

# Defect Healing in Layered Materials: A Machine Learning-Assisted Characterization of MoS<sub>2</sub> Crystal Phases

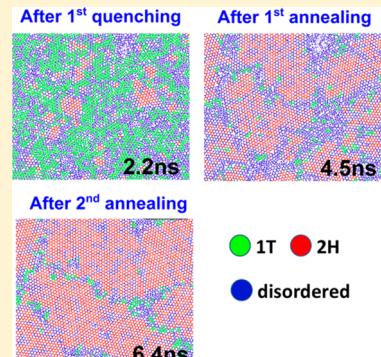
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## Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** Monolayer MoS<sub>2</sub> is an outstanding candidate for a next-generation semiconducting material because of its exceptional physical, chemical, and mechanical properties. To make this promising layered material applicable to nanostructured electronic applications, synthesis of a highly crystalline MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer is vitally important. Among different types of synthesis methods, chemical vapor deposition (CVD) is the most practical way to synthesize few- or mono-layer MoS<sub>2</sub> on the target substrate owing to its simplicity and scalability. However, synthesis of a highly crystalline MoS<sub>2</sub> layer remains elusive. This is because of the number of grains and defects unavoidably generated during CVD synthesis. Here, we perform multimillion-atom reactive molecular dynamics (RMD) simulations to identify an origin of the grain growth, migration, and defect healing process on a CVD-grown MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer. RMD results reveal that grain boundaries could be successfully repaired by multiple heat treatments. Our work proposes a new way of controlling the grain growth and migration on a CVD-grown MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer.



Graphene and other two-dimensional materials have allowed the exploration of novel layered and stacked nanostructures with remarkable functionality.<sup>1–3</sup> In particular, molybdenum disulfide (MoS<sub>2</sub>), one of the archetypal transition-metal dichalcogenide (TMDC) materials, has received great attention owing to its unique physical, chemical, and mechanical properties.<sup>4</sup> For example, MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer has a high band gap (~1.8 eV), high carrier mobility, and exceptional mechanical strength in comparison to its bulk counterpart or other conventional Si-based materials.<sup>5–9</sup> These characteristics allow the MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer to be applicable to the next-generation semiconducting-related applications such as ultrathin channel materials and/or flexible thin transistors.<sup>10,11</sup> In addition, MoS<sub>2</sub> layers with sulfur vacancies act as catalysts for the electrochemical hydrogen evolution reaction.<sup>12</sup> To bring this promising layered TMDC material into mass production, numerous efforts have been made, including physical vapor deposition, mechanical exfoliation, hydrothermal synthesis, and chemical vapor deposition (CVD).

Among these techniques, CVD is the most practical and scalable way to synthesize large-scale and high-quality MoS<sub>2</sub> layers on the target substrate.<sup>14,15</sup> Consequently, many researchers have reported mechanistic studies on CVD synthesis of TMDC materials using experimental<sup>16–19</sup> and computational<sup>20–22</sup> approaches, and these studies have greatly improved our understanding of reaction mechanisms for the CVD reaction processes. That is, the replacement of O atoms

in MoO<sub>3</sub> reactants with S atoms in the sulfur precursors is the key reaction step for synthesis of the MoS<sub>2</sub> layer during CVD synthesis. Unfortunately, the number of grains and line defects are intrinsically formed during CVD synthesis,<sup>23–25</sup> which could degrade the electrical or mechanical performance.<sup>26–28</sup> To repair these grain boundaries and defects, a few post-treatments have been experimentally suggested, such as a postdeposition sulfurization annealing,<sup>29</sup> thermal annealing,<sup>30</sup> laser heating,<sup>31</sup> and electron beam irradiation.<sup>32</sup> As such, it is essential to investigate effective post-sulfurization strategies for CVD synthesis toward higher-quality TMDC materials.

However, optimal conditions for CVD synthesis of highly crystalline MoS<sub>2</sub> layers have yet to be fully investigated. This is primarily because the degree to which a high crystallinity of MoS<sub>2</sub> layer is achieved has not been fully understood, and the obtained information primarily relies on a trial-and-error experimental approach. Here, we perform multimillion-atom reactive molecular dynamics (RMD) simulations, which allow us to gain an atomic scale insight into reaction dynamics of complex nanostructured materials<sup>33</sup> to investigate the origin of the formation of grains and line defects and their healing process on CVD-grown MoS<sub>2</sub> monolayer. Our RMD simulations are based on the first-principles-informed

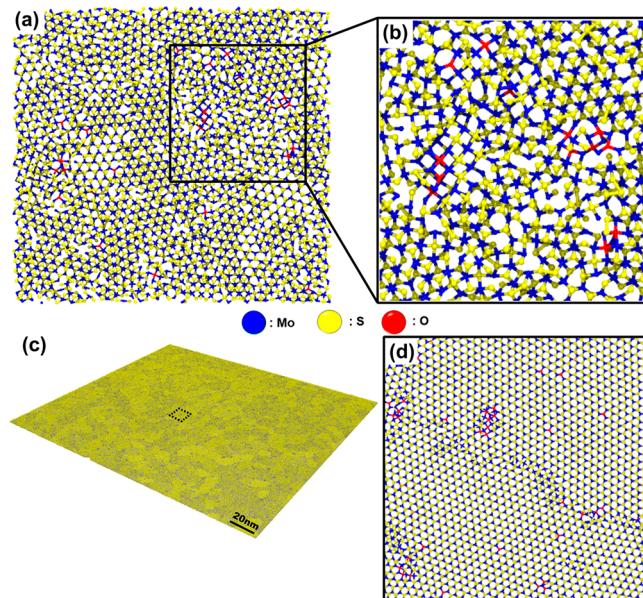
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ReaxFF<sup>34</sup> reactive force field, which was previously used and validated for CVD synthesis reactions.<sup>22,35</sup> In addition, RMD trajectories were characterized by our newly developed machine learning algorithm to identify local atomic structures. Below, we report results of our RMD simulations, followed by conclusions of this work and details of our simulation setup.

To efficiently conduct presulfurization of the  $\text{MoO}_3$  slab followed by post quenching–annealing simulations, we first prepared a presulfurized  $\text{MoO}_{x,y}$  slab using a relatively small system (**Figure 1a**). The detailed system configuration and

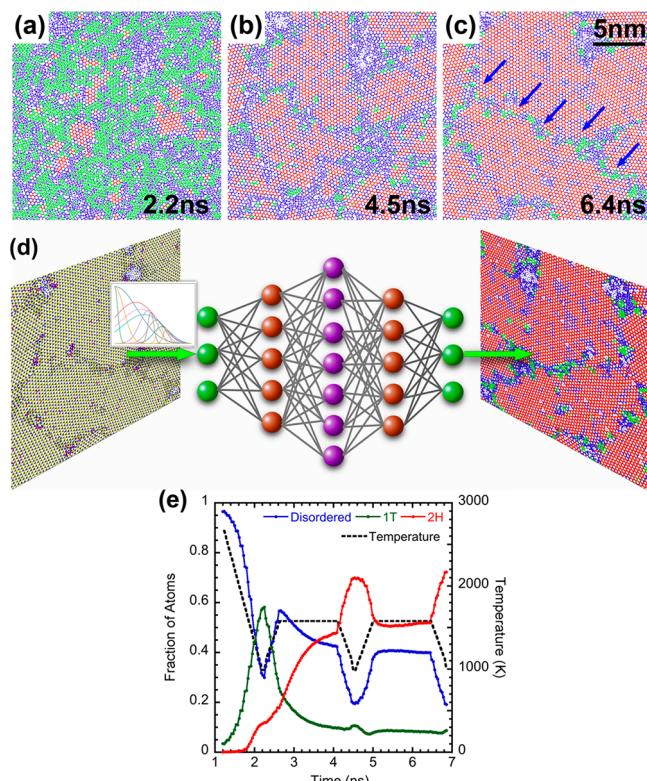


**Figure 1.** Snapshot of  $\text{MoS}_2$  monolayer used in this work: (a) Presulfurized  $\text{MoO}_{x,y}$  surface with a relatively small size of 10.5 nm by 9.8 nm in the  $x$ - and  $y$ -directions, respectively. (b) An enlarged image of the  $\text{MoO}_{x,y}$  surface in panel a showing that the surface was most likely sulfurized while its crystallinity is poor at this moment. (c) Final snapshot of the expanded  $\text{MoO}_{x,y}$  surface structure using the surface structure in panel a (211.0 nm  $\times$  196.3 nm in the  $x$ - and  $y$ -directions, respectively) after multimillion-atom RMD simulations of the postquenching–annealing steps. (d) Enlarged image of the  $\text{MoO}_{x,y}$  surface highlighted by the black-dotted square in panel c. Note that the surface crystallinity is greatly improved, compared with the structure in panel a, by the quenching–annealing steps.

simulations schedule for the presulfurization step of the  $\text{MoO}_3$  slab are discussed in the *Supporting Information*, and **Movie S1** shows the reaction dynamics of the sulfidation of the  $\text{MoO}_3$  slab using  $\text{S}_2$  precursors. It should be noted that the different  $\text{S}/\text{Mo}$  ratios in the system affect only the reduction/sulfidation rate of  $\text{MoO}_3$  structure while the key reaction steps for reduction and sulfidation processes remain the same. This was confirmed by our previous studies.<sup>22,35</sup> After this presulfurization step, the initial  $\text{MoO}_3$  slab was most likely reduced and sulfurized. That is, the presulfurized  $\text{MoO}_{x,y}$  surface contains a relatively small portion of O atoms, when compared with that of S atoms (**Figure 1b**). Note that reaction mechanisms for the reduction and sulfidation processes were also discussed in our previous work.<sup>22,35</sup> The presulfurized  $\text{MoO}_{x,y}$  surface was obtained at high temperatures (3000 K) so that the surface structure is quite disordered at this time. We then expanded this structure (replicated in 20 times by 20 times in the  $x$ - and  $y$ -directions, respectively) and performed multimillion-atom RMD simulations (4,305,600 atoms in

total) of quenching–annealing steps in the following schedule: (1) quenching from 3000 K to 1000 K for 1.0 ns; (2) two annealing cycles consisting of a heating step from 1000 K to 1600 K for 0.4 ns followed by a thermalization step at 1600 K for 1.5 ns and a cooling step from 1600 K to 1000 K for 0.4 ns.

Prior to these quenching–annealing steps, the expanded surface structure was also thermalized at 3000 K for 1.0 ns to randomly distribute local atomic structures on the entire surface. The final configuration of the expanded  $\text{MoO}_{x,y}$  surface and its enlarged image are shown in panels c and d of **Figure 1**, respectively. Interestingly, the postquenching–annealing steps improve the crystallinity of the  $\text{MoO}_{x,y}$  surface (see Panels a and d of **Figure 1** for comparison). Panels a, b, and c of **Figure 2** show time evolutions of local atomic



**Figure 2.** Local atomic structures (a) after the initial quenching at 2.2 ns, (b) after the first annealing at 4.5 ns, and (c) after the second annealing at 6.4 ns. Note that blue, green, and red colors represent disordered-, 1T-, 2H-phases of  $\text{MoS}_2$ , respectively. In addition, the blue arrows in panel c indicate the grain boundaries or line defects consisting of disordered- and 1T-phases, evolved during the quenching–annealing steps. (d) Schematic of a three-layer neural network model for defect identification in layered TMDC materials. (e) Temperature cycle profile during the entire RMD schedule (the black dotted curve) and time evolution of the local atomic structures based on the machine learning-assisted characterization.

structures on a small portion of the entire surface in **Figure 1c** at 2.2, 4.5, and 6.4 ns, respectively. Basically, TMDC exists in two distinct crystal structures, which are 2H and 1T. These TMDCs also contain grain boundaries or line defects in their crystalline phases.<sup>26</sup>

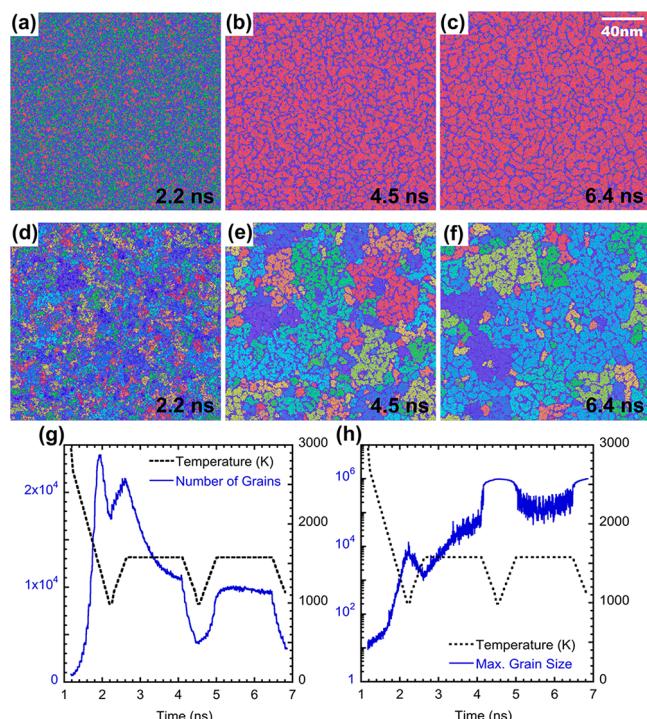
As shown in **Figure 2**, the local atomic structures were identified by three phases: disordered (blue), 1T (green), and 2H (red) using machine learning characterization;<sup>36</sup> in this work, we built a feed-forward neural network model with three

hidden layers (Figure 2d) to identify the different phases present in MoS<sub>2</sub> crystal. The machine learning algorithm is further discussed in the Supporting Information. We then quantified the three phases for the entire simulation schedule along with the temperature profile. Figure 2e suggests that the initial surface consists of almost disordered phases, indicating the presulfurized MoO<sub>x</sub>S<sub>y</sub> surface at high temperatures was highly amorphous. However, after the initial quenching step (up to 2.2 ns), a majority of disordered structures converted to the 1T crystal-phase; consequently, this 1T-phase further transformed into 2H crystal-phase during the first (2.2–4.5 ns) and second (4.5–6.4 ns) annealing steps. Namely, the 1T- and disordered-phases transformed into the 2H-crystal phase by applying successive heat-up/thermalization steps, thus expanding the area of the 2H-crystal phase. These results suggest that the quenching and annealing steps are very effective ways to activate structural transformation on the MoS<sub>2</sub> layers after CVD synthesis, which was also suggested by the thermal annealing and postlaser heating experiments.<sup>30,31</sup> In addition, during the quenching–annealing steps, grain boundaries were developed along with the disordered- and 1T-phases while the remaining portion of the surface primarily consists of 2H-phase (see the blue arrows in Figure 2c). The observation and evolution of the grain boundaries are discussed in the following section.

**Grain Growth, Migration, and Defect Healing.** To further clarify the grain growth, migration, and intergrain interactions during the quenching–annealing steps, we expanded our machine learning-based analysis of the local atomic configuration to the entire slab. After the first quenching step, a large number of Mo and S atoms construct the disordered and 1T phases. We also observed the nucleation of a highly crystalline 2H-phase (see red regions randomly distributed in Figure 3a).

After the first annealing, the 2H-phase grains grow further, and grain boundaries are developed, made of the disordered- and 1T-phase atomic structures discussed in the previous section (Figure 3b). During the second annealing (Figure 3c), the 2H-phase grains merge into bigger grains induced by heat treatments. Movie S2 shows the full dynamics of structural transformation between disordered and 1T/2H phases. Such a growth and migration of grains could be further understood and confirmed by Figure 3d–f, which are characterized by grain IDs at 2.2, 4.1, and 6.4 ns, respectively. On the basis of these characterizations, we found that the crystallinity of the MoS<sub>2</sub> surface was improved by active grain growth and grain boundary migration and combination. Panels g and h of Figure 3 clarify the number of grains and maximum grain size, respectively. The number of grains decreases while the maximum size of grains increases during the quenching–annealing steps. Given the results above, proper heat treatments allow small grains to interact with each other, merging into a bigger grain, thus leading to a decrease in line defects.

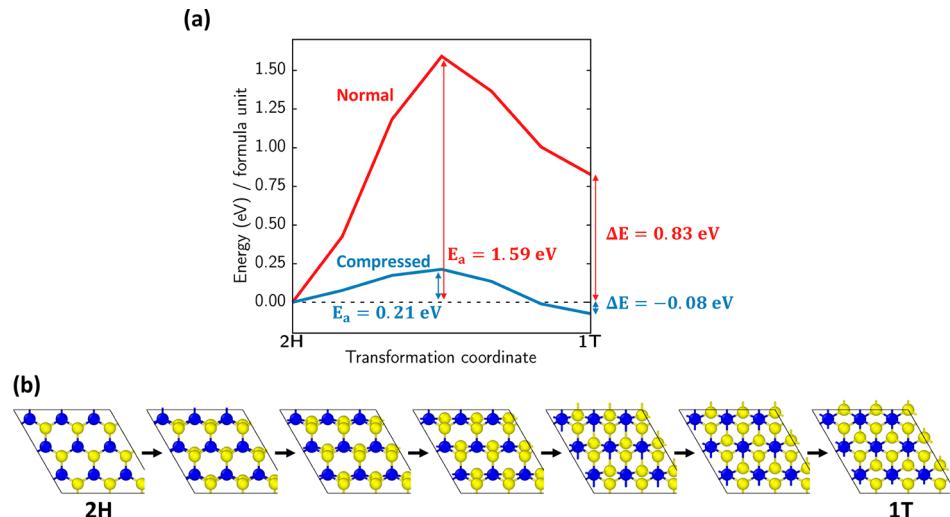
**Mechanisms of Structural Transformation.** This transient formation of the 1T-phase MoS<sub>2</sub> structure along the crystallization pathway is unexpected because of the metastability of the 1T-phase relative to the 2H-phase structure. To understand this unusual mechanism, we have performed density functional theory (DFT)-based nudged elastic band (NEB) calculations of energy barriers involved in the homogeneous phase transformation between 2H and 1T crystal structures of MoS<sub>2</sub>. NEB simulations were performed for MoS<sub>2</sub> crystals at two densities,  $\rho = 0.306 \mu\text{g cm}^{-3}$ ,



**Figure 3.** Structural transformation of MoO<sub>x</sub>S<sub>y</sub> surface during annealing cycles: (a–c) snapshots of the surface structures characterized by structure IDs (i.e., disordered, 1T, and 2H phases) after the initial quenching (2.2 ns), the first annealing (4.5 ns), and the second annealing (6.4 ns), respectively; (d–f) snapshots of the surface structures characterized by grain IDs after the initial quenching (2.2 ns), the first annealing (4.5 ns), and the second annealing (6.4 ns), respectively; (g and h) time evolution of the number of grains and the maximum grain size, respectively. Note that surface structure was crystallized by grain growth and migration, resulting in a bigger grain size during quenching–annealing steps while decreasing the number of grains. For further information on the characterization of the structure and grain IDs, see the Supporting Information.

corresponding to the normal crystal density in the ground state, and  $\rho = 0.404 \mu\text{g cm}^{-3}$ , corresponding to the higher density encountered in our synthesis pathway (Figure 4a). The homogeneous phase transformation pathway involves the translation of one plane of S atoms by half a lattice constant along the armchair direction (Figure 4b) and provides an upper bound for the energy barrier of the structural phase transformation, which mainly takes place via migration of zigzag phase boundaries.<sup>37,38</sup> Figure 4a shows that at the nominal crystal density, the 2H crystal structure is more stable than the 1T polytype by 0.83 eV/formula unit. In contrast, at the higher density of  $\rho = 0.404 \mu\text{g cm}^{-3}$ , encountered in CVD growth processes in our RMD simulations (see Figure S1 in the Supporting Information), the 2H crystal is metastable relative to the 1T phase by 0.08 eV and the homogeneous phase transformation barrier is reduced significantly to only 0.21 eV/formula unit ( $\sim 900k_{\text{B}}$  per atom). Therefore, early stage sulfidation processes at high density are characterized by the transient formation of the 1T MoS<sub>2</sub> crystal structure.

In conclusion, we investigated the origin of the grain growth, migration, and defect healing during the quenching–annealing steps using multimillion-atom RMD simulations. Our RMD trajectories were uniquely characterized by the newly developed machine learning algorithm to quantify the local



**Figure 4.** Energy barriers for the homogeneous phase transformation between the 2H and 1T crystal structures of  $\text{MoS}_2$  at two representative densities,  $\rho = 0.306 \mu\text{g cm}^{-3}$  and  $\rho = 0.404 \mu\text{g cm}^{-3}$ . (a) At nominal crystal densities, the large phase transformation barriers ( $\sim 1.59 \text{ eV}$ ) prevent the formation of the 1T-phase, whereas the formation of the 1T-phase is facile at the higher densities, encountered in the RMD simulations, because of the significantly reduced barriers ( $\sim 0.21 \text{ eV}$ ). (b) The 2H  $\rightarrow$  1T representative homogeneous phase transformation pathway involves the translation of one plane of the S atoms along the armchair direction. This translation transforms the trigonal prismatic coordination around the central Mo atoms to octahedral coordination (blue, Mo atoms; yellow, S atoms).

atomic structures on the presulfurized  $\text{MoO}_{x,y}$  surface. Our RMD results assisted by the machine learning analysis reveal that the 2H-phase grains were randomly nucleated on the surface and that grain boundaries, consisting of disordered or 1T-phases structures, are grown. After that, the 2H-phase grains interact with each other, merging into bigger grains, thereby healing the line defects. All of these behaviors were induced and activated by the quenching–annealing steps. These atomic scale mechanisms for the structure transformation were further supported by our DFT calculations. These RMD results suggest that multiple heating–cooling cycles on the post-CVD growth may play an important role in the synthesis of high-quality  $\text{MoS}_2$  layers. As such, our work provides a new method of grain and crystallinity control in layered materials, helping to guide the synthesis of higher-quality layered 2D materials for nanostructured applications.

Our computational model for RMD simulations consists of 4,305,600 atoms in total: 1,497,600 O atoms, 2,347,200 S atoms, and 460,800 Mo atoms. The system dimensions are  $211.0 \times 196.3 \times 14.5$  (nm<sup>3</sup>) in the  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ -directions, respectively, and one RMD time step is 0.75 fs. To describe Mo–O–S interactions, highly accurate ReaxFF reactive force field parameters were taken from Hong et al.<sup>22</sup> Our ReaxFF force field parameters qualitatively reproduce critical reaction steps for CVD synthesis of the  $\text{MoS}_2$  layer (i.e., O<sub>2</sub> evolution and SO/SO<sub>2</sub> formation), which were validated through experimental literature and DFT calculations. Our ReaxFF force field parameters were previously trained against a comprehensive quantum mechanics training set. In particular, our ReaxFF force field parameters mimic the overall trend in stability of  $\text{MoS}_2$  structures as well as structural behaviors of  $\text{MoS}_2$  and  $\text{MoO}_3$  crystals.<sup>35</sup> In addition, our ReaxFF force field has the ability to reasonably describe CVD growth and the formation of 1T phase and its transition to 2H phase during RMD simulations. To model the support from the substrate, we apply a one-dimensional harmonic potential from the middle of the MD system in the  $z$ -direction on Mo atoms. The spring constant is 75 kcal/Å<sup>2</sup>, which sufficiently contains Mo

atoms within a thin slab with elevated temperature. To facilitate the sulfurization reaction process, S and O atoms are also subjected to a spring force with the spring constant of 1 kcal/Å<sup>2</sup>. This guiding force is applied to move S atoms toward the Mo and O atoms away from the slab. The guiding forces are applied on S atoms every 200 RMD steps and O atoms for 100 RMD steps, i.e., 150 and 75 fs, respectively. To control the system temperature, velocities of all atoms were rescaled every 100 steps to the target temperature. This scaling scheme reproduces the key reaction steps during CVD synthesis, consistent with our previous work that used the NVT ensemble with a Nose–Hoover thermostat.<sup>22,35</sup> Our multimillion-atom RMD simulations were performed using 524,288 IBM BlueGene/Q cores on Mira and Intel Xeon Knights Landing (KNL) 262,144 cores on Theta at Argonne Leadership Computing Facility. Phase-transformation activation energy barriers, equal to the difference between the energy of the 2H-phase crystal structure and the saddle-point configuration along the 2H–1T phase transition pathway, were calculated using the climbing image nudged elastic band (CI-NEB) method implemented in the Vienna ab Initio Simulation Package (VASP) Transition State Tools code.<sup>39</sup> CI-NEB simulations were performed on  $3 \times 3$  monolayer simulation cells containing 27 atoms. Simulation cells are separated from their periodic images in the out-of-plane direction by a 15 Å vacuum. DFT energies for each image in the phase transformation pathway are calculated using DFT with the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof form of the generalized gradient approximation to the exchange–correlation functional.<sup>40</sup> Valence electron wave functions are constructed using a plane wave basis set containing components up to a kinetic energy of 400 eV, and the reciprocal space is sampled using a  $3 \times 3 \times 1$   $\Gamma$ -centered mesh with a Gaussian smearing of orbital occupancies of 0.1 eV. DFT simulations were performed with the projector augmented wave<sup>41</sup> method implemented in VASP.<sup>42,43</sup>

## ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: [10.1021/acs.jpclett.9b00425](https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jpclett.9b00425).

Details about the molecular dynamics schedule for presulfurization of the  $\text{MoO}_3$  slab (section S1), characterization and analysis of local crystal structure and grain ID (section S2), changes in mass density of the partially sulfidized  $\text{MoO}_x\text{S}_y$  surface (section S3), and description of the neural network model for defect characterization (section S4) ([PDF](#))

Reaction dynamics of sulfurization of  $\text{MoO}_3$  slab using  $\text{S}_2$  precursors (Movie S1) ([MOV](#))

Full dynamics of structural transformation between disordered and 1T/2H phases (Movie S2) ([MOV](#))

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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