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Understanding the unorthodox stabilization of liquid phase exfoliated molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂) in water medium†

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Molybdenum disulfide is a highly esteemed 2D material with interesting applications in nanoelectronics, composites, biotechnology and beyond. Its production through liquid-phase exfoliation in H₂O is low-cost and eco-friendly. Herein, we present a detailed experimental and theoretical investigation seeking to explain the peculiar stability of MoS₂ in H₂O medium. By combining different microscopic (SEM, AFM and OM), spectrometric (Raman, UV-vis and AFM-FTIR), scattering (DLS) and *ab initio* simulation techniques, an edge-functionalization hypothesis for the excellent solvent properties of water for producing few-layer MoS₂ has been demonstrated.

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Introduction

Most of the nanotechnology related areas, in both academia and industry, are eager to find new large scale processes for obtaining two-dimensional (2D) materials since isolating graphene was proven feasible.¹ Among those 2D materials, an emerging class, namely, transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs), which includes MoS₂, MoSe₂, WS₂, NiTe₂, *etc.*,^{2,3} is a potential game changer in applications such as batteries, membranes, supercapacitors, sensors, catalytic supports and polymer matrix reinforcing fillers.^{4–6} In their pristine (bulk) state, these TMD crystals present a lamellar structure similar to graphite,⁷ and as graphene they also present singular properties in their 2D monocrystalline structures. One of the most widely studied TMDs is molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂), especially due to its interesting electronic and optical properties.⁸ MoS₂ is a semiconductor, presenting an indirect transition (1.29 eV) and a direct gap (1.9 eV) when changed from a bulk crystal into a few-layer 2D crystal.⁹ This change results in a huge increase in photoluminescence, making MoS₂ an excellent candidate for several optoelectronic applications.^{10,11} MoS₂ monolayers also present excellent mechanical properties (stress at break: ~23 GPa and Young's modulus: ~300 GPa);¹² thus, it is very promising for polymer nanocomposite production.

A MoS₂ monolayer is constituted of two hexagonal planes of sulfur atoms (S) and an intermediate hexagonal plane of molybdenum atoms (Mo), coordinated through ionocovalent interactions in a prismatic trigonal arrangement (S–Mo–S), and associated with other layers through van der Waals interactions.^{9,13} These types of interactions ease the layer separation process through different exfoliation methods. For the liquid phase exfoliation (LPE) method specifically, it is important to understand the chemical interactions that occur between solvent and 2D crystal (surface tension). Usually, the solvent's surface tension must match the crystal's surface energy, allowing stronger interaction between them to reach an effective exfoliation process.^{14,15} However, the process is not ruled only by surface tension but also by specific interactions with the solvent at the material's edges.³ Moreover, the solvent's role should not be limited to promoting 2D materials' exfoliation but should also extend to conserving their original crystalline structure and bestowing long-term stabilization.¹⁵

Considering most of the prediction models, a good MoS₂ solvent should be at least partially hydrophobic, as it presents a surface energy of 44.5 mJ m⁻² and a water contact angle of 91.6° giving it a hydrophobic character.¹⁶ Nevertheless, the successful MoS₂ LPE and stabilization in H₂O medium, without the use of any stabilizing agent or surfactant, has been recurrently reported in the literature. Common features were observed among these reports, such as the small lateral size of MoS₂ (below 300 nm) and zeta potential around –32 mV.^{17–19} Reportedly, the sole edge increase with decreasing sheet area would cause such stability due to the improved ratio between hydrodynamic forces (electrostatic) and interlayer van der Waals forces;¹⁸ however, not enough data are provided for supporting

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such a claim. Another hypothesis for explaining the stability of MoS₂ in H₂O is edge functionalization.¹⁸ MoS₂ is known for promoting reactions such as hydrogen evolution reactions (HERs) and for presenting significantly increased catalytic activity at the edges.²⁰ This could lead to the introduction of edge-attached dangling bonds, which readily react with H₂O-forming functional groups (*e.g.*, -SH).¹⁸

Thus, taking into account both previously described hypotheses, herein we present a detailed experimental and theoretical investigation of the MoS₂ LPE, in search for elements that could help in explaining this anomalous stability of the exfoliated MoS₂ in H₂O medium.

Experimental

Materials

Molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂, 99%) with lateral size between 7 and 40 μm was obtained from Sigma Aldrich. Deionized H₂O was prepared using Milli-Q H₂O from the ALPAX Direct purification system. Acetone (AC) was acquired from Synth Company (P.A.A.C.S. standard).

MoS₂ LPE process

Dispersions of 0.1 g of MoS₂ in 100 mL of solvent (H₂O or AC) were added in glass vials. The dispersions were exposed to different sonication times (30, 60, 120 and 180 minutes) using a bath ultrasound processor (Elma P30, 37 kHz at 30 ± 2 °C). Since the three shortest sonication times did not exhibit the expected degree of exfoliation (see ESI,† Fig. S1), all further characterization was performed for the sample after 180 minutes of sonication. After exfoliation, the dispersions were centrifuged for 60 minutes at 4000 rpm; then, the precipitated material was removed and the supernatant liquid was characterized.

Characterization

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM). For structural evaluation of MoS₂ crystals prior to the exfoliation process, they were deposited on the carbon tape substrate and characterized using an Olympus FEI 650 Scanning Electron Microscope (USA) at 2 kV. After exfoliation and centrifugation, the supernatant was vacuum filtered (pore size: 0.22 μm) on a nitrocellulose (water suspension) or nylon membrane (acetone suspension) and the retained material was analyzed or 1 μL of the supernatant liquid was deposited on a highly oriented pyrolytic graphite (HOPG) substrate. These materials were analyzed using a JEOL JSM-7800F microscope.

Atomic force microscopy (AFM). Aliquots of the supernatant after centrifugation were deposited on mica substrates following the drop casting method. The samples were left for a period of 24 hours in a desiccator for moisture evaporation and subsequently analyzed using a Bruker Icon Dimension microscope in ScanAsyst mode, with a ScanAsyst Air probe. The images

were collected with 256 × 256 resolution points within an area of 50 × 50 μm.

Optical microscopy (OM). MoS₂ dispersions were placed on a Petri dish and analyzed under a Nikon optical microscope using a 20× objective lens.

Raman confocal spectroscopy. Aliquots of the supernatant after the process of exfoliation and centrifugation were deposited on an O-ring on a glass substrate and characterized by Raman spectroscopy utilizing a Witec model UHTS 300, using a green laser (532 nm).

UV-vis spectroscopy. The dispersions were placed in a quartz cuvette at room temperature and analyzed on Agilent Model 8453 single beam equipment. This technique was also used to evaluate the lateral size as well as the number of layers of the exfoliated material in H₂O with absorbance at 348 nm. The obtained absorbance value was utilized as a reference for MoS₂ particles.

Zeta potential (ZP) and dynamic light scattering (DLS). 700 μL of the supernatant was deposited on a DTS1070 folded capillary cuvette cell and analyzed in triplicate using a Malvern Instruments NANO ZS zetasizer. The nanoparticle size determination was performed by DLS with the same equipment, using 4 mL of the supernatant in polystyrene cuvettes with an optical path of 1 cm, using the standard equipment methodology for an aqueous medium at 25 °C.

Attenuated total reflection Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR). The characterization of MoS₂ in the bulk as well as the supernatant was performed using an IRTracer-100 (Shimadzu) infrared spectrometer in the range of 4000–1000 cm⁻¹ and a resolution of 8 cm⁻¹. The dispersions were placed in a 1 mm thick KRS-5 Fixed Thickness Cell (P/N 202-32002-XX).

Ab initio quantum simulation based on density functional theory (DFT),^{21,22} as implemented in the SIESTA code²³. We used double-ζ basis with polarization orbitals (DZP), an energy shift of 0.03 eV, a mesh cutoff of 300 Ry, and norm-conserved pseudopotentials with Troullier–Martins parameterization.²⁴ The exchange–correlation functional was in generalized-gradient approximation with Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) parameterization.²⁵ The geometries were optimized with the criterion of forces smaller than 0.03 eV Å⁻¹.²⁶ For MoS₂ flakes, a spacing of approximately 15 Å was used between adjacent images to avoid spurious interaction with periodic images. Partial charges were calculated using the Voronoi deformation density method.²⁷ Electrostatic maps were calculated with electronic density isosurfaces colored with Hartree potential values. Blue regions in electrostatic maps represent positive net charges, red regions represent negative net charges, and green regions represent charge neutrality. Volumetric data analysis was made using the VESTA program.²⁸

Results and discussion

The LPE media used in this work were H₂O and acetone (Ac), where the latter is an extensively used reference medium.^{17–19}

The nanomaterial dispersions within these liquid media were partially predicted by the Hansen solubility theory that follows the equation:

$$R_a = \sqrt{4(\delta_{D1} - \delta_{D2})^2 + (\delta_{P1} - \delta_{P2})^2 + (\delta_{H1} - \delta_{H2})^2} \quad (1)$$

and considers three parameters: (i) dispersive (δ_D) and (ii) polar (δ_P) components, and (iii) hydrogen interactions (δ_H),¹⁵ indicating that the smaller the R_a the better the solubility.²⁹ Thus, Ac should present better solvent character for MoS₂ ($R_a = 5.19$) than H₂O ($R_a = 35.67$), indicating a stronger interaction between particles and liquid. However, after exfoliation and centrifugation the opposite was observed. The MoS₂ LPE in H₂O medium produced a very stable supernatant, with negligible material deposition and long-term dispersion stability (months). In contrast, MoS₂ LPE in Ac presented precipitates within only three days (Fig. 1a). These observations are in agreement with other reports.^{17–19} The layered structure of the pristine MoS₂ observed in SEM images (Fig. 1b and c) was destroyed after LPE in Ac (Fig. 1d) while it maintained its structural integrity after LPE in H₂O medium (Fig. 1e).

Additionally, MoS₂ LPE in Ac presented more bulky aggregates with apparent crystal edge damage (see ESI,† Fig. S2–S4). These defects were most likely introduced by the ultrasonic exfoliation process that is governed by cavitation mechanisms, in which the viscosity of the medium plays an important role in the exfoliation process. The viscosity of water at 25 °C is 1 cP, while that of acetone is 0.3 cP.^{30,31} In addition to viscosity, solvent volatility also plays an important role in cavitation processes as it limits the size of the bubble formed and, consequently, affects the amount of energy released during cavitation, giving water an advantage in the cavitation process. These results were also confirmed by AFM, where MoS₂ crystals obtained by LPE in H₂O display much thinner and well dispersed sheets (Fig. 2a and b), in comparison to those obtained in Ac medium (Fig. 2c and d). For a reliable comparison between the systems, the topological screenings of the exfoliated materials (extracted from AFM data) were presented as histograms, considering the platelets' lateral size (Fig. 2e) and thickness distribution (Fig. 2f). According to the platelets' thickness distribution histogram, MoS₂ LPE in H₂O produces majority of crystals with thickness below 6 nm. Considering the

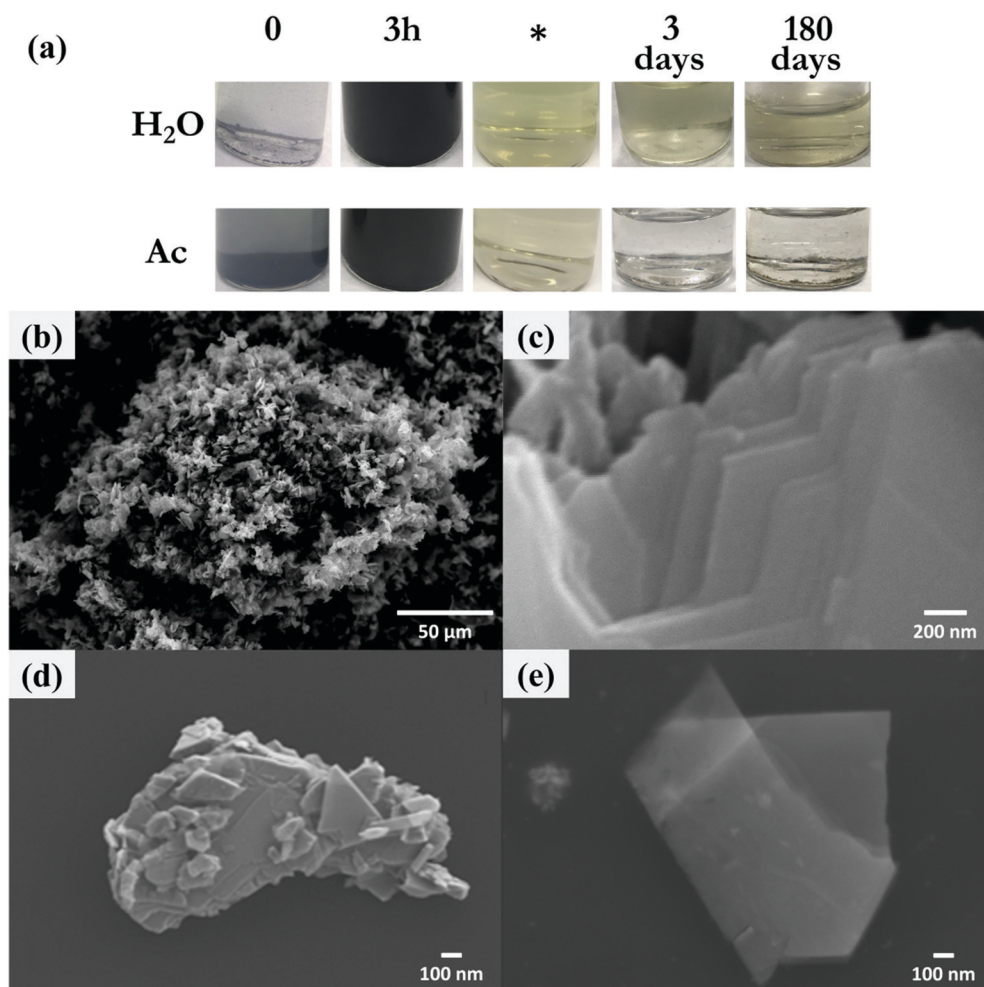


Fig. 1 (a) Images of MoS₂ dispersion in H₂O and Ac at different timeframes, where * indicates the centrifuged sample. SEM images of the pristine (bulk) MoS₂ under different magnifications (b and c) as well as MoS₂ nanosheets after LPE in Ac (d) and H₂O (e).

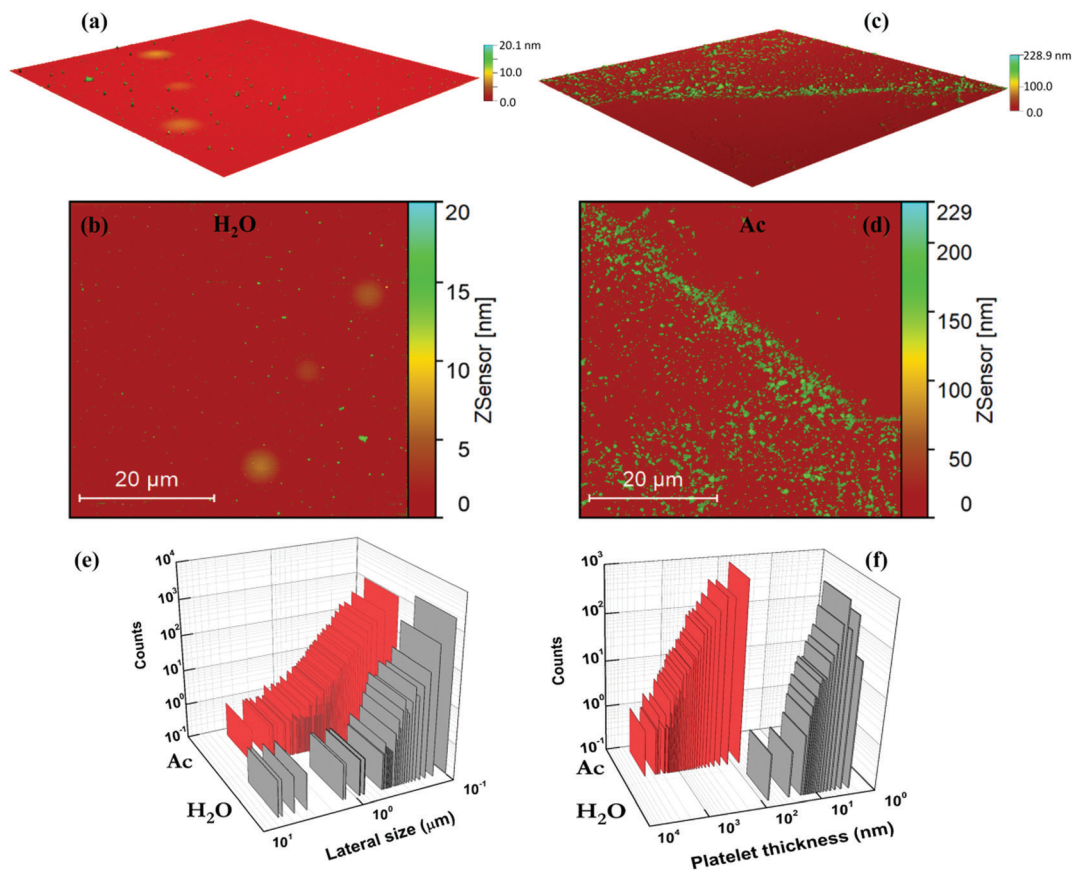


Fig. 2 3D and 2D AFM maps of MoS₂ particles' height distribution (green) in H₂O (a and b) and Ac (c and d); AFM histograms of platelets' lateral size (e) and thickness (f) after LPE in H₂O and Ac, respectively.

first layer with 1 nm and the subsequent ones with approximately 0.7 nm,^{32,33} most of the crystals presented less than 7 layers. These crystals were smaller presenting an average lateral size of 133 nm (diagonal dimension of 188 nm). For LPE in Ac, the exfoliation process was much less effective producing larger crystals with an average lateral size of 241 nm (diagonal dimension of 340 nm) and a minimum thickness of least 60 nm, which corresponds to more than 80 layers. Very recently, much more stable MoS₂ dispersions in Ac, presenting much less sheet layers, were reported.³⁴ Interestingly, the authors also report MoS₂ edge functionalization, however, only under more intense sonication conditions producing molybdenum oxide edges *via* sonochemical oxidation reaction. In our system, these conditions were not reached, thus not producing such stable MoS₂ dispersions in Ac. Despite different conditions, interestingly, they obtained similar lateral size of the stable MoS₂ sheets (<200 nm). Since the edge perimeter inversely increases with lateral size, this lateral size range seems to be the threshold for the edge-functionalization contribution to start being significant, affecting the sheet stabilization within the solvent.

The particle size of MoS₂ LPE in H₂O was also evaluated by DLS (considering their hydrodynamic radius) where most of the platelet sizes were ranging from 30 to 200 nm (Fig. 3a), also in agreement with the AFM results. Thus, regarding structural

integrity, dispersion stabilization and number of layers after the exfoliation process, we opted to focus the exfoliation study only when H₂O was used. Raman spectroscopy was used for estimating the average number of MoS₂ layers when exfoliated in H₂O. Considering polytype layered 2H-MoS₂, four active vibrational modes are present (E_{2g}², E_{1g}, E_{2g}¹ and A_{2g}¹) and these absorption bands correspond to four electronic transition types (A, B, C and D).¹³ It is known that the distance between the in-plane S atom (E_{2g}¹) and out-of-plane S atom (A_{1g}) vibrational modes corresponds to the crystal thickness and as consequence it can be used as a parameter to evaluate the exfoliation degree.³⁵ Thus, the degree of MoS₂ exfoliation was measured by the distance between the E_{2g}¹ = 383 cm⁻¹ and A_{1g} = 408 cm⁻¹ vibrational modes³⁶ (Fig. 3b), where several spectra were collected (30 in average) to obtain a statistical distribution (Fig. 3c). A defined decrease of spacing between the vibrational modes E_{2g} and A_{1g} is observed for different samples after the LPE process, varying between 24 and 26.5 cm⁻¹, representing ≤5 layers.³⁷ These results are in agreement with the AFM experimental data (Fig. 2), showing an effective MoS₂ LPE in H₂O.

To estimate the residual stable concentration after centrifugation, the MoS₂ dispersion in H₂O was characterized by UV/vis spectrometry.^{38,39}

The concentration of MoS₂ was determined by the Lambert Beer Law, where the absorbance divided by cell length at set

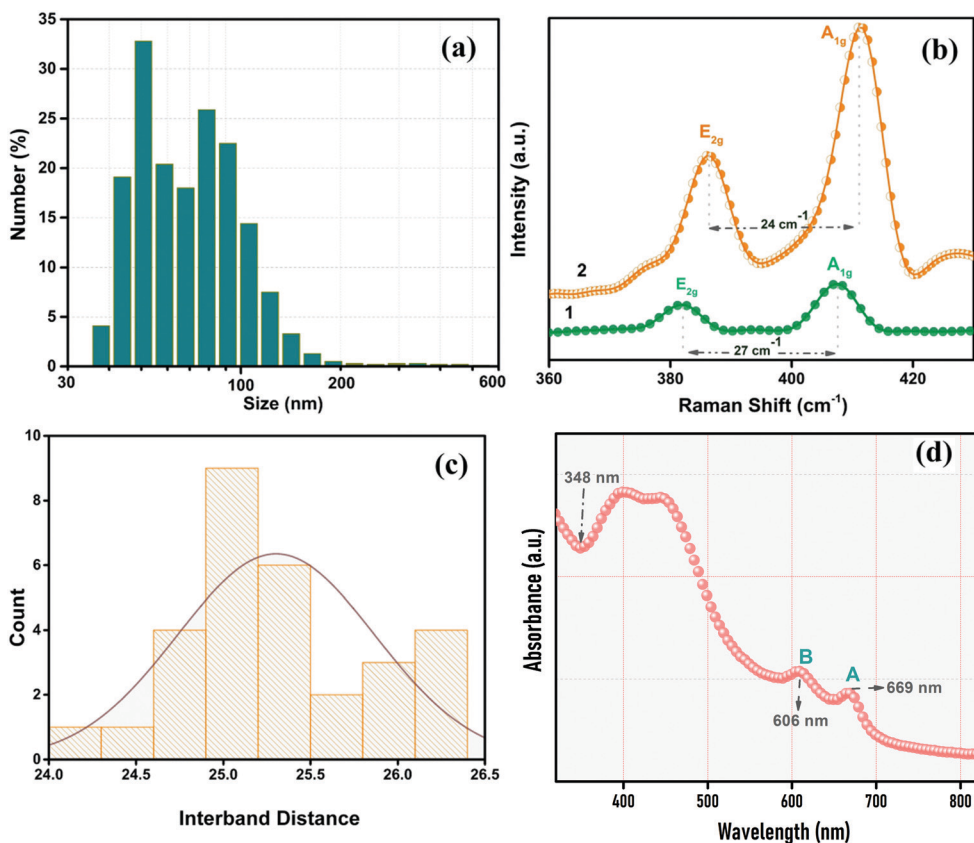


Fig. 3 (a) The particle size distribution of the H₂O dispersion after LPE, obtained by DLS; (b) Raman spectra before (curve 1) and after (curve 2) LPE in H₂O; (c) a histogram showing the Gaussian distribution curve of the distance between E_{2g} and A_{1g}; (d) UV/vis spectrum of dispersion in H₂O, after LPE and centrifugation.

wavelength was used as a semiquantitative measure of dispersibility $\left(\frac{A}{l} = \alpha c\right)$.¹⁵ When considering $\alpha_{669} = 238 \text{ L g}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$ and $\frac{A}{l} \cong 4.3$ for $\lambda = 669 \text{ nm}$, the estimated concentration was 0.018 mg mL^{-1} . Thus, for the initial MoS₂ concentration of 1 mg mL^{-1} the exfoliation efficiency in H₂O was 18%. In this way, the measured absorbance ($\lambda = 672 \text{ nm}$) of the dispersion was 0.037, and the concentration was calculated as $0.0142 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$. Moreover, absorbance peaks located at 668 nm and 609 nm (Fig. 3d) were used as references for determining the particle size (eqn (2)) and the number of MoS₂ layers (eqn (3))

$$L (\mu\text{m}) = \frac{3.5 \frac{\text{Ext}_b}{\text{Ext}_{348}} - 0.14}{11.5 - \frac{\text{Ext}_b}{\text{Ext}_{348}}} \quad (2)$$

$$N = 2.3 \times 10^{36} e^{-54.888/\lambda_A} \quad (3)$$

where Ext_b is the absorbance at peak b in the UV/vis spectrum and Ext₃₄₈ is the absorbance at 348 nm, with a margin of error $\leq 10\%$.⁴⁰ Thus, the calculated particle lateral size (L) was 140 nm, while the number of layers was estimated as ≤ 5 , perfectly correlating with both AFM and Raman characterization and

confirming the high degree of exfoliation obtained. Interestingly, although the surface energy of MoS₂ is 46.5 mJ m^{-2} ,³ and H₂O presents too high surface tension (72.75 mJ m^{-2})¹⁴ to be a good solvent for the MoS₂ LPE process, the results displayed an opposite behavior indicating that interfacial energy is not the ruling parameter for obtaining well-dispersed and stable 2D materials. The MoS₂ dispersion stability in H₂O, after centrifugation, was further investigated by zeta potential. This investigation is an important factor in characterizing the stability of colloidal dispersions as it provides a measure of effective surface charge associated with the double layer around the colloidal particle. It is known that particles with zeta potentials $> +30 \text{ mV}$ or $< -30 \text{ mV}$ have stable dispersions due to electrostatic repulsion between particles.^{18,19} Thus, the obtained results (-32.1 mV) indicate good stability, contradicting the values predicted by Hansen's law and indicating a process-based modification in the exfoliated MoS₂.

As previously discussed, the increased MoS₂ stability in water, with decreasing sheet size, is an already described phenomenon.¹⁸ However, besides the increase of the edge perimeter, no plausible explanation for this phenomenon has been given. Considering the hypothesis that edge modification would cause such an anomalous stability of the exfoliated MoS₂ in H₂O, one can consider an increase in anisotropy at the platelets. For this reason, a MoS₂/H₂O dispersion was left in an open flask for slow solvent evaporation and concentration

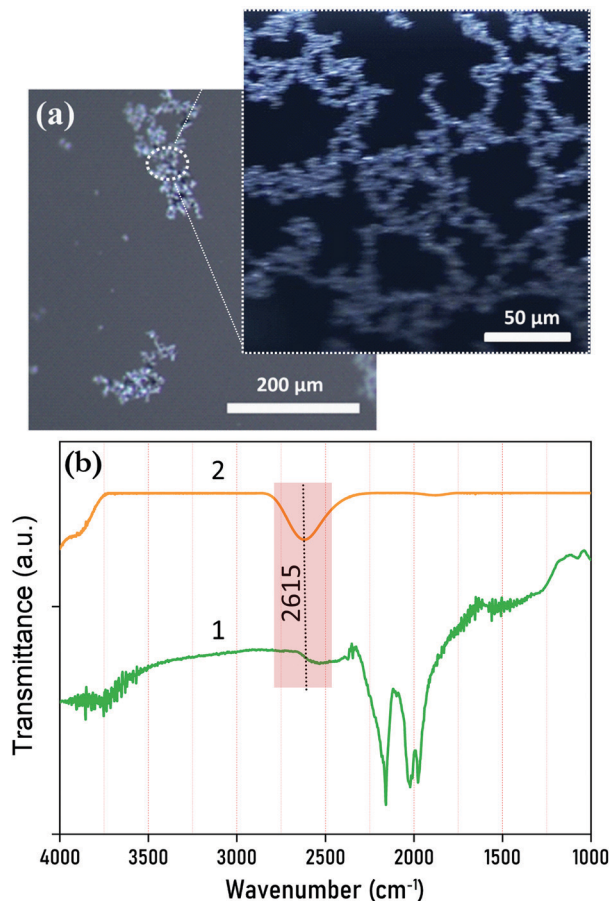


Fig. 4 (a) OM micrographs of LPE MoS₂ after self-assembly by partial solvent evaporation under different magnifications; (b) ATR-FTIR spectra of MoS₂ in the bulk (1) and after LPE in H₂O (2).

increase, decreasing the dispersion stability. Interestingly, with the increase in concentration, fiber-like agglomerations started to form. When this agglomerated material was characterized by OM, the formation of a physical network could be observed, where the MoS₂ platelets seem to assemble side-by-side (Fig. 4a). A very similar effect was observed elsewhere, but for edge modified graphene oxide after controlled deposition.⁴¹ On the other hand, this effect could not be observed for MoS₂ LPE in Ac, reassuring the suspicion of a MoS₂ edge modification caused by the exfoliation medium (H₂O) amplified by the intense cavitation energy. As previously mentioned, MoS₂ edge functionalization using Ac as solvent under more intense sonication conditions was recently reported,³⁴ producing molybdenum oxide edges *via* sonochemical oxidation reaction, which suggests that the functionalization using H₂O may be reached in milder conditions and with a more environmental friendly solvent. Previous studies have already suggested that MoS₂ edge S atoms could be functionalized during a H₂O cleavage process (-SH) or react with both H₂O and dissolved O₂ during the intense cavitation (-HSO₃).¹⁸ However, to our knowledge, the discussion concerning this edge effect on platelet stabilization is almost negligible. More information is necessary to understand if only the catalytic sites

are enough to stabilize MoS₂ in H₂O or this stability is achieved only after the edge functionalization.

Thus, to evidence S-H functionalization at the MoS₂ edges after the exfoliation, ATR-FTIR spectra were collected. ATR-FTIR spectra of MoS₂ in the bulk and after LPE in H₂O were obtained in the range 1000–4000 cm⁻¹ (Fig. 4b). After exfoliation, characteristic peaks in the range 2000–2250 cm⁻¹ for MoS₂ in the bulk disappeared and a wide band (2400–2800 cm⁻¹) centered at 2615 cm⁻¹ could be observed. According to the literature, the thiol band (-SH) should appear at 2540 cm⁻¹ or 2563 cm⁻¹.^{42,43} This result corroborates the aforementioned hypothesis of a change in the chemical structure of MoS₂, and suggests that this change was associated to -SH group formation.

Consequently, using *ab initio* quantum simulations, we evaluated the effect of MoS₂ edge functionalization (S atom functionalization during the H₂O cleavage process forming 2H-MoS₂), and compared to the pristine MoS₂ crystals (Fig. 5). Therefore, we simulated two triangular flakes with approximately 13 Å side length. The first flake has the optimized geometry without adsorption of H at the edges (bare-edge), while the second one has the geometry optimized with H adsorption, forming -SH groups at the edges (thiol-edge). Firstly, we noticed that the thiol-edge optimized geometry kept the crystallinity of MoS₂ higher than the bare-edge. The optimized geometries are shown in Fig. 5a. The H stability at the edges was evaluated through Gibbs free energy for H adsorption, given by

$$\Delta G_{\text{H}}(T, p) = \frac{1}{n_{\text{H}}} [E(\text{thiol-edge}) - E(\text{bare-edge})] - \mu_{\text{H}}(T, p) \quad (4)$$

where $n_{\text{H}} = 24$ is the number of H atoms in thiol-edge flakes, $E(\text{thiol-edge})$ is the total energy of thiol-edge flakes, $E(\text{bare-edge})$ is the total energy of bare-edge flakes, and $\mu_{\text{H}}(T, p)$ is the chemical potential for H depending on temperature T and pressure p .

This chemical potential varies according to the source of H. In our case, we calculated the chemical potential coming from both molecular hydrogen (H₂) and H₂O (H₂O/O₂). Using *ab initio* methods based on DFT we calculated the Gibbs free energy in the absence of temperature and pressure effects. In this case, we obtained $\Delta G_{\text{H}}^{\text{H}_2} = -27.3 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ and $\Delta G_{\text{H}}^{\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{O}_2} = +92.4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$. Variations of the chemical potential with temperature and pressure could be modeled according to an ideal gas:^{44,45}

$$\mu_{\text{H}}^{\text{H}_2}(T, p) = \mu_{\text{H}}^{\text{H}_2} + \frac{\Delta G_{\text{H}_2}(T, p_0)}{2} + RT \log\left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right) \quad (5)$$

for H from the H₂ source, and

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{\text{H}}^{\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{O}_2}(T, p) = & \mu_{\text{H}}^{\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{O}_2} + \frac{2\Delta G_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}(T, p_0) - \Delta G_{\text{O}_2}(T, p_0)}{4} \\ & + RT \log\left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

for H from the H₂O/O₂ source. In these equations, $p_0 = 1 \text{ bar}$ is the standard state pressure and R is the gas constant.

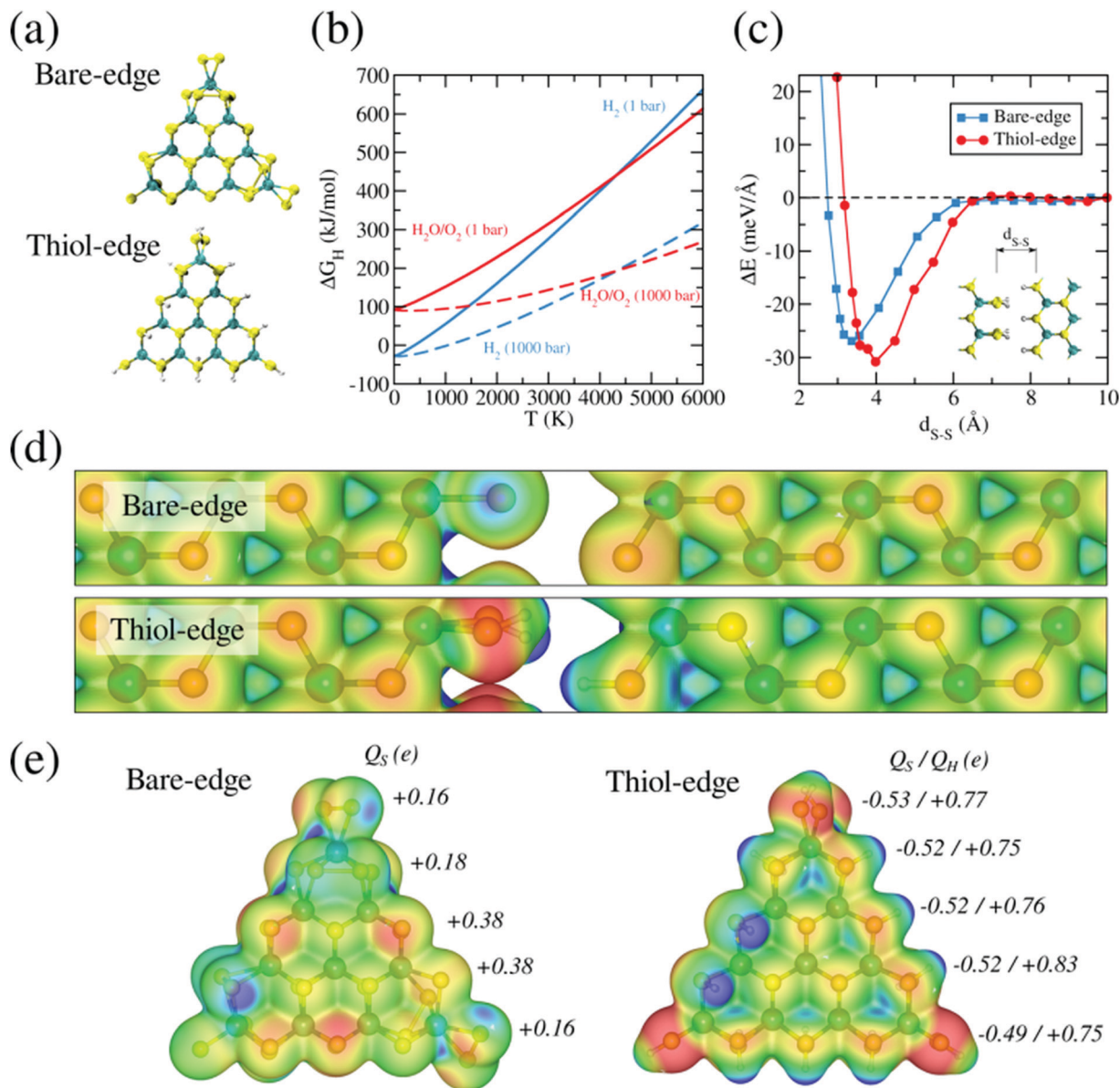


Fig. 5 *Ab initio* quantum simulation showing the ball-and-stick model for MoS₂ flakes without (bare-edge) and with H passivation (thiol-edge) (a); Gibbs free energy for H adsorption as a function of temperature, pressure and H source (b); edge-edge interaction energy as a function of the distance between two bare-edges and two thiol-edges (c); electrostatic map for bare-edge and thiol-edge close to energy minimum with distance (d); electrostatic map for MoS₂ flakes, and partial charges for S and H atoms of one side of the flake (e).

Combining the *ab initio* calculations for $\mu_{\text{H}}^{\text{H}_2}$ and $\mu_{\text{H}}^{\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{O}_2}$, and the NIST-JANAF thermochemical tables,⁴⁶ we obtained the Gibbs free energies shown in Fig. 5b. For temperature $T = 4300$ K, the energy $\Delta G_{\text{H}}^{\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{O}_2}$ was smaller than $\Delta G_{\text{H}}^{\text{H}_2}$, making it more favorable for H₂O to serve as the H source. At high pressures, the Gibbs free energies were smaller, but the transition was maintained at $T = 4300$ K. Coincidentally, those are the very conditions produced during the sonication process, which easily reach 5000 K and 500 atm at the cavitation hot-spot.⁴⁷ This suggests that, besides the exfoliation by microstreaming, microjets, and shock waves (sonophysical process),⁴⁸ MoS₂ also suffers a sonochemical edge modification in the presence of H₂O, which is self-catalyzed and

the ideal conditions are induced by the cavitation process. To understand the effects caused by this functionalization, the interaction between MoS₂ edges was obtained from total energy variations with the distance of S (d_{s-s}), shown in the inset of Fig. 5c. The potential energy between two bare-edges and that between two thiol-edges are also shown in Fig. 5c. A stronger interaction was observed between thiol-edges, in comparison to bare-edges. This intensification could be explained by the formation of electric dipoles in the thiol functional groups, shown qualitatively on electrostatic maps (Fig. 5d and e). Moreover, quantitative analysis, through the partial charges of S and H for one side of MoS₂ flakes, is shown in Fig. 5e. Interestingly, the MoS₂ edge regions with the most intense dipole formation are

strongly associated with the functionalized edge, as recently demonstrated both by simulation⁴⁹ and experimentally.²⁰ Due to the high mobility, the edge thiol group is oriented in a way that minimizes the energy of the dipole-dipole interaction, resulting in edge-edge interaction intensification.

Conclusions

In summary, we experimentally demonstrated that H₂O acts as an efficient medium for the ultrasound-based liquid-phase exfoliation of MoS₂, forming a very stable dispersion of few-layer MoS₂, contradicting the Hansen theory for dispersion stability. This contradiction occurred because the effectiveness of the exfoliation process was dependent not only on the MoS₂ surface energy but also on a modification process that happened at the edges, changing completely the MoS₂ dispersion behavior. Moreover, *ab initio* quantum simulations allowed us to evaluate the effect of exfoliation conditions on the edge modification, indicating that the exfoliation conditions under sonication (high local pressure and temperature) provide a dual sonophysical/sonochemical process, both exfoliating and functionalizing the edges of MoS₂ with H atoms provided by H₂O molecules. Consequently, this edge-functionalization with H atoms caused both the anomalous stability of exfoliated MoS₂ sheets in H₂O medium and an edge-edge assembly, led by dipole interactions observed during MoS₂ re-agglomeration forced by solvent evaporation.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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