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# Supported Pt Nanoclusters on Single-Layer MoS<sub>2</sub> for the Detection of Cortisol: From Atomistic Scale to Device Modeling

Gabriele Boschetto<sup>1</sup>, Stefania Carapezzi<sup>1</sup>, Aida Todri-Saniai<sup>1,2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Laboratory of Computer Science, Robotics, and Microelectronics, University of Montpellier, CNRS, 161 Rue Ada, 34095 Montpellier, France

<sup>2</sup>Department of Electrical Engineering, Eindhoven University of Technology, Groene Loper 3, 5612 AE Eindhoven, Netherlands

Email: [gabriele.boschetto@lirmm.fr](mailto:gabriele.boschetto@lirmm.fr); [aida.todri@lirmm.fr](mailto:aida.todri@lirmm.fr)

## Abstract

The development of non-enzymatic sensors is a challenge which requires, on the one hand, careful design of the sensing materials with respect to the chosen analyte, and on the other hand, suitable device architectures. In this work, we propose single-layer molybdenum disulfide (MoS<sub>2</sub>) decorated with sub-nanometer Pt clusters as the sensing platform for the detection of cortisol. The aim is to assess the suitability of such a sensing platform for the development of wearable and portable cortisol sensors. For this study, we performed multi-scale computer simulations at the materials level up to device scale. First, *ab initio* simulations within the framework of density functional theory (DFT) allowed us to gain insights into the interaction, at the atomic level, between the analyte (cortisol) and the sensing platform (MoS<sub>2</sub>/Pt). Then, by carrying out technology computer-aided design (TCAD) simulations, we were able to consider a device architecture and investigate its performance as cortisol sensor. Following our multi-scale simulation strategy, we were able to assess the proposed field-effect transistor (FET) sensor, whose channel is made of Pt-decorated MoS<sub>2</sub>. The sensing mechanism relies on the chemiresistive response of the device to the adsorption of cortisol on the channel, which leads to a charge transfer from the analyte to the substrate and, consequently, to the measurable shift in the gate voltage threshold of the FET. Our findings suggest that both the choice of the sensing materials and the proposed FET architecture are suitable for detecting cortisol by non-enzymatic means, as we predict a maximum theoretical gate voltage shift of 780 mV in ideal conditions. We may expect our results to provide the necessary basis to develop highly sensitive non-enzymatic cortisol sensors based on 2D materials decorated with Pt nanoclusters.

## 1 Introduction

The design and development of wearable and portable biosensors have revolutionized modern healthcare. Smart watches,<sup>1,2</sup> contact lenses,<sup>3,4</sup> skin patches and tattoos,<sup>5,6</sup> all with the capability of measuring specific biomarkers in the human body, are the outstanding result of the interplay between the discovery of novel materials and improved device architectures.<sup>7</sup> Furthermore, the ubiquitous online connectivity has also enabled the collection and post-processing of medical data both remotely and at the patient's level. This is known as the Internet of Medical Things (IoMT).<sup>8</sup>

In this context, non-invasive wearable sensors allow the continuous (self-)monitoring of the patients' health status, which plays a pivotal role in disease prevention. For instance, it is widely known that pre-symptomatic screening and early detection can greatly reduce the risk of cardiovascular diseases (CVDs),<sup>9,10</sup> the leading cause of mortality in the world.<sup>11,12</sup> Importantly, the insurgence of CVDs is often correlated with variation in blood pressure and raised levels of glucose and lipids in the blood,<sup>13,14</sup> which could all be measured. One biomarker of particular inter-

est is cortisol, a steroid hormone often associated with increased stress, which also appears to have a correlation with CVDs and, more generally, with a compromised immune state.<sup>15,16</sup> There exists a host of detection techniques dedicated to cortisol sensing, such as surface plasmon resonance,<sup>17</sup> chromatographic and optical sensing based on immunoassays,<sup>18</sup> and electrochemical sensors.<sup>19</sup> Mainly, such techniques involve the use of sophisticated equipment, available only in diagnostic laboratories. Although these provide high-sensitivity, they are expensive and experienced users are necessary to carry out the measurements, which generally require long time. Thus, these techniques are not suitable for point-of-care (POC) applications, and there is the need to develop simple and cheap POC miniaturized devices, with undemanding sample preparation and assaying. It is then no surprise that in recent years considerable effort has been devoted to the development of non-invasive wearable and portable cortisol sensors.<sup>20–25</sup> In this regard, chemiresistive sensors could very well provide a valid solution.<sup>26–28</sup> The sensing principle of such devices is the change of conductivity of the device channel, due to the surface adsorption of the chosen analyte.

To develop highly sensitive chemiresistive sensors, the proper choice of the sensing material, which will constitute the device channel, is crucial. For instance, two-dimensional (2D) materials have recently attracted significant interest for their desirable me-

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chemical, electrical, and optical properties, and because of their inherent reduced dimensionality,<sup>29,30</sup> which allows the fabrication of very compact and flexible devices. Among 2D materials, single-layer molybdenum disulfide ( $\text{MoS}_2$ ) has been widely explored for the fabrication of field-effect transistor (FET) sensors due to its direct band gap of  $\sim 1.8$  eV, good carrier mobility, and chemical stability.<sup>31–34</sup> However, the bare material is usually not suitable to be used in a sensing device, as it lacks chemical selectivity. To overcome such a limitation, common strategies include surface functionalization with antibodies and/or enzymes (enzymatic sensing),<sup>35–37</sup> and surface engineering via doping, decoration with metal nanoparticles, and purposeful generation of defects (non-enzymatic sensing).<sup>38–40</sup> The latter approach offers several advantages, such as easier fabrication, higher stability, faster response, and the possibility to finely tune the properties of the sensing platform. On the other hand, the mechanism of interaction between the analyte and the sensing platform is not always clear, even more with a relatively large molecule as cortisol (if compared to smaller common biomarkers like glucose and dopamine). Thus, understanding the analyte/substrate interaction is the first necessary step for the design and fabrication of high performing sensing devices.

In this work, we investigate by means of multi-scale computer simulations single-layer  $\text{MoS}_2$  decorated with sub-nanometer Pt nanoparticles as the sensing platform for cortisol, to assess the feasibility of such a non-enzymatic sensing approach. First, we carry out density functional theory (DFT) simulations to thoroughly predict and assess the interaction, at the atomic level, between supported Pt nanoclusters of increasing size and the target analyte. Then, as a proof of concept we use the results obtained with DFT to simulate by technology computer-assisted design (TCAD) a  $\text{MoS}_2$  FET as the chemiresistive sensor for cortisol detection. We do so to probe the chemiresistive effect upon cortisol adsorption on the device channel. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time such a multi-scale simulation approach has been employed to investigate  $\text{MoS}_2$  chemiresistors for the detection of cortisol. On the one hand, first-principles simulations with DFT have been proven extremely useful to study the analyte/substrate interaction.<sup>41–45</sup> On the other hand, device simulations are an invaluable tool to grasp device operation and to assist for its optimization. In this regard, industry-level TCAD technique is particularly attractive for its robustness, possibility to perform multi-physics simulations, and efficiency in terms of computational time. TCAD tools are commercial software suites which allow to apply finite elements analysis calculations to solve the partial differential equations describing device physics. TCAD is suitable to simulate electrical transport of devices in diffusive regime, that is when drift-diffusion (DD) equations apply.<sup>46</sup> This is mostly the case in sensor devices.<sup>47,48</sup>

This paper is organized as follows: the following section (Simulation Details) will focus on describing the setup of our multi-scale DFT-TCAD simulations, together with the models employed. In Results and Discussion, we present and discuss our simulation results on decorated  $\text{MoS}_2$ , its interaction with cortisol, and the device response. The final section contains the Conclusions.

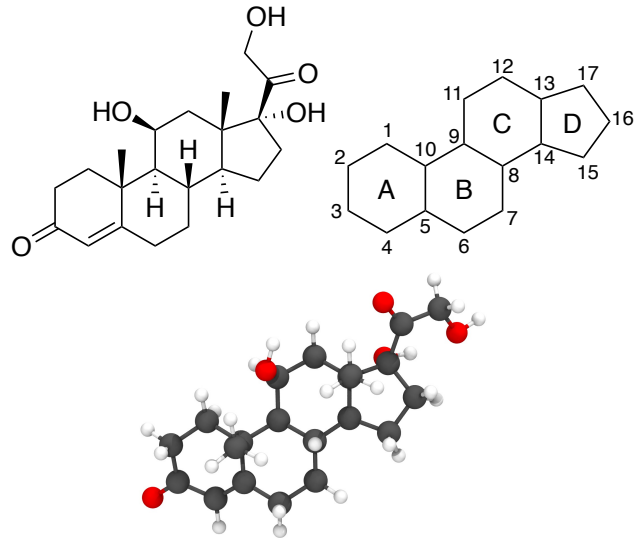


Figure 1: Chemical structure of cortisol, together with its C atom numbering and ring labelling. Its optimized structure at the DFT level is also shown.

## 2 Simulation Details

### 2.1 Materials Modeling with DFT

In this work, we explored the interaction between cortisol and sub-nanometer Pt nanoclusters (NCs) supported on single-layer  $\text{MoS}_2$ . The structures of the NCs were taken from the work of Shi and co-authors,<sup>49</sup> who carried out a combined experimental and theoretical study to accurately determine the atomic structure of supported Pt NCs on  $\text{MoS}_2$ . Here, we considered  $\text{Pt}_n$  clusters of increasing size, with  $n = 9, 13, 16, 20$ . Then, we placed cortisol above each of the four NCs, focusing on the reactivity of its carbonyl group attached to the ring A (see Figure 1). We chose this group as its good reactivity was already reported in the literature,<sup>50–52</sup> and our previous studies<sup>53</sup> also corroborated this. As our simulations were carried out in periodic boundary conditions, we ensured that the simulation cells were large enough to avoid any spurious interaction of cortisol with its periodic images: thus, we constructed an orthorhombic  $8 \times 4 \times 1$   $\text{MoS}_2$  supercell with at least  $15 \text{ \AA}$  of vacuum padding in the out-of-plane direction. Such a simulation cell corresponds to a surface area of  $\sim 5.5 \times 10^{-14} \text{ cm}^2$  and a nanoparticle density of roughly  $1.8 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ , in line with the experimental findings of Shi et al.<sup>49</sup> For each NC, we tested different adsorption sites, as shown in Figure 2: two vertices (A and C), one edge site (B), and one site at the centre of the largest NC (D). Then, the structures were fully relaxed with no constraints, and their stability was assessed by computing the adsorption energy ( $E_{\text{ads}}$ ). We defined this quantity as:

$$E_{\text{ads}} = E_{\text{a+b}} - (E_{\text{a}} + E_{\text{b}}) \quad (1)$$

where  $E_{\text{a+b}}$  is the total energy of the  $\text{MoS}_2/\text{Pt}_n/\text{cortisol}$  system, whereas  $E_{\text{a}}$  and  $E_{\text{b}}$  are the total energies of the isolated fragments (that is, cortisol and  $\text{MoS}_2/\text{Pt}_n$ ). As we used localized orbitals (details of which will be given shortly), we took into account the

basis set superposition error (BSSE) by including the counterpoise correction<sup>54</sup> in our total energy calculations.

Computer simulations were carried out at the DFT level by using QuantumATK T-2022.03<sup>55,56</sup> atomic-scale modelling software. We carried out all simulations in vacuum using the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) exchange-correlation functional,<sup>57</sup> and we modelled core electrons by using norm-conserving pseudopotentials from the PseudoDojo library.<sup>58</sup> We used localized orbitals within the LCAO (Linear Combination of Atomic Orbitals) formalism with a density-mesh cut-off of 200 Ry, and we used the QuantumATK-optimized Medium basis set for geometry optimizations. The High basis set was used for single-point and properties calculations. To take into account dispersion effects, we employed the D2 correction by Grimme.<sup>59</sup> A  $\mathbf{k}$ -point mesh defined by a  $2 \times 2 \times 1$  Monkhorst-Pack (MP) grid<sup>60</sup> was used throughout our simulations, whereas for computing the density of states (DOS) we chose a  $4 \times 4 \times 1$  MP grid. All geometry optimizations were converged with residual atomic forces no larger than  $0.03 \text{ eV/\AA}$ . To compute net atomic charges, we chose to employ the electron density partitioning scheme of the DDEC6 method with the CHARGEMOL program.<sup>61</sup> The DDEC6 method has the advantage to provide chemically meaningful charges that are independent of the basis set type and size, as opposed to the widely used Mulliken population analysis.<sup>62,63</sup>

As we were interested in assessing a non-enzymatic sensing platform, and as in our simulations we assumed the direct contact between cortisol and the supported Pt nanoclusters, we proposed a back-gated MoS<sub>2</sub> FET as a proof-of-concept device (see Figure 3). Results obtained with DFT in terms of charge transfer were used as the input for the following TCAD device simulations. The total charge on the MoS<sub>2</sub> channel before and after the adsorption of cortisol was the key quantity to assess the device chemiresistive response.

## 2.2 Device Modeling with TCAD

We used Synopsys Sentaurus Device<sup>64</sup> as drift-diffusion (DD) simulation engine. The geometry of our simulated MoS<sub>2</sub> FET sensor is shown in Figure 3. The monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub> (thickness 0.6 nm) sits on top of a SiO<sub>2</sub> substrate (thickness 10 nm). The MoS<sub>2</sub> channel is  $1\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  long. Source and drain contacts are on top of the MoS<sub>2</sub>/Pt<sub>n</sub> channel, whereas a back-gate contact is located at the bottom of the oxide layer. The size of the channel ensures that a large number of scattering centers are present therein, and we can assume that the electrical conduction is correctly described by scattering-dominated DD charge transport.<sup>65,66</sup>

The following DFT-calculated material parameters for monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub> have been used as input for our TCAD simulations: band gap  $E_g = 1.78 \text{ eV}$ , electron affinity  $\chi = 3.9 \text{ eV}$ , effective relative permittivity  $\epsilon_r = 3.54$ , electron effective mass  $m_e = 0.51 m_0$  and hole effective mass  $m_h = 0.59 m_0$ , with  $m_0$  being the free electron mass. The SDevice Multivalley 2D density-of-states (DOS) model has been used (option `dospower = 1`) to account for the impact of strong geometric confinement over energy dependence of DOS in monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub>. For the sake of simplicity, the contacts have been considered Ohmic and no contact resistance has been included. We point out that this has been achieved

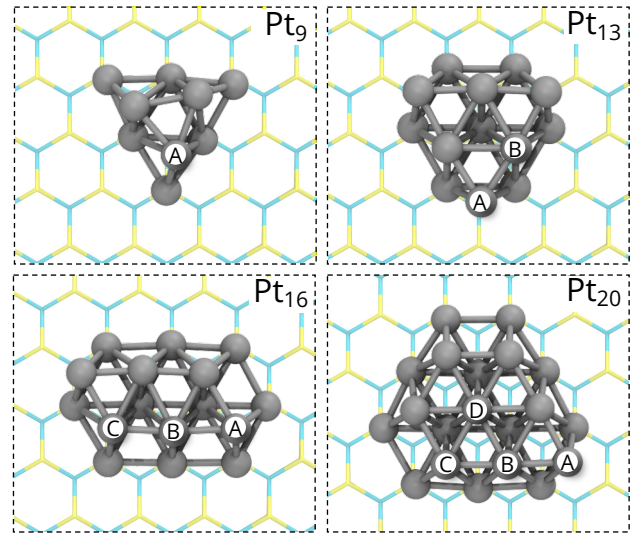


Figure 2: Optimized structures of the four Pt<sub>n</sub> NCs ( $n = 9, 13, 16, 20$ ) supported on MoS<sub>2</sub> considered in this study. Geometry optimizations were carried out at the PBE-D2 level. For each cluster, the tested adsorption sites for the adsorption of cortisol are also marked: two vertex sites (A and C), one edge site (B), and one site at the centre of the largest cluster (D).

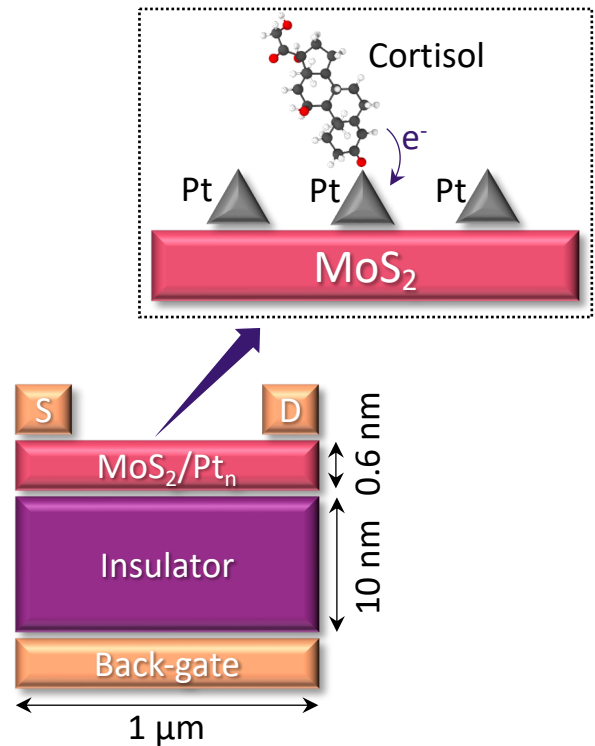


Figure 3: Schematics of the 2D simulated MoS<sub>2</sub> back-gate FET sensor device (not to scale). An uniform n-doping of the MoS<sub>2</sub> channel is considered to take into account the effect of charge transfer from the Pt clusters to MoS<sub>2</sub>. Similarly, the additional cortisol-to-MoS<sub>2</sub> charge transfer is treated as a corresponding increased value of the doping density.

with semi-metal Bi contacts on MoS<sub>2</sub>, as experimentally demonstrated in a recent work.<sup>67</sup> Finally, we have assumed the electron mobility to have the constant value of 200 cm<sup>2</sup>/(V·s), which is in the range of experimental and theoretically calculated values of MoS<sub>2</sub> mobilities.<sup>68,69</sup>

We have simulated with TCAD the net charge on decorated MoS<sub>2</sub>, with and without the presence of cortisol, as equivalent to the variation of n-doping. This allowed us to simulate the response of the device before and after the adsorption of cortisol. A similar approach has been already used to mimic the effect of NO<sub>2</sub> gas adsorption on carbon nanotube FET.<sup>47,48</sup> However, in that case the doping was extracted *ex-post* by calibrating the TCAD simulations with experimental data, whereas in the present case we have constructed a multi-scale modeling approach. The n-doping was obtained from the DFT-computed net charge on decorated MoS<sub>2</sub> with and without the presence of cortisol. The conversion of DDEC charges into equivalent n-doping ( $N$ ) was made via the following equation:

$$N = \frac{\Delta Q_{\text{MoS}_2}}{A \cdot h}, \quad (2)$$

where  $\Delta Q_{\text{MoS}_2}$  is the net charge on MoS<sub>2</sub> before (after) the adsorption of cortisol,  $A$  is the surface area of MoS<sub>2</sub> given by the DFT simulation cell ( $5.5 \times 10^{-14}$  cm<sup>2</sup>, as mentioned above), and  $h$  is the thickness of MoS<sub>2</sub>, here taken as 0.6 nm.

### 3 Results and Discussion

The aim of this work is to investigate supported Pt nanoclusters of increasing size on single-layer MoS<sub>2</sub> for the non-enzymatic detection of cortisol. To do so, we first focus on the sensing material, that is Pt-decorated MoS<sub>2</sub>. By carrying out DFT simulations, we elucidate how the presence of Pt nanoclusters affects the electronic properties of the material. Then, we look at the adsorption mechanism of cortisol on decorated MoS<sub>2</sub>, and we predict the material's response to the presence of the analyte by computing the amount of charge transfer. Finally, to test our proposed sensing strategy involving the chemiresistive mechanism, we use the DFT-computed charges to carry our TCAD device simulations on MoS<sub>2</sub> FET sensors.

#### 3.1 Properties of MoS<sub>2</sub> Decorated with Pt Nanoclusters

In this section, we focus on the structural, electronic, and charge-transfer properties of metal-decorated MoS<sub>2</sub>. Our aim is to understand how decorating the material with small Pt clusters may affect its properties. This part of the work allows us to assess the suitability of the chosen sensing platform, that is, single-layer MoS<sub>2</sub> decorated with sub-nanometer Pt NCs of increasing size: Pt<sub>9</sub>, Pt<sub>13</sub>, Pt<sub>16</sub>, and Pt<sub>20</sub>. As already mentioned, the structure of each NC was validated both experimentally and theoretically.<sup>49</sup>

Following full relaxation of the atomic coordinates, we found no significant distortion of the MoS<sub>2</sub> structure upon decoration with Pt NCs, with the only exception of a limited out-of-plane

bending in the proximity of the contact area. We found the average separation distance between MoS<sub>2</sub> and Pt NCs to range between 2.05 and 2.16 Å, suggesting a rather strong MoS<sub>2</sub>/Pt<sub>*n*</sub> interaction. To corroborate this, we computed the adsorption energy ( $E_{\text{ads}}$ ) of each NC on MoS<sub>2</sub>, and to make results comparable among clusters of different size we scaled  $E_{\text{ads}}$  per contact Pt atom. In addition, we decomposed such a quantity into its dispersion and electrostatic contributions. Our results suggest that, on average,  $E_{\text{ads}}$  decreases with the increase of the number of Pt atoms in contact with the MoS<sub>2</sub> support: we found -1.47 eV/atom, -1.60 eV/atom, -1.41 eV/atom, and -1.37 eV/atom for Pt<sub>9</sub>, Pt<sub>13</sub>, Pt<sub>16</sub>, and Pt<sub>20</sub>, respectively. In addition, we could also observe that dispersion forces account for at least 35% of the total adsorption energy, with such a contribution becoming stronger with respect to the size of the NC (up to 39% of the total adsorption energy with Pt<sub>20</sub>). These results suggest that smaller Pt clusters might provide a more stable sensing platform with respect to larger nanoparticles, as the interaction between Pt and MoS<sub>2</sub> appears to grow weaker with the size of the metal cluster. Although we cannot certainly claim this to be a trend given the small number of Pt clusters considered in this work, we point out that similar results highlighting the impact of the size of Pt clusters on the adsorption energies were also found in systems with graphene as the support.<sup>70-72</sup>

The strong interaction between Pt NCs and MoS<sub>2</sub> is expected to lead to some charge transfer. Therefore, we computed net atomic charges with the DDEC method, and we found that, for each of the systems here considered, Pt clusters always act as the electron-donating species. Quantitatively, we found a non-negligible net charge transfer ( $\Delta Q$ ) of 0.31  $|e|$ , 0.33  $|e|$ , 0.39  $|e|$ , and 0.43  $|e|$  for Pt<sub>9</sub>, Pt<sub>13</sub>, Pt<sub>16</sub>, and Pt<sub>20</sub>, respectively. Here, the size effect is evident, with the total amount of negative charge transferred from Pt clusters to the MoS<sub>2</sub> support steadily increasing with respect to the dimension of the NCs. It is worth noting that in our previous work, we found the amount of charge transfer from cortisol to bare MoS<sub>2</sub> to be only a small fraction of such values.<sup>53</sup>

To better understand the impact of the presence of Pt clusters on the electronic properties of MoS<sub>2</sub>, we also computed the density of states (DOS) of each of the four MoS<sub>2</sub>/Pt<sub>*n*</sub> systems. We projected this quantity on MoS<sub>2</sub> only, and we compared it against the DOS of pristine single-layer MoS<sub>2</sub>, as shown in Figure 4. From the DOS, it is evident that Pt clusters induce n-type doping on MoS<sub>2</sub>, as the Fermi level of the material gets shifted closer to its conduction band. This correlates with the extra negative charge present on the surface of MoS<sub>2</sub> due to the presence of Pt clusters. Aside from such a doping effect, we note that the shape of the DOS is not significantly affected, indicating that MoS<sub>2</sub> still maintains its intrinsic properties. However, we could observe the presence of weak mid-gap states which become more delocalized and spread throughout the material's band gap with the increase of the clusters size. This suggests the weak metallization of MoS<sub>2</sub>, at least with the larger Pt clusters.

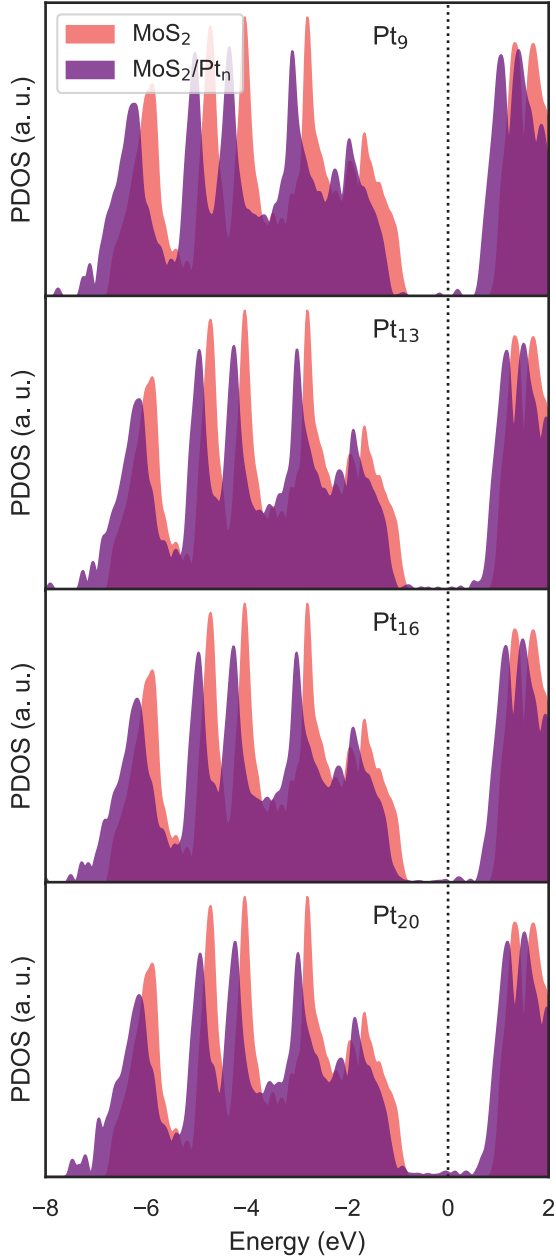


Figure 4: Density of states (PDOS) of the four  $\text{MoS}_2/\text{Pt}_n$  systems, projected on  $\text{MoS}_2$  only and compared against the pristine material. The plots are centered around the Fermi level of the systems, and were obtained with a Gaussian smearing of 0.05 eV.

Table 1: Adsorption energies (in eV) computed via DFT of cortisol on the different adsorption sites of the Pt clusters considered in this work. To compute adsorption energies, the presence of the  $\text{MoS}_2$  support was taken into account. Values in parentheses refer to the dispersion contribution towards the total adsorption energies.

Ads. site	$E_{\text{ads}}$ (eV)			
	$\text{Pt}_9$	$\text{Pt}_{13}$	$\text{Pt}_{16}$	$\text{Pt}_{20}$
Vertex (A)	-3.53 (-0.96)	-2.95 (-1.35)	-3.78 (-1.79)	-2.98 (-2.14)
Edge (B)	-	-3.07 (-1.59)	-3.43 (-1.65)	-3.63 (-2.10)
Vertex (C)	-	-	-2.89 (-1.00)	-3.00 (-1.31)
Center (D)	-	-	-	-2.66 (-1.42)

### 3.2 Adsorption Mechanism

Following the assessment of the  $\text{MoS}_2/\text{Pt}_n$  sensing platform, we now discuss the adsorption mechanism of cortisol on supported Pt NCs by investigating adsorption energies and structural changes in the analyte.

We first focused on finding the most energetically favorable adsorption conformation of cortisol on supported  $\text{Pt}_n$ . As mentioned in the previous section, we only considered the carbonyl group of cortisol attached to ring A and we tested different adsorption sites on the surface of the NCs (see Figure 2). For each site, we computed the corresponding adsorption energy, which can be found in Table 1. In addition, to better understand the nature of the analyte/substrate interaction, we were able to decompose the total adsorption energy into its dispersion and electrostatic contributions. From Table 1 it is possible to observe that  $E_{\text{ads}}$  ranges between roughly -2.7 and -3.8 eV, a range of values compatible with chemisorption. Indeed, it is evident that for each system there exists a non negligible attractive electrostatic contribution, as that given by dispersion forces is lower than the total  $E_{\text{ads}}$ . We also note that, on average, the attractive electrostatic contribution appears to become weaker with the increase of the size of the NC, suggesting that with larger NCs dispersion may eventually become the main driving force for adsorption. This could potentially be beneficial for the device reusability, as it might be easier to desorb the cortisol molecule from the nanoparticle to reset the device. Finally, from  $E_{\text{ads}}$  it is clear that cortisol binds more favorably to  $\text{MoS}_2/\text{Pt}_9$  and  $\text{MoS}_2/\text{Pt}_{16}$  on the vertex site (A), whereas the edge site (B) is preferred with  $\text{MoS}_2/\text{Pt}_{13}$  and  $\text{MoS}_2/\text{Pt}_{20}$ . Therefore, from now on we will focus only on such systems, whose optimized geometries are shown in Figure 5.

From the structural point of view, our results show that cortisol interacts with each NC synergistically via both its C=O and C=C groups. As already discussed, the analysis of  $E_{\text{ads}}$  suggests chemisorption to occur, and therefore we would expect the structure of cortisol and/or that of the NCs to be significantly affected once the adsorption event takes place. Indeed, this appears to be the case, as we observed by thoroughly investigating the variation of bond lengths and the formation of chemical bonds in the systems (see Figure 6). As can be seen, the Pt-O bond length ranges between 2.06 and 2.31 Å, with the shorter bond occurring with  $\text{Pt}_9$ . Also, it is evident from the same figure that one single Pt atom strongly interacts with both C4 and C5 of cortisol: for each of the supported NCs, we found a non negligible displacement of

the Pt atom interacting with C=C of cortisol, as the atom moves towards the analyte molecule. The Pt-C bond length ranges between 2.13 and 2.30 Å. Interestingly, we also observed a significant weakening of both C=O and C=C bonds of cortisol upon chemisorption, whose computed values in the isolated molecule were 1.24 Å and 1.36 Å, respectively. Pt<sub>9</sub> is the cluster that causes the most significant increase in C=O bond length, which increases from 1.24 Å to 1.32 Å. This may explain the higher electrostatic attraction force computed for cortisol on Pt<sub>9</sub>. Following, is Pt<sub>16</sub> with a C=O bond length of 1.29 Å, and then are Pt<sub>13</sub> and Pt<sub>20</sub> in which the bond length was found to be 1.27 Å. A similar increase of the bond length was observed also for C=C, which varied from 1.36 Å to 1.43-1.45 Å. On a final note, we point out that we did not observe any significant variation of the average MoS<sub>2</sub>/cluster distance upon adsorption of cortisol, suggesting the stability of the MoS<sub>2</sub>/Pt<sub>n</sub> sensing substrate.

Overall, given the magnitude of  $E_{\text{ads}}$  and the non negligible change in bond lengths, we would expect a significant charge redistribution to occur upon cortisol adsorption.

### 3.3 Charge Transfer and Charge Redistribution

In this part, we focus on the electronic and charge-transfer effects in cortisol interacting with the MoS<sub>2</sub>/Pt<sub>n</sub> substrate.

We computed net atomic charges ( $\Delta Q$ ) by means of the DDEC6 method, and to spatially visualize the charge redistribution, we also computed the electron density difference (EDD) map for each of the four systems here considered. We found that the substrate acts as the charge acceptor, as in each case we obtained a positive net charge on the cortisol molecule, as can be seen in Table 3. From a quantitative point of view, we observed the net amount of charge transferred to increase with respect to the size of the NC, as the net positive charge on cortisol ( $\Delta Q_{\text{cor}}$ ) increases from +0.14  $e$  with Pt<sub>9</sub> up to +0.22-0.24  $e$  for larger NCs. Similarly, we observed the negative charge on MoS<sub>2</sub> ( $\Delta Q_{\text{MoS}_2}$ ) to increase, from -0.37  $e$  per unit cell with Pt<sub>9</sub> up to -0.52  $e$  with Pt<sub>20</sub>.

By looking at the EDD maps in Figure 7, it is also possible to observe that charge redistribution occurs mainly in the proximity of the contact area between the ring A of cortisol and the Pt NC, with very little or no contribution coming from the analyte’s backbone and tail. Moreover, we also note that the charge rearrangement appears to become more spatially localized with larger NCs, and this is particularly evident when comparing the EDD map of cortisol on Pt<sub>9</sub> against that of cortisol on Pt<sub>20</sub>. Locally, the situation is more complex, as we found cortisol to possess both charge donating and attracting units. Thus, we selected few relevant atoms in the proximity of the bond between cortisol and Pt clusters, and we computed partial charges before ( $\Delta Q_i$ ) and after ( $\Delta Q_f$ ) adsorption. The results are shown in Table 2, from which it is possible to observe that O and C4 atoms both lose a significant amount of charge, and thus strongly contribute to the net charge loss of cortisol. On the other hand, C3 and C5 both gain some charge, and this is particularly evident in the case of Pt<sub>9</sub>.

To sum up, our results suggest that, upon adsorption on Pt clusters, cortisol induces an extra amount of charge on MoS<sub>2</sub>, whose

Table 2: Net atomic charges of selected atoms of cortisol, computed by means of the DDEC6 method.  $\Delta Q_i$  and  $\Delta Q_f$  are the atomic charges before and after adsorption on the substrate, respectively.

Atom	$\Delta Q_i (e)$	$\Delta Q_f (e)$
Pt <sub>9</sub>		
O	-0.485	-0.347
C3	+0.439	+0.362
C4	-0.307	-0.245
C5	+0.136	+0.079
Pt <sub>13</sub>		
O	-0.485	-0.382
C3	+0.439	+0.427
C4	-0.307	-0.245
C5	+0.136	+0.097
Pt <sub>16</sub>		
O	-0.485	-0.345
C3	+0.439	+0.396
C4	-0.307	-0.237
C5	+0.136	+0.097
Pt <sub>20</sub>		
O	-0.485	-0.390
C3	+0.439	+0.416
C4	-0.307	-0.237
C5	+0.136	+0.100

Table 3: Net charge transfer ( $\Delta Q$ ) computed on each of the fragment of the investigated systems: MoS<sub>2</sub> ( $\Delta Q_{\text{MoS}_2}$ ), Pt NCs ( $\Delta Q_{\text{Pt}}$ ), and cortisol ( $\Delta Q_{\text{cor}}$ ).

System	$\Delta Q_{\text{MoS}_2} (e)$	$\Delta Q_{\text{Pt}} (e)$	$\Delta Q_{\text{cor}} (e)$
Pt <sub>9</sub>	-0.37	+0.23	+0.14
Pt <sub>13</sub>	-0.41	+0.25	+0.16
Pt <sub>16</sub>	-0.49	+0.25	+0.24
Pt <sub>20</sub>	-0.52	+0.30	+0.22

magnitude increases with respect to the size of the cluster. This indicates that, if employing MoS<sub>2</sub> decorated with Pt NCs as the channel in FET sensors, larger nanoparticles may be beneficial in order to boost the response of the device. This occurs because such an extra charge induces an additional doping on the device channel, thus leading to a potentially measurable variation of the FET sensor characteristics. To assess the response of a model FET device, and to validate our proposed sensing mechanism, we then carried out device TCAD simulations.

### 3.4 Chemiresistive Response of MoS<sub>2</sub> FET Sensors

Here, we discuss our 2D TCAD simulations of electrical transport in MoS<sub>2</sub> back-gate FET to evaluate the range of possible responses of such devices to cortisol adsorption. As proof of concept, we consider only the two limiting cases: MoS<sub>2</sub> decorated with the smallest (Pt<sub>9</sub>) and the largest (Pt<sub>20</sub>) NCs. It is worth noting that, in both cases, we assumed the same cluster density of  $1.8 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ , arising from our DFT simulations. The DFT-calculated charge transfer from Pt clusters to MoS<sub>2</sub> is emu-

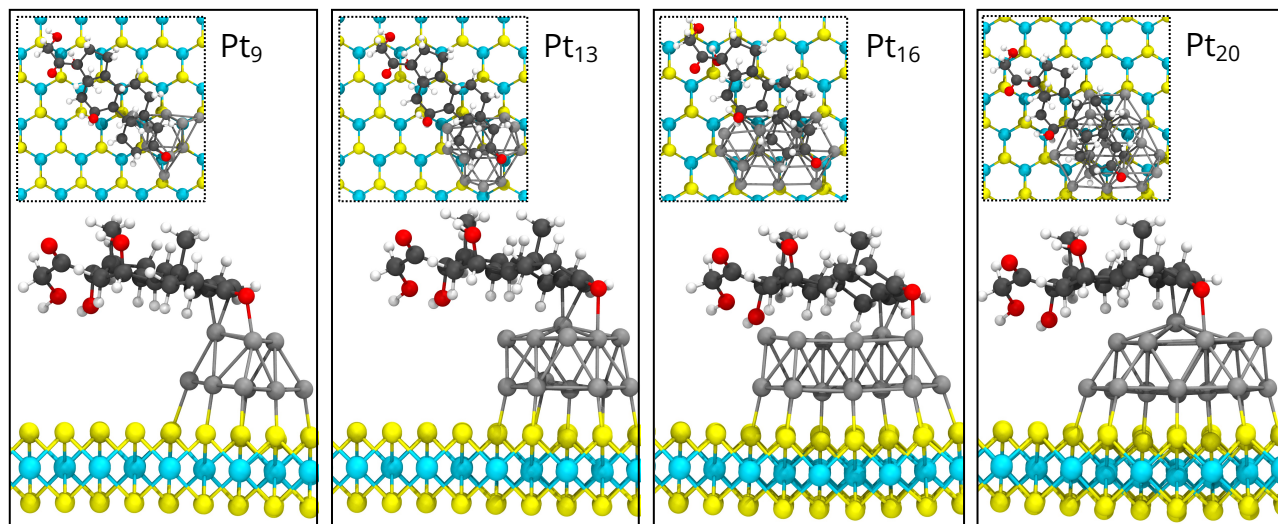


Figure 5: Optimized structures at the PBE-D2 level of cortisol on top of each of the four Pt clusters considered in this work. Here, only the four selected most energetically favored systems are shown.

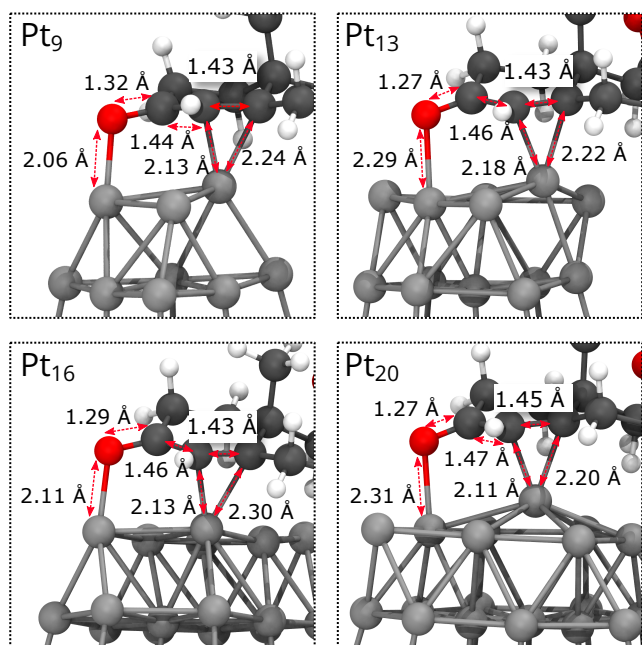


Figure 6: Bond lengths of cortisol in the proximity of the adsorption site with the Pt NCs.

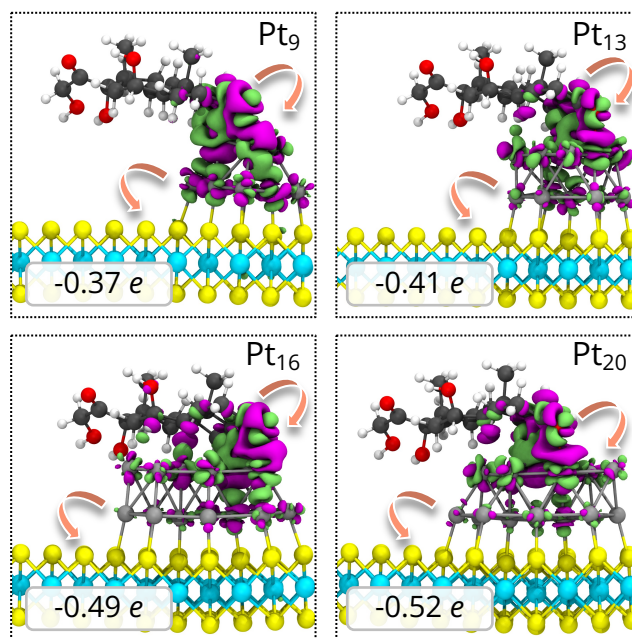


Figure 7: Electron density difference (EDD) maps of cortisol adsorbed on  $\text{MoS}_2/\text{Pt}_n$ . The color magenta corresponds to electron depletion, whereas color green to electron enrichment; isovalue  $0.002 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^3$ . The total net computed charge on  $\text{MoS}_2$  is also shown.



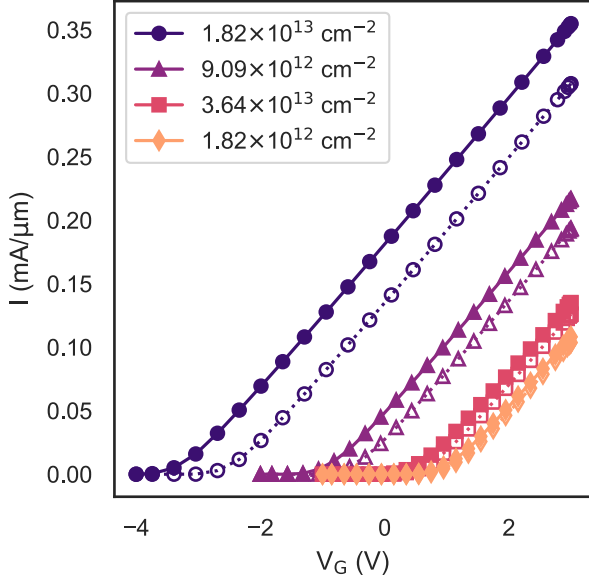


Figure 8: Simulated response characteristics of MoS<sub>2</sub> back-gate FET sensor device, whose channel is decorated with Pt<sub>20</sub> clusters. The circle, triangle, square, and diamond markers correspond to decreasing Pt cluster densities of  $1.82 \times 10^{13}$ ,  $9.09 \times 10^{12}$ ,  $3.64 \times 10^{12}$  and  $1.82 \times 10^{12}$  cm<sup>-2</sup>, respectively. Curves with empty markers represent the pristine device (i.e., with the MoS<sub>2</sub>/Pt<sub>20</sub> channel), whereas the curves with full markers represent the device with all the Pt NC sites occupied by cortisol molecules.

lated in TCAD simulations through n-type doping of the channel:  $9.08 \times 10^{19}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> for Pt<sub>9</sub>, and  $1.26 \times 10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> for Pt<sub>20</sub>. Similarly, the increase of charge transfer induced by the adsorption of cortisol on the substrate is considered as n-doping of  $1.08 \times 10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> for Pt<sub>9</sub>, and of  $1.52 \times 10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> for Pt<sub>20</sub>. The reader is referred to Simulation Details for more information on how such doping values were obtained.

Figure 8 shows the simulated response characteristics of a FET device decorated with Pt<sub>20</sub> clusters, before (empty markers) and after (full markers) cortisol adsorption. We point out that in the latter, a full occupancy of each Pt cluster by cortisol is assumed, due to the setup of DFT simulations. It can be observed that the analyte binding to the MoS<sub>2</sub> channel, mediated by the Pt NCs, produces a significant horizontal shift in the transfer characteristics of the devices as well as a vertical shift in current ( $\Delta I$ ) for any given value of gate voltage ( $V_G$ ). Such a large threshold voltage shift (780 mV) can be easily measured experimentally, suggesting that the sensing approach proposed in this work could be very well suitable for detecting cortisol. However, we note that we are considering an ideal case in which the density of Pt NCs is rather high and with all the possible sites occupied. We expect a decrease of such a response with lower cluster densities. To assess this, we varied the density of the Pt clusters by rescaling the doping value obtained with DFT by a larger surface area. Here, we assumed that the amount of charge transferred from a single cortisol/Pt<sub>n</sub> unit to MoS<sub>2</sub> remains constant when increasing

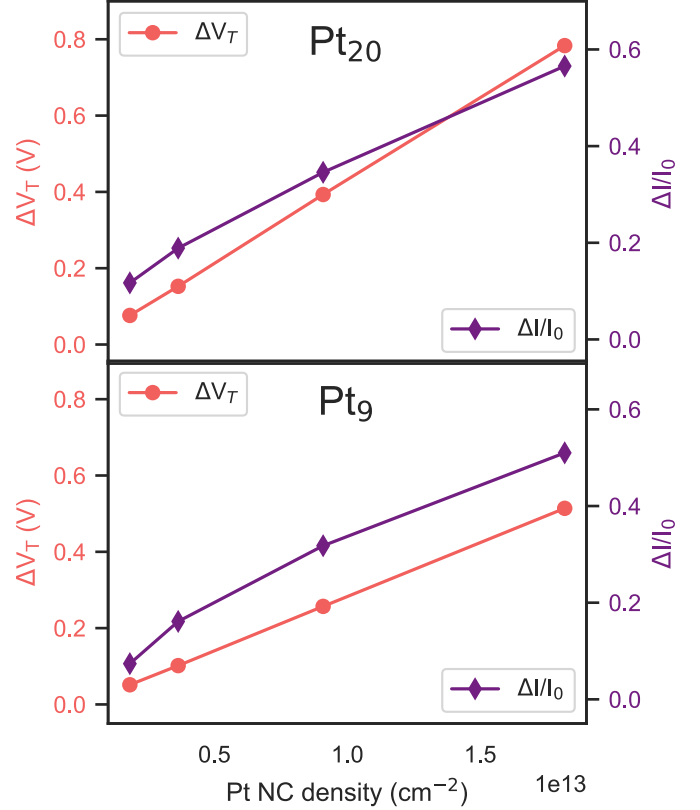


Figure 9: Typical metrics to assess the response of the simulated sensors to the analyte: the shift in threshold voltage ( $\Delta V_T$ ) and the normalized change in current ( $\Delta I/I_0$ ). These are shown for the MoS<sub>2</sub> FET decorated with Pt<sub>20</sub> (top plot), and Pt<sub>9</sub> (bottom plot).  $\Delta I/I_0$  is calculated for values of current at  $V_G$  of -1.0 V and -0.3 V with Pt<sub>20</sub> and Pt<sub>9</sub>, respectively.

the DFT simulation cell. This assumption is justified by having already simulated a large enough simulation cell, so that the interaction between periodic images of units of cortisol/Pt<sub>n</sub> can be considered negligible (see Simulation Details). More specifically, we considered MoS<sub>2</sub> surface areas 2, 5, and 10 times larger, leading to NC densities of  $9.09 \times 10^{12}$  cm<sup>-2</sup>,  $3.64 \times 10^{12}$  cm<sup>-2</sup>, and  $1.82 \times 10^{12}$  cm<sup>-2</sup>, respectively. Indeed, from Figure 8 we can observe the gate threshold voltage shift to decrease with respect to the NC density, up to 76 mV. We did not take into account lower NC densities, as this would lead to a gate threshold voltage shift below 76 mV. Such a low value would be of difficult detection under real device operation, due to intrinsic noise.

Figure 9 shows the variation of typical figures of merit<sup>73</sup> that we have extracted from our simulations: the shift in threshold voltage ( $\Delta V_T$ ) and the normalized change in current ( $\Delta I/I_0$ ), set that  $I_0$  is the initial current. Once again, we obtained such quantities from simulated curves at different cluster densities in MoS<sub>2</sub> decorated with Pt<sub>20</sub> and Pt<sub>9</sub>. As expected,  $\Delta V_T$  is larger in MoS<sub>2</sub> decorated with the largest NCs, and this holds true for any cluster density here considered. However,  $\Delta I/I_0$  is little affected by the size of the Pt cluster decorating the channel, and overall it ranges from  $\sim 10\%$  up to  $\sim 50\%$ .

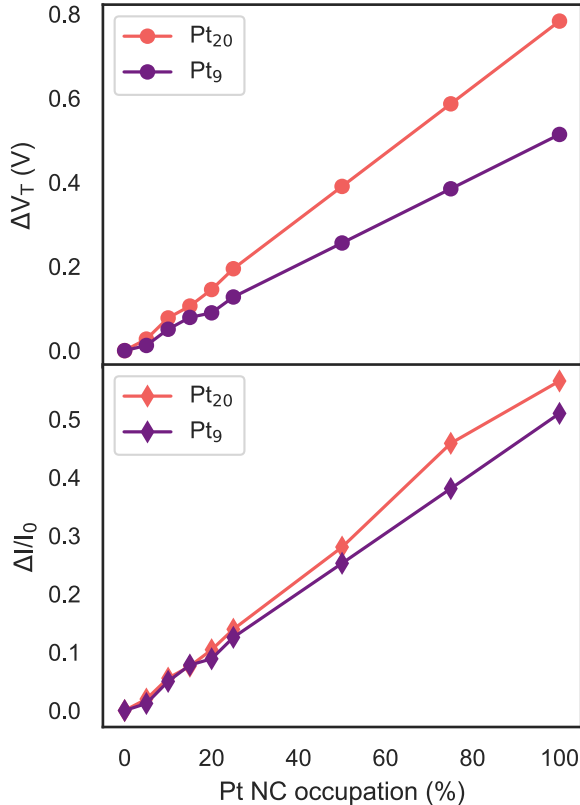


Figure 10:  $\Delta V_T$  (top plot) and  $\Delta I/I_0$  (bottom plot) against the percentage of NCs bound to cortisol, for devices decorated by both Pt<sub>20</sub> and Pt<sub>9</sub>. The TCAD simulations are performed considering the maximum NC density of  $1.8 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ .

Finally, we considered the device with a cluster density of  $1.8 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$  (i.e., that resulting from our previous DFT simulations), and we simulated the variation of occupancy of Pt<sub>20</sub> and Pt<sub>9</sub> NCs by cortisol molecules. To do so, we computed the difference between the net charge on the MoS<sub>2</sub> channel (which translates into doping) before and after the adsorption of cortisol (i.e., 0% and 100% occupancy, respectively): we assumed this value to be the maximum amount of extra charge (additional doping) due to the adsorption of cortisol. The equivalent doping densities due to partial occupancies were obtained by adding fractions of such an additional doping to the value of doping only due to the presence of Pt clusters. Results on sensors metrics are shown in Figure 10. One can observe that, with the Pt<sub>20</sub>-decorated device,  $\Delta V_T$  ranges from about 27 mV at 5% occupancy up to 780 mV at 100% occupancy, indicating that at smaller Pt NCs occupancies the device response may get lost in the noise. For the device decorated with Pt<sub>9</sub> clusters, we found  $\Delta V_T$  to range from 12 mV at 5% occupancy up to 510 mV at 100% occupancy. Clearly, this is due to the limited amount of extra doping induced by the smaller clusters, further corroborating that larger Pt clusters might aid in the improvement of the device sensitivity. Correspondingly, we found the normalized change in current to vary, for both systems, from  $\sim 2\%$  up to  $\sim 50\%$ .

## 4 Conclusions

In conclusion, we were able to combine atomistic and device simulations with DFT and TCAD, which allowed us to successfully bridge the gap between materials properties and device physics. Our multi-scale simulation approach revealed that there exists a non-negligible chemical/physical interaction between cortisol and MoS<sub>2</sub> decorated with small sub-nanometer Pt clusters, thus making this material suitable as the channel in FET sensors.

### 4.1 Analyte and Sensing Material Interaction

At the materials' level, we found Pt clusters to strongly bind to the MoS<sub>2</sub> support, suggesting the stability of the sensing platform. In addition, we observed that decorating the 2D material with Pt clusters leads to the Pt-to-MoS<sub>2</sub> electron transfer, thus inducing n-type doping on MoS<sub>2</sub>. We then explored the interaction between cortisol and supported Pt clusters, and we found that, from the structural point of view, the analyte binds to the NCs via both its carbonyl and C=C groups, causing a non-negligible decrease of both bond lengths. Also, our results suggest the occurring of chemisorption, which leads to the charge transfer from cortisol to the Pt clusters and the MoS<sub>2</sub> support. We were able to quantify the amount of charge transferred, and we used such values as starting point for our device simulations.

### 4.2 Proof-of-Concept Device Performance

At the device level, we simulated a FET sensor whose channel is MoS<sub>2</sub> decorated with Pt nanoclusters. By translating the net charge on MoS<sub>2</sub> before and after the adsorption of cortisol into additional n-type doping, we were able to assess and simulate

the device response. Indeed, we found that the presence of cortisol leads to a non-negligible shift of the FET threshold voltage, which could easily be measured. We assessed the performance of the device by extracting typical figures of merit, such as the variation of gate threshold voltage ( $\Delta V_T$ ) and the normalized change in current ( $\Delta I/I_0$ ), with respect to: i) the density per unit area of Pt clusters and ii) the percentage of their occupancy by cortisol molecules. Our simulations showed that decreasing the NC density, as expected, leads to smaller values of  $\Delta V_T$  to the point that the device sensitivity is limited by the unavoidable noise. This shows that the concentration of Pt clusters on MoS<sub>2</sub> needs to be carefully considered, in order to avoid any loss of sensitivity. Similarly, we found lower percentages of Pt NCs occupancies to also lead to a smaller device response.

### 4.3 Outlook and Challenges

Here, we stress that the simulations that we have carried out in this work are based on two main assumptions, among others: that there are no other interferents in the sample, and that cortisol only binds to Pt clusters and does not adsorb on MoS<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, our results represent the maximum theoretical device response that can be achieved with this type of materials and architecture. Clearly, in a real device we expect such effects to significantly complicate both performance and response, as these are highly complex problems. Nevertheless, the first assumption is justified by the scope of our paper: to investigate the suitability of the chosen sensing platform (i.e., Pt nanoclusters deposited on single-layer MoS<sub>2</sub>) towards the non-enzymatic detection of cortisol, as the development of non-enzymatic sensors is still a great challenge. Furthermore, cortisol binds more strongly to Pt clusters (chemisorption) rather than to MoS<sub>2</sub> (physisorption), and this justifies our second assumption. We hope our results can lay the necessary theoretical foundation for the development of novel point-of-care cortisol sensors based on metal-decorated 2D materials.

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