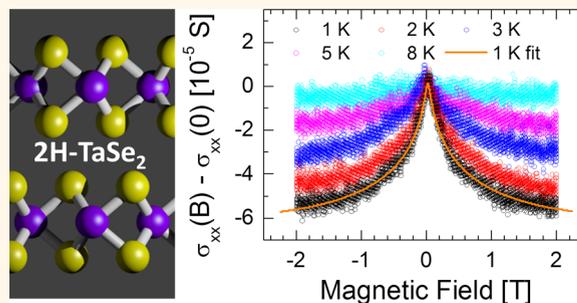


Two-Dimensional TaSe₂ Metallic Crystals: Spin–Orbit Scattering Length and Breakdown Current Density

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ABSTRACT We have determined the spin–orbit scattering length of two-dimensional layered 2H-TaSe₂ metallic crystals by detailed characterization of the weak antilocalization phenomena in this strong spin–orbit interaction material. By fitting the observed magneto-conductivity, the spin–orbit scattering length for 2H-TaSe₂ is determined to be 17 nm in the few-layer films. This small spin–orbit scattering length is comparable to that of Pt, which is widely used to study the spin Hall effect, and indicates the potential of TaSe₂ for use in spin Hall effect devices. A material must also support large charge currents in addition to strong spin–orbit coupling to achieve spin-transfer-torque *via* the spin Hall effect. Therefore, we have characterized the room temperature breakdown current density of TaSe₂ in air, where the best breakdown current density reaches 3.7×10^7 A/cm². This large breakdown current further indicates the potential of TaSe₂ for use in spin-torque devices and two-dimensional device interconnect applications.



KEYWORDS: tantalum diselenide · transition metal dichalcogenide · spin–orbit scattering · weak antilocalization · breakdown current

Although studied for some time,^{1,2} the transition metal dichalcogenide (TMD) family of materials with two-dimensional layer structure has recently attracted increased attention in the nanoelectronics community following the prolific research into graphene.^{3–6} With graphene's zero bandgap limitation for transistor technology, much of the nanoelectronics community's interest in TMDs has been focused on the semiconductors, particularly MoS₂, with the demonstration of single-layer and few-layer field-effect transistors.^{7–9} Metallic TMDs, on the other hand, have received much less attention in the nanoelectronics community thus far, but recent works on exfoliated TaSe₂ indicate that interest is on the rise.^{10–12} Notably, single-layer TaSe₂ has been recently characterized by Raman spectroscopy.¹³ Historically, metallic TMDs have been intensely studied by material physicists and condensed matter physicists because of their superconducting^{1,2} and charge density wave¹⁴ properties, which remain active areas of research.

Obviously, metallic TMDs are not suitable for field-effect transistor channel materials,

similar to graphene. One possible nanoelectronics application, previously proposed for graphene,¹⁵ is the use of metallic TMDs as device interconnects for all-two-dimensional (2D) material logic technology. Another application of metallic TMDs, particularly of 2H-TaSe₂ on which we will focus in this work, is in spintronics devices. Angle-resolved photoemission spectroscopy (ARPES) measurements of 2H-TaSe₂ reveal a “dog-bone” like structure of the Fermi surface in the “normal” (not charge density wave) state,^{16,17} and this structure is attributed to strong spin–orbit coupling in TaSe₂.¹⁸ This strong spin–orbit coupling may make TaSe₂ an ideal 2D material for the generation of spin currents *via* the spin Hall effect. Motivated by these potential applications of 2H-TaSe₂, we determine, for the first time, the spin–orbit scattering length of TaSe₂ by characterizing the weak antilocalization phenomena in the material. In addition to strong spin–orbit coupling, a material must also support large charge currents to achieve spin-transfer-torque *via* the spin Hall effect. The ability to conduct

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large charge currents is also important for the previously mentioned two-dimensional interconnect application. Therefore, we have also characterized the breakdown current density of 2D TaSe₂ crystals for the first time.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

First of all, it is important to establish the polytype of the TaSe₂ samples used in this work. The 1T polytype, with octahedral coordination, and the 2H polytype, with trigonal prismatic coordination, are the two most studied in the literature. For the 1T polytype of TaSe₂, the material is in the incommensurate charge density wave state below 600 K and in the commensurate charge density wave state below 473 K.^{14,19,20} The transition at 473 K is accompanied by a stark discontinuity in the resistivity as a function of temperature. The 2H polytype does not transition into the incommensurate charge density wave state until ~ 120 K, and the commensurate charge density wave sets in below 90 K. In contrast to the 1T polytype, there are no discontinuities in the resistivity as a function of temperature, but there is a characteristic change in the slope of the resistivity *versus* temperature curve at the onset of the incommensurate charge density wave state at ~ 120 K.^{14,19,20} These properties of the resistivity *versus*

temperature allow one to distinguish between the two polytypes of TaSe₂ electrically. Figure 1d shows the resistivity of the TaSe₂ used in this work as a function of temperature from 4 to 300 K. The characteristic change in the slope of the resistivity *versus* temperature curve, indicated by the arrow in the figure, confirms that the TaSe₂ used in this work is of the 2H polytype. The crystal structure of 2H-TaSe₂ is shown in Figure 1a–c with layered 2D structures as expected.

With the polytype of the TaSe₂ established, we determine the electrically active thickness of the flake used to study spin–orbit coupling of TaSe₂. Figure 2a shows atomic force microscopy (AFM) image of the TaSe₂ device with the AFM height measurement of the flake overlaid. The 2D crystal has a physical thickness of ~ 12 nm. A calculation of the Hall coefficient from Hall effect measurements using the thickness measured by AFM yields Hall coefficients which are much too large compared to those published in the literature.^{21–23} Because of this discrepancy, we conclude that the physical thickness of the flake as measured by AFM is not electrically active, perhaps due to oxidation of the top and bottom layers of the TaSe₂ flake while exposed to air for long periods of time. We also note that the devices with much thinner flakes cannot be measured reliably. Considering these observations, we can

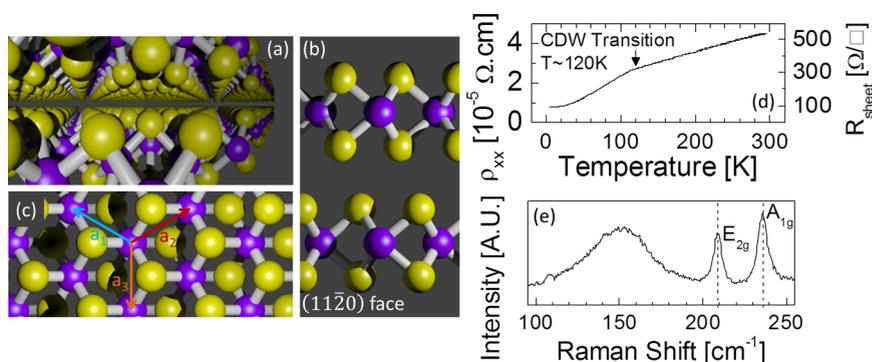


Figure 1. (a) 3D view of the 2H-TaSe₂ crystal structure. (b) Side view of the TaSe₂ crystal cleaved at the (11 $\bar{2}$ 0) face. (c) Top view of the TaSe₂ crystal with lattice vectors shown. Purple balls represent Ta atoms, while yellow balls represent Se atoms. (d) Resistivity ρ_{xx} and sheet resistance R_{sheet} as a function of temperature for the TaSe₂ flake used for weak antilocalization measurements. The change in slope at ~ 120 K indicates that the TaSe₂ is of the 2H polytype. (e) Raman characterization of the bulk TaSe₂ from which the flakes were exfoliated.

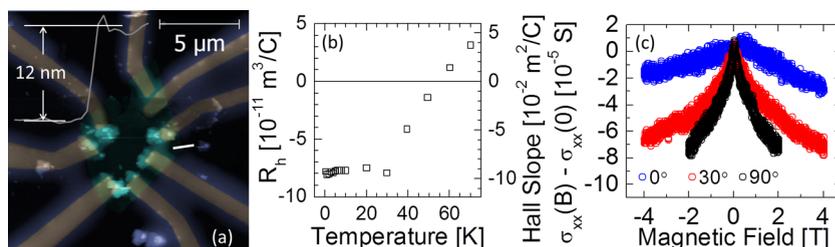


Figure 2. (a) AFM image of the TaSe₂ device used to study the spin–orbit scattering *via* weak antilocalization measurements. The AFM height measurement along the white line is overlaid. (b) Hall coefficient and Hall slope of TaSe₂ as a function of temperature. The sign change results from the reconstruction of the Fermi surface as the charge density wave state develops with decreasing temperature. (c) Differential magneto-conductivity of TaSe₂ at $T = 0.4$ K with magnetic field applied at different angles relative to the sample surface. Zero degrees indicates that the magnetic field is parallel to the TaSe₂ planes, while 90 deg indicates that the magnetic field is perpendicular to the TaSe₂ planes.

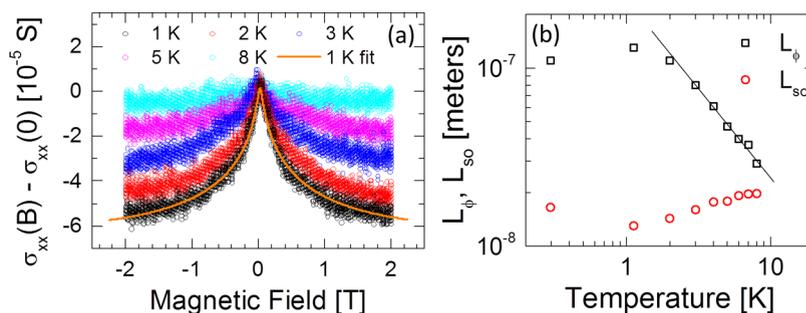


Figure 3. (a) Differential magneto-conductivity of 2H-TaSe₂ at temperatures from 1 K to 8 K. The negative magneto-conductivity shown in the figure is the characteristic of weak antilocalization and indicates the strong spin–orbit coupling of TaSe₂. (b) Phase coherence length L_ϕ (black squares) and spin–orbit scattering length L_{so} (red circles) extracted from the weak antilocalization data from panel a. The black solid line indicates the T^{-1} power law decrease of L_ϕ .

estimate the electrically active thickness of our TaSe₂ flake as the Hall coefficients from the literature divided by the Hall slope measured for our TaSe₂ device, $t_{ele} = R_H / (dR_{xy}/dB)$. The Hall slope (dR_{xy}/dB) is the slope of the Hall resistance, $R_{xy} = V_H/I$, as a function of magnetic field. The measured Hall slopes for this device as a function of temperature are shown in Figure 2b. We perform this thickness estimation at two temperatures, $T \approx 5$ K and $T \approx 120$ K, where the Hall slope for our flake at 120 K was estimated by linear extrapolation using the measured Hall slopes in Figure 2b. The electrically active thickness, t_{ele} , is determined to be 0.81 and 0.88 nm for 5 K and 120 K, respectively. Therefore, from this estimation *via* the Hall effect measurement, we conclude that only one or two atomic layers of the TaSe₂ flake are electrically active. The dependence of the magneto-conductivity on the angle of the magnetic field, shown in Figure 2c, also confirms this claim that the system studied is a two-dimensional electron system. The resistivity and Hall coefficient plotted in Figure 1d and Figure 2b were calculated using the electrically active thickness, t_{ele} , that we have determined. Note that the change-sign change of the Hall coefficient is expected and is related to the reconstruction of the Fermi surface as the charge density wave state develops with decreasing temperature.²¹

We now study the spin–orbit coupling strength of 2H-TaSe₂. Indeed, the strong spin–orbit coupling indicated by the “dog’s bone” Fermi surface shape^{16,17} is confirmed by magneto-transport measurements. Figure 3a shows the differential sheet conductance of TaSe₂ as a function of magnetic field for various temperatures. TaSe₂ exhibits a negative magneto-conductivity, characteristic of weak antilocalization, which indicates the strong spin–orbit coupling of TaSe₂. A classical background has been subtracted from the data, determined by fitting the data at $T = 8$ K and $B > 1$ Tesla where the localization phenomena is suppressed. To quantitatively determine the spin–orbit scattering length, we must first determine the dimensionality of the weak antilocalization phenomena in the system. Figure 2c shows the differential magneto-conductivity for different angles between the magnetic

field and the sample. In this case no classical background is subtracted. The angular dependence shows that the weak antilocalization phenomenon behaves two dimensionally. The differential magneto-conductivity, $\Delta\sigma$, can be described for 2D weak localization by the following equation:^{24–26}

$$\Delta\sigma = n_v n_s \left(F\left(\frac{B}{B_\phi + B_{so}}\right) + \frac{-1}{n_s} \left(F\left(\frac{B}{B_\phi}\right) - F\left(\frac{B}{B_\phi + 2B_{so}}\right) \right) \right) \quad (1)$$

$$F(z) = \psi\left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{z}\right) + \ln(z), \quad B_* = \frac{\hbar}{4eL_*} \quad * = \phi, so$$

where n_v is the valley degeneracy, $n_s = 2$ for the spin degeneracy, e the charge of an electron, \hbar is Planck’s constant divided by 2π , L_ϕ is the phase coherence length, and L_{so} is the spin–orbit scattering length. L_ϕ and L_{so} are the free parameters which allow fitting of the data. The number of valleys, n_v , can be determined from ARPES performed on TaSe₂ in its commensurate charge density wave state.^{17,21,27} In the commensurate charge density wave state, the TaSe₂ lattice is deformed, effectively increasing the period of the material system in real space. This leads to a smaller Brillouin zone in k-space compared to the undeformed material and also causes reconstruction of the Fermi surface. ARPES indicates that there are three independent valley’s in the charge density wave Brillouin zone, therefore we choose $n_v = 3$ when fitting the weak antilocalization data. The solid orange line in Figure 3a shows an example fit of the weak-antilocalization peak using eq 1.

We can now determine the spin–orbit scattering length of TaSe₂ by fitting the weak antilocalization data in Figure 3a, along with others not shown. Figure 3b shows the phase coherence length L_ϕ and the spin–orbit scattering length L_{so} determined from the fittings as a function of temperature. We find that L_{so} is independent of temperature, while L_ϕ decreases as T^{-1} , which is consistent with dephasing due to electron–electron scattering without too much disorder.²⁸ Because L_{so} in Figure 3b is independent of temperature,

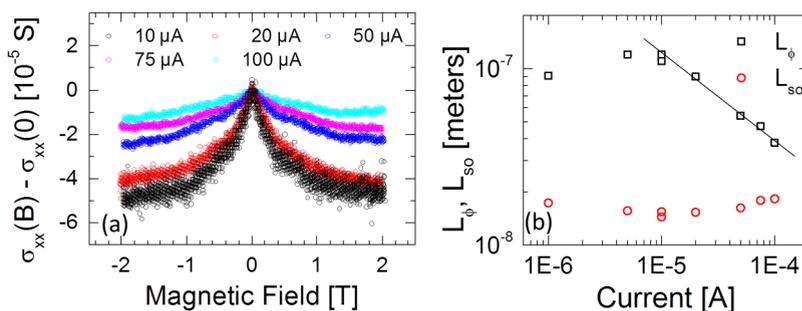


Figure 4. (a) Differential magneto-conductivity of TaSe₂ for different RMS bias currents as indicated in the figure. The helium bath temperature was 0.4 K for these measurements. (b) Phase coherence length L_ϕ (black squares) and spin-orbit scattering length L_{so} (red circles) extracted from the weak antilocalization data from Figure 4a. The black solid line indicates the $I^{-1/2}$ power law decrease of L_ϕ with increasing bias current.

we take their average and determine that the spin-orbit scattering length $L_{so} = 17$ nm for 2H-TaSe₂. This length is comparable to the spin-orbit scattering length of Pt ($L_{so} = 12$ nm),²⁹ widely used to study the spin Hall effect, and indicates the potential of TaSe₂ for use in 2D spintronics devices.

The weak antilocalization is also suppressed by increasing bias current as shown in Figure 4a. The higher current bias adds energy to the sample, increasing the electron temperature above that of the helium bath, leading to suppression of the weak antilocalization. Figure 4b shows the phase coherence length and spin-orbit scattering length determined from the data in Figure 4a. The phase coherence length decreases as $I^{-1/2}$, which indicates that the electron temperature increases as $I^{+1/2}$ considering $L_\phi \propto T^{-1}$ as previously determined. The same relationship between bias current and electron temperature has also been observed for a two-dimensional electron gas in the quantum Hall regime.³⁰ This further confirms that the studied TaSe₂ device is, electrically, an atomically thin material system.

Finally, we evaluate the breakdown current density of 2H-TaSe₂ in order to determine its potential to achieve the spin Hall effect-based spin-transfer-torque by DC characterization of all 18 fabricated devices. The average room temperature resistivity of the TaSe₂ flakes used for the breakdown current measurements was $1.9 \times 10^{-4} \Omega \cdot \text{cm}$, determined using four terminal measurements of eight of the devices. The contact resistance of the Ni/Au contact to the TaSe₂ flakes was also estimated by subtracting the four-terminal resistance from the two-terminal resistance and dividing by two. The average contact resistance determined from the eight four-terminal devices was $0.74 \Omega \cdot \text{mm}$, which is 1 order of magnitude smaller compared to metal/MoS₂ contacts.³¹ This is because TaSe₂ is metallic and forms Ohmic contacts with metals while MoS₂ is a semiconductor and forms Schottky contacts with metals. To achieve this low contact resistance, the Ni/Au contact was deposited as soon as possible after TaSe₂ exfoliation to minimize surface oxidation and avoid oxide barriers between the Ni/Au contact and

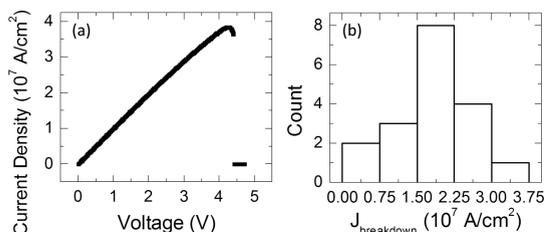


Figure 5. (a) DC current density versus voltage characteristic of the TaSe₂ device which shows the highest breakdown current. (b) Histogram of breakdown current densities for 18 TaSe₂ devices measured in air at room temperature.

the TaSe₂. Flakes were also stored in a nitrogen box before metal contact deposition to help minimize the surface oxidation. Measurement of the breakdown current density is performed by continuously increasing the bias voltage across the device until a decrease in current more than 1 order of magnitude is observed. Figure 5a shows the current density versus bias voltage data for the device showing the highest breakdown current density observed among the 18 devices. The breakdown current density is taken as the current density immediately before the sharp decrease in current was observed. Figure 5b shows the histogram of the breakdown currents determined from the 18 devices. The maximum breakdown current density observed is 3.7×10^7 A/cm²; the average, 1.9×10^7 A/cm²; the minimum, 0.5×10^7 A/cm²; and the standard deviation, 0.8×10^7 A/cm². The flake thickness as characterized by AFM was used when computing the breakdown current densities, so these reported current densities could be slightly underestimated if we consider the surface oxidation. These breakdown currents are comparable to the charge currents used to induce spin-transfer-torque via the spin Hall effect in tantalum thin films,³² indicating the possibility of TaSe₂-based 2D spin-torque devices. The breakdown currents are about 1 order of magnitude less than those of graphene,^{15,33} however, they are comparable to those of MoS₂.³⁴ These large breakdown currents also indicate the potential of TaSe₂ as a 2D interconnect material, particularly if used in conjunction

semiconducting TMDs, in which the similar crystal structure may provide some integration advantages.³⁵

CONCLUSIONS

We have determined the spin–orbit scattering length of 2H-TaSe₂ by detailed characterization of the weak antilocalization phenomena in the material. By fitting the observed magneto-conductivity, the spin orbit scattering length for 2H-TaSe₂ is determined to be 17 nm. This small spin orbit scattering length

is comparable to that of Pt, which is widely used to study the spin Hall effect, and indicates the potential of 2D TaSe₂ for use in spin Hall effect devices. Additionally, we have characterized the room temperature breakdown current density of TaSe₂ in air, where the best breakdown current density observed is 3.7×10^7 A/cm². This large breakdown current density further indicates the potential of TaSe₂ for use in 2D spin-torque devices and 2D device interconnect applications.

METHODS

The 2D TaSe₂ devices were fabricated as follows. A bulk Nanosurf TaSe₂ sample was purchased from nanoScience Instruments and confirmed by Raman characterization shown in Figure 1e. TaSe₂ flakes were prepared by the method of mechanical exfoliation using adhesive tape, depositing TaSe₂ flakes on an insulating substrate. For the weak antilocalization measurements, the flakes were deposited on insulating SrTiO₃ substrate, while, for the breakdown current measurements, flakes were deposited on 90 nm SiO₂ on Si substrate. Electrical contacts were defined using an electron beam lithography and liftoff process. The metal contacts were deposited by electron beam evaporation. For the weak antilocalization measurements, a 30 nm/50 nm Ni_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}/Cu contact was used, and for the breakdown current measurements, a 30 nm/50 nm Ni/Au contact was used. The weak antilocalization measurements were carried out in a ³He cryostat with a superconducting magnet using a Stanford Research 830 lock-in amplifier. Breakdown currents were measured at room temperature in air using a Keithley 4200 semiconductor characterization system.

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

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