



# Synergistic Sulfur Vacancy and Neodymium(Nd) Doping Enable Switchable Saturable Absorption/Reverse Saturable Absorption in Molybdenum Disulfide Nanosheets at Near-Infrared

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## Abstract

This study overcomes the near-infrared (NIR) limitation of MoS<sub>2</sub> through a synergistic strategy of incorporating sulfur vacancies (V<sub>S</sub>) and neodymium (Nd<sup>3+</sup>) doping. Hydrothermally synthesized Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets exhibit a drastically reduced optical bandgap from 1.28 eV to 0.45 eV, a doubling of photoluminescence (PL) intensity, and a newly acquired nonlinear optical (NLO) response at 1064 nm. This approach enables intensity-dependent switching between saturable absorption (SA) and reverse saturable absorption (RSA), while also enhancing the RSA effect at 532 nm. Femtosecond transient absorption spectroscopy and density functional theory (DFT) calculations reveal that the synergy between Nd<sup>3+</sup> energy levels and V<sub>S</sub> defect states shortens the carrier trapping time ( $\tau_1$ ) to 1.2 ps and prolongs the non-radiative recombination lifetime ( $\tau_2$ ) to 84.8 ps. This process drives a shift in the NLO mechanism from ground-state to excited-state absorption, underpinning the novel NIR RSA effect. The work provides critical insights for designing advanced NIR photonic devices such as optical limiters and switches.

**Keywords:** Sulfur vacancy; Neodymium (Nd) doping; Nonlinear optical (NLO) materials; Molybdenum disulfide (MoS<sub>2</sub>); SA-to-RSA switching.

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## 1. Introduction

The study of nonlinear optical (NLO) materials is one of the key factors driving the continuous development of optoelectronic technology. These materials have broad application prospects in fields such as pulse laser generation, optical limiting, multi-photon pumping lasers, and optoelectronic detection.<sup>[1]</sup> The NLO absorption effect, which refers to the property of a material's absorption coefficient changing with the incident light intensity, is the core physical mechanism for realizing the above-mentioned functionalities. Among various NLO materials, two-dimensional (2D) materials exhibit great application potential due to their unique electronic structures and optical properties.<sup>[2]</sup> Among them, 2D Transition Metal Dichalcogenides (TMDCs) materials (such as MoS<sub>2</sub>) have attracted significant attention in nanoelectronics and optoelectronic devices due to their

broadband tunable optical bandgap ( $E_g$ ) ranging from several eV to sub-eV through modification. As a typical TMDCs material, the 2H phase of MoS<sub>2</sub> exhibits significantly better thermodynamic stability compared to the 1T and 3R phases, and has become a research focus.<sup>[3-5]</sup> Its intrinsic  $E_g$  ranges from 1.28 to 1.98 eV, enabling efficient absorption of the most energetic visible light portion (400-700 nm) in the solar spectrum. However, this intrinsic  $E_g$  severely limits its ability to absorb light in the near-infrared (NIR) region with wavelengths > 1000 nm.<sup>[6,7]</sup> In the NIR region (e.g., 1064 nm, photon energy ~1.16 eV), the photon energy is lower than the  $E_g$  of the material and cannot effectively excite intrinsic electronic transitions, resulting in a significant decrease in single-photon response efficiency. This limitation hinders its application in NIR optoelectronic devices.<sup>[8]</sup> Therefore, overcoming the intrinsic  $E_g$  limitation of 2H-MoS<sub>2</sub> and enhancing its NIR response capability are crucial for improving its practical applicability.

In recent years, many studies have shown that introducing atomic-scale defects, such as sulfur vacancies (V<sub>S</sub>), grain boundaries, or dislocations, during the preparation of MoS<sub>2</sub> can effectively modify the band structure and

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introduce defect energy levels, thereby optimizing carrier separation behavior and enhancing light-matter interactions, ultimately improving its optical properties.<sup>[9]</sup> Additionally, the ion doping strategy not only preserves the regulation effect of defects but also introduces unique electronic transitions, further broadening the light absorption range and promoting carrier separation. Rare earth element doping can introduce new energy levels within the  $E_g$  of intrinsic materials. These levels can effectively capture photons, enhance the generation efficiency of photogenerated carriers, modify the electronic structure, and improve the optoelectronic properties of the intrinsic material. Therefore, due to their rich energy level structures and unique electronic properties, rare earth elements have become ideal dopants for optimizing the performance of optoelectronic materials.<sup>[10,11]</sup> For example, rare earth neodymium ( $\text{Nd}^{3+}$ ) doping has been shown to significantly enhance the fluorescence properties of  $\text{SrTiO}_3$  nanoparticles,<sup>[12]</sup> influence the light absorption characteristics of ZnO films,<sup>[13]</sup> and greatly increase the carrier concentration and mobility of CuO films.<sup>[14]</sup> Therefore, developing precise strategies for the synergistic regulation of defect engineering and doping is essential for improving the NIR optoelectronic performance of  $\text{MoS}_2$ .

The strategies for modulating the electronic structure of  $\text{MoS}_2$  mainly include physical, chemical, and combined regulation methods.<sup>[15,16]</sup> Although physical regulation (such as through strain fields or electric fields) allows for non-destructive and reversible tuning, its effectiveness is limited by intrinsic material parameters (such as deformation potential and exciton binding energy). Chemical regulation, especially element doping, provides an effective approach for atomic-level precise modulation of the electronic structure by altering the material's atomic composition and chemical environment. Among various synthesis methods, the hydrothermal method has demonstrated unique potential in the controlled preparation of  $\text{MoS}_2$  and its doped systems, due to its mild reaction conditions, environmental friendliness, and scalability. Although theoretical and experimental studies on rare earth-doped  $\text{MoS}_2$  have made progress, systematic research on defect engineering in Nd-doped  $\text{MoS}_2$  ( $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$ ) prepared via the hydrothermal method, particularly its effects on carrier dynamics and nonlinear optical properties, remains limited. Therefore, achieving enhanced NLO performance and improving its application potential in optoelectronic devices through the regulation of  $\text{MoS}_2$  defect structure combined with synergistic rare earth element doping still presents a

significant challenge.

In this work,  $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$  nanosheets were synthesized via a one-step hydrothermal method, and the synergistic regulation mechanism of  $V_S$  and  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  doping on the defect structure, optical  $E_g$ , photoluminescence (PL), NLO properties, and photocarrier dynamics in  $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$  nanosheets was systematically investigated. The results show that due to the presence of  $V_S$ , the optical  $E_g$  of the hydrothermally synthesized  $\text{MoS}_2$  nanosheets is significantly reduced from the theoretical value of 1.28 eV to 0.75 eV. After  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  doping, the optical  $E_g$  of the  $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$  nanosheets is further narrowed to 0.45 eV, effectively extending the light response and operational wavelength range of  $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$ . PL measurements indicate that the emission intensity of the  $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$  nanosheets is twice that of the undoped  $\text{MoS}_2$ . Under a wavelength of 532 nm, open-aperture (OA) Z-scan tests reveal that both  $\text{MoS}_2$  and  $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$  nanosheets exhibit an intensity-dependent transition in nonlinear absorption (NLA) from saturable absorption (SA) to reverse saturable absorption (RSA), with  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  doping significantly enhancing the RSA effect. The integration of femtosecond transient absorption spectroscopy and first-principles (DFT) calculations demonstrates that the synergistic coupling between the discrete energy levels introduced by  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  and the  $V_S$  defect states shortens the carrier trapping time ( $\tau_1$ ) to 1.2 ps and prolongs the non-radiative recombination lifetime ( $\tau_2$ ) to 84.8 ps. This synergistic effect governs the transition of the NLA mechanism from ground-state absorption to excited-state absorption (ESA), while specifically promoting RSA effects in the NIR spectral region. This study demonstrates that  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  doped  $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$  nanosheets exhibit promising potential for NIR optoelectronic applications, including ultrafast lasers (SA), optical limiters (RSA), all-optical switches (SA/RSA switching), and phase modulators.

## 2. Experimental methods

### 2.1 Materials

High-purity (99.9% purity) chemicals, such as molybdenum trioxide ( $\text{MoO}_3$ ), thiourea ( $\text{CH}_4\text{N}_2\text{S}$ ), thioacetamide ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{NS}$ ), urea ( $\text{CO}(\text{NH}_2)_2$ ), and ethanol ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ ), were purchased from Aladdin. All reagents were of analytical grade and used without further purification.

### 2.2 Synthesis of $\text{MoS}_2$ nanosheets

3.4 g  $\text{MoO}_3$ , 2.4 g  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{NS}$ , 0.6 g  $\text{CH}_4\text{N}_2\text{S}$ , and 2 g urea were dissolved in 80 mL deionized water and stirred for 1 h to obtain mixed solution  $W_1$ . The mixed solution was then transferred to a 100 mL stainless steel autoclave liner and subjected to hydrothermal treatment at 200°C for 12 h. After natural cooling for 4 h, the precipitate was collected and

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centrifugally washed three times each with deionized water and anhydrous ethanol (using a fixed 8000 rpm speed to avoid vacancy differences caused by centrifugation) to remove surface impurities and adsorbed ions. Finally, freeze-drying was performed to obtain MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheet powder with uniform particle size.

### 2.3 Synthesis of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets

To the prepared W<sub>1</sub> solution from Section 2.2, 0.005 g of NdCl<sub>3</sub> was added and stirred at room temperature for 1 h. The mixture was then transferred to a 100 mL stainless steel autoclave liner and subjected to hydrothermal treatment at 200 °C for 12 h. After natural cooling for 4 h, the precipitate was collected. Finally, Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheet powder was obtained through centrifugation, washing, purification, and freeze-drying. The preparation flowcharts for both MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheet powders are shown in Fig. S1.

### 2.4 Characterizations

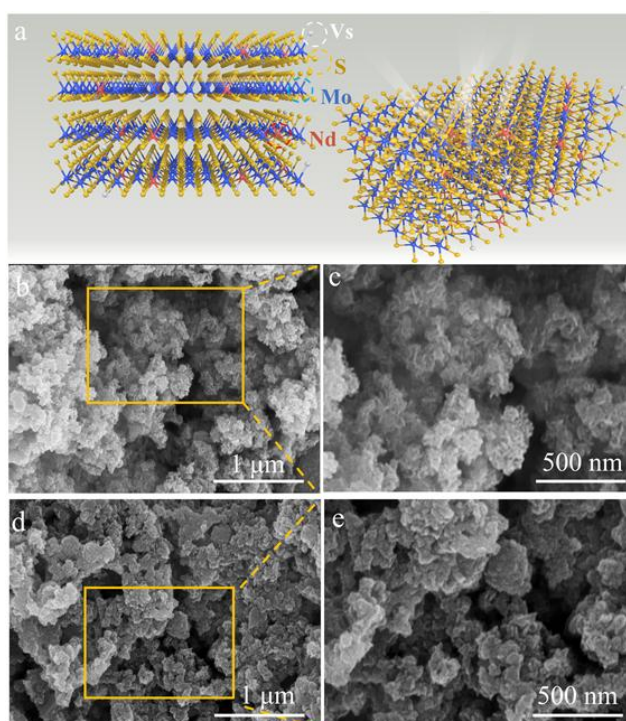
The morphology and structure of the samples were analyzed using field emission scanning electron microscopy (SEM, S-3400N, Japan), atomic force microscopy (BRUKER, HARI-200-10), and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, Tecnai 12). The chemical composition of the samples was analyzed using an X-ray diffractometer (XRD, D8 ADVANCE, Bruker, Germany) and an InVia Reflex Raman spectrometer. The UV-visible absorption spectra of the samples were measured using a UV-visible spectrophotometer (UV-1800, Japan). PL intensity was tested using a fluorescence spectrometer (FL980). NLO properties of the samples were observed using a PL2250 picosecond laser, Nd:YAG laser system. Samples

were dissolved in N,N-dimethylformamide solution and injected into a 2 mm path length quartz cuvette. Laser wavelengths used were 532 nm (sample transmittance 43%) and 1064 nm (sample transmittance 67%), with a pulse width of 30 ps, a beam waist radius of 23 mm, a Rayleigh length of 3.12 mm, and an excitation frequency of 10 Hz. A femtosecond laser ( $\approx 400$  nm,  $\approx 3.1$  eV photon energy) was used as the pump beam, and white light as the probe beam to measure transient absorption spectra.

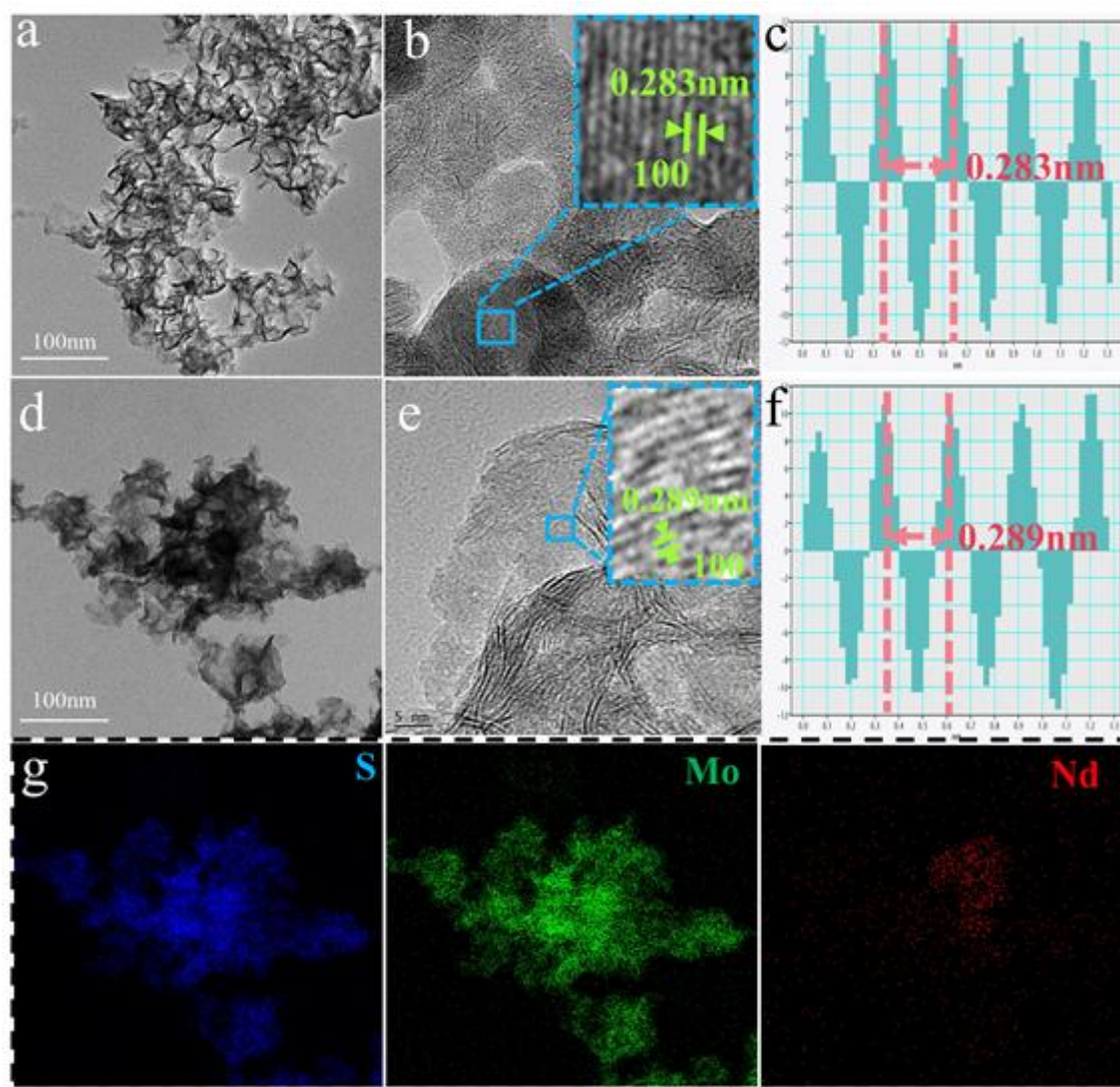
### 3. Results and discussion

Fig. 1(a) shows the atomic models of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets containing Vs and Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping prepared by hydrothermal method from different angles. SEM images reveal that MoS<sub>2</sub> consists of nanosheets assembled into a flower-like structure (Fig. 1b and 1c), while Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> forms a spherical structure composed of nanosheets (Fig. 1d and 1e),<sup>[17]</sup> which is attributed to the alteration of the assembly structure of layered MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets due to rare earth Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping. Energy Dispersive X-ray Analysis (EDX) shows that MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets contained approximately 2% Vs (Fig. S2a), whereas Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets not only retain a similar Vs concentration ( $\sim 2\%$ ) but also successfully incorporate 2% Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping (Fig. S2b). The atomic force microscope (AFM) shows that the radius of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets is approximately 200 nm (Fig. S3a and Fig. S3b). The thickness profile diagram indicates that the thickness of the nanosheets is approximately 2.4 nm (Fig. S3c and Fig. S3d), suggesting that the number of layers of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets is approximately 4 layers.

Fig. 2 presents the TEM images of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub>



**Fig. 1:** (a) Schematic atomic configurations of the Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> crystal structure from different angles. (b, c) SEM images of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets with different magnification. (d, e) SEM images of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets with different magnification.

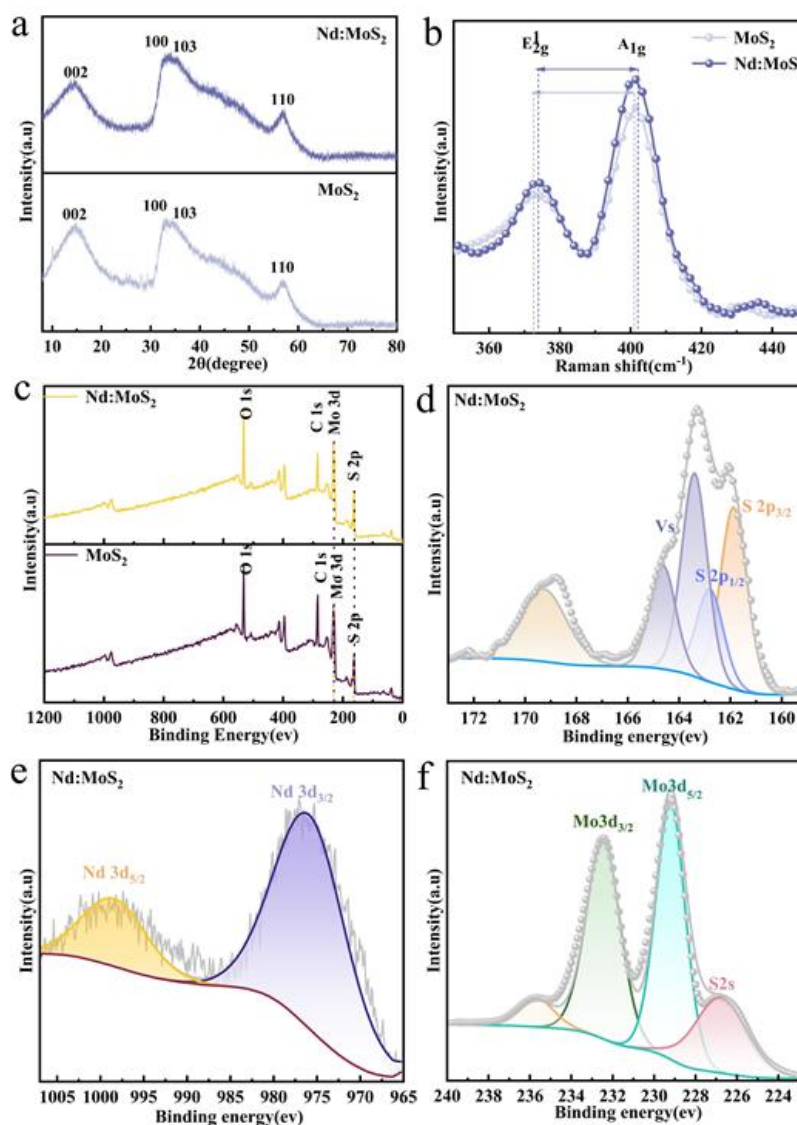


**Fig. 2:** (a, b) TEM and HRTEM images of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, with the blue box indicating a magnified view of the lattice fringes. (c) Lattice fringe spacing diagram of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. (d, e) TEM and HRTEM images of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, with the blue box indicating a magnified view of the lattice fringes. (f) Lattice fringe spacing diagram of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. (g) EDS mapping of Mo, S, and Nd elements in the Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets corresponding to image (d).

nanosheets. As can be seen from Figs. 2(a-c), MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets exhibit a layered structure and have clear lattice fringes with a lattice spacing of approximately 0.283 nm, which corresponds to the (001) plane of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. From Figs. 2(d-f), it can be observed that the morphology of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets has changed compared to that of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. However, Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> still has clear lattice fringes, and the lattice spacing has increased to 0.289 nm. This may be due to the fact that the atomic radius of Nd is larger than that of Mo, and the doping causes lattice distortion, changing the average distance between adjacent atoms and thereby slightly expanding the entire crystal structure.<sup>[18]</sup> Energy Dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) spectroscopy analysis reveals that Mo, S, and Nd elements are uniformly distributed in the Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, further confirming the successful

doping of Nd ions (Fig. 2g). From the electron diffraction (SAED) patterns, both MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets exhibit diffraction spots corresponding to the (110) and (100) crystal planes, indicating that both types of nanosheets possess excellent crystalline structures (Fig. S4a and S4b).

Fig. 3(a) shows the XRD diffraction patterns of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. It can be seen that the characteristic peaks appear at 14.28°, 34.18° and 57.2°, corresponding to the (002), (100), and (110) crystal planes of MoS<sub>2</sub>, respectively.<sup>[19,20]</sup> Among them, the (002) crystal plane belongs to the interlayer diffraction along the c-axis direction, reflecting the periodicity of the S-Mo-S layered stacking and their interlayer distance, indicating that the MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets possess a good layered structure. The (100) crystal plane is perpendicular to the c-axis and belongs to the a-b plane diffraction, showing the atomic arrangement within the MoS<sub>2</sub>



**Fig. 3:** (a) XRD diffraction patterns of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. (b) Raman spectra of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. (c) XPS survey spectra of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. (d-f) High-resolution core-level XPS spectra of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets: (d) S 2p orbital, (e) Nd 3d orbital, and (f) Mo 3d orbital.

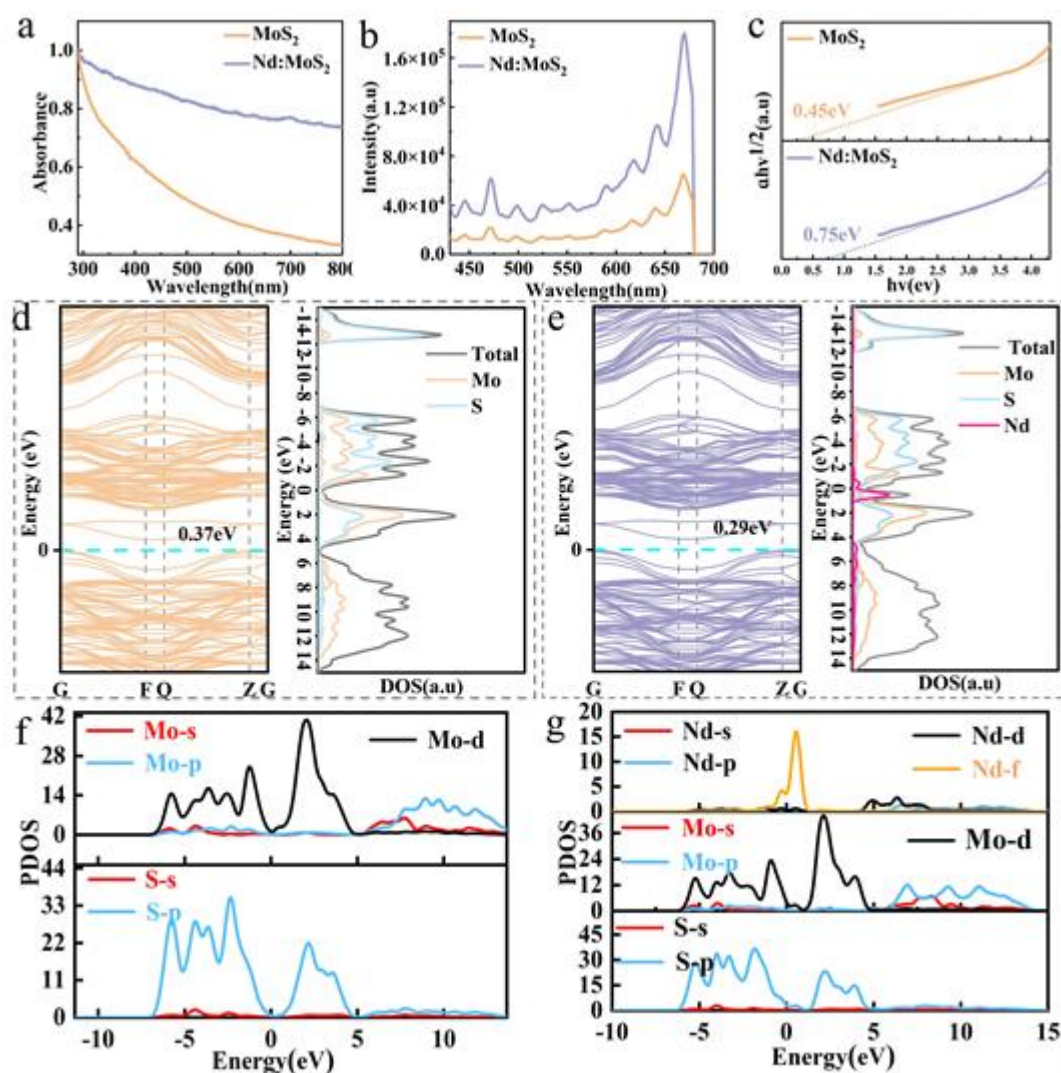
monolayer, which is a repeating unit of S-Mo-S along the a-axis direction. This is consistent with the TEM and SEAD results (Fig. 2 and Fig. S4). Therefore, the 2H phase MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets with a hexagonal crystal structure were successfully synthesized by the hydrothermal method in this study. Compared with MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, the XRD diffraction peaks of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets do not show significant changes, indicating that the Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping has not changed the crystal structure of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. The Nd atoms are present in MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets in a substitutional doping manner.<sup>[21]</sup> For the MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, two typical characteristic peaks appear at 373.69 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 400.47 cm<sup>-1</sup>, corresponding to the E<sub>2g</sub> and A<sub>1g</sub> vibrations, respectively (Fig. 3b). Among them, the E<sub>2g</sub> peak is due to the symmetric stretching vibration of the Mo-S bonds, that is, the Mo atom and S atom perform symmetric stretching movements within the a-b plane. The A<sub>1g</sub> peak originates from the out-of-plane symmetric vibration of the S atoms (along the

c-axis direction), that is, the two layers of S atoms move in opposite directions along the direction perpendicular to the a-b plane, while the Mo atoms remain stationary. These are characteristic peaks of the 2H phase MoS<sub>2</sub> in the hexagonal crystal structure.<sup>[22]</sup> Compared to MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, the Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets exhibit E<sub>2g</sub> and A<sub>1g</sub> vibrational peaks at 373.76 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 401.03 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, showing a redshift phenomenon. This is attributed to p-type doping occurring during the growth of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub>. Due to the similar electronegativity and small difference in atomic radius between Mo and Nd, Nd tends to substitute for Mo in the lattice. Since Nd ions are cations and MoS<sub>2</sub> itself is an n-type semiconductor (with free electrons in the conduction band), the doping of Nd<sup>3+</sup> introduces holes (*i.e.*, positive charge carriers), thereby shifting the Fermi level downward toward the top of the valence band. This change imparts p-type doping characteristics to the material, induces lattice distortion in the

hexagonal structure, and increases the carrier concentration due to hole injection. Here,  $S^{2-}$  acts as an acceptor, while the donor  $Nd^{3+}$  induces tensile stress, reducing electron-phonon scattering. In summary,  $Nd^{3+}$  doping causes charge and strain changes in  $Nd:MoS_2$  nanosheets, leading to the redshift phenomenon. This result is consistent with previous studies on p-type doping via Nb doping in  $MoS_2$ .<sup>[23]</sup>

Fig. 3(c-f) and Fig. S5 present the XPS spectra of  $MoS_2$  and  $Nd:MoS_2$  nanosheets. In the S core-level spectra of both  $MoS_2$  and  $Nd:MoS_2$  nanosheets (Fig. 3d, Fig. S5a), characteristic peaks are observed at approximately 163.52 eV and 164.8 eV, corresponding to bridging disulfide-type sulfur ( $S_2^{2-}$ ) or unsaturated  $V_S$ , further confirming the presence of  $V_S$  in both materials.<sup>[23]</sup> In addition, the S 2p spectrum of  $MoS_2$  exhibits a doublet at 161.97 eV (S 2p<sub>3/2</sub>) and 163.1 eV (S 2p<sub>1/2</sub>), which is attributed to the  $S^{2-}$  species in the basal plane of  $MoS_2$ . Notably, the S 2p characteristic peaks (S 2p<sub>3/2</sub> and S 2p<sub>1/2</sub>) of

$Nd:MoS_2$  nanosheets shift toward lower binding energies compared to those of pure  $MoS_2$  (Table S1). Similarly, the XPS spectrum of  $Nd:MoS_2$  (Fig. 3e) clearly shows Nd characteristic peaks at 975.86 eV and 998.43 eV, further confirming the successful doping of  $Nd^{3+}$ . Fig. 3(f) and Fig. S5b show that the Mo 3d spectrum of  $MoS_2$  exhibits characteristic peaks at 229.24 eV (Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub>) and 232.65 eV (Mo 3d<sub>3/2</sub>), which are attributed to the Mo-S bonds, while the peak at 236.0 eV corresponds to the presence of a small amount of  $Mo^{6+}$  due to slight oxidation. Notably, the Mo 3d characteristic peaks (Mo 3d<sub>5/2</sub> and Mo 3d<sub>3/2</sub>) of  $Nd:MoS_2$  nanosheets also shift toward lower binding energies by approximately 0.1 eV (Table S1), which are attributed to the change in lattice spacing caused by  $Nd^{3+}$  doping. The above results indicate that the doping of  $Nd^{3+}$  causes shifts in the core-level spectral peaks of both S and Mo toward lower



**Fig. 4:** (a) UV-Vis absorption spectra of  $MoS_2$  and  $Nd:MoS_2$  nanosheets. (b) PL intensity comparison of  $MoS_2$  and  $Nd:MoS_2$  nanosheets. (c) Tauc plots of  $MoS_2$  and  $Nd:MoS_2$  nanosheets. (d, e) projected band structures and density of states (DOS) of  $MoS_2$  and  $Nd:MoS_2$  nanosheets, respectively (with the Fermi level set to the top of the valence band). (f) and (g) are the Projected Density of States (PDOS) of  $MoS_2$  and  $Nd:MoS_2$  nanosheets, respectively.

binding energies, which may be attributed to the transition of the material from n-type to p-type conductivity induced by  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  doping.<sup>[24]</sup>

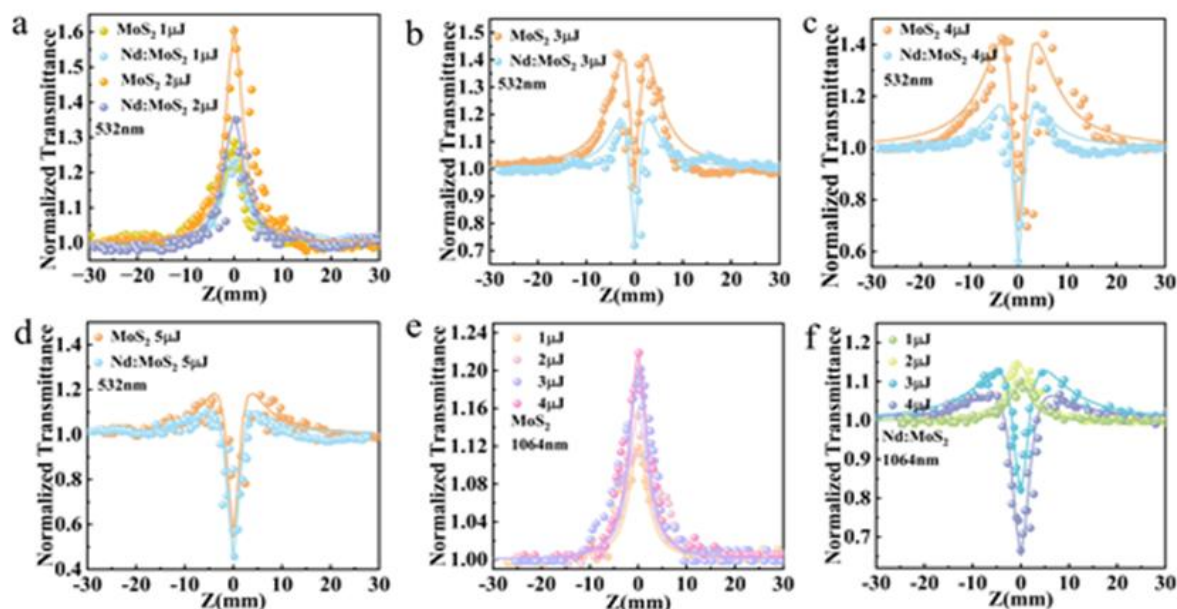
Fig. 4(a) shows the UV-Vis absorption spectra of  $\text{MoS}_2$  and  $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$  nanosheets. Compared to  $\text{MoS}_2$ ,  $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$  exhibits significantly enhanced background absorption across the entire spectral range. This enhancement may arise from two factors: on one hand, the introduction of  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  during the hydrothermal synthesis may cause distortions in the octahedral crystal field, thereby perturbing the structural continuity of the 2D nanosheets (approximately  $200 \times 200$  nm in size), which could contribute additional light scattering at the Rayleigh scattering scale; on the other hand, the new electronic energy levels introduced by  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  may increase the carrier concentration, thereby enhancing the overall light absorption capability of  $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$ ,<sup>[25]</sup> which is consistent with the observations from Raman spectroscopy. Fig. 4b displays the room-temperature PL spectra of  $\text{MoS}_2$  and  $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$  nanosheets measured using a 365 nm laser as the excitation source. The PL intensity of the  $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$  nanosheets is significantly enhanced compared to  $\text{MoS}_2$ , with an enhancement factor approaching twice. This indicates that the doping  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  effectively improves the light absorption efficiency and radiative recombination efficiency of  $\text{MoS}_2$  nanosheets. The energy levels introduced by  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  can serve as efficient excitation active centers, effectively capturing excitation energy and promoting photon emission through radiative recombination, thereby significantly enhancing the overall luminescent performance of the material. Specifically,  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  doping introduces its characteristic 4f energy levels within the bandgap of  $\text{MoS}_2$ . Upon light absorption by the  $\text{MoS}_2$  matrix, the energy is transferred non-radiatively via resonant energy transfer to the  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  ions, which then release the energy in the form of their characteristic radiation. This provides a novel and highly efficient pathway for PL enhancement.<sup>[26]</sup> The indirect  $E_g$  of the material was calculated using the Tauc formula as following Eq. (1).<sup>[27]</sup>

$$(\alpha h\nu)^n = A(h\nu - E_g) \quad (1)$$

here, A is a constant, h is Planck's constant,  $\nu$  is the frequency, and  $\alpha$  is a proportionality constant. For indirect bandgap semiconductors (such as  $\text{MoS}_2$  and  $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$  nanosheets), n is taken as 1/2 for the indirect bandgap. The calculation results (Fig. 4c) showed that  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  doping reduces  $E_g$  from  $\approx 0.75$  eV in  $\text{MoS}_2$  to  $\approx 0.45$  eV in  $\text{Nd}:\text{MoS}_2$ . It should be noted that the  $E_g$  of standard defect-free 2H-phase four-layer  $\text{MoS}_2$  is approximately 1.28 eV. The  $E_g$  of the undoped  $\text{MoS}_2$  nanosheets in this study ( $\approx 0.75$  eV) is significantly lower than this value, which is most likely attributed to Vs

introduced during the hydrothermal synthesis process. Here, VS typically act as shallow donors or deep-level traps, which can introduce defect states within the  $E_g$ . The presence of defect states may cause electrons originally belonging to the conduction band to become localized, thereby reducing the effective  $E_g$  of the material.

To further investigate the effects of Vs and  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  doping on the electronic structure of  $\text{MoS}_2$ , the DFT calculations was performed. Fig. S6 displays the theoretically calculated models for crystal structures of the defect-free  $\text{MoS}_2$ ,  $\text{MoS}_2$  with S vacancies  $\text{MoS}_2$  with both S vacancies and  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  doping. The band structure analysis of Vs-containing  $\text{MoS}_2$  nanosheets (Fig. 4d) revealed that the introduction of Vs significantly modifies the conduction band (CB) and valence band (VB) edges of  $\text{MoS}_2$ , generating new defect levels between the conduction band minimum (CBM) and the Fermi level. This results in a reduction of the theoretically calculated  $E_g$  from 1.3 eV in the defect-free system (Fig. S7a) to  $\approx 0.37$  eV in the Vs-containing system. When  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  is further doped into Vs-containing  $\text{MoS}_2$  (Fig. 4e), the theoretically calculated  $E_g$  decreases further to  $\approx 0.29$  eV, accompanied by the emergence of new energy levels. It should be noted that the theoretically calculated  $E_g$  values (0.37 eV and 0.29 eV) are systematically lower than the experimental values (0.75 eV and 0.45 eV), respectively. This discrepancy primarily arises from the systematic underestimation of semiconductor  $E_g$  inherent to the generalized gradient approximation (PBE) functional employed in the calculations.<sup>[28]</sup> Furthermore, density of states (DOS) calculations (Fig. 4e) reveal that  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  doping introduces additional electronic states. These states may participate in accommodating photogenerated electrons, thereby enhancing the light absorption process. Compared to defect-free  $\text{MoS}_2$  (Fig. S7b), the Projected Density of States (PDOS) of  $\text{MoS}_2$  with Vs (Fig. 4f) exhibits new electronic states near the Fermi level (-2 eV to 2 eV). These states arise from the reconstruction of dangling bonds on adjacent Mo atoms induced by S vacancies, resulting in localized defect states appearing near the Fermi level. After doping with  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  (Fig. 4g), new electronic states are introduced, among which the Nd-4f orbitals exhibit sharp and intense peaks in the middle of the band gap (-2 eV to 2 eV), forming strongly localized deep-level states. Furthermore, the spectra clearly show overlapping peak positions and correlated shapes between the density of states of Nd-4f, Mo-d, and S-p orbitals, confirming orbital hybridization among them. This hybridization establishes novel hybrid molecular orbitals, providing additional optical transition pathways and thereby effectively modulating the material's optical properties. The DFT calculation results provided theoretical support for the



**Fig. 5:** (a-d) OA Z-scan curves of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets under excitation wavelength of 532 nm with pulse energies ranging from 1  $\mu$ J to 5  $\mu$ J. (e, f) OA Z-scan curves of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets under excitation wavelength of 1064 nm with pulse energies ranging from 1  $\mu$ J to 4  $\mu$ J. (the data points represent experimental results, and the solid lines are fitting curves based on the experimental data using a model).

experimentally observed enhancement in both light absorption and PL intensity through Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping.<sup>[29]</sup>

This study systematically investigated the broadband NLA properties of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets using OA Z-scan technique at wavelengths of 532 nm and 1064 nm. This technique analyzes NLA by moving the sample (or focal point) along the direction of beam propagation (the optical axis) and recording the changes in the light intensity through the sample. The normalized transmittance (defined as the ratio of nonlinear transmittance to linear transmittance) is a key parameter for evaluating the NLA performance of materials. In NLA measurements, the SA effect is characterized by an increase in normalized transmittance with increasing incident light intensity (pump intensity), whereas the RSA effect is characterized by a decrease in normalized transmittance with increasing incident light intensity. A schematic diagram of the picosecond laser system used for the measurements is shown in Fig. S8. To ensure that the observed NLA signal was entirely derived from the sample itself and not from the solvent, we conducted Z-scan tests on pure solvents under different laser energies. The results indicated that the solvent did not exhibit any detectable nonlinear optical response under any of the tested energies, thereby confirming that the NLA properties of the sample were indeed caused by the nanosheet material and are not attributable to thermal effects from the solvent. It is worth noting that the nonlinear processes occurring under strong laser irradiation may lead to temperature rise in the samples, which could potentially induce the formation of scattering centers. According to the study by Aleali *et al.*,<sup>[30]</sup> the effective scattering coefficient ( $\gamma_s$ ) can be described by the

Rayleigh-Gans relation. The calculated  $\gamma_s$  values for MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets are  $7.35 \times 10^{-29} \text{ cm}^3/\text{W}^2$  and  $1.09 \times 10^{-28} \text{ cm}^3/\text{W}^2$ , respectively (Tables S2 and S3). Compared to the  $\gamma_s$  value of silver nanoparticles reported by Aleali *et al.* ( $7.5 \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^3/\text{W}^2$ ), the  $\gamma_s$  values in this study are approximately  $10^{-11}$  times lower. Given the extremely weak scattering effect, its influence was neglected in the subsequent Z-scan data analysis.

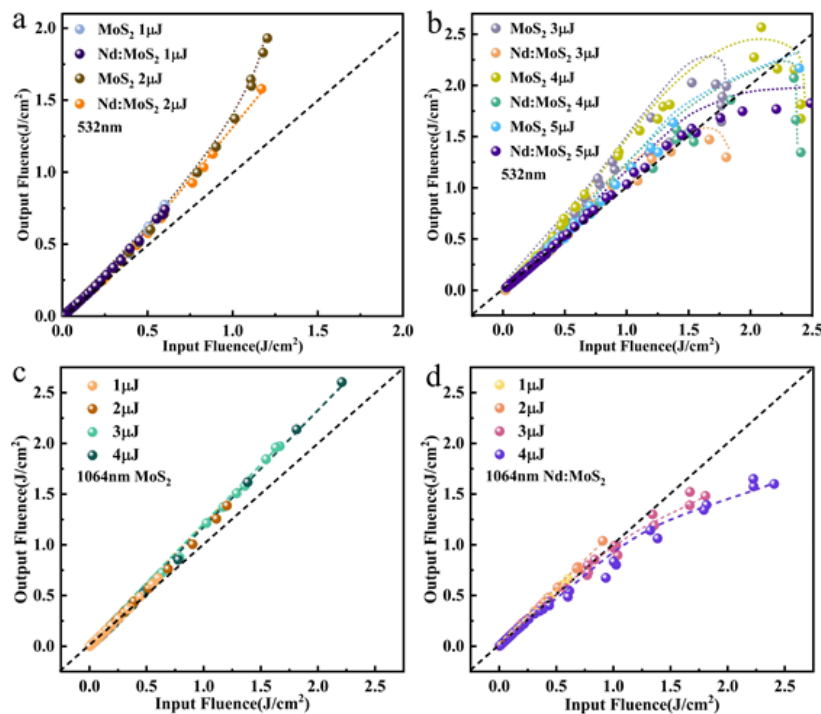
Fig. 5(a) presents the Z-scan curves of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets at 532 nm with pulse energies of 1  $\mu$ J and 2  $\mu$ J. At 1  $\mu$ J, both samples exhibit a significant SA effect. This primarily arises because the photon energy ( $h\nu \approx 2.33 \text{ eV}$ ) exceeds the  $E_g$  of the samples ( $E_g \approx 0.75 \text{ eV}$  and  $0.45 \text{ eV}$ ), enabling the excitation of VB electrons to fill the CB energy levels. According to the Pauli exclusion principle, when the excited states are occupied by electrons to a certain extent, the ground-state absorption becomes saturated, leading to the SA effect. As the laser energy increases to 2  $\mu$ J, the SA modulation amplitude at the focal point is further enhanced. Figures 5(b-d) show the Z-scan curves at 532 nm with energies of 3  $\mu$ J, 4  $\mu$ J, and 5  $\mu$ J. When the energy increases to 3  $\mu$ J, the SA effect of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd: MoS<sub>2</sub> weakens. The normalized transmittance curves of these materials are greater than 1 away from the focus in the low light intensity zone, while they are less than 1 near the focus in the high light intensity zone, showing a first peak then valley characteristic, indicating that the NLA behavior changes from SA to RSA. When the energy is further increased to 4  $\mu$ J and 5  $\mu$ J, the normalized transmittance in the focal region further decreases. The SA effect continues to weaken while the RSA effect significantly

strengthens. Moreover, Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> exhibits stronger RSA characteristics than MoS<sub>2</sub>. The mechanism of RSA may include nonlinear scattering, ESA, or two-photon absorption (TPA) *et al.* Under the experimental conditions of this study, the laser pulse width exceeds the actual carrier relaxation time. This conclusion is verified by subsequent carrier lifetime measurements in Fig. 10, thus the singlet excited state plays a dominant role.<sup>[31]</sup> The SA effect relies on the transition from the ground state to the first excited state, while the RSA effect depends on the transition from the first excited state to higher excited states (ESA). SA occurs because the ground-state absorption cross-section is larger than the excited-state absorption cross-section, whereas RSA arises when the excited-state absorption cross-section exceeds that of the ground state. Therefore, the transition from SA to RSA can be attributed to the competition between ground-state and excited-state absorption cross-sections as a function of light intensity.

Fig. 5(e) shows the Z-scan curves of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets at 1064 nm with pulse energies ranging from 1 μJ to 4 μJ. The MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets exhibit SA behavior under all tested energy levels. Notably, at 1064 nm (photon energy ≈ 1.16 eV), the incident photon energy is lower than the  $E_g$  of the standard 2H-phase MoS<sub>2</sub> ( $E_g \approx 1.28$  eV), which theoretically does not satisfy the ground-state absorption condition  $E_g < h\nu$ . However, in this study, the as-prepared MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets exhibit a SA

response in the infrared region. This is because the actual  $E_g$  is significantly reduced due to  $V_s$  and edge defects generated during the hydrothermal synthesis process (experimentally measured  $E_g \approx 0.75$  eV, DFT calculations yielded  $E_g \approx 0.37$  eV).<sup>[32]</sup> These defects introduce mid-gap states that enable sub- $E_g$  photon absorption (defect-assisted absorption). Fig. 5(f) shows the Z-scan curves of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets at 1064 nm with pulse energies ranging from 1 μJ to 4 μJ. At energies between 1 and 2 μJ, Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> exhibits SA behavior similar to that of pure MoS<sub>2</sub>. However, when the energy is increased to 3-4 μJ, the Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> transitions from SA to RSA. This indicates that Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping effectively modulates the NLA response of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, and introduces a new RSA behavior at higher light intensities.

Fig. 6 (a, b) show the relationship between output energy ( $F_{out}$ ) and input energy ( $F_{in}$ ) for MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets under a laser wavelength of 532 nm. In the low-input-energy region, the  $F_{out}$  of both MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets increases linearly with  $F_{in}$ , indicating that the slope of the  $F_{in}/F_{out}$  curve is greater than 1. This suggests that the normalized transmittance increases with increasing light intensity, which is a typical characteristic of SA effect. As the input energy increases, the trend of  $F_{out}$  increasing with  $F_{in}$  weakens, gradually transitioning to sub-linear growth, where the slope of the  $F_{in}/F_{out}$  curve becomes less than 1. This



**Fig. 6:** (a, b) The relationship between output pulse energy and input pulse energy for MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets under excitation at 532 nm with pulse energies ranging from 1 μJ to 5 μJ. (c, d) The relationship between output pulse energy and input pulse energy for MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets under excitation at 1064 nm with pulse energies ranging from 1 μJ to 4 μJ. (Black dashed line: indicates a linear relationship between output and input pulse energy. colored dashed lines represent the fitting curves based on experimental data).

indicates that the normalized transmittance of the material decreases with increasing light intensity, corresponding to the RSA effect. Moreover, when the laser power is increased to higher input energies, the  $F_{in}/F_{out}$  curve no longer follows a linear relationship. This nonlinear dependence further confirms that MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets exhibit significant NLA characteristics at 532 nm wavelength. Fig. 6 (c, d) show the variation of  $F_{out}$  with  $F_{in}$  for MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets under a laser wavelength of 1064 nm. For the MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets,  $F_{out}$  increases linearly with  $F_{in}$  across the entire tested input energy range, indicating that the normalized transmittance monotonically increases with light intensity, showing only SA behavior. For the Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, a similar linear increase is observed in the low-input-energy region, also indicating the presence of SA effect. However, as the input energy further increases, the growth trend of  $F_{out}$  with  $F_{in}$  weakens and transitions into sub-linear growth ( $F_{in}/F_{out} < 1$ ), suggesting that the normalized transmittance starts to decrease with increasing light intensity, which corresponds to the emergence of RSA effect. These results demonstrate that Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets not only exhibit SA behavior but also possess RSA effect, revealing strong nonlinear optical response and excellent light-intensity-dependent optical signal modulation capability.

A NLA model incorporating both SA and RSA effects, as shown in Eq. (2),<sup>[33]</sup> was used to theoretically analyze the experimental Z-scan results.

$$\alpha(I) = \alpha_0 / (I + I / I_s) \quad (2)$$

here,  $\alpha_0$  is the linear absorption coefficient,  $I$  is the laser intensity,  $\beta$  is the absorption coefficient, and  $I_s$  is the saturation intensity. Using Eq. (2), the corrected normalized transmittance can be expressed as Eq. (3)

$$T(Z) = Q(Z) / [\sqrt{\pi}q(Z)] \int \ln[1 + q(Z)\exp(-\tau_2)] d\tau \quad (3)$$

where

$$Q(Z) = \exp[\alpha_0 L I / (I + I_s)]$$

$$q(Z) = \beta I_0 L_{eff} / (I + Z^2 / Z_0^2)$$

$I_0$  is the focused peak intensity,  $L_{eff} = [1 - \exp(-\alpha_0 L)] / \alpha_0$ , where  $L_{eff}$  is the effective thickness of the sample and  $L$  is the actual sample thickness.  $Z_0 = \pi \omega_0^2$ , where  $Z_0$  is the Rayleigh length and  $\omega_0$  is the beam waist radius. The imaginary part of the third-order nonlinear optical susceptibility,  $Im\chi^{(3)}$ , can be expressed by Eq. (4):<sup>[34]</sup>

$$Im\chi^{(3)} = (10^{-7} C \lambda n^2 / \alpha_0) \beta \quad (4)$$

here,  $C$  is the speed of light,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the incident light, and  $n$  is the refractive index. The Fig of merit ( $FOM$ ) for nonlinear saturable absorption is defined by Eq. (5)

$$FOM = |Im\chi^{(3)} / \alpha_0| \beta \quad (5)$$

The Z-scan curves fitted according to the above formula were used to determine the  $\beta$  and  $I_s$  of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. The fitted saturation intensity  $I_s$  and nonlinear absorption coefficient  $\beta$  are shown in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively.

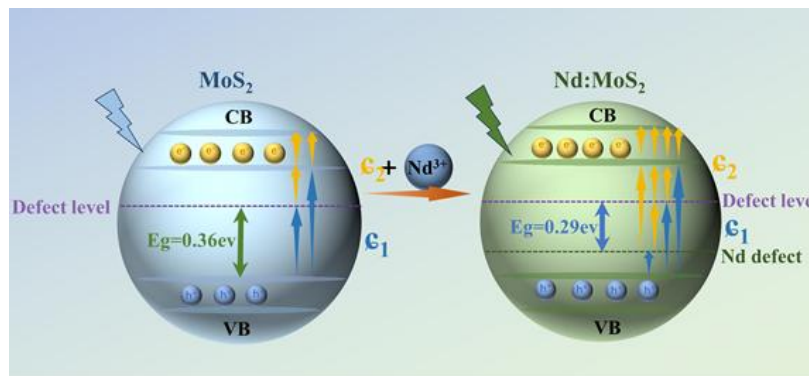
Table 1 presents the third-order nonlinear parameters of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets at a wavelength of 532 nm. It can be seen that, whether the NLA response exhibits SA or RSA behavior, Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping significantly enhances the  $I_s$  of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets at 532 nm.<sup>[25]</sup> To explain this phenomenon, a four-level energy transfer model (Fig. 7) based on the electronic structure's VB and CB was proposed for MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, supported by the DFT-calculated band structures (Fig. 4d and 4e). As shown in Fig. 7, the physical mechanism of the doping effect can be understood as the 4f electron orbitals of Nd<sup>3+</sup> ions introducing new energy levels in

**Table 1:** The third-order nonlinear parameters of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets at a wavelength of 532 nm.

Laser	Samples	NLO response	$\beta$ (cm GW <sup>-1</sup> )	$I_s$ (GW cm <sup>-2</sup> )	$Im\chi^{(3)}$ (esu)	$FOM$ (esu cm)
1μJ	MoS <sub>2</sub>	SA	-10.5	8×10 <sup>2</sup>	-3.62×10 <sup>-12</sup>	8.58×10 <sup>-13</sup>
	Nd:MoS <sub>2</sub>	SA	-9.2	5×10 <sup>3</sup>	-3.17×10 <sup>-12</sup>	7.51×10 <sup>-13</sup>
2μJ	MoS <sub>2</sub>	SA	-8	7×10 <sup>4</sup>	-2.76×10 <sup>-12</sup>	6.54×10 <sup>-13</sup>
	Nd:MoS <sub>2</sub>	SA	-6	1.7×10 <sup>5</sup>	-2.07×10 <sup>-12</sup>	4.91×10 <sup>-13</sup>
3μJ	MoS <sub>2</sub>	RSA	5.4	0.48	1.86×10 <sup>-12</sup>	4.41×10 <sup>-13</sup>
	Nd:MoS <sub>2</sub>	RSA	8	0.98	2.76×10 <sup>-12</sup>	6.54×10 <sup>-13</sup>
4μJ	MoS <sub>2</sub>	RSA	7.4	0.31	2.55×10 <sup>-12</sup>	6.04×10 <sup>-13</sup>
	Nd:MoS <sub>2</sub>	RSA	10	0.85	3.45×10 <sup>-12</sup>	8.18×10 <sup>-13</sup>
5μJ	MoS <sub>2</sub>	RSA	8.5	0.89	2.93×10 <sup>-12</sup>	6.94×10 <sup>-13</sup>
	Nd:MoS <sub>2</sub>	RSA	12	1.05	4.14×10 <sup>-12</sup>	9.81×10 <sup>-13</sup>

**Table 2:** The third-order nonlinear parameters of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets at a wavelength of 1064 nm.

Laser	Samples	NLO response	$\beta$ (cm GW <sup>-1</sup> )	$I_S$ (GW cm <sup>-2</sup> )	$Im\chi^{(3)}$ (esu)	FOM (esu cm)
1 $\mu$ J	MoS <sub>2</sub>	SA	-0.71	$2 \times 10^4$	$-4.90 \times 10^{-13}$	$2.45 \times 10^{-13}$
	Nd:MoS <sub>2</sub>	SA	-0.62	$1 \times 10^5$	$-4.28 \times 10^{-13}$	$2.13 \times 10^{-13}$
2 $\mu$ J	MoS <sub>2</sub>	SA	-0.45	$2.5 \times 10^4$	$-3.10 \times 10^{-13}$	$1.55 \times 10^{-13}$
	Nd:MoS <sub>2</sub>	SA	-0.42	$3 \times 10^5$	$-2.90 \times 10^{-13}$	$1.45 \times 10^{-13}$
3 $\mu$ J	MoS <sub>2</sub>	SA	-0.36	$3.2 \times 10^4$	$-2.48 \times 10^{-13}$	$1.24 \times 10^{-13}$
	Nd:MoS <sub>2</sub>	RSA	1.1	0.2	$7.59 \times 10^{-13}$	$3.79 \times 10^{-13}$
4 $\mu$ J	MoS <sub>2</sub>	SA	-0.29	$4 \times 10^4$	$-2.00 \times 10^{-13}$	$9.99 \times 10^{-14}$
	Nd:MoS <sub>2</sub>	RSA	1.4	0.35	$9.66 \times 10^{-13}$	$4.82 \times 10^{-13}$



**Fig. 7:** Schematic of carrier dynamics in MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets.

the band gap of MoS<sub>2</sub>, significantly altering its electronic structure. These new energy levels provide additional electron transition pathways. The Raman spectroscopy results (discussed earlier) indicate that Nd<sup>3+</sup> dopes MoS<sub>2</sub> in a p-type manner, increasing the hole concentration (carrier concentration) in the material.<sup>[23]</sup> A higher carrier concentration means more energy is required to excite an equivalent proportion of carriers, which may be one of the reasons why the doped samples exhibit a higher  $I_S$ . Additionally, when the NLA response exhibits RSA behavior (at high energy levels), Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping also significantly enhances the NLA coefficient  $\beta$  of the material. For instance, at an excitation energy of 4  $\mu$ J, the NLA coefficient  $\beta$  of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets is 7.4 cm GW<sup>-1</sup>, whereas that of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> increases to 10 cm GW<sup>-1</sup>. At an excitation energy of 5  $\mu$ J, the  $\beta$  of MoS<sub>2</sub> reaches 8.5 cm GW<sup>-1</sup>, while that of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> increases to 12 cm GW<sup>-1</sup>. These results indicate that Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping effectively enhances the RSA capability of the material under high light intensity.

Table 2 presents the third-order nonlinear parameters of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets at a wavelength of 1064 nm. As shown in Table 2, at 1064 nm and under excitation energies of 1  $\mu$ J and 2  $\mu$ J, both MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets exhibit SA behavior in their NLA response. For instance, at 1  $\mu$ J, the  $I_S$  of MoS<sub>2</sub> is  $2 \times 10^4$  GW cm<sup>-2</sup>, while that of Nd: MoS<sub>2</sub> increases to  $1 \times 10^5$  GW cm<sup>-2</sup>, an increase of approximately five

times. At 2  $\mu$ J, the  $I_S$  of MoS<sub>2</sub> is  $2.5 \times 10^4$  GW cm<sup>-2</sup>, while that of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> increases to  $3 \times 10^5$  GW cm<sup>-2</sup>, an increase of approximately twelve times. This is consistent with the observations at 532 nm, further demonstrating the role of doping in enhancing the saturation threshold. Moreover, When the excitation energy increases to 3  $\mu$ J and 4  $\mu$ J, the NLA response of MoS<sub>2</sub> still exhibits an SA behavior, while that of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> transitions to an RSA behavior. The persistent SA effect in MoS<sub>2</sub> is attributed to its ground-state absorption cross-section ( $\epsilon_1$ ) being larger than its excited-state absorption cross-section ( $\epsilon_2$ ).<sup>[34]</sup> The RSA effect observed in Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> is attributed to the discrete energy levels introduced by Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping, which significantly increase the excited-state absorption cross-section  $\epsilon_2$ , resulting in  $\epsilon_2 > \epsilon_1$ . These discrete energy levels provide efficient pathways for ESA, thereby enhancing the probability of ESA occurrence. Consequently, ESA dominates the NLA response under high light intensity, leading to the transition from SA to RSA. This mechanism will be further verified in subsequent sections in combination with more in-depth spectroscopic characterization, such as transient absorption spectroscopy. The above results demonstrate that Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping can significantly enhance the  $I_S$  of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, improving their anti-saturation capability. At 532 nm and under high light intensity, it increases the NLA coefficient  $\beta$  and strengthens the RSA effect. At 1064 nm and under high light intensity, it induces a transition in the NLA

response from SA to RSA. This demonstrates the effective regulation and significant enhancement of the nonlinear optical absorption capacity of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets by Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping. To verify the four-level model for the NLA mechanism and to reveal the principle by which Nd<sup>3+</sup> energy levels alter the NLO mechanism, the  $\epsilon_1$  and  $\epsilon_2$  absorption cross-sections of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> at 3  $\mu\text{J}$  were calculated using Eq. (6) and (7).<sup>[25]</sup>

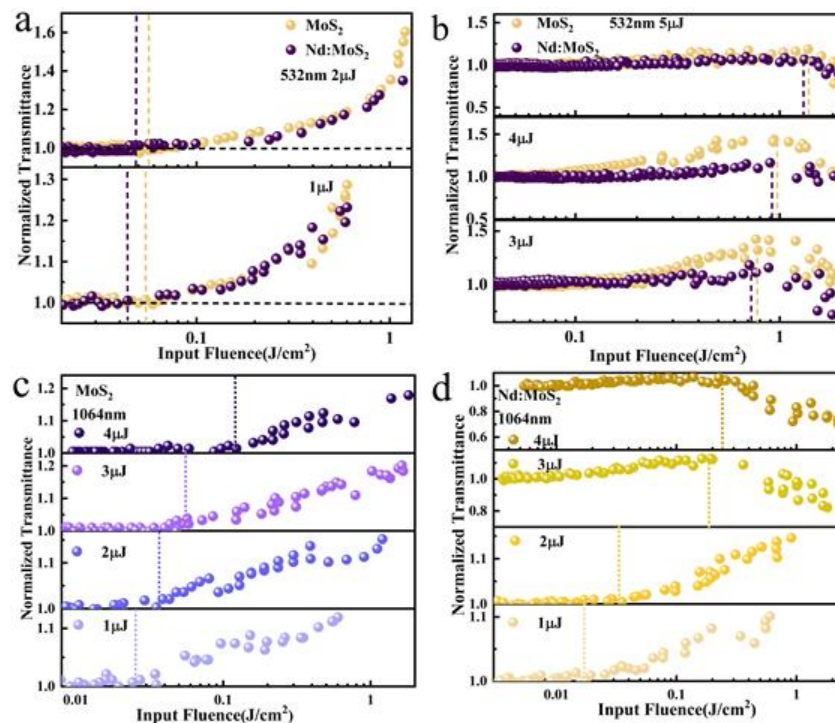
$$\epsilon_1 = -\log T_0 / (NL) \quad (6)$$

$$\epsilon_2 = -\log T_{max} / (NL) \quad (7)$$

Here,  $T_0$ ,  $T_{max}$ ,  $N$ , and  $L$  represent the transmittance in the low-intensity linear regime, the high-intensity saturated transmittance, the ground-state carrier density, and the thickness of the MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> samples (~2.4 nm). The calculated values of  $\epsilon_2$  and  $\epsilon_1$  for Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> are  $8.13 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^2$  and  $2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^2$ . The values of  $\epsilon_2$  and  $\epsilon_1$  for MoS<sub>2</sub> are  $2.30 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^2$  and  $1.54 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^2$ . Based on these calculated absorption cross-sections, the  $\epsilon_2/\epsilon_1$  ratios are 1.49 and 0.41 for Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> and MoS<sub>2</sub>, respectively, further indicating that Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping significantly enhances the excited-state absorption cross-section by introducing new energy levels within the excited states of MoS<sub>2</sub>.

Fig. 8 presents the relationship between the normalized transmittance of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets and the input laser pulse energy. As shown in Figs. 8(a, b), in the visible light region (532 nm), when the input energy is lower (1  $\mu\text{J}$  and 2

$\mu\text{J}$ ), the normalized transmittance of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets both increase with the increase of input energy and gradually deviate from the linear response, showing obvious SA characteristics. This indicates that both MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets have the potential to be used as saturable absorbers at 532 nm wavelengths, applicable in devices such as mode-locked lasers, Q-switches, and optical switches/modulators. However, when the input energy increases to 3  $\mu\text{J}$ , 4  $\mu\text{J}$ , and 5  $\mu\text{J}$ , the normalized transmittance of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets shows a trend of first increasing (dominated by SA) and then decreasing (dominated by RSA). This indicates that the nonlinear absorption behavior of the materials has undergone a transition from SA to RSA. Notably, in the near-infrared region (1064 nm) (Figs. 8c and 8d), as the input energy increases from low to high (1-4  $\mu\text{J}$ ), MoS<sub>2</sub> exhibits SA characteristics, while Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> shows SA characteristics at low input energies and transforms into RSA characteristics at high input energies. Therefore, the results indicate that due to the doping of Nd<sup>3+</sup>, the controllable transformation from SA to RSA of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets has expanded from the visible light region to the near-infrared region. The existence of RSA effect enables the material to show application prospects in optical limiters and laser pulse shaping, while the SA-RSA transformation shows application prospects in various optical devices, such as fast optical



**Fig. 8:** (a, b) Relationship between the normalized transmittance and input pulse energy for MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets under excitation at 532 nm with excitation energies ranging from 1  $\mu\text{J}$  to 5  $\mu\text{J}$ . (c, d) Relationship between the normalized transmittance and input pulse energy for MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets under excitation at 1064 nm with excitation energies ranging from 1  $\mu\text{J}$  to 4  $\mu\text{J}$ . (Dashed lines: Onset points of SA and RSA for MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets).

switches, optical limiters, optical bistable devices, and even all-optical logic gates that require dynamic optical control functions.<sup>[31,35]</sup> Additionally, the onset threshold is a key parameter characterizing SA and RSA properties, defining the critical light intensity at which a material transitions from linear absorption to significant NLA behavior (SA or RSA). For SA applications, a lower SA onset threshold generally indicates that the device can achieve its functionality (e.g., initiating mode-locking) at lower operating light intensities, making it one of the important metrics for evaluating performance quality.<sup>[36]</sup> The above results indicate that, although when the MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets are within the same type of NLA response range, the Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> always exhibit a lower SA starting threshold than the MoS<sub>2</sub>. This further confirms that Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping effectively reduces the saturation threshold of the material, thereby enhancing its performance as a saturable absorber. It is worth noting that at 1064 nm and under excitation energies of 3-4 μJ, MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets exhibit SA behavior, while Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets exhibit RSA behavior. Since the two materials are governed by different NLA mechanisms at this stage, the corresponding critical threshold parameters (SA saturation threshold vs. RSA initial threshold) are not physically comparable. Therefore, no threshold comparison was made at this energy point.

The third-order nonlinear refraction (NLR) properties of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets were investigated using the closed-aperture (CA) Z-scan technique. The experimental data were fitted based on the standard theoretical Eq. (8)<sup>[37]</sup>

$$T_n = 1 + 8[(Z/Z_0)/(1 + (Z/Z_0)^2) + (Z/Z_0)^2]n_2E_{in}L_{eff} / (\omega_0\lambda\pi) \quad (8)$$

here,  $T_n$  is the normalized transmittance,  $Z/Z_0$  is the normalized position of the sample, which determines the

positions and shapes of the peaks and valleys in the curve,  $E_{in}$  is the energy of the incident laser pulse, and  $n_2$  is the nonlinear refractive index coefficient. Under excitation at a wavelength of 532 nm with an incident energy of 3 μJ, the fitting results indicate that the  $n_2$  value for MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets is  $-0.8 \times 10^{-12}$  m<sup>2</sup>/W. The CA Z-scan curve (Fig. 9a) shows a maximum transmittance (peak) before the focal point ( $Z < 0$ ) and a minimum transmittance (valley) after the focal point ( $Z > 0$ ). This "peak-before-valley" characteristic curve is a typical manifestation of a negative  $n_2$  value (self-defocusing effect).<sup>[38]</sup> In contrast, the  $n_2$  value of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets is  $1.15 \times 10^{-12}$  m<sup>2</sup>/W, and its CA Z-scan curve (Fig. 9b) shows a transmittance minimum (valley) before the focus and a transmittance maximum (peak) after the focus. This "valley-then-peak" characteristic curve is a typical feature of a positive  $n_2$  value (self-focusing effect). Therefore, Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping changes the nonlinear refractive properties of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets from self-defocusing (negative  $n_2$ ) to self-focusing (positive  $n_2$ ). Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping introduces low-energy defect states into MoS<sub>2</sub>, making the laser energy at 532 nm (2.33 eV) significantly larger than the transition energy, thereby satisfying the resonance condition. This resonant effect first greatly enhances the nonlinear absorption ( $Im\chi^{(3)}$ ) (Table 1). According to the Kramers-Kronig relation, this change in absorption subsequently drives the nonlinear refractive behavior to switch from non-resonant self-defocusing to resonant self-focusing. This defect-engineering-mediated physical mechanism, which utilizes resonance conditions to tailor the nonlinear polarizability, provides a key pathway for customizing the nonlinear optical properties of two-dimensional materials.<sup>[39]</sup> This strategy significantly alters the material's NLR response, offering new possibilities for its application in nonlinear photonic devices, such as phase modulators based on self-focusing or self-defocusing effects.

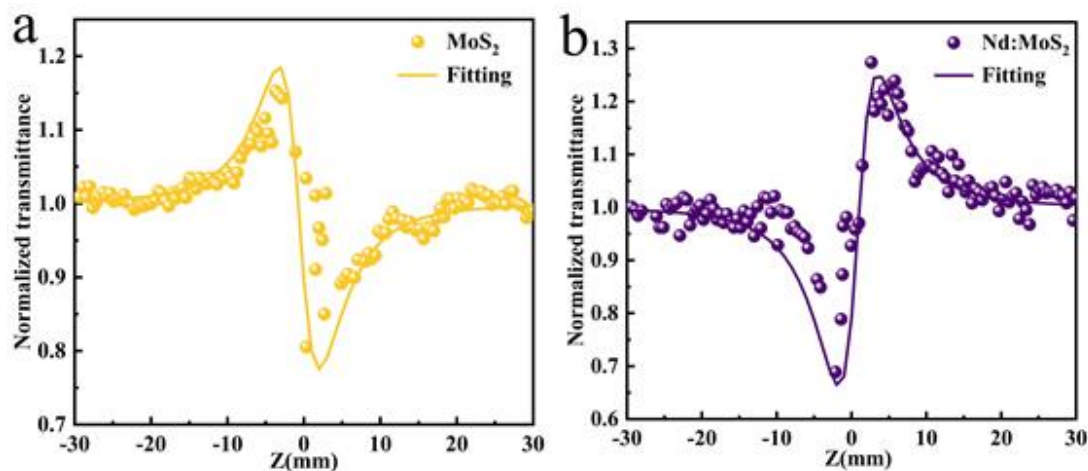
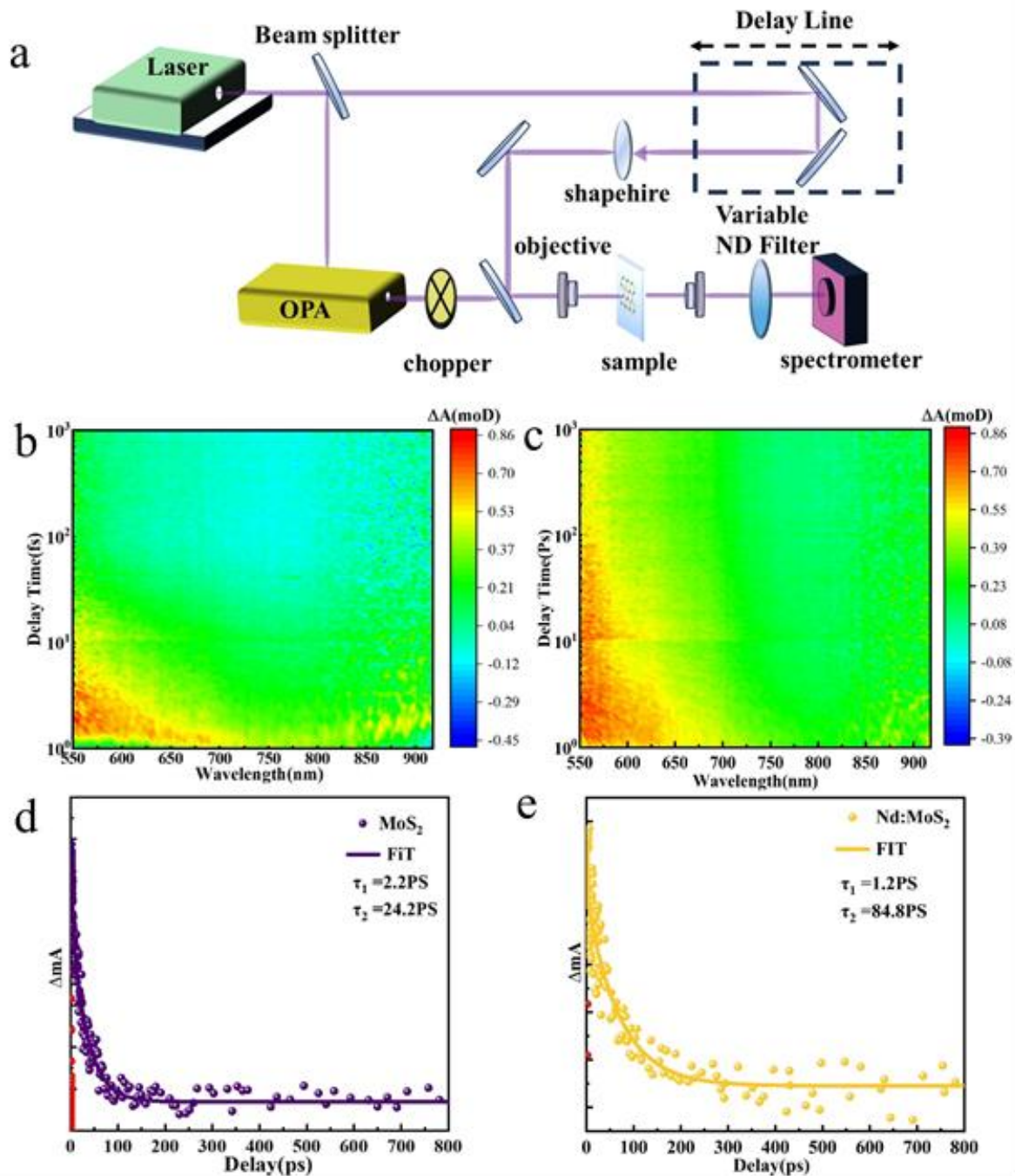


Fig. 9: CA Z-scan curves of MoS<sub>2</sub> (a) and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> (b) nanosheets under an excitation wavelength of 532 nm.



**Fig. 10:** (a) Schematic diagram of the micro-region femtosecond pump-probe setup. (b, c) Two-dimensional maps of pump-probe time delay for MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, respectively (probe wavelength range: approximately 525 nm to 900 nm). (d, e) Carrier decay dynamics of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets at the corresponding probe peak wavelengths, with the solid lines representing the fitting curves.

To further characterize the effect of Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping on the nonlinear optical properties of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, femtosecond time-resolved pump-probe spectroscopy was used to measure the transient absorption spectra of the synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, in order to explore their ultrafast NLO response and carrier dynamics. The measurement schematic diagram is illustrated in Fig. 10(a). The three-dimensional TA spectra of MoS<sub>2</sub> and Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets obtained under excitation with a 400 nm femtosecond laser pulse were provided in Figs. 10 (b, c). A

significant positive absorption signal ( $\Delta A > 0$ ) was observed near a wavelength of approximately 600 nm, which corresponds to ESA.<sup>[40]</sup> The ESA observed in this experiment mainly originates from the transition of photogenerated carriers within the CB or to higher energy levels. The transient absorption dynamics decay curves obtained experimentally were fitted and analyzed using a bi-exponential function, as described by Eq. (9):<sup>[41,42]</sup>

$$\Delta A(t, w) = D_1 e^{-t/\tau_1} + D_2 e^{-t/\tau_2} \tag{9}$$

Among them,  $D_1$  ( $D_2$ ) and  $\tau_1$  ( $\tau_2$ ) represent the amplitude and time constant of the fast (slow) decay component, respectively. The fitting results are shown in Figs. 10(d, e). For MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, the fast relaxation time constant  $\tau_1 \approx 2.2$  ps and the slow relaxation time constant  $\tau_2 \approx 24.3$  ps. For Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets,  $\tau_1 \approx 1.2$  ps and  $\tau_2 \approx 84.8$  ps. The fast relaxation process ( $\tau_1$ ) corresponds to the rapid capture of carriers by  $V_S$  defects in MoS<sub>2</sub> and by both  $V_S$  and Nd<sup>3+</sup> trap centers in Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub>, while the slow relaxation process ( $\tau_2$ ) corresponds to the recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs, including both radiative and non-radiative recombination. The observed reduction in  $\tau_1$  from 2.2 ps to 1.2 ps suggests that Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping introduces new and efficient trap sites in Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub>, thereby enhancing the rate of initial carrier capture. Meanwhile,  $\tau_2$  is significantly prolonged from 24.3 ps to 84.8 ps, indicating that the carriers localized at defect sites or trap states exhibit an extended lifetime. These long-lived carriers have a higher probability of being re-excited by the pump light to a higher excited state, leading to excited-state absorption (ESA).<sup>[40]</sup> Therefore, the enhanced excited-state absorption process in Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> indicates that the excited-state absorption cross-section  $\epsilon_2$  is increased relative to the ground-state absorption cross-section  $\epsilon_1$ , which is a key factor leading to the enhanced RSA behavior. At the same time, the dominant carrier recombination pathway may also be altered due to the presence of trap states. In summary, the TA measurement results from this study directly reveal the significant modulation effect of defect states introduced by Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping on the carrier dynamics and NLA properties of Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, providing crucial evidence for the observed changes in their NLO performance. Meanwhile, the significant PL enhancement in Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets is also validated by achieving efficient synergy between rapid carrier capture to avoid non-radiative losses and prolonged residence to promote radiative recombination.

#### 4. Conclusion

This study demonstrates that few-layer Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets co-modified with  $V_S$  defects and Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping were successfully prepared via a one-step hydrothermal method. Structural characterization confirmed that Nd<sup>3+</sup> incorporation induced lattice expansion, a p-type transition, and bandgap narrowing. The synergistic effect significantly reduced the optical bandgap from 1.28 eV to 0.45 eV, extending the photoresponse into the NIR region, while also doubling the PL intensity. Nonlinear optical measurements revealed that at 532 nm, Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> exhibited enhanced RSA, with the nonlinear absorption coefficient  $\beta$  increasing from 8.5 cm/GW to 12 cm/GW. Under 1064 nm NIR irradiation, Nd:MoS<sub>2</sub> for the first time demonstrated intensity-dependent controllable switching between SA and RSA. Furthermore, doping shifted the nonlinear refractive behavior from self-defocusing to self-focusing. Femtosecond transient absorption spectroscopy and theoretical calculations indicated that the synergy between Nd<sup>3+</sup> energy levels and  $V_S$  defect states accelerated carrier

trapping of  $\tau_1$  shortened to 1.2 ps, prolonged the non-radiative recombination lifetime of  $\tau_2$  reaching 84.8 ps, and increased excited-state absorption channels and cross-sections. This mechanism accounts for the enhanced RSA in the visible region and the excitation-state-absorption-dominated SA/RSA switching in the NIR region. The material shows promising potential for NIR photonic devices such as ultrafast lasers, optical limiters, all-optical switches, and phase modulators.

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#### Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

#### Supporting Information

Applicable.

#### CRedit Statement

**Lihua Liu:** Writing - Original draft, Methodology, Conceptualization. **Zhixiang Cui:** Writing, Review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization, Funding acquisition. **Hengyu Zhao:** Visualization, Formal analysis. **Jia Pan:** Data curation, Methodology. **Sen Zeng:** Software, Methodology, Investigation. **Qianting Wang:** Resources, Project administration. **Xiaolong Wang:** Visualization, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Junhui Si:** Conceptualization, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

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