Cost effective liquid phase exfoliation of MoS$_2$ nanosheets and photocatalytic activity for wastewater treatment enforced by visible light

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Scalable production of high-quality MoS$_2$ nanosheets remains challenging for industrial applications and research in basic sciences. N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) is a commonly used solvent for exfoliation of MoS$_2$ nanosheets having further disadvantage of slow volatility rate. The present study demonstrates a cost-effective facile chemical route to synthesize few-layer MoS$_2$ nanosheets using acetone as a solvent and by varying bulk initial concentration of samples to scale up the production in large scale to fulfill the demand for potential applications. In our study, we aim to obtain stable growth of high quality few layer MoS$_2$ nanosheets by long sonication times. Optical absorption spectra, Raman spectra, size of nanosheets and layer thickness of as-grown MoS$_2$ nanosheets were found to be matching with those obtained from other synthesis methods. Effective photocatalytic performance of MoS$_2$ nanosheets without being consumed as a reactant was experimented by decomposing Methylene Blue dye in aqueous solution under irradiation of visible light. This study provides an idea to synthesize low-cost, sustainable and efficient photocatalytic material in large scale for the next generation to control water pollution quite efficiently by protecting the environment from the contamination coming from these dyes.

Since last decade, MX$_2$ based layered transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs), where M (= Mo, W etc.) is a transition metal of group VI and X (= S, Se etc.) is a chalcogen, received much attention in science and technology due to their unique electrical, optical and mechanical properties. In bulk form, MoS$_2$ behaves as an indirect bandgap semiconductor. But with reduction of layers into few layers, bilayers, even monolayer, its bandgap becomes a direct one. In the MoS$_2$ crystal structure, the transition metal Mo is sandwiched between two hexagonal planes of chalcogen atom (S). In layered MoS$_2$ structure, there is a strong covalent bonding between each S–Mo–S trilayer and each MoS$_2$ layer is bonded to nearby layers by weak van der Waals (vdW) interaction between adjoining S–S layers (shown in Fig. 1b). During exfoliation, weak vDW forces start getting weaker, helping in thinning the layers (shown in Fig. 1a). The side view and top view of MoS$_2$ monolayer are drawn in Fig. 1c, d, where ‘a’ and ‘b’ on the image are the primitive lattice vectors of MoS$_2$. The drastic changes in bandgap from near infrared to the visible range (bulk MoS$_2$ has an indirect band gap ~ 1.23 eV and the band gap rises up to ~ 1.9 eV after reduction of layers up to monolayer by exfoliation) opens abundant scope for this material in energy variable photovoltaic and optoelectronic applications, photocatalysis, electronic and electrochemical storage devices$^{1-4}$. Drastic enhancement (or modification) of band gap can be achieved by the following processes: (1) thinning of layers by exfoliation (2) bending or stretching of the substrate or choosing a substrate with minimum lattice mismatch (the lattice constant in a crystal changes with increase or decrease of temperature and pressure) (3) doping with certain amount of impurities or creating disorder in the crystal (4) changing the composition of...
material and (5) quantum size effect (due to reduction of particle size)\(^5\). To this date, production of high quality, lofty yield, very thin and large area MoS\(_2\) film remains challenging. Chemical vapor deposition (CVD) and physical vapor deposition (PVD) are preferred techniques to produce large area and high quality thin MoS\(_2\) films for fabrication of electronic devices\(^6\). For electrochemical storage, catalysis and sensing applications films grown by liquid phase exfoliation are mostly preferred. Liquid phase exfoliation technique is one of the productive growth processes to get the highest yield MoS\(_2\) by taking bulk MoS\(_2\) as a precursor material. Lithium ion intercalation is also a widely used technique to produce thin films of MoS\(_2\) with high yield. However, the limitations of such type of growth techniques are: Lithium-ion source is itself flammable and solvents using for synthesis are harmful and explosive. That is why the synthesis should be carried out in an inert environment and a long time is needed for exfoliation. After the end of intercalation of ions into the gap of the layered material. However, experimental studies show clear evidence that bulk MoS\(_2\) undergoes a structural transformation from the semiconducting 2H to the octahedral metallic or semi-metallic 1T structure in response to Li intercalation. Similarly sonication with the addition of surfactant gives a good yield but after filtering the surfactant the layers start to restack\(^7\text{–}^9\). So far liquid phase exfoliation (LPE) in an ultrasonic bath (with an appropriate solvent and mechanical force) has been able to draw attention for production of MoS\(_2\) nanosheets with the highest efficiency. In addition, this technique is cost-effective, eco-friendly and free from contamination. The layers are peeled from bulk material by sonicating for long time duration. The combination between the selection of solvent and concentration of solute decides the layer thickness of MoS\(_2\) nanosheets. Earlier it has been reported that organic solvents like N-methylpyrrolidone (NMP), Isopropyl alcohol (IPA), ethanol, gives a good yield and highly populated nanosheets. However, the problem comes during transferring this exfoliated MoS\(_2\) onto the substrate in case of high boiling point solvents like NMP (Boiling Point 202 °C). From the real application point of view, low boiling point organic solvents are preferred over high boiling point ones. In addition to that, surface tension component of solvent should match with that of MoS\(_2\). Still, many reaction parameters are to be calibrated to synthesize high-quality MoS\(_2\) flakes by sonication and a lot of effort is required to enhance the quality production of exfoliated MoS\(_2\) to fulfill the desired application. Complete removal of solvent stress is essential when we are coating the exfoliated MoS\(_2\) on the substrate, which is ideal for application in sensors and electrochemical storage devices\(^10\text{–}^11\).

Still, the interaction of solvent-2D materials is under investigation, though LPE is the easiest and effortless route for the synthesis of MoS\(_2\) in vast scale. For excellent LPE, the variation of the surface energy of MoS\(_2\) and solvent should be minimum. In addition, the criteria to choose a good solvent for LPE are (1) for any concentration of 2D material, it should have the ability to exfoliate energetically, and (2) after exfoliation, the dispersed particle should be stable inside the solvent for a long time. However, from thermodynamic concept, surface tension is the key parameter to select a suitable solvent for LPE, but still, there are few reports of this problem. The intermolecular attraction between solid surface and solvent drop is the cause of surface tension and the difference

![Figure 1. Synthesis and crystal structure of nanosheets.](image)
of surface tension create Gibbs free energy change during exfoliation. For efficient LPE and large-scale synthesis, the change of Gibbs free energy (ΔG) should be minimum.

In our work, we intend to study the role of the concentration of MoS₂ during LPE by keeping other growth parameters fixed. To overcome the limitation of NMP, we have to utilize the solvent having room temperature volatility for exfoliation. The solvent used is acetone due to its low boiling point, low toxicity, surface tension energy (25.20 mJ/m² at 20 °C) and easy availability. This facilitates to extract MoS₂ nanosheets from the dispersion at the end of the exfoliation process. We synthesized nanosheets of MoS₂ prepared in different bulk initial concentrations of 0.08 mg/ml, 0.12 mg/ml, 0.3 mg/ml and 0.4 mg/ml by using an ultra-sonication bath. The results show that various parameters like sonication time, duration of centrifugation and amount of solvent indirectly influence the growth affirming that such small concentrations of bulk MoS₂ powder decide the size and thickness of nanosheets. Our study demonstrates that facile environment-friendly production of few-layer TMD nanosheets without the incorporation of any hazardous chemicals or severe synthesis conditions or any advanced/ household surfactants.

Consequently, it has been studied that MoS₂ nanostructure shows the quantum size effects. The quantum size effect causes an increase in the bandgap of MoS₂ nanostructure significantly, driving to a variation in their redox potentials as well. Such relevant variation in the energy levels of the conduction and valence band edges enable MoS₂ nanosheets to act as an efficient photocatalytic agent in the presence of visible light.

Photocatalytic activity of as-synthesized few-layer MoS₂ nanosheets was experimented by decomposing Methylene blue (MB) dye in aqueous solution under the irradiation of visible light. Methylene blue (C₁₆H₁₈N₃SCl) is a handy compound and has a broad range of industrial application in the field of medical, chemical, pharmaceutical and aquaculture. This dark green solid powder results in a blue colored solution having no odor after mixing with pure water. Various diseases can spread like mild bladder irritation, abdominal pain, nausea, stomach cramps, frequent urination while bathing, washing or drinking or by eating food exposed to contaminated water. Semiconductor materials generally have absorption under sunlight commonly employed as self-cleaning materials. TiO₂ is used as the self-cleaning material due to its low cost, wide bandgap (> 3 eV), good photocatalytic activity and high availability in the earth’s crust. However, other semiconductors like ZnO, SnO₂, and ZrO₂ also show good photocatalytic activity under UV light irradiation.

The photocatalytic performance of the atomically thin 2H-MoS₂ nanosheets prepared from different concentrations were estimated by the degradation of methylene blue. It was found that the visible light response of MoS₂ nanosheets is strongly dependent on the layer numbers. It is observed that bilayer MoS₂ nanosheets prepared from 0.08 mg/ml bulk initial concentration shows maximum degradation as compared to other samples. Our work shows that as grown solid, stable and insoluble (to water and dilute acid) MoS₂ nanosheets prepared from this cost-effective synthesis approach can be used as promising future photocatalytic materials to control water pollution by degrading this hazardous compound such as MB under the irradiation of visible light instead of UV light.

Results and discussions

A dispersion of MoS₂ nanosheets prepared with different initial concentrations of bulk powder in acetone was characterized by UV–VIS–NIR spectroscopy (Fig. 2a, b). The exfoliated MoS₂ nanosheets as well as bulk MoS₂ show four excitonic peaks in the absorption spectra. These four peaks ("A and B" and "C and D") with an energy separation ~ 184 meV are due to the transition between the split-valence band and conduction band at the K-point and the M-point of Brillouin zone respectively. In the bulk sample, the energy splitting between different characteristic peaks emerges from spin–orbit interaction and interlayer coupling, but the interlayer coupling
starts to diminish with reduction of layer number. Excitonic peaks are gradually blue shifted with decrease of initial concentration as compared to bulk MoS$_2$ excitonic spectra. The peak around 352 nm reveals the increase of optical bandgap with decrease in thickness of MoS$_2$ nanosheets, which has the significance of indirect to direct band transition at the edge of the Brillouin zone. The indirect to direct band transition can be ascribed to the absence of interlayer coupling. The absorption spectra of exfoliated nanosheets progressively exhibited distinct peaks shift with decrease in initial MoS$_2$ concentration, which is the result of quantum confinement and significant size reduction phenomena in MoS$_2$ nanosheets. Finally, the weight of dispersed nanosheets were measured by weighing after drying and calculated from one batch of samples to be 1.13, 1.35, 1.58, and 2.07 mg.

The crystal structure of bulk MoS$_2$ and few-layered (FL) MoS$_2$ was orderly characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD) technique (JCPDF-00-037-1492). As shown in Fig. 3, an apparent strong diffraction peak of bulk MoS$_2$ has been found at 2θ = 14.4° matching to the (002) plane. This strong intense peak indicates that the pristine material has a large number of crystal planes oriented in that direction. MoS$_2$ nanosheets prepared with different initial concentration of bulk material show that the (002) peak of exfoliated material relatively decreases due to the absence of constructive interference from the crystal planes, which reveals that the bulk material was peeled to few-layer. For the initial concentration 0.08 mg/ml, there is a very low intensity peak on the XRD patterns, indicating that exfoliated nanosheets are very thin. As a result, the reduction of the intensity of (002) plane signifies decrease of layer number in few-layered MoS$_2$(FL-MoS$_2$). Hence, the stacked structure along the c-axis and reduction of the particle size can be allocated to (002) diffraction peak. Basically, in 2H-MoS$_2$ crystal structure, the (002) plane describes the interference of layered S–Mo–S and its periodical progression along the c-axis in 2H symmetry. Despite all diffraction peaks, there is another extra peak observed at 2θ = 22.51° in all samples, which is assigned to the diffraction peak of SiO$_2$/Si substrates.

Raman spectroscopy is commonly used to examine the molecular fingerprint of layered materials. Figure 4 displays the typical Raman spectra of bulk MoS$_2$ and exfoliated nanosheets prepared from varying initial concentration of pristine MoS$_2$. Raman blue shift corresponds to gain of energy of scattered photons from materials, and the peak has shifted to higher wavenumber from its bulk value. Two distinct peaks are observed at 365.88 cm$^{-1}$(E$_{2g}^1$) and 407.39 cm$^{-1}$(A$_{1g}$) for the bulk MoS$_2$. The frequency difference between two noticeable peaks is 41.51/cm. MoS$_2$ consists of two recognized phonon modes corresponding to E$_{2g}^1$ (in plane opposite vibrations of sulfur/molybdenum atoms) and A$_{1g}$ (out-of-plane vibrations of sulfur atoms). As bulk MoS$_2$ becomes few layer nanosheets (in case of 0.08 mg/ml concentration), the in-plane mode upshifts to ~ 383.22/cm and the out of plane upshifts to 405.29/cm, the frequency difference between two phonon modes decreased from 26 to 22.07/cm. This frequency difference of the exfoliated nanosheets is comparable to bilayer. The corresponding difference of these frequency modes (Δk) is used to calculate the number of layers. It has been found from the Raman spectrum that nanosheets prepared with an initial concentration of 0.08 mg/ml shows the minimum frequency difference as compared to 0.12, 0.3 and 0.4 mg/ml.

The morphologies of as-synthesized MoS$_2$ nanosheets have been examined by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Figure 5a–d shows the SEM images of the surface of exfoliated MoS$_2$ nanosheets. By imaging the thin
**Figure 4.** Raman spectrum of bulk MoS$_2$ and nanosheets prepared from different initial concentration of bulk MoS$_2$ powder.

**Figure 5.** SEM images of MoS$_2$ exfoliated nanosheets synthesized with different MoS$_2$ concentration (a) 0.4 mg/ml (b) 0.3 mg/ml (c) 0.12 mg/ml (d) 0.08 mg/ml.
MoS$_2$ films, we observed that the sheet size of MoS$_2$ sheets prepared from 0.4 mg/ml concentration (Fig. 5a) is irregular in a range of 300 nm to 1 µm, whereas MoS$_2$ nanosheet from 0.3, 0.12 and 0.08 mg/ml (Fig. 5b–d) shows comparative uniform sheets with a size range of 20 nm to 200 nm. The lateral dimension ordering of MoS$_2$ nanosheets decreases with decrease of bulk initial concentration. All exfoliated samples are spread up by the sheet-like structure with various orientations.

Figure 6a–d show transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images at low magnification and corresponding height distribution of as-synthesized MoS$_2$ nanosheets shown in Figure 6e–h where the measured height for various concentrations lies between 1.5 and 4.9 nm. The edge view of samples was focused at a small angle (~ 9°) to measure the height of nanosheets. The data reveals that thickness of nanosheets is comparable to 2–7 layer MoS$_2$ by assuming monolayer thickness to be 0.7 nm$^{27,28}$. It can be seen that the layer thickness increases with increase in MoS$_2$ bulk initial concentration. It has been found from X-ray diffraction results that, the projection of the (002) peak intimates the presence of well-stacked layered formations along the particular orientation. A similar trend was observed in TEM results and found that as-grown nanosheets are of a few-layer. Selective area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern in the inset of Fig. 6e–h reveal the in-plane hexagonal atomic arrangement in all samples prepared from different bulk initial concentrations.

Further, optical properties were studied by photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy, which is a highly sensitive and helpful technique to know the behavior of photo-induced electron–hole pairs, charge separation and charge recombination phenomena.$^{29}$ The evolution of electronic and optical properties due to quantum confinement is relevant when the nanosheets are of adequately small size—typically in the order of nm or less.$^{8}$ The bandgap of MoS$_2$ nanosheets increases from indirect to direct one as the size of the nanostructure decreases and these nano-sized MoS$_2$ exhibit excellent photoluminescence properties.$^{18}$ But, their optical absorption and emission can be attuned through the quantum size effect. The PL emission spectra of MoS$_2$ nanosheets (prepared from initial concentrations of bulk MoS$_2$) under different excitation wavelengths varying from 330 to 560 nm were investigated and shown in Fig. 7. A strong emission peak is observed at 413 nm under an excitation wavelength of 330 nm, while the intensity of emission spectra gradually decreased and redshifted with the increase of excitation wavelength. The emission spectra at 649 nm starts to disappear under the excitation wavelength of 560 nm for all concentrations. Most of the emission spectra were recorded in the blue color regime. Herein, the excitation-dependent PL measurements confirmed the poly-dispersive nature of MoS$_2$ suspension.$^{30}$ The resulting emission of the PL spectrum is a result of excitation recombination at the electron (hole) trap created by the uncompensated positive (negative) charge at the dangling bond from as-grown MoS$_2$ nanosheets. To know the origin of the PL spectrum under the excitation wavelength of 560 nm (inset of Fig. 7a, b), we can show the correspondence with absorbance spectra in the photon energy range 1.3–3.7 eV (shown in Fig. 2b). The PL peak at 1.91 eV in both the samples (0.08 and 0.12 mg/ml) is exactly matching with “A” peak of absorbance spectra (shown in Fig. 2b). This direct band gap transition promises use of this material as a good photocatalytic agent in range of visible wavelengths$^{31–34,35}$.

The economic growth across the world requires the treatment of wastewater and to make it reuse. Therefore, several safe purification methodologies such as photocatalysis and biodegradation have been implemented to...
make water free from pollutants. However, photocatalysis has numerous advantages like its environmental safety, absence of malignant byproduct and performs under the irradiation of visible light. Photocatalytic activity of MoS2 nanosheets was investigated by degradation of Methylene blue (MB) dye under irradiation of visible light. Apart from slow recombination of electron–hole pairs, the strong light absorption is also an outstanding requirement for the highly productive photocatalyst. To investigate the mechanism of improved visible light adsorption, we have to perform UV–Vis spectroscopy measurement. Figure 8a–d show the time-dependent decomposition of MB dye under visible light irradiation. In dark, MB reduction happens due to adsorption of MoS2 inside the solution. Absorbance peak of 665 nm was considered to track the percentage of degradation of the dye in the solution. But, in the presence of visible light irradiation, nanosheets prepared from 0.08 mg/ml show degradation of dye (45.6%) is faster as compared to the dark after 1 h. Both samples prepared from 0.12 and 0.3 mg/ml show 32.3 and 31.1% degradation of dye respectively and the percentage of degradation decreases gradually (upto 27%) in case of nanosheets synthesized from 0.4 mg/ml. The percentage of degradation of dye was found maximum in case of nanosheets prepared from 0.08 mg/ml and gradually decreased with increase of layer numbers, which was shown in Fig. 8. In the case of the sample prepared from 0.08 mg/ml, around 85% of degradation was observed after continuous irradiation of visible light for 12 h. Significant degradation of about 75% happens after 6 h light irradiation (shown in Fig. 9). In addition to this, it was observed that nearly 26% of degradation occurs due to physical adsorption on the surface MoS2 after 12 h of dark treatment. The formula applied to estimate the percentage (%) of degradation is

\[
\text{Percentage of degradation of dye} = \frac{A_0 - A_1}{A_0} \times 100\% 
\]  

where \( A_0 \) is the absorbance before irradiation and \( A_1 \) is the absorbance after irradiation time ‘t’.
The lower portion of the valence band is decided by the d-orbital of Mo and p-orbital of S accompanied by $d_{z^2}$, $d_{xy}$ and $d_{x^2-y^2}$ non-bonding orbitals at Mo. The formal charge of −2 for the sulfur provides a formal charge of +4 for Mo in MoS$_2$. The $d_{z^2}$ band is completely occupied and clearly revealing the semiconducting nature of MoS$_2$. Excitation of an electron by visible light irradiation is not accessible from half-filled 4d orbitals of Mo in order to enhance the photocatalytic activity, because of, Mo 4d and S 3p states are most dominant orbitals of the VB maxima and CB minima in MoS$_2$. Overall, it has been found that as-synthesized MoS$_2$ nanosheets (having thickness 1.5–5.25 nm) show good photocatalytic behavior under irradiation of visible light rather than UV light. As the thickness decreases into the order of nanoscale, the energy gap increases gradually. The highest value of energy gap 1.91 eV is due to quantum confinement and size effect. Defects produced during synthesis give rise to form multiple energy gap. The MoS$_2$ nanosheets having multiple energy gaps produce more electron–hole pairs with the incident of visible light. Formation of electron–hole pairs in MoS$_2$ nanosheets in the presence of visible light is an advanced oxidation process, in which excitation of electron happens from VB by absorbing a sufficient amount of light. Water molecules are adsorbed (lying on the top) at the MoS$_2$ surface in dark due to high available surface area. In MoS$_2$ nanosheets, photo-generated electron–hole pairs travel a shorter distance to take part in oxidation–reduction reaction before recombination to facilitate the photocatalytic activity. A series of chemical reactions between adsorbed H$_2$O, h$,^+$, e$^-$ and hydroxyl radicals (OH) occur after irradiation of visible light. The quantum confinement and edge effect in thin MoS$_2$ nanosheets make notable changes in the active sites of valence and conduction band so that the oxidation potential is so high to generate more hydroxyl ions as correspond to O$^{2-}$ ions. Although the oxidation potential of bulk MoS$_2$ is not so sufficient to generate more hydroxyl ions. The hydroxyl radicals are a strong oxidizing agent, which attacks and destroys all pollutants.

Figure 8. Photocatalytic response of exfoliated MoS$_2$ nanosheets prepared from various bulk initial concentration.

![Photocatalytic response of exfoliated MoS$_2$ nanosheets](https://example.com/photocatalytic-response.png)
present in water via various chemical reactions leading to form carbon dioxide and water as by-products, which is shown in Fig. 10. The degradation of the methylene blue is due to the photocatalytic activity via efficient charge separation in MoS$_2$ nanosheets having high mobility of charge carriers$^{35-42,44}$. A qualitative comparison of our work with other reported work has been mentioned in Table 1$^{45-49}$.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, an easy, efficient, eco-friendly and contamination-free growth technique has been employed for scalable synthesis of 2–7 layers of 2H-MoS$_2$ nanosheets without the addition of any surfactants and the acetone used as a solvent for synthesis to overcome the drawback (i.e. low volatility) of extensively used organic solvents like NMP. So far, the listed suitable solvents are those, which have a less mismatch of surface energy at the solvent-solid interface for efficient synthesis of 2D materials. Incorporation of long sonication times and low concentrations of bulk powder allow for peeling off the layers and the dispersions to maintain good stability after 1 month.

![Figure 9](image9.png)

**Figure 9.** Plot of percentage of degradation (%) vs duration of light irradiation.

![Figure 10](image10.png)

**Figure 10.** Schematic of photo catalysis mechanism in MoS$_2$ under the irradiation of visible light.
| S. no | Catalyst                  | Mass loading (mg) | Light source                | Initial concentration | Reaction time (min) | Percentage of degradation (%) | References |
|-------|--------------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|------------------------------|------------|
| 1     | Porous MoS₂              | 20                | 100 W Xeon lamp            | 10 mg/L               | 150                 | 89.2                         |            |
| 2     | MoS₂ nanocrystals        | 25                | 150 W Xeon lamp            | 100 µM                | 180                 | 100                          |            |
| 3     | MoS₂ ultrathin nanosheets| 10                | 400 W Asahi spectra (Xeon lamp) | 100 mg/L          | 36                  | 95.3                         |            |
| 4     | Flower like spheres MoS₂ | 40                | 150 W Xeon lamp            | 10 mg/L               | 90                  | 95.6                         |            |
| 5     | MoS₂ nano-flakes         | 20                | Visible light              | 100 µM                | 20                  | 99.3                         |            |
| 6     | MoS₂ nanosheets          | 1                 | 22 W B22 LED bulb         | 5 mg/L                | 720                 | 45.6                         | This work |

Table 1. Comparison between the photocatalytic performances of MoS₂ nanosheets and other nanostructure in the degradation of methylene blue dye under different light sources.⁴⁵–⁴⁹

The photocatalytic activity of as-grown MoS₂ nanosheets for the degradation of MB dye under the irradiation of visible light has been checked, which permits to use this material for the cleaning of wastewater using sunlight. The long blue shifts reveal the appearance of a strong quantum confinement effect in our as-synthesized samples as compared to bulk. Due to this confinement, the band gaps of MoS₂ nanosheets rise and their redox potentials vary respectively. The ultrathin MoS₂ nanosheets help as an excellent catalyst to enhance the photocatalytic activity by suppressing the recombination of photo excited electrons and holes.

**Methods**

**Synthesis of nanosheets.** The MoS₂ (Molybdenum disulphide) powder was purchased from Sigma Aldrich (product code: 69860) having particle size 1–5 µm (maximum 40 µm); acetone was used as the solvent. All the chemicals used in the study were analytical grade and employed without further purification. Initiating from bulk MoS₂ powder, nanosheets were synthesized by the joint phenomena of sonication and centrifugation. A 30 mg of bulk MoS₂ powder was ground by hand using a mortar and pestle for 2 h. Then the powder was left to dry for 12 h in a vacuum oven at 200 °C to remove water content and impurity. Various concentration (0.08–0.4 mg/ml) of samples was prepared by mixing dried MoS₂ powder with 30 ml of acetone in glass vials and left to dry for 12 h. Then 3 ml of dye was taken out in the interval of 1 h from each sample and analyzed by UV–Vis absorption spectroscopy. To achieve a high concentration of MoS₂ nanosheets, low relative centrifugation force (1328rcf) was fixed to separate exfoliated particles from an un-exfoliated part. The concentration of supernatants was calculated by drying the specific amount of solution in vacuum at 70 °C, the mass difference giving the idea about resultant concentration. Diffraction peaks were analyzed using a RigakuMiniflex diffractometer with typical X-ray tube (Cu Kα radiation, 40 kV, 30 mA) and Hypix-400 MF 2D hybrid pixel array detector (HPAD). Structural analysis was conducted using a transmission electron microscope (TEM) (Model JEOL JEM-2100F) operated at accelerating voltage 200 kV. TEM analysis was made by dropcasting the diluted MoS₂ solution over the carbon-coated copper grid accompanied by drying. The microstructure of exfoliated nanosheets was studied by scanning electron microscope (VEGA3, TESCAN). The dispersed nanosheets were dropcasted onto a clean piece of sticky carbon tape, allowed to dry and put it onto SEM stub. The SEM images were collected by applying accelerating voltage 5 kV. The Raman spectra of the MoS₂ nanosheets was collected using a Renishaw Raman microscope using 532 nm (0.3 mW) laser, 10-s scans acquired with the laser using the 20 × objective of an Olympus microscope. PL spectra were obtained with Fluoromax 4C Horiba Scientific spectrotroluorometer upon excitation of a series of wavelengths using 450 W Xenon lamp.

**Characterization.** SHIMADZU’s spectrophotometer (UV–Vis 3700) was used to examine the absorption spectra of synthesized samples. The proper baseline correction was done by putting the identical cuvette filled with acetone at both source and reference site to extract the absorption/reflection from the cuvette and noise effect due to air and baseline solvent. To achieve a high concentration of MoS₂ nanosheets, low relative centrifugation force (1328rcf) was fixed to separate exfoliated particles from an un-exfoliated part. The concentration of supernatants was calculated by drying the specific amount of solution in vacuum at 70 °C, the mass difference giving the idea about resultant concentration. Diffraction peaks were analyzed using a RigakuMiniflex diffractometer with typical X-ray tube (Cu Kα radiation, 40 kV, 30 mA) and Hypix-400 MF 2D hybrid pixel array detector (HPAD). Structural analysis was conducted using a transmission electron microscope (TEM) (Model JEOL JEM-2100F) operated at accelerating voltage 200 kV. TEM analysis was made by dropcasting the diluted MoS₂ solution over the carbon-coated copper grid accompanied by drying. The microstructure of exfoliated nanosheets was studied by scanning electron microscope (VEGA3, TESCAN). The dispersed nanosheets were dropcasted onto a clean piece of sticky carbon tape, allowed to dry and put it onto SEM stub. The SEM images were collected by applying accelerating voltage 5 kV. The Raman spectra of the MoS₂ nanosheets was collected using a Renishaw Raman microscope using 532 nm (0.3 mW) laser, 10-s scans acquired with the laser using the 20 × objective of an Olympus microscope. PL spectra were obtained with Fluoromax 4C Horiba Scientific spectrotroluorometer upon excitation of a series of wavelengths using 450 W Xenon lamp.

**Photocatalytic activity measurement.** In this work, 30 ml of 5 ppm of MB (methylene blue) was prepared to measure the photocatalytic activity of each sample. The samples were coated on the 1 × 1 cm² Si/SiO₂ substrate and dried at 60 °C inside the vacuum furnace for overnight. The mass loading of 1 mg was maintained for each sample prepared from different concentrations. Each sample was immersed inside the MB dye for 60 minutes to attain absorption–desorption equilibrium in the dark. For irradiation, a 22 W Syska SRL based B22 LED bulb was used as a visible light source. The bulb was fixed inside one closed dark chamber and about 10 cm distance was maintained in between light source and sample. The samples inside the dye were exposed to visible light for 12 h. Then 3 ml of dye was taken out in the interval of 1 h from each sample and analyzed by UV–Vis absorption spectroscopy.
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**Author contributions**

D.S. imagined and designed the details of experimental plans. Experiment and characterization were handled by D.S., J.S. and B.K. D.S., S.G. and B.K. successfully did scientific discussion and result verification and D.S. wrote the paper with the assistance of B.K. S.S.R. helped in the discussion of photo catalysis results.

**Competing interests**

The authors declare no competing interests.

**Additional information**

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