, L.J. Li, T.W. Lin, Synthesis of large-area MoS₂ atomic layers with chemical vapor deposition, *Adv. Mater.* 24 (2012) 2320–2325, <https://doi.org/10.1002/adma.201104798>.
- [5] D. Dumcenco, D. Ovchinnikov, K. Marinov, P. Lazic, M. Gibertini, N. Marzari, O. L. Sanchez, Y.C. Kung, D. Krasnozhan, M. Chen, S. Bertolazzi, P. Gillet, A. Fontcuberta i Morral, A. Radenovic, A. Kis, Large-area epitaxial monolayer MoS₂, *ACS Nano* 9 (2015) 4611–4620, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsnano.5b01281>.
- [6] O. Lopez-Sanchez, D. Lembke, M. Kayci, A. Radenovic, A. Kis, Ultrasensitive photodetectors based on monolayer MoS₂, *Nat. Nanotechnol.* 8 (2013) 497–501, <https://doi.org/10.1038/nnano.2013.100>.
- [7] B. Radisavljevic, A. Radenovic, J. Brivio, V. Giacometti, A. Kis, Single-layer MoS₂ transistors, *Nat. Nanotechnol.* 6 (2011) 147–150, <https://doi.org/10.1038/nnano.2010.279>.
- [8] K.F. Mak, C. Lee, J. Hone, J. Shan, T.F. Heinz, Atomically thin MoS₂: a new direct-gap semiconductor, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* 105 (2010) 136805, <https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevLett.105.136805>.
- [9] S.B. Desai, S.R. Madhupathy, A.B. Sachid, J.P. Llinas, Q. Wang, G.H. Ahn, G. Pitner, M.J. Kim, J. Bokor, C. Hu, H.S.P. Wong, A. Javey, MoS₂ transistors with 1-nanometer gate lengths, *Science* 354 (2016) 99–102, <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aah4698>.
- [10] H. Liu, A.T. Neal, P.D. Ye, Channel length scaling of MoS₂ MOSFETs, *ACS Nano* 6 (2012) 8563–8569, <https://doi.org/10.1021/nn303513c>.
- [11] D. Sarkar, X. Xie, W. Liu, W. Cao, J. Kang, Y. Gong, S. Kraemer, P.M. Ajayan, K. Banerjee, A subthermionic tunnel field-effect transistor with an atomically thin channel, *Nature* 526 (2015) 91–95, <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature15387>.
- [12] Y. Liu, X. Duan, H.J. Shin, S. Park, Y. Huang, X. Duan, Promises and prospects of two-dimensional transistors, *Nature* 591 (2021) 43–53, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-021-03339-z>.
- [13] M. Liu, J. Niu, G. Yang, R. Zhao, K. Chen, W. Lu, F. Liao, Z. Wu, C. Jiang, D. Geng, N. Lu, A. Nathan, L. Li, M. Liu, Subthreshold Schottky-barrier transistor based on monolayer molybdenum disulfide, *Nat. Commun.* (2025), <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-025-67347-7>.
- [14] K.P. O'Brien, C.H. Naylor, C. Dorow, K. Maxey, A.V. Penumatcha, A. Vyatskikh, T. Zhong, A. Kitamura, S. Lee, C. Rogan, W. Mortelmans, M.S. Kavrik, R. Steinhardt, P. Buragohain, S. Dutta, T. Tronic, S. Clendenning, P. Fischer, E. S. Putna, M. Radosavljevic, M. Metz, U. Avci, Process integration and future outlook of 2D transistors, *Nat. Commun.* 14 (2023) 7684, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-023-41779-5>.
- [15] M. Liu, J. Niu, G. Yang, K. Chen, W. Lu, F. Liao, C. Lu, N. Lu, L. Li, Large-scale ultrathin channel nanosheet-stacked CFET based on CVD 1L MoS₂/WSe₂, *Adv. Electron. Mater.* 9 (2023) 2200849, <https://doi.org/10.1002/aeml.202200722>.
- [16] K.S. Kim, K.H. Kim, Y. Nam, J. Jeon, S. Yim, E. Singh, J.Y. Lee, S.J. Lee, Y.S. Jung, G.Y. Yeom, D.W. Kim, Atomic layer etching mechanism of MoS₂ for nanodevices, *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* 9 (2017) 11967–11976, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.6b15886>.
- [17] H. Zhu, X. Qin, L. Cheng, A. Azcatl, J. Kim, R.M. Wallace, Remote plasma oxidation and atomic layer etching of MoS₂, *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* 8 (2016) 19119–19126, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.6b04719>.
- [18] J. Soares, A.U. Mane, D. Choudhury, S. Letourneau, S.M. Hues, J.W. Elam, E. Graugnard, Thermal atomic layer etching of MoS₂ using MoF₆ and H₂O, *Chem. Mater.* 35 (2023) 927–936, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.chemmater.2c02549>.
- [19] J.E. Kang, Y. Choi, H.W. Han, J.M. Kim, Y.E. Kim, H. Seok, T. Kim, D.S. Kim, G. Y. Yeom, Cyclic atomic layer etching of PdSe₂, *Adv. Funct. Mater.* 34 (2024) 2408154, <https://doi.org/10.1002/adfm.202408154>.
- [20] T.Y. Ko, A. Jeong, W. Kim, J. Lee, Y. Kim, J.E. Lee, G.H. Ryu, K. Park, D. Kim, Z. Lee, On-stack two-dimensional conversion of MoS₂ into MoO₃, *2D Mater* 4 (2017) 014003, <https://doi.org/10.1088/2053-1583/4/1/014003>.
- [21] J. Kim, J. Kang, H. Han, S. Jeong, S. Kim, H. Lee, H. Kim, Y. Kim, G. Yeom, From N-type doping to phase transition in large-area MoS₂ via controlled sulfur vacancy formation, *Nanoscale* 17 (2025) 24773–24781, <https://doi.org/10.1039/D5NR03806E>.
- [22] N.M.D. Brown, N. Cui, A. McKinley, An XPS study of the surface modification of natural MoS₂ following treatment in an RF-oxygen plasma, *Appl. Surf. Sci.* 134 (1998) 11–21, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-4332\(98\)00252-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-4332(98)00252-9).
- [23] H. Nan, Z. Wang, W. Wang, Z. Liang, Y. Lu, Q. Chen, D. He, P. Tan, F. Miao, X. Wang, Z. Ni, Strong photoluminescence enhancement of MoS₂ through defect engineering and oxygen bonding, *ACS Nano* 8 (2014) 5738–5745, <https://doi.org/10.1021/nn500532f>.
- [24] C. Jung, H.I. Yang, W. Choi, Effect of ultraviolet-ozone treatment on MoS₂ monolayers: comparison of chemical-vapor-deposited polycrystalline thin films and mechanically exfoliated single crystal flakes, *Nanoscale Res. Lett.* 14 (2019) 278, <https://doi.org/10.1186/s11671-019-3119-3>.
- [25] A. Castellanos-Gomez, M. Barkelid, A.M. Goossens, V.E. Calado, H.S.J. van der Zant, G.A. Steele, Laser-thinning of MoS₂: on-demand generation of a single-layer semiconductor, *Nano Lett.* 12 (2012) 3187–3192, <https://doi.org/10.1021/nl301164v>.
- [26] Y. Liu, H. Nan, X. Wu, W. Pan, W. Wang, J. Bai, W. Zhao, L. Sun, X. Wang, Z. Ni, Layer-by-layer thinning of MoS₂ by plasma, *ACS Nano* 7 (2013) 4202–4209, <https://doi.org/10.1021/nn400644t>.
- [27] T. Lin, B. Kang, M. Jeon, C. Huffman, J. Jeon, S. Lee, W. Han, J. Lee, S. Lee, G. Yeom, K. Kim, Controlled layer-by-layer etching of MoS₂, *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* 7 (2015) 15892–15897, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.5b03491>.
- [28] K.S. Kim, D. Lee, C.S. Chang, S. Seo, Y. Hu, S. Cha, H. Kim, J. Shin, J.H. Lee, S. Lee, J.S. Kim, K.H. Kim, J.M. Suh, Y. Meng, B.I. Park, J.H. Lee, H.S. Park, H.S. Kum, M. H. Jo, G.Y. Yeom, K. Cho, J.H. Park, S.H. Bae, J. Kim, Non-epitaxial single-crystal 2D material growth by geometric confinement, *Nature* 614 (2023) 88–94, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-022-05524-0>.
- [29] W. Chen, J. Zhao, J. Zhang, L. Gu, Z. Yang, X. Li, H. Yu, X. Zhu, R. Yang, D. Shi, X. Lin, J. Guo, X. Bai, G. Zhang, Oxygen-assisted chemical vapor deposition growth of large single-crystal and high-quality monolayer MoS₂, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 137 (2015) 15632–15635, <https://doi.org/10.1021/jacs.5b10519>.
- [30] K.S. Kim, Y.J. Ji, K.H. Kim, S. Choi, D.H. Kang, K. Heo, S. Cho, S. Yim, S. Lee, J.-H. Park, Y.S. Jung, G.Y. Yeom, Ultrasensitive MoS₂ photodetector by serial nanobridge multi-heterojunction, *Nat. Commun.* 10 (2019) 4701, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-12592-w>.
- [31] A. Splendiani, L. Sun, Y. Zhang, T. Li, J. Kim, C.Y. Chim, G. Galli, F. Wang, Emerging photoluminescence in monolayer MoS₂, *Nano Lett.* 10 (2010) 1271–1275, <https://doi.org/10.1021/nl903868w>.
- [32] F. Xi, H. Sharma, X. Wu, T. Schram, D. Cott, R.K. Grubbs, P. Kumar, T.D. Ngo, S. Ghosh, F. Han, D. Van Dorp, D. Verreck, S. Sutar, Q. Smets, D. Lin, K. Banerjee, C.J. Lockhart De La Rosa, L. Goux, G.S. Kar, Integration of GAA monolayer MoS₂ nanosheet FETs with gate first process for future 2D CFET scaling, *Eur. Solid-State Circuits Conf.* (2024) 121–124, <https://doi.org/10.1109/ESSERC62670.2024.10719449>.