

Low-Temperature Contacts and the Coulomb Blockade Effect in Layered Nanoribbons with In-Plane Anisotropy

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Cite This: *ACS Nano* 2025, 19, 10878–10888



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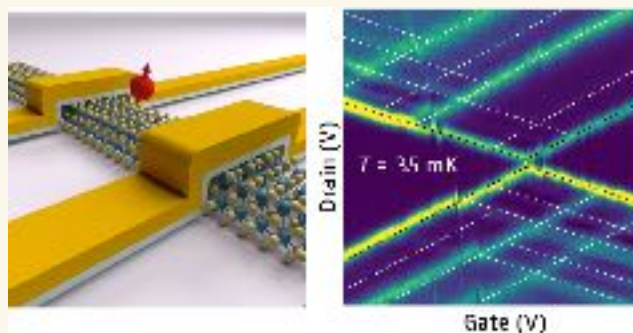
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ABSTRACT: One-dimensional (1D) nanoribbons (NRs) constitute rapidly advancing nanotechnology with significant potential for emerging applications such as quantum sensing and metrology. TiS_3 nanoribbons exhibit strong in-plane crystal anisotropy, enabling robust 1D confinement and resilience to edge disorder. Nevertheless, charge transport in 1D TiS_3 remains relatively unexplored, particularly at low temperatures, where high contact resistance impacts device performance and fundamentally limits its applications. Here, we engineer electrical contacts between a bulk metal and a 1D NR and explore the low-temperature characteristics of the 1D field-effect devices. We report ohmic contacts for 1D TiS_3 with temperature-independent contact resistances as low as $2.7 \pm 0.3 \text{ k}\Omega/\mu\text{m}$, enabling the study of charge transport at low temperatures (down to 35 mK) and clear observation of the Coulomb blockade effect. We demonstrate single-electron transport in 1D TiS_3 and perform excited state spectroscopy and magnetospectroscopy, extracting an out-of-plane electron g -factor, $g = 1.8 \pm 0.3$.

KEYWORDS: *van der Waals, titanium trisulfide, 1D, ohmic contacts, quantum dot, single-electron transistor*



1. INTRODUCTION

The relentless drive for advancements in energy-efficient electronics and quantum technologies has positioned layered van der Waals (vdW) materials at the forefront of fundamental research and technological innovation.¹ Among the various layered materials, one-dimensional (1D) nanoribbons (NRs) have emerged as a particularly compelling vdW system.^{2–4} While graphene or MoS_2 NRs are celebrated for their high carrier mobility⁵ or spin/valley-polarized edges,^{6,7} their electronic band structures are highly sensitive to width and edge termination.^{8,9} This inherent structural dependence, however, exposes 1D NR devices to edge disorder, owing to challenges in maintaining structural homogeneity during the chemical synthesis.^{10,11} Such disorder constrains charge transport efficiency in 1D field-effect transistors (FETs), compromises their reproducibility and scalability, and introduces noise from uncontrollable edge states in quantum devices.^{12,13}

Titanium trisulfide (TiS_3) is a layered vdW semiconductor with a quasi-1D morphology.¹⁴ Unlike isotropic vdW materials such as graphene or MoS_2 , TiS_3 exhibits strong in-plane crystal anisotropy¹⁵ that translates into anisotropic thermal and charge

transport,¹⁴ motivating exploration toward thermoelectric^{16,17} and optoelectronic^{18,19} applications. A single layer of TiS_3 consists of 1D-like covalently bonded atomic chains held together by considerably weaker interatomic coupling (Figure 1a), ensuring NR morphology with consistent width and edge termination.²⁰ The electronic band gap of $\sim 1 \text{ eV}$ varies little with thickness or stacking order and, importantly, shows weak dependence on the width of the NRs, particularly in the limit of few-atom-wide chains,^{21,22} further reducing the impact of edge disorder. Therefore, semiconducting TiS_3 NRs, with their inherent 1D confinement and resilience to edge disorder, demonstrate significant potential for nanoelectronics and quantum devices, like single-electron charge sensors²³ and pumps.²⁴

Received: October 24, 2024

Revised: February 13, 2025

Accepted: February 14, 2025

Published: March 13, 2025



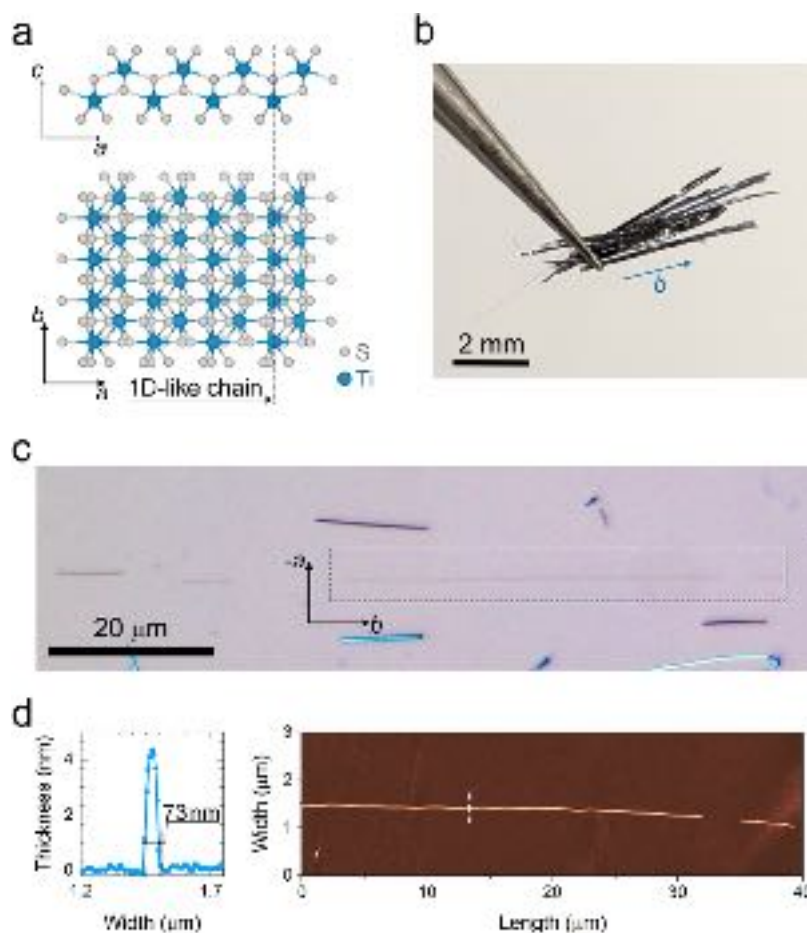


Figure 1. (a) Ball-and-stick model of the TiS₃ crystal structure in the *ac* plane (top) and *ab* plane (bottom); (b) optical image of as-grown TiS₃ crystals; (c) optical image of TiS₃ NRs exfoliated on a SiO₂/Si wafer; (d) atomic force microscopy (AFM) profile (left) and topography (right) of the TiS₃ NR outlined by the dashed line in (c).

The semiconducting n-type behavior of TiS₃ NR FETs has been established through several recent reports.^{15,25–27} Below 200 K, thin 1D TiS₃ devices exhibit decreased performance, entering a high-resistivity state below 100 K.²⁷ While the nature of this behavior remains an open question,^{28,29} these studies report nonlinear output characteristics of Cr/Au and Ti/Au contacts at low temperatures, hindering the device potential for 1D cryoelectronics and quantum applications. In general, poor contacts degrade charge transport, particularly at low temperatures, leading to energy dissipation and noise, which limits sensitivity and control over electron flow in nanoscale devices.^{30,31} In quantum devices like single-electron transistors, high contact resistance impedes electron tunneling by introducing additional barriers and traps, increases thermal broadening of energy levels, and blurs the distinction between charge states, reducing the ability to resolve single-electron events.^{32–34}

While high contact resistance in 1D devices is a long-standing challenge,³⁵ experimental studies on metal-1D contacts for emergent technologies like 1D vdW NRs are particularly scarce.² Contact engineering methods developed for bulk semiconductors³⁶ have proved challenging for vdW materials.^{37,38} Typically, the deposition of a bulk, three-dimensional metal on the surface of a vdW semiconductor results in the formation of a Schottky barrier, even if the metal work function aligns with the semiconductor's electron affinity.³⁸ This occurs because high kinetic energy transfer

and chemical bonding at the interface damage the fragile vdW semiconductor surface,³⁹ leading to Fermi-level pinning near the band edge and high contact resistance.⁴⁰ Efforts to reduce contact resistance in 1D vdW NR devices are further encumbered by the limited area available for contact.⁴¹ Thus, realizing clean, microscopic contacts to 1D vdW NRs with low contact resistance and near-zero Schottky barrier heights presents an exceptional challenge.

In this article, we present a comprehensive in-depth analysis of electrical contacts and low-temperature charge transport in 1D vdW semiconductor TiS₃. We demonstrate the realization of ultraclean contacts for 1D TiS₃ FETs that exhibit ohmic characteristics down to 5 K. This achievement builds on recent findings that the gentle deposition of low-melting-point metals, such as indium (In), preserves the vdW surface of monolayer MoS₂.⁴² In our In-TiS₃ devices, the contact resistance remains below 3 kΩ-μm across the entire temperature range studied, representing one of the lowest contact resistances reported for 1D semiconducting vdW NRs. We provide insights into the origin of this low contact resistance using density functional theory (DFT) calculations, which reveal a dipole-like charge redistribution at the In-TiS₃ interface and interfacial charge transfer that ensures ohmic behavior, particularly at low temperatures. In contrast, we demonstrate through both theory and experiment that conventional contact materials, such as gold (Au), exhibit more than an order of magnitude higher contact resistance, resulting in nonohmic contacts and

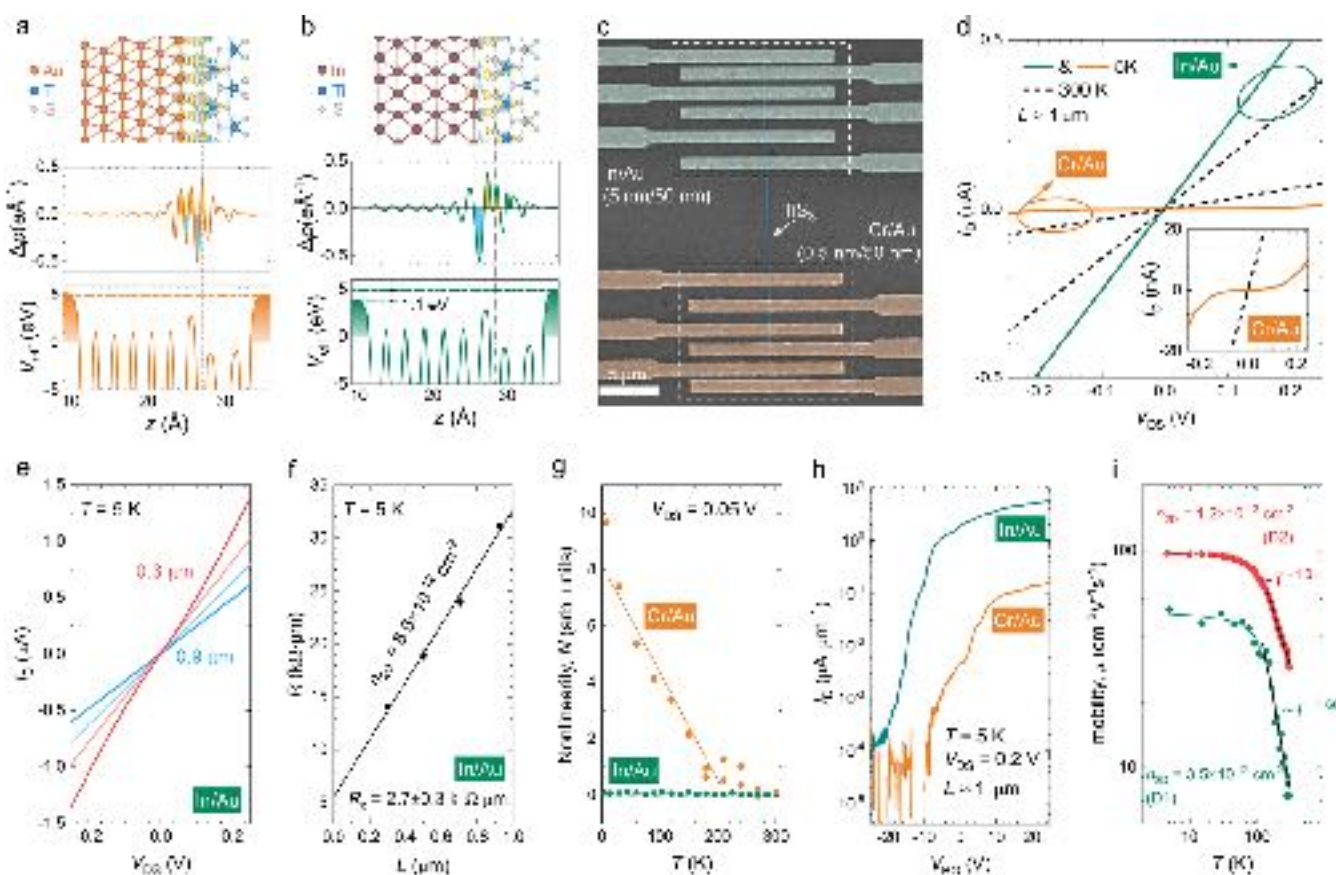


Figure 2. (a, b) Interface models for Au–TiS₃ and In–TiS₃ metal–semiconductor junctions, respectively. The top panels show DFT-optimized atomic geometries with interfacial charge distribution overlays at the junction. The isosurface level is $1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ e}\text{\AA}^{-1}$. The middle panels show the plane-averaged charge density difference ($\Delta\rho$), while the bottom panels plot the minimum effective potential (V_{eff}) across the interface. (c) False-color scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of two sets of devices (outlined with white dashed lines) fabricated with In/Au and Cr/Au electrodes. Scale bar: 5 μm . (d) Output curves at 5 and 300 K for devices with Cr/Au and In/Au electrodes, with a channel length of $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$ at a carrier density of $8.6 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. The rescaled plot of the Cr/Au device highlights the nonlinear characteristics at 5 K in the inset. (e) Linear output characteristics at a carrier density of $8.6 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ and 5 K for the device with In/Au electrodes, with channel lengths ranging from 0.3 to 0.9 μm . (f) Contact resistance extraction for In/Au electrodes using the transfer length method (TLM) at 5 K. (g) Nonlinearity (N) as a function of temperature for Cr/Au and In/Au devices, defined as $N = (d^2 I_{\text{DS}} / dV_{\text{DS}}^2) / (2(dI_{\text{DS}} / dV_{\text{DS}}))$ at a carrier density of $8.6 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. (h) Transfer characteristics of 1D TiS₃ FETs with Cr/Au and In/Au contacts, both having a channel length of $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$, at 5 K and $V_{\text{DS}} = 0.2 \text{ V}$. (i) Logarithmic plot of the field-effect mobility evolution with temperature for carrier densities of $3.5 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ (green symbols, device D1) and $1.2 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ (red symbols, device D2). Solid green and red lines are a guide to the eye. The solid black lines represent fits to the power law $\mu \sim T^{-\gamma}$. Both devices D1 and D2 were made with In/Au contacts.

significantly degrading FET performance. Efficient charge injection from high-quality contacts allows us to access the quantum tunneling regime in 1D TiS₃ NRs, where we observe the Coulomb blockade effect in two-probe short-channel (200 nm) devices at 35 mK. We conduct excited state spectroscopy and report on spin filling and magnetospectroscopy of the ground states, demonstrating a single-electron transistor in TiS₃ NRs. These results highlight TiS₃ as a promising material platform for 1D cryoelectronics and emerging quantum technologies, including quantum sensing and quantum information processing.

2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

TiS₃ forms a layered structure in which atomically thin sheets are held together by weak vdW forces. The strong crystal anisotropy is evident from the distinct atomic arrangement in the basal plane (Figure 1a), which promotes unidirectional crystal growth along the crystallographic *b*-axis (Figure 1b). Due to considerably weaker interatomic interactions along the *a*-axis,²⁰ micromechanical exfoliation yields long and narrow

NRs. Figure 1c shows an exfoliated NR (outlined in the rectangle), measuring over 30 μm in length, 73 nm in width, and 4.3 nm in thickness (Figure 1d). Raman spectroscopy and X-ray diffraction analysis confirm the monoclinic structure of as-grown TiS₃ crystals (Supporting Figures S1 and S2), consistent with the previous reports.^{43,44}

2.1. Engineering Low-Temperature Contacts. For a comprehensive comparative analysis of metal contacts on 1D TiS₃, we systematically evaluated the contact characteristics of the In–TiS₃ and Au–TiS₃ interfaces. To understand the atomistic interactions at the metal–semiconductor junctions, we modeled the electronic structures and charge redistribution properties at both interfaces using DFT calculations. Figure 2a,b shows the simulated atomic structures at the Au–TiS₃ and In–TiS₃ interfaces, respectively. The optimized interface geometry (Figure 2a,b and Supporting Figure S3) indicates that the gap between In and TiS₃ surface layers ($\sim 3.1 \text{ \AA}$) closely matches the interlayer distance in the bulk of vdW crystal ($\sim 3.2 \text{ \AA}$), suggesting minimal perturbation at the In–TiS₃ interface. This preserved interlayer distance implies the

clean, strain-free nature of indium contacts, as previously observed with layered two-dimensional (2D) materials like MoS_2 .⁴² In contrast, the reduced gap at the Au– TiS_3 interface (~ 2.7 Å) points to contact-induced structural distortions that may lead to the disordered interface, likely accompanied by chemical-like bonding.⁴⁵ Ideally, interfacial interactions at a metal–semiconductor junction enhance the carrier injection efficiency. However, strong interaction between the vdW semiconductor surface and the contact metal can adversely affect the device performance.³⁸ Such interactions at the interface may induce midgap states, effectively pinning the Fermi level below the conduction band.⁴⁶ This pinning can result in the formation of a Schottky barrier, leading to an increased contact resistance. This issue, however, can be mitigated by inserting a buffer layer of graphene⁴⁷ or hexagonal boron nitride (hBN)⁴⁸ between the metal and the semiconductor, thus weakening their interaction.⁴⁹

The fundamental difference between In– TiS_3 and Au– TiS_3 is further corroborated by interfacial charge redistribution, shown in Figure 2a,b as it overlays the optimized atomic geometries (top panels), as well as plane-averaged charge density difference along the z -direction orthogonal to the interface ($\Delta\rho$, middle panels). The latter is defined as the difference of total charge density of the full system (ρ_{tot}) and the constituent subsystems, such as the 3D metal (ρ_{M}) and the freestanding TiS_3 (ρ_{TiS_3}),

$$\Delta\rho = \rho_{\text{tot}} - \rho_{\text{M}} - \rho_{\text{TiS}_3} \quad (1)$$

The complex nature of charge redistribution at the Au– TiS_3 interface is evident from the multiple peaks and valleys in $\Delta\rho$ within the interface gap, as shown in Figure 2a, middle panel. Note that a positive $\Delta\rho$ peak indicates electron accumulation, while a negative valley represents electron depletion. Notably, we found that at the Au– TiS_3 interface, charge accumulates in the middle of the gap, depleting both Au and TiS_3 surface layers. This behavior resembles covalent-like quasi-bonding, previously observed in metal–vdW junctions such as Mo_2CF_2 – MoS_2 , and is similar to interlayer hybridization seen in several 2D vdW materials.⁵⁰ As a result, there is net zero charge transfer across the Au– TiS_3 interface. The presence of charge states in the interface gap can easily pin the Fermi level inside the band gap of TiS_3 , forming a Schottky barrier. In contrast, the electron redistribution at the In– TiS_3 interface (Figure 2b, middle panel) exhibits a simpler, dipole-like behavior. The band alignment of the TiS_3 band edge and the In Fermi level induces electron charge transfer toward the TiS_3 site. The electron flow across the In– TiS_3 interface is further supported by the effective potential (V_{eff}) plot shown in the bottom panel of Figure 2b. Unlike the Au– TiS_3 case (Figure 2a, bottom panel), the positive potential difference of ~ 1.1 eV gained over the In– TiS_3 junction ensures efficient electron transfer from the metal contact to the 1D semiconductor. This implies a vanishing Schottky barrier at the interface and strong n-doping of the TiS_3 at the contact region,⁵⁰ which is further confirmed by our DFT band structure calculations (Supporting Figure S4). Considering the soft nature of low-melting-point metals like indium,⁴² these theoretical observations suggest that evaporated 3D In forms a clean vdW contact with 1D TiS_3 , ensuring efficient electron injection across the junction.

Armed with these insights, we experimentally examined 1D TiS_3 devices by carefully measuring contact resistance using

the transfer length method (TLM) and accessing typical FET characteristics at temperatures down to 5 K. To this end, a thin ($d = 7.3$ nm) and narrow ($W = 76$ nm) NR was selected from the TiS_3 crystals that were mechanically exfoliated on a SiO_2/Si substrate (90 nm oxide thickness). We designed and fabricated two sets of TLM structures on the same NR to compare typical Cr/Au contacts with the vdW contacts made by 5 nm of In and capped with 50 nm of Au (In/Au). During the metal deposition for Cr/Au contacts, we adjusted the Cr layer thickness to 0.5 nm to minimize potential damage to TiS_3 from high-energy Cr atoms while ensuring strong adhesion of the contacts to the substrate. Anticipating that the Cr layer, despite its thinness, may still induce changes to the Au– TiS_3 interface,⁵¹ we theoretically examined the Cr– TiS_3 interface (Supporting Discussion V and Supporting Figure S5). Similar to Au, Cr significantly disrupts the TiS_3 surface at the interface, leading to chemical bond-like interactions that may negatively affect the carrier injection efficiency.

Figure 2c shows a false-color SEM image of the two structures fabricated side-by-side on the same TiS_3 NR. Output curves for ~ 1 μm channel devices with Cr/Au and In/Au contacts are shown in Figure 2d. Both devices exhibit linear characteristics at room temperature, although the current in Cr/Au devices is considerably lower. Notably, only In/Au contacts display linear characteristics at 5 K. The nonlinear output curves for Cr/Au contacts at low temperatures (inset in Figure 2d) suggest the presence of energy barriers at the metal– TiS_3 junction, similar to those reported for 2D vdW semiconductors.³⁸ This observation aligns with the decrease in current in Cr/Au devices, where energy barriers cause significant contact resistance, increasing the total resistance of the device by nearly an order of magnitude (Supporting Figure S6). To eliminate the potential influence of the Cr layer on carrier injection efficiency, we fabricated devices using pure Au electrodes (Supporting Discussion VIII and Supporting Figure S7). Similar to Cr/Au– TiS_3 devices, pure Au contacts exhibit nonlinear output characteristics below 300 K, indicating nonohmic carrier injection at low temperatures.

Following the TLM analysis of the In/Au devices (Figure 2e,f and Supporting Figure S8), we extracted a contact resistance of 2.7 ± 0.3 $\text{k}\Omega\cdot\mu\text{m}$ at a base temperature of 5 K and a carrier density of 8.6×10^{12} cm^{-2} . To the best of our knowledge, this is among the lowest values reported for 1D MoS_2 and TiS_3 NRs, outperforming the contact resistance of conventional 3D metal contacts to 1D NRs, such as Sc/Ni (39.6 $\text{k}\Omega\cdot\mu\text{m}$ at 300 K),⁵² Ni/Au (27.5 $\text{k}\Omega\cdot\mu\text{m}$ at 300 K),⁵³ and Au⁵⁴ (10 $\text{k}\Omega\cdot\mu\text{m}$ at 300 K).

After a thorough examination of 12 sets of different 1D TiS_3 devices (Supporting Table 1), we established that In/Au contacts consistently exhibit lower contact resistance compared to Au and Cr/Au contacts. The contact resistance in our 1D In– TiS_3 devices advances toward the state-of-the-art values reported for 1D carbon nanotubes (90 $\Omega\cdot\mu\text{m}$).⁵⁵ Furthermore, we estimated a transfer length (Supporting Figure S8) of $L_T = 100 \pm 18$ nm at 5 K and a carrier density of 8.6×10^{12} cm^{-2} , characterizing the contact length over which most of the charge transfer occurs. Notably, the transfer length is not limited by the contact length, which exceeds the L_T by a factor of 5, i.e., $L_T \ll L_C$, where the contact length $L_C \approx 500$ nm.

To further highlight the differences between Cr/Au and In/Au contacts, we plotted the temperature dependence of the contacts' nonlinearity at low bias voltage defined as

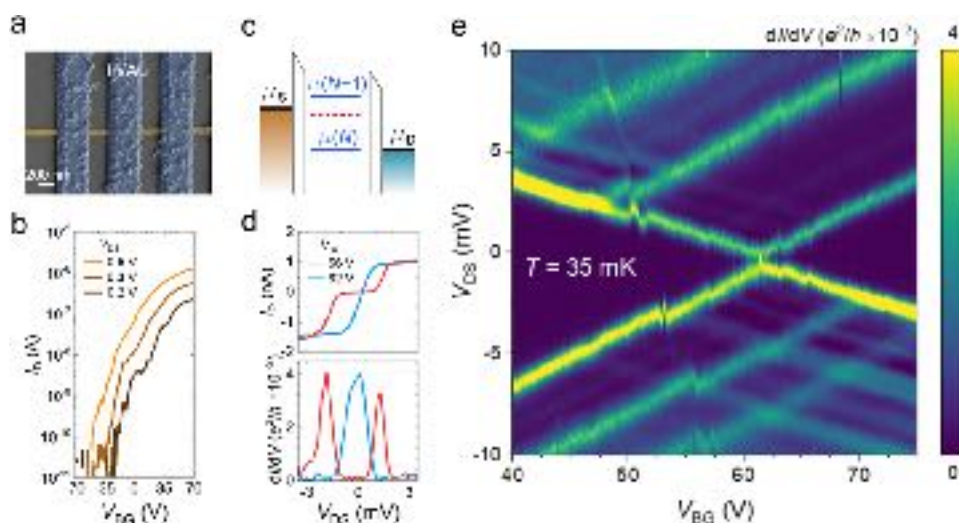


Figure 3. (a) False-color SEM image of the short-channel FET devices. The scale bar is 200 nm. (b) Typical transfer characteristics of a short-channel FET device at a temperature of 35 mK. (c) Schematic diagram of the chemical potential levels $\mu(N)$ and $\mu(N + 1)$ of a quantum dot, alongside the chemical potentials of the source and drain, μ_S and μ_D . The dashed line marks the level corresponding to a transition involving an excited state. (d) (Top) Output curves of the device revealing Coulomb staircase behavior at 35 mK, characteristic of the Coulomb blockade effect. (Bottom) Differential conductance corresponding to the Coulomb staircase in the top panel. (e) 2D color plot of the differential conductance as a function of drain–source bias V_{DS} and back-gate voltage V_{BG} , revealing the charge stability diagram of the quantum dot.

$$N = (d^2 I_{DS} / dV_{DS}^2) / (2(dI_{DS} / dV_{DS})) \quad (2)$$

A perfectly linear output curve corresponds to $N = 0$, whereas the higher nonlinearity values may indicate the presence of the non-negligible Schottky barriers. Figure 2g shows that output curves of In/Au contacts remain linear down to 5 K, whereas Cr/Au contacts exhibit linear characteristics only near room temperature and quickly become nonlinear at lower temperatures. Similarly, the nonlinearity of pure Au contacts consistently increases at temperatures below 300 K (Supporting Figure S7c). This observation is consistent with the temperature dependence of the contact resistance for In/Au and Cr/Au electrodes (Supporting Figure S5). While the contact resistance of Cr/Au–TiS₃ devices increases at low temperatures, the resistance of the In/Au contacts remains constant across the entire temperature range, confirming that carrier injection occurs via a field emission process rather than thermionic emission.

The low contact resistances provided by In/Au contacts enabled us to explore the low-temperature performance of TiS₃ NRs by measuring the charge-carrier mobility and gate-dependent conductivity down to 5 K. Figure 2h examines transfer characteristics of In–TiS₃ and Au–TiS₃ 1D devices at a temperature of 5 K. While both devices exhibit transfer curves of a typical n-type FET, In/Au contacts enable enhanced conduction and a superior ON/OFF current ratio exceeding 10^4 . We estimated the field-effect mobility in two-terminal devices and plotted the thermal evolution on a logarithmic scale in Figure 2i. Notably, the low contact resistance in In/Au devices ensures that the device performance is not limited by the contacts, as evidenced by similar characteristics observed in both two-terminal and four-terminal measurement configurations (Supporting Figure S9). At temperatures above 100 K, the electron mobility follows typical power-law behavior, $T^{-\gamma}$. At a carrier density of $3.5 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ (D1), we extracted an exponent $\gamma = 1.68$, which is higher than the $\gamma = 1.01$ obtained from the second device (D2)

at a higher carrier density of $1.2 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ (see Supporting Table 1 for device parameters). Values of $\gamma \geq 1$ indicated that the dominant limiting mechanism is scattering by optical phonons, ascribed to deformation potential and Fröhlich interaction.⁵⁶ Notably, the range of γ values is consistent with those extracted from 1D graphene NRs⁵ and flake-like 2D TiS₃ devices.⁵⁷ At lower temperatures, optical phonon scattering is suppressed, and the carrier mobility is primarily limited by scattering from acoustic phonons⁵⁸ and Coulomb interactions with impurities and atomic defects in TiS₃.^{59,60} In our devices, the electron mobility at 5 K reaches approximately $52 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ from device D1 and $97 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ from device D2. These values mark an improvement over the previous reports on TiS₃ NRs ($1.4\text{--}43 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$).^{18,26,27}

2.2. Coulomb Blockade in TiS₃ Quantum Dots.

Motivated by the low resistance of In/Au contacts, we fabricated short-channel TiS₃ devices and performed charge transport measurements at 35 mK. An SEM image of the devices with a channel length of $\sim 200 \text{ nm}$ is shown in Figure 3a (TiS₃ NR width and thickness are 97 ± 1 and $4.2 \pm 0.2 \text{ nm}$, respectively). Our short-channel TiS₃ devices retain n-type semiconducting behavior with an ON/OFF ratio $> 10^4$ (Figure 3b, Supporting Figure S10) and an electron mobility of $\sim 30\text{--}40 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at a carrier density of $5 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. At low drain–source bias (Figure 3d, top panel), the output curves reveal step-like behavior, characteristic of the Coulomb blockade effect.⁶¹ In a quantum dot with N electrons in equilibrium, transport between two states occurs when the corresponding chemical potential, $\mu(N)$, lies within the bias window defined by source (μ_S) and drain (μ_D) chemical potentials, i.e., $\mu_S \geq \mu(N) \geq \mu_D$, for at least one value of N (Figure 3c). If this condition is not met, then current flow is restricted, resulting in a Coulomb blockade. A voltage applied to a capacitively-coupled gate shifts the chemical potentials for all N equally, which may lift the Coulomb blockade, allowing single-electron tunneling.⁶¹

To confirm this transport behavior, we measured differential conductance (dI/dV) as a function of the bias voltage V_{DS} and gate voltage V_{BG} . The bottom panel in Figure 3d shows differential conductance peaks associated with the steps in the output curves (top panel, Figure 3c). Figure 3e presents a 2D color map of the gate-dependent differential conductance at 35 mK, exhibiting a series of parallel lines on both the positive and negative sides of V_{DS} , resembling a typical charge stability diagram of a semiconductor quantum dot.⁶¹ When the chemical potential of the dot is aligned with μ_S and μ_D at $V_{DS} = 0$, the electron tunneling occurs only at $V_{BG} \approx 62$ V, indicating a transition between two ground states, $GS(N)$ and $GS(N+1)$. In the low-bias regime, the dot is in the Coulomb blockade for all of the other gate voltages.

Hereafter, we focus on the high-bias window that allows us to perform energy spectroscopy of the excited states.⁶² Figure 4 illustrates a stability diagram schematic for the high-bias

regime. The black dashed lines mark two transitions involving ground states, $GS(N)$ and $GS(N+1)$, which define the Coulomb blockade regime outside the V-shaped region. The set of white dashed lines denotes the transition involving excited states such as $ES(N)$ and $ES(N+1)$. Importantly, the energy level spacing can be extracted from this level diagram. For example, tracing the $ES(N+1)$ line down until it terminates at the Coulomb blockade region yields an $\Delta E(N+1) \approx 0.8$ meV. Figure 4 reveals several excited states all exhibiting a similar spacing of 0.8–0.9 meV. For a quantum dot, the level spacing is independent of the number of electrons and can be estimated using a particle-in-a-box model where $\Delta E = \pi\hbar^2/m^*A$. Here, $\hbar$ is the reduced Planck's constant ($\hbar/2\pi$), m^* is an electron effective mass, and A is the area of the dot.⁶¹ Using $m^* = 0.4m_e$,^{44,63} we estimate the dot radius as $r \approx 8.7 \pm 0.1$ nm. In this device, the lithographically defined channel exceeds the size of the dot by an order of magnitude, suggesting that the dot likely originates from the charge inhomogeneity within the channel or is induced by a nonuniform screening effect from the substrate. Lastly, we note that the weak transitions in the tunneling region of the stability diagram may also be associated with the effects of gate bias on the contact leads.^{64,65} However, these contributions cannot be unambiguously identified in the presented device architecture.

To gain insight into the spin character of the ground state of the quantum dot, we performed magnetospectroscopy measurements under a perpendicular magnetic field. As the magnetic field (B) lifts the spin degeneracy, the Pauli exclusion principle dictates the spin filling of the ground states. Figure 5a–c exhibits an evolution of the level diagram of the quantum dot under the external magnetic field. Here, adding a spin-up electron corresponds to a transition between $GS(N)$ and $GS(N+1)$ ground states (black dashed lines). However, the addition of a spin-down electron results in a transition from ground state $GS(N)$ to excited state $ES(N+1)$, separated by the Zeeman energy $\Delta E_Z = g\mu_B B$, where g is the electron g -factor and μ_B is the Bohr magneton. At a finite magnetic field, the transition to the excited state (Figure 5b,c, white dashed line) emerges inside the tunneling region. By analyzing the linear field dependence of the energy splitting between the ground and excited states, ΔE_Z , we extracted an electron g -factor $g = 1.8 \pm 3$. Typically, the out-of-plane g -factors in vdW QDs range between 0.8 and 15.8, depending on the material system and the nature of the quantum confinement.^{66–68} Interestingly, our value is similar to the g -factor expected from a pure

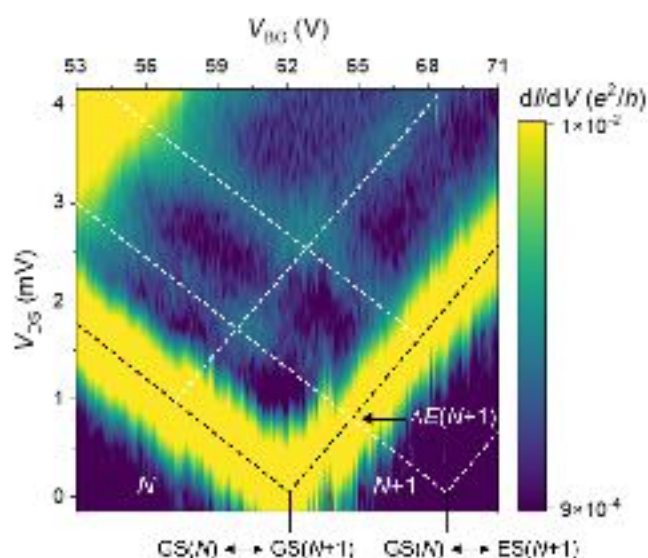


Figure 4. Charge stability diagram of the quantum dot in the positive drain–source bias window, revealing transitions involving ground states (black dashed lines) and excited states (white dashed lines). The differential conductance is plotted on a logarithmic color scale, highlighting weak transitions. The base temperature is 35 mK.

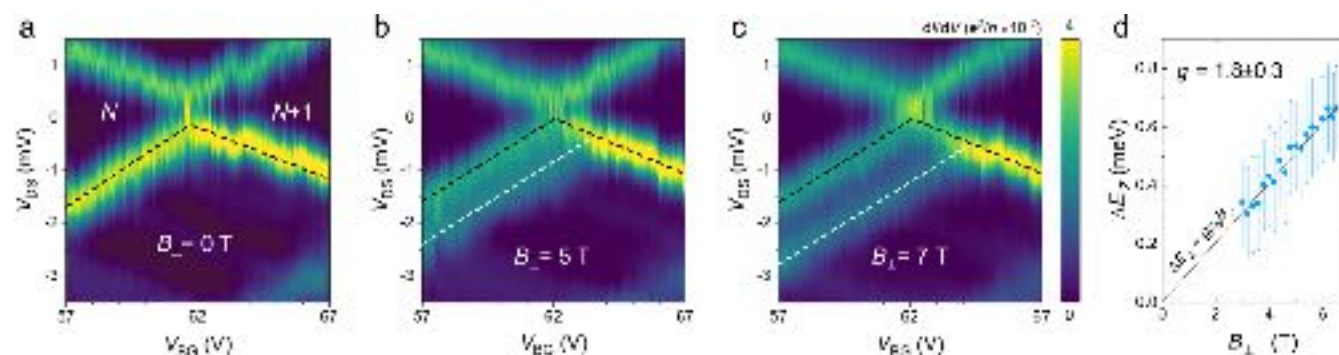


Figure 5. (a–c) 2D color maps of differential conductance at different magnetic fields: (a) $B = 0$ T, (b) 5 T, and (c) 7 T. The differential conductance at finite magnetic fields (b, c) reveals the emergence of an excited state (white dashed line) that shifts away from the ground state (black dashed line) by the Zeeman energy, ΔE_Z . (d) Zeeman energy at different magnetic fields (blue symbols) fitted with a linear function (solid black line).

spin-1/2 system, which may suggest a negligible role of other contributions to the magnetic field-dependent transport,⁶² including the quantum dot size and electric field effects.^{69,70} However, it should be noted that these effects may contribute to the total moment either additively or subtractively, depending on their nature and the direction of the magnetic field.⁶⁸ Further studies are needed to separate these effects and understand their effect on magnetic field-dependent transport in TiS_3 quantum dots.

3. CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK ON NANO-ELECTRONICS AND QUANTUM APPLICATIONS

Natural 1D confinement and resilience to edge disorder in semiconducting layered NRs like TiS_3 offer a largely unexplored platform for down-scaled electronics. However, this potential can be hindered by high contact resistance, impeding further developments. In this work, we present a route to engineer vdW electrical contacts between a 3D metal and a 1D NR, enabling detailed evaluation of the charge transport in 1D TiS_3 . Equipped with clean vdW contacts, thin and narrow NRs exhibit contact resistance as low as $2.7 \pm 0.3 \text{ k}\Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}$, ensuring ohmic characteristics for TiS_3 -based FETs at temperatures as low as 5 K. To the best of our knowledge, this is among the lowest contact resistance values reported for 1D vdW NRs. The extracted transfer length of $L_T = 100 \pm 18 \text{ nm}$ is comparable to advances in mature carbon nanotube transistor technology,⁵⁵ enabling contact down-scaling for a smaller device footprint in high-density circuits. Our theoretical calculations reveal a nondisruptive, dipole-like nature of the In– TiS_3 interface that facilitates efficient carrier injection. Throughout the 5–300 K temperature range, our FET devices demonstrate n-type conductivity, which can be actively modulated via electrostatic doping. At low temperatures, the field-effect carrier mobility reaches values up to $\sim 97 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at a carrier density of $1.2 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. These values can be further improved by reducing the scattering from atomic defects in TiS_3 and minimizing Coulomb interactions at the channel interface. The latter can be achieved by encapsulating the NRs in a dielectric, such as hexagonal boron nitride (hBN), which has shown significant performance improvements in other vdW 1D FETs.⁹ Particular emphasis must be placed on minimizing the density of the atomic defects. TiS_3 crystals are known to exhibit various defects, including sulfur vacancies that act as electron dopants and strongly alter the intrinsic carrier density.^{53,71} Furthermore, tailoring morphology from 2D nanosheets to 1D NRs is accomplished by tuning the density of sulfur vacancies during synthesis through control of the growth temperature.⁴³ Higher defect densities are associated with the 2D morphology, which may suggest a reduced impact of in-plane anisotropy in the defective TiS_3 . Further studies are needed to optimize the growth conditions for defect-free TiS_3 NRs.

Our work demonstrates the potential of TiS_3 NRs as a material platform for emerging technologies such as quantum sensing and information processing. Leveraging our high-quality contacts, we assessed quantum transport in two-probe short-channel FET devices at a temperature of 35 mK. The observed Coulomb blockade effect illustrates the proof-of-concept operation of a single-electron tunneling device within anisotropic 1D TiS_3 . We performed excited state spectroscopy and magnetospectroscopy of the ground state, extracting an electron g -factor of $g = 1.8 \pm 0.3$. While this quantum dot likely

originates from charge inhomogeneity within the channel or at the interface, further improvements in device fabrication and design modifications can lead to well-controlled quantum confinement shaped by crystal anisotropy and electrostatic fields, opening the route for high-accuracy sensing with single-electron transistors.^{72–75} Notably, our stability diagrams over an extended gate range indicate the formation of a single quantum dot within an $\sim 200 \text{ nm}$ channel. The clean stability diagrams suggest minimal contribution from edge disorder, which is often associated with uncontrollable states that significantly distort Coulomb blockade signatures.^{76,77} The high quality of the stability diagrams allowed us to perform excited state spectroscopy, identifying single-electron tunneling events that are inaccessible in disordered devices. The intrinsic in-plane anisotropy 1D TiS_3 offers structural uniformity over tens of micrometers and resilience against edge disorder, benefiting the development of quantum dot devices for quantum metrology,^{78–80} quantum tomography,^{81,82} and providing a fertile ground for engineering spin-qubit arrays⁸³ toward the realization of analog quantum simulators.⁸⁴ Moreover, the vdW surface of TiS_3 NRs offers an ideal interface for engineering heterostructures with superconductors, free from strain and charge traps, paving the way for the realization of Kitaev chains and topological quantum computing.^{85,86}

4. METHODS

4.1. Material Growth and Device Fabrication. TiS_3 crystals were grown via a self-flux process. Sulfur powder (0.96 g) and titanium wire (0.36 g) in a molar ratio of approximately 4:1 were loaded and vacuum-sealed (at 10^{-6} Torr) in a 2 mm thick quartz ampule. The sealed ampule was 23 cm long with a 16 mm outer diameter. The ampule was then heated to 750°C at a ramp rate of 60°C/h in a two-zone tube furnace, dwelt for 166 h, and cooled to $650\text{--}600^\circ\text{C}$ at a cooling rate of $0.6\text{--}0.9^\circ\text{C/h}$; then, the furnace naturally cooled to room temperature. The long whiskers of TiS_3 were extracted from the ampule and stored under inert conditions of the Ar-filled glovebox.

Bulk TiS_3 whiskers were mechanically exfoliated with tape and transferred onto the Si/SiO₂ substrate. Conventional e-beam lithography (100 kV, 800 pA) with poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) was used to define contacts and bonding pads. In/Au (5:50 nm) or Cr/Au (0.5:50 nm) metal contacts were deposited sequentially by thermal evaporation under a high vacuum ($\sim 10^{-7}$ Torr). To minimize damage to the fragile surface of TiS_3 , the sample crucible was cooled to 0°C throughout the deposition process. Deposition rates of all metals were kept at $0.1 \text{ \AA/s}$. After liftoff in MICROPOSIT 1165 remover, the devices were cleaned in acetone and ethanol and dried with Ar-gun. The entire device fabrication process was conducted inside the Ar-filled glovebox with O₂ and H₂O levels $\leq 0.1 \text{ ppm}$.

4.2. Electrical Measurements. Electrical measurements within the 300–5 K temperature range were carried out using a home-built cryogenic setup based on Janis ST500 cryostat equipped with a pulse-tube cryocooler. Two-terminal and four-terminal FET characteristics were obtained by using two Keithley 2450 source-measure units (SMUs).

Electrical measurements within the 0.035–2 K range were performed in the BLUEFORS XLD dilution refrigerator equipped with electron filters and a 9 T solenoid magnet. Device characteristics were obtained with a low-noise SPECS RC5 real-time controller, Nanonis Tramea DACs, and a Femto DLPCA-200 transimpedance amplifier.

4.3. Theoretical Calculations. DFT calculations were performed using the projected augmented wave method⁸⁷ and Generalized gradient approximation with Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof functional⁸⁸ implemented in Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package.⁸⁹ For geometry

optimizations, $\frac{30}{a} \times \frac{30}{b} \times 1$, and for static calculations, $\frac{60}{a} \times \frac{60}{b} \times 1$ Monkhorst–Pack k -points grids were used, where a and b are the in-plane lattice parameters of a supercell. For all of the calculations, 520 eV kinetic energy cutoff and Gaussian smearing method with a smearing width of 0.05 eV have been used. Geometry optimizations were performed until the force on every atom fell below 0.02 eV Å^{−1}. The energy difference in successive iterations was set to 10^{−6} eV as the self-convergence criteria. For dispersion correction, Grimme DFT-D3⁹⁰ van der Waals interaction with zero-damping function was used. Dipole correction was applied along the out-of-plane direction to eliminate the pseudointeraction of the dipole moments.

QuantumATK interface builder module⁹¹ was used to build metal–TiS₃ interfaces. For the interface design, six layers of (001)-cleaved surface of In and (111)-cleaved surface of Au were considered. To create an interface, the supercells of metal and TiS₃ surfaces were aligned first and then the strain was applied on the TiS₃ surface to match the aligned supercells. Sufficiently large supercells were designed to reduce the interface strain to below 1%. In–TiS₃ supercell consists of 108 atoms with lattice parameters of $a = b = 10.2$ Å and mean strain on TiS₃ about 0.85%. Au–TiS₃ supercell contains 112 atoms with lattice parameters $a = 5.0$ and $b = 17.1$ Å and mean strain of about 0.65%. A vacuum layer of 20 Å was inserted along the z direction to eliminate any interaction between the two periodic replicas during DFT calculations. During relaxations, the bottom three layers of the metal atoms toward the vacuum side were fixed to emulate the nature of a bulk electrode.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsnano.4c15086>.

Material characterization; additional computational results; summary of device parameters and contact resistances; further data on temperature dependence; details on devices with Au contacts; transfer length method description; comparison of 2-probe and 4-probe measurements; and stability diagram of a clean device (PDF)

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Notes

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors acknowledge Dr. FengXia Wei and Dr. Chew Li Tian for their help with XRD measurements and analysis. This research was supported by the Agency for Science, Technology, and Research (A*STAR) (#21709, C230917006, C230917007). I.A.V. and K.E.J.G. acknowledge support from a Singapore National Research Foundation Grant (CRP21-2018-0001). Y.S.A. and S.M. are supported by the Singapore Ministry of Education (MOE) Academic Research Fund (AcRF) Tier 2 Grant (MOE-T2EP50221-0019). Y. S. A. is also supported by the SMU-SUTD Joint Grant (Award No. 22-SIS-SMU-054). The computational work for this work was

partially performed on resources of the National Supercomputing Centre, Singapore (<https://www.nsc.sg>). C.S.L. acknowledges support from A*STAR MTC YIRG grant no. M21K3c0124 and MTC IRG grant no. M23M6c0103. D.H. acknowledges funding support from A*STAR Project C222812022 and MTC YIRG M22K3c0105. G.E. acknowledges support from the Ministry of Education (MOE), Singapore, under AcRF Tier 3 (MOE2018-T3-1-005) and Tier 1 (A-8001995-00-00).

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