



**Recent Advances in Controlled Synthesis of Two-Dimensional Transition Metal Dichalcogenides via Vapour Deposition Techniques**

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## TUTORIAL REVIEW

# Recent Advances in Controlled Synthesis of Two-Dimensional Transition Metal Dichalcogenides via Vapour Deposition Techniques

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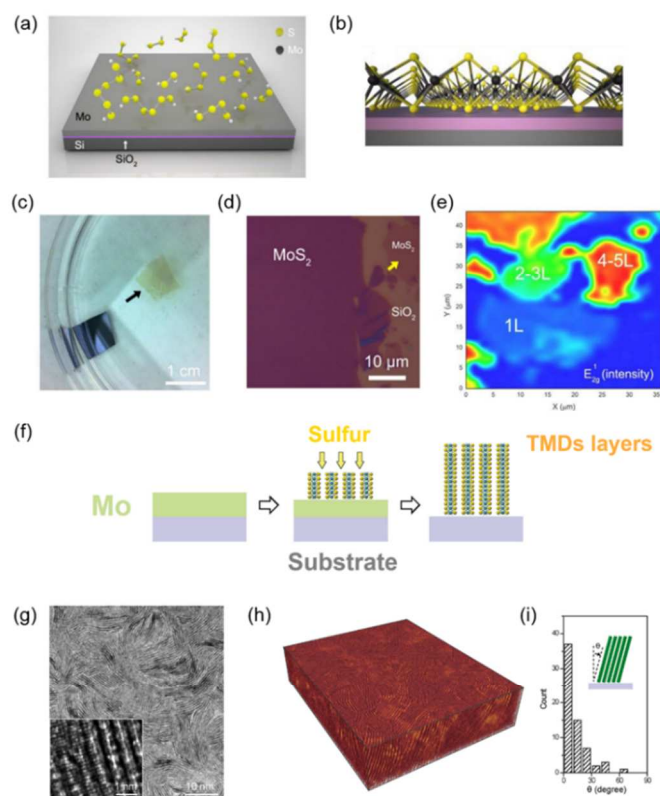
Recent years there have been many breakthroughs in two-dimensional (2D) nanomaterials, among which the transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) attract significant attention owing to their unusual properties associated with their strictly defined dimensionalities. TMD materials with a generalized formula of  $\text{MX}_2$ , where M is a transition metal and X is a chalcogen, represent a diverse and largely untapped source of 2D systems. Semiconducting TMD monolayers such as  $\text{MoS}_2$ ,  $\text{MoSe}_2$ ,  $\text{WSe}_2$  and  $\text{WS}_2$  have been demonstrated to be feasible for future electronics and optoelectronics. The exotic electronic properties and high specific surface areas of 2D TMDs offer unlimited potential in various fields including sensing, catalysis, and energy storage applications. Very recently, the chemical vapour deposition technique (CVD) has shown great promise to generate high-quality TMD layers with scalable size, controllable thickness and excellent electronic properties. Wafer-scale deposition of mono to few layer TMD films have been obtained. Despite the initial success in the CVD synthesis of TMDs, substantial research works on extending the methodology open up a new way for substitution doping, formation of monolayer alloys and producing TMD stacking structures or superlattices. In this tutorial review, we will introduce the latest development of monolayer TMDs synthesis by CVD approaches.

## 1. Introduction

Two-dimensional (2D) transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs)<sup>1</sup> have received much attention recently since they exhibit a wide range of unique electrical,<sup>1, 2</sup> optical,<sup>3-5</sup> thermal<sup>6</sup> and mechanical properties<sup>7</sup> that do not exist in their bulk counter parts. Monolayer molybdenum disulfide ( $\text{MoS}_2$ ), one of the most frequently studied member of TMDs, exhibits not only good chemical stability and mechanical flexibility but also excellent optical and electrical properties.<sup>8, 9</sup> The semiconducting nature of  $\text{MoS}_2$  ensures its high on/off current ratio and the presence of band gap emissions, while still sharing many of graphene's advantages for electronic and optoelectronic application.<sup>10</sup> The essential findings for these 2D materials enlighten researchers with innovations to develop future nanoelectronic devices that better serve the urging needs in compact, light-weight and high-performance integrated electronic systems.<sup>8</sup> The promising performance of the electronic and optoelectronic components made from TMD layers, such as field-effect transistors,<sup>1, 10, 11</sup> sensors<sup>12, 13</sup> and photodetectors,<sup>2, 14, 15</sup> proves them

to be potential substitutes of Si in conventional electronics and of organic semiconductors in wearable and flexible systems.<sup>16-19</sup>

One major and very important research field of TMDs is the reliable production of atomically thin 2D layers and the manipulation of the electronic properties via scalable approaches. To date, two major strategies have been employed to obtain monolayer TMDs: one is the chemical<sup>20-22</sup> or mechanical exfoliation<sup>23</sup> from bulk crystals; the other is the bottom-up growth method. The top-down approaches allow to produce high-quality and micrometre-sized monolayers. It is generally believed, the mechanical exfoliated TMD monolayers possess higher quality and are clean on surfaces, suitable for fundamental research and proof-of-concept device fabrication. However, mechanical cleavage is not suitable for large scale production due to the absence of layer number control ability. On the other hand, chemical exfoliation of monolayer TMDs relies on the liquid-phase preparation method, which materials are promising for solution-based or printable electronics. Yet, the wet chemical method may unavoidably alter the lattice structure of thin TMD



**Fig. 1** (a) Illustrations of introducing sulfur to the Mo thin film which was pre-deposited on the SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate.<sup>24</sup> (b) The structure of MoS<sub>2</sub> on the substrates, where black and yellow atoms represent Mo and S, respectively.<sup>24</sup> (c) Peeled-off few-layer MoS<sub>2</sub> floating on the surface of water.<sup>24</sup> (d) Optical image of the edge of MoS<sub>2</sub> grown on the substrate. Area in dark purple colour are few-layer MoS<sub>2</sub>.<sup>24</sup> (e) Typical landscape of MoS<sub>2</sub> atomic layers on SiO<sub>2</sub> substrates. The intensity of Raman E<sub>12g</sub> mode is correlated to the number of layers.<sup>24</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 24. Copyright 2012, WILEY-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA, Weinheim. (f) Schematically illustration of vertically grown TMDs. When the growth is limited by the diffusion of sulfur (selenium) gas, the TMD layers tend to be perpendicular to the substrate, with exposed van der Waals gap for fast reaction.<sup>25</sup> (g) TEM image of a MoS<sub>2</sub> film produced by rapid sulfurization, clearly showing exposed edges. High-resolution TEM image (inset) reveals individual layers consisting of three atomic planes in the sequence of S–Mo–S.<sup>25</sup> (h) Volume-rendered reconstructed TEM tomogram of a MoS<sub>2</sub> film grown by rapid sulfurization.<sup>25</sup> (i) Statistical distribution of tilt angles ( $\theta$ ) of layers in individual grains in edge-terminated MoS<sub>2</sub> film, where the tilt angle is defined in the inset.<sup>25</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 25. Copyright 2013, American Chemical Society.

layers or introduce extrinsic defects during the exfoliation process and thus require a post treatment to reconstruct the structure of monolayer TMDs.<sup>20</sup>

In this tutorial review, a comprehensive review for the synthetic routes and structural characteristics of monolayer TMD nanosheets and few layered nanoflakes, will be presented. The bottom-up synthetic routes including chemical vapour deposition (CVD), thermolysis, physical vapour transport and layer-by-layer conversion

shall be discussed. The CVD approaches to synthesize TMD monolayer alloys and heterostructures are also introduced.

## 2. Bottom-up approaches towards controlled synthesis of TMDs

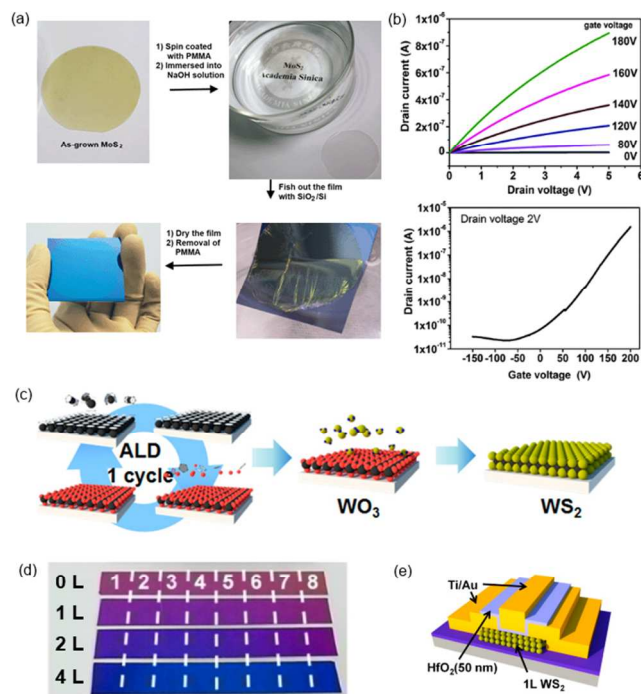
The synthesis of atomically thin TMDs with layer controllability and large-area uniformity is an essential requirement for practical application in electronic and optical devices. Huge efforts have been devoted to the controlled synthesis of 2D TMDs. The large-area and uniform synthesis of 2D TMDs in a controllable manner has remained as a challenge for a long time. Very recently, the CVD technique shows promise to generate high-quality TMD layers with scalable size, controllable thickness and excellent electronic properties. The obtained TMD monolayers or films can be used as the active components for nanoelectronics and as the building blocks for constructing layered heterostructures. For the time being, the CVD or similar method is likely the only available way for achieving wafer scale TMDs.

### 2.1 Synthesis of TMDs via Vapor Phase Deposition

#### (i) Sulfurization (or selenization) of metal (or metal oxide) thin film

There have been attempts to produce MoS<sub>2</sub> layers *via* simple sulfurization of Mo metal. In the report by Zhan *et al.*,<sup>24</sup> Mo film was deposited on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si wafer and followed by thermal annealing in sulfur vapours to produce MoS<sub>2</sub> film (Fig. 1 a-e). The reaction mechanism for synthesizing MoS<sub>2</sub> could be simply understood as a direct chemical reaction. Therefore, the size and thickness of the pre-deposited Mo film determines the thickness and size of the obtained MoS<sub>2</sub> thin film. The direct sulfurization of Mo metal thin film provides a quick and easy way to access atomically thin MoS<sub>2</sub> layers on insulating substrates. However, due to the challenge of forming a uniform metal thin film, both single and few layer MoS<sub>2</sub> coexist on the substrates. The obtained MoS<sub>2</sub> layers show a metallic transport property with a low on/off current ratio, which could be due to the presence of unreacted metal impurities.

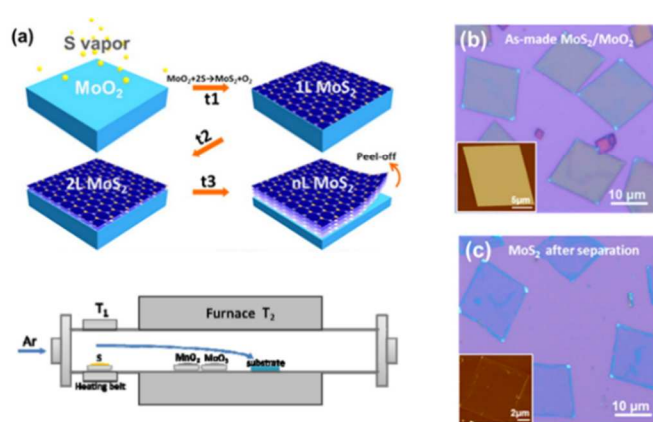
Similarly, Kong *et al.* reported that the vertically aligned MoS<sub>2</sub> and molybdenum diselenide (MoSe<sub>2</sub>) layers can be produced by a rapid sulfurization/selenization process at 550 °C (Fig. 1 f-i).<sup>25</sup> Smooth and uniform TMD edge-terminated films with densely packed, strip-like grains can be produced on various substrates including glassy carbon, quartz and oxidized silicon. It is suggested that the distinction between vertical and in-plane growth of TMDs could be due to different sulfurization/selenization conditions. The formation of the vertically aligned TMD layers is proposed to be driven by a kinetic process, where at a high temperature the transition metal thin film converts to sulfide/selenide much faster than the diffusion of sulfur/selenium. Thus the sulfur/selenium diffusion limits the growth process. On the other hand, the anisotropic structure of TMD layers, makes it much faster for sulfur/selenium diffusion along the van der Waals gaps. Therefore, the TMD layers naturally orient perpendicular to the film, exposing van der Waals gaps for fast reaction.<sup>25</sup> These TMD layers with predominately exposed edges exhibit high surface energy and are thought to be metastable which may serve for diverse catalytic reactions.



**Fig. 2** (a) Pictures showing the procedure to transfer as-synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub> layer from a sapphire to a SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate.<sup>26</sup> (b) Output characteristics (drain current  $I_d$  vs. drain voltage  $V_d$ ) and transfer curves ( $I_d$  vs. gate voltage  $V_g$ ) for the bottom-gate transistor based on the MoS<sub>2</sub> layers.<sup>26</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 26. Copyright 2012, Royal Society of Chemistry. (c) Schematic illustration of the synthetic procedure for the ALD-based WS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets.<sup>28</sup> (d) Optical image of the transferred WS<sub>2</sub> on the SiO<sub>2</sub> substrate. The colour change from light purple to dark blue suggests the increased layer number of WS<sub>2</sub> as indicated in the figure.<sup>28</sup> (e) Typical FET device structure based on the WS<sub>2</sub> atomic layers.<sup>28</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 28. Copyright 2013, American Chemical Society.

An alternative effort has also been devoted to producing wafer-scale semiconducting MoS<sub>2</sub> thin layers,<sup>26</sup> where the direct sulfurization approach is adapted but replacing the Mo metal with MoO<sub>3</sub> thin layer (Fig. 2 a-b). The MoS<sub>2</sub> thin film derived from this method shows a high on/off current ratio rather than the resistor-like behaviour. To produce wafer-scale MoS<sub>2</sub> thin film, MoO<sub>3</sub> thin layer with a desired thickness was firstly prepared by thermal evaporation on sapphire substrates. During the growth, MoO<sub>3</sub>-coated sapphire substrate was initially reduced to MoO<sub>2</sub> or other reduced Mo forms in a H<sub>2</sub>/Ar environment at 500 °C. The sample was then annealed in a sulfur-rich environment at 1000 °C, which leads to the formation of wafer scale MoS<sub>2</sub> thin layer with semiconductor properties. The as-grown MoS<sub>2</sub> thin film can be transferred to arbitrary substrates for electronic device fabrication, thus the target substrate does not need to expose to high temperatures. Similar strategy has also been adopted for the synthesis of large-area WS<sub>2</sub> sheets with controllable thickness.<sup>27</sup> Although it is still at its infant stage, this approach paves a practical way to the synthesis of TMD films for large scale integrated electronics and optoelectronics.

The aforementioned TMDs synthesis method by direct sulfurization (or selenization) of transition metal (or metal oxide) thin film has several limitations, for example, it is hard to control the thickness of pre-deposited metal oxide or metal thin film, which limits the wafer-scale uniformity. To obtain a high-quality TMD with desired number of layers, the thickness of metal oxides need to be precisely controlled. Recent attempts have been made to improve the synthetic



**Fig. 3** (a) Schematics for the synthesis and cleavage of MoS<sub>2</sub>. MoO<sub>2</sub> microplates were synthesized by the reduction of MoO<sub>3</sub> and then used as templates to grow MoS<sub>2</sub> via layer-by-layer surface sulfurization.<sup>29</sup> (b) and (c) Pictures showing the as-synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub>/MoO<sub>2</sub> layers on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si wafer and the peeled off MoS<sub>2</sub> layers after removing MoO<sub>2</sub>. Insets display the atomic force microscope (AFM) images of as-produced MoS<sub>2</sub>/MoO<sub>2</sub> plates and the transferred MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes, respectively.<sup>29</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 29. Copyright 2013 American Chemical Society.

process by depositing metal oxides layer via atomic layer deposition (ALD).<sup>28</sup> By this method, atomically thin TMD nanosheets with systematic thickness controllability and wafer scale uniformity can be achieved (Fig. 2 c-e). Song *et al.* demonstrated that the number of tungsten disulfide (WS<sub>2</sub>) layers can be controlled by tuning the number of cycles of ALD tungsten trioxide (WO<sub>3</sub>).<sup>28</sup> Because ALD is used for the metal oxide deposition, the obtained TMDs retain the benefits of the ALD process including thickness controllability, reproducibility, wafer scale uniformity and high conformality. Yet the precursor WH<sub>2</sub>(iPrCp)<sub>2</sub> used for the forming of metal oxides is not readily and widely available and the growth could also be limited to certain substrates, for example, the chemically inert and hydrophobic substrates may not be able to efficiently initiate the growth of WO<sub>3</sub> by ALD.

In the above mentioned TMD thin layers, formation of TMD thin films are realized by the sulfurization/selenization reaction or thermal decomposition of the pre-deposited precursors such as Mo, and MoO<sub>3</sub> on the growth substrates. Obviously, the growth of 2D TMD layers can be simplified as deposition of the precursors and large-area thin film can be produced subsequently. However the TMD layers are mostly polycrystalline with a small crystal grain size and uncontrollable layer number. To address this issue, Wang *et al.* reported a method capable of producing highly crystalline MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes with controlled number of layers by using MoO<sub>2</sub> microcrystals as templates (Fig. 3).<sup>29</sup> In this method, MoO<sub>2</sub> rhomboidal microplates were firstly synthesized by thermal evaporation of MoO<sub>3</sub> powder in sulfur environment at 650-850 °C. The surface of MoO<sub>2</sub> microplates was further sulfurized to MoS<sub>2</sub> at a higher temperature (850 – 950 °C) at a later stage. The resulting MoS<sub>2</sub> thin layers can be peeled off from MoO<sub>2</sub> microcrystals using polymethylmethacrylate (PMMA) mediated transfer printing method.<sup>29</sup> The surface sulfurization of crystalline MoO<sub>2</sub> microplates produces a top MoS<sub>2</sub> layer with a high crystallinity. The efficiency of sulfurization was limited by the diffusion rate of sulfur atoms through the existing MoS<sub>2</sub> outer layer. Thus the layer-by-layer sulfurization is possible by adjusting the sulfurization conditions. However, the MoS<sub>2</sub> growth is still determined by the crystal size of MoO<sub>2</sub> flakes, where the MoS<sub>2</sub> single crystal obtained are randomly distributed as isolated islands. Also, the peeling and transfer process



could generally lead to the damage of the MoS<sub>2</sub> surfaces and degradation of its electronic properties.

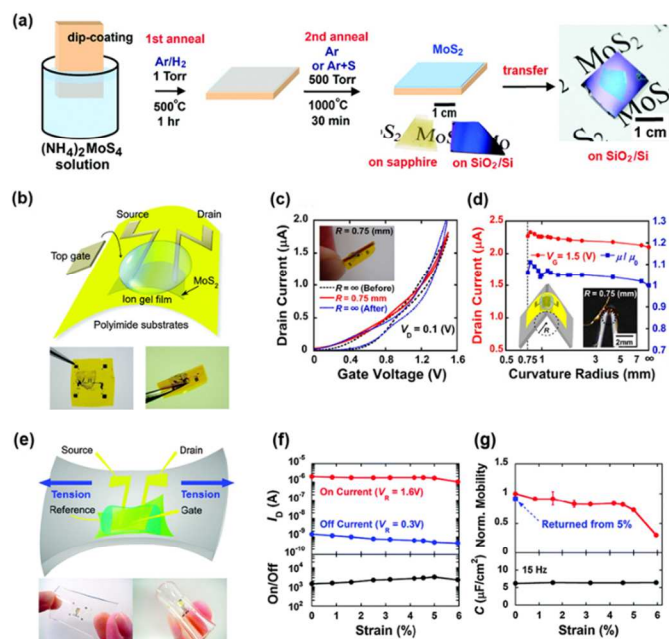
### (ii) Thermal decomposition of thiosalts

In order to produce large-area, uniform and high-quality TMD sheets with good electrical performance, efforts have been devoted to the thermolysis of the precursor containing Mo and S atoms. In 2011, Li's group reported a two-step thermolysis process of ammonium thiomolybdate was able to produce highly crystalline and large-area MoS<sub>2</sub> thin sheets on a variety of insulating substrates (Fig. 4 a).<sup>30</sup> For the first time, the field-effect transistors (FETs) devices based on the CVD derived MoS<sub>2</sub> films exhibit high on/off current ratio and excellent carrier mobility values that are comparable with those obtained from the micromechanical exfoliated MoS<sub>2</sub> thin sheets.<sup>1</sup> The thermolysis of the single precursor ammonium thiomolybdate (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>MoS<sub>4</sub> dissociated it to MoS<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub> and S vapors at above 800 °C. The transformation process of (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>MoS<sub>4</sub> to MoS<sub>2</sub> involves many steps and the presence of oxygen may significantly affect the reaction. Nevertheless, ammonium thiomolybdate needs to be dissolved in polar organic solvents, the carbon contaminations from the residual solvent molecules could also cause the sulfur deficit in the final composition. Therefore, a two-step annealing process is developed to produce high-quality MoS<sub>2</sub> thin film. The (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>MoS<sub>4</sub> thin film was firstly prepared by dip-coating method and carried in to a quartz tube chamber with the Ar/H<sub>2</sub> flow. Temperature was elevated to 500 °C to efficiently remove the residual solvents, NH<sub>3</sub> molecules and other by-products dissociated from the precursors. For the second step, temperature was raised to 1000 °C and the sulfur vapours were introduced. It was suggested that the conversion of (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>MoS<sub>4</sub> to MoS<sub>2</sub> completed at ~425 °C. However, the addition of sulfur during the second annealing process removes the oxygen-containing defects and improves the crystallinity of MoS<sub>2</sub> thin film. The transistor devices fabricated with MoS<sub>2</sub> thin layers in a bottom gate geometry exhibit *n*-type behaviours with a significantly improved on/off current ratio which is ~10<sup>5</sup> and the field-effect electron mobility is up to 6 cm<sup>2</sup>/(V s).

Based on this film, MoS<sub>2</sub> electric double-layer transistors (EDLTs) formed with an ionic liquid were developed. (Fig. 4 b-g)<sup>11,31</sup> These thin-film MoS<sub>2</sub> transistors exhibit remarkably high mechanical flexibility, where the electrical characteristics do not significantly change with bending. Most importantly, these MoS<sub>2</sub> based field effect transistors show excellent band transport with a low threshold voltage (<1 V) and high mobility (12.5 cm<sup>2</sup>/(V\*s)). Although the thermolysis of ammonium thiomolybdate produces high quality of MoS<sub>2</sub> thin film, synthesis of large area TMDs by this method is still challenging due to the technical limitation of uniform and ultra-thin ammonium thiomolybdate film preparation. Meanwhile, the as-synthesized films are polycrystalline.

### (iii) Vapour phase reaction of transition metal oxides with chalcogen precursors

A very early strategy for growing large-area MoS<sub>2</sub> atomic layers reported by Li's group is based on the direct chemical vapour phase reaction of MoO<sub>3</sub> and S powders.<sup>32, 33</sup> During the MoS<sub>2</sub> growth, MoO<sub>3</sub> in vapour phase undergoes a two-step reaction, where MoO<sub>3-x</sub> is likely formed during the reaction as an intermediate phase and these suboxide compounds diffuse to the substrate and further react with sulfur vapours to grow MoS<sub>2</sub> layers. This method allows the growth of single-crystalline MoS<sub>2</sub> flakes directly on arbitrary substrates depending on the control of nucleation density. Hence this

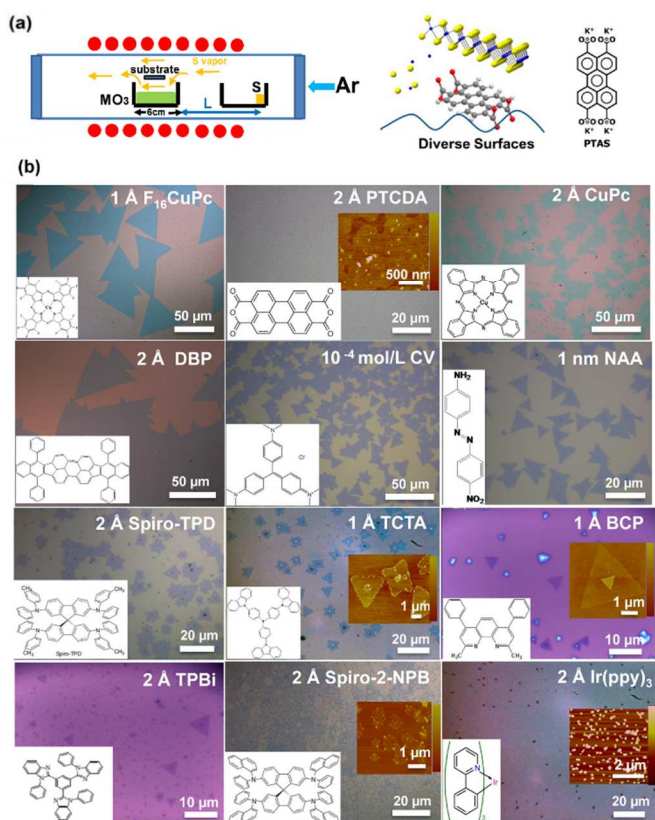


**Fig. 4** (a) Schematic illustration of the two-step thermolysis synthesis of MoS<sub>2</sub> thin layers on insulating substrates. The precursor (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>MoS<sub>4</sub> was dip-coated on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si or sapphire substrates followed by the two-step annealing process. The as-grown MoS<sub>2</sub> film can be transferred onto other arbitrary substrates. Pictures showing the procedure to transfer as-synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub> layer from a sapphire to a SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si wafer.<sup>30</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 30. Copyright 2012 American Chemical Society. (b) Schematic depiction and optical images of the MoS<sub>2</sub> EDLT.<sup>11</sup> (c) Transfer characteristics of the MoS<sub>2</sub> EDLT. The red, black dotted and blue dotted lines correspond to the transfer curve for a curvature radius of 0.75 mm and the transfer curves before and after the bending experiments, respectively. The inset shows the optical image of the 0.75 mm curvature radius.<sup>11</sup> (d) The dependence of the drain current at a gate voltage of 1.5 V (red) and the carrier mobility on the curvature radius. The carrier mobility is normalized by the results without bending (blue). The inset schematically illustrates the bending measurement.<sup>11</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 11. Copyright 2012 American Chemical Society. (e) Schematic illustration and optical images of the MoS<sub>2</sub> transistor under stretching.<sup>31</sup> (f) Top and bottom respectively show the strain dependence of the drain current and on/off current ratio under different reference voltages.<sup>31</sup> (g) Top: electron mobility at various strains. Bottom: the specific capacitance of the ion-gel/MoS<sub>2</sub> interface at 15 Hz under various strains.<sup>31</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 31. Copyright 2013, AIP Publishing LLC.

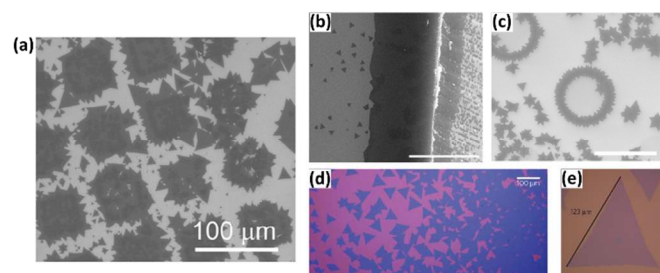
method has been widely used for producing synthetic TMD monolayers.

The growth of MoS<sub>2</sub> is very sensitive to the substrate treatment prior to the growth.<sup>32</sup> The facilitated nucleation by seeding the substrate with graphene-like species has been explored (Fig. 5).<sup>32-34</sup> The substrate treatment using aromatic molecules, such as reduced graphene oxide (r-GO), perylene-3,4,9,10-tetracarboxylic acid tetrapotassium salt (PTAS) and perylene-3,4,9,10-tetracarboxylic dianhydride (PTCDA), promotes the lateral growth of MoS<sub>2</sub>. These graphene-like molecules act as the seeds for growing MoS<sub>2</sub> thin layers. In their growth, the seed concentration is essential for the growth of large-area, continuous and high-quality MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer. Very recently, the role of various seeding promoters in MoS<sub>2</sub> growth was further studied in details.<sup>34</sup> Aromatic molecules, such as copper(II)

1,2,3,4,8,9,10,11,15,16,17,18,22,23,24,25-hexadecafluoro-29H,31H-phthalocyanine (F<sub>16</sub>CuPc), copper



**Fig. 5** (a) Schematics for the experimental setup and the growth process on diverse surfaces. The chemical structure of PTAS is shown on the right.<sup>332</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 33. Copyright 2013 American Chemical Society. (b) Pictures showing the quality of MoS<sub>2</sub> layers synthesized on SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrates by using various small molecule promoters. The triangular shape of most crystallites reflects the 3-fold symmetry of MoS<sub>2</sub> suggesting they are single-crystalline. Insets display the corresponding growth promoters and some of the typical AFM images of as-made MoS<sub>2</sub> layers, respectively.<sup>34</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 34. Copyright 2014 American Chemical Society.



**Fig. 6** (a) Scanning electron microscope (SEM) image demonstrating MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesis using rectangular patterns.<sup>35</sup> (b) SEM image shows the affinity of nucleation to the edges and rough surfaces. A higher density of nucleation is frequently observed on the cross-sectional surface and at substrate edges.<sup>35</sup> (c) Induced nucleation of MoS<sub>2</sub> domains near artificially-made circular edges on SiO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>35</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 35. Copyright 2013 Macmillan Publishers Limited. (d) Optical image of large-grain MoS<sub>2</sub> grown by CVD method.<sup>36</sup> (e) A MoS<sub>2</sub> triangle measured up to ~120 μm from tip to tip.<sup>36</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 36. Copyright 2013 Macmillan Publishers Limited.

phthalocyanine (CuPc) and dibenzo{[f,f']-4,4',7,7'-tetraphenyl-diindeno [1,2,3-cd:1',2',3'-lm]perylene (DBP) can facilitate the

growth of large-area, high-quality and continuous monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub>. However, when inorganic seeding promoters including aluminum oxide (Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>), hafnium oxide (HfO<sub>2</sub>) and SiO<sub>2</sub> are used, no monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub> can be found on the substrates after the growth.

It is anticipated that the presence of aromatic molecules provides a better wetting of the growth surface and lowers the free energy for the nucleation. Among the organic promoters, PTAS as a seeding promoter works exceedingly well for promoting MoS<sub>2</sub> growth on hydrophilic substrates, while F<sub>16</sub>CuPc is found to be a promising seeding promoter for the growth of MoS<sub>2</sub> uniformly on hydrophobic substrates, F<sub>16</sub>CuPc can significantly promote the heterogeneous nucleation process and allowing the fabrication of hybrid structures between MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayers, *h*-BN and graphene (graphite).

Najmaei *et al.* used MoO<sub>3</sub> nanoribbons and sulfur as the reactants for MoS<sub>2</sub> growth.<sup>35</sup> It is found that the MoS<sub>2</sub> triangular crystals are commonly nucleated and formed on the step edges (Fig. 6 a-c). By patterning the substrates using conventional lithography processes, the nucleation of MoS<sub>2</sub> layers can be controlled (Fig. 6 a). The edge-dominated catalytic process is due to a significant reduction in the nucleation energy barrier of MoS<sub>2</sub> at step edges as compared with the flat surface (Fig. 6 b).<sup>35</sup> Further experiments reveal that small triangular MoS<sub>2</sub> domains are preferentially nucleated at the step edges (Fig. 6 c) and then continue to grow and formed boundaries with other domains. The coalescence finally results in a continuous MoS<sub>2</sub> film (Fig. 6 d).<sup>36</sup> It is also found the coalescence of the grains could either leads to the chemically bounded grain boundaries or the grains are simply jointed together by growing on top of each other, without forming any chemical bonds.

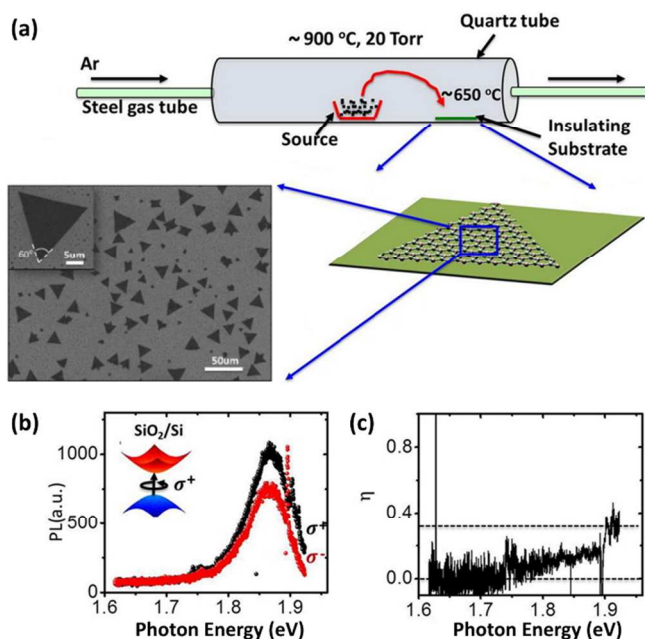
Van der Zande *et al.* reported a refined route for ultra-large MoS<sub>2</sub> single crystal growth with solid MoO<sub>3</sub> and S precursors.<sup>36</sup> The highly crystalline islands of monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub> can be up to 120 μm in lateral size (Fig. 6 e). Neither seeding molecules nor step-edge were used to promote the nucleation of MoS<sub>2</sub>. Large MoS<sub>2</sub> crystalline islands with average size between 20 and 100 μm were obtained by using ultraclean substrates and fresh precursors. The yield can be significantly decreased if dirty substrates or old precursors are used according to the report.

The direct sulfurization/selenation of various metal oxides or metal chlorides<sup>37</sup> have been widely applied in many research groups to produce TMD layers such as MoS<sub>2</sub>,<sup>18, 37</sup> WS<sub>2</sub>,<sup>27, 38, 39</sup> MoSe<sub>2</sub>,<sup>40, 41</sup> and WSe<sub>2</sub>.<sup>42</sup> Among the numerous reports on the synthesis of sulfides and selenides, one should notice that for selenides synthesis H<sub>2</sub> gas is commonly introduced as an additional reducing agent along with Se to further reduce the metal oxides and assist the selenization reaction.<sup>39, 42</sup> Furthermore, Zhang *et al.* revealed that minor H<sub>2</sub> carrier gas can also tailor the shape of monolayer WS<sub>2</sub> from jagged to straight edge triangles under low pressure chemical vapour deposition.<sup>39</sup>

#### (iv) Vapour phase transport and recrystallization from TMD powders

The chemical vapour phase reaction of metal oxides and sulfur/selenium yields monolayers of TMDs which are suitable for FETs fabrication. Yet both tilt and mirror twin boundaries are commonly found in the CVD TMD layers.<sup>35, 36, 39</sup> It has been proved intervalley scattering enhanced by defects and impurities can reduce or destroy the valley polarization.<sup>3, 43, 44</sup> Thus a method for producing high optical quality monolayer TMDs is required for investigating valley-related physics.





**Fig. 7** (a) schematic illustration of experimental setup and SEM images of the as grown  $\text{MoS}_2$  layers using vapour phase transport methods.<sup>44</sup> (b)  $\sigma^+$  and  $\sigma^-$  components of the PL for monolayer VS synthesized  $\text{MoS}_2$  on  $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Si}$  substrate,<sup>44</sup> (c) degree of PL circular polarization vs. photon energy (eV) at room temperature.<sup>44</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 44. Copyright 2013 American Chemical Society

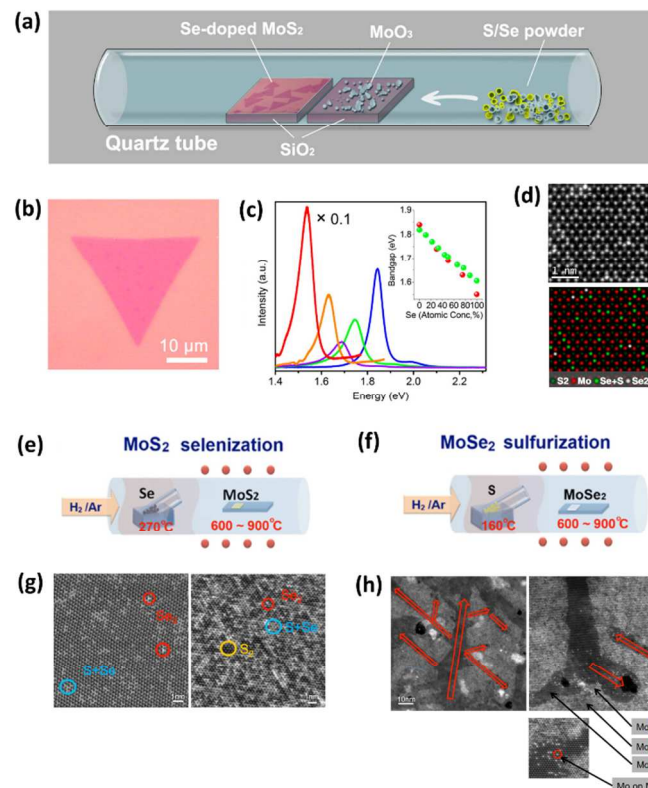
Wu *et al.* have developed a vapour-solid (VS) growth method for synthesizing high optical quality  $\text{MoS}_2$  monolayer.<sup>44</sup>  $\text{MoS}_2$  monolayer flakes can be produced on insulating substrates (such as Si wafer and sapphire) by simple physical vapour transport of  $\text{MoS}_2$  powder in an inert environment.  $\text{MoS}_2$  powder was evaporated at  $\sim 900$  °C under a low pressure of 20 torr. The collecting substrates were put in a heating zone at 650 °C (Fig. 7 a). It has been reported that the intervalley scattering increases with temperature due to the enhanced phonon populations, resulting in the decrease of valley polarization. The photoluminescence (PL) polarization obtained from the  $\text{MoS}_2$  prepared by VS growth is substantial with a maximum of 35% at  $\sim 1.92$  eV, even at room temperature. The result suggests the VS grown  $\text{MoS}_2$  has a superb optical quality and high crystallinity (Fig. 7 b-c). However, for the VS growth the nucleation of  $\text{MoS}_2$  crystals appears to be random and thicker layers of  $\text{MoS}_2$  can also be frequently found, which is due to the limitation of VS growth technique.

## 2.2 Synthesis of band gap tuneable monolayer alloys

Bandgap engineering of 2D materials is critical to their applications in nanoelectronics and optoelectronics. Tuning band energies of TMDs can be achieved through strain engineering, the reported tunability of the band gap is within 100 meV per 1% strain.<sup>45-47</sup> However, the strain engineering remains difficult to be utilized for real electronic devices fabrication. Alternatively, the metallic or semiconducting properties of TMDs can be determined by the choice of transition metals and the substitution doping of chalcogenides also gives the freedom of tuning the electronic properties.<sup>48</sup> In other words, the intrinsic band gap of TMDs can be engineered by stoichiometry. Fortunately, the isomorphism of the transition metal dichalcogenide families ( $\text{MX}_2$ : M=Mo, W; X=S, Se, Te) also makes them promising

candidates to form ternary van der Waals alloys without phase separation.<sup>49-53</sup>

In early studies, the TMD solid solutions both in the metal (e.g.,  $\text{Mo}_x\text{W}_{1-x}\text{S}_2$ ) and chalcogen (e.g.,  $\text{MoS}_{2(1-x)}\text{Se}_{2x}$ ) sublattice forms have been realized by the direct vapour transport growth, where the stoichiometric amounts of desired powder elements were introduced into a quartz ampoule for crystal growth.<sup>49-52</sup> Very recently, the transition-metal dichalcogenide monolayer alloys ( $\text{Mo}_{1-x}\text{W}_x\text{S}_2$ ) have been obtained by mechanical cleaving from their bulk crystals,<sup>51</sup> where a tuneable band gap emission ranging from 1.82 eV to 1.99 eV was obtained. The theoretical calculations show that the mono layers of ternary van der Waals alloys, such as  $\text{MoS}_{2x}\text{Se}_{2(1-x)}$  are thermodynamically stable at room temperature.<sup>48</sup> Therefore, it is possible to directly produce single layer ternary TMD alloys *via* the



**Fig. 8** (a) schematically illustration of the controlled synthesis of  $\text{MoS}_{2(1-x)}\text{Se}_{2x}$  layers via chemical vapour deposition.<sup>53</sup> (b) Typical optical images of monolayer and single-crystal domains.<sup>53</sup> (c) PL spectra change showing the modification of the optical (excitonic) gap in  $\text{MoS}_2$  as a function of Se doping. As the Se concentration increases, a noticeable red-shift in the peak position from 670 to 805 nm is observed, corresponding to an optical gap change from 1.85 to 1.54 eV.<sup>53</sup> (d) Structure model showing the distribution of single- and double-Se substituted  $\text{S}_2$  sites.<sup>53</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 53. Copyright 2013 American Chemical Society (e) and (f) Schematic illustration of the experimental set-up for the selenization and sulfurization process, where the inlet gas carries the vaporized selenium (or sulphur) to the heated  $\text{MoS}_2$  (or  $\text{MoSe}_2$ ) flakes.<sup>56</sup> (g) TEM images of the selenized  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes. Large numbers of  $\text{S}_2$ ,  $\text{Se}_2$  and S-Se can be identified and the replacement is generally homogeneous in location.<sup>56</sup> (h) TEM image of  $\text{MoSe}_2$  sulfurized at 700 °C. The field is composed of two obvious  $\text{MoS}_2$  and  $\text{MoSe}_2$  domains, where  $\text{MoSSe}$  domains are also found in some area. The sulfurization preferentially proceeds through certain directions, which are related to the crystal orientation.<sup>56</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 56. Copyright 2014 Su, Hsu, Hsu, Chen, Chiu, Lin, Chang, Suenaga, He and Li.

bottom up technique. By adapting the VS growth approach, Feng *et al.* reported the growth of 2D  $\text{MoS}_{2(1-x)}\text{Se}_{2x}$  ( $0 \leq x \leq 0.40$ ) semiconductor alloys.<sup>54</sup>  $\text{MoS}_2$  and  $\text{MoSe}_2$  powders are used as the growth precursors and simultaneously evaporated to form the TMD alloys under a pressure of  $\sim 8$  Pa.<sup>54</sup> By tuning the evaporation temperature of  $\text{MoS}_2$  and  $\text{MoSe}_2$ , the composition of as-synthesized  $\text{MoS}_{2(1-x)}\text{Se}_{2x}$  monolayers can be controlled. Furthermore, the bandgap photoluminescence is tunable from 1.86 eV (i.e., 665 nm, reached with  $x = 0$ ) to 1.73 eV (i.e., 716 nm, reached with  $x = 0.40$ ).<sup>54</sup>

Gong *et al.* utilized the same technique developed for  $\text{MoS}_2$  and  $\text{WS}_2$  synthesis to produce ternary van der Waals alloys where selenium and sulfur were mixed with a certain weight percentage to react with  $\text{MoO}_3$  (Fig. 8 a-d).<sup>53</sup> It was found the doping of Se in  $\text{MoS}_2$  layer is random and homogeneous at the nanoscale. PL measurement shows that the optical band gap of  $\text{MoS}_{2(1-x)}\text{Se}_{2x}$  can be continuously tuned between 1.85 eV and 1.60 eV by changing the Se doping level. However, large variations in atomic composition from flakes to flakes are expected owing to the difficulty to precisely control the S and Se vapour diffusion in a small CVD furnace. A scalable method to synthesize monolayer TMD alloys is still urgently needed for practical applications.

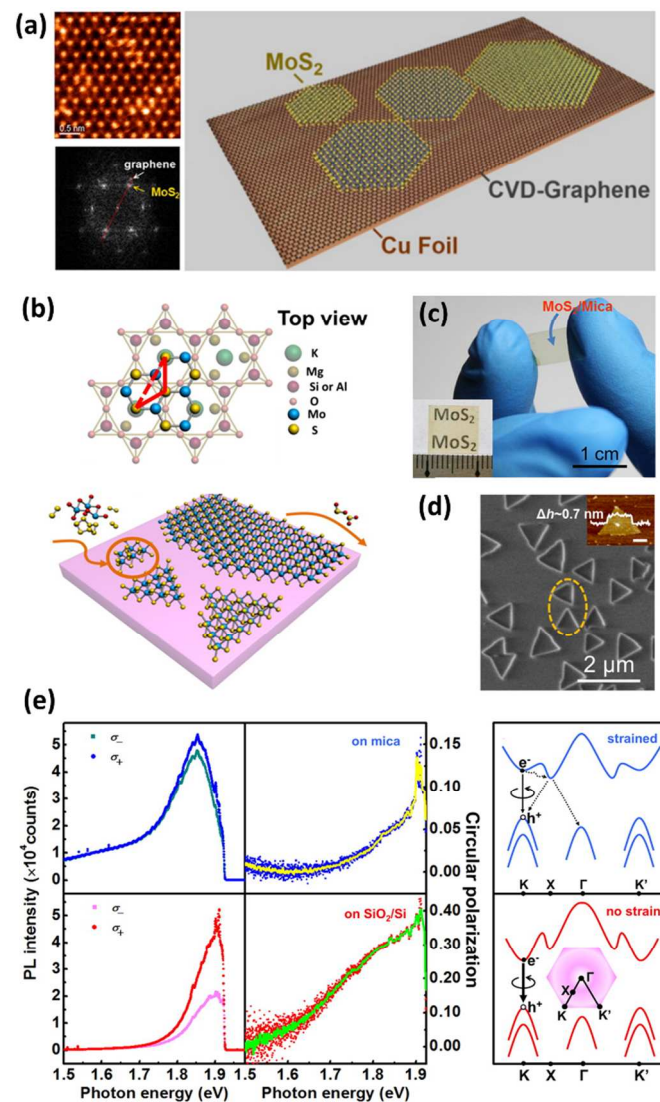
Su *et al.* systematically compared the two approaches of forming  $\text{MoS}_{2x}\text{Se}_{2(1-x)}$  monolayer alloys: selenization of CVD  $\text{MoS}_2$  and sulfurization of CVD  $\text{MoSe}_2$  (Fig. 8 e-h).<sup>55, 56</sup> The optical energy gap of as-grown  $\text{MoS}_2$  can be continuously modulated from 1.86 eV to 1.57 eV depending on the reaction temperature. Spectroscopic and TEM evidences show that the Mo-S bonds can be replaced by the Mo-Se bonds in a random manner. In contrast, the replacement of Mo-Se by Mo-S preferentially occurs along certain directions depending on the crystalline orientation of  $\text{MoSe}_2$  and thus the  $\text{MoSe}_2/\text{MoS}_2$  biphases can be observed in the alloys, which makes the optical band gap of these alloys distinctly different. The study suggests that the reaction is kinetically controlled and the temperature is a straightforward control parameter for the composition of monolayer alloys.

### 2.3 Heterostructural stacking based on $\text{MoS}_2$ and other 2D monolayers

With various 2D building blocks in hand, it is possible to create novel atomically thin crystals *via* stacking various materials such as graphene, *h*-BN and TMDs with proper procedures. Combining the electronic properties of different 2D layered materials in hybrid heterostructures offers the possibility to create devices with new functionalities. Therefore, it is of huge interest in the construction of these hetero-layered materials, e.g. alternating individual layers of different 2D films (Graphene, boron nitride, Mica,  $\text{MoS}_2$ ,  $\text{WS}_2$ ,  $\text{WSe}_2$  and  $\text{MoSe}_2$ ) with particular stacking patterns. Depending on the interlayer coupling strength, the luminescence spectrum of TMDs can be tailored.<sup>57</sup> These TMD tandem structures provide unlimited opportunities to develop unique properties for both fundamental study as well as electronic and photovoltaic applications.

Many novel devices are based on heterostructures formed between  $\text{MoS}_2$  and graphene. Electronic logic and memory devices have already been constructed from graphene- $\text{MoS}_2$  hybrids.<sup>58, 59</sup> The graphene/ $\text{MoS}_2$  heterostructures have also been adopted to demonstrate an extremely high photo gain<sup>4, 60</sup> and the ultrasensitive detection of DNA hybridization.<sup>61</sup> Therefore, efforts have also been made in the growth of hybrid graphene/ $\text{MoS}_2$  structures. Lin *et al.* reported the direct synthesis of TMDs on epitaxial graphene, these

large-area van der Waals heterostructures show a significant improvement in photoresponse compared to the TMD layer alone.<sup>60</sup> Shi *et al.* reported the self-assembly of  $\text{MoS}_2$  flakes on the graphene surface via thermal decomposition of ammonium thiomolybdate (Fig. 9 a).<sup>62</sup> Notice that the lattice spacing for  $\text{MoS}_2$  is 28% larger than that for graphene, it is likely that the crystal orientation can be incommensurate due to the large strains between layers. However,

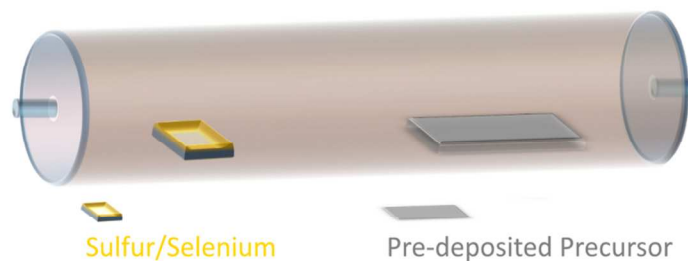


**Fig. 9** (a) TEM analysis of monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$  grown on graphene. The electron diffraction pattern suggests the van der Waals epitaxy of  $\text{MoS}_2$ /graphene layers.<sup>62</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 62. Copyright 2012 American Chemical Society (b) A schematic view illustrating the surface reaction during epitaxial growth of  $\text{MoS}_2$ .<sup>65</sup> (c) Photograph of monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$  with a full coverage on mica.<sup>65</sup> (d) Magnified SEM image displaying the distribution of  $\text{MoS}_2$  layers on mica. Inset shows the AFM image of the highlighted part in figure.<sup>65</sup> (e). Valley-polarized emission from as-grown monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$  on mica and after transfer to  $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Si}$  substrates. The complementary coloured curves are adjacent-point-averaged results of circular polarization. Figure on the right shows the schematic band structure along K- $\Gamma$ -K' direction for the compressively strained (top) and zero strained monolayer  $\text{MoS}_2$  (bottom). Only the direct-gap emission at K valley (solid arrow) shows helicity and the indirect-gap transitions (marked with dashed arrows) give nonpolarized emissions.<sup>65</sup> Reproduced with permission from ref. 65. Copyright 2013 American Chemical Society



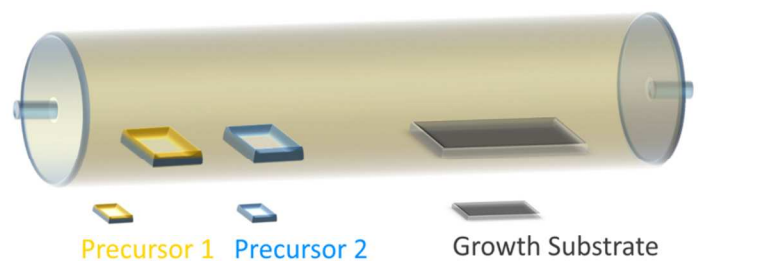
for the MoS<sub>2</sub>/graphene van der Waals stacking layers, all the remaining strain is expected to get accommodated in the van der Waals (vdW) gap. Therefore, even though there is a large lattice mismatch between the MoS<sub>2</sub> and graphene structure, it was found

that graphene can serve as an epitaxial substrate for MoS<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 9a). The heterostructures of graphene/MoS<sub>2</sub> hybrids show great potential in the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER).<sup>63, 64</sup>



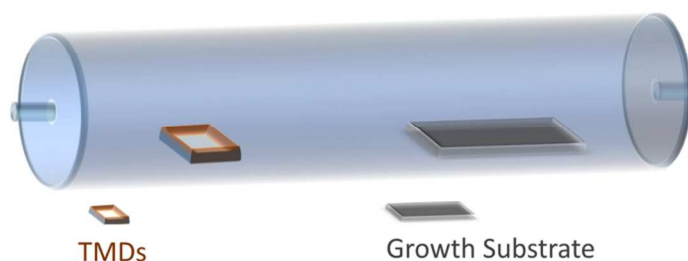
Thermolysis of Pre-deposited Thiosalt					
TMDs	Precursors	Growth condition	Morphology	Optical/ Electrical Properties	Remarks
MoS <sub>2</sub>	(NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> MoS <sub>4</sub> , Sulfur powder	1 to 500 Torr, 500-1000 °C	Bilayer and trilayer thin film	Bottom gate FET: On/Off ratio: 1.6 × 10 <sup>5</sup> Mobility: 6 cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	Ref. 30
	(NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> MoS <sub>4</sub> , Sulfur powder	1 to 500 Torr, 500-1000 °C	Bilayer and trilayer thin film	Electric double-layer FET: Low threshold voltage <1 V; High Mobility: 12.5 cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	Ref. 11, 31
MoS <sub>2</sub> /Graphene	(NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> MoS <sub>4</sub>	10 mTorr to Atmosphere, 400 °C	few layer TMDs on graphene		Ref. 62
Sulfurization/Selenization of Pre-deposited TMD layers					
MoS <sub>2(1-x)</sub> Se <sub>2x</sub> (0 ≤ x ≤ 0.40)	MoS <sub>2</sub> layers (CVD synthesized), Selenium powder (heating at 270 °C)	Atmosphere, 600 to 900 °C	MoS <sub>2</sub> Se <sub>2(1-x)</sub> monolayer alloys	Optical band gap tunable from 1.57 (790 nm) to 1.86 eV (667 nm)	Ref.55
MoS <sub>2(1-x)</sub> Se <sub>2x</sub> (0 ≤ x ≤ 0.40)	CVD synthesized MoS <sub>2</sub> /MoSe <sub>2</sub> layers, Sulfur powder (heating at 160 °C), Selenium powder(heating at 270 °C)	Atmosphere, 600 to 900 °C	MoS <sub>2</sub> Se <sub>2(1-x)</sub> monolayer alloys	Band gap photoluminescence is tunable from 1.57 eV (790 nm) to 2.0 eV (620 nm)	Ref. 56
Sulfurization/Selenization of Pre-deposited Metal thin film/Metal Oxide					
MoS <sub>2</sub>	~1- 5 nm Mo film, Sulfur powder (heating at >113 °C)	Atmosphere at 500-750 °C	Continues thin film with monolayer and few layer TMDs coexist	Field-effect transistor (FET): Mobility: 0.004 to 0.04 cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> Resistivity: ~1.46 × 10 <sup>4</sup> to 2.84 × 10 <sup>4</sup> Ω/□	Ref. 24
	~0.8 to 3.6 nm MoO <sub>3</sub> thin layer, Sulfur powder (heating together with precursor at 1000 °C)	1 to 600 Torr, 500 to 1000 °C	2 to 3 layers isolated domains, 3 layers continuous film	FET: On/Off ratio: 10 <sup>5</sup> Mobility: 0.8cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	Ref. 26 Capable for wafer scale synthesis of TMDs
	MoO <sub>3</sub> microcrystals (MoO <sub>3</sub> reduced by Sulfur at 650 to 850 °C), sulfur powder(heating at 145 °C)	Atmosphere, 850 to 950 °C	Rhomboidal shape TMD layers	FET: On/Off ratio: 10 <sup>4</sup> to 10 <sup>6</sup> Mobility: 0.1 to 0.7 cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	Ref. 29 Layer by layer sulfurization of Metal oxides
MoS <sub>2</sub> , MoSe <sub>2</sub>	5 nm Mo film, Sulfur powder (heating at 220 °C) Selenium powder (heating at 300 °C)	Low pressure, 550 °C	MoS <sub>2</sub> and MoSe <sub>2</sub> Films with Vertically Aligned Layers	Catalyst for hydrogen evolution reaction: Exchange current density (A/cm <sup>2</sup> ) MoS <sub>2</sub> : 2.2×10 <sup>-6</sup> MoSe <sub>2</sub> : 2.0×10 <sup>-6</sup>	Ref. 25 The edge-terminated films are metastable structures TMDs
WSe <sub>2</sub>	5 nm WO <sub>3</sub> , Selenium powder (heating at 500)	Atmosphere, 800 °C	WSe <sub>2</sub> Grown on Graphene/SiC		Ref. 60
WS <sub>2</sub>	WO <sub>3</sub> thin by atomic layer deposition (ALD), H <sub>2</sub> S gas	Atmosphere, 470 to 1000 °C	Mono-,bi-, and tetralayers, WS <sub>2</sub> nanotubes	FET: Using high-k dielectric as gate Insulator (50 nm HfO <sub>2</sub> ) Mobility:3.90 cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	Ref. 28
	~1 to 2.8 nm WO <sub>x</sub> thin film, Sulfur powder (heating at 200 °C)	450 mTorr, 750 to 900 °C; Atmosphere for few layer TMDs synthesis	Mono-,bi-, trilayer WS <sub>2</sub>		Ref. 27 W <sub>x</sub> Mo <sub>y</sub> S <sub>z</sub> can also be produced by MoO <sub>x</sub> and Wo <sub>x</sub> coated substrates

**Table 1** Summary of vapour phase sulfurization/ selenization method



Vapor Phase Reaction						
TMDs	Precursors	Growth condition	Morphology	Optical/ Electrical Properties	Remarks	
MoS <sub>2</sub>	MoO <sub>3</sub> Sulfur Powder	Atmosphere, 650 °C	Monolayer	FET: On/Off ratio: ~10 <sup>4</sup> Mobility: 0.02cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	Ref. 32 Graphene-like molecules were used for substrate treatment	
	MoO <sub>3</sub> , Sulfur Powder (heating at 180 °C)	Atmosphere, 650 °C	Monolayer		Ref.34 Various of aromatic molecules can be used as seeding promoters	
	MoO <sub>3</sub> nanoribbons Sulfur Powder	Atmosphere, 850 °C	Monolayer	FET: On/Off ratio: ~6 × 10 <sup>6</sup> Mobility: ~4.3 cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	Ref. 35 Patterned substrates were used to control the nucleation	
	MoO <sub>3</sub> Sulfur Powder	Atmosphere, 700 °C	Monolayer	FET: On/Off ratio: ~1× 10 <sup>5</sup> to 1× 10 <sup>7</sup> Mobility: ~3 to 4 cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	Ref. 36 Large single domain (> 100 μm) can be synthesized by using ultraclean substrates	
	MoCl <sub>3</sub> , Sulfur Powder (heating at 300°C)	2 Torr, 850 °C	Monolayer and fewlayer	FET: Mobility: ~0.003 to 0.03 cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	Ref.37	
	MoO <sub>3</sub> , Sulfur Powder (heating at ~100°C)	~225 mTorr, 530 °C	Monolayer on Mica	Perfect valley related optical properties	Ref. 65	
	MoO <sub>3</sub> , Sulfur Powder (heating at ~130°C)	5 Torr, 670 °C	Monolayer on Graphene/SiC	10 <sup>3</sup> improvement in photoresponse compared to MoS <sub>2</sub> along	Ref. 60	
WS <sub>2</sub>	WO <sub>3</sub> Sulfur Powder	550 to 750 °C	Monolayer		Ref. 5	
	WO <sub>3</sub> Sulfur Powder (heating at ~100°C)	~225 mTorr, 900 °C	Monolayer and fewlayer	FET: On/Off ratio: ~1× 10 <sup>2</sup> Mobility: ~0.46 and 0.28 cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> for electron and hole ,respectively	Ref. 39 Ionic liquid used as the gating dielectric  H <sub>2</sub> can tailor the shape of monolayer WS <sub>2</sub>	
WS <sub>2</sub> , MoS <sub>2</sub>	MoO <sub>3</sub> , WO <sub>3</sub> Sulfur Powder	Atmosphere, 650 °C	Monolayer	MoS <sub>2</sub> FET: On/Off ratio: >10 <sup>7</sup> Mobility: 1.2cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>  WS <sub>2</sub> FET: On/Off ratio: >10 <sup>5</sup> Mobility: 0.01 cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	Ref. 33 Small molecules were used as seeding for growth  Low mobility of WS <sub>2</sub> could be due to the non-optimised metal electrodes	
MoSe <sub>2</sub>	MoO <sub>3</sub> powder, Selenium powder (heating at ~ 300°C)	Atmosphere, 750 °C	Monolayer and fewlayer		Ref. 41	
WSe <sub>2</sub>	WO <sub>3</sub> powder (heating at 925 °C), Selenium powder (heating at ~ 270°C)	Atmosphere, 750 to 850 °C	Monolayer	Electric double-layer FET: p channel: On/Off ratio: ~10 <sup>5</sup> Mobility: 90 cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>  n channel: On/Off ratio: ~10 <sup>4</sup> Mobility: 7 cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>  WSe <sub>2</sub> based invert exhibits a high gain of ~13	Ref. 42	
MoS <sub>2</sub> (1-x)Se <sub>2x</sub>	MoO <sub>3</sub> Sulfur and Selenium Powder	Atmosphere, ~800 °C	Monolayer	Optical band gap can be fine tuned between 1.85 and 1.60 eV	Ref. 53	

Table. 2 Summary of vapor phase reaction method



Vapour Phase Transport					
TMDs	Precursors	Growth condition	Morphology	Optical/ Electrical Properties	Remarks
MoS <sub>2</sub>	MoS <sub>2</sub> powder	20 torr, 900 °C	Monolayer and few layer TMDs	The photoluminescence polarization is substantial with a maximum of 35% at ~1.92 eV, at room temperature	Ref. 44
MoS <sub>2(1-x)Se<sub>2x</sub></sub> (0 ≤ x ≤ 0.40)	MoS <sub>2</sub> and MoSe <sub>2</sub> powders (heating at 940-975 °C)	~60 mTorr, 600-700 °C	Monolayer	Band gap photoluminescence is tunable from 1.86 eV (i.e., 665 nm, reached with x = 0) to 1.73 eV (i.e., 716 nm, reached with x = 0.40).  Average FET mobility: 0.1 to 0.4 cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	Ref. 54

**Table 3** Summary of vapour phase transport method

Besides graphene, fluorophlogopite mica (KMg<sub>3</sub>AlSi<sub>3</sub>O<sub>10</sub>F<sub>2</sub>) is also considered to be a good vdW epitaxial substrate for TMD growth due to their atomic flat and chemically inert surface with a hexagonally arranged in-plane lattice.<sup>65</sup> Ji *et al.* reported centimetre-scale uniform monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub> can be synthesized on mica through low-pressure CVD (LPCVD) process (Fig 9. b-e).<sup>65</sup> It was concluded that the MoS<sub>2</sub> growth on mica follows an analogous layer-plus-island (or Stranski-Krastanov) growth mode. The Stranski-Krastanov mode follows a two-step process: initially, monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub> domains gather and interconnect with each other till the full coverage of monolayer is nearly completed. Beyond the critical layer number (1 for MoS<sub>2</sub> on mica), the growth of MoS<sub>2</sub> continues through the nucleation and coalescence of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles or few layers islands. Meanwhile, the epitaxial monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub> grown on mica is intrinsically strained due to a small adlayer-substrate lattice mismatch.<sup>65</sup> Room-temperature PL helicity can also be observed when MoS<sub>2</sub> layers are transferred to SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si substrate where the intrinsic strain gets released. The results are similar to the optical quality MoS<sub>2</sub> obtained by vapour-solid method,<sup>44</sup> suggesting the high crystal quality of the MoS<sub>2</sub> synthesized by combining vdW epitaxy with LPCVD.

## Conclusions

This review provides a largely collection of literatures for the preparation of various TMD materials. Table 1, 2 and 3 list the common methods for TMDs synthesis. The reported synthesis conditions and the key properties, such as morphology, number of layers, mobilities, optical band gap have been summarized. Typical experimental setup has also been schematically illustrated. The semiconducting TMD materials with a tuneable doping level make them complementary to graphene. Vapour deposition methods have been developed for the synthesis of monolayer and few-layer TMD nanosheets such as MoS<sub>2</sub>, WS<sub>2</sub>, WSe<sub>2</sub> and MoSe<sub>2</sub>. The CVD approaches, suitable for wafer scale fabrication, provide high-quality TMD films useful for electronic and optoelectronic devices. In addition, the electro dispersive property and the semiconducting

nature of 2D TMDs can be tailored by bandgap engineering. The stacking of different types of 2D nanomaterials also attracts attention for integrated circuits. Novel properties and new phenomena could arise from the 2D heterostructural stacking or alloys. To realize the practical applications, more efforts are needed to attack many issues related to the growth, including layer number control, size control, area selective growth and the direct growth of heterostructures.

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## Notes and references

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