

Signatures of Dichalcogenide-Gold Interaction in the Vibrational Spectra of MoS₂ and MoSe₂ on Au(111)

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Abstract

Various atomic structures for the interface between Au(111) and monolayers of MoS₂ and MoSe₂ are investigated by means of first-principles calculations approximating van der Waals interactions by pairwise atomic interactions. Calculated bond lengths and interface energies are reported. The focus is on calculation of vibrational spectra and their comparison to experimental data. The MoSe₂ monolayer, due to its almost perfect match with the Au(111) surface in the $(\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3})R30^\circ$ superstructure, shows shifts of less than one wavenumber of the Raman-active A_{1g} and E_{2g} vibrational modes upon physisorption on Au(111). For MoS₂, we find that two structural models, an almost unstrained superstructure with large periodicity, and a strained layer with $(\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3})R30^\circ$ supercell, may coexist, as evidenced by their almost identical formation energy. Considerable mode softening in the strained MoS₂ layer is observed, both in the E_{2g}⁽¹⁾ mode

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as a consequence of strain, but also in the A_{1g} mode due to spill-over of charge from the Au(111) surface into the conduction band minimum of strained MoS_2 . The latter observation helps to rationalize the experimentally observed satellite peak of the A_{1g} Raman signal from $\text{MoS}_2/\text{Au}(111)$ and other layered sulfides while this feature is absent in MoSe_2 .

Introduction

The interaction of two-dimensional (2D) materials with the substrate on which they are grown or onto which they have been transferred is a topic of considerable interest for the utilization of 2D materials in a wider technological context. For transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDC) such as e.g. MoS_2 and MoSe_2 , growth on graphene as a substrate has been demonstrated both by MOVPE¹ and CVD.^{2,3} Various approaches how to obtain large-area samples of TMDCs have been demonstrated.⁴ However, one of the best ways to obtain such samples is still the exfoliation of TMDCs from bulk with the help of metallic surfaces, in particular gold surfaces.^{5,6} In this paper, we report a computational study of the interaction of TMDCs, specifically MoS_2 and MoSe_2 , with a gold substrate. This substrate is of particular interest since it interacts with TMDCs sufficiently strongly^{5,7,8} (compared to chemically inert and/or insulating substrates, see e.g. Ref.s 3,9,10) while leaving the chemical structure of the TMDC intact. In addition to its role in exfoliation, the interface between TMDCs and metals surfaces is highly relevant for the formation of electronic contacts on TMDCs.^{11–13}

Vibrational spectroscopies, and in particular Raman spectroscopy, are widely used experimental methods to characterize layers of 2D materials. Several factors, such as the number of atomic layers in the 2D film, the strain state and a possible electronic interaction with the substrate, give rise to shifts in the characteristic Raman-active modes. These shifts provide valuable information; it is, however, often difficult to disentangle the various contributions, both mechanical and electronic or chemical in nature, responsible for the shifts.

It is well known that bulk MoS_2 and MoSe_2 show characteristic Raman-active $E_{2g}^{(1)}$ and

A_{1g} modes located around 383 cm^{-1} and 409 cm^{-1} for MoS_2 ,¹⁴ and around 286 cm^{-1} and 242 cm^{-1} for MoSe_2 ,¹⁵ respectively. In thin films, symmetry selection rules determine which of the composite modes in multi-layered films are Raman active; hence this technique allows experimentalists to determine the number of layers in a film.^{16,17} Moreover, shifts or splittings of the Raman peaks can provide information about the interaction between film and substrate. For MoS_2 films on gold, several experimental groups^{7,8} have reported a downshift and a splitting of the $E_{2g}^{(1)}$ peak, whereas the A_{1g} peak develops a satellite at lower frequency, slightly below 400 cm^{-1} . Already before, similar satellites had been observed for a WS_2 monolayer when covered with a thin gold layer.¹⁸ For the MoS_2 monolayer, previous results for Au deposition had been indecisive: Some researchers reported only a strain-induced splitting of the $E_{2g}^{(1)}$ mode while the A_{1g} mode remained virtually unaffected,¹⁹ whereas another group reported even a stiffening of the A_{1g} mode.¹¹ For MoSe_2 layers, however, the Raman modes appear to be unaffected²⁰ by the contact with gold.

The phonon dispersion in bulk MoS_2 is well known both from experiments²¹ and, for few-layer films, from first-principles calculations.²² The dependence of mode frequencies on strain has been studied experimentally using both uniaxially and biaxially strained samples.^{23,24} While a clear lowering of the $E_{2g}^{(1)}$ mode frequency has been observed by all groups, the A_{1g} mode showed a much weaker (or even vanishing) strain dependence. A qualitatively similar, but quantitatively larger down-shift of the $E_{2g}^{(1)}$ mode compared to previous work has been obtained by Conley *et al.*²⁵ In uniaxially strained samples, it is well documented that the doubly-degenerate $E_{2g}^{(1)}$ mode splits into two peaks. However, no such splitting under strain is expected nor observed in substrate-free strained films for the non-degenerate A_{1g} mode. Thus, the satellites discussed above for TMDC monolayers on gold appear to be related not simply to mechanical strain, but in addition to some electronic or chemical interaction of the TMDCs with the gold substrate.

In this work, we performed first-principles calculations for several model structures of $\text{MoS}_2/\text{Au}(111)$ and $\text{MoSe}_2/\text{Au}(111)$ with particular interest in structural properties and

vibrational spectra. By comparing the vibrational density of states of adsorbed and free-standing monolayers, we disentangle the contributions of both mechanical strain effects and electronic interaction effects to vibrational frequency shifts. We aim at identifying fingerprints in the vibrational spectra characteristic of adsorption and attempt to rationalize the recent experimental finding⁸ of an additional Raman peak for MoS₂ adsorbed on gold. After reporting the computational details, we discuss the calculated vibrational spectra for both MoS₂ and MoSe₂ monolayers. Finally, we conclude by comparing the results among the two materials, as well as between theory and experiment.

Computational Details

The aim of this work is the calculation of vibrational spectra for various geometries of MoS₂ and MoSe₂ monolayers on gold to make contact with experimental data from Raman spectroscopy. The geometries encountered in experiment may be non-ideal since the TMDC ML often consists of very small 'flakes', and the gold substrate is rarely a single-crystal surface. Moreover, the lattice parameters of MoS₂ and Au(111) do not match. For these reasons, we constructed three structural models (see Fig. 1): Model A uses a 1×1 unit cell and enforces a common lattice parameter of 3.08 Å on both MoS₂ and Au that resulted from a joint energy minimization of both the MoS₂ and the Au layers. This geometry could occur for a 'floating island' of Au adatoms on Au(111) that could adapt its lattice constant to come into registry with MoS₂, while at the same time the MoS₂ lattice is compressed by 4.4%. In model B, we use a $(\sqrt{13} \times \sqrt{13})R13.9^\circ$ supercell (see Ref. 26) for MoS₂ together with a (4×4) supercell for Au(111). As an advantage, this model almost completely avoids strain in both the substrate and the MoS₂ monolayer. However, it cannot account for the preferred orientation of MoS₂ flakes introduced by the frequently occurring $[\bar{1}10]$ and $[\bar{1}\bar{1}2]$ -oriented steps on Au(111), since the monolayer is rotated by 13.9° with respect to the Au surface lattice. Finally, model C uses a $(\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3})R30^\circ$ supercell of MoS₂ that is brought into contact

with a (2×2) supercell of Au(111). To retain the Au lattice constant, the MoS₂ layer had to be stretched by 4.1%. Model C allows for an alignment of the $[\bar{1}\bar{1}2]$ direction of the MoS₂ lattice with the $[\bar{1}10]$ direction on Au(111) (or vice versa) and thus could be suitable for describing the alignment of the MoS₂ flakes with steps on Au(111). In addition, we used this model to study pinning of the MoS₂ layer by a single-atom vacancy in Au(111). For MoSe₂, only model C was considered, since the slightly larger lattice parameter of MoSe₂ allows for an almost perfect lattice match with Au(111). For this material, models A and B would require a significant compression of MoSe₂ and are hence unlikely for energetic reasons.

All calculations in this paper were carried out within the density functional theory (DFT) framework using the VASP code,^{27,28} with a plane wave cut-off energy of 550 eV. The ion-electron interaction was treated by means of the projector augmented wave method.²⁹ The generalized gradient approximation of Perdew, Burke, and Ernzerhof (PBE)³⁰ was used for the exchange-correlation functional. To take the van der Waals (vdW) interactions into account, a correction to the conventional Kohn-Sham DFT energy and forces was applied in the form of the dDsC dispersion correction proposed by Becke and Johnson.³¹ We have chosen this scheme since we found it best suited to describe the interactions between TMDC layers in multilayer stacks, which could be important for future work addressing the phonon spectra of multilayers. For a comparison of the dDsC scheme to other pairwise correction methods, Ref.s 32,33 provides benchmark results for 2D materials. The vibrational frequencies and corresponding density of states (DOS) were calculated with the finite-displacement method using the Phonopy code.³⁴

The Au(111) substrate is described by a slab consisting of five Au layers. In a first step, the positions of the atoms were optimized, thereby allowing for relaxations of the atoms in the TMDC layers and of the three topmost layers of the Au(111) slab, whereas the lattice parameter and the two bottom Au layers were held fixed in model B and C. These calculations yield the adsorption height that is crucially determined by the van der Waals interactions. The calculations of the phonon spectra have been performed twice, once for the

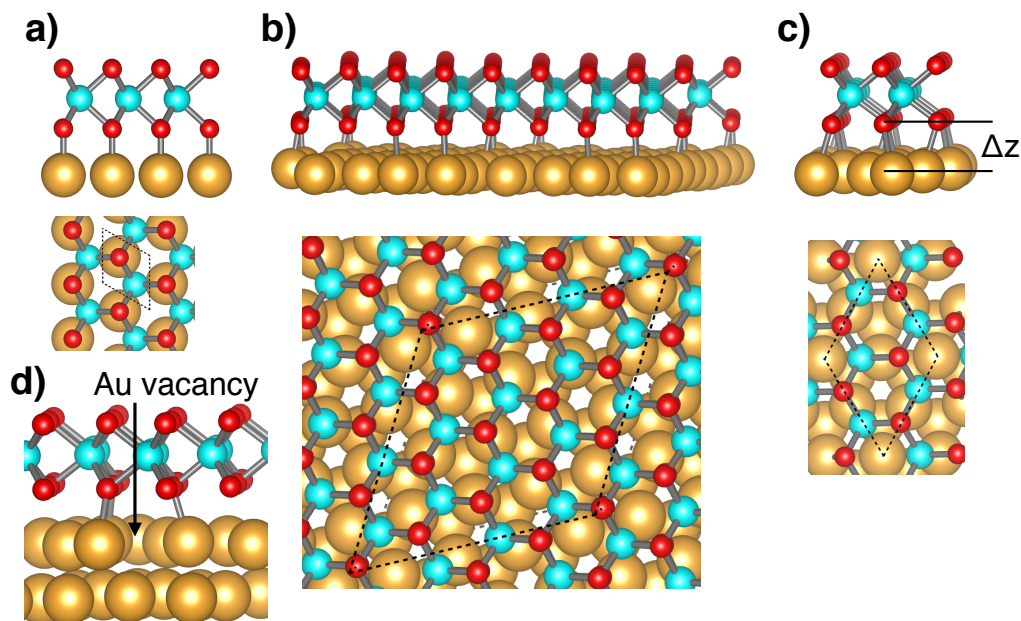


Figure 1: Ball-and-stick representation of a) model A b) model B, and c) model C. Both top view and side view are shown. d) side view of model C, but adsorbed on a Au(111) surface with one Au vacancy.

optimized geometry including the gold substrate, and once again for the free-standing TMDC layer frozen in the geometry that we had obtained by placing it on the substrate. By this procedure, we attempt to disentangle the mechanical effects resulting from the deformation from the electronic effects on the phonon spectrum resulting from charge transfer or orbital hybridization.

From the total energies obtained from the DFT calculations, the interface formation energy per formula unit can be obtained as

$$E_{\text{interface}} = (E_{\text{combined}} - E_{\text{Au}} - E_{\text{TMDC}})/N_{\text{Mo}}.$$

Here, E_{combined} and E_{Au} are the total energies of the combined system (TMDC plus Au(111) structurally optimized) and of the Au substrate kept frozen after lifting off the TMDC layer. E_{TMDC} is the energy of a free-standing TMDC monolayer in which both the lattice constant and the atomic positions have been optimized, and N_{Mo} is the number of Mo atoms in the

structure.

Results and Discussion

MoS₂ monolayer

The interatomic distances for the three structural models are presented in Table 1. In all three models, Mo–S bond lengths are only slightly changed compared to an ideal free-standing monolayer. The distances $d_{\text{Au-S}}$ between the sulfur atoms and the surface Au atoms are in the range of 2.51 to 2.79 Å, and thus much larger than the typical values of 2.0 to 2.1 Å for covalent bonds between S and Au, as encountered, for instance, when thiol groups are used to anchor organic molecules on Au surfaces.³⁵ While the shortest $d_{\text{Au-S}}$ is found for the S atoms sitting on top of the Au atoms in model A, there are Au atoms in models B and C that do not have a direct S bonding partner; this leads to larger $d_{\text{Au-S}}$ of 3.28 and 3.47 Å in models B and C. In addition to atomic distances, we also present the average distance Δ_z between the planes of surface Au atoms and S atoms of the lowest S layer in MoS₂. In models B and C, these are obtained by first averaging the heights of the S atoms and the z positions of the Au surface layer atoms, and then forming the difference. For both these models, the interface formation energy $E_{\text{interface}}(\text{MoS}_2/\text{Au}(111))$ is found to be -0.27 eV per formula unit. The negative value indicates that it is energetically favorable for the MoS₂ layer to bind to the surface. A significant contribution to this binding energy stems from the van der Waals interaction. Note that a comparable value of the binding energy has been computed recently.⁵ We conclude that, while the elastic strain energy in model C is an energetic cost, this is overcompensated by a somewhat stronger bonding to the gold surface. In total, the interface energy of the strained layer in model C is very close to the value for the almost unstrained model B.

For the (1×1) unit cell of model A, we considered two structures, one where the S atoms of the layer in contact with the substrate occupies the hcp hollow sites of Au(111), and one

Table 1: Strain $\Delta a/a$ and interatomic distances (\AA) calculated with the PBE+dDsC method for three structural models (cf. Fig. 1) of $\text{MoS}_2/\text{Au}(111)$.

	$\Delta a/a$	$d_{\text{Au-S}}^{\text{min}}$	$d_{\text{Au-S}}^{\text{max}}$	$d_{\text{Mo-S}}$	Δ_z
model A	-4.4%	2.51	—	2.384 ± 0.001	2.51
model B	0.15%	2.74	3.28	2.416 ± 0.005	2.78
model C	4.1%	2.79	3.47	2.44 ± 0.01	2.65

where S sits on top of the Au atoms. The latter one is the ground state that was considered further in the analysis of phonons, while the hcp hollow position was found to be only 0.003 eV higher in energy.

Model A has a unique value for the non-covalent Au-S bond length which amounts to 2.51 \AA , whereas model B shows some variability: While the shortest Au-S distance is 2.74 \AA , the longest is 3.28 \AA . In model C, the Au-S distance is 2.79 \AA , but one of the four Au atoms in the supercell has no S coordination partner. This Au atom, which is located in the center of a Mo-S-hexagon, is 3.47 \AA away from the nearest S atom.

In addition, we used a $2\sqrt{3} \times 2\sqrt{3}$ unit cell to model adsorption of a MoS_2 monolayer on a $\text{Au}(111)$ surface that contains one Au vacancy. After relaxing the Au substrate in the presence of the MoS_2 monolayer, we find that the Au surface atoms adjacent to the vacancy move slightly inward towards the vacancy. Due to this, their distance to other surface Au atoms is increased to 3.03 \AA . The MoS_2 layer as a whole stays further away than at the perfect $\text{Au}(111)$ surface. This shows up as an increased bond distance between some S and Au atoms of $d_{\text{Au-S}} = 2.85 \pm 0.01$ \AA , as compared to 2.79 \AA in model C. Directly at the vacancy, however, sulphur atoms are more tightly bound, with a bond length of 2.64 \AA , to the Au atoms surrounding the Au vacancy (see Fig. 1d)). To adapt to the defective $\text{Au}(111)$ surface, the MoS_2 monolayer has to bend slightly. This leads to a slight increase of the Mo-S bond length to a value of $d_{\text{Mo-S}} = 2.45 \pm 0.02$ \AA close to the Au vacancy, as compared to 2.44 \AA in model C, and 2.416 \AA in the nearly unstrained MoS_2 monolayer of model B. The overall bonding at the defective Au surface is larger by 0.59 eV per $2\sqrt{3} \times 2\sqrt{3}$ supercell compared to the perfect case in model C. Expressed per MoS_2 formula unit, the interface

energy $E_{\text{interface}}$ changes slightly from -0.27 eV to -0.32 eV due to the presence of the Au vacancy. This enhanced binding energy may explain why in some experiments the lowest layer of a multi-layered MoS₂ flake appears to be immobile.

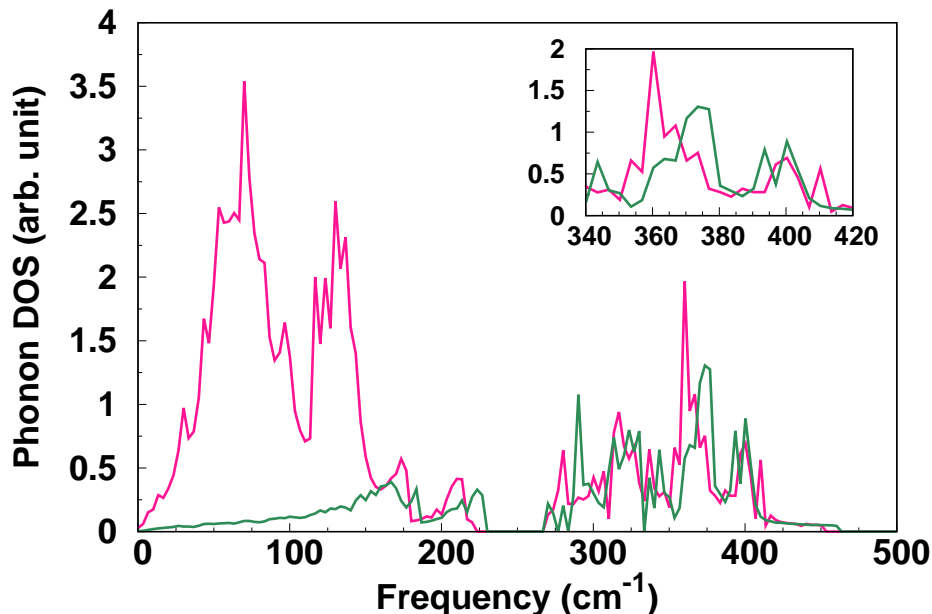


Figure 2: Phonon density of states of the $(\sqrt{13} \times \sqrt{13})\text{R}13.9^\circ$ MoS₂/Au(111) heterostructure (model B in Fig. 1b), pink line) and the corresponding MoS₂ monolayer without substrate (green line). The inset shows the region where the A₁ and E' modes are located.

The vibrational densities of state (vDOS) obtained from our calculations are displayed in Figs. 2, Fig. 4 and 3. For the $(\sqrt{13} \times \sqrt{13})\text{R}13.9^\circ$ structure, the strain in the MoS₂ layer is as small as 0.15%. The vibrational spectra of the MoS₂ layer on gold and of the structurally identical, but free-standing MoS₂ monolayer are very similar (Fig. 2). This tells us that the van der Waals interactions of MoS₂ with gold leave only small fingerprints, if any, in the vibrational structure. All modes below 150 cm^{-1} have dominant gold character and are of little experimental relevance. We note that there is a shift of the peak in the vDOS at 210 cm^{-1} ; this mode, corresponding a a zone-edge acoustic phonon of MoS₂, gets softer due to adsorption on the gold. The modes in this frequency range are not Raman active

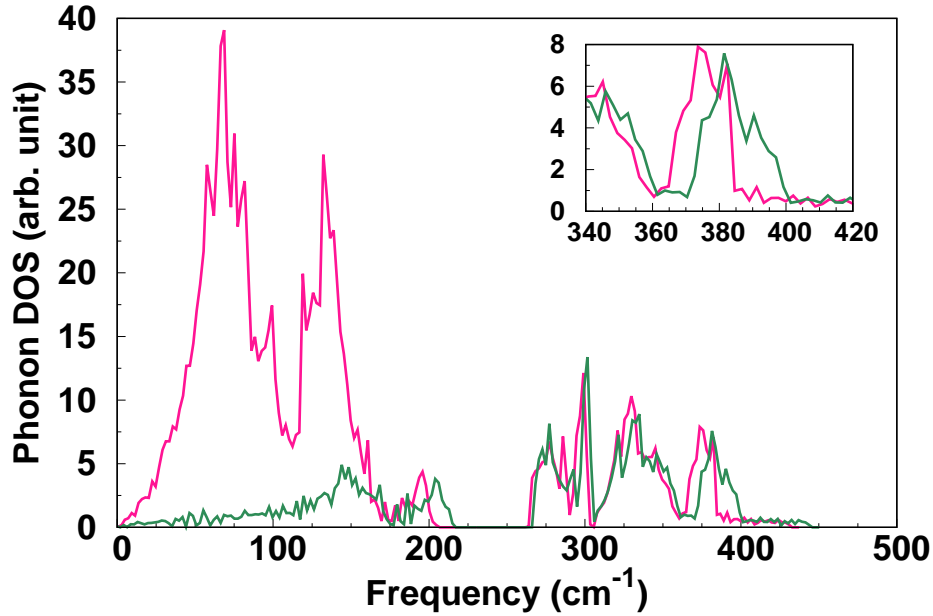


Figure 3: Phonon density of states of two types of MoS₂/Au(111) heterostructures compared: matched (1 × 1) (model A in Fig. 1a), green line) and ($\sqrt{13} \times \sqrt{13}$)R13.9° structure (model B in Fig. 1, pink line). The inset shows the region where the A₁ and E' modes are located.

in extended structures and therefore difficult to probe experimentally. However, they are observed in nanostructures³⁶ and possibly in flakes where translation invariance is broken. The modes above 250 cm⁻¹ are due to optical phonons in the MoS₂ layer. Although these are not much affected by adsorption, there are subtle changes visible in the range between 300 and 410 cm⁻¹. This is also the frequency range usually probed experimentally by Raman spectroscopy.

The effect of strain can best be studied by comparing the ($\sqrt{13} \times \sqrt{13}$)R13.9° structure to the (1 × 1) unit cell that results from a 'forced match' between MoS₂ and gold which we called model A. Both vDOS are compared in Fig. 3. They show similar gross features; however, all optical modes (at frequencies above 250 cm⁻¹) in the 'matched' (1 × 1) structure of MoS₂ are systematically shifted to higher frequencies. We attribute this finding to the compressive strain in the MoS₂ layer introduced by matching it to a common lattice constant

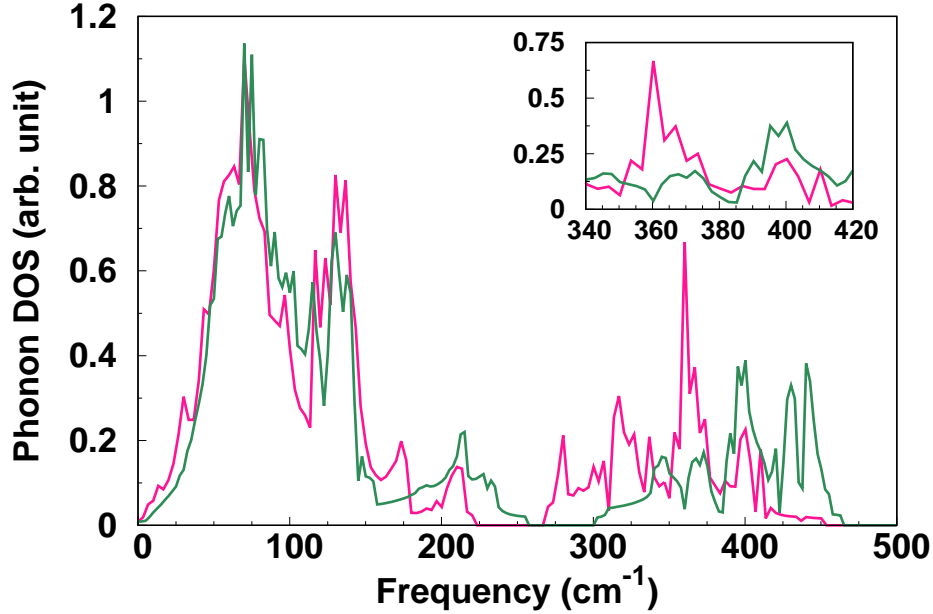


Figure 4: Phonon density of states of the $(\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3})R30^\circ$ MoS₂/Au(111) heterostructure (model C in Fig. 1c), pink line) and the corresponding MoS₂ monolayer without substrate (green line). The inset shows the region where the A₁ and E' modes are located.

with gold.

For the vDOS of the $(\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3})$ unit cell of model C shown in Fig. 4, we again observe a shifted peak due to the softened zone-boundary phonon near 200 cm⁻¹. In the frequency range of the optical phonons of MoS₂, the free-standing and the adsorbed monolayer show very similar vDOS with the exception of the highest peak around 400 cm⁻¹. The A_{1g} mode of the free-standing film is shifted to lower wavenumber, below 400 cm⁻¹, if the layer is adsorbed on Au(111). The reason for this softening will be discussed below.

For a quantitative analysis of peak shifts, we inspected the phonon band structures in addition to the vDOS. In the literature, the nomenclature of the modes often follows the conventions for the bulk structure with D_{6h} symmetry, i.e. one speaks of the E_{2g} and A_{1g} modes, while it is more correct to speak of the E' and A₁ modes in case of a monolayer with D_{3h} symmetry. Since Raman spectroscopy has its highest sensitivity to modes near

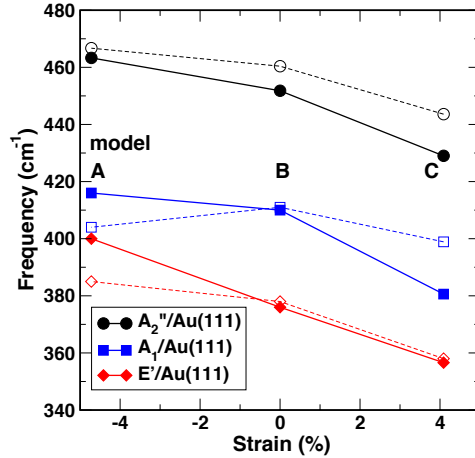


Figure 5: Dependence of vibrational wavenumbers of the MoS₂ monolayer on Au(111) on strain, extracted from the three models A, B and C presented in Fig. 1. The full symbols are for the optimized atomic structure on Au(111), the open symbols are for the same structure, but free-standing without substrate.

the Γ point of the Brillouin zone, we use vibrational frequencies of Γ -point phonons for the quantitative comparison shown in Fig. 5. The highest mode, the A₂'' mode, is not Raman active, but is easily identifiable as the topmost band in the phonon band structures. For the A₁ and the E' modes, some caution is required when analyzing the supercell calculations to distinguish the original modes from phonon branches resulting from backfolding. Since the A₁ band is dispersing upward to higher frequencies, we report the band bottom, whereas the top of the phonon band is reported for the (two-fold degenerate at Γ) band of the E' mode. The wavenumbers of these modes are collected in Table 2. The results for all three models are collected and plotted in Fig. 5 as function of the mismatch of lattice constants between the MoS₂ superstructure and the Au(111) surface layer.

As can be seen from Fig. 5, the frequency of the A₂'' and E' modes are generally lowered by the presence of tensile strain, both in the free-standing and in the Au-supported monolayers. This trend is in agreement with previous findings both in the experimental and computational studies. For the A₁ mode of the free-standing films, we see no clear trend for the strain dependence from our calculations. However, for the Au-supported monolayers, a softening of the A₁ mode with increasing strain is observed. In particular, the tensile strain in the

structural model C reduces the A_1 vibrational wavenumber to 380.6 cm^{-1} .

The physical reason for this unusual mode softening can be traced back to the electronic structure. The tensile strain in the MoS_2 layer leads to an energetic down-shift of the MoS_2 conduction band. As a result, a spill-over of electronic charge from electronic states at the gold surface into MoS_2 conduction band states becomes possible. This interpretation is supported by an analysis of the orbital projected electronic density of states displayed in Fig. 6. The Fermi energy of gold comes to lie in the lower tail of the MoS_2 conduction band states contributed by $4d$ orbitals of the Mo atoms. Population of these orbitals makes an anti-bonding contribution to the Mo-S bonds. This shows up as an increased bond length $d_{\text{Mo-S}} = 2.44\text{\AA}$ as compared to 2.416\AA in the unstrained MoS_2 layer, cf. Table 1. Even if the bond elongation is moderate, the frequency of the A_1 mode is quite sensitive to this change in electronic structure. A lowering of the A_{1g} mode frequency due to charge doping has been reported previously by Frey *et al.*³⁶ and by Chakraborty *et al.*³⁷ These authors argued that the conduction band edge in monolayer TMDCs has the character of the $4d_{z^2}$ orbital of the Mo atom, and thus belongs to the same symmetry representation as the A_{1g} mode. Therefore, population or hybridization of this orbital with electronic states of the Au surface may have a notable effect on the stiffness of this mode. The symmetry argument also explains why the degenerate E_{2g} modes that involve atomic motions of the S atoms parallel to the layer show only little sensitivity to charging effects, since their representation is orthogonal to the e_g representation to which the $4d_{z^2}$ orbital belongs.

Experimentally, the Raman spectra of MoS_2 flakes on gold substrates are found to display two Raman peaks at 397 and above 400 cm^{-1} , whereas no signal has been observed above 450 cm^{-1} .³ The absence of such a high-lying mode indicates that the van der Waals interaction with the gold substrate is not able to enforce a large compression onto the MoS_2 lattice, as would be required for model A. The experimentally observed splitting of the A_1 peak could be explained by a coexistence of model B and C that are realized locally on different spots at the surface. According to our calculations, this would give rise to a lower

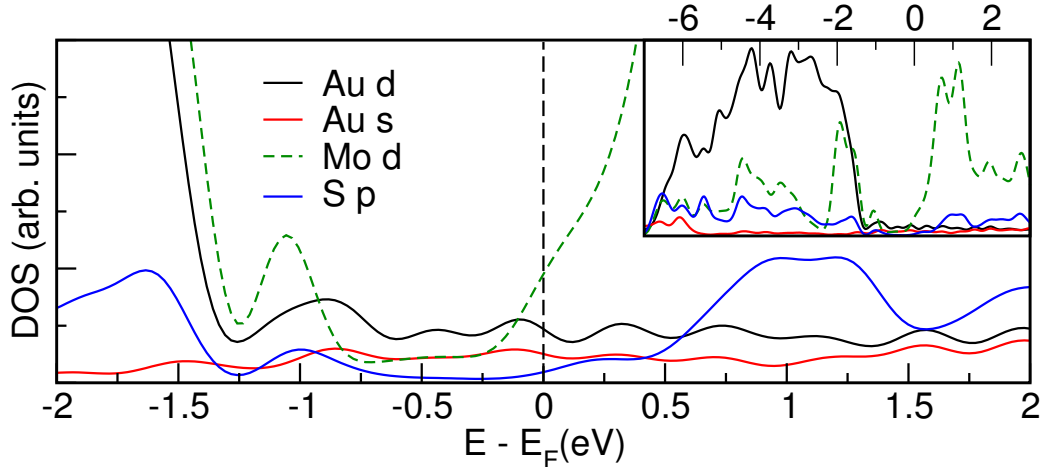


Figure 6: Electronic density of states (DOS) of the $(\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3})R30^\circ$ MoS₂/Au(111) heterostructure, model C in Fig. 1c). The Fermi level is chosen as the zero of energy. The 4d orbitals of Mo forming the conduction band of the strained MoS₂ monolayer develop a low-energy tail reaching down below the Fermi level. The inset shows the DOS over a wider energy range.

and an upper A₁-related peak at 381 and 410 cm⁻¹, respectively. While the tensile strain in the MoS₂ layer present in model C is certainly an energetic cost, this model may still be realized close to Au surface vacancies (see the structural model discussed above) or near steps of the Au(111) surface. In both cases, a specific spatial arrangement of the S atoms with respect to undercoordinated surface Au atoms is required to pick up some covalent contribution to the Au-S bond which is hardly present for the fully coordinated Au atoms of a perfect Au(111) surface. This constraint may enforce a specific local orientation and/or strain state of the MoS₂ flake which resembles model C and thus, via the spill-over of charge, leads to the low-frequency satellite of the A₁ peak.

MoSe₂ monolayer

Because of the much closer match of the lattice constants of MoSe₂ in a $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ structure with the (2×2) Au(111) supercell, we solely considered this possibility, termed model C above, for the adsorption of MoSe₂ on Au(111). After structure optimization, the bond length of Se to the closest Au atom is found to be $d_{\text{Au-Se}} = 3.03\text{\AA}$. Within the adsorbed

monolayer, Mo–Se bonds are 2.54Å in length. This may be compared to the Mo–Se bond length of 2.54Å in a fully optimized, free-standing monolayer, indicating that the interface formation is free of strain. The interface energy is computed as 0.48 eV per formula unit of MoSe₂, somewhat larger than for MoS₂.

Since the strain due to the mismatch of lattice constants between MoSe₂ and Au(111) is just 0.4 %, the vibrational frequencies of the MoSe₂ monolayer on Au(111) are rather close to those of a free-standing MoSe₂ monolayer (see Fig. 7). Due to the larger mass of the Se atoms compared to S atoms, the relative positions of the vibrational modes are interchanged in MoSe₂ and MoS₂. In particular, the Raman-active A₁ mode appears at lower wavenumber than the E' mode in MoSe₂, in contrast to MoS₂ where the A₁ mode is higher in wavenumber. Experimentally, the A₁ mode has been detected³⁸ at 240 cm⁻¹ or 241 cm⁻¹,³⁹ while 287.5 cm⁻¹ had been reported³⁹ for the E' mode. These values agree with the vibrations in bulk within 1 cm⁻¹. In our calculations (cf. Table 2), we obtain 236.2 cm⁻¹ for the A₁ mode of MoSe₂ adsorbed on Au(111), while 235.8 cm⁻¹ is obtained in the same (frozen) MoSe₂ structure lifted off from the substrate. For the E' mode, the corresponding values are 281.8 cm⁻¹ on Au(111), and 282.7 cm⁻¹ in the free-standing structure. Thus, it is clear that the electronic effect of the substrate is much smaller in the MoSe₂ monolayer than in the MoS₂ monolayer. While the absolute values in our calculations are systematically about 5 cm⁻¹ lower than the experimental values, experiment²⁰ and our theory agree in the negligibly small shift (< 1 cm⁻¹) caused by adsorption on Au(111).

Table 2: Wavenumber (cm⁻¹) of A_{1g} and E_{2g}⁽¹⁾ modes for the $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ structure (model C) of MoS₂ and MoSe₂ on Au(111). The values for the adsorbed monolayer and for a free-standing monolayer with the same structure are compared.

symmetry		MoS ₂		MoSe ₂	
<i>D</i> _{3h}	<i>D</i> _{6h}	on Au(111)	free	on Au(111)	free
A ₁	A _{1g}	380.6	399.0	236.2	235.8
E'	E _{2g} ⁽¹⁾	356.6	358.0	281.8	282.7

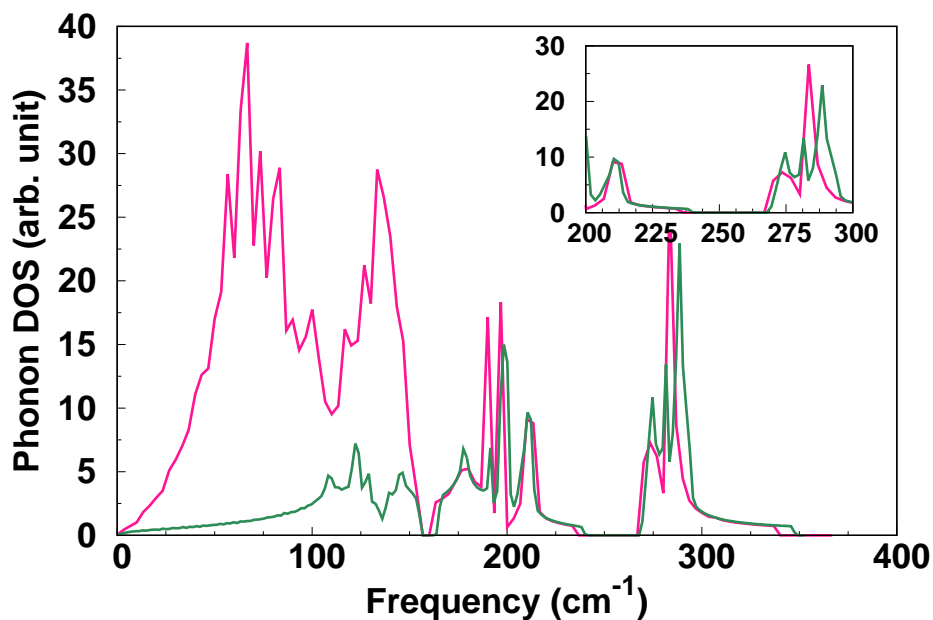


Figure 7: Phonon density of states of the $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}R30^\circ$ MoSe₂/Au(111) heterostructure (pink line) and the corresponding MoSe₂ monolayer without substrate (green line). The inset shows the region where the A₁ and E' modes are located.

Conclusion

In summary, we find from density-functional theory (DFT) calculations including a pairwise correction term for the van der Waals interaction that the distance between a gold substrate and a monolayer of TMDCs is in the range of 2.5 to 2.8 Å for MoS₂, and about 3.03 Å for MoSe₂. These findings point to the dominant role of van der Waals bonding in TMDCs on a noble metal surface, with a moderate covalent contribution if sulphur attaches to an undercoordinated Au atom, e.g. close to a Au surface vacancy. Consequently, one expects only small effects due to the TMDC - surface interaction in the vibrational Raman spectra of the TMDCs, in particular for MoSe₂ for which a good lattice match between Au(111) and MoSe₂ can be obtained in the $(\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3})R30^\circ$ superstructure. For MoS₂, the shift of the E_{2g}⁽¹⁾ mode to lower frequencies upon adsorption can be explained by mechanical strain

in the MoS₂ layer that may occur near point defects or steps of the Au(111) surface. The calculations show that tensile strain on MoS₂ leads to a lowering of its conduction band and partial population of this band due to electronic spill-over from the Au surface. Since the A_{1g} mode is particularly sensitive to such a charge transfer effect, a distinct lowering of the A_{1g} mode to frequencies below 400 cm⁻¹ occurs in strained regions. This is corroborated by DFT calculations with a ($\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$)R30° supercell of MoS₂/Au(111) with a strain of 4.1%. In view of these results, a coexistence of strained and unstrained areas of the MoS₂ layer on Au(111) is the most likely explanation of the experimental observation of the splitting of the A_{1g} mode into a main peak and a lower satellite peak shortly below 400 cm⁻¹. For MoSe₂, such a satellite is neither expected nor observed, in line with the very low strain in the MoSe₂/Au(111) superstructure. As a fingerprint of adsorption, a softening of the acoustic zone-boundary modes is predicted by our calculations for both MoS₂ and MoSe₂ on gold. However, this mode is accessible to Raman spectroscopy only if translational symmetry is broken.

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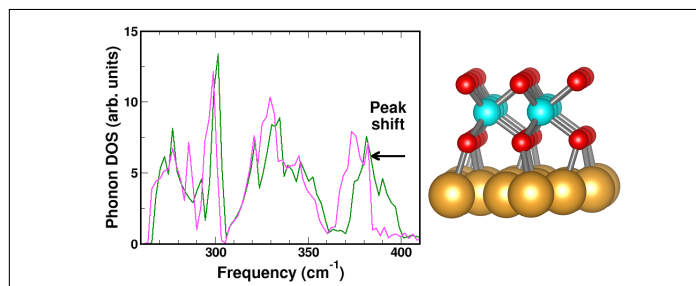
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