WS₂/MoS₂ heterostructures via thermal treatment of MoS₂ layers electrostatically

functionalized with W₃S₄ molecular clusters

Marc Morant-Giner,^[a] Isaac Brotons-Alcazar,^[a] Nikita Y. Shmelev,^[b] Artem L. Gushchin,^[b] Luke Norman,^[c] Andrei N. Khlobystov,^[c] Antonio Alberola,^[a] Sergio Tatay,^[a] J. Canet-Ferrer,^[a] Alicia

Forment-Aliaga, *[a] and Eugenio Coronado *[a]

[a] M. Morant-Giner, I. Brotons, A. Dr. Alberola, Dr. S. Tatay, Dr. J. Canet-Ferrer, Dr. A. Forment-Aliaga and Prof. E. Coronado

Instituto de Ciencia Molecular

Universitat de València

C/ Catedrático José Beltrán, 2; 46980 Paterna, Spain

E-mail: alicia.forment@uv.es; eugenio.coronado@uv.es

[b] N. Y. Shmelev and Dr. A. L. Gushchin

Nikolaev Institute of Inorganic Chemistry

Siberian Branch of Russian Academy of Sciences

3, Acad. Lavrentiev Ave.; Novosibirsk, 630090, Russia

Novosibirsk State University

1 Pirogov str.; Novosibirsk, 630090, Russia

[c] L. Norman and Prof. A. N. Khlobystov

School of Chemistry

University of Nottingham

University Park.; Nottingham, NG7 2RD, UK

Abstract: The preparation of 2D stacked layers that combine flakes of different nature, gives rise to countless number of heterostructures where new band alignments, defined at the interfaces, control the electronic properties of the system. Among the large family of 2D/2D heterostructures, the one formed by the combination of the most common semiconducting transition metal dichalcogenides WS₂/MoS₂, has awaken great interest due to its photovoltaic and photoelectrochemical properties. Solution as well as dry physical methods have been developed to optimize the synthesis of these heterostructures. Here a suspension of negatively charged MoS₂ flakes is mixed with a methanolic solution of a cationic W₃S₄-core cluster, giving rise to a homogeneous distribution of the clusters over the layers. In a second step, a calcination under N₂ of this molecular/2D heterostructure leads to the formation of clean WS₂/MoS₂ heterostructures where the photoluminescence of both counterparts is quenched, proving an efficient interlayer coupling. Thus, this chemical method combines the advantages of a solution approach (simple, scalable and low-cost) with the good quality interfaces reached by using more complicated traditional physical methods.

Introduction

Since the isolation of graphene, two-dimensional (2D) materials have become a hot focus of interest in materials science because of their strong 2D quantum confinement and large high surface-area-to-volume ratios.¹ Nowadays, in addition to downsizing layered materials to the 2D limit, the scientific community endeavours to study and harness the novel properties and synergistic effects arising from the combination of different 2D components into advanced functional heterostructures, especially in (bio)sensing,² electronics,³ optoelectronics,³ and (photo)catalysis.⁴

Among the most studied 2D materials, the large family of transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDCs) stands out due to its wide variety of electronic properties, ranging from semiconductors⁵ to superconductors.⁶ TMDCs are layered compounds consisting of vertically stacked X-M-X slabs, with a general chemical formula of MX₂, where M stands for a transition metal (usually pertaining to groups IV-VII) and X refers to a chalcogen (S, Se, or Te).^{7,8} As the interlayer van der Waals (vdW) interactions are much weaker than the intralayer covalent bonding, 2D X-M-X slabs can be readily produced by exfoliation.⁹ In relation to their structure, the most common polytypes are 1T and 2H (or 1H in the case of monolayer), where the digit alludes to the number of X-Mo-X layers per unit cell and the letter indicates the structural symmetry (*e.g.*, T = tetragonal and H = hexagonal).¹⁰

Interestingly, 2D semiconducting TMDCs display a broad spectrum of possibilities in photoelectrocatalysis, particularly in the branch concerning energy storage and conversion.¹¹ Currently, titanic efforts are addressed to speed up the rate of hydrogen and oxygen evolution reactions (HER and OER, respectively) occurring during the well-known photoelectrochemical (PEC) water splitting process, where TMDCs can play a crucial role.

Amongst semiconducting TMDCs, isostructural WS₂ and MoS₂ in their thermodynamically stable 2H phase are robust under wet conditions, including acidic media,¹² and exhibit exceptional lightmatter interactions, like photovoltaic properties.^{13,14} Apart from possessing a hydrogen binding energy close to that of Pt-group,¹⁵ computational studies appear to indicate that the valence band edges of WS₂ and MoS₂ monolayers straddle the water oxidation potential.^{16,17} Interestingly, in WS₂/MoS₂ heterostructures, the energy band alignment existing at the interface of both materials not only promotes the electron hole dissociation but also extends the charge carrier lifetime, enhancing the diffusion length, which renders this kind of heterojunction appealing for optoelectronic and light harvesting applications.^{18,19}

As an example of the relevance of these heterostructures, high-quality large-area WS_2/MoS_2 heterojunctions synthesized by chemical vapour deposition (CVD) have evidenced a noteworthy photocatalytic performance for salt-water oxidation.²⁰ However, also WS_2/MoS_2 heterostructures prepared by a straightforward and low-cost liquid-phase method can oxidize water in acidic environment (without the need of using cocatalysts and protective layers), while increasing the incident-photon-to-current-efficiency by a factor of 10, in comparison to individual constituents.²¹ Also in photoanodes based on WS_2/MoS_2 heterostructures prepared by wet methods, photocurrent density of the WS_2/MoS_2 sample turned out to be 8 and 4 times higher than those reported for pure WS_2 and MoS_2 , respectively. This enhancement suggests an efficient charge separation inside the photoanode as well as a low interface resistance of the electrode-electrolyte.²²

The different strategies addressed to prepare WS₂/MoS₂ and other 2D/2D heterostructures can be classified in two main groups: (i) solid-state approaches, and (ii) wet methods. The former refers to the stacking of flakes obtained through dry mechanical exfoliation methods (deterministic transfer). Albeit this approach ensures the high quality of the stacked layers, it suffers from several issues: active implication by the operator, difficulty to scale-up the process, possibility of enclosing contamination between layers, lack of control when stacking the 2D components, and relatively weak interlayer coupling. Nevertheless, solid-state methods also refer to the sequential or simultaneous growth of both 2D components via CVD or physical vapour deposition (PVD), overcoming the scalability problem to some extent and often creating perfect heterojunctions (epitaxial growth) in virtue of the isostructural nature of the components (e.g., WS_2 and MoS_2). However, high temperature and vacuum conditions contribute to increase the complexity of this process. Alternatively, a simple and scalable option is the use of wet methods, like the electrostatic wet-chemical assembling of charged ultrathin layers²³ by means of layer by layer,²⁴ flocculation,^{25,26} or Langmuir-Blodgett techniques.²⁷ Nevertheless, these approaches have to face the uncontrolled organization of the flakes inside each slab of the final multilayer system and the fact that different species in solution can be occluded between the 2D components, hindering a good interaction between them.

Within the wet strategies, those involving chemical reactions are peaking in popularity. Thus, 2D/2D heterostructures can also be prepared *via* hydrothermal growth of one 2D material on top of the other or by decoration of one 2D component with a molecular system prone to undergo thermal decomposition into another 2D material. Some examples of this strategy are the hydrothermal growth of MoS₂ layers on WS₂ flakes²⁸ and the fabrication of WS₂ flakes on graphene by dry calcination. The latter represents a unique way to guarantee the removal of residual organic molecules from the heterostructure,^{29,30} a clear advantage in the face of hydrothermal approach.

Inspired by these methods, we report here a new two-step strategy to form WS_2/MoS_2 heterojunctions (Scheme 1), which involves first the electrostatic functionalization of chemically exfoliated MoS_2 (ce- MoS_2) layers with a tungsten cluster in methanol:water solution (herein referred as cluster@ MoS_2) and second, a dry thermal treatment of this composite to form WS_2 flakes on the MoS_2 layers.



Scheme 1. Pictorial representation of WS₂/MoS₂ synthesis: (i) Synthesis of cluster@MoS₂; (ii) Calcination of cluster@MoS₂ to give rise to the final WS₂/MoS₂ heterostructure.

The proposed method relies on the homogeneous distribution of the cluster over ce- MoS_2 layers thanks to the electrostatic interactions established between the cationic cluster and the anionic layers, which hinders cluster aggregations.

Results and Discussion

To prepare the WS₂/MoS₂ heterostructures, we used $[W_3S_4(tu)_8(H_2O)]Cl_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ cluster (in short W_3S_4 cluster) as molecular source of WS₂ and ultrathin MoS₂ flakes (1-5 nm thick and 0.2-1.2 µm wide) produced by chemical exfoliation with *n*-BuLi³¹ as underlying substrate. Even though the synthesis and thermal decomposition of $[W_3S_4(tu)_8(H_2O)]Cl_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ into WS₂ layers was reported in 2016,³² the study on the morphology of the decomposition product has remained elusive until now. Thus, with the aim of completing the characterization process initiated by A. L. Gushchin and co-workers four years ago, high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM) images, along with X-ray photoelectron (XPS) and Raman spectra, are provided hereafter.

The calcination of the aforementioned W_3S_4 cluster in the 25-700 °C range afforded ultrathin layers of WS₂. To minimize the oxidation of the ultrathin layers, the calcined material was preserved from the air exposure inside the thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) apparatus until it was completely cooled down to room temperature. If the W_3S_4 cluster is not well isolated from air, tungsten oxides can be formed.³⁰ Interestingly, equivalent Mo₃S₄ clusters can be synthetized and used as thermal precursors of MoS₂ layers.^{33,34}



Figure 1. a) TEM image of the material obtained by calcination of the W_3S_4 clusters; b) Zoomed TEM image showing the lamellar nature of the material; c) HR-TEM images showing different interplanar spacing values; d-e) EDS elemental mapping of the sample shown in (a); f) SAED pattern of the sample shown in (a).

The morphology of the calcined material was analysed by HR-TEM. According to TEM images (**Figures 1a** and **1b**), this material has a lamellar structure. In the HR-TEM image (**Figure 1c**), fringes with interplanar spacing values of ≈ 0.27 and 0.61 nm are observed. These values are assignable to (100)/(101) and (002) planes of WS₂, respectively.³⁵ The energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) elemental mapping (**Figures 1d** and **1e**) highlights a good matching between W and S signals, as expected for WS₂ flakes. From inside to outside, the SAED rings correspond to (002), (100)/(101), (103), and (110) planes of WS₂, respectively (**Figure 1f**). Moreover, the appearance of rings corroborates the polycrystalline nature of WS₂.



Figure 2. a) W 4*f* XPS spectra of commercial WS₂ (blue) and calcined material (red) normalized using the S 2p_{3/2} signal; *b)* Normalized S 2p XPS spectra of commercial WS₂ (blue) and calcined material (red).

The study of the composition of calcined material was conducted by XPS. W 4f spectrum (**Figure 2a**) is dominated by two intense peaks centred at \approx 33.1 and 35.2 eV, which are related to 2H W⁴⁺ 4f_{7/2} and 2H W⁴⁺ 4f_{5/2} components, respectively.³⁶ As expected, WS₂ layers obtained by thermal decomposition only contains the thermodynamically stable 2H phase. Minor contributions observed at \approx 36.2 and 38.7 eV arises from W⁶⁺ 4f_{7/2}, and W⁶⁺ 4f_{5/2} components, respectively, indicating certain degree of oxidation (\approx 12.0% of WO₃ from total W).³⁵ Curiously, the commercial 2H-WS₂ used as reference contains approximately the same oxide percentage. The explanation to this fact could be that WS₂ edges are spontaneously oxidized to certain extent if manipulated in ambient conditions.³⁷ S 2p spectrum (**Figure 2b**) displays two well-defined peaks at \approx 162.3 and 163.5 eV, which correspond to S²⁻ 2p_{3/2} and 2p_{1/2} components, respectively. Thus, all these values are in good agreement with those measured for commercial WS₂. The S:W molar ratio of the calcined material was estimated at 2.15.



Figure 3. Normalized Raman spectra of commercial WS_2 (blue) and calcined material (red) at 532 nm excitation wavelength.

The definitive proof that the calcined material corresponds to WS₂ layers was obtained from Raman spectroscopy. The most intense $2LA(M)/E_{2g}^{1}$ and A_{1g} peaks appear at ≈ 352 and 416 cm⁻¹, respectively (see **Figure 3**). Whilst 2LA(M) represents the longitudinal acoustic phonon at the M-point of the Brillouin zone (periodic compressions and expansions of the lattice that occur along the propagation direction),³⁸ the in-plane E_{2g}^{1} mode is related to the opposite vibration of two S atoms respect to the W atom between them and the out-of-plane A_{1g} mode describes the transverse vibration of S atoms in opposite directions.³⁹ The peak separation between $2LA/E_{2g}^{1}$ and A_{1g} modes (≈ 64 cm⁻¹) is consistent with at most 2H-WS₂ bi- or tri-layer entities integrated into a turbostratic stacking.⁴⁰ Overall, these results confirm the WS₂ nature of the calcined material.



Figure 4. TGA plots of ce-MoS₂ flakes (bright blue) and cluster@MoS₂ composite (purple).

Prior to the synthesis of WS₂/MoS₂ heterostructure, the thermal stability of ce-MoS₂ flakes under the conditions used to decompose the W₃S₄ clusters was evaluated. Thus, ce-MoS₂ flakes were calcined under inert atmosphere in the 25–700 °C range. In the TGA plot of ce-MoS₂ flakes (**Figure 4**), a significant mass drop of \approx 7.0% in the 25-150 °C accompanied by a steady and scant mass loss of \approx 3.4% in the 150-700 °C range were observed. Whilst the first drop corresponds to the removal of physisorbed water, the second one is due to the loss of S pertaining to MoS₂, since, as demonstrated in previous works, harsh intercalation conditions can affect the structural integrity of this compound.⁴¹

To synthesize cluster@MoS₂ (Scheme 1), a freshly prepared suspension of ce-MoS₂ flakes in water was mixed with a methanolic $[W_3S_4(tu)_8(H_2O)]Cl_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ solution, in a molar proportion of 1:5, respectively, under argon atmosphere. The mixture was allowed to react for 1 h under magnetic stirring and, after that, centrifuged. Whilst the supernatant was discarded, the remaining sediment was washed by a couple of redispersion/centrifugation cycles (with the goal of removing the unattached W_3S_4 cluster) and then vacuum-dried. At this point, it is important to remark that, owing to its high lability toward ligand substitution, some coordinated tu ligands can be replaced by water and/or methanol molecules during the reaction and washing process, changing the original composition of the W_3S_4 cluster.



Figure 5. a) TEM image of cluster@MoS₂; b) sketch of $[W_3S_4(tu)_8(H_2O)]^{4+}$ cluster; c) HR-TEM images of cluster@MoS₂. Red arrows point to clusters over MoS₂ surface; d-f) EDS elemental mapping of cluster@MoS₂ shown in (a).

The morphology of cluster@MoS₂ was scanned by HR-TEM. According to TEM images (**Figure 5a**), ce-MoS₂ flakes show no morphological changes. The HR-TEM image (**Figures 5b** and **5c**) reveals black features over unmodified MoS₂ surface. In bright-field TEM, contrast is proportional to the square root of the atomic number of the element at issue. This is the reason why W_3S_4 clusters are imaged as black spots on thin MoS₂ flakes. Moreover, the EDS elemental mapping (**Figures 5d** and **5f**) evinces a homogeneous coverage of ce-MoS₂ flakes with trimetallic clusters.



Figure 6. a) W 4f XPS spectra of $[W_3S_4(tu)_8(H_2O)]Cl_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ (dark green) and cluster@MoS₂ (purple) normalized by using the S $2p_{3/2}$ signal; b) Mo 3d spectrum of cluster@MoS₂ normalized by using the S $2p_{3/2}$ signal; c) Normalized S 2p spectra of $[W_3S_4(tu)_8(H_2O)]Cl_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ (dark green) and cluster@MoS₂ (purple).

To get useful information about the chemical composition, $cluster@MoS_2$ was analysed by XPS. W 4f spectrum (Figure 6a bottom) is dominated by two intense peaks centered at \approx 33.0 and 35.1 eV, which are assigned to W⁴⁺ 4f_{7/2} and W⁴⁺ 4f_{5/2} components, respectively.³⁶ Minor contributions observed at ≈ 35.6 and 38.1 eV stem from W⁶⁺ 4f_{7/2}, and W⁶⁺ 4f_{5/2} components, respectively, indicating certain degree of oxidation ($\approx 9.1\%$ of WO₃ from total W).³⁶ In this case, W⁴⁺ peaks are slightly shifted to high values respect to those of bare W₃S₄ cluster (32.6 and 34.7 eV, Figure 6a top). Most probably, this change indicates that some tu molecules have been replaced by water and/or methanol, without affecting the pristine oxidation state of W. Mo 3d spectrum (Figure 6b) shows five peaks located at \approx 225.7, 228.5, 229.2, 231.6, and 232.3 eV, which correspond to S²⁻ 2s, 1T Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{5/2}, 2H Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{5/2}, 1T Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{3/2}, and 1T Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{3/2} components, respectively.⁴² 1T-MoS₂ (78.1%) dominates over 2H-MoS₂ (21.9%), as expected for ce-MoS₂ flakes prepared by using an excess of *n*-BuLi.⁴¹ Thus, no phase transition is induced due to the attachment of the W₃S₄ cluster to the flakes, supporting the idea that there are only weak electrostatic interactions between both components. S 2p spectrum, located in the 159-166 eV range, (Figure 6c) includes signals arising from several chemical environments (1T-MoS₂, 2H-MoS₂, W₃S₄ core, and tu ligands), encumbering the deconvolution of S spectral region. According to the atomic percentage (At%) data, there is a S loss of \approx 4.75%, which would confirm the lability of tu ligands. W:Mo molar ratio was determined as 1.61. Moreover, the XPS survey reveals the presence of Cl, suggesting that the positive charge of W₃S₄ cluster is not completely compensated by the excess of negative charge accumulated onto MoS₂ surface.



Figure 7. Normalized Raman spectra at 532 nm excitation wavelength of a) $[W_3S_4(tu)_8(H_2O)]Cl_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ (dark green) and cluster@MoS₂ (purple) and b) commercial WS₂ (blue), commercial MoS₂ (bright green) and WS₂/MoS₂ (black).

Cluster@MoS₂ was analysed by Raman spectroscopy. The resultant Raman spectrum (**Figure 7a**) uniquely shows MoS₂ peaks. The presence of the so-called J peaks at ≈ 152 (J₁), 220 (J₂), and 328 (J₃) cm⁻¹, characteristic of the superlattice structure of 1T-MoS₂,^{43,44} reflects the abundance of this polytype in ce-MoS₂ flakes. J peaks arise from longitudinal acoustic phonon modes of 1T phase.⁴⁵ Because of the lower signal expected for the W₃S₄ cluster at the working excitation wavelength and the uniform distribution of this compound over MoS₂, no clear signatures of the W₃S₄ cluster were observed.

Finally, to obtain WS₂/MoS₂ heterostructures, cluster@MoS₂ was calcined in the 25–700 °C range, under inert atmosphere. To minimize the oxidation of the ultrathin layers, the resultant calcined material was preserved from the air exposure inside the TGA apparatus until it was completely cooled down to room temperature. If these precautions are not taken, MoO₂ nanowires can be formed during the calcination process (**Figure S1**).⁴⁶ In contrast to what happens for ce-MoS₂ flakes, the TGA resulting from composite calcination (**Figure 4**) shows two remarkable mass drops (\approx 3.8% in the 25-100 °C range and \approx 11.5% in the 100-450 °C) followed by a steady mass loss (\approx 1.5% in the 450-700 °C range). Whilst the first one would be associated with the removal of both methanol and water molecules, either physorbed or forming part of the W₃S₄ cluster, the second one would correspond to the dissociation of the remaining tu ligands. Additionally, it also cannot be ruled out the formation of volatile tungsten species, such as WO₂(OH)₂⁴⁷ and WCl₆. The final steady mass probably arises from a little loss of the S belonging to MoS₂ flakes.



Figure 8. a) TEM image of WS_2/MoS_2 ; b) SAED pattern of the sample shown in (a); c) HR-TEM image of WS_2/MoS_2 showing high crystalline WS_2 nanodomains; d-f) EDS elemental mapping of the sample shown in (c).

The morphology of WS₂/MoS₂ was scanned by HR-TEM. According to the TEM image (**Figure 8a**), WS₂/MoS₂ maintains a characteristic lamellar structure. The EDS elemental mapping of the sample shown in Figure 8a evinces no segregation (**Figure S2**). From inside to outside, the SAED elongated spots could correspond to (100)/(101), (103), and (110) planes of WS₂ as well as MoS₂, respectively, due to their isostructural nature (similar crystal system and lattice constants) (see **Figure 8b**). Therefore, this SAED image could derive from superimposing the aforementioned patterns.⁴⁸ Furthermore, the detection of these elongated spots confirms the existence of polycrystalline material. In the selected HR-TEM image (**Figure 8c**), W-containing nanodomains with high crystallinity are visualized. The observed interplanar d-spacings of ≈ 0.27 , 0.32, and 0.60 nm are attributable to (100)/(101), (004), and (002) planes of WS₂, respectively.^{35,49} In light of the good matching between W and Mo signals shown in the EDS elemental mapping (**Figures 8d**, **8e** and **8f**), it can be concluded that W-containing nanopatches are homogeneously distributed over MoS₂ flakes.



Figure 9. a) W 4f XPS spectra of commercial WS₂ (blue) and WS₂/MoS₂ (black) normalized using the S $2p_{3/2}$ signal; b) Mo 3d XPS spectra of commercial MoS₂ (bright green) and WS₂/MoS₂ (black) using the S $2p_{3/2}$ signal; c) Normalized S 2p XPS spectra of commercial WS₂ (blue), commercial MoS₂ (bright green) and WS₂/MoS₂ (black).

The chemical composition of WS₂/MoS₂ was investigated by XPS. W 4f spectrum (**Figure 9a**) perfectly resembles that of the material obtained after calcination of the W₃S₄ cluster as well as that of the commercial 2H-WS₂. Mo 3d spectrum (**Figure 9b**) shows three peaks located at \approx 226.2, 229.2 and 232.3 eV, which correspond to S²⁻ 2s, Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{5/2} and Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{3/2} components in the thermodynamically stable 2H-MoS₂ phase, respectively.⁴² As expected, Mo 3d spectrum perfectly resembles that of commercial 2H-MoS₂. S 2p spectrum (**Figure 9c**) displays two well-defined peaks at \approx 162.1 and 163.3 eV, which are assigned to S²⁻ 2p_{3/2} and 2p_{1/2} components from both 2H-MoS₂ and 2H-WS₂, respectively. Whilst Mo:W molar ratio was estimated at 1.42, S:(Mo+W) molar ratio from MS₂ species was determined as 2.28. Apparently, the latter value deviates from the stoichiometry expected for WS₂ as well as MoS₂. However, for bulk WS₂ and MoS₂, S:W and S:Mo molar ratios (\approx 2.33 and 2.32, respectively) are comparable to the previous one. Even though that ce-MoS₂ flakes were mixed with [W₃S₄(tu)₈(H₂O)]Cl₄·2H₂O in a molar proportion of 1:5, respectively, the loss of W could be explained according to *i*) the removal of unattached W₃S₄ cluster *via* sequential washing redispersion/centrifugation cycles, and *ii*) the generation of volatile tungsten oxide hydrates (*e.g.*, WO₂(OH)₂)⁴⁷ and halides (*e.g.*, WCl₆).

In order to gain a better insight into the nature and thickness of the material formed over MoS₂ flakes, WS₂@MoS₂ was also inspected by Raman spectroscopy at 532 nm excitation wavelength. Consistently, the spectrum (**Figure 7b**) only reveals peaks related to both 2H-WS₂ and 2H-MoS₂.⁵⁰ Whilst peaks appearing at \approx 353, and 416 cm⁻¹ correspond to 2H-WS₂,³⁸ the rest of them (located at \approx 382 and 406 cm⁻¹) are ascribable to 2H-MoS₂.⁵¹ The absence of J peaks indicates a total 1T \rightarrow 2H polytype transformation. The coexistence of two clearly distinguishable pairs of E^{1}_{2g}/A_{1g} peaks, one per chalcogenide, discards the presence of alloyed Mo_xW_{1-x}S₂ materials.^{48,52–54} In addition, the peak separation between 2LA/ E^{1}_{2g} and A_{1g} modes (\approx 63 cm⁻¹) for WS₂ is also

consistent with few-layered nanosheets (presumably, mono- and bilayers).⁴⁰ The long-range Raman spectrum of $WS_2@MoS_2$ can be seen in the Supporting Information (Figure S3).



Figure 10. PL spectra of WS₂ layers obtained through W_3S_4 cluster decomposition (red), ce-MoS₂ flakes treated under the same conditions used for preparing WS₂/MoS₂ heterostructure (blue), and WS₂/MoS₂ heterostructure (black).

Finally, photoluminescence (PL) measurements were carried out to get some information about the strength of the interaction between WS₂ and MoS₂ in the heterostructure (**Figure 10**). As expected, the spectrum of thermally treated ce-MoS₂ flakes presents two peaks at 1.80 eV and 1.97 eV, characteristic of A1 and B1 excitonic transitions in ultrathin MoS₂ layers, while the spectrum of WS₂ layers shows the excitonic transition at 1.97 eV. In the case of WS₂/MoS₂ heterostructure, no clear peaks are detected in the corresponding spectrum. Interestingly, the intensity of this spectrum exhibits a dramatic decrease if compared to thermally threated ce-MoS₂ flakes. Indeed, it is well-known that the band alignment of WS₂ and MoS₂ layers in heterostructures prevents from the formation of correlated electron-hole pairs. Succinctly, the photogenerated holes are accumulated into WS₂ valence band while photogenerated electrons are promoted to MoS₂ heterostructure, can be considered as an evidence of the interaction between both dichalcogenides, which can exchange charge and energy, proving potential optoelectronic applications in the fields of light harvesting or photocatalysis.

Conclusion

In summary, in this paper we have reported a straightforward two-step strategy for preparing WS₂/MoS₂ heterostructures. In the first step, a homogeneous functionalization of MoS₂ surface is achieved thanks to the electrostatic interactions existing between negatively charged ce-MoS₂ flakes and $[W_3S_4(tu)_8(H_2O)]^{4+}$ cations dissolved in methanol. In the second step, the previous composite is calcined to give rise to heterostructures made from few-layer MoS₂ coated with mono- and/or bi-layer WS₂ coming from the thermal decomposition of the W₃S₄ cluster. The presence of specific electrostatic forces between ce-MoS₂ and W_3S_4 cluster can avoid the agglomeration of the cluster and ensure a better coverage of the ce-MoS₂ underlying flakes. This results in a homogeneous distribution of thin WS₂ flakes all over MoS₂ surface. Besides, the dry thermal treatment involved in the synthetic strategy guaranties the removal of all residues that could hinder a strong interaction between both TMDCs, which seems to be actually supported by the experimental PL measurements. Therefore, the combination of a simple, scalable and lowcost solution approach with a dry thermal decomposition, not only offers the advantages of most commonly used methods in solution, but also allows the good matching between 2D counterparts in the heterostructure usually reached by more complex physical strategies like CVD, PVD or deterministic transfer followed by annealing treatment. Interestingly, the proposed strategy could be applied to the synthesis of other 2D/2D heterostructures formed by thermally generated WS₂ or MoS₂ flakes on different anionic layers.

Experimental Section

Materials: Molybdenum(IV) sulphide and *n*-butyllithium solution 1.6 M in hexane were acquired from Alfa Aesar and Sigma-Aldrich, respectively. Milli-Q water was employed in all the experiments. Solvents were used without further purification. W_3S_4 cluster was prepared according to the protocol developed by A. L. Gushchin et al.³²

Synthesis of WS₂ layers: $[W_3S_4(tu)_8(H_2O)]Cl_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ was calcined in the 25–700 °C range under a 10 °C min⁻¹ scan rate and N₂ flow of 100 mL min⁻¹. The resultant material was preserved from the air exposure inside the TGA apparatus until it was cooled down to room temperature.

Synthesis of cluster@MoS₂: The volume corresponding to $\approx 13.5 \ \mu mol$ of ce-MoS₂ flakes was poured into 4 mL of [W₃S₄(tu)₈(H₂O)]Cl₄·2H₂O (100.0 mg, $\approx 67.4 \ \mu mol$) in MeOH. Subsequently, the mixture was magnetically stirred for 1 h under argon at room temperature. Then, it was centrifuged at 13.4 krpm for 1.5 h. After decanting the supernatant, the sediment was dispersed in methanol and centrifuged at 13.4 krpm for 0.5 h. The previous dispersion-centrifugation-collection step was repeated once more. Finally, the sediment was dried by vacuum for at least 7 h.

*Synthesis of WS*₂/*MoS*₂: The previous composite was calcined in the 25–700 °C range under a 10 °C min⁻¹ scan rate and N₂ flow of 100 mL min⁻¹. The resultant material was preserved from the air exposure inside the TGA apparatus until it was cooled down to room temperature.

Thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA): Thermogravimetric analysis was conducted at the Universidad de Alicante (Unidad de Análisis Térmico y Sólidos Porosos) with a Mettler Toledo TGA/SDTA851/1100/SF apparatus in the 25–700 °C range under a 10 °C min⁻¹ scan rate and N₂ flow of 100 mL min⁻¹.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and dark field scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM): Samples were prepared by dropping methanolic suspensions on lacey

formvar/carbon copper grids (300 mesh). HR-TEM studies were carried out on a Technai G2 F20 microscope as well as a JEOL 2100 FEG-TEM microscope, both of them operating at 200 kV.

Raman and photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy: Raman and PL spectra were recorded with a Raman Emission Horiba-MTB Xplora Spectrometer in ambient condition onto a substrate (532 nm). A 100x objective was used to focus the laser beam. For Raman measurements, powder samples were measured onto a clean SiO₂ (285 nm)/Si substrate. For PL measurements, with the aim of minimizing restacking effects, dispersions of calcined materials (5 min. sonication in degassed methanol) were spin-coated onto clean SiO₂ (285 nm)/Si substrates.

X-Ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy: Samples were analysed ex situ at the X-ray Spectroscopy Service at the Universidad de Alicante using a K-ALPHA Thermo Scientific spectrometer. All spectra were collected using Al K α radiation (1486.6 eV), monochromatized by a twin crystal monochromator, yielding a focused X-ray spot (elliptical in shape with a major axis length of 400 μ m) at 30 mA and 2 kV. The alpha hemispherical analyser was operated in the constant energy mode with survey scan pass energies of 200 eV to measure the whole energy band and 50 eV in a narrow scan to selectively measure the particular elements. XPS data were analysed with Avantage software. A smart background function was used to approximate the experimental backgrounds. Charge compensation was achieved with the system flood gun that provides low energy electrons and low energy argon ions from a single source. To determine molar ratios in WS₂ (from W₃S₄ cluster calcination), cluster@MoS₂ and WS₂/MoS₂, oxide contributions were ignored.

Acknowledgements

The authors acknowledge the financial support from the Spanish MINECO (Grants MAT2017-89528 and CTQ2017-89993, and Excellence Unit María de Maeztu MDM-2015-0538), the European Union (ERC-Advanced Grant MOL-2D and COST-MOLSPIN-CA15128 Molecular Spintronics Project) and the Generalitat Valenciana (Prometeo Program of Excellence and GentT program: CIDEGENT/2018/005). M.M.-G. and I.B. thank the Spanish MINECO for the F.P.U. fellowships. S.T. thanks the Spanish MINECO for a Ramón y Cajal Contract (RYC-2016-19817). A.F.-A. thanks the Universitat de València for a Senior Researcher contract. Moreover, authors are very grateful to Dr. Garin Escorcia-Ariza for their suggestions concerning the design of the figures and to Dr. Raúl Arenal from the Instituto Universitario de Investigación de Nanociencia de Aragón (Universidad de Zaragoza) for his helpful discussion about TEM images.

- 1 K. S. Novoselov, A. Mishchenko, A. Carvalho and A. H. Castro Neto, *Science*, **2016**, *353*, 6298.
- 2 P. T. K. Loan, W. Zhang, C.-T. Lin, K.-H. Wei, L.-J. Li and C.-H. Chen, *Adv. Mater.*, **2014**, *26*, 4838–4844.
- 3 Y. Liu, N. O. Weiss, X. Duan, H. C. Cheng, Y. Huang and X. Duan, *Nat. Rev. Mater.*, **2016**, *1*, 16042.
- 4 Y. Wang, Q. Wang, X. Zhan, F. Wang, M. Safdar and J. He, *Nanoscale*, **2013**, *5*, 8326–8339.
- 5 Q. H. Wang, K. Kalantar-Zadeh, A. Kis, J. N. Coleman and M. S. Strano, *Nat. Nanotechnol.*, **2012**, *7*, 699–712.

- E. Navarro-Moratalla, J. O. Island, S. Mañas-Valero, E. Pinilla-Cienfuegos, A.
 Castellanos-Gomez, J. Quereda, G. Rubio-Bollinger, L. Chirolli, J. A. Silva-Guillén, N.
 Agraït, G. A. Steele, F. Guinea, H. S. J. Van Der Zant and E. Coronado, *Nat. Commun.*, 2016, 7, 11043.
- 7 J. A. Wilson and A. D. Yoffe, *Adv. Phys.*, **1969**, *18*, 193–335.
- 8 S. Ippolito, A. Ciesielski and P. Samorì, *Chem. Commun.*, 2019, 55, 8900–8914.
- 9 K. S. Novoselov, D. Jiang, F. Schedin, T. J. Booth, V. V. Khotkevich, S. V. Morozov and A. K. Geim, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, 2005, 102, 10451–10453.
- 10 M. Chhowalla, H. Shin, G. Eda and L. Li, *Nat. Chem.*, 2013, *5*, 263–275.
- 11 J. Xu, J. Zhang, W. Zhang and C.-S. Lee, Adv. Energy Mater., 2017, 7, 1700571.
- 12 T. Y. Chen, Y. H. Chang, C. L. Hsu, K. H. Wei, C. Y. Chiang and L. J. Li, *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, **2013**, *38*, 12302–12309.
- 13 A. Pospischil, M. M. Furchi and T. Mueller, *Nat. Nanotechnol.*, 2014, 9, 257–261.
- 14 M. M. Furchi, A. Pospischil, F. Libisch, J. Burgdörfer and T. Mueller, *Nano Lett.*, **2014**, *14*, 4785–4791.
- 15 D. Merki and X. Hu, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, **2011**, *4*, 3878–3888.
- 16 J. Kang, S. Tongay, J. Zhou, J. Li and J. Wu, Appl. Phys. Lett., 2013, 102, 01211
- 17 A. K. Singh, K. Mathew, H. L. Zhuang and R. G. Hennig, J. Phys. Chem. Lett., 2015, 6, 1087–1098.
- 18 X. Hong, J. Kim, S. F. Shi, Y. Zhang, C. Jin, Y. Sun, S. Tongay, J. Wu, Y. Zhang and F. Wang, *Nat. Nanotechnol.*, **2014**, *9*, 682–686.
- 19 K. Chen, X. Wan, W. Xie, J. Wen, Z. Kang, X. Zeng, H. Chen and J. Xu, Adv. Mater., 2015, 27, 6431–6437.
- 20 P. C. Sherrell, P. Palczynski, M. S. Sokolikova, F. Reale, F. M. Pesci, M. Och and C. Mattevi, *ACS Appl. Energy Mater.*, **2019**, *2*, 5877–5882.
- 21 F. M. Pesci, M. S. Sokolikova, C. Grotta, P. C. Sherrell, F. Reale, K. Sharda, N. Ni, P. Palczynski and C. Mattevi, *ACS Catal.*, **2017**, *7*, 4990–4998.
- 22 C. Lu, J. Ma, K. Si, X. Xu, C. Quan, C. He and X. Xu, *Phys. status solidi*, **2019**, 1900544.
- 23 B. V. Lotsch, Annu. Rev. Mater. Res., 2015, 45, 85–109.
- T. Sasaki, Y. Ebina, T. Tanaka, M. Harada, M. Watanabe and G. Decher, *Chem. Mater.*, 2001, 13, 4661–4667.
- E. Coronado, C. Martí-Gastaldo, E. Navarro-Moratalla, A. Ribera, S. J. Blundell and P. J. Baker, *Nat. Chem.*, 2010, *2*, 1031–1036.
- M. Q. Yang, Y. J. Xu, W. Lu, K. Zeng, H. Zhu, Q. H. Xu and G. W. Ho, *Nat. Commun.*, 2017, 8, 14224
- 27 B. W. Li, M. Osada, T. C. Ozawa, Y. Ebina, K. Akatsuka, R. Ma, H. Funakubo and T. Sasaki, *ACS Nano*, **2010**, *4*, 6673–6680.
- 28 S. Luo, S. Dong, C. Lu, C. Yu, Y. Ou, L. Luo, J. Sun and J. Sun, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, **2018**, *513*, 389–399.

- 29 H. Zhou, F. Yu, J. Sun, R. He, Y. Wang, C. F. Guo, F. Wang, Y. Lan, Z. Ren and S. Chen, J. Mater. Chem. A, 2016, 4, 9472–9476.
- 30 J. Luxa, J. Fawdon, Z. Sofer, V. Mazánek and M. Pumera, *ChemPhysChem*, **2016**, *17*, 2890–2896.
- 31 M. Morant-Giner, R. Sanchis-Gual, J. Romero, A. Alberola, L. García-Cruz, S. Agouram, M. Galbiati, N. M. Padial, J. C. Waerenborgh, C. Martí-Gastaldo, S. Tatay, A. Forment-Aliaga and E. Coronado, *Adv. Funct. Mater.*, **2018**, *28*, 1706125.
- 32 Y. A. Laricheva, A. L. Gushchin, P. A. Abramov and M. N. Sokolov, *J. Struct. Chem.*, **2016**, *57*, 962–969.
- 33 A. L. Gushchin, Y. A. Laricheva, P. A. Abramov, A. V. Virovets, C. Vicent, M. N. Sokolov and R. Llusar, *Eur. J. Inorg. Chem.*, **2014**, *2014*, 4093–4100.
- 34 A. L. Gushchin, Y. A. Laricheva, M. N. Sokolov, and R. Llusar, *Russ. Chem. Rev.*, **2018**, 87, 670–706.
- W. J. Schutte, J. L. De Boer and F. Jellinek, J. Solid State Chem., 1987, 70, 207–209.
- 36 B. Mahler, V. Hoepfner, K. Liao and G. A. Ozin, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 2014, 136, 14121– 14127.
- 37 J. C. Kotsakidis, Q. Zhang, A. L. Vazquez de Parga, M. Currie, K. Helmerson, D. K. Gaskill and M. S. Fuhrer, *Nano Lett.*, 2019, 19, 5205–5215.
- 38 A. Berkdemir, H. R. Gutiérrez, A. R. Botello-Méndez, N. Perea-López, A. L. Elías, C. I. Chia, B. Wang, V. H. Crespi, F. López-Urías, J. C. Charlier, H. Terrones and M. Terrones, *Sci. Rep.*, 2013, 3, 1755.
- 39 F. Wang, I. A. Kinloch, D. Wolverson, R. Tenne, A. Zak, E. O'Connell, U. Bangert and R. J. Young, 2D Mater., 2016, 4, 015007.
- 40 A. A. Mitioglu, P. Plochocka, G. Deligeorgis, S. Anghel, L. Kulyuk and D. K. Maude, *Phys. Rev. B Condens. Matter Mater. Phys.*, **2014**, *89*, 245442.
- K. C. Knirsch, N. C. Berner, H. C. Nerl, C. S. Cucinotta, Z. Gholamvand, N. McEvoy,
 Z. Wang, I. Abramovic, P. Vecera, M. Halik, S. Sanvito, G. S. Duesberg, V. Nicolosi, F.
 Hauke, A. Hirsch, J. N. Coleman and C. Backes, *ACS Nano*, 2015, 9, 6018–30.
- 42 X. Geng, W. Sun, W. Wu, B. Chen, A. Al-Hilo, M. Benamara, H. Zhu, F. Watanabe, J. Cui and T. P. Chen, *Nat. Commun.*, **2016**, *7*, 10672.
- 43 M. A. Lukowski, A. S. Daniel, F. Meng, A. Forticaux, L. Li and S. Jin, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, **2013**, *135*, 10274–10277.
- 44 X. Fan, P. Xu, D. Zhou, Y. Sun, Y. C. Li, M. A. T. Nguyen, M. Terrones and T. E. Mallouk, *Nano Lett.*, **2015**, *15*, 5956–5960.
- 45 A. P. Nayak, T. Pandey, D. Voiry, J. Liu, S. T. Moran, A. Sharma, C. Tan, C.-H. Chen, L.-J. Li, M. Chhowalla, J.-F. Lin, A. K. Singh and D. Akinwande, *Nano Lett.*, 2015, 15, 346–53.
- 46 L. M. Vogl, P. Schweizer, M. Wu and E. Spiecker, *Nanoscale*, **2019**, *11*, 11687–11695.
- 47 Y. Ma, J. Li, W. Liu and Y. Shi, *Nanoscale Res. Lett.*, 2012, 7, 325.
- 48 J. M. Woods, Y. Jung, Y. Xie, W. Liu, Y. Liu, H. Wang and J. J. Cha, *ACS Nano*, **2016**, *10*, 2004–2009.
- 49 R. G. Dickinson and L. Pauling, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 1923, 45, 1466–1471.

- 50 L. Li, R. Ma, Y. Ebina, N. Iyi and T. Sasaki, *Chem. Mater.*, **2005**, *17*, 4386–4391.
- 51 H. Li, Q. Zhang, C. C. R. Yap, B. K. Tay, T. H. T. Edwin, A. Olivier and D. Baillargeat, *Adv. Funct. Mater.*, **2012**, 22, 1385–1390.
- 52 J. G. Song, G. H. Ryu, S. J. Lee, S. Sim, C. W. Lee, T. Choi, H. Jung, Y. Kim, Z. Lee, J. M. Myoung, C. Dussarrat, C. Lansalot-Matras, J. Park, H. Choi and H. Kim, *Nat. Commun.*, 2015, 6, 7817
- 53 Z. Wang, P. Liu, Y. Ito, S. Ning, Y. Tan, T. Fujita, A. Hirata and M. Chen, *Sci. Rep.*, **2016**, 6, 21536.
- 54 X. Liu, J. Wu, W. Yu, L. Chen, Z. Huang, H. Jiang, J. He, Q. Liu, Y. Lu, D. Zhu, W. Liu, P. Cao, S. Han, X. Xiong, W. Xu, J.-P. Ao, K.-W. Ang and Z. He, *Adv. Funct. Mater.*, 2017, 27, 1606469.
- 55 L. P. L. Mawlong, A. Bora and P. K. Giri, *Sci. Rep.*, **2019**, *9*, 19414.

Supporting Information

WS₂/MoS₂ heterostructures via thermal treatment of MoS₂ layers electrostatically functionalized with W₃S₄ molecular clusters

Marc Morant-Giner, Isaac Brotons, Nikita Y. Shmelev, Artem L. Gushchin, Luke Norman, Andrei N. Khlobystov, Antonio Alberola, Sergio Tatay, J. Canet-Ferrer, Alicia Forment-Aliaga* and Eugenio Coronado*



Figure S1. TEM image of WS2@MoS2 showing MoO2 nanowires.



*Figure S2. a) TEM image of WS*₂@*MoS*₂*, b) SAED pattern of the sample shown in (a); c-e) EDS elemental mapping of the sample shown in (a).*



Figure S3. Long-range Raman spectra of commercial MoS₂ (bright green), commercial WS₂ (blue) and WS₂@MoS₂ (black).