

# High-Yield Production of MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> Quantum Sheets from Their Bulk Materials

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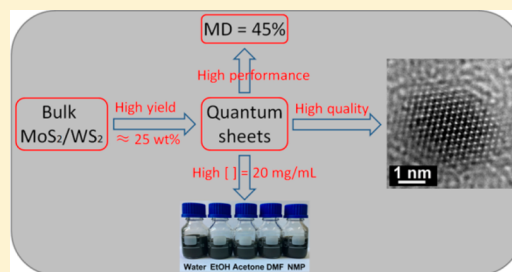
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## S Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** Mass production of two-dimensional quantum sheets (2D Qs) is highly desired to fully exploit their properties. Herein, we present a general strategy for the high-yield production of molybdenum disulfide (MoS<sub>2</sub>) and tungsten disulfide (WS<sub>2</sub>) Qs by a sequential combination of salt-assisted ball-milling and sonication-assisted solvent exfoliation of their bulk materials. Such a strategy enables reproducible production of intrinsic and defect-free MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> Qs with exceedingly high yields of 25.5 and 20.1 wt %, respectively. By precipitation-redispersion treatment, the Qs can be redispersed in a wide range of solvents with redispersion concentration up to 20 mg/mL or even higher. Remarkable nonlinear absorption saturation is demonstrated in the Qs-poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) hybrid thin film with loading content of merely 0.1 wt %. Our method provides an avenue toward mass production and full exploration of 2D Qs.

**KEYWORDS:** Quantum sheets, TMDs, intrinsic, hybrid thin films, absorption saturation



Two-dimensional (2D) materials have attracted much attention over the past ten years.<sup>1–4</sup> However, most of the research has focused on their micro/nanosheets (NSs).<sup>2,3</sup> Recently, 2D materials with further reduced dimensions, e.g., nanoribbons, quantum dots, and quantum sheets (Qs), have emerged.<sup>5–7</sup> With lateral sizes of approximately <20 nm,<sup>6</sup> Qs could be imparted with not only the intrinsic characteristic of 2D materials but also quantum confinement and prominent edge effects. It is therefore significant and imperative to produce and explore such emerging amazing 2D materials.<sup>8–10</sup> Meanwhile, transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) have shown extraordinary properties and potential applications.<sup>11–14</sup> As the most representative TMDs, molybdenum disulfide (MoS<sub>2</sub>) and tungsten disulfide (WS<sub>2</sub>) are intensively studied. Both bottom-up and top-down methods have been employed for the production of MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> Qs. The former often suffers from rigorous conditions and tedious post-treatment,<sup>15</sup> whereas the latter usually produces Qs with extremely low yield.<sup>16</sup> Besides these drawbacks, another challenge toward the current fabrication methods is to obtain intrinsic Qs with negligible defects, which is a prerequisite to their full exploration.

Thanks to the abundance of bulk materials of TMDs, it would be very promising to produce MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> Qs directly from their bulk materials. MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> bulk materials have been revealed as layered structures in which a single layer consists of S–Mo–S and S–W–S chemically bonded atomic triplanes and adjacent layers stack through weak van der Waals interactions.<sup>17</sup> Evidently, the in-plane chemical bonds and interlayer van der Waals interactions have to be broken to transform the bulk materials into Qs. It has been reported that sonication and ball-milling, as well as grinding, can be used to exfoliate and pulverize the bulk 2D materials through breaking the van der Waals interactions and the chemical bonds, respectively.<sup>18</sup> However, the transformation of bulk materials into Qs is far from satisfactory by direct employment of the above methods. Inorganic materials have been introduced into the ball-milling/grinding process, which resulted in further exfoliated and pulverized 2D materials.<sup>19–22</sup> However, the resulting 2D materials are essentially nanosheets with polydispersed sizes and functionalized edges.

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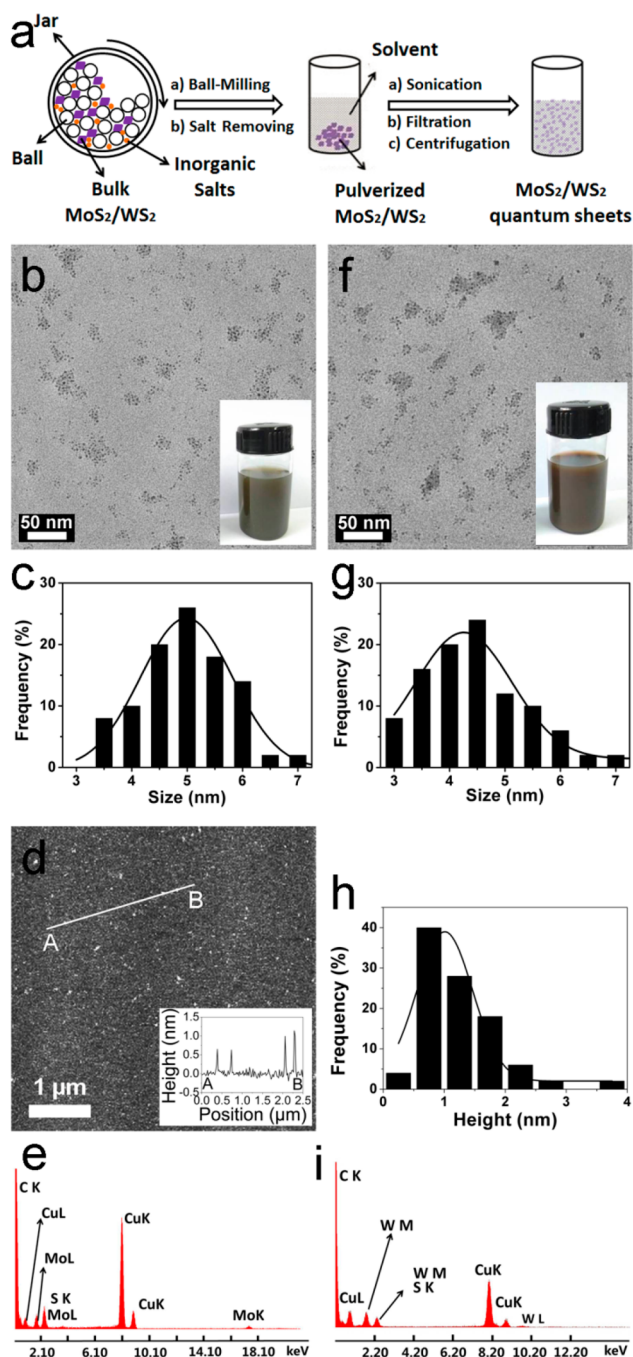
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To date, there is still lacking a method for the mass production of intrinsic QSs of TMDs. Herein, we report a general strategy for the high-yield production of MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> QSs with intrinsic and defect-free characteristics, which was achieved by sequential combination of salt-assisted ball-milling and sonication-assisted solvent exfoliation of the bulk materials. With such a strategy, intrinsic and defect-free MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> QSs were produced with extremely high yields of 25.5 and 20.1 wt %, respectively. The QSs could be redispersed in a wide range of solvents with a redispersion concentration up to 20 mg/mL or even higher. The QSs-poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) hybrid thin film with loading content of merely 0.1 wt % showed extraordinary nonlinear absorption saturation with modulation depth of approximately 45%, nearly an order of magnitude enhancement to that of NSs-PMMA.

The fabrication process of the MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> QSs was illustrated in Figure 1a. It should be stated that dry milling rather than wet milling was employed to maximize the pulverization of the bulk materials. The introduction of inorganic salts such as sodium chloride (NaCl) and many others (see Table S2) into the ball-milling process played a key role as well. Such salt-assisted ball-milling pushed the pulverization to an unprecedented level (see Figures S3–S5). The following sonication-assisted solvent exfoliation transformed the pulverized materials into MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> QSs. After filtration and centrifugation, highly stable dispersions of the QSs in *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) were obtained.

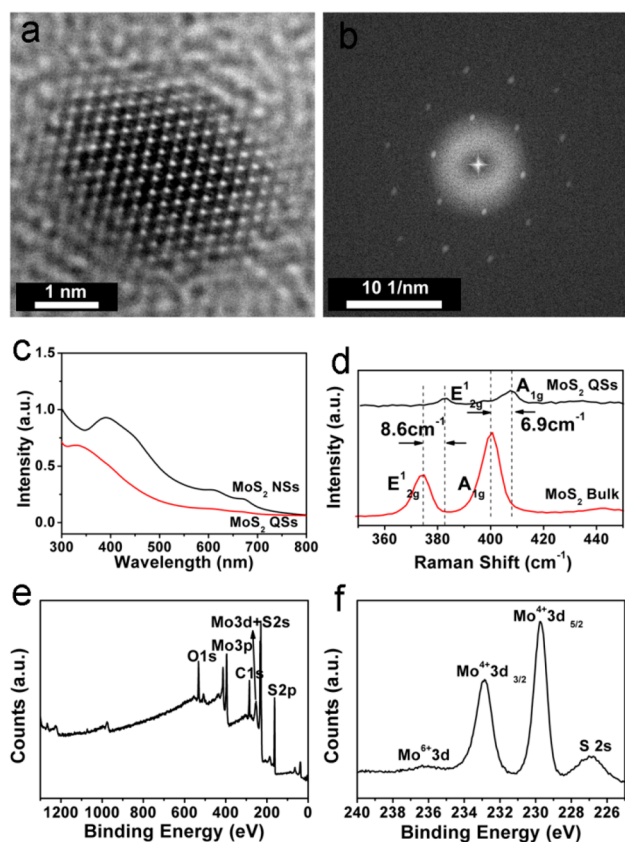
A single cycle of the above fabrication process enabled production of MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> QSs from their bulk materials with high yields of 25.5 and 20.1 wt %, respectively, which was 1–2 orders of magnitude higher than that reported previously.<sup>16</sup> Repeating the fabrication process could further improve the production yield. The MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> QSs were characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM). As shown in Figure 1b and f, both QSs were well-dispersed without aggregation and were uniform in shape and size. The corresponding dispersions of the QSs in NMP appeared as dark green and dark red, respectively (insets of Figure 1b and f). Such appearance of the dispersions could imply the successful reduction of the lateral sizes and exfoliation of the bulk materials into QSs. Panels c and g in Figure 1 presented the size distributions of the QSs from which  $4.9 \pm 0.9$  and  $4.2 \pm 1.0$  nm were derived for MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> QSs, respectively. The atomic force microscopy (AFM) characterization, as shown in Figure 1d and h, confirmed that the height of the MoS<sub>2</sub> QSs was  $1.0 \pm 0.5$  nm, which indicated that the number of layers of MoS<sub>2</sub> QSs was  $2 \pm 1$  layers because the thickness of single-layer MoS<sub>2</sub> was approximately 0.65 nm. Energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectra, as in Figure 1e and i, showed the characteristic peaks of Mo and S for MoS<sub>2</sub> QSs and W and S for WS<sub>2</sub> QSs, respectively. No peaks for O were observed, indicating the nondestructive state of both QSs. The absence of the peaks for Na and Cl confirmed that the introduced salts were completely removed after thorough and repeated washing. It should be stated that the peaks of C and Cu originated from the supporting carbon film and copper grids.

State-of-the-art characterization tools were applied for the structural elucidation of the MoS<sub>2</sub> QSs. Figure 2a presents the high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image of a single MoS<sub>2</sub> QS, which clearly reveals its hexagonal lattice structure.<sup>14</sup> The corresponding fast Fourier transform (FFT) pattern, as in Figure 2b, confirmed its single-crystalline characteristic. Figure 2c showed the UV–vis spectra of the MoS<sub>2</sub> QSs and NSs,



**Figure 1.** Fabrication and characterization of MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> QSs. (a) Schematic illustration of the fabrication process. (b,f) TEM images, (c,g) size distributions, (d,h) AFM image and height distribution of MoS<sub>2</sub> QSs, and (e,i) EDX spectra for the MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> QSs, respectively. Insets in (b) and (f) are photographs of the corresponding QS dispersions. Inset in (d) is the height profiles along the white line.

respectively. For the MoS<sub>2</sub> NSs, the peaks at 669 and 608 nm were attributed to the K point of the Brillouin zone, and the peaks at 396 and 457 nm were assigned to direct transition from the deep valence band to the conduction band. Conversely, for the MoS<sub>2</sub> QSs, the above characteristic peaks became implicit, and a blue-shifted peak at 330 nm was observed. Such phenomena demonstrated the prominent quantum confinement effect of the MoS<sub>2</sub> QSs.<sup>23</sup> Similar trends were found in the case of WS<sub>2</sub> (Figure S1). In the Raman



**Figure 2.** Structural elucidation of MoS<sub>2</sub> QDs. (a) HRTEM image and (b) the corresponding FFT pattern of a single MoS<sub>2</sub> QD. (c) UV-vis absorption spectra. (d) Raman spectra. (e) Full-scan and (f) partial-scan XPS spectra.

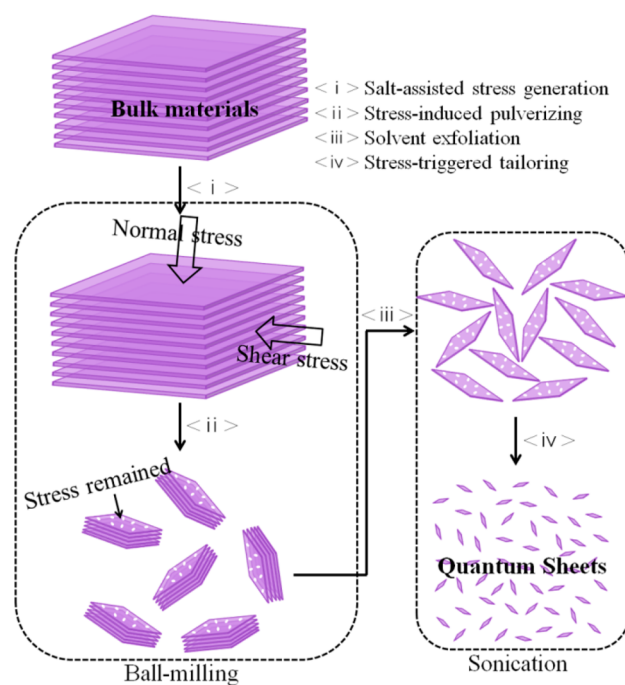
spectra, as shown in Figure 2d, both the bulk and QDs of MoS<sub>2</sub> showed peaks of A<sub>1g</sub> and E<sub>2g</sub><sup>1</sup> modes. Compared to those of the bulk, A<sub>1g</sub> and E<sub>2g</sub><sup>1</sup> peaks of the QDs were significantly weakened and blue-shifted. The A<sub>1g</sub> peak was shifted from 400.6 to 407.5 cm<sup>-1</sup>, and the E<sub>2g</sub><sup>1</sup> peak was shifted from 374.9 to 383.5 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Such a blue shift phenomenon was similar to the mode change of black phosphorus quantum dots with thickness and lateral size reduction.<sup>10</sup>

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was performed to further identify the defect-free characteristics of the MoS<sub>2</sub> QDs. As shown in Figure 2e, peaks for Mo and S were observed, whereas no peaks for Na or Cl were found, indicating complete removal of the salts from the resulting QDs. Doublet peaks at 232.8 and 229.6 eV in Figure 2f corresponded to Mo<sup>4+</sup> 3d<sub>3/2</sub> and Mo<sup>4+</sup> 3d<sub>5/2</sub>, respectively, of trigonal prismatic (2H) MoS<sub>2</sub>. No octahedral (1T) MoS<sub>2</sub> was detected in the XPS spectrum. The trace amount of Mo<sup>6+</sup> 3d at 235.6 eV might originate from the negligible oxidation of Mo edge atoms. Similarly, the XPS spectra (Figure S2) of the WS<sub>2</sub> QDs demonstrated the presence of 2H WS<sub>2</sub> and absence of 1T WS<sub>2</sub>.<sup>24</sup>

From the above, the MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> QDs produced from their bulk materials were intrinsic and defect-free. Meanwhile, high-yield production of such remarkable materials was achieved. Table S1 indicates that three prerequisites such as salt-assisted ball-milling, sufficient ball-milling time, and sonication-assisted solvent exfoliation had to be simultaneously fulfilled to achieve high production yield. For highlighting the salt-assisted ball-milling process, a series of SEM images were taken of the MoS<sub>2</sub> products after salts were removed (Figure

S3). Clearly the lateral size and thickness of MoS<sub>2</sub> were steadily decreased with increasing ball-milling time. After sufficient time, e.g., 12 h, the pulverization proceeded to an unprecedented level (Figure S3e). Such significant pulverization could not be achieved when no salts were introduced during the ball-milling process (Figure S3b).<sup>25</sup> The progressive size reduction of the MoS<sub>2</sub> products was easier to observe in high-magnification SEM images (Figure S4). Similar trends were found in the case of WS<sub>2</sub> (Figure S5). A wide range of inorganic salts were tested to promote the pulverization of MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> (Table S2). However, some salts, e.g., zinc acetate (Zn(Ac)<sub>2</sub>), were not as promotive as the others. For determining the underlying cause, NaCl and Zn(Ac)<sub>2</sub> were separately subjected to ball-milling for 12 h. SEM images (Figure S6) were collected and compared, showing the distinct appearances between the two types of salt. NaCl remained crystalline with sharp edges, whereas Zn(Ac)<sub>2</sub> was deformed and severely agglomerated. Evidently, the durable crystallinity of the salts was determinative to achieve significant size reduction during the salt-assisted ball-milling process.

On the basis of the above results and analysis, a possible mechanism for the production of the QDs was proposed. Figure 3 presents a schematic illustration of such a mechanism. The



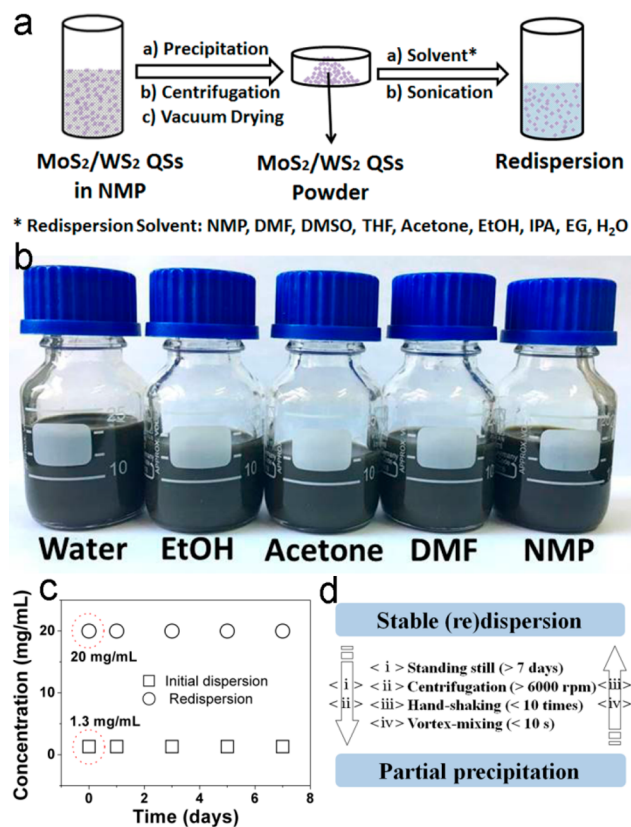
**Figure 3.** Schematic illustration of the proposed fabrication mechanism of MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> QDs. Two methods (i.e., ball-milling and sonication) and four steps (i.e., salt-assisted stress generation, stress-induced pulverizing, solvent exfoliation, and stress-triggered tailoring) are involved in the fabrication process.

whole fabrication process underwent two stages, i.e., ball-milling and sonication. Starting from the bulk materials, the salt-assisted ball-milling introduced compression and shear forces simultaneously, which induced normal and shear stress, respectively, inside the bulk materials. The pulverization subsequently took place and was greatly promoted by the numerous stress points. The ball-milling and pulverization enabled the successive refreshing of the interfaces at the stress points. Consequently, the fracture and exfoliation continued

until an unprecedented level of size reduction was reached. However, the breakage of the remaining tough stress points was beyond the capacity of the pulverization by the salt-assisted ball-milling. The salts were then washed away from the pulverized materials. The following sonication-assisted solvent exfoliation further exfoliated the pulverized materials into a mono/few layers. Triggered by the remaining stress, the mono/few layers under sonication were tailored into the Qs. The sonication was powerful enough to break the remaining stress points so that intrinsic and defect-free Qs were obtained.

As mentioned before, sufficient ball-milling time was indispensable to achieve high production yield. Figure S7 demonstrates the dynamic evolution of the MoS<sub>2</sub> and NaCl mixtures with increasing ball-milling time. Compared with Figure S6, it could be judged that in Figure S7 the crystallites with smooth surfaces were NaCl. During the salt-assisted ball-milling process, the pulverization of MoS<sub>2</sub> proceeded progressively whereas the NaCl remained crystalline with average sizes of approximately 1–3 μm. The penetration of NaCl into MoS<sub>2</sub> became dominant when the ball-milling time reached 12 h. Assuming that the cubic crystallites of NaCl was the transfer media through the opposite faces for the compression forces between the milling balls and the MoS<sub>2</sub> surfaces (with average lengths of approximately 5 μm) and considering the force generation from the ball-milling at a running speed of 500 rpm, the calculated pressure on the MoS<sub>2</sub> surfaces was 4–36 GPa. It was reported that the MoS<sub>2</sub> breaking strength was approximately 16–30 GPa.<sup>26</sup> The NaCl crystallites could transfer the forces through the sharp edges and even the corners, which enabled the MoS<sub>2</sub> surfaces to eventually receive an average pressure well above the reported breaking strength. Clearly, both experimental evidence and theoretical calculations strongly supported the proposed fabrication mechanism.

Solution processing had been widely used for the fabrication of hybrid materials. To conduct solution-processing, the diversity and solvability of the solvents were the key factors. In this work, the remarkable diversity and extraordinary solvability of the solvents available for dispersion of the MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> Qs are demonstrated in Figure 4. Starting from the original dispersion of the Qs in NMP, the redispersion process was schematically illustrated in Figure 4a. The Qs were precipitated in ethyl acetate and collected as dry powder. The following redispersion of the dry powder into a variety of solvents resulted in a wide range of redispersion systems. Figure 4b presented the photographs of the representative redispersion systems, e.g., MoS<sub>2</sub> Qs in NMP, dimethylformamide (DMF), acetone, ethanol, and water, which were highly stable with high concentrations of 20 mg/mL. Such solvent diversity and solvability would greatly facilitate the solution processing of the MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> Qs. Figure 4c showed the stability of the initial dispersion and redispersion of MoS<sub>2</sub> Qs in NMP. Both initial dispersion and redispersion presented outstanding stability. For example, there was no observable change in the concentration of the dispersion system when standing still for 1 week. Redispersion of MoS<sub>2</sub> Qs in other solvents at 20 mg/mL also showed high stability, e.g., with constant concentration for at least 24 h. Figure 4d demonstrates the reversibility of the (re)dispersion-precipitation process of the MoS<sub>2</sub> Qs in NMP. Once observable precipitation occurred (e.g., standing still for >7 days or centrifugation at >6000 rpm), the (re)dispersion could be rapidly and completely recovered to its stable state by simple hand-shaking or vortex-mixing. Such stability and

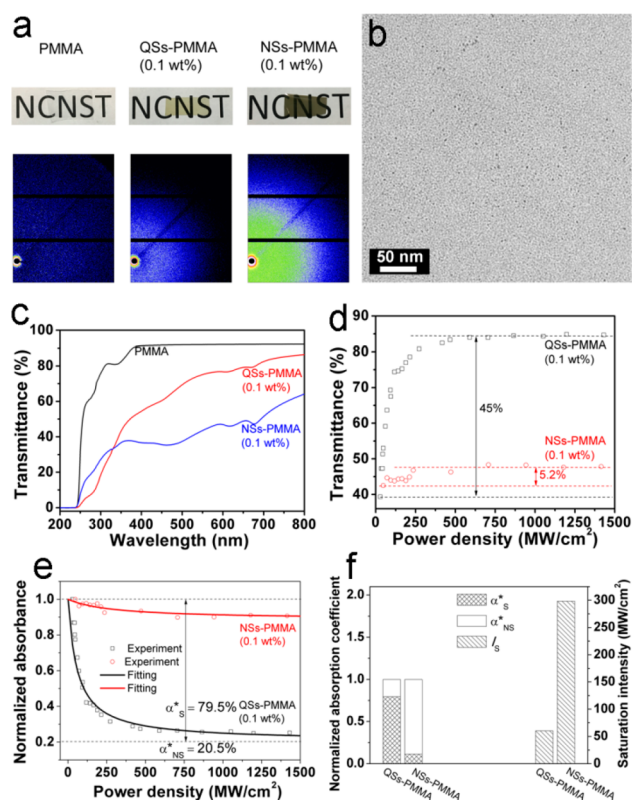


**Figure 4.** Redispersion of MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> Qs in a wide range of solvents. (a) Schematic illustration of the redispersion process. (b) Photographs of the representative (MoS<sub>2</sub> Qs) redispersion systems with high concentrations (i.e., 20 mg/mL). (c) Stability of the initial dispersion and redispersion in NMP. (d) Reversibility of the (re)dispersion-precipitation process in NMP.

reversibility could bring great convenience to the practical applications of the QS dispersion.

As a demonstration, hybrid thin films were fabricated through solution-processing of the MoS<sub>2</sub> Qs/NSs and PMMA in NMP. The loading contents of the Qs could be exactly and widely modulated in the Qs-PMMA thin films (Figure S8). Depending on the solvent selected for the solution processing, a wide spectrum of polymers would be applicable as the matrix for the hybrid thin films. Figure 5a presents photographs of PMMA, Qs-PMMA, and NSs-PMMA thin films. Both Qs-PMMA and NSs-PMMA thin films were less transparent than PMMA. Despite the same loading content of 0.1 wt %, the Qs-PMMA thin film appeared more transparent than NSs-PMMA. The corresponding small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) images indicated that the Qs/NSs were uniformly and randomly dispersed in the PMMA matrix, and there were no detectable aggregation and orientation of the Qs/NSs in the hybrid thin films. Such distribution was further confirmed by the TEM image of the cross-section of the Qs-PMMA hybrid thin film, as shown in Figure 5b. Both SAXS and TEM suggested the high quality of the solution-processed hybrid thin films.

For demonstrating the optical properties of the hybrid thin films, linear and nonlinear absorption were measured. Figure 5c showed the UV–vis spectra of the PMMA, Qs-PMMA, and NSs-PMMA thin films. Apparently, the Qs-PMMA thin film was less absorptive than NSs-PMMA in the visible range, which led to better transparency for the former than the latter.



**Figure 5.** Optical properties of the ( $\text{MoS}_2$ ) Qs-PMMA hybrid thin film. (a) (top panel) Photographs of the thin films; (bottom panel) corresponding SAXS images. (b) TEM image of the (Qs-PMMA) cross-section. (c) UV-vis absorption spectra. (d) Nonlinear saturable absorption curves. (e) Normalized absorption curves. The hollow dots are the experimental data, and the solid curves are analytical fits to the data. (f) Plots of the normalized absorption coefficient and saturation intensity. The incident laser beam was as follows: wavelength of 800 nm, pulse of 60 fs, and repetition rate of 1 kHz.

Considering that the thickness of the thin film was 10  $\mu\text{m}$ , and assuming that the density of the thin film (0.1 wt %) was similar to that of pure PMMA ( $1.18 \times 10^3 \text{ mg/mL}$ ), the linear absorption coefficient (at 800 nm) was calculated to be  $1.2 \times 10^4$  and  $3.1 \times 10^4 \text{ mL mg}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$  for the Qs-PMMA and Ns-PMMA, respectively, larger than those reported for  $\text{MoS}_2$  dispersions.<sup>27,28</sup> Figure 5d presents the nonlinear saturable absorption curves of the Qs-PMMA and Ns-PMMA hybrid thin films with the femtosecond laser at an illumination wavelength of 800 nm. The Qs-PMMA thin film with loading content of merely 0.1 wt % demonstrated exceptional nonlinear absorption saturation with (absolute) modulation depth of approximately 45%, nearly an order of magnitude enhancement to that of Ns-PMMA. Such great enhancement in modulation depth was caused by the boost of nonlinear absorption saturation in the Qs compared with the Ns, which could be related to the sharp rise of quantum confinement and edge effects in the former compared with the latter, particularly at the same content. In addition, this was the first demonstration of such large modulation depth in 2D TMDs,<sup>29–32</sup> which would prompt the full exploration of the potential applications of the 2D Qs in photonics, lasers, and nonlinear optics. Figure 5e presents the normalized absorption curves of the Qs-PMMA and Ns-PMMA, respectively. The experimental data were perfectly fitted by using the following formula:  $\alpha^*(I) = \alpha_s^*/(1 + I/I_s) + \alpha_{\text{NS}}^*$  where  $\alpha^*(I)$  is the absorption coefficient,  $\alpha_s^*$

and  $\alpha_{\text{NS}}^*$  are the saturable and nonsaturable absorption components,  $I$  is the peak intensity (or power density) of the incident pulsed laser, and  $I_s$  is the saturation intensity defined as the optical intensity required in a steady state to reduce the absorption to half of its unbleached value.<sup>31</sup> From the fitting, the (relative) modulation depth (i.e.,  $\alpha_s^*$ ) of nearly 80% could be derived for the Qs-PMMA. Figure 5f shows plots of the normalized absorption coefficient and saturation intensity. The Qs-PMMA demonstrated much larger saturable absorption coefficient ( $\alpha_s^*$ ) and significantly lower saturation intensity ( $I_s$ ) than those of the Ns-PMMA, indicating the superior nonlinear absorption saturation of the former to the latter.

In summary, high-yield production of intrinsic and defect-free  $\text{MoS}_2$  and  $\text{WS}_2$  Qs were achieved through a sequential combination of salt-assisted ball-milling and sonication-assisted solvent exfoliation of the bulk materials. The production yield reproducibly exceeded 20 wt %, indicating the great competitiveness of our fabrication method toward mass production of the 2D Qs. The resulting Qs could be transferred from NMP to a wide range of solvents, and the redispersion concentration could reach up to 20 mg/mL or even higher. Such solvent diversity and solvability dramatically facilitated the solution-processing of the Qs. The demonstration of nearly an order of magnitude enhancement in modulation depth of nonlinear absorption saturation of the Qs-PMMA compared with the Ns-PMMA would greatly expedite the full exploration of the 2D Qs.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.nanolett.7b03968.

Experimental details and additional data (PDF)

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### Author Contributions

C.H. performed the experiments and characterizations. Y.Z. supervised the research project. C.H. and Y.Z. analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript. P.G. and S.C. performed HRTEM characterization. X.L. and Y.M. performed nonlinear optical characterization. J.Z. performed SAXS characterization. Y.M., W.J., and J.C. carried out the fabrication of hybrid thin films. All of the authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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