$$(WO_3)_{n(g)} + 2 H_2 X_{(g)} \rightarrow WX_{2(s)} + 2 H_2 O_{(g)}, \text{ where } X = S \text{ or Se}$$
 (11)

or

$$WO_{2(g)} + 2H_2X_{(g)} \rightarrow WX_{2(g)} + 2H_2O_{(g)}$$
, where X = S or Se (12)

Reactions (8)–(10) and (11)–(12) can occur concurrently. The appearance of different molybdenum and tungsten oxidation states can also be directly observed from the colour changes of the solid precursors after exposure to different gaseous environments: MoO₂ (brown), W₂₀O₅₈ (blue), a violet colour indicating the presence of W₂₀O₅₈ and W₁₈O₄₉ phases in a whisker-type morphology 42 and WO₂ (chocolate brown) (Extended Data Fig. 5e–l).

There are important differences in the behaviour of molybdenum and tungsten-based compounds in the presence of water vapour 22 . Firstly, the oxide products of tungsten are relatively less volatile than those of the corresponding molybdenum compounds. In addition, the high-index W sub-oxides $(W_{20}O_{58})$ are less volatile and less readily oxidized to WO_3. This vapour-phase modulation of the oxide species is the key driving force for the observed sequential growth of lateral heterostructures. Thus, the growth mechanism can be summarized as follows. The selective growth of MoX_2 or WX_2 monolayers can be achieved simply by controlling the carrier gas environment. $N_2 + H_2O$ vapour (without H_2) favours the evaporation of both molybdenum and tungsten precursors, but only molybdenum precursors are deposited on the substrate. An abrupt switch of the carrier gas to $Ar + H_2$ quickly depletes the supply of molybdenum precursors, while continuing to supply tungsten precursors owing to the slower reduction rate of WO_x. A more detailed chemical analysis, including the type of gaseous by-products, in conjunction with theoretical models is ongoing.

In order to further understand the role of molybdenum or tungsten oxides during the switching of one material domain to the other (such as MoX_2 to WX_2), and the extent of material diffusion across the interface while changing the carrier gas from $N_2 + H_2O$ to $Ar + H_2$ for heterostructure fabrication, the oxidation induced evaporation and the rapid reduction behaviour of different solid sources, including MoO_3 and WO_3 , were evaluated independently at 1,060 °C (Extended Data Fig. 5c, d).

Case 1, in the presence of H_2O . It can be seen from Extended Data Fig. 5c that sublimation of MoO_3 is almost instantaneous (97% weight loss in 2 min). By contrast, the sublimation of WO_3 is very slow (approximately 2% weight loss in 2 min) and is linear. This is further supported by the observation that the weight loss of $MoSe_2$ is around three times higher than that of WSe_2 for a 10-min interaction with H_2O , which is otherwise linear. This shows that, in the presence of H_2O , the Mo-oxide vapours dominate over W-oxide vapours in the reaction zone. It can be concluded that, in the presence of water vapour, oxide products of tungsten are relatively less volatile than the corresponding molybdenum compounds. In fact, the slower oxidation of tungsten compounds might aid the formation of tungsten oxide hydroxide (WO_3 : xH_2O) species, which generally condense below 500 °C. Hence, an H_2O environment favours the growth of only MoX_2 domains.

Case 2, in the presence of H_2 reducing gas. MoO₃ undergoes rapid phase transformation to different sub-oxide phases until it is completely reduced to Mo, via the steps $MoO_3 \rightarrow Mo_4O_{11} \rightarrow MoO_2 \rightarrow Mo$ (Supplementary Table 3)⁴³. A weight loss of around 75% was observed in 10 min. In a similar time frame, however, WO_3 undergoes a linear transformation to different sub-oxide phases via $WO_3 \rightarrow W_nO_{3n-1} \rightarrow W_nO_{3n-2}$ ($W_2O_{58}) \rightarrow W_{18}O_{48} \rightarrow WO_2$ (Supplementary Table 3). A maximum weight loss of 8.5% was observed in 10 min, which is almost 9 times slower than the reduction process of MoO_3 . It indicates that, during the switching of H_2O to H_2 carrier gas, the residual MoO_2 reduces instantaneously; however, the supply of W sub-oxides is maintained. In addition, the leaching of W sub-oxides by H_2 is more rapid than their rate of reduction to lower W sub-oxides, thus contributing to the growth of the WSe₂ domain.

From the above observation, it can be concluded that H₂O vapour favours the growth of the MoSe2 domain because the population of molybdenum oxides dominates the reaction chamber. The rapid reduction of MoO₃ indicates (Extended Data Fig. 5d) that the rate of MoSe2 oxidation is equal to the rate of MoO₂ sublimation, meaning that all the MoO₂ oxide formed during the interaction of H2O with MoSe2 sublimes instantly. This has been further confirmed during the oxidation of MoSe2, in which we do not encounter any signatures of higher Mo-oxide phases. On the other hand, H₂O vapour favours the continuous oxidation of the WSe2 precursor to higher sub-oxide phases of W, and the typical timescale of growth of the MoSe2 domain does not apply in this case. However, any higher W sub-oxides that occur during WSe2 oxidation, such as W20O58 or WO₃, can effectively capture an H₂O molecule and form tungsten oxide hydroxide (WO₃·H₂O), which is very volatile and hence can only condense below 500 °C. The different interfaces during the transition from one material to other are a consequence of the different oxidation and reduction rates of molybdenum and tungsten-based compounds as well the gas switching mechanism. When the carrier gas switches from H_2O to H_2 (as a reducing agent), the residual Mo-oxide content depletes suddenly, as observed from the weight-loss plot. Because, in the present experimental setup, absolute depletion of H_2O to H_2 is not possible, this resulted in a mild co-deposition of Mo into the WX_2 domain, hence forming a smooth interface ($MoX_2 \rightarrow WX_2$). Note that, during the continuous growth of the WX_2 domain, the Mo-oxide completely depletes into metallic molybdenum over the MoX_2 source. When the condition is reverted—that is, changing from H_2 to H_2O vapour—the W sub-oxides proceed towards forming high-index W sub-oxides, as indicated by the slow weight-loss of W-oxide precursors in H_2O . Meanwhile, H_2O restores the initial oxidation step from metallic molybdenum that, during the interaction with H_2 gas, formed at the MoX_2 surface. This forms MoO_2 relatively more slowly than the direct oxidation of the MoX_2 source. This might result in a slight delay to the supply of MoO_2 vapour to the already existing WX_2 edge-site, and hence always results in a sharp transition from the WX_2 to the MoX_2 domain.

Assignment of Raman modes of MoS_{0.64}Se_{1.36}-WSe_{1.32}S_{0.68} Iateral heterostructure. The compositional and spatial distribution of (S-Se) alloy in the $MoS_{2(1-x)}Se_{2x}$ – $WS_{2(1-x)}Se_{2x}$ lateral heterostructures were examined using Raman measurements (Fig. 3a, b and Extended Data Figs 8, 10). The normalized Raman spectra in Extended Data Fig. 8c indicate that the MoX₂- and WX₂-related Raman branches are well separated, and mostly consist of several intense peaks in the range of 100 to 500 cm⁻¹. The intense Raman peaks (Extended Data Fig. 8c) observed within domains 1 and 3 (Extended Data Fig. 8a) are related to an alloy phase of $MoS_{2(1-x)}Se_{2x}$ (refs 28, 44). In general, A_{1g} and E_{2g} modes in monolayer $MoS_{2(1-x)}Se_{2x}$ show typical two-mode behaviour and do not imply phase segregation⁴⁴. Splitting of the A_{1g} mode has also been observed, which is attributed mainly to the mass difference between Se and S as well as their spatial configuration around Mo atoms⁴⁴. Hence, the observed Raman spectra (Extended Data Fig. 8c) for the $MoS_{2(1-x)}Se_{2x}$ monolayer domains have two distinct sets of features: MoS_2 like features ($E_{2g(S-Mo)}$ (370 cm⁻¹) and $A_{1g(S-Mo)}$ modes (400.5 cm⁻¹)), and MoSe₂like features close to 264 cm⁻¹. In detail, the peaks at 219 cm⁻¹ and 264 cm⁻¹ are observed as a result of $A_{1g}\ mode$ splitting of the $MoSe_2\ phase$ into low and high-frequency domains, respectively, whereas MoS₂-like A_{1g} shifts from 405 to $400.5 \,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$, and $\mathrm{E}_{2\mathrm{g}}$ shifts from 385 to 370 cm⁻¹, confirm the presence of Se incorporation in the lattice site of S (ref. 45). Similarly, the normalized Raman spectra corresponding to domains 2 and 4 (Extended Data Fig. 8a) display several phonon modes typical of a WSe_{2x}S_{2(1-x)} alloy, which can be assigned to modes A_{1g(Se-W)} $(256-259 \, \text{cm}^{-1}), A_{1g(S-W)} (404-406 \, \text{cm}^{-1}), A_{1g(S-W-Se)} (379-381 \, \text{cm}^{-1}), E_{2g(S-W)} (379-381 \, \text{cm}^{-1}), E$ $\begin{array}{l} (354\,\text{cm}^{-1}), A_{1g}(\text{m}) \cdot \text{LA}_{(S-W)} (225\,\text{cm}^{-1}) \text{ and } A_{1g(Se-W)} - \text{LA}_{(Se-W)} + E_{2g(S-W)} - \text{LA}_{(S-W)} \\ (138-141\,\text{cm}^{-1}) \text{ (ref. 27)}. \text{ The observed red shift (around } 12\,\text{cm}^{-1}) \text{ of the } A_{1g(S-W)} \end{array}$ mode in a Se-rich environment, as compared to that of isotropic monolayer WS₂ phase and the corresponding hardening of the $A_{1g(Se-W)}$ mode, clearly indicates the presence of Se/S alloy in $\text{MoS}_{2(1-x)}\text{Se}_{2x}$ and $\text{WS}_{2(1-x)}\text{Se}_{2x}$ domains. However, the position of the $E_{2g(S-W)}$ mode does not change (± 1 cm⁻¹), which might be attributed to the weak coupling between the very weak E_{2g(Se-W)} mode and the strong E_{2g(S-W)} mode²⁷. This has been further confirmed by Raman intensity mapping as shown in the composite image (individual component maps in Extended Data Fig. 8h-k). Even though the $A_{1g(S-W)}$ and $A_{1g(S-Mo)}$ peaks differ by only around 4 cm⁻¹, the mapping provides clear in-plane differentiation between these two domains that matches the optical contrast of the heterostructure.

Assignment of Raman modes of MoSe_{0.96}S_{1.04}-WSe_{0.92}S_{1.08} lateral hetero**structure.** Extended Data Fig. 10b shows the $MoSe_{2(1-x)}S_{2x}$ and $WS_{2(1-x)}Se_{2x}$ related Raman spectra at different regions of the heterostructure (including the junctions) corresponding to the optical image in Fig. 3b. The prominent peaks, observed within domain 1 and 3 (Extended Data Fig. 10a), are mostly related to an alloy phase of $MoSe_{2(1-x)}S_{2x}$, which can be assigned to MoS_2 -like peaks ($A_{1g(S-Mo)}$ modes (402.5 cm $^{-1}$), $E_{2g(S-Mo)}$ (371–374 cm $^{-1}$)) and MoSe₂-like peaks (high frequency A_{1g(Se-Mo)} modes (266-267 cm⁻¹), low frequency A_{1g(Se-Mo)} modes $(223 \,\mathrm{cm}^{-1})$, and $\mathrm{E}_{2\mathrm{g(Se-Mo)}}$ $(277-278 \,\mathrm{cm}^{-1})$). Similarly, Raman spectra collected from domains 2 and 4 display several modes that correspond to a typical $WS_{2(1-x)}Se_{2x}$ alloy, and can be assigned to modes $A_{1g(S-W)}$ (211–213 cm⁻¹), $A_{1g(Se-W)}$ (263 cm⁻¹), $E_{2g(S-W)}$ (around 356–358 cm⁻¹), A_{1g} (m)- $LA_{(S-W)}$ (around 225 cm $^{-1})$ and $A_{1g(Se-W)}$ - $LA_{(Se-W)}$ + $E_{2g(S-W)}$ - $LA_{(S-W)}$ (around 160 cm $^{-1}$). The $A_{1g(S-W)}$ mode is red shifted by approximately 4 cm⁻¹, whereas the corresponding large shift of the $A_{1g(Se-W)}$ mode is due to the occurrence of uniform S/Se alloying in these heterostructures. This is supported by the distinct photoluminescence spectra (Extended Data Fig. 10c, d) collected from the $MoSe_{2(1-x)}S_{2x}$ and $WS_{2(1-x)}Se_{2x}$ domains. The individual Raman and photoluminescence maps further confirm the seamless connectivity as well as uniformity in the distribution of S/Se alloy within the triangular domains (Extended Data Fig. 10).

Data availability. The datasets generated and/or analysed in the current study are available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request, and are also included with the manuscript as Extended Data and Supplementary Information.