

# Large Metallic Vanadium Disulfide Ultrathin Flakes for Spintronic Circuits and Quantum Computing Devices

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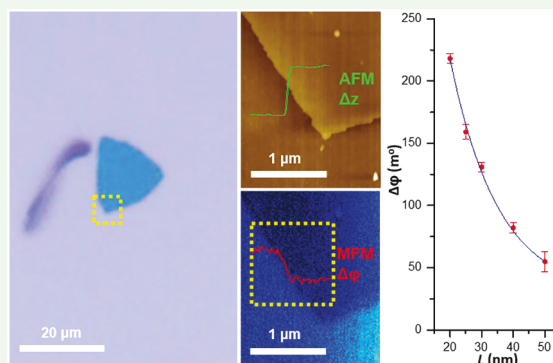
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## Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** Atmospheric pressure chemical vapor deposition (APCVD) is employed for the synthesis of layered vanadium disulfide. By tuning several critical growth parameters, we achieve VS<sub>2</sub> flakes with lateral dimension over 100  $\mu\text{m}$  and thickness down to monolayer ( $\sim 0.59$  nm) and bilayer ( $\sim 1.17$  nm), which are larger and thinner than those previously reported in the literature. Furthermore, ultrathin flakes with thicknesses of several atomic layers are directly synthesized on mica and SiO<sub>2</sub> substrates without the use of an exfoliation method. X-ray diffraction and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy confirm the flakes' monocrystalline quality. Raman spectra are collected and are consistent with the vibrational modes for the trigonal phase of VS<sub>2</sub> as determined by density functional theory calculations. Through electron backscatter diffraction pole figure analysis, transmission electron microscopy, and optical microscopy, a complex epitaxial relationship with nine preferred in-plane orientations is observed in some regions of the VS<sub>2</sub>/mica samples. Remarkably, this is in agreement qualitatively with a superlattice area mismatch model, providing further evidence of the interfacial interactions with mica dictating the nucleation of film atoms in van der Waals heterostructures. Finally, magnetic force microscopy measurements suggest room-temperature ferromagnetism in ultrathin VS<sub>2</sub> flakes, in agreement with several density functional theory calculations. The discovery of an ultrathin ferromagnetic metal such as VS<sub>2</sub> may have an impact on emerging fields such as spintronics and quantum computing.

**KEYWORDS:** 2D materials, transition metal dichalcogenides, van der Waals epitaxy, heteroepitaxy, chemical vapor deposition, ferromagnetism



## INTRODUCTION

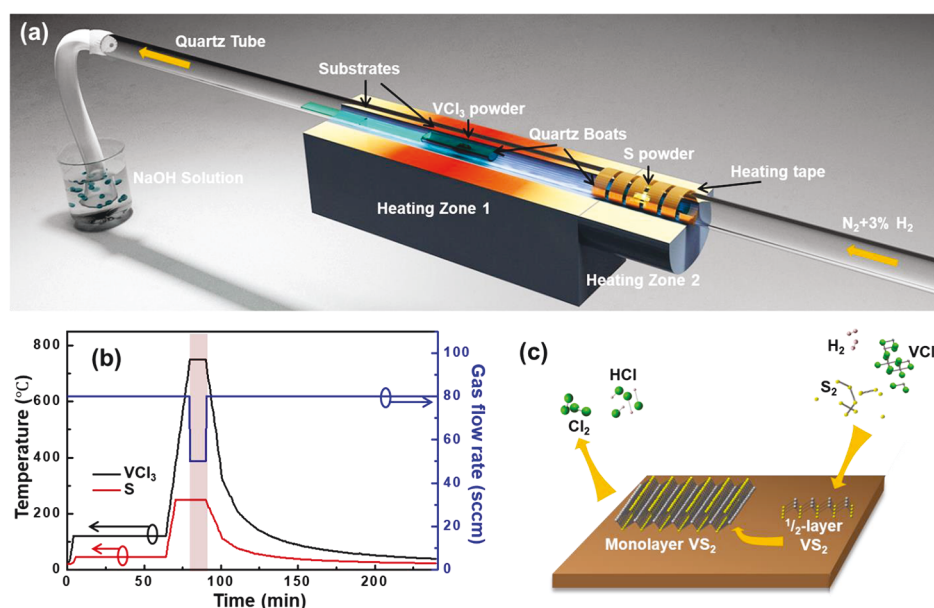
Over the past decade, two-dimensional (2D) materials have received a tremendous surge of interest due to their intriguing mechanical, electronic, and optical properties.<sup>1</sup> Even more recently, the exploration of ferromagnetism in 2D materials is an area of research attracting great attention. If the aforementioned properties could be endowed with ferromagnetism, it would enable the development of next-generation 2D magnetic, magnetoelectric, and magneto-optic devices. Many layered compounds containing ferromagnetic elements such as Cr<sub>2</sub>Ge<sub>2</sub>Te<sub>6</sub> and halides including CrI<sub>3</sub> have intrinsic magneto-crystalline anisotropy in their bulk form and were shown decades ago to have magnetic properties with a Curie

temperature below room temperature.<sup>2</sup> These van der Waals (vdW) magnetic crystals consist of a stacking of vdW interacted 2D crystalline layers.<sup>2–7</sup> However, when the thickness of the vdW magnetic crystal is reduced and the crystal transitions to the 2D format, strong thermal fluctuations at finite temperature were believed to prohibit 2D ferromagnetism according to the Mermin–Wagner theorem,<sup>8</sup> leading to a fundamental challenge in obtaining long-range ferromagnetic order in the 2D regime. In 2017, substantial progress was made

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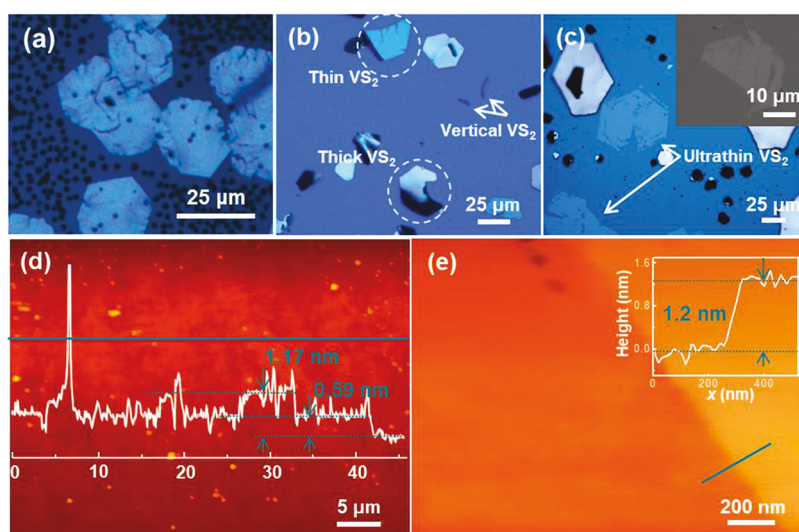
**Figure 1.** (a) Schematic of atmospheric pressure chemical vapor deposition growth setup. (b) Zone I temperature (black curve), zone II temperature (red curve), and gas flow rate (blue curve) during VS<sub>2</sub> synthesis. (c) Schematic of chemical precursors, synthesized compounds, and products.

by magneto-optical Kerr effect microscopy characterizations, which revealed the stable long-range ferromagnetic ordering down to atomic layer Cr<sub>2</sub>Ge<sub>2</sub>Te<sub>6</sub><sup>9</sup> and CrI<sub>3</sub> flakes with Curie temperatures below room temperature and lower than their bulk Curie temperatures.<sup>4</sup>

Another category of widely studied vdW 2D crystals is graphene and transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDCs), which have shown many fascinating mechanical and electronic properties. However, few magnetism studies have been conducted because their corresponding bulk crystals are typically nonmagnetic. Therefore, three practical methods have been designed to extrinsically induce magnetism within these 2D materials, including defect engineering (vacancies,<sup>10</sup> adatoms, and grain boundaries), magnetic element doping,<sup>11</sup> and structural phase transitioning.<sup>12</sup> Nevertheless, the very localized and limited magnetic moments generated by such routes are not stable or controllable enough to fabricate devices. Achieving intrinsic room temperature ferromagnetism originating from these vdW 2D crystals will be crucial for understanding the physics of electronic and spin processes and for device applications. Recent density functional theory (DFT) calculations have predicted the intrinsic magnetic moment ( $\sim 0.5$ – $1 \mu_B$ ) of monolayer (ML) metallic vanadium disulfide (VS<sub>2</sub>), which can be tuned either by varying the number of layers or by applying biaxial tensile/isotropic strain.<sup>13–20</sup> Zigzag-type VS<sub>2</sub> nanoribbons are also intrinsically ferromagnetic depending on the edge structure.<sup>21</sup> Furthermore, exploration using a superconducting quantum interference device (SQUID) magnetometer has suggested temperature-dependent ferromagnetism in wet hydrothermally synthesized nanosheets as well as vacuum-cleaved and powdered VS<sub>2</sub>.<sup>15,22,23</sup> A dramatic decrease in magnetization or susceptibility was observed as the temperature increased from 10 K to room temperature. By exfoliating the VS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets to a few layers, one could observe magnetic hysteresis loops at 300 K.<sup>15,24,25</sup> In addition, the investigation of magnetic properties of other common V–S compounds such as V<sub>5</sub>S<sub>8</sub> also has been carried out.<sup>26,27</sup>

Unfortunately, because of the wet-chemical synthesis processes which have predominantly induced defects and lacked composition and thickness control, such ferromagnetism is difficult to correlate to the intrinsic property of VS<sub>2</sub>. In addition, the theoretical calculations consider ultrathin to ML free-standing single crystal VS<sub>2</sub> and do not consider any effect from the substrate, whereas experimentally most polycrystalline VS<sub>2</sub> nanostructures were grown either directly on a substrate, or in a solution and subsequently transferred to a substrate. The interaction between the VS<sub>2</sub> and the substrate induced uneven orientations and strain within the VS<sub>2</sub>. No experimental evidence yet exists for ferromagnetism observation in VS<sub>2</sub> persisting down to the 2D single crystal limit. One extremely encouraging work on well-characterized monolayer VSe<sub>2</sub> islands was reported to have room temperature ferromagnetism<sup>28</sup> (note that bulk VSe<sub>2</sub> is paramagnetic). The monolayer VSe<sub>2</sub> islands were grown by electron beam evaporation of V and simultaneous deposition of atomic Se on either highly orientated pyrolytic graphite (HOPG) or MoS<sub>2</sub> substrates in an ultrahigh vacuum environment.

Very recently, monolayer VS<sub>2</sub> has been successfully grown on Au(111) by e-beam evaporation of V rod or V wire and annealed in sulfiding gas (either H<sub>2</sub>S or dimethyl disulfide) under ultrahigh vacuum (UHV).<sup>29</sup> In contrast to the growth of VS<sub>2</sub> in UHV, the chemical vapor deposition (CVD) technique has successfully achieved single-crystal ultrathin VS<sub>2</sub> flakes on SiO<sub>2</sub> substrates.<sup>30,31</sup> CVD has also been utilized to realize the epitaxial growth of strain-free 2D materials on vdW substrates such as graphene.<sup>32,33</sup> We thus expect the film/substrate interaction to be much weaker when VS<sub>2</sub> is grown on a single crystal vdW material, such as muscovite mica (potassium aluminosilicate), as compared to growth on a bulk amorphous substrate, such as SiO<sub>2</sub>. In this work, we report the growth of large (several tens to hundreds of micrometers in diameter), ultrathin (several ML) crystalline VS<sub>2</sub> flakes with good stoichiometry on single-crystal vdW mica and amorphous SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si(100) substrates via the atmospheric pressure chemical vapor deposition (APCVD) technique. Each VS<sub>2</sub> flake has a

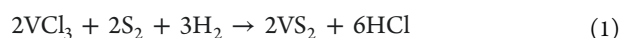


**Figure 2.** (a) Optical image of VS<sub>2</sub> flakes grown on single crystal mica(001) in region directly above VCl<sub>3</sub> boat. (b, c) Optical images showing different morphologies of VS<sub>2</sub> flakes grown on amorphous SiO<sub>2</sub>. Inset of (c): SEM image of an ultrathin flake. (d, e) AFM images of ultrathin flakes with monolayer and bilayer step edges on SiO<sub>2</sub>.

well-defined out-of-plane (001) orientation while the in-plane orientation of VS<sub>2</sub> flakes is governed by the interfacial interactions of VS<sub>2</sub> and the mica (001) surface. This observation agrees with a superlattice area mismatch model. In addition, magnetic force microscopy (MFM) measurements that suggest room temperature ferromagnetism in ultrathin VS<sub>2</sub> flakes are presented. These findings enhance our fundamental knowledge of epitaxy in 2D/2D materials systems and magnetism in the 2D limit.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A dual-zone APCVD setup was utilized for the synthesis of large thin to ultrathin VS<sub>2</sub> flakes (details in the [Methods](#) section), depicted schematically in [Figure 1a](#). The critical synthesis factors were the deposition temperature, precursor-vapor concentrations, and carrier gas to form the 2D flakes with a certain stoichiometry. The precursor boats containing S and VCl<sub>3</sub> powders and the substrates (mica or SiO<sub>2</sub>/Si) were arranged successively within a quartz tube and mounted in a furnace with a controllable temperature for each precursor and substrate. Forming gas (3% H<sub>2</sub> in N<sub>2</sub>) was used to transport the precursors upon evaporation, meanwhile decomposing the precursor molecules as well as inhibiting the thermally induced etching effect and oxidation in the continuous film growth process.<sup>34–37</sup> Before starting the growth, oxygen and moisture in the S and VCl<sub>3</sub> powders were removed by heating to 50 and 150 °C, respectively, while flushing with forming gas ([Figure 1b](#)). A possible reaction was conducted on the substrate at 750 °C for 2D VS<sub>2</sub> flakes formation, assuming that S<sub>2</sub> is the most abundant species in the sulfur vapor<sup>38</sup> ([Figure 1c](#)):

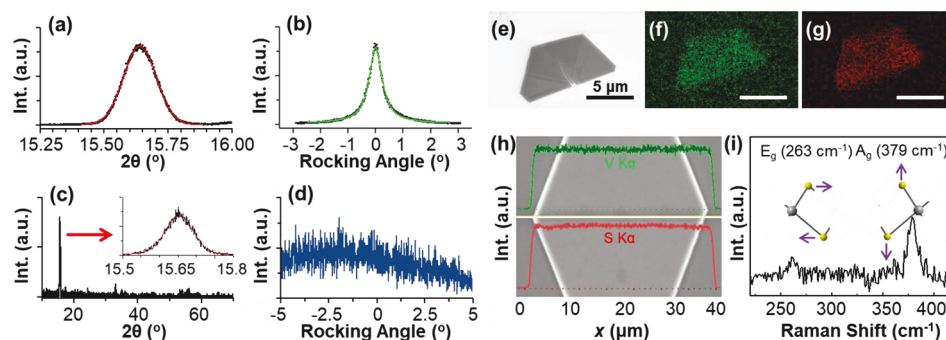


Optical microscopy reveals the flakes grown on both mica and SiO<sub>2</sub> substrates exhibit various morphologies such as hexagonal, semi-hexagonal, and triangular. [Figure 2a](#) shows the VS<sub>2</sub> flakes grown under optimal conditions on a mica substrate that was placed face-down on top of the VCl<sub>3</sub> boat. In addition to large tens of micrometers flakes, many smaller, thicker flakes as well as nuclei clusters appear as darker spots on the substrate. Thicker hexagonal flakes can be obtained on

mica immediately downstream from the VCl<sub>3</sub> precursor boat. Triangular flakes with smaller thicknesses and lateral sizes are observed farther downstream and shown in [Figure S1](#). In contrast to growth on mica substrates, when grown on SiO<sub>2</sub>, shown in [Figure 2b](#), many inclined flakes are observed (i.e., those whose surface normal is not normal to the substrate surface). In addition, despite the imperceptibility of the flakes due to their thinness, some ultrathin flakes with thicknesses below 10 nm can be perceived by adjusting the image setting ([Figure 2c](#)) or by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) ([Figure 2c](#), inset). The lateral profiles of the flakes grown on mica and SiO<sub>2</sub> substrates were characterized by atomic force microscopy (AFM). Compared to a thickness of ~35 nm from a typical triangular flake on mica substrate, a superimposed line profile across the ultrathin flake grown on SiO<sub>2</sub> indicates monolayer (~0.59 nm) and bilayer (~1.17 nm) steps ([Figure 2d,e](#)), consistent with integer multiples of the lattice constant, *c* (= 0.576 nm) of VS<sub>2</sub>.

Attributed to the fundamentally different surfaces of the two substrates, in that mica exhibits a vdW layered crystal structure while SiO<sub>2</sub> is amorphous, the adatom/substrate interaction is commonly believed to be much weaker when VS<sub>2</sub> is grown on mica than when grown on bulk SiO<sub>2</sub>. Such a substrate effect to the 2D VS<sub>2</sub> flakes morphology was investigated by using AFM to measure the flake dimension distributions on these two substrates via a statistical sampling method.<sup>39,40</sup> In general, there is a wide distribution in the lateral sizes of triangular and hexagonal flakes grown on mica, with most flakes on the order of tens of micrometers in size (a histogram of the lateral sizes is shown in [Figure S2a](#)). This range of lateral sizes is much wider when the flakes are grown on SiO<sub>2</sub> ([Figure S2c](#)). These observations imply the nucleation at the initial CVD growth stage is heterogeneous, and the VS<sub>2</sub> growth on mica is more uniform, which is further evidenced by comparison of the flake thickness histograms of mica and SiO<sub>2</sub> substrates, measured by AFM ([Figure S2b,d](#)). Moreover, it is noteworthy that the inhomogeneities of the lateral sizes and thicknesses of the flakes exist even for identical growth conditions on both substrates, implying that there is an energy barrier preventing purely lateral growth.





**Figure 3.** (a, b) XRD of VS<sub>2</sub> flakes grown on mica: (a)  $\theta$ -2 $\theta$ ; (b) VS<sub>2</sub>(001) rocking curve. (c, d) XRD of VS<sub>2</sub> flakes grown on SiO<sub>2</sub>: (c) GIXRD (inset: VS<sub>2</sub>(001) peak), (d) VS<sub>2</sub>(001) rocking curve. (e) SEM image of ultrathin VS<sub>2</sub> flake on SiO<sub>2</sub> with corresponding EDS maps of (f) V K $\alpha$  and (g) S K $\alpha$  signals (scale bars = 5  $\mu$ m). (h) SEM image of VS<sub>2</sub> flake on mica. EDS line scans of V K $\alpha$  and S K $\alpha$  are superimposed in green and red, respectively. (i) Raman spectrum of VS<sub>2</sub> flake on SiO<sub>2</sub>. Schematics illustrating the observed E<sub>g</sub> and A<sub>g</sub> modes are superimposed over the corresponding peak.

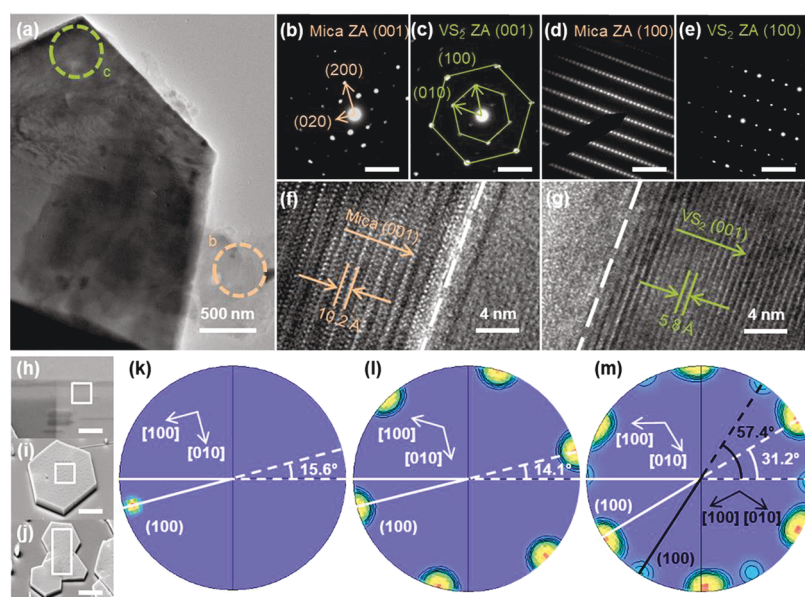
Nevertheless, the overall growth behavior of the VS<sub>2</sub> still indicates a preference for lateral diffusion over vertical growth with an aspect ratio (lateral dimension/thickness) much larger than one. To explain this, first-principles calculations of the VS<sub>2</sub> (100) and (001) surface energies ( $E_{(100)}$  and  $E_{(001)}$ , respectively) were conducted, and the ratio was calculated therefrom ( $E_{(100)}/E_{(001)}$ ; see details in the [Methods](#) section and the [Supporting Information](#)). A larger (100)/(001) surface energy ratio is indicative of an inherent proclivity for lateral crystal growth.<sup>41</sup> The estimated  $E_{(100)}$  and  $E_{(001)}$  surface energies for VS<sub>2</sub> are approximately 2.62 and 0.143 J cm<sup>-2</sup>, respectively, giving a ratio of  $\sim 18.3$ . Compared to an extensively studied TMDC material such as MoS<sub>2</sub>, which is commonly grown in ultrathin-to-monolayer form on various substrates by CVD, this value for VS<sub>2</sub> is much smaller (our calculation yields 2.81 J cm<sup>-2</sup>/0.106 J cm<sup>-2</sup>  $\sim 26.5$  for MoS<sub>2</sub>). Such a comparison may indicate achieving large ultrathin VS<sub>2</sub> flakes is more challenging than MoS<sub>2</sub> given its lower ratio.

It is clear from the experimental observation that VS<sub>2</sub> exhibits better wetting characteristics when grown on mica than when grown on SiO<sub>2</sub>. The mica(001) substrate is commonly believed to be a van der Waals-type layered material having a weak interaction with the overlayer grown on top of it. The van der Waals interaction is based on a purely physical Coulomb force through dipole interactions between the dipole moments from ionic or molecular species with the overlayer.<sup>42</sup> In other words, there is no transfer or sharing of electrons between ions or molecules. However, recent first-principle calculations of CdTe(111) on mica(001) reveal the van der Waals interaction only contributes to 20% of the total interfacial energy, the remaining 80% coming from chemical interaction with charge transfer between mica and the overlayer.<sup>43</sup> This may explain the epitaxial quality of the film on mica compared to the films grown on pure van der Waals surfaces such as graphene.<sup>44</sup> In the case of VS<sub>2</sub> on mica, it is likely that chemical interactions may also be involved to produce the high quality of the epitaxial superlattice VS<sub>2</sub> films (to be presented later) with a smoother morphology. For VS<sub>2</sub> on SiO<sub>2</sub>, the wetting is not as complete as that on the mica surface. In the literature, flakes on SiO<sub>2</sub> standing at various angles have been reported in the growth of other 2D/3D heterostructures such as HfS<sub>2</sub>/SiO<sub>2</sub><sup>45</sup> and SnS<sub>2</sub>/SiO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>46</sup> The fact that more tilted VS<sub>2</sub> flakes are observed on SiO<sub>2</sub> than on mica implies dangling-bond-assisted self-seeding growth occurs in some areas on the amorphous SiO<sub>2</sub> substrate.

One observation is noticed: the area immediately surrounding each large flake has fewer small flakes than observed in other areas as shown in [Figure 2a](#), meaning the growth of the large flakes occurs at the expense of the smaller ones. This implies the diffusion length of small flakes (nuclei) is in the micrometer range at the optimized growth temperature. Overall, the frequent observation of flakes with lateral dimensions of over 100  $\mu$ m in either case makes them the largest reported in the literature, whether by CVD<sup>30,31</sup> or hydrothermal methods.<sup>47–49</sup>

A diverse set of X-ray diffraction (XRD) scans was utilized to resolve the crystal structure of the APCVD-synthesized VS<sub>2</sub> flakes.  $\theta$ -2 $\theta$  scans of VS<sub>2</sub>/mica were collected over a large range of 2 $\theta$ . The pattern (not shown here) contains strong mica (001) peaks ( $l = 2, 4$ , and 6), indicating its good single crystallinity with (001) orientation was well preserved after the high-temperature CVD growth process. One additional peak which cannot be attributed to mica is observed at about 15.64° ([Figure 3a](#)) and gives a  $d$ -spacing of  $\sim 5.661 \pm 0.001$  Å. This is assigned to VS<sub>2</sub> and is within 1.6% of the bulk VS<sub>2</sub> (1T phase, space group  $P3m1$ , No. 164)  $d(001)$  spacing of 5.755 Å. This same peak is observed in VS<sub>2</sub> grown on amorphous SiO<sub>2</sub>, in which a grazing incidence XRD (GIXRD) ([Figure 3c](#)) shows a sharp peak at  $2\theta = 15.653 \pm 0.001^\circ$  with a full width at half-maximum (fwhm,  $\beta$ ) of  $0.089 \pm 0.001^\circ$ , giving a  $d$ -spacing of about  $5.657 \pm 0.001$  Å, 1.7% lower than the theoretical VS<sub>2</sub>(001) value. The calculated average vertical coherent size extracted from the Bragg peak using the Scherrer formula<sup>50</sup> ( $D \sim \lambda/(\beta \cos \theta)$ , where  $\lambda$  is the X-ray wavelength,  $\beta$  is the peak's FWHM, and  $\theta$  in units of radians is half the peak's 2 $\theta$  location) is  $\sim 59$  nm for VS<sub>2</sub>/mica, slightly smaller than calculated for VS<sub>2</sub>/SiO<sub>2</sub>. This is consistent with the AFM thickness histograms plotted in [Figure S2b,d](#), suggesting a narrower spread of flake thicknesses as well as smaller average thickness in VS<sub>2</sub> grown on mica as compared to those grown on SiO<sub>2</sub>. In addition, the identified individual VS<sub>2</sub> peak implies the out-of-plane orientation is (001) on mica, whereas several weaker peaks are seen on SiO<sub>2</sub> from planes such as (100), (110), and (012) originating from flakes inclined at various angles. This is in good agreement with the optical microscopy observations of flat-lying flakes.

To measure the VS<sub>2</sub> nanoflakes' out-of-plane dispersions, rocking curves (RCs) were collected by fixing the X-ray source and detector on the VS<sub>2</sub>(001) 2 $\theta$  peak and rocking the sample about the horizontal axis perpendicular to the beam. The RC



**Figure 4.** TEM analysis of  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes grown on mica. (a) Low-magnification image showing individual  $\text{VS}_2$  flake and exfoliated mica. (b, c) Plan-view SAED patterns from regions indicated in (a). Each indicates the (001) zone axis. (d, e) Cross-section SAED patterns from mica and  $\text{VS}_2$ , respectively. Each indicates the (100) zone axes. Scale bars on all SAED patterns are  $4 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ . (f, g) High-resolution TEM images of the  $\text{VS}_2$ /mica interface aligned to the mica (001) and  $\text{VS}_2$ (001) zone axes, respectively. SEM images of (h) bare mica, (i) individual  $\text{VS}_2$  flake, and (j) merged  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes. Scale bars are  $10 \mu\text{m}$ . (k–m) (100) EBSD pole figures from the boxed regions in (h–j), respectively.

presents a single, reasonably sharp peak with a FWHM of  $0.68 \pm 0.01^\circ$  for  $\text{VS}_2$ /mica (Figure 3b) but a nearly flat intensity profile for  $\text{VS}_2$ /SiO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 3d), again in agreement with the observed morphologies. Interestingly, this XRD characterization provides the additional information about intercalation-induced superstructure geometry over the stacking  $\text{VS}_2$  frames as well. The slightly reduced lattice constant,  $c$  determined from flakes on both mica and SiO<sub>2</sub> substrates is consistent with V-rich  $\text{VS}_2$ ,<sup>30,51</sup> where interstitial V atoms or clusters may be accommodated within the gaps of S–V–S trilayers at atmospheric pressure. Figures 3f and 3g show spatially resolved energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) maps of V K $\alpha$  and S K $\alpha$  signals, respectively, from the flake shown in Figure 3e. Each elemental signal is primarily confined to the flake. The noise in the surrounding clean substrate as well as the relatively low contrast is due to the flake's thin, sub-10 nm thickness. The V:S ratio is about 1.21 to 2, indicating a V-rich stoichiometry in this single  $\text{VS}_2$  flake and supporting the decreased S–V–S trilayer spacing determined by XRD, which has been reported elsewhere. For instance, TEM intensity profiles presented by Ji et al.<sup>30</sup> show that V intercalation occurs without obvious structural distortion of the  $\text{VS}_2$  framework. Furthermore, X-ray diffraction work by Poddar et al.<sup>51</sup> shows  $c$  in non-stoichiometric  $\text{V}_{1.18}\text{S}_2$  is reduced from the bulk value,  $5.75 \text{ \AA}$ , to  $5.67 \text{ \AA}$ , consistent with our observation. Similar to the intercalation of organic and metal molecules,<sup>52,53</sup> there is a charge transfer between the  $\text{VS}_2$  and the intercalated V that changes the original band structure of  $\text{VS}_2$  and the charge density distribution in the V– $\text{VS}_2$  compound. This can affect the van der Waals interaction between  $\text{VS}_2$  layers and thus the van der Waals gap distance. A detailed density function theory calculation specific to the charge transfer (electron donor or acceptor) and charge density distribution of the intercalated V in  $\text{VS}_2$  is necessary to comment further on the nature of the decreased trilayer spacing in this system. This ratio has also

been shown not to be sensitive to extended atmospheric exposure, suggesting negligible oxidation.

The phase and composition of the ultrathin  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes were further investigated using room-temperature Raman spectroscopy as shown in Figure 3i. It can be seen that the Raman spectrum of an ultrathin  $\text{VS}_2$  flake grown on SiO<sub>2</sub> shows the characteristic  $E_g$  (S in-plane) and  $A_g$  (S out-of-plane) peaks at  $\sim 263$  and  $\sim 379 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  with FWHM's of  $\sim 8$  and  $\sim 12 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively. As shown in Figure S6, the peaks' intensities increase with increasing  $\text{VS}_2$  thickness. Previous study and our own experimental experiences have demonstrated that such  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes are sensitive to the laser intensity and may decompose or react with oxygen if the characterization is conducted in atmosphere.<sup>31</sup> Consequently, multiple sets of Raman signals appear, which should not belong to  $\text{VS}_2$ . Herein, a vacuum optical stat was applied for our Raman characterization (see the Methods section for details). The obtained signals corresponding to the two vibrational modes of  $\text{VS}_2$  match closely with the theoretical Raman peak locations of the bulk  $\text{VS}_2$  structure ( $259.3$  and  $376.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ; see the Supporting Information for calculation details). A compilation of Raman spectroscopy data from several sources is shown in Table S1. Of the current literature reports presenting Raman spectra of  $\text{VS}_2$ , only ours agrees with theoretical computation. Because Raman spectroscopy is a surface-sensitive characterization method, such observation over entire single flakes on the SiO<sub>2</sub> substrate illustrates the uniform  $\text{VS}_2$  phase.

The combination of structural information provided by XRD scans and Raman spectra confirm that despite the V-rich stoichiometry observed via EDS, our synthesized nanoflakes exhibit a crystal structure consistent with  $\text{VS}_2$  rather than monoclinic  $\text{V}_5\text{S}_8$  (V:S = 1.25:2).<sup>54</sup> Although  $\text{V}_5\text{S}_8$  is a commonly observed phase in the synthesis of vanadium–sulfur compounds,<sup>30,55</sup> these data indicate additional V atoms are intercalated between  $\text{VS}_2$  layers without long-range structural order.

The aforementioned exploration of substrate effect has shown the disparate  $\text{VS}_2$  growth behaviors to be due to the surface energy differences between mica and  $\text{SiO}_2$ . Compared to the  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes grown on amorphous  $\text{SiO}_2$  with uncertain in-plane and out-of-plane orientations, the flat-lying behavior of most flakes on mica is meaningful for further study. It has been reported that strain-free layered materials can be epitaxially grown on van der Waals substrates.<sup>33</sup> To determine the possible  $\text{VS}_2$ /mica epitaxial relationship,  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes were initially transferred to a TEM grid by exfoliating from direct contact. Figure 4a shows a low-magnification plan-view TEM image of one  $\text{VS}_2$  flake. Some of the underlying mica substrate exfoliated along with the flake can be seen protruding in the lower right corner of the image. Selected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns were taken independently from regions b and c as shown by the dashed circles (Figure 4a), where the nonprimitive rectangular mesh in Figure 4b is consistent with mica pattern viewed from (001) and the hexagonal symmetry pattern (Figure 4c) consistent with (001) zone axis of 1T- $\text{VS}_2$ .<sup>31</sup> This confirms the out-of-plane relation  $\text{VS}_2(001) \parallel \text{mica}(001)$ . Furthermore, from examining these plan-view diffraction patterns, we can determine the angle between  $\text{VS}_2(100)$  and mica (100) to be  $\sim 4^\circ$  for this flake. Note since  $\text{VS}_2(100)$  plane is not parallel to  $\text{VS}_2[100]$  direction, this is equivalent to  $\sim 34^\circ$  between the  $\text{VS}_2[100]$  and mica [100] directions. Figures 4f and 4g are high-resolution cross-section TEM images of the  $\text{VS}_2$ /mica interface. Two images were required rather than one because the mica and  $\text{VS}_2$  in-plane zone axes did not perfectly align. When aligned to the proper zone axis, each material shows clear atomic periodicity, indicative of high-quality crystallization. Interlayer spacings of about 10.2 and 5.8 Å were measured for mica and  $\text{VS}_2$ , shown in Figures 4f and 4g, respectively, consistent with (001) out-of-plane for each (10.2 Å  $\sim 1/2c$  spacing of mica due to lack of symmetry between layers). SAED patterns collected on each side of the interface show the corresponding (100) zone axis for both mica and  $\text{VS}_2$  (Figures 4d and 4e). Based on the tilted angles from one zone axis to the other, the relative angles ( $\phi_{\text{off}}$ ) between the  $\text{VS}_2[100]$  and mica [100] are calculated (see the Supporting Information for details).

Electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD) pole figure analysis is another effective method to reveal the crystal orientation and potentially identify a preferred in-plane epitaxial relationship of  $\text{VS}_2$  on mica. (001) pole figures of mica and individual  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes (not shown here) showed single poles at the centers, indicative of (001) out-of-plane and in agreement with the TEM and XRD results. The uniform color across entire  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes in inverse pole figures reveals the single crystal nature of these flakes. Further (100) EBSD pole figures corresponding to bare mica, a single  $\text{VS}_2$  flake, and two conjoined  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes are shown in Figure 4k–m. For single crystal mica with (001) out-of-plane, we expect to see one (100) pole at  $\chi \sim 84.2^\circ$  due to the low symmetry of the monoclinic unit cell. Experimentally, Figure 4k shows one pole at  $\chi \sim 84.6^\circ$  and about  $15.6^\circ$  below horizontal. The inferred unit axes' directions are superimposed on the data. Single-crystal  $\text{VS}_2(001)$  theoretically should exhibit six poles  $\{(010), (010), (\bar{1}00), (100), (\bar{1}10), \text{ and } (1\bar{1}0)\}$  spaced  $60^\circ$  azimuthally at angle  $\chi = 90^\circ$ . Figure 4l,m confirms six  $\{100\}$  poles from each  $\text{VS}_2$  flake; thus, each flake is single crystalline. The pole figure in Figure 4m exhibits two sets of poles due to signal from two flakes which merged during growth. Nevertheless, the corresponding unit axes can

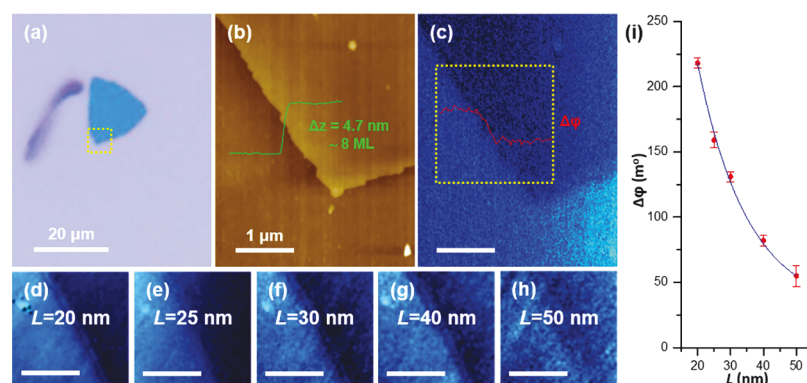
be identified. The comparison of (100) pole figures from mica and  $\text{VS}_2$  flake gives the angles, denoted  $\phi_{\text{off}}$  between  $\text{VS}_2[100]$  and mica [100] with values of  $31.5^\circ$ ,  $14.4^\circ$ , and  $11.8^\circ$  ( $\pm 1^\circ$ ) for three flakes.

A geometrical superlattice area mismatching (GSAM) model based on the minimization of superlattice area mismatch was used to calculate possible interface lattice arrangements between  $\text{VS}_2$  and mica.<sup>56,57</sup> Although typically used for conventional 3D/3D heterostructures, its recent application to a vdW heterostructure has also been successful.<sup>25,58</sup> The most likely superlattice results are tabulated in Table S2, with the relative rotation angle,  $\phi_{\text{off}}$ , defined as the angle between  $\text{VS}_2[100]$  and mica [100]. Figure S4a shows the corresponding bubble plot of  $\Delta A$  vs  $\phi_{\text{off}}$ . The bubbles' radii have been scaled inversely proportional to  $A$  (larger bubbles correspond to smaller superlattice areas). The superlattice area  $A$  is defined as the area in which a near coincident lattice occurs between the overlayer and the substrate. Superlattice area mismatch,  $\Delta A$ , is defined as the area over which the film and substrate superlattices do not overlap. Considering the 6-fold rotational symmetry of the  $\text{VS}_2$  unit mesh, only results from  $0^\circ$  to  $60^\circ$  are plotted. Figure S4b shows schematics of the S-terminated unit mesh of  $\text{VS}_2(001)$ , the K-terminated unit mesh of mica(001), and the smallest calculated superlattice ( $\phi_{\text{off}} = 30.0^\circ$ ). This geometrical superlattice area mismatching simulation corresponds well to the angle values determined from TEM, EBSD pole figure analysis, and the statistical measurement over 120 triangular  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes on mica from optical microscopy images (Figure S4c).

A histogram of all 130 observed  $\phi_{\text{off}}$  values is superimposed on the superlattice area matching calculation results in Figure S4a. The most frequently observed  $\phi_{\text{off}}$  angles coincide with those predicted by the calculation. In fact, the greatest number of flakes are observed at  $\phi_{\text{off}} = 30^\circ$ , in agreement with the most likely superlattice. Despite the inconclusive results from XRD azimuthal phi scans due to lack of intensity, a combination of TEM diffraction patterns, EBSD pole figures, and optical microscopy sampling show strong agreement with the simulation. This clear accordance between calculation and experiment is remarkable considering the weak van der Waals interaction between mica and  $\text{VS}_2$ , each of which exhibits a layered structure. Recent first-principles calculations of interfacial energies including both the chemical and the nonlocal vdW interactions between a soft layered perovskite  $\text{CsPbBr}_3$  film and mica substrate<sup>59</sup> as well as a 3D CdTe film on mica<sup>43</sup> indicate that an additional chemical interaction can play a role in the formation of the interface. In our case, besides the van der Waals interaction, we cannot rule out the possibility of the existence of an additional chemical interaction at the film mica interface to enhance the nucleation and growth of the  $\text{VS}_2$  crystals.

Recent density functional theory (DFT) calculations have predicted  $\text{VS}_2$  to be a promising next-generation 2D magnet by demonstrating the extraordinary metallic property and intrinsic ferromagnetism in the ultrathin to monolayer  $\text{VS}_2$ .<sup>13–20</sup> Experimentally, the electrical properties of  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes were studied by room temperature current–voltage ( $I$ – $V$ ) measurements using a two-point-probe system in an SEM (see the Supporting Information for details). The average resistivity of one  $\sim 13$  nm thick  $\text{VS}_2$  flake as-grown on a silicon substrate was measured to be  $1.8 \pm 0.1 \mu\Omega\cdot\text{m}$ , which indicates a metallic nature and is comparable to others' results.<sup>30,31</sup> In addition, magnetic force microscopy (MFM) is an inherently localized





**Figure 5.** (a) Optical image of ultrathin  $\text{VS}_2$  flake on  $\text{SiO}_2$  substrate. (b) AFM topography scan revealing flake thickness to be about 4.7 nm thick, corresponding to eight S–V–S trilayers. (c) MFM phase map of area shown in (b), collected at a lift height of 25 nm. (d–h) MFM phase maps of  $\text{VS}_2/\text{SiO}_2$  interface at lift heights,  $L = 20, 25, 30, 40$ , and  $50$  nm. Scale bars in (b–h) are  $1\ \mu\text{m}$ . (i) MFM phase contrast of ultrathin flake measured at several lift heights between 20 and 50 nm. An exponential fit is included to guide the eye.

characterization technique and has optical microscopy capabilities for easy identification of regions of interest, making it ideal for studying the magnetic properties of nanomaterials. The MFM data collection begins with a traditional noncontact AFM scan to map the sample's topography by measuring the attractive van der Waals forces between the sample and the probe tip. After topography data were acquired, the tip is lifted a preset distance (typically 20–50 nm) beyond the influence of the vdW forces. It then follows the collected topography line scan to maintain a constant sample–probe distance and detects magnetic interactions via a shift in the cantilever's vibrational phase.

Figure 5 shows an optical image along with AFM topography and MFM phase maps of an  $\sim 4.7$  nm thick  $\text{VS}_2$  flake on  $\text{SiO}_2$ . In Figure 5a, the optical image shows an ultrathin flake with a diameter of about  $20\ \mu\text{m}$  that is visible due to optical interference with the  $300\ \text{nm}$   $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Si}$  substrate. Figure 5b shows an AFM topography map of the dashed box area in Figure 5a, which demonstrates the thickness of the flake to be about 4.7 nm, corresponding to eight S–V–S layers. An MFM phase map collected at a lift height of 25 nm is shown in Figure 5c. The negative phase shift of the sample relative to the  $\text{SiO}_2$  substrate, which is weakly diamagnetic (essentially nonmagnetic), indicates an attraction between the  $\text{VS}_2$  flake and the MFM cantilever. This phase contrast was not observed when the sample and tip were unmagnetized. Furthermore, because one phase contrast was measured across the entirety of each flake, one can infer that each flake is composed of just one magnetic domain.

To demonstrate the dependence of MFM phase contrast on sample–tip distance, data were collected at lift heights ( $L$ ) of 20, 25, 30, 40, and 50 nm (shown in Figure 5d–h). Qualitatively, one observes a decrease in the interfacial contrast with an increase in  $L$ . Averaging over  $\sim 50$  line scans across the flake/substrate interface ensures the data's reliability and provides optimal signal-to-noise. Quantitative results are plotted in Figure 5i. The exponential decay of MFM phase shift with an increase in lift height likewise indicates an exponential decrease in attractive force between the tip and sample, consistent with what one would expect for a magnetic interaction.<sup>60–62</sup> The observation of magnetic force microscopy phase signal provides evidence for the existence of ferromagnetism in ultrathin  $\text{VS}_2$ , consistent with density functional theory calculations.<sup>19</sup> This negative MFM phase

shift was reproducibly measured for several flakes ranging in thickness from 5 to 20 nm with consistent results. In fact, slightly stronger phase signal (indicating stronger magnetization) was measured as thickness decreased, consistent with theoretical predictions.<sup>19</sup>

It is worth commenting on the effects of oxidation which occurs on the surfaces of most metals when exposed to atmosphere. In many metals (e.g., Co, Cu, and V) surface oxidation is self-limiting, extending down into only the top several atomic layers. This metal oxide then serves as a passivation layer which protects the bulk metal from oxidation. Assuming our  $\text{VS}_2$  nanoflake samples form self-limiting oxides at the surface, MFM measurements are detecting signal from a thinner region than directly reported by AFM. For instance, the 4.7 nm thickness (8 ML) measured for the flake shown in Figure 5a may actually be a measurement of the total thickness of  $\text{VS}_2 + \text{VS}$  oxide. The measured magnetic signal is thus from an even thinner film of  $\text{VS}_2$ , which is capped by a protective oxide. Future experiments may be conducted to determine the extent to which  $\text{VS}_2$  is oxidized in atmosphere and the level to which it contributes to magnetic measurements. In addition, magnetic measurements may be conducted *in situ*, or samples may be capped with a thin layer of a nonoxidizing material prior to atmospheric exposure to prevent surface oxide formation.<sup>28</sup> These preliminary findings should be expanded upon by future experiments using other methods such as MOKE microscopy and SQUID magnetometry which would provide definitive proof of a ferromagnetic signal.<sup>4,9</sup>

## CONCLUSION

An APCVD method has been utilized to successfully grow large, ultrathin and high-quality vanadium disulfide crystals on amorphous  $\text{SiO}_2$  and single crystal muscovite mica(001) substrates. By varying several of the many synthesis parameters, we have achieved flakes with the largest lateral dimensions of those reported in the literature. The surface on which V and S adatoms nucleate was shown to impact the nanoflakes' lateral size, thickness, and morphology. Flakes grown on mica exhibit a higher tendency of lying flat as compared to those grown on  $\text{SiO}_2$ . Data from a combination of several characterization techniques provide evidence for in-plane epitaxy formation between  $\text{VS}_2$  and mica, which agrees with a geometrical superlattice area mismatch model typically used for heterostructures. Electrical current–voltage measure-

ments confirm the metallic nature of the flakes, while magnetic force microscopy measurements were used to observe ferromagnetism in ultrathin flakes at room temperature. This serves as the first report of measurable magnetic signal from ultrathin  $\text{VS}_2$  collected by MFM, which may be expanded upon for quantification of ferromagnetic properties. In addition to their current applications in electrodes,<sup>30</sup> batteries,<sup>49</sup> hydrogen evolution reaction,<sup>31,47</sup> supercapacitors,<sup>48,63</sup> and moisture sensors,<sup>64</sup> ultrathin  $\text{VS}_2$  nanoflakes show promise for implementation in spintronic circuits and quantum computing devices.

## METHODS

**Growth of Large Ultrathin  $\text{VS}_2$  Flakes on Mica and  $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Si}(100)$  by APCVD.** The APCVD setup is shown in Figure 1a. The furnace has two temperature zones: one for heating the S precursor boat and one for heating the  $\text{VCl}_3$  precursor boat and the substrates. The quartz tube (Technical Glass Products, Painesville, OH) has an inner diameter of 1.6 cm and a length of 101.6 cm and was mounted within an insulating alumina tube (AdValue Technology, Tucson, AZ) with a 25.4 mm inner diameter and 1219 mm in length. The mica substrates (SPI Chem Mica grade V-4,  $25 \times 75 \times 0.26 \text{ mm}^3$ ) were cut and cleaved into smaller and thinner pieces, which were about  $13 \times 75 \times 0.08 \text{ mm}^3$ . The Si substrates with 300 nm oxide layer (Silicon Quest International, San Jose, CA) were measured to be about  $13 \times 75 \times 0.5 \text{ mm}^3$ . Several substrates were placed downstream from the  $\text{VCl}_3$  source boat facing upward, while an additional substrate was placed on top of the  $\text{VCl}_3$  source boat facing downward. Six growth parameters including S precursor amount,  $\text{VCl}_3$  precursor amount, carrier gas type, carrier gas flow rate, heating zone temperatures, and growth duration were varied systematically to obtain the largest ultrathin  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes. In the optimized growth conditions, a quartz boat containing 0.1 g of  $\text{VCl}_3$  (Sigma-Aldrich) was placed in the center of zone I, and a quartz boat containing 0.6 g of S (Sigma-Aldrich) was positioned in the center of zone II, 25 cm upstream. Both boats were semicylindrical cuts from a quartz tube of 1.5 cm outer diameter. Having no vertical edges perpendicular to the direction of gas flow allows for uniform transport of the precursor materials to the substrates. The growth procedure is illustrated in Figure 1b. Before the growth, the quartz tube was loaded with the precursors and substrates and baked at  $\sim 120^\circ\text{C}$  (zone I) while purging with 80 sccm forming gas (3%  $\text{H}_2$  balanced in  $\text{N}_2$ ) for 1 h. Then, with the gas flow held at 80 sccm, zone I was heated from 120 to  $\sim 750^\circ\text{C}$  at a rate of  $\sim 80^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ . Simultaneously, zone II was heated from  $45^\circ\text{C}$  (due to radiative heat from zone I) to  $250^\circ\text{C}$  at a rate of  $\sim 32^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ . Once the temperatures of zones I and II reached 750 and  $250^\circ\text{C}$ , respectively, the gas flow rate was reduced to 50 sccm. After the 10 min growth of  $\text{VS}_2$  under the atmospheric pressure, the flow rate was increased to 80 sccm, and the heaters were turned off. The system naturally cooled to room temperature over  $\sim 2.5$  h. The as-grown samples were first characterized by optical imaging, and the substrate placed on top of the  $\text{VCl}_3$  boat gave the best growth results. These samples were examined further by using various techniques.

Note that metal halides such as  $\text{VCl}_3$  are hygroscopic. The use of a hygroscopic precursor increases the partial pressure within the furnace as the temperature increases.<sup>65</sup> Thus, we stored  $\text{VCl}_3$  in an Ar glovebox and retrieved the needed amount immediately before each synthesis to reduce exposure to moisture. We have used either pure Ar or forming gas as the carrier gas for synthesis. We found the  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes grown using forming gas are larger than those grown using pure Ar. We believe the hydrogen from the forming gas plays a crucial role in the chemical reaction. The  $\text{H}_2$  reduces  $\text{S}_2$  to  $\text{S}_2^{4-}$  while the Cl remains in the  $\text{Cl}^-$  state, combining with the  $\text{H}^+$  cation to form HCl, which is then carried away by the flowing gas. An additional advantage of forming gas is that the thermal conductivity of hydrogen is about 1 order of magnitude higher than that of Ar ( $\sim 0.23 \text{ W}/(\text{m K})$  vs  $\sim 0.022 \text{ W}/(\text{m K})$  at 400 K). Thus, hydrogen molecules aid in heat

transfer from the furnace to the precursors and substrates, enhancing the energy available for chemical reactions.

**Characterization Methods. Imaging.** Optical images were taken on a Nikon Eclipse Ti-S inverted optical microscope. AFM images were taken using a Park Systems XE100 scanning probe microscope in noncontact mode at a selected frequency  $\sim 190 \text{ kHz}$  using a cantilever with a spring constant of  $\sim 45 \text{ N m}^{-1}$ . SEM (Carl Zeiss Supra 55 field emission) images were collected at 5 keV with a  $30 \mu\text{m}$  aperture, while 10 keV was used for EDS measurements.

**X-ray Diffraction (XRD) and X-ray Pole Figure.** XRD scans were obtained using a Bruker D8 Discover X-ray diffractometer with a Cu source (Cu  $\text{K}\alpha$ ,  $\lambda = 1.5405 \text{ \AA}$ , 40 kV, 40 mA) and a point detector. The incident beam, detector, and antiscatter slits used to achieve maximum resolution were 0.1, 0.1, and 0.2 mm, respectively. The 0.6 mm slits were used for azimuthal scans to enhance intensity. The step sizes used for  $\theta$ – $2\theta$ , rocking curve (RC), and azimuthal  $\phi$  scans are  $0.001^\circ$ ,  $0.001^\circ$ , and  $0.1^\circ$ , respectively.

**Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM).** The  $\text{VS}_2$  sample used in TEM was protected by a Pt coating and thinned by focused ion beam milling using energetic  $\text{Ga}^+$  ions and the *in situ* specimen lift-out technique. The thinned sample was mounted on a liquid nitrogen cooled sample stage to minimize mechanical drifting of the sample. A 200 keV electron beam was used to obtain the TEM (JEOL 2100 F) bright-field images, high-resolution images, and electron diffraction patterns. Atomic percentages converted from the weight percentages of the elements in  $\text{VS}_2$  flake, at the interface of mica and  $\text{VS}_2$ , and mica were collected by EDS in the same system (Figure S5).

**Electron Backscatter Diffraction (EBSD) and Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (EDS).** EBSD characterizations of  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes on mica were performed with a Carl Zeiss Ultra 1540 EsB SEM-FIB system integrated with a NordlysNano EBSD Detector (Oxford Instruments). To avoid electrical charging from the mica substrate, the sample was sputtered with a several nanometers thick Pt film before the EBSD scan. A 15 kV electron beam in high current mode with a  $120 \mu\text{m}$  aperture was used to scan the sample surface to locate a flake. The EBSD scanning was conducted on the flake surface in a  $5.0 \times 5.0 \mu\text{m}^2$  area with a step size of 125 nm. The scans were acquired at a working distance of 18 mm and  $70^\circ$  sample tilt. The crystallographic orientation data were collected by using Aztec 2.1 EBSD data acquisition software and postanalyzed using the HKL Channel 5 Tango and Mambo software package (Oxford Instruments) for the crystallographic orientation mapping, the grain boundary misorientation estimation, and the pole figure plotting. EDS spectra were also collected simultaneously using an X-Max silicon drift detector (Oxford Instrument) in the SEM-FIB system under the same working configurations.

**Raman Spectroscopy.** Raman spectra were collected using cryo-Raman measurements with a homemade micro-Raman spectrometer. To achieve an isolated environment and prevent the possible oxidation of vanadium disulfide caused by laser irradiation in atmosphere, the sample was mounted in an optical cryostat with a quartz window. Before measurement, the internal pressure of the cryostat was pumped down to  $\sim 7 \times 10^{-7}$  Torr by a Turbo pump (HiCube 80 Eco, Pfeiffer Vacuum, Germany). For room temperature measurements, the cryostat was pumped down without filling the cavity with liquid nitrogen. The 532 nm laser with a spot size of  $2 \mu\text{m}$  and 1 mW intensity (LRS-0532 DPSS, Laserglow Technologies, Canada) was irradiated via a 50 $\times$  objective lens. The reflected signal was obtained and analyzed by a high-speed spectroscopy CCD camera (iDus 420 Series, Andor Technology Ltd., UK) and imaging spectrometer (Shamrock 500i, Andor Technology Ltd., UK). The resolution of the Raman system was  $0.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The step size used in measurements was  $1.34 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . All spectra were collected by integrating the signal for 120 s. The Raman shifts ranging from 220 to  $420 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  were investigated in each measurement (Figure S6).

**Electrical Measurement.** Electrical measurements were collected with the sample mounted in a Carl Zeiss Ultra 1540 EsB SEM-FIB system. Two tungsten probes (Signatone SM-10) were positioned by adjusting micrometers to make contacts with the selected flake. A Keithley (4200-SCS) source meter in sweep current mode was used



to measure the  $I$ – $V$  data. The current was swept from  $-5$  to  $+5$   $\mu\text{A}$  in either 0.05 or 0.01  $\mu\text{A}$  increments to give 201 or 1001 data points, respectively. In addition, room-temperature resistivity of one ultrathin  $\text{VS}_2$  flake was measured using a prototype of Xallent's Nanoprober A100 at Cornell's NanoScale Science and Technology Facility. In this setup, a prearranged linear four-point probe made of Pt with  $\sim 300$  nm probe widths and  $\sim 700$  nm probe separation was pressed on top of the flake to make electrical contact. The resistance values were collected from two different locations with multiple measurements (three measurements for the first location and four measurements for the second location). Results are included in the [Supporting Information](#).

**MFM Measurements.** A Park Systems NX20 scanning probe microscope with a Park MFM cantilever ( $k \sim 2.8$  N  $\text{m}^{-1}$ , selected frequency  $\sim 75$  kHz, CoCr coated with nominal coercivity  $\sim 400$  Oe) was used for MFM measurements. Both the sample and tip were magnetized by an  $\sim 500$  Oe permanent magnet prior to collection. The measurement was conducted in the conventional two-pass method (first in noncontact AFM mode for topographic contrast, second at a preset lift height for magnetic contrast).

**Theoretical Calculation Methods. First-Principles Calculation of the Surface Energy of  $\text{VS}_2$ .** The surface energy of different crystal planes of the  $\text{VS}_2$  was studied by the first-principles. The calculations were based on density function theory where the local density approximation was chosen to describe the exchange and correlation energies of electrons. A  $2 \times 2 \times 2$  supercell of  $\text{VS}_2$  with an energy cutoff of 310 eV and a Monkhorst–Pack  $k$ -point grid  $5 \times 5 \times 1$  was used. The interaction between core electrons and valence electrons was treated by means of ultrasoft pseudopotentials (see details in the [Supporting Information](#)).

**Density Functional Theory Calculation of Raman Peaks.** Within the density functional theory local density approximation, the norm-conserving pseudopotentials were used to mimic the scattering behaviors of the V and S atoms. We used a plane-wave basis whose expansion was cut off at  $E_{\text{cut}} = 1224.51$  eV and a  $4 \times 4 \times 4$  Monkhorst–Pack grid sampling of the first Brillouin zone. The calculations were considered convergent when the energy difference between self-consistent iteration was smaller than  $1.3606 \times 10^{-5}$  eV. The ground state was obtained by relaxing the geometry and the atomic coordinates. The atoms in the system were considered in equilibrium when the force on each individual atom was smaller than 0.0025 eV/Å.

**Geometrical Superlattice Area Mismatching.** Defining  $u_1$  and  $v_1$  ( $u_2$  and  $v_2$ ) as the substrate (overlayer) superlattice lengths separated by angle  $\alpha_1$  ( $\alpha_2$ ), there are two criteria for determining the relative likelihood of observing a calculated superlattice: (i) the substrate superlattice area,  $A_1$ , and overlayer superlattice area,  $A_2$ , should be small to increase the density of coincident atomic sites; (ii) the difference between the two superlattice areas,  $\Delta A$ , should be small to minimize the interfacial energy of the heteroepitaxial system.  $\Delta A$  is defined as

$$\Delta A = A(\Delta u/u + \Delta v/v + \Delta \alpha/\tan \alpha) \quad (2)$$

where  $\Delta u$ ,  $\Delta v$ , and  $\Delta \alpha$  are the differences in each parameter between the substrate and overlayer. Smallest values of  $A$  and  $\Delta A$  represent the highest chance of observing a given superlattice.

The surface termination of freshly cleaved mica(001) has been examined by others via Auger electron spectroscopy<sup>66</sup> and shows about half a monolayer (ML) of potassium (K). The substrate lattice parameters used in the superlattice area mismatch model are those of the K-terminated mica (001) surface:  $a_{\text{mica}} = 5.192$  Å,  $b_{\text{mica}} = 5.189$  Å, and  $\alpha_{\text{mica}} = 60.02^\circ$ . The overlayer lattice parameters used are those of  $\text{VS}_2$ (001):  $a_{\text{VS}_2} = 3.221$  Å,  $b_{\text{VS}_2} = 3.221$  Å, and  $\alpha_{\text{VS}_2} = 120^\circ$ . The calculation was conducted with  $A$  constrained to  $<300$  Å<sup>2</sup> and  $\Delta u/u$ ,  $\Delta v/v$ , and  $\Delta \alpha/\tan \alpha$  each set to  $<8\%$ .

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### § Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: [10.1021/acsanm.9b00608](https://doi.org/10.1021/acsanm.9b00608).

Additional AFM scans of  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes; lateral size and thickness histograms of  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes grown on  $\text{SiO}_2$  and mica substrates; geometrical superlattice area matching results of  $\text{VS}_2$ /mica;  $\text{VS}_2$  Raman spectroscopy data from several references; first-principles calculation of  $\text{VS}_2$  surface energy; angle determination of  $\text{VS}_2$ [100] and mica[100] from TEM results;  $\text{VS}_2$  electrical current–voltage measurement; cross-section TEM EDS data; Raman spectra of  $\text{VS}_2$  flakes of increasing thicknesses ([PDF](#))

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A.J.L. and Z.L. contributed equally. A.J.L. and Z.L. initiated and performed the project with supervision from M.W., T.-M.L. and G.-C.W. Z.H.L. collected electron backscatter diffraction data. X.S., Y.L., T.W., Y.H., and S.-F.S. provided facilities for and aided in the collection of Raman spectra. A.R. and H.T. calculated the theoretical Raman modes of 1T- $\text{VS}_2$ . Y.W. and J.S. conducted preliminary TEM characterization and provided optical microscopy facilities. L.H.Z. and K.K. collected high-resolution transmission electron microscopy. P.N. and K.M.L. conducted electrical current–voltage measurements. W.S. aided in the collection of magnetic force microscopy data. H.L. conducted surface energy calculations. A.J.L. and Z.L. wrote the manuscript with input from all coauthors.

### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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