



Unconventional solution-phase epitaxial growth of organic-inorganic hybrid perovskite nanocrystals on metal sulfide nanosheets

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ABSTRACT Epitaxial heterostructures based on organic-inorganic hybrid perovskites and two-dimensional materials hold great promises in optoelectronics, but they have been prepared only *via* solid-state methods that restricted their practical applications. Herein, we report cubic-phased MAPbBr₃ (MA=CH₃NH₃⁺) nanocrystals were epitaxially deposited on trigonal/hexagonal-phased MoS₂ nanosheets in solution by facily tuning the solvation conditions. In spite of the mismatched lattice symmetry between the square MAPbBr₃ (001) overlayer and the hexagonal MoS₂ (001) substrate, two different aligning directions with lattice mismatch of as small as 1% were observed based on the domain-matching epitaxy. This was realized most likely due to the flexible nature and absence of surface dangling bonds of MoS₂ nanosheets. The formation of the epitaxial interface affords an effective energy transfer from MAPbBr₃ to MoS₂, and as a result, paper-based photodetectors facily fabricated from these solution-dispersible heterostructures showed better performance compared to those based on MoS₂ or MAPbBr₃ alone. In addition to the improved energy transfer and light adsorption, the use of MoS₂ nanosheets provided flexible and continuous substrates to connect the otherwise discrete MAPbBr₃ nanocrystals and achieved the better film forming ability. Our work suggests that the scalable preparation of heterostructures based on organic-inorganic hybrid perovskites and 2D materials *via* solution-phase epitaxy may bring about more opportunities for expanding their optoelectronic applications.

Keywords: organic-inorganic hybrid perovskite, transition metal chalcogenide, epitaxial growth, paper-based photodetector

INTRODUCTION

In the past decade, intensive research effort has been devoted to two-dimensional (2D) layered materials [1–3]. Among the various 2D materials, transition metal dichalcogenide (TMDs) nanosheets have drawn particular attention due to their promises in electrocatalysis [4], electronics [5], optoelectronics [6] and so on. However, in terms of light-conversion/emitting properties, semi-conducting TMDs generally exhibited low quantum efficiencies partly due to their large specific surface area accompanied with a high density of surface defects that can act as recombination centers [7]. Besides, TMD nanosheets exhibited limited light-absorbing ability because of their atomic-scale thicknesses. For instance, a single-layer MoS₂ absorbed only 10 % of incident photons at its excitonic resonances (i.e., 615 and 660 nm) [8]. Much effort has thus been made to create TMD-based heterostructures like MoS₂/graphene [9] and MoS₂/WS₂, [10] to improve the efficiency of charge separation/transport. Enhanced light absorption has also been achieved by hybridizing TMDs with noble metal nanoparticles [11], organic dyes [12], silicon (Si) [13], carbon nanotubes [14] and so on.

Organic-inorganic hybrid perovskites (e.g., CH₃NH₃-PbI₃) have recently emerged as a class of promising optoelectronic materials [15–17]. Solar cells based on them have achieved remarkable power conversion efficiencies exceeding 20% [18–20]. The excellent performance has been attributed to a combination of several attractive features such as a high and balanced carrier mobility [21], long carrier diffusion length [22] and large light absorp-

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tion coefficient in the UV–vis range [23]. Recently, organic-inorganic hybrid perovskites in the form of colloidal nanocrystals (NCs) have been reported [24,25], and compared to their bulk counterpart, they present a number of advantages such as a high photoluminescence (PL) quantum yield [26], narrow-band emission [27] and shape-dependent PL [28]. These merits make them especially attractive for applications such as solution-processed photodetectors [29], light-emitting diodes [30] and solar cells [31]. Unfortunately, colloidal NCs with small lateral sizes suffer from poor film-forming ability, restricting their use in applications where continuous films for charge transporting are required. Recently, TMDs and organic-inorganic hybrid perovskites have been combined into heterostructures, with the aim to marrying their good electronic and optical properties [32–37]. For example, photoconductors based on $\text{WSe}_2/\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ [34] and $\text{WS}_2/\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ [35] demonstrated superior photo-responsive performance compared to single-component devices. However, such heterojunctions have been realized mostly *via* solid-state methods typically involving chemical vapor deposition (CVD), [35] mechanical exfoliation [36] and/or dry transfer [33], which are difficult to scale-up for practical applications. Direct growth of perovskite crystals on dispersible 2D materials in solution is expected to enable the scalable production of solution-processible heterostructures, but has not been realized, because a non-polar solvent is usually needed for the precipitation of perovskite crystals [38,39] which is incompatible with most solvation conditions for 2D materials.

In this contribution, we demonstrated a facile wet-chemical method to directly grow organic-inorganic hybrid perovskite (MAPbBr_3 , $\text{MA}=\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3^+$) NCs on surfaces of dispersible MoS_2 nanosheets. Two unusual symmetry-mismatched epitaxial relationships were observed, thanks to the use of flexible and dangling-bond-free MoS_2 nanosheets. We further applied the $\text{MAPbBr}_3/\text{MoS}_2$ epitaxial heterostructures in paper-based photodetector with the much improved performance compared to their single components.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials: PbBr_2 (lead (II) bromide, 99.999%, Sigma-Aldrich, Germany), $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{Br}$ (methylammonium bromide, $\geq 99.5\%$, Xi'an Polymer Light Technology Co., Ltd., China), oleic acid (OA, $>85.0\%$, TCI, Japan), *n*-octylamine (OLA, $>98.0\%$, TCI, Japan), molybdenum disulfide (MoS_2 , $<2\ \mu\text{m}$, 99%, Sigma-Aldrich, Germany), acetylene black (Li Zhiyuan Co., Ltd., China), poly(vinylidene

fluoride) (PVDF, Shanghai Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd., China), *N,N*-dimethylformamide (DMF, analytical reagent, Shanghai Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd., China), toluene (analytical reagent, Shanghai Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd., China), acetone (analytical reagent, Shanghai Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd., China) and *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP, analytical reagent, Shanghai Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd., China) were used as received without further purification. The deionized (DI) water was purified using Milli-Q3 System (Millipore, France).

Preparation of MoS_2 nanosheets: MoS_2 nanosheets were prepared by a previously reported electrochemical lithium intercalation and exfoliation method [40]. Layered bulk MoS_2 crystals were mixed with acetylene black and PVDF binder dispersed in NMP. This mixture was then uniformly coated on a copper foil and dried under vacuum overnight. The intercalation was conducted in a battery test cell using a Li foil as the anode, and the MoS_2 crystals coated on copper foil as the cathode. Assembly of the test cells was conducted in an Ar-filled glove box. The electrochemical Li intercalation was accomplished in a Land battery test system at a constant current density of 0.025 mA. After the discharge process, the Li-intercalated MoS_2 was washed with acetone, followed by exfoliation under ultrasonication in DI water in a closed vial to give a suspension of isolated nanosheets. The product was centrifuged at 3,000 rpm for 20 min to remove the precipitate containing thicker crystals and the supernatant was washed three times with DMF before further use.

Preparation of $\text{MAPbBr}_3/\text{MoS}_2$ heterostructure: 0.1 mL of the aforementioned MoS_2 suspension in DMF ($\sim 1\ \text{mg mL}^{-1}$) was added dropwise into 3 mL toluene under ultrasonication to form a homogeneous suspension denoted as solution A. Then 0.16 mmol $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{Br}$ and 0.2 mmol PbBr_2 was dissolved in 5 mL of DMF together with 20 μL of OLA and 0.5 mL of OA to form a precursor solution B. After that, 20 μL of solution B was added dropwise into solution A with mild shake for 10 s. Upon mixing, a brownish green solution was formed. After centrifugation at 12,000 rpm for 10 min, the precipitates were collected and washed three times with toluene before further characterizations.

Fabrication of paper-based photodetector: a piece of commonly used writing paper (Deli, China) was used as the substrate. Two graphite electrodes with a 0.5 mm spacing were then drawn onto the paper using a 12B pencil (Fig. S7). After that, 3 μL of a concentrated dispersion of the $\text{MAPbBr}_3/\text{MoS}_2$ heterostructures ($\sim 5.0\ \text{mg mL}^{-1}$) was drop-casted between the electrodes.

Photoresponse measurements: the current–voltage

($I-V$) and the current-time ($I-t$) curves of the photo-detectors were measured on a 4200 semiconductor characterization system (Keithley, USA) in air at room temperature. A 405 nm laser was used for all the measurements. The actual power intensity was measured by a LP1 power meter (Sanwa Electric Instrument Co., Ltd., Japan). The responsivity (R) was calculated as $R = \Delta I / (P \cdot S)$, where ΔI is the difference between the photocurrent and the dark current, P is the incident power density, and S is the effectively illuminated area.

Characterizations: the morphological and structural characterizations of the products were conducted by transmission electron microscope (TEM, HT7700, Hitachi, Japan), high resolution transmission electron microscope (HRTEM, JEOL 2100F, Japan) and X-ray diffraction (XRD, SmartLab Rigaku, Japan, with Cu K_{α} radiation at $\lambda = 1.54 \text{ \AA}$). For the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, PHI 5000 VersaProbe, Japan) measurements, the binding energies were corrected for specimen charging effects using the C 1s level at 284.6 eV as the reference. UV-vis absorption spectra of the materials were measured on a UV-vis spectrophotometer (UV-1750, Shimadzu, Japan). PL spectra were taken using a F4600 fluorescence spectrometer (Hitachi, Japan). The time-resolved photoluminescence (TRPL) spectroscopy spectra were acquired using a FLSP920 fluorescence spectrophotometer (Edinburgh Instruments, England).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Typically, MoS_2 nanosheets were prepared by electrochemical lithium intercalation and exfoliation based on a previous report (see the experimental section for the detailed procedure) [40]. Based on TEM and atomic force microscopy (AFM) measurements (Fig. S1), the as-prepared MoS_2 nanosheets were 200–500 nm in lateral size and 1.3–3.0 nm in thickness, suggesting that they are single- to few-layer thick [41]. The subsequent preparation of $\text{MAPbBr}_3/\text{MoS}_2$ heterostructures is schematically illustrated in Fig. 1a. First, the as-exfoliated MoS_2 nanosheets were redispersed in a mixed solvent composing of DMF and toluene with a volumetric ratio of $V_{\text{DMF}}:V_{\text{toluene}}=1:30$. To this MoS_2 suspension, a mixture of $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{Br}$, PbBr_2 , OA, and OLA in DMF was added dropwise with mild shake. Upon mixing, the solution color changed from brown to brownish green, indicating the formation of perovskite NCs. The scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) image in Fig. 1b clearly shows the deposition of MAPbBr_3 NCs with an average edge length of $\sim 16.8 \text{ nm}$ (Fig. S2) on the surface of a MoS_2 nanosheet. Fig. 1c, d are photographs of the ob-

tained $\text{MAPbBr}_3/\text{MoS}_2$ solution under room light and UV irradiation (365 nm), respectively, indicating the good dispersibility and photoluminescent property of the heterostructures. Note that the average size of MAPbBr_3 NCs synthesized directly in solution without presence of MoS_2 was $\sim 17.3 \text{ nm}$ (Fig. S3) with a broader size distribution compared to those grown on MoS_2 (Fig. S2). This suggests that MoS_2 nanosheets as synthetic templates helped to control the nucleation process of MAPbBr_3 to give a relatively narrow size distribution.

It is important to note that in our synthesis, the use of a mixed solvent to disperse MoS_2 nanosheets is critical to realize the *in-situ* deposition of perovskite NCs on MoS_2 . Based on previous reports, colloidal organic-inorganic hybrid perovskite NCs are usually prepared through ligand-assisted reprecipitation (LARP) methods [38,39], which began with the dissolution of lead halide and alkylammonium halide in a polar solvent like DMF together with surfactants such as OA and OLA. This precursor solution was then injected into a nonpolar solvent (e.g., toluene or hexane) under stirring, during which perovskite NCs were precipitated due to the decrease of solubility. To *in-situ* deposit perovskite NCs on 2D materials like MoS_2 nanosheets, the nanosheets as synthetic templates need to be dispersed in the nonpolar solvent. However, due to surface charges [42], as-exfoliated MoS_2 nanosheets cannot be dispersed in a nonpolar solvent. As evidently shown in Fig. 1e, while MoS_2 nanosheets were well-dispersed in DMF, they aggregated in toluene. Interestingly, when a small amount of DMF was added to toluene, for example, with a $V_{\text{DMF}}:V_{\text{toluene}}$ volume ratio of 1:30, the MoS_2 nanosheets were dispersed again after sonication, and the maximum concentration could reach $\sim 0.9 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ (Fig. S4). To find the optimal solvent condition for our synthesis, the critical DMF concentrations (as in toluene) at which MoS_2 nanosheets began to aggregate or MAPbBr_3 began to precipitate were determined, respectively (Fig. 1f). For a given $\text{MoS}_2/\text{PbBr}_2$ ratio (i.e., $1 \text{ mg MoS}_2/0.8 \text{ mmol PbBr}_2$), the blue-shaded and red-shaded areas, which correspond to MoS_2 aggregation and MAPbBr_3 dissolution, respectively, should be avoided. The optimized condition used in the present study was presented as spot A in Fig. 1f, corresponding to a DMF concentration of 3.2 v% in toluene. In such case, the presence of a small amount of DMF ensured the good dispersion of MoS_2 nanosheets, and meanwhile maintained a low solvent polarity for the precipitation of perovskite NCs.

The XRD pattern of the heterostructures in Fig. 1g shows the characteristic peaks for cubic-phased ($Pm\bar{3}m$)

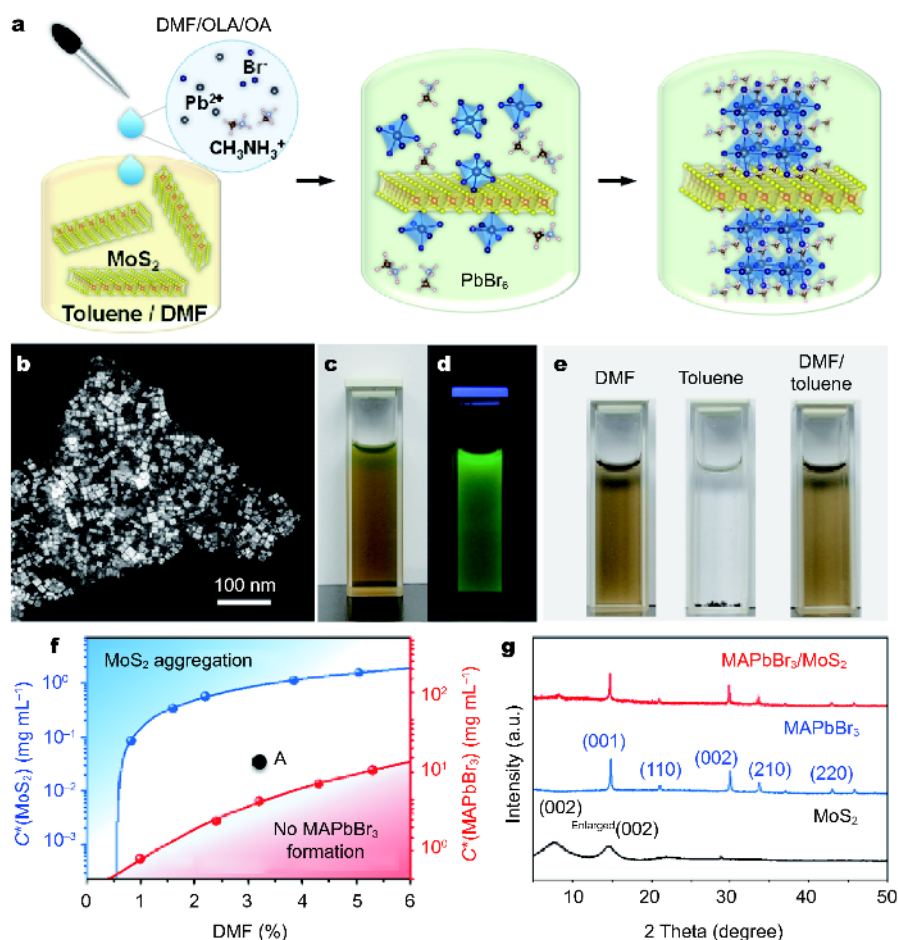


Figure 1 (a) Schematic illustration of the formation process of MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures. (b) STEM image of a typical MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructure. Photographs of a solution containing as-synthesized MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures (c) under room light and (d) under excitation of a 365 nm laser. (e) Photographs of MoS₂ nanosheets in toluene, DMF and toluene/DMF, respectively. (f) Plots of critical concentrations at which (blue) MoS₂ nanosheets began to aggregate and (red) MAPbBr₃ began to precipitate in a mixed DMF/toluene solution at different DMF concentrations (0–6 v%). (g) XRD patterns of as-prepared MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures, MAPbBr₃ NCs and MoS₂ nanosheets.

MAPbBr₃ with $a = 5.96 \text{ \AA}$ [43,44]. The peak at around 8° can be attributed to the enlarged lattice spacing of the MoS₂ (002) planes caused by lithium-intercalation (Fig. S5). The presence of the XRD peaks for both MAPbBr₃ and MoS₂ indicates the successful preparation of MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures. Based on previous reports, MoS₂ nanosheets prepared by lithium intercalation and exfoliation are usually composed of both the hexagonal 2H and trigonal 1T polymorphs [45]. This was confirmed with XPS analysis (Fig. S6), based on which the concentration of the 1T phase was estimated to be $\sim 84\%$, indicating a highly metallic nature of the nanosheets [46,47]. HRTEM was then used to further study the microstructure of the heterostructures. As shown in Fig. 2a, an overlapping of lattice patterns of MAPbBr₃ and MoS₂

was observed, and the corresponding fast Fourier transformation (FFT)-generated diffraction pattern shows two sets of spots with a square symmetry (i.e., the vertices of the yellow square) and a hexagonal symmetry (i.e., the vertices of the blue hexagon), respectively (Fig. 2b). By selecting the respective set of spots, the MoS₂ [001]-zone lattice pattern and the MAPbBr₃ [001]-zone pattern were re-generated and shown in Fig. 2c and d, respectively. Along the MAPbBr₃ [010]/MoS₂ [120] direction, the MAPbBr₃ (020) planes are parallel with the MoS₂ (010) planes with a 7% mismatch. Along the other direction, i.e., the MAPbBr₃ [100]/MoS₂ [100] direction, the mismatch between MAPbBr₃ (200) and MoS₂ (2 $\bar{1}$ 0) planes is as large as 47%. To justify the epitaxial alignment in this direction, the domain-matching epitaxy was applied [48],

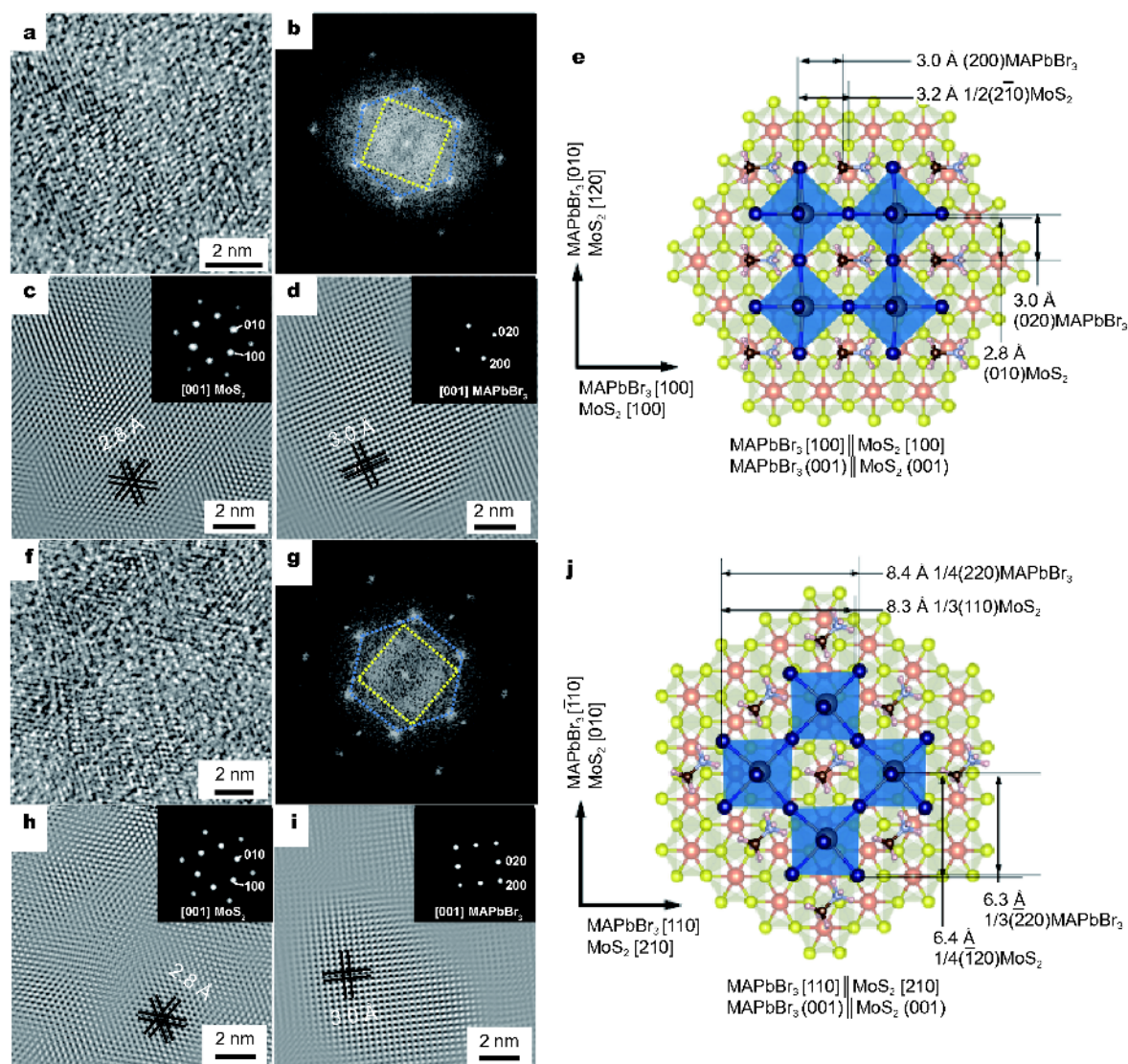


Figure 2 (a) HRTEM image of an area with overlapped lattices of MAPbBr₃ and MoS₂, and (b) the corresponding FFT-diffraction pattern. (c) MoS₂ [001]-zone and (d) MAPbBr₃ [001]-zone lattice patterns generated by performing inverse-FFT of the spots forming the blue hexagon and the yellow square in (b), respectively. Insets: the respectively selected spots. (e) Schematic model indicating the MAPbBr₃ [100]||MoS₂ [100] and MAPbBr₃ (001)||MoS₂ (001) epitaxial relationship. (f) HRTEM image of another area with overlapped lattices of MAPbBr₃ and MoS₂, and (g) the corresponding FFT-diffraction pattern. (h) MoS₂ [001]-zone and (i) MAPbBr₃ [001]-zone lattice patterns generated by performing inverse-FFT of the spots forming the blue hexagon and the yellow square in (g), respectively. Insets: the respectively selected spots. (j) Schematic model indicating the MAPbBr₃ [110]||MoS₂ [210] and MAPbBr₃ (001)||MoS₂ (001) epitaxial relationship.

in which the lattices of the two materials match through a domain that contains integral numbers of parallel atomic layers (Fig. S7). In our case, if we consider two times of the interlayer spacing of MoS₂ (2 $\bar{1}0$) planes (i.e., the spacing for MoS₂ 1/2(2 $\bar{1}0$) planes), the mismatch between it and MAPbBr₃ (200) becomes only 6%, as shown in the epitaxial model in Fig. 2e. Because of the different lattice symmetry between the MAPbBr₃ (001) overlayer and MoS₂

(001) substrate, another possible surface alignment of MAPbBr₃ on MoS₂ was also observed (Fig. 2f–j). The HRTEM image of another area of overlapped lattice patterns is shown in Fig. 2f and its FFT-generated diffraction pattern is shown in Fig. 2g, based on which lattice patterns of the MAPbBr₃ [001]-zone axis and MoS₂ [001]-zone axis were re-generated and shown in Fig. 2h, i, respectively. It can be seen that MAPbBr₃ (220) and MoS₂

(100) planes are epitaxially aligned, but with a mismatch of as large as 24%. Therefore, domain-matching epitaxy is applied again. As shown in the schematic epitaxial model in Fig. 2j, the mismatch between MAPbBr₃ 1/4(220) and MoS₂ 1/3(100) planes along the MAPbBr₃ [110]/MoS₂ [210] direction, and that between MAPbBr₃ 1/3($\bar{2}$ 20) and MoS₂ 1/4($\bar{1}$ 20) planes along the MAPbBr₃ [$\bar{1}$ 10]/MoS₂ [010] direction are both ~1%. This suggests that the epitaxial growth of MAPbBr₃ on MoS₂ might be structurally favored. Up to now, epitaxial heterostructures of perovskites/2D materials have only been reported recently by the physical vapor deposition (PVD) of PbI₂ on a 2D material (e.g., BN or MoS₂) followed by reacting PbI₂ with CH₃NH₃I *via* CVD [32]. In that case, both PbI₂ and the 2D material exhibited the six-fold symmetry at the heterointerface. It has been known that to realize epitaxial heterostructures, a small misfit in both lattice symmetry and lattice parameters is usually required to achieve a minimum interfacial energy. Some exceptions have also been reported especially in recent cases of using van der Waals layered materials as substrates which are free from surface dangling bonds to effectively tolerate strains arising from a large symmetry/lattice mismatch [49–53]. Examples include recent demonstrations of epitaxial overgrowth of Pt(101) on MoS₂(001) [49] and PbSe(001) on Bi₂Se₃(001) [50]. Similarly, in our present work, the epitaxial deposition of MAPbBr₃ on MoS₂ with four-fold and six-fold symmetry at the interface, respectively, was realized in solution. This can be due to the dangling-bond-free surfaces of MoS₂ nanosheets, and their soft/flexible nature when dispersed in solution to tolerate the large symmetry mismatch [50]. For comparison, we carried out a control experiment by directly mixing pre-synthesized MAPbBr₃ NCs and MoS₂ nanosheets. MAPbBr₃ NCs were mostly separated from the MoS₂ nanosheets without contact, and epitaxial relationship was not observed (Fig. S8).

UV-vis absorption and PL spectra of the MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructure in comparison with those of MAPbBr₃ NCs and MoS₂ nanosheets without hybridization are shown in Fig. 3. The MAPbBr₃ NCs show an absorption peak at ~525 nm, corresponding to its direct band gap of 2.3 eV [28]. Compared to MAPbBr₃ or MoS₂, the heterostructure exhibited increased absorption in the UV-vis region. As for the PL property, the emission of MAPbBr₃ NCs at ~530 nm was dramatically quenched (by more than 90%) when they were *in-situ* deposited on MoS₂ nanosheets, based on the equal Pb²⁺ concentration (Fig. 3b). The MoS₂ nanosheets exhibited no visible PL

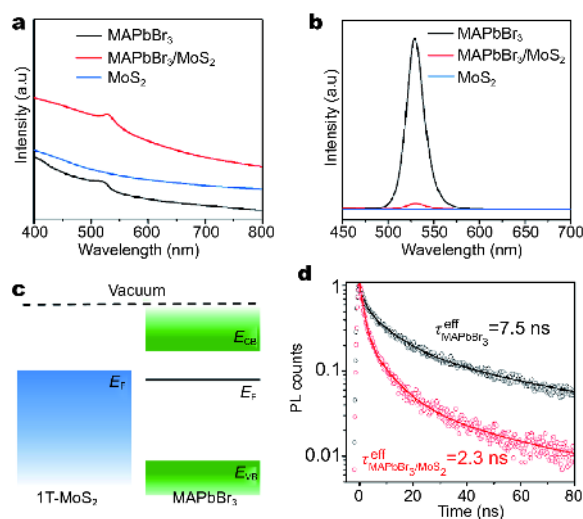


Figure 3 (a) UV-vis absorption and (b) PL spectra of the MAPbBr₃ NCs, MoS₂ nanosheets and MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures. (c) Schematic illustration of the energy band alignment at the MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterointerface. (d) TRPL spectra for MAPbBr₃ NCs and MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures.

emission due to a high concentration of metallic 1T phase. The largely reduced PL intensity of MAPbBr₃ after hybridization with MoS₂ (Fig. 3b) suggests the effective energy transfer between them. This was also observed previously in perovskite/MoS₂ heterojunctions prepared by layer-by-layer assembly [36,37]. Indeed, the Fermi level of 1T MoS₂ (~3.9 eV) [45] was located below the conductive band of MAPbBr₃ (~3.6 eV) [54] as schematically shown in Fig. 3c, which might enable the effective transport of charge carriers and excitons from MAPbBr₃ to MoS₂. The efficient energy transfer between them was further verified by TRPL. As shown in Fig. 3d, TRPL spectra were collected at the emission center of MAPbBr₃ (i.e., 530 nm). The effective decay lifetime of the pure MAPbBr₃ ($\tau_{\text{MAPbBr}_3}^{\text{eff}}$) was measured as 7.5 ns while that for MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ ($\tau_{\text{MAPbBr}_3/\text{MoS}_2}^{\text{eff}}$) was 2.3 ns. This difference is likely caused by the energy transfer from MAPbBr₃ to MoS₂, and the transfer time, τ_{ET} , as estimated based on the equation below [21] is 3.3 ns, which is in the ns time scale of radiative recombination that ensures efficient PL quenching [21,55].

$$\frac{1}{\tau_{\text{MAPbBr}_3/\text{MoS}_2}^{\text{eff}}} = \frac{1}{\tau_{\text{MAPbBr}_3}^{\text{eff}}} + \frac{1}{\tau_{\text{ET}}}$$

The solution-processible MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures prepared from the facile and scalable approach are suitable for fabrication of thin-film devices. As a proof-of-concept demonstration, paper-based photo-

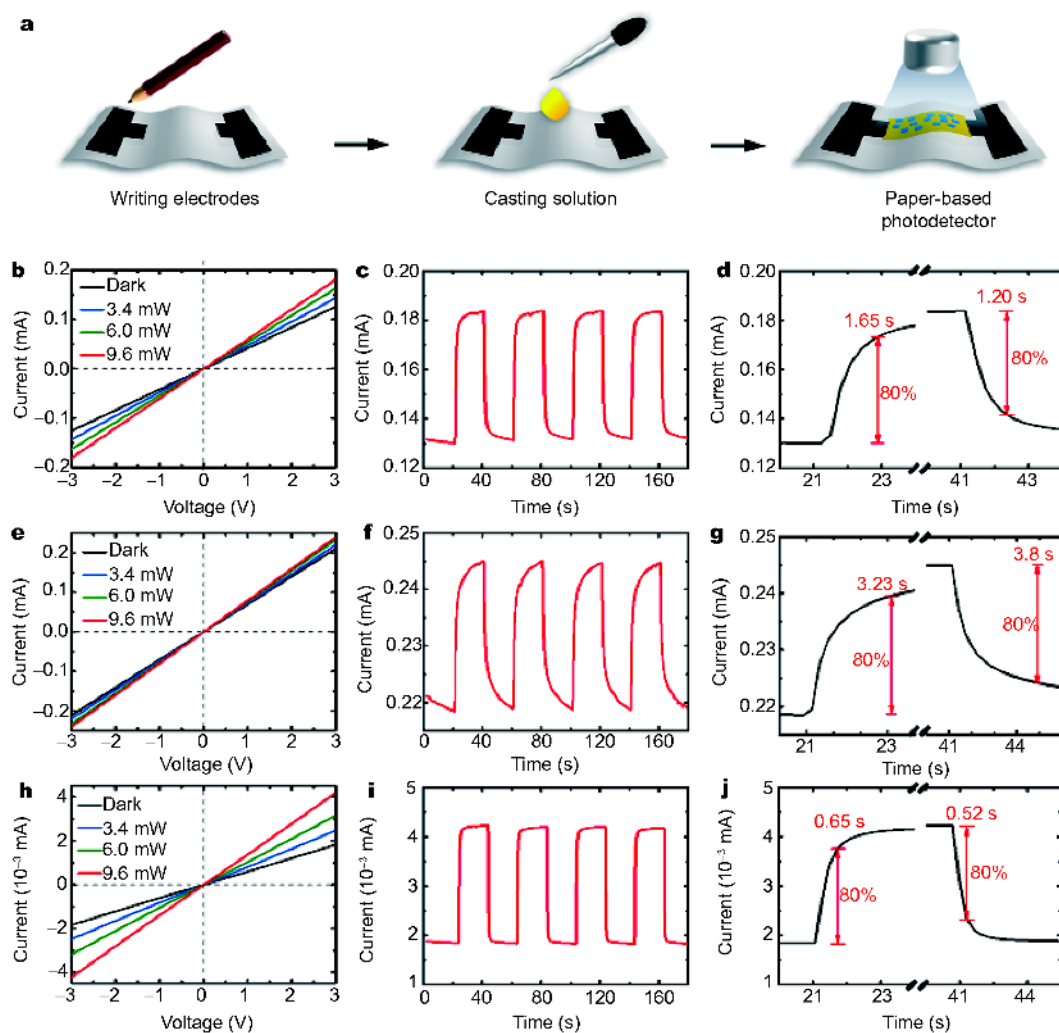


Figure 4 (a) Schematic illustration of the fabrication process of a paper-based photodetector. (b) I - V curves at different light intensity, (c) temporal photocurrent response and (d) a zoom-in view of the temporal photocurrent response of the photodetector based on MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures. (e) I - V curves, (f) temporal photocurrent response and (g) a zoom-in view of the temporal photocurrent response of the photodetector based on MoS₂ nanosheets. (h) I - V curves, (i) temporal photocurrent response and (j) a zoom-in view of the temporal photocurrent response of the photodetector based on MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures after they were partially transformed from 1T to 2H phase by irradiation with a 780 nm laser. The light source used for all measurements was a 405 nm laser.

detectors were fabricated based on the MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures. Compared to the conventional silicon substrate and plastic substrates such as polyethylene terephthalate (PET) and polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS), paper is cheap and renewable and has been explored as a supplement to silicon and plastics in many areas [56,57]. More importantly, pencil traces (graphite) could be easily drawn on paper as electrodes, and the whole fabrication process takes ~10 min, much faster than making devices on plastics or silicon which normally requires thermally evaporated metal electrodes through a shadow mask

[34,35]. As schematically shown in Fig. 4a, two graphite electrodes were firstly drawn on a piece of paper by using a 12B pencil (Fig. S9). After that, a solution of the heterostructures was drop-casted between the electrodes and then dried naturally before measurements. The MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures deposited on paper formed a continuous film without obvious cracks (Fig. S10a-c). The linear and symmetrical current-voltage (I - V) curve of the device suggests that the MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures formed a low resistance contact with the pencil trace electrodes (Fig. S10d) [58]. Fig. 4b

shows the I - V curves of the MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ paper-based photodetector under 405 nm laser illumination at varied power from 3.4 to 9.6 mW. A clear rise of the photocurrent with increasing illumination intensity was observed, indicating the effective conversion of photon flux to photogenerated carriers. However, the observed low on/off ratio, with a value of 1.41 at 9.6 mW, was due to the relatively large dark current which was caused by the high concentration of metallic 1T phase in the MoS₂ nanosheets [37]. The temporal photoresponse of the photodetector was measured under the periodic illumination of a 405 nm laser with an on/off interval of 20 s at a bias of 3 V. The MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ paper-based photodetector showed good on-off switching as shown in Fig. 4c. The rise time and decay time, as also important parameters for evaluating a photodetector, were measured as the time required for the photoresponse to increase by 80% from the minimum current and drop by 80% from the maximum current, respectively [37]. As shown in Fig. 4d, the rise and fall time of the MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ hybrid device was 1.65 and 1.20 s, respectively. Compared to the MoS₂-based device (Fig. 4e-g), the device based on MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ showed the improved on/off ratio, photoresponsivity and response rate (Fig. 4b-g and Table S1). Such improvement can be attributed to the increased absorption of MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures compared to the pure MoS₂ (Fig. 3a), the effective energy transfer from MAPbBr₃ to MoS₂ (Fig. 3d), and a possibly higher carrier mobility within MAPbBr₃ NCs compared to MoS₂ [59,60]. In addition, a device based on MAPbBr₃ NCs showed an extremely low photoresponsivity of $\sim 7 \times 10^{-8}$ mA W⁻¹ (Fig. S11). This could be attributed to their poor film-forming ability when deposited on a piece of paper (Fig. S12), which is in sharp contrast to the crack-free film formed by MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures (Fig. S10). Based on the aforementioned TRPL analysis in Fig. 3d, it can be expected that under laser illumination, charge carriers and/or excitons were generated in the MAPbBr₃ NCs and readily transferred to the nearby MoS₂ nanosheets, leading to the shortened PL lifetime of MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ compared to MAPbBr₃ alone. The charge carriers and excitons were then separated in MoS₂ under the applied electric field, which finally contributed to the photocurrent. The presence of MAPbBr₃ NCs, despite of their poor film-forming ability, therefore compensated the poor light adsorption and photo-conversion ability of MoS₂ nanosheets with a high metallic phase concentration. Evidently, the photoresponsivity of the MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ device (5.6 mA W⁻¹) doubled compared to that of MoS₂ (2.76 mA W⁻¹) and increased for at

least 10⁷ times compared with MAPbBr₃ NCs ($\sim 7 \times 10^{-8}$ mA W⁻¹) alone. Moreover, we further compared performances of MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ epitaxial heterostructures with physically mixed MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ composite by depositing them on paper as photodetectors, and found that the *in-situ* prepared heterostructures exhibited higher photoresponsivity and on/off ratio compared with the physically mixed counterpart (Fig. 4, Fig. S13, and Table S1). Above observations further indicate the importance of using MoS₂ nanosheets as flexible substrates that connected dispersed perovskite NCs, and also enabled the effective charge and/or exciton transport through the epitaxial interfaces. The stability of the MAPbBr₃/MoS₂-based device was also investigated (Fig. S14), which exhibited stable current density for 2,000 s under temporal illumination by a 405 nm laser with a power of 9.6 mW, suggesting that degradation of the perovskite or phase transition in MoS₂ did not happen during the test. This is also confirmed by comparing the XRD patterns of the MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ heterostructures before and after 30 min of 405 nm laser irradiation, and no additional peaks due to degradation were observed (Fig. S15).

The electronic property of MoS₂ is highly dependent on its crystal structure. While 2H-phased MoS₂ is semiconducting, 1T-phased counterpart is metal-like [46]. The Li-intercalated and exfoliated MoS₂ nanosheets contain $\sim 84\%$ of 1T phase (Fig. S6 in SI), indicating a highly metallic nature. As a result, photodetector based on the metallic MoS₂ nanosheets hybridized with MAPbBr₃ NCs showed a relatively high dark current density, leading to a relatively low on/off ratio of 1.4. It has been reported previously that metallic 1T MoS₂ can be reverted back to the semiconducting 2H phase by annealing [46] or laser irradiation [61]. We therefore partially converted the MoS₂ from 1T to 2H in the MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ device by simply illuminating it with a 780 nm laser at 100 mW for 30 s, and the 2H concentration increased from 16% to 68% (Fig. S16), during which the MAPbBr₃ NCs remained stable (Fig. S17). As expected, due to the increased channel resistance after metal-to-semiconductor transition, both dark current and photocurrent considerably decreased, leading to a decreased responsivity of 0.224 mA W⁻¹ (Fig. 4i). Meanwhile, the on/off ratio of the MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ device after laser illumination was evidently increased from 1.41 to 2.30 (Fig. 4h). Importantly, after 1T-to-2H conversion, the response times were much shortened (0.65 and 0.52 s) (Fig. 4j), which could result from the reduced defect density in MoS₂ after its transition to a more thermodynamically stable structure [37].

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, MAPbBr₃ NCs were directly deposited on MoS₂ in a mixed DMF/toluene solution. An optimal concentration of DMF in toluene enabled the dispersion of MoS₂ nanosheets and meanwhile ensured the precipitation of MAPbBr₃ NCs. The *in-situ* deposited (001)-oriented MAPbBr₃ NCs showed epitaxial relationship with (001) MoS₂ nanosheets by aligning along either the MAPbBr₃ [100]/MoS₂ [100] direction or the MAPbBr₃ [110]/MoS₂ [210] direction. The dispersible MAPbBr₃/MoS₂ epitaxial heterostructures can be directly drop-casted between two graphite electrodes drawn by pencil on a piece of paper to form a photodetector with simple configuration, and demonstrated the much improved performance compared to using MoS₂ or MAPbBr₃ alone due to the improved light adsorption and enhanced energy transfer. Our work suggests that despite the stringent solvation conditions, organic-inorganic hybrid perovskites could be hybridized with other functional nanostructures *via* solution-phase epitaxy. 2D materials provide flexible substrates for the epitaxial deposition of crystals even with large mismatch in lattice symmetry and parameters. Thus-obtained solution-processible heterostructures are promising for thin-film optoelectronics.

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Author contributions Huang X, Xing G, and Huang W conceived the idea. Zhang Z, Sun F designed the experiments and synthesized the hybrid nanomaterial. Dai J and Sun Q exfoliated MoS_2 nanosheets. Zhu Z, Gao K and Shi X performed TEM, XRD and AFM measurements. Wei Q conducted PL and TRPL measurements. Li H, Yan Y and Yu H designed the paper-based photodetectors. All authors contributed to the general discussion.

Conflict of interest The authors declare no conflict of interest.

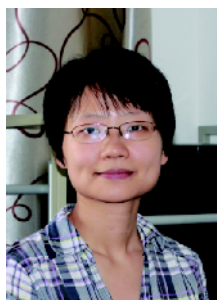
Supplementary information Experimental details and supporting data are available in the online version of the paper.



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非传统溶液外延法在金属硫化物纳米片表面生长有机无机杂化钙钛矿纳米晶

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摘要 基于外延异质结构的有机-无机杂化钙钛矿/二维纳米片复合材料在光电领域具有很好的应用前景,但目前使用的固相制备方法大大限制了这一目标的实现. 我们通过精细调节溶剂环境,成功利用外延沉积的方式实现了在三角/六方相 MoS_2 纳米片表面生长立方相 MAPbBr_3 ($\text{MA}=\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3^+$)钙钛矿纳米晶. 虽然 MAPbBr_3 与 MoS_2 存在较大的晶格不匹配度,但是由于 MoS_2 纳米片性质柔软且表面缺失悬挂键,可以在两条不同方向上观察到较高容忍度($\sim 1\%$ 错位)的外延生长关系. 这种外延界面的形成有利于 MAPbBr_3 与 MoS_2 之间有效的能量转移,因此基于 $\text{MAPbBr}_3/\text{MoS}_2$ 异质结的纸质器件与 MAPbBr_3 或 MoS_2 器件相比具有更优异的光电性能. 此外,除了提高光吸收能力和能量传递, MoS_2 纳米片的存在还为离散的 MAPbBr_3 纳米晶提供柔性和连续的基底,从而改善了 MAPbBr_3 纳米晶粒的成膜能力. 这种液相外延法可用于高性能的有机无机杂化钙钛矿与二维材料的异质结构材料的大规模制备,将推动异质结构材料在光电领域的广泛使用.