

# Morphological Evolution of Monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub> Single-Crystalline Flakes

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Cite This: *J. Phys. Chem. C* 2022, 126, 3549–3559



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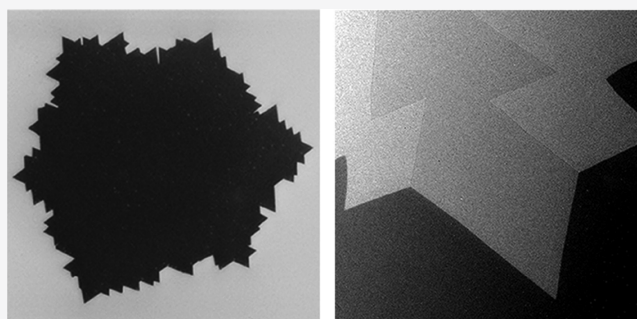


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**ABSTRACT:** Understanding and controlling the growth morphology of two-dimensional crystals of transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) is essential in developing high-quality crystalline material for spintronics, valleytronics, electronics, and optics. Here we report our studies on the evolution of crystallite morphology of MoS<sub>2</sub> observed in chemical vapor deposition. It is shown that as time goes on, the growth morphology of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes undergoes a transition from a triangle to a star shape, then back to a triangle, and finally to a bulgy irregular morphology. By tuning the temperature of the element sources, the atomic ratio of S and Mo on the growing interface can be adjusted. The variation of the S/Mo ratio affects the edge diffusion length and nucleation behavior on the edge of crystallite, leading to different growth morphologies. Our observations provide clues on how to engineer the morphology and control the quality of TMD crystalline sheets.



## INTRODUCTION

Transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) have shown great application potential in optoelectronics, valleytronics, and catalysis owing to their direct bandgap in monolayer, strong spin-valley coupling, and highly active catalytic sites at edges.<sup>1–5</sup> To date, chemical vapor deposition (CVD) is the most often applied approach to achieve large-area monolayer or multilayer TMD films.<sup>6–9</sup> One of the distinct features is that the morphology of TMD crystallites is very rich in the CVD fabrication, which varies from triangles to hexagons, dendrites, irregular star-like, and nanoribbons, etc., depending on the specific growth conditions.<sup>10–17</sup> On the other hand, many material properties and functional performance of the TMD materials are highly dependent on the geometrical shape and microstructures.<sup>18–23</sup> For example, the edge magnetism of the monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes arises in the dodecagonal and hexagonal shape but disappears in the triangular shape.<sup>19</sup> Unlike compact MoS<sub>2</sub> triangles, MoS<sub>2</sub> dendrites possess abundant active edge sites with rather high catalytic capabilities in hydrogen evolution reactions.<sup>20</sup> Moreover, crystallographic defects in two-dimensional (2D) materials may lead to interesting physical properties, such as edge nonlinear optics,<sup>24</sup> unique bandgap tunability,<sup>25</sup> and oscillating edge states.<sup>26</sup> Theoretical studies indicate that the zigzag edges of TMDs exhibit metallic and ferromagnetic characteristics.<sup>21,27,28</sup> So far, an in-depth understanding of the evolution mechanism and controlling approach of 2D crystal morphology remains

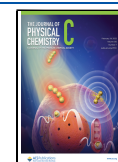
challenging, yet it is a fundamental issue of low-dimensional material studies.

It is helpful to understand the growth mechanisms of TMDs to achieve the desired morphology with the desired size. Many efforts have been devoted to exploring the growth mechanisms of TMD crystals in recent decades.<sup>29–35</sup> In the thermodynamic equilibrium regime, classical Wulff construction has been applied to reveal the shape evolution mechanism of MoS<sub>2</sub> crystals from triangles at the sulfur-rich condition to hexagons at the molybdenum-rich condition.<sup>19,29</sup> It has been reported that the formation mechanism of dendritic patterns of 2D materials could be described by the diffusion-limited aggregation model.<sup>30,34</sup> On the other hand, TMD materials also develop in the kinetic regime. Recently, the vapor–liquid–adatom–solid model has been introduced to explain the growth mechanism of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes with high-index edges.<sup>36</sup> Besides, various nonequilibrium shapes of TMD crystals have been studied recently.<sup>14,32,33</sup> Despite all these efforts, however, a guideline to control the morphology evolution of TMD crystals remains elusive.

**Received:** December 6, 2021

**Revised:** January 27, 2022

**Published:** February 10, 2022



This article reports on the growth of monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub> with a modified CVD method on optical glass using ammonium heptamolybdate and sulfur powder as precursors. When the temperature of sulfur powder is set to 140 °C and the substrate temperature is set to 800 °C, the shape of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes evolves from triangular to three-point stars, then to triangular, and finally to a bulgy irregular shape as the growth time extends. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report on the evolution of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes from faceted triangles to rough, bulge ones. Structural analysis indicates that the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes with three-point-star shape and triangular shape are all single-crystalline; the bulgy irregular-shaped MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes contain a large number of grain boundaries and are essentially polycrystalline. Besides, by increasing the temperature of sulfur powder, we observe that the nucleation at the edge of the crystallite becomes easier, and MoS<sub>2</sub> crystallite transforms from a triangular shape to a bulgy irregular shape much faster. The first-principles calculations indicate MoS<sub>2</sub> clusters are easier to nucleate at the center of the flake edges than in the corner region of the triangular flake. Photoluminescence measurements show that the luminescence intensity of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes strongly relates to the flake morphology. We suggest that our study provides a clue to control the morphology of TMDs for technological applications.

## METHODS

The MoS<sub>2</sub> crystalline flakes are grown in a homemade multi-temperature-zone tubular furnace. Ammonium heptamolybdate ((NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>6</sub>Mo<sub>7</sub>O<sub>24</sub> · xH<sub>2</sub>O, AHM) (Aladdin, purity 99.5%) and sulfur powder (Aladdin, purity 99.95%) are used as precursors. Before growth, the optical glass (HK-9 L, 1.5 × 1.5 cm<sup>2</sup>) is cleaned in H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and is rinsed thoroughly with deionized (DI) ultrapure water (Millipore, electric resistivity 18.2 MΩ·cm). Sulfur powder (500 mg) is loaded in an alumina boat and placed upstream. The AHM solution (0.025 mg/mL) is dropped on the cleaned glass substrates and placed downstream about 45 cm away from the alumina boat. The typical temperature of sulfur powder is raised to 140 °C in 25 min. At the same time, the glass substrate is heated to 800 °C from room temperature within 25 min. The whole growth process is carried out at ambient pressure with 50 sccm of flowing ultrapure N<sub>2</sub> as the carrier gas, and the growth time varies from several minutes to 20 min. By comparing the difference between the amount of sulfur powder before and after the crystal growth, we find that less than 1% of the initial load of sulfur powder has been evaporated when the source temperature of the sulfur powder is set as 140 °C.

The as-grown MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes can be transferred onto substrates using the following transfer method. First, a poly(methylmethacrylate) (PMMA) layer is spin-coated on the MoS<sub>2</sub>/glass at 2000 rpm for 1 min. Then the edges of the PMMA layer are scraped off with a blade, and the PMMA/MoS<sub>2</sub>/glass is then immersed in DI water to peel off the PMMA/MoS<sub>2</sub> film from the glass substrate. After that, the PMMA/MoS<sub>2</sub> film is transferred onto the target substrate. Finally, the PMMA is removed by acetone. For TEM and STEM characterizations, the PMMA/MoS<sub>2</sub> film is collected by the grid while the other operation processes remain precisely the same.

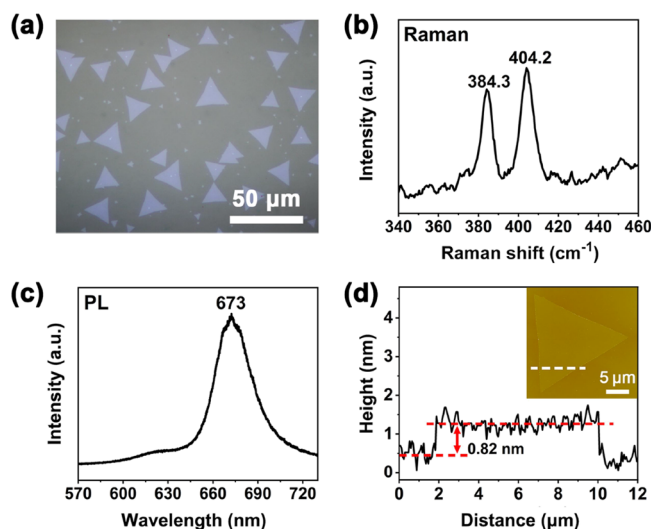
To understand the nucleation mechanism on the edge of MoS<sub>2</sub> crystallite, we perform the first-principles calculations using the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) based on density functional theory (DFT). The core–valence

interactions are treated by the projector augmented wave (PAW) method, where the plane wave expansion is truncated with a cutoff energy of 300 eV. We apply the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) with the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) scheme as the exchange–correlation function. The convergence tolerance for the self-consistent-field iteration was set as 10<sup>−5</sup> eV. A vacuum layer larger than 14 Å was used to avoid the spurious interaction between two adjacent clusters. In momentum space, a two-dimensional 1 × 1 k-grid is used in self-consistent calculations for all studied supercells. All the structures are relaxed until the forces on each atom are below 0.02 eV/Å.

The morphology of the monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes is characterized using an optical microscope (Nikon, ECLIPSE 80i), a multimode atomic force microscope (Digital Instruments, Nanoscope IIIa), and a field-emission scanning electron microscope (Zeiss, ULTRA 55), respectively. The structure of the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes is investigated by transmission electron microscopy (Tecnai F20) and double spherical aberration-corrected scanning transmission electron microscopy (Titan 60–300). Raman and photoluminescence spectra are obtained by a confocal micro-Raman system (Princeton Instruments) with the laser excitation wavelength as 532 nm.

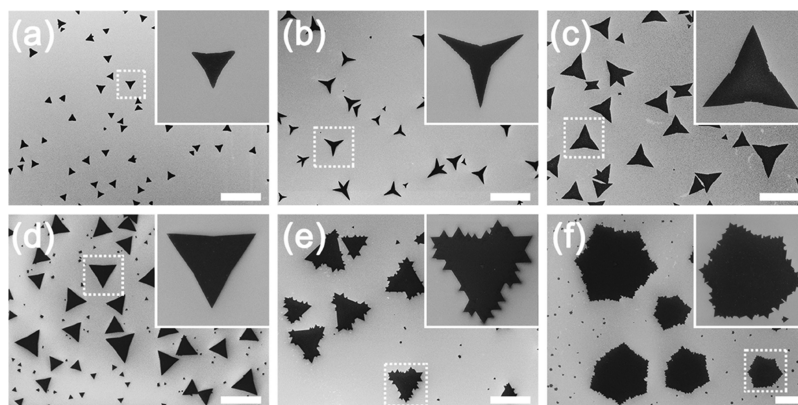
## RESULTS

The optical micrograph of the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes grown on the glass substrate is illustrated in Figure 1a. The triangular flakes are



**Figure 1.** (a) Optical image of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes grown on optical glass. (b) Raman spectrum, (c) Photoluminescence spectrum of MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer. (d) AFM micrographs and height profiles of a MoS<sub>2</sub> flake transferred onto SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate. The height profile is obtained along the dashed line in the inset.

the as-grown MoS<sub>2</sub> crystallites, which possess uniform contrast and are evenly dispersed on the substrate. The darker background is the glass substrate. We use Raman and photoluminescence (PL) spectra to determine the thickness and optical properties of the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes. As shown in Figure 1b, the Raman spectra have two peaks at 384.3 cm<sup>−1</sup> (E<sub>2g</sub> mode) and 404.2 cm<sup>−1</sup> (A<sub>1g</sub> mode), respectively, which are the hallmark features of MoS<sub>2</sub> crystals. The frequency difference between E<sub>2g</sub> mode and A<sub>1g</sub> mode is determined by the number of layers of MoS<sub>2</sub>, and the value of the frequency difference for MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer is about 20 cm<sup>−1</sup> in previous

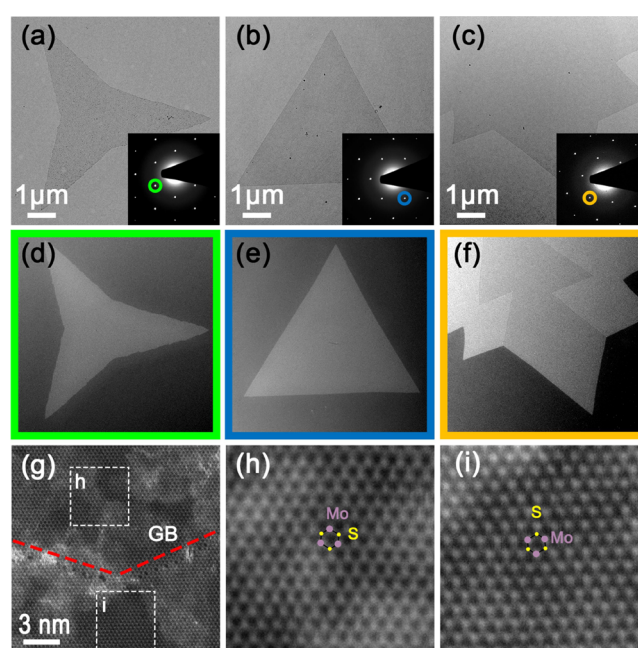


**Figure 2.** SEM micrographs of different morphologies of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes transferred onto Si substrates. MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes were grown with the temperature of S source set as 140 °C, and the growth time was (a) 4 min, (b) 6 min, (c) 8 min, (d) 10 min, (e) 12 min, and (f) 15 min, respectively. The insets are the enlarged micrographs of the flake marked by the white dashed frame. The scale bar represents 30 μm.

studies.<sup>9,10,37</sup> In our experiments, the frequency difference between these two modes is 19.9 cm<sup>-1</sup>, suggesting that the flake is indeed a monolayer. The typical PL spectra of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes (Figure 1c) show a sharp peak at 673 nm, which matches well with the direct excitonic transition of the MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer.<sup>10,18,38</sup> Figure 1d demonstrates the atomic force micrograph (AFM) and height profile of a MoS<sub>2</sub> flake after being transferred on a SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate. The height profile reveals the thickness of the flake is 0.82 nm, which is in agreement with the known values of the MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer (0.77 nm).<sup>9</sup>

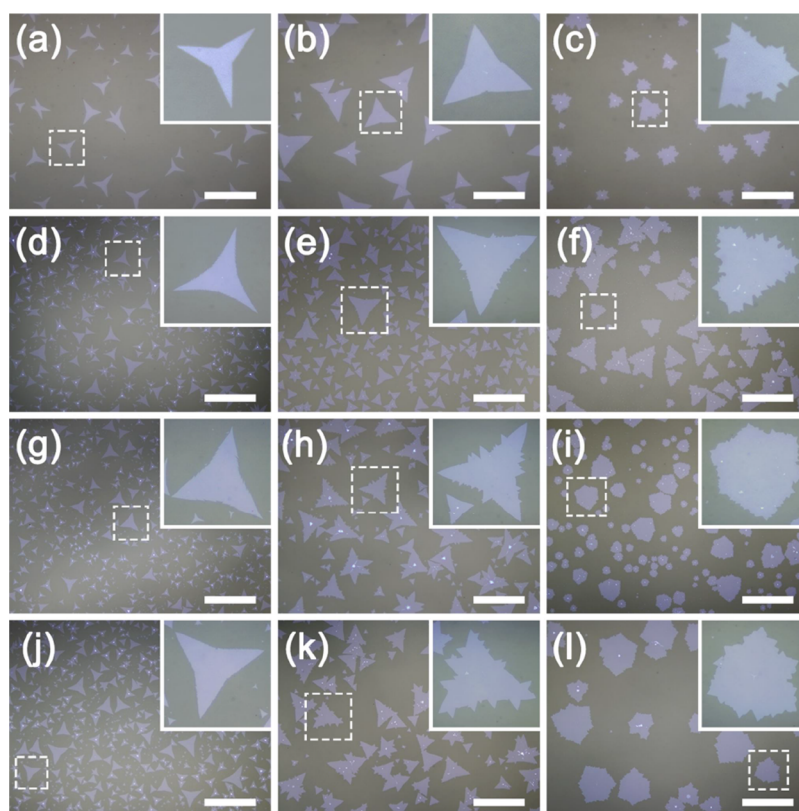
In our experiments, we observe that the morphology of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes changes with growth time. To monitor the morphological evolution of the MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer flakes, we take the growing sample out of the furnace at different growth times, and the as-grown MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes are transferred onto a Si substrate for SEM observation. Figure 2 shows the morphology of the as-grown MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes at different times when the temperature of the sulfur powder is set as 140 °C. The triangular MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes are initially nucleated on the glass substrate (Figure 2a). Then, the corner regions of the triangular MoS<sub>2</sub> flake develop faster than the central parts of the edges, leading to the three-point star shape (Figure 2b). After that, as time goes on, the morphology of the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes gradually evolves from three-point stars back to triangles (Figure 2c,d). As the growth continues, the newborn nucleus appears randomly on the edges of the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes, and the nucleation rate is higher in the central part of each edge (Figure 2e). In this way, the growth pattern gradually changes from a triangle to an irregular bulgy shape (Figure 2f).

To investigate the microstructure of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes with different morphologies, we apply the selected-area electron diffraction (SAED), dark-field transmission electron microscopy (dark-field TEM), and scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM). Figure 3a–c illustrates the bright-field TEM micrograph and SAED pattern of star-shaped, triangular-shaped, and bulgy irregular-shaped MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes. Figure 3d–f shows the corresponding dark-field TEM micrographs collected using a field diaphragm at the green, blue, and orange circles on the corresponding SAED pattern (Figure 3a–c, inset), respectively. As illustrated in the insets of Figure 3a,b, the SAED patterns all have sixfold symmetry. Furthermore, Figure 3d,e shows homogeneous contrast across the whole MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes, indicating that there are no grain boundaries across the crystallite, and the star-shaped and triangular-shaped

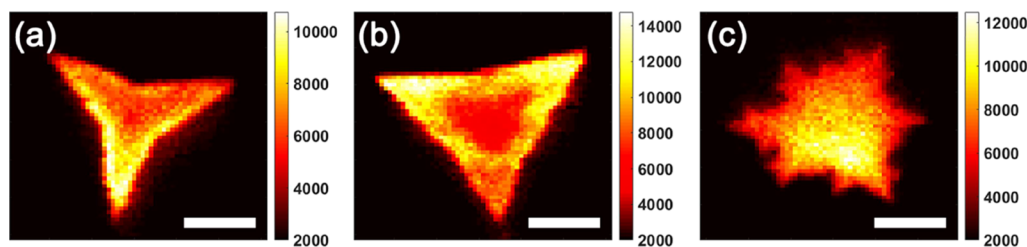


**Figure 3.** Bright-field TEM image of a MoS<sub>2</sub> (a) three-point star, (b) triangular, and (c) bulgy irregular shapes. The inset in (a–c) is the corresponding SAED pattern, which shows the sixfold symmetry. (d–f) Dark-field TEM images corresponding with the (d) green, (e) blue, and (f) orange circle in the corresponding SAED pattern, respectively. (g) STEM image of a grain boundary of bulgy irregular-shaped MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes. The red dashed lines highlight the grain boundary. (h) and (i) Enlarged images of the dashed white region in (g).

MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes are perfect single-crystalline. It is noteworthy that the SAED pattern of a bulgy irregular-shaped MoS<sub>2</sub> flake also shows one set of sixfold symmetric diffraction spots (Figure 3c). However, the corresponding dark-field TEM micrograph illustrates different contrast distributions (Figure 3f). This means that the bulgy irregular-shaped MoS<sub>2</sub> flake is comprised of multiple sets of twin crystalline regions. The regions with different contrast possess a parallelogram shape with the angle between adjacent edges as either 60 or 120°. Besides, the atomic structure of the bulgy irregular-shaped MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes is also characterized by STEM–high-angle annular dark-field (STEM–HAADF) images. Figure 3g shows a grain boundary in an irregular-shaped MoS<sub>2</sub> flake. The high-resolution STEM–HAADF images of the regions highlighted by the white frame



**Figure 4.** Optical images for morphological evolution of MoS<sub>2</sub> at a different time with different temperatures of sulfur powder. MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes were grown with the S temperature of 140 °C at growth times of (a) 6 min, (b) 8 min, (c) 12 min; with the S temperature of 160 °C at growth times of (d) 4 min, (e) 6 min, (f) 10 min; with the S temperature of 180 °C at growth times of (g) 4 min, (h) 6 min, (i) 10 min; with the S temperature of 200 °C at growth times of (j) 4 min, (k) 6 min, (l) 10 min. The insets are the magnified images of the white dashed frame. The scale bar represents 40 μm in (a–c) and 200 μm in (d–l).



**Figure 5.** PL intensity mapping of MoS<sub>2</sub> of (a) three-point star, (b) triangular, and (c) irregular shapes. The scale bar represents 5 μm.

in Figure 3g show the hexagonal lattice of the MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer (Figure 3h,i). The brighter spots correspond to Mo atoms, and the dimmer spots are the two stacked S atoms. Further analysis indicates that the lattice orientation of MoS<sub>2</sub> in Figure 3h has rotated 60° to that shown in Figure 3i, indicating the twinning relation of the two regions. This result is consistent with the dark-field TEM micrograph of the bulgy irregular-shaped MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes (Figure 3f). We therefore conclude that the bulgy irregular-shaped MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes are made of twin crystallites and are essentially polycrystalline.

We further carried out a series of experiments to explore the influence of the temperature of sulfur source on the morphological evolution of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes. In our experimental system, the as-grown MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes are homogeneously dispersed on the substrate at each growth condition. The morphology of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes grown at different sites across the centimeter-sized substrate is essentially the same (Figure S1 in the Supporting Information). Figure 4 illustrates the

morphology of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes at a specific time after the growth has been started at a certain temperature of the sulfur source. When the temperature of sulfur powder is at 140 °C (Figure 4a–c), the morphology of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes changes from star shape to irregular shape in about 12 min. Our observation shows that no newborn nucleus appears on the edges of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes when the growth continues for 8 min. When the temperature of sulfur powder is increased to 160 °C, very few newborn nuclei appear on the edges of the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes in about 6 min (Figure 4e), and the morphology of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes changes from star shape to irregular shape in 10 min (Figure 4f). When the temperature of sulfur powder is further increased to 180 °C, many triangular crystallites develop on the edges of the star-shaped MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes in 6 min (Figure 4h). Thereafter, MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes transform to the bulgy irregular shape when the growth has been started for about 10 min (Figure 4i). When the temperature of sulfur powder reaches 200 °C (Figure 4j–l), more significant numbers of triangular crystallites are formed

on the edges of the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes in about 6 min, and MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes have been transformed to the bulgy irregular shape in about 10 min. Comparing with the morphological evolution processes of the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes, we find that the nucleation on the edges of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes becomes much easier at the higher temperature of the sulfur source. When the growth proceeds for 10 min, the higher sulfur temperature makes flake morphology deviate from the triangular pattern much more evidently.

It has been well established that crystalline defects may affect the optical properties of the crystallite. To verify this, we carry out photoluminescence spectroscopy measurements on the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes with different shapes. The MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes with different morphologies possess a similar spectral profile in terms of peak position, indicating that the optical bandgap of star-shaped, triangular-shaped, and bulgy irregular-shaped MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes are essentially the same (Figure S2 in the Supporting Information). Figure 5 shows the PL intensity distribution of various shapes of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes. For the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes with a star shape and triangular shape, strong enhancement of PL intensity occurs at corners and edges (Figure 5a,b). However, strong PL intensity appears in the central part for the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes with a bulgy irregular shape (Figure 5c). We further carry out photoluminescence mapping on the same MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes with different scanning directions. The results show that the inhomogeneous distribution of the photoluminescence across the MoS<sub>2</sub> flake is the intrinsic feature (Figure S3 in the Supporting Information).

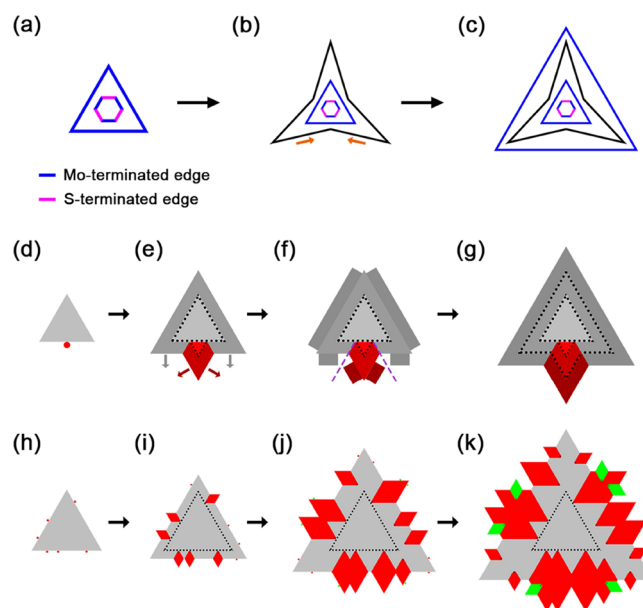
## DISCUSSION

MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer possesses a hexagonal lattice structure, and hence triangular or hexagonal grains will be formed on the substrate depending on the interfacial energy. It has been reported that MoS<sub>2</sub> grown on graphene surface usually possesses a hexagonal shape,<sup>39,40</sup> whereas MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes grown on the surface of SiO<sub>2</sub> typically have a triangular shape.<sup>18,41,42</sup> Once a 2D grain is nucleated, the anisotropic edge free energy determines the final morphology of the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes. The MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes are bounded by the two types of zigzag edges: Mo-terminated edges and S-terminated edges.<sup>18,43,44</sup> The edge free energy of Mo-terminated edges is lower than that of S-terminated edges in the sulfur-rich conditions.<sup>43,44</sup> On the SiO<sub>2</sub> surface, the growth rate of the S-terminated edge is faster than that of the Mo-terminated edge. Hence the S-terminated edges disappear gradually. Consequently, MoS<sub>2</sub> grains retain a regular triangle shape with Mo-terminated edges in a sulfur-rich atmosphere (Figure 6a).

In the growth of a triangular pattern, the corner regions usually develop faster and lead to the transition to the star shape (Figure 6b). It has been well established in crystallization that for a polyhedral crystal, the growth rate normal to a surface (edge) can be expressed as<sup>45</sup>

$$V = \beta(p)\sigma_s \quad (1)$$

where  $\sigma_s$  is the local supersaturation on the surface (or at the edge for 2D crystalline flake),  $\beta$  is the kinetic coefficient, and  $p$  is the local geometrical slope of the face (edge). Due to the geometrical shape of the crystallite, the gradient of the concentration field at the corner site of the polyhedral is higher than that at the center part of the facet (edge).<sup>45–48</sup> In the ideal situation, supersaturation at the corners of the polyhedral crystal,  $\sigma_s(1)$ , is the largest and the supersaturation at the center of the surface,  $\sigma_s(0)$ , is the smallest. Such an



**Figure 6.** (a–c) Schematic plots of the morphology of MoS<sub>2</sub> flake changing from a triangle to a star shape and then back to a triangle. The orange arrows in plot b denote the movement direction of the steps initiated on the tips. (d–g) The model of twin boundaries propagation and morphological evolution process for the triangular MoS<sub>2</sub> flake with epitaxial nucleation at the edge. The solid red circle represents the newborn nucleus. The crimson and gray arrows in plot e represent the edge growth direction of the newborn crystallite and that of the original MoS<sub>2</sub> flake, respectively. The purple dashed lines in plot f mark the position of twin boundaries when two crystallites merge. The black dotted lines outline the crystalline shape at different moments. (h–k) Schematic illustration of the formation of the bulgy irregular-shaped MoS<sub>2</sub> flake originating from the triangle. The red and green regions represent the crystallites formed as different generations. The black dotted lines outline the border of the triangular MoS<sub>2</sub> flake at the initial moment.

inhomogeneous distribution of supersaturation,  $\delta\sigma = \sigma_s(1) - \sigma_s(0)$ , is responsible for the faster growth rate at the corner of the polyhedral crystal,<sup>46,48</sup> and eventually leads to the deformation of the polyhedral.

On the other hand, however, the kinetic coefficient  $\beta$  is proportional to the local slope.<sup>46</sup> The slope of a face is a quantity of inclination to the vicinal face. It is known that the steeper a face is, the higher the step density will be on the face. This means that the sharpening of the tips of a triangular flake increases the local step density around the tip, which in turn makes the local mass consumption rate (growth rate) even higher if the nutrient supply is sufficient. It follows that in the far-from-equilibrium scenario with adequate nutrient supply, the corner will grow faster and faster and eventually develop into a fractal pattern.<sup>49,50</sup> In the diffusion-limited scenario, however, the nutrient transfer is constrained. The sharpening of the tips of the triangular flake increases the local step density in the tip regions. The consumption of nutrients by growing tips will decrease local supersaturation. This process decelerates the further sharpening of the corners. As the development of the steps toward the edge center, the step density on edge will gradually decrease. Eventually, the star-shaped flake will change back to a triangular shape (Figure 6c). There also exists the possibility that the slope of the star-shaped flakes resumes at a specific value, where the nutrient consumption caused by the growth of step is balanced by the

nutrient supply provided by the diffusion-limited system. In this scenario, the star shape can be stabilized.

It has been known that insufficient edge diffusion may lead to morphological instability.<sup>51–53</sup> Especially in our system, the sulfur concentration increases over time, which means that S/Mo atomic ratio is gradually increasing. As this ratio increases, similar to that occurred in ZnO epitaxial growth, the mobility of metal adatoms will be decreased.<sup>54</sup> Meanwhile, insufficient surface diffusion will lead to irregular edge morphology on the macroscopic scale. For MoS<sub>2</sub> growth, the edge diffusion length of the Mo atom can be estimated by:<sup>55</sup>

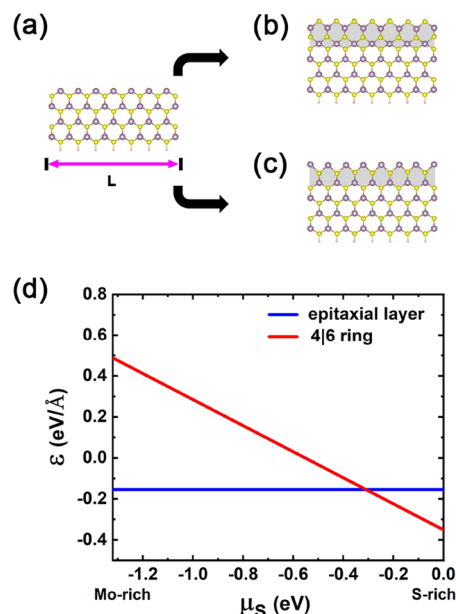
$$\lambda_{\text{Mo}} = \sqrt{D_e \times \tau_e} \quad (2)$$

where  $\tau_e$  is the mean lifetime of the Mo adatoms on the crystal edge before detaching the edge and  $D_e = \nu a^2 \exp(-E_{\text{sd}}/k_B T)$  is the diffusion coefficient along the crystal edge.  $\nu$  is the vibrational frequency,  $a$  is the lattice constant,  $E_{\text{sd}}$  is the activation energy for the edge diffusion,  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann constant, and  $T$  is the substrate temperature. In our experiments, the substrate temperature is kept constant (800 °C). Hence, the temperature is not a variable in the edge diffusion length of the Mo atom. On the other hand, we assume that the sulfur atoms stabilize the mobile Mo adatoms along the edge of the MoS<sub>2</sub> flake by forming Mo–S bonds, resulting in incorporating Mo adatoms into the MoS<sub>2</sub> flake. Therefore, the average lifetime  $\tau_e$  of Mo adatoms is determined by the time interval for the diffusing Mo adatoms on the edge before combining with S atoms.<sup>51–53</sup> This implies the S/Mo ratio plays a crucial role in the edge diffusion length of the Mo atom. The higher the S/Mo ratio, the higher the probability of Mo atoms being stabilized by sulfur atoms.<sup>52,56</sup> Consequently, the formation time of Mo–S bonds decreases with increasing S/Mo ratio. This means that the high S/Mo ratio leads to a shorter lifetime  $\tau_e$  of Mo adatoms, making the edge diffusion length of Mo atom decrease according to eq 2.

Consequently, the edge diffusion length  $\lambda_{\text{Mo}}$  decreases with the increase in the S/Mo ratio. In the early stage of growth, evaporation of sulfur is not sufficient, and hence the S/Mo ratio is small. The Mo atoms can diffuse along the edge freely. However, the S/Mo ratio increases continuously over time. At the later stage of growth, the S/Mo ratio becomes significantly high, and hence the diffusion length  $\lambda_{\text{Mo}}$  decreases dramatically. It is known that the Mo atoms diffuse on the edge of the flake before they bond to S atoms, suggesting that the MoS<sub>2</sub> flake grows in a diffusion-limited regime. On the other hand, as presented in detail later in this section, first-principles calculations indicate that the nucleation energy barrier of a MoS<sub>2</sub> cluster at the corner of triangular MoS<sub>2</sub> crystallite becomes higher than in the central part of the edge. In other words, the central part of the edge of the triangular MoS<sub>2</sub> flake is the most favorable nucleation site. Therefore, at the later stage of growth, MoS<sub>2</sub> molecules are easier to nucleate in the central regions of the edges of the MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes. As the newborn nuclei develop larger, MoS<sub>2</sub> flake gradually changes the morphology from triangular to the bulgy irregular shape (Figure 6h–k). Generally, the variation of the S/Mo ratio affects the edge diffusion length and nucleation behavior on the edge of a 2D crystallite, leading to various growth morphologies. So far, our current experimental data do not show the clue of the substrate influence on the morphological evolution.

Now we focus on the nucleation process on the edge of the flakes. It has been known that twinning occurs in the kinetic

growth of crystallites.<sup>13,57</sup> It is also well established that grain boundaries in the MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer comprise various crystallographic defects, such as 5|7, 4|6, 4|8, and 6|8 rings.<sup>41,58</sup> Among these defects, 4|6 rings (illustrated in Figure 7b) are commonly

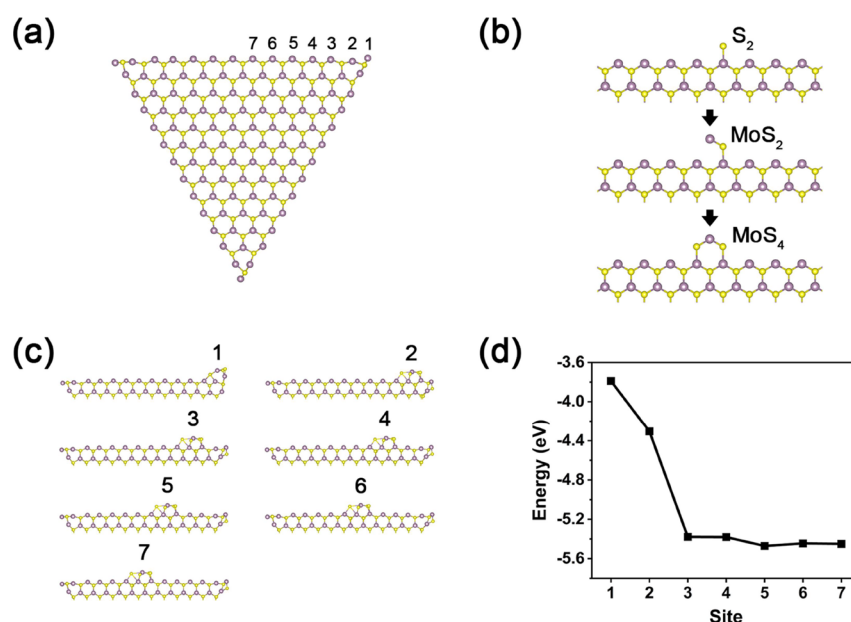


**Figure 7.** Schematic illustration of atomic structures of (a) the  $7 \times 3$  MoS<sub>2</sub> supercell, (b) the  $7 \times 3$  MoS<sub>2</sub> supercell after growing a layer with 4|6 ring (gray shaded area), and (c) the  $7 \times 3$  MoS<sub>2</sub> supercell after growing an epitaxial layer of MoS<sub>2</sub> unit (gray shaded area). The purple and yellow circles denote the Mo and S atoms, respectively. The zigzag S-terminated edge of the MoS<sub>2</sub> supercell is fully hydronated. L represents the length of the MoS<sub>2</sub> supercell. (d) The formation energies of an epitaxial layer of MoS<sub>2</sub> unit and a layer with 4|6 ring as a function of the sulfur chemical potential  $\mu_S$ .

formed in MoS<sub>2</sub> twin crystallites.<sup>58,59</sup> The 4|6 ring contains four Mo atoms and eight S atoms, with two Mo–S bonds shared by the four- and sixfold rings. To gain further insight into the formation of this 4|6 ring in MoS<sub>2</sub> twin crystallites, we study its formation energy by first-principles calculations. For comparison, we also investigate the formation energy of a MoS<sub>2</sub> cluster, which nucleates epitaxially at the edge of MoS<sub>2</sub> crystallite without forming any defects. In both scenarios, nucleation at the zigzag Mo-terminated edge of the MoS<sub>2</sub> ribbon is considered, as illustrated in Figure 7b,c. The zigzag S-terminated edge of the MoS<sub>2</sub> ribbon is fully hydronated to stabilize this edge. The MoS<sub>2</sub> ribbon (shown in Figure 7a) is simulated by a  $7 \times 3$  supercell (7-unit-cell long and 3-unit-cell wide) with periodic boundary conditions. Here all the atomic positions in the studied configurations are fully relaxed. The formation energy renormalized by the length of the MoS<sub>2</sub> ribbon is defined as

$$\varepsilon = (E_\alpha - E_{\text{pri}} - n_{\text{Mo}}\mu_{\text{Mo}} - n_s\mu_s)/L \quad (3)$$

where  $E_\alpha$  is the total energy of the  $7 \times 3$  MoS<sub>2</sub> supercell after growing a layer with 4|6 ring or an epitaxial layer of MoS<sub>2</sub> unit on its edge,  $E_{\text{pri}}$  is the energy of the pristine  $7 \times 3$  MoS<sub>2</sub> supercell,  $n_{\text{Mo}}$  and  $n_s$  are the number of added molybdenum and sulfur atoms on the edge of the MoS<sub>2</sub> supercell, respectively,  $\mu_{\text{Mo}}$  and  $\mu_s$  represent the chemical potential of molybdenum and sulfur, respectively,  $L$  is the length of the MoS<sub>2</sub> supercell (Figure 7a). In a thermal equilibrium scenario,



**Figure 8.** (a) Top view of the triangular MoS<sub>2</sub> crystallite with zigzag Mo-terminated edges. The purple and yellow circles denote the Mo and S atoms, respectively. (b) Schematic illustration of a hexagonal kink (MoS<sub>4</sub> cluster) nucleation processes at the zigzag Mo-terminated edge. (c) Schematic illustration of a MoS<sub>4</sub> cluster nucleating at the different sites of the zigzag Mo-terminated edge after relaxation. (d) The calculated formation energy of a MoS<sub>4</sub> cluster at the different sites of the zigzag Mo-terminated edge.

the chemical potential of molybdenum and sulfur satisfy the equation  $\mu_{\text{Mo}} + 2\mu_{\text{S}} \approx E_{\text{Mo}} + 2E_{\text{S}} + \Delta H_{\text{f}} = E_{\text{MoS}_2}$ , where  $E_{\text{Mo}}$  is the energy of a single Mo atom in the metallic body-centered cubic molybdenum structure,  $E_{\text{S}}$  is the energy of a single S atom in the bulk orthorhombic sulfur structure, and  $\Delta H_{\text{f}}$  is the formation heat of a MoS<sub>2</sub> unit, and  $E_{\text{MoS}_2}$  is the total energy of a MoS<sub>2</sub> unit.<sup>19,44</sup> Then, eq 3 can be rewritten as

$$\varepsilon = [E_{\alpha} - E_{\text{pri}} - n_{\text{Mo}}E_{\text{MoS}_2} + (2n_{\text{Mo}} - n_{\text{S}})\mu_{\text{S}}]/L \quad (4)$$

To avoid the formation of solid sulfur and metallic molybdenum, the allowed region for the values of  $\mu_{\text{S}}$  is  $E_{\text{S}} + \Delta H_{\text{f}}/2 \leq \mu_{\text{S}} \leq E_{\text{S}}$ . The heat of formation  $\Delta H_{\text{f}}$  is estimated to be  $-2.64$  eV. We choose the maximum value of  $\mu_{\text{S}}$  to be zero, corresponding to the sulfur-rich condition. Thus, the minimum value of  $\mu_{\text{S}}$  is equal to  $-1.32$  eV, corresponding to the molybdenum-rich condition.<sup>19,44</sup> According to eq 4, the formation energy of the 4l6 ring nucleated at the edge of MoS<sub>2</sub> crystallite can be expressed as  $\varepsilon_1 = (E_{\alpha} - E_{\text{pri}} - 7E_{\text{MoS}_2} - 14\mu_{\text{S}})/L$ , and the formation energy of the MoS<sub>2</sub> unit epitaxially nucleated at the edge of MoS<sub>2</sub> crystallite can be expressed as  $\varepsilon_2 = (E_{\alpha} - E_{\text{pri}} - 7E_{\text{MoS}_2})/L$ . The formation energies as a function of  $\mu_{\text{S}}$  are plotted in Figure 7d. One may find that the formation energy of the 4l6 ring is lower than that of an epitaxial MoS<sub>2</sub> cluster when  $\mu_{\text{S}}$  is near the right end, i.e., in the sulfur-rich region (it is worth noting that calculating the formation energy of different MoS<sub>2</sub> clusters at a given S/Mo ratio is beyond the capacity of current first-principles calculations). Our calculations imply that 4l6 rings are likely formed on the zigzag Mo-terminated edge of MoS<sub>2</sub> crystallite in sulfur-rich conditions. In other words, twinning can be easily formed on the edge of MoS<sub>2</sub> flake in sulfur-rich conditions. In this case, the lattice orientation of the newborn layer has been rotated for 60° with respect to the original ribbon (Figure 7b). Consequently, once a newborn nucleus appears on the edge of the triangular MoS<sub>2</sub> flake, the nucleus also should evolve to a triangular shape in the

sulfur-rich conditions (Figure 6d,e). The lattice orientation of newborn crystallite has been rotated for 60° with respect to the original MoS<sub>2</sub> flake (illustrated in Figure 3f). Thus, the twin boundaries are formed in this way, as described in Figure 6f. As the clusters with 4l6 rings develop larger, the shape of the nucleus gradually evolves into a rhomb (Figure 6g). By repeating this process on the edge of MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes, a transition to an irregular bulgy shape occurs (Figure 6h–k).

For a two-dimensional crystalline flake, the atomic environment at the corner and in the central part of the edge is different. Let us consider a triangular MoS<sub>2</sub> flake with Mo-terminated edges, which contains 13 MoS<sub>2</sub> molecules along each edge, as illustrated in Figure 8a. For an atom located at the corner, the number of surrounding atoms is fewer than in the central part of the edge. Consequently, we expect more dangling bonds at the corner of the triangular flake, resulting in higher local edge free energy. We calculate the formation energy of a MoS<sub>2</sub> cluster nucleating at the different sites along a zigzag Mo-terminated edge. Following the kink nucleation and kink propagation approach, we introduce S<sub>2</sub> (sulfur dimer) and Mo on the edge of the MoS<sub>2</sub> flake.<sup>60,61</sup> As illustrated in Figure 8b, S<sub>2</sub> is first attached to the zigzag Mo-terminated edge. Then, a Mo atom is attached to bond S atoms at the edge, forming the energetically favorable armchair site of S. In sulfur-rich conditions, the armchair sites are easily occupied by S<sub>2</sub> to form a hexagonal kink. Previous studies have demonstrated that once a hexagonal kink is nucleated at the edges, the kink propagation is fast due to the lower diffusion energy barrier.<sup>60,61</sup> Here, we calculate the total energy of the triangular MoS<sub>2</sub> crystallite when a hexagonal kink (MoS<sub>4</sub> cluster) nucleates at different sites of the zigzag Mo-terminated edge. In our first-principles calculations, the triangular MoS<sub>2</sub> crystallite and the MoS<sub>4</sub> cluster are fully relaxed (Figure 8c). The formation energy of the MoS<sub>4</sub> cluster on the edge of triangular MoS<sub>2</sub> flake is expressed as:

$$\Delta E(x) = E_{\text{total}}(x) - E_{\text{triangle}} - E_{\text{Mo}} - 4E_{\text{S}} \quad (5)$$

where  $E_{\text{total}}$  is the total energy of a triangular  $\text{MoS}_2$  crystallite with a  $\text{MoS}_4$  cluster,  $E_{\text{triangle}}$  is the energy of a triangular  $\text{MoS}_2$  flake,  $E_{\text{Mo}}$  and  $E_{\text{S}}$  are the energies of a single Mo and S atom in the most stable bulk structures, respectively, and  $x$  is the nucleation site on the zigzag Mo-terminated edge (Figure 8c). As illustrated in Figure 8d, the formation energy is the largest when a  $\text{MoS}_4$  cluster nucleates at the vertex (site 1) of the  $\text{MoS}_2$  crystallite. The formation energy of the  $\text{MoS}_4$  cluster decreases significantly when the cluster nucleates in the central part of the edge. This means that the nucleation energy barrier at the corner region of a triangular  $\text{MoS}_2$  crystallite is larger than that in the central part of the edge. This effect promotes nucleation in the central part of the edge and gradually drives the morphology of the  $\text{MoS}_2$  flake from a triangle to a bulgy pattern.

It is known that the charge density state strongly affects PL intensity in TMDs.<sup>18,62</sup> Since  $\text{MoS}_2$  crystal is usually n-type doped,<sup>9,62</sup> the photogenerated electron–hole pair (neutral exciton) can bind with an electron to form a negatively charged exciton (negative trion). In the presence of high excess electrons, the PL process in  $\text{MoS}_2$  is dominated by trion recombination, and most photogenerated electrons and holes are forced to recombine nonradiatively.<sup>63</sup> Meanwhile, the PL intensity of monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$  is low. However, the crystalline defects of TMDs are very sensitive to gas molecules and can act as active adsorption sites due to the strong electronic interaction between defects and gas molecules.<sup>63,64</sup> Consequently, when PL measurements are performed in the ambient environment,  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in the air can easily adsorb at the defect sites. Meanwhile, electrons can be transferred from  $\text{MoS}_2$  to the adsorbed molecules, generating effective p-type doping at the absorption site.<sup>63,65</sup> Due to the depletion of excess electrons in  $\text{MoS}_2$ , neutral excitons are stabilized while negative trions are depleted, which switches the dominant PL process in  $\text{MoS}_2$  from trion recombination to exciton recombination.<sup>63,65</sup> Furthermore, crystalline defects in 2D structures can trap charge carriers and localize excitons.<sup>64</sup> The localized exciton at defect sites of TMDs has large binding energy, which can prevent thermo-activated nonradiative recombination.<sup>65</sup> These effects would lead to an enhanced PL emission intensity. For the  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes with the star shape or triangular shape, their corner and edge regions have many dangling bonds, which act as the active adsorption centers.<sup>13,66</sup> Thus, the substantial enhancement of PL intensity occurs at corners and edges due to the preferential attachment of adsorbates in these regions (Figure 5a,b). It has been known that the PL intensity in  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes increases with the increase of local defect concentration.<sup>64,66</sup> Therefore, we expect the inhomogeneous enhancement of PL intensity at some corner and edge regions may be associated with the inhomogeneous distribution of defects in the as-grown  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes. For the irregular bulgy  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes, the structural analysis indicates that they contain many twin grain boundaries (Figure 3f,g). We believe that repeated twinning is the primary approach to transform the crystallite from triangular faceted crystallite to bulgy irregular-shaped flake (Figure 6h–k). Previous studies have shown that the twin boundaries possess abundant sulfur vacancies and can be considered as active adsorption sites as well for molecule adsorption.<sup>13,66</sup> With a large number of twinning boundaries in the bulgy irregular-shaped  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes, strong PL intensity may appear in the central part of the flake (Figure 5c). However, currently it remains unclear how to compare the PL emission intensity in the central part of the

crystallite and that from the edge and corner regions of the flakes.

## CONCLUSIONS

To summarize, we have synthesized monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes on the optical glass substrate. As time goes on, the growth morphology of  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes undergoes a transition from triangle to three-point star, then to triangle, and finally to the bulgy irregular shape when the temperature of sulfur powder is set as 140 °C. Structural analysis indicates that the  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes with three-point-star shape and triangular shape are all single-crystalline, the bulgy irregular-shaped  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes contain many grain boundaries and are essentially polycrystalline. By tuning the growth time and temperature of the sulfur powder, the atomic ratio of S and Mo can be adjusted on the growing interface. The variation of the S/Mo ratio affects the edge diffusion length and nucleation behavior on the edge of crystallite, leading to various growth morphologies. Optical measurements showed that the photoluminescence intensity of  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes strongly correlates with their morphology. We suggest these observations enrich the understanding of the morphology evolution of  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes and the formation of twinning in  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes. This work also provides a clue to controllably synthesize TMD flakes with a specific morphology.

## ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jpcc.1c10342>.

Optical micrographs of the  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes at different locations across the substrate, photoluminescence spectra measured with different excitation power on the  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes with different shapes, and PL mapping of  $\text{MoS}_2$  flake with different scanning directions (PDF)

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## Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to acknowledge funding support from the National Key R&D Program of China (2020YFA0211300, 2017YFA0303702), and the National Natural Science Foundation of China (11634005, 11974177, 61975078, 11874199).

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