

Selenium-doped WS₂ for humid-air lubricity via weakened interfacial hydrogen bonding

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Abstract:

The degradation of WS₂'s tribological performance in humid environments represents a persistent scientific and practical challenge, limiting its application scope despite its excellent lubricity in inert atmospheres. While the superior moisture tolerance of WSe₂ has been recognized, the fundamental atomic-scale mechanisms governing this difference remain inadequately understood. This work addresses this critical knowledge gap by revealing that the disparity originates from the distinct hydrogen bond strengths formed at the material-water interface. Through integrated density functional theory (DFT) calculations and experimental validation, we quantitatively demonstrate that

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water molecules form significantly weaker O–H···Se hydrogen bonds with WSe₂ (bond lengths: 3.02–3.25 Å) compared to O–H···S bonds with WS₂ (2.80–2.98 Å). This fundamental difference manifests functionally as a 35% lower interlayer sliding energy barrier for WSe₂ under humid conditions, providing the first atomistic explanation for its sustained lubricity. Leveraging this mechanistic insight, we propose and validate a novel materials design strategy: selectively doping selenium into the WS₂ lattice to engineer its interfacial chemistry. The developed W-S-Se coating exhibits remarkable performance, achieving an 18% reduction in coefficient of friction and a 78% decrease in wear rate at 40% RH compared to pristine WS₂. Extensive characterization confirms the formation of a re-oriented, crystalline transfer layer with insignificant oxidation. This study establishes a new paradigm for solid lubricant design, shifting the focus from conventional microstructure optimization towards direct atomic-level engineering of interfacial water interactions, opening avenues for developing advanced lubricants operable across diverse environmental conditions.

KEYWORDS: WS₂, Selenium doping, Friction, Moisture, Hydrogen bonds, DFT

1. Introduction

Transition metal dichalcogenides (TMD) are layered materials with each sandwich-like layer consisting of transition metal atoms (Mo, W) covalently bond to chalcogen atoms (S, Se, Te) [1]. The layers are stacked through van der Waals interactions, resulting in low interlayer adhesion. This interlayer structure allows for easy shearing of the TMD layers and exhibits low/super-low coefficients of friction (COF) in vacuum and dry environments [2]. Hence, WS₂ and MoS₂ are the most widely used TMDs as solid lubricants in the nuclear [3, 4] and aerospace [5, 6] industries where they mitigate friction and wear in sliding components such as bearings and gears. However, both materials suffer from a long-standing challenge of substantial deterioration of tribological performance when exposed to humid environments [7-9]. For instance, Prasad et al. [8] found that the coefficient of friction (COF) of WS₂ increased from 0.04 in dry nitrogen to 0.10-0.15 in air with 60% relative humidity (RH). Since exposure of the WS₂ and MoS₂ films to humid environments is inevitable during storage and testing, establishing viable strategies for designing TMDs films resistant to moisture-induced degradation remains an urgent task.

Understanding the friction mechanisms of TMD films in humid environments is essential for developing films for harsh conditions. While early studies indicated that H₂O molecules induce oxidation to form MoO₃ and WO₃ [10-12], recent evidence suggests that physisorbed water and the resulting interfacial hydrogen bonds play a more critical role. For instance, oxidation during the sliding process only occurs to a limited extent. In contrast, AFM tests without oxide formation [13] showed increased friction of MoS₂ in a humid environment. Bondarev et al. [14] further illustrated that oxygen content does not necessarily degrade the tribological performance of MoS₂. Similarly, introducing WO₃ into WS₂ resulted in a lower COF and a longer wear life than those of WS₂ [15]. Furthermore, the presence of oxides does not necessarily increase friction, as the oxides would form incommensurate contacts with MoS₂ and WS₂ which may lead to superlubricity [14-18].

Recent studies indicated that H₂O physically adsorbs at the interface of MoS₂ and WS₂ may impede layer shearing and increase friction [19-21]. Khare et al. [20] found

that the COF of MoS₂ increases with moisture at temperatures below 100°C, regardless of the presence of oxygen. The friction recovery observed by alternating the testing atmospheres between humid air and dry N₂ further excludes the oxidation process dominating friction, as the oxidation process is likely rate-limited and occurs at limited extent due to energy barriers associated with removing S from the planes [21]. Compared to oxidation that requires overcoming certain energy barriers, physisorption of H₂O on MoS₂ and WS₂ is thermodynamically more feasible due to the release of adsorption energy. Li et al. found that water molecules can form water clusters at the interfaces of TMDs [22]. Bobbitt et al. found that water tends to adsorb on defects in MoS₂, leading to adverse effects on friction [23]. Using sliding friction experiments coupled with density functional theory (DFT) computations, the authors discovered that H₂O physisorption was promoted by the presence of defects and may eventually lead to dissociative adsorption of the molecules, which would serve as initial stage of oxidation [21, 24, 25]. However, it was found the dissociated H₂O would not affect layer adhesion, whereas undissociated H₂O would form O-H···S-type interfacial hydrogen bonds that increase layer adhesion and impede layer sliding, thereby increasing friction.

Besides the popular strategies for improving the tribological properties of WS₂ and MoS₂ in humid environments by enhancing mechanical strength or antioxidant properties [26-29], performance can also be improved by inhibiting the formation of hydrogen bonds. Sun et al. [30] achieved superlubricity of MoS₂ under 30% RH through the in-situ formation of a MoS₂/S₈/MoS₂ interface, which suppressed interfacial hydrogen bond formation by layer expansion. Notably, WSe₂ and MoSe₂ retain excellent tribological performance under humid conditions, despite sharing the same crystal structure as MoS₂ and WS₂ [31, 32]. Selenide materials demonstrate favorable lubricating performance under humid conditions [33-39] and tellurides also exhibit better potential friction performance [40]. However, the origin of the disparities in tribological behavior between selenides and sulfides under humid conditions is still unclear, necessitating further in-depth study. We hypothesize that the superior

performance of WSe₂ stems from inherently weaker interfacial hydrogen bonding (O–H···Se) compared to that in WS₂ (O–H···S).

Herein, we investigate this hypothesis and leverage it as a materials design principle. We first employ DFT to quantify the hydrogen bond strength, interlayer adhesion, and sliding energy barriers for WS₂ and WSe₂ in the presence of water. Guided by the computational prediction that Se weakens water-layer interactions, we then demonstrate the efficacy of Se doping in dramatically enhancing the humidity tolerance of WS₂ coatings. The advanced nature of this study is demonstrating that the friction performance in humid environments of WS₂ could be dictated by modulating interfacial hydrogen bonds, thereby providing new insights for designing solid lubricants.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Film preparation

Three films of WS₂, WSe₂ and Se-doped W-S-Se were deposited on Si wafers by high power impulse magnetron sputtering (HIPIMS) technique. The WS₂ and WSe₂ films were deposited using WS₂ and WSe₂ targets with 99.99 wt.% purity while the W-S-Se films were deposited using a homemade WS₂/WSe₂ (mole ratio 3:1) composite target. The composite target enables uniform and stable Se incorporation during deposition, simplifies the fabrication process, improves film compositional homogeneity. Before the deposition process, the vacuum chamber was evacuated to a pressure of 5.0×10^{-3} Pa, and argon gas was introduced into the chamber at a flow rate of 50 sccm maintaining the chamber pressure at 1.1 Pa. The silicon wafers were cleaned by argon ion bombardment at a bias voltage of 600 V for 15 minutes to remove the surface oxide layer. To improve the adhesion to the Si substrate, a Ti transition layer was deposited by medium frequency magnetron sputtering system at a current of 0.5 A and a bias voltage of 50 V for 10min. The WS₂, WSe₂, and W-S-Se films were deposited using sputtering power of 3 KW, voltage 720 V, current 3 A, and bias voltage 50 V,

with a sputtering time of 120 minutes. The compositions of the prepared films obtained from the EDS results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Compositions for the pure WS₂ film, WSe₂ films and the W-S-Se film.

Sample	W (at%)	S (at%)	Se (at%)
WS ₂	43.7	56.3	0
WSe ₂	42.2	0	57.8
W-S-Se	42.1	28.9	29.0

2.2 Tribological test

Tribological tests were conducted using a ball-on-disk tribometer (CSM TRB3, Anton Paar) in room temperature (25 °C). In order to investigate the effect of humidity on the friction of the films, friction tests were carried out in dry air, and air with 25% and 40% RH. Humidity is controlled by introducing dry gas into the CSM and adding a humidifier to the CSM. A schematic diagram of the tribological test is shown in Figure 1. The humidity sensor in the humidifier ensures that the humidity error is less than 2% RH. The GCr15 balls with a diameter of 6 mm were used as the counterbodies in the friction tests. The tests were performed under a normal load of 5 N at a reciprocating frequency of 2 Hz using an amplitude of 5 mm, which corresponds to an intermediate stress with Hertzian contact pressure of 0.46 GPa to avoid quick fail of the film by friction [25]. All friction tests were repeated at least three times tested under the same conditions to produce consistent results. The average coefficient of friction was calculated for the full sliding process. The wear volume was determined using a non-contact 3D surface profiler (KLA-Tencor, MicroXAM-800), and the wear rate was calculated as $Wr = V/(F \times d)$, where V is the wear volume, F the applied normal force, and d the sliding distance.

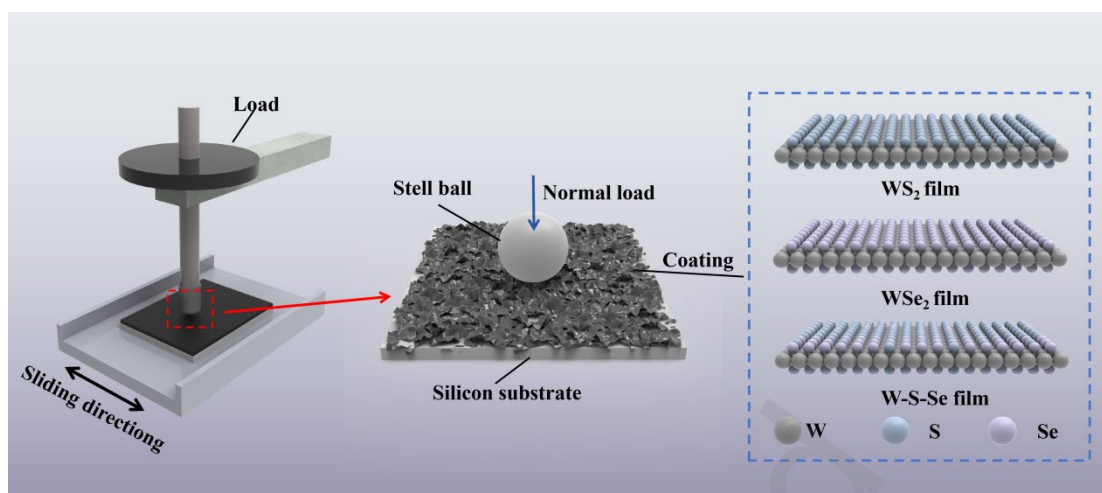


Figure 1. Schematic diagram of tribological testing

2.3 Film characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD, PANalytical B.V., Empyrean) using $\text{Cu K}\alpha$ radiation at an accelerating voltage of 40 kV, and Raman spectroscopy (Jobin Yvon, HR-800) with a 532 nm laser, were employed to characterize the composition and structure of the films. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Apreo S) and energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) were used to analyze the morphology and composition changes of the films before and after the sliding tests. The microstructures of the films were identified using high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM, FEI Tecnai-G2-F20) operated at 200 kV, with the film sections prepared using the focused ion beam (FIB, Strata 400S) lift-out technique. Before milling, a protective C layer was deposited on the surface of the films to protect the films against beam damage. The film hardness and elastic modulus were estimated by nanoindentation (NHT3, Anton Paar), with a maximum displacement of 60 nm (less than 10% of the film thickness) and a holding time of 5 s.

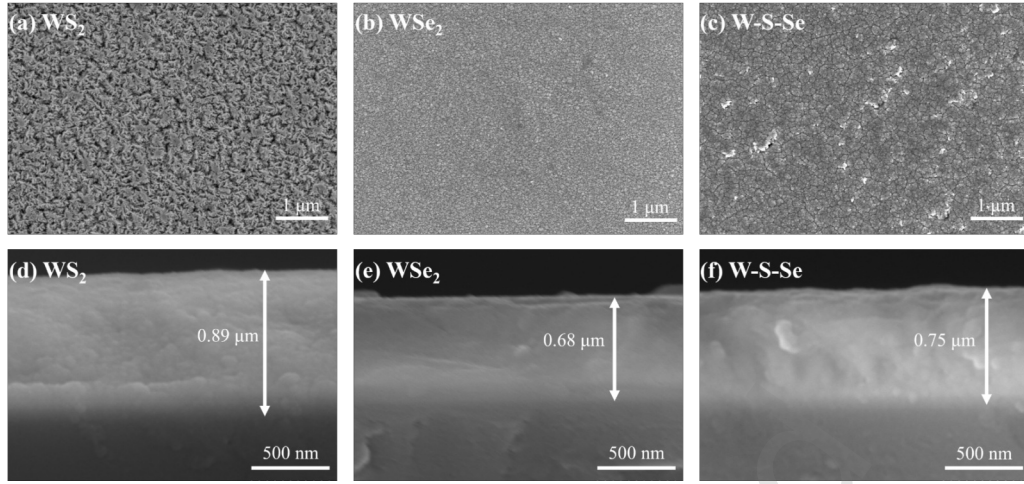


Figure 2. Scanning electron microscope images obtained from the top and cross-sectional areas of the as deposited WS₂ (a, d), WSe₂ (b, e), and W-S-Se (c, f) films.

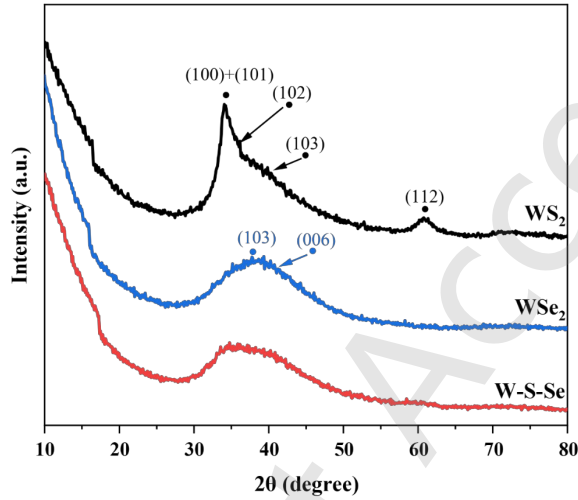


Figure 3. XRD patterns of WS₂, WSe₂, and W-S-Se films. WS₂ exhibits sharp peaks from crystalline planes, while WSe₂ shows a broad amorphous band. Se doping reduces crystallinity, producing a mixed pattern of broad band plus residual WS₂ peak at 36°. This confirms that Se promotes amorphization.

The SEM images taken from the top and cross-sectional areas of the prepared films are shown in Figure 2. The WS₂ surface exhibited a typical dendrite-like structure with a thickness of 0.89 μm, generally related to crystalline structure where WS₂ layers are oriented in a direction normal to the substrate [25, 41]. In comparison, the W-S-Se and WSe₂ films showed transitions from dendrite-like structures to fine structures with film thickness of 0.75 μm for the former and 0.68 μm for the latter. The change in the film structures could also be revealed from the XRD patterns shown in Figure 3. The as

deposited WS₂ film showed well-defined peaks at 2θ of 33° for (100) and (101) planes, and at 2θ of 36° , 40° and 61° for (102), (103) and (112) planes consistent with a crystalline structure. In comparison, the WSe₂ film only showed a broad band centered around 38° primarily contributed by diffraction patterns of (103) and (006) planes, indicating an increased amorphous character. The deposited W-S-Se film shared a similar diffraction band to WSe₂ accompanied with a more significant diffraction peak at 2θ of 36° corresponding to WS₂. Hence, the XRD pattern of W-S-Se revealed Se doping reduced crystallinity of the film, which is similar to the effects of O [15], N [42] and Ag [43] doping in WS₂. It is generally accepted that increased amorphous film with denser structure enhances the hardness of the transition metal dichalcogenides [44]. This trend was observed here with hardness and elastic modulus values of 2.10 GPa and 52.24 GPa for W-S-Se and 3.69 GPa and 68.16 GPa for WSe₂ compared to baseline values of 0.95 GPa and 27.78 GPa for WS₂, as shown in Figure 4.

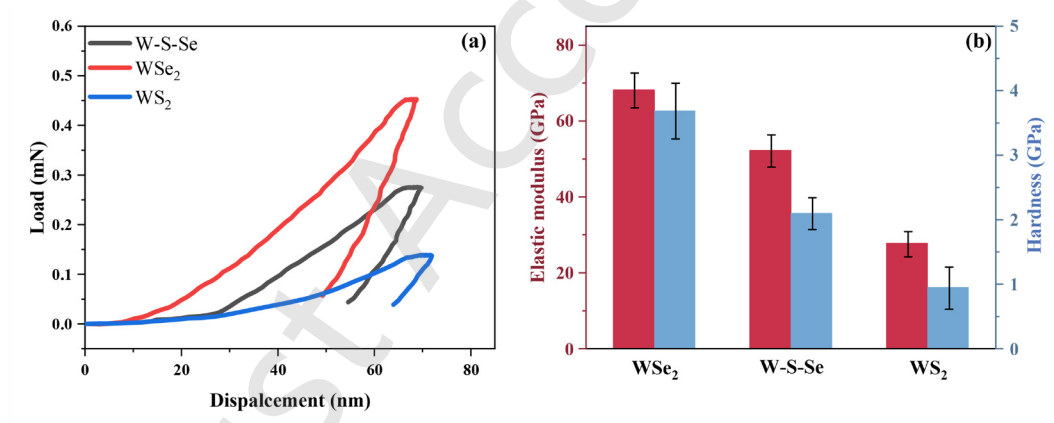


Figure 4. Nanoindentation loading-unloading curves of the prepared films (a), hardness and elastic modulus of the prepared films (b).

2.4 Density functional theory computations

The computations were performed using the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) [45] based on density functional theory (DFT). Projector-augmented wave (PAW) [46] pseudopotentials were used in calculation. The exchange-correlation energy was estimated by the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) using the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) [47] functional. (4×4) cells in dimensions of 13.11×13.11 for WS₂ and 13.74×13.74 for WSe₂ were used to evaluate the effects of H₂O

adsorption on interlayer adhesion and layer sliding properties. All surface and interfaces of WS₂ and WSe₂ were constructed by adding a 15 Å vacuum layer in direction normal to the basal plane, and the cells were large enough to exclude interactions from periodical images. The vdw-DF2 [48] method was used to describe van der Waals interactions between the layers as presented in Ref.[49, 50]. As in previous simulations, it is foundThe adsorption energy (E_a) of H₂O on WS₂ and WSe₂ was calculated by: $E_a = E_{slab+H_2O} - E_{slab} - E_{H_2O}$, where E_{slab+H_2O} and E_{slab} are the total energies of systems with and without adsorbed H₂O with E_{H_2O} representing the energy of H₂O molecule in the same cell. The interlayer adhesion of WSe₂ was investigated by calculating the interlayer binding energy (E_B) via: $E_B = (E_{layer1} + E_{layer2} - E_{tot})/A$, where E_{layer1} and E_{layer2} represent the energies of isolated layers, and E_{tot} is the total energy of system. For interfaces with H₂O adsorbed, the E_B was calculated by $E_B = (E_{layer1+H_2O} + E_{layer2} - E_{tot})/A$, where $E_{layer1+H_2O}$ representing layer with H₂O adsorbed was used instead of isolated layer to avoid overestimation of the E_B values due to H₂O interaction with both the upper and lower layers. The plane-wave cut-off energy of 500 eV and a k-point Monkhorst-Pack [51] grid of $5 \times 5 \times 1$ were used to converge the Hellmann-Feynman forces on the atom to less than 0.02 eV/Å and energy to 10^{-5} eV/atom. Spin polarization was considered to address the possible magnetic effect induced by vacancy defects in the cells.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 DFT simulations of Se on inhibiting formation of interfacial hydrogen bonds with H₂O that impeded layer shearing

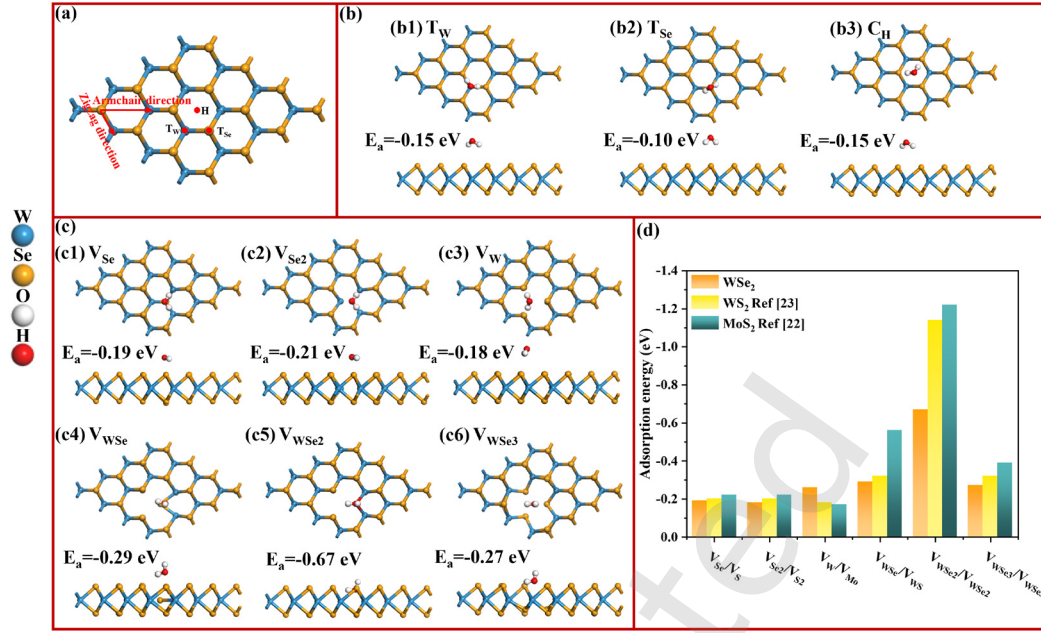


Figure 5. (a) Top view of three high-symmetry adsorption sites for an H₂O molecule on monolayer WSe₂: C_H site (centre of the hexagonal ring), T_W site (on top of W atom), T_{Se} site (on top of Se atom). (b) Top and side views of H₂O molecule adsorbed at high symmetry sites of WSe₂. (c) Top and side views of H₂O molecule adsorbed at different vacancy defects of monolayer WSe₂. (d) Adsorption energy of H₂O molecule on the different vacancy defects of the MoS₂ [24], WS₂ [25] and WSe₂.

To evaluate the adsorption behaviour of H₂O molecules on the surface of WSe₂, various adsorption sites were considered, such as high symmetry sites (See C_H, T_W, T_{Se} sites in Figure 5(a)) and high reactivity vacancy defect sites (V_{Se}, V_{Se2}, V_W, V_{WSe}, V_{WSe2}, V_{WSe3}). For pristine WSe₂, the E_a ranges from -0.10 ~ -0.15 eV, where H₂O molecule is more preferably adsorbed at the C_H and T_W sites with the H atoms from H₂O molecule pointing to the Se atoms as displayed in Figure 5(b). The E_a values and H₂O orientations are similar to those for H₂O on pristine WS₂ [52]. For H₂O adsorption at vacancy defects of WSe₂, Figure 5(c) showed lower E_a values in the range of -0.18 eV ~ -0.67 eV, indicating more stable adsorption states of H₂O on WSe₂ induced by defects. The reactivity of the vacancy defects to H₂O determined from the E_a values follows the order of V_{WSe2} (-0.67 eV) > V_{WSe} (-0.29 eV) > V_{WSe3} (-0.27 eV) > V_{Se2} (-0.21 eV) > V_{Se} (-0.19 eV) > V_W (-0.18 eV). H₂O showed almost the same configurations above V_{Se} and V_{Se2} sites with H₂O almost parallel to the basal plane and O atom located above

the Se vacancy, while H₂O molecule at V_W site was shifted from its initial orientation to almost normal to the basal plane with the two O-H bonds pointing towards the two neighboring Se atoms. At V_{WSe} site, the H₂O molecule was normal to the basal plane and 2.02 Å above the Se plane with O on top of Se vacancy site. Notably, under the influence of the interaction between the vacancy and H₂O molecule, the Se atom beneath the vacancy shifted to the W plane. For H₂O adsorbed at V_{WSe2} and V_{WSe3}, the H₂O showed similar orientation as that at V_{WSe}, except the H₂O located closer to the basal plane with a distance of 0.10 Å for the former and 0.94 Å for the latter. It is noted that the H₂O at V_{WSe2} resulted in formation of W-O-W bonds with a bond length of 2.38 Å between the O from H₂O and the neighboring W atoms at defect site while leaving H₂O undissociated, where the increased bonds is responsible for the lowest *Ea* and more stable adsorption. A systematic plots of *Ea* at various vacancy defects in Figure 5(d) showed that the adsorption behavior of H₂O at vacancy defects of WSe₂ resembles those of MoS₂ [24] and WS₂ [25], where the most stable configurations corresponded to formation W-O-W and Mo-O-Mo bonds with bond lengths of 2.36 Å and 2.34 Å at V_{WS2} vacancy of WS₂ and V_{MoS2} vacancy of MoS₂. Overall, under the same type of vacancy computed using the same methodology, the *Ea* values follow the order of *Ea*(MoS₂) < *Ea*(WS₂) < *Ea*(WSe₂), indicating weaker interaction between Se and H₂O molecules. Thus, Figure 5 indicates that while defects enhance H₂O adsorption, the interactions are still weaker on WSe₂ compared to WS₂ and MoS₂, suggesting that Se substitution may help suppress interfacial hydrogen bonding. Our DFT results consistently show that O-H···Se bonds are longer and weaker than O-H···S bonds, leading to reduced charge transfer and lower sliding energy barriers in WSe₂.

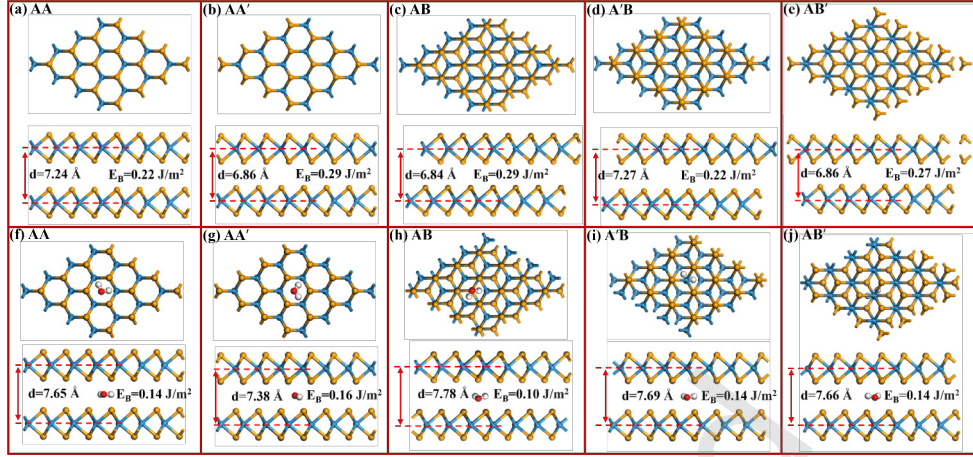


Figure 5. Top and side views of the bilayer WSe₂ without and with intercalated H₂O in stacking sequences of (a, f) AA stack, (b, g) AA' stack, (c, h) AB stack, (d, i) A'B stack, and (e, j) AB' stack.

The adhesion properties of the WSe₂ were investigated by calculating E_B values with all five stacking sequences considered, i.e. AA (Mo on Mo), AA' (Mo on Se), AB (Mo on Se), A'B (Se on Se) and AB' (Mo on Mo). Both pristine bilayer WSe₂ with and without H₂O intercalated at interfaces were studied to understand how H₂O would affect the interface structures and interlayer adhesion. As shown in Figures 6(a-e), the bilayer WSe₂ in the AA', AB, and AB' stacks showed higher E_B values of 0.27 - 0.29 J/m² with layer spacings of 6.84 - 6.86 Å than those of 0.22 J/m² for both the AA and A'B stacks with increased layer spacings of 7.24 Å and 7.27 Å. These results are in agreement with the calculations by He et al [53]. Figure 5 illustrates that intercalation of H₂O expands the interlayer distance by ~0.5 Å and reduces E_B by nearly half (to 0.10–0.16 J/m²), demonstrating that water incorporation strongly perturbs interface stability. Table 2 further confirms that this reduction in adhesion is more severe for WS₂ than for WSe₂, suggesting that Se substitution stabilizes the layered structure against humidity. Intercalating H₂O at the pristine bilayer WSe₂ reduced the E_B from 0.22 J/m² ~ 0.29 J/m² to 0.10 J/m² ~ 0.16 J/m², which was accompanied by layer expansions from 6.84 Å ~ 7.24 Å to 7.38 Å ~ 7.65 Å (See Figures 6(f-j)). This layer expansion and reduced E_B seem to be beneficial for friction, but this process is unlikely to occur as the H₂O intercalation process would require extra energy of 0.58 eV ~ 1.18 eV to overcome van der Waals interaction during layer expansion. Although this

phenomenon is unlikely to occur, it can be used to analyze the effect of water molecules on the WS₂ and WSe₂ interfaces. It can be found the E_B values are of the same levels for pristine bilayer WS₂ and WSe₂ with and without intercalated H₂O in Table 2. However, the WS₂ interface is more affected by water molecules, and the extent of interlayer spacing expansion is larger than that of WSe₂.

Table 2. Interlayer binding energy (E_B) and interlayer spacing (d) of bilayer WX₂(X=S, Se) with and without intercalated H₂O.

System		WSe ₂ bilayer interfaces		WS ₂ bilayer interfaces	
		d (Å)	E_B (J/m ²)	d (Å)	E_B (J/m ²)
AA	Pristine/ Pristine	7.24	0.22	6.90	0.22
	Pristine-H ₂ O/Pristine	7.65	0.14	7.35	0.13
A'B	Pristine/ Pristine	7.27	0.22	6.89	0.23
	Pristine-H ₂ O/Pristine	7.69	0.14	7.36	0.13
AA'	Pristine/ Pristine	6.86	0.29	6.46	0.31
	Pristine-H ₂ O/Pristine	7.38	0.16	7.12	0.14
	V _{WX2} / V _{WX2}	6.81	0.28	6.40	0.30
	V _{WX2} -H ₂ O/Pristine	6.83	0.29	6.47	0.32
	V _{WX2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WX2}	6.81	0.31	6.41	0.32
AB'	Pristine/ Pristine	6.86	0.27	6.49	0.29
	Pristine-H ₂ O/Pristine	7.66	0.14	7.48	0.12
	V _{WX2} / V _{WX2}	6.80	0.27	6.38	0.29
	V _{WX2} -H ₂ O/Pristine	6.86	0.28	6.45	0.30
	V _{WX2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WX2}	6.81	0.29	6.42	0.32
AB	Pristine/ Pristine	6.84	0.29	6.46	0.30
	Pristine-H ₂ O/Pristine	7.78	0.10	7.33	0.13
	V _{WX2} / V _{WX2}	6.82	0.28	6.36	0.30
	V _{WX2} -H ₂ O/Pristine	6.84	0.29	6.42	0.31
	V _{WX2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WX2}	6.82	0.29	6.42	0.30

As defects could promote molecule adsorption and stabilize the molecule at interface, the most reactive defect of V_{WSe2} was considered for constructing WSe₂ interfaces with and without adsorbed H₂O in AA', AB, and AB' stackings due to their highest E_B values. As shown in Table 2, V_{WSe2} vacancy defect slightly reduced the E_B by 0.01 J/m² compared to the pristine WSe₂, while the interlayer spacing varied only marginally between 0.02 and 0.06 Å. The E_B values increased to 0.29 J/m² for interfaces with one intercalated H₂O at the interfaces and further to 0.29 - 0.31 J/m² with two intercalated H₂O molecules, consistent with the trend observed for H₂O intercalated between WS₂ layers (Table 2). It should be noted that the E_B values for WSe₂ layers with H₂O adsorbed at V_{WSe2} defect sites were 0.01 - 0.03 J/m² lower than their counterparts of WS₂ interfaces in the same stackings. However, WSe₂ exhibits better

tribological properties than WS₂ in humid environments likely due to weaker O–H···Se interactions compared to O–H···S.

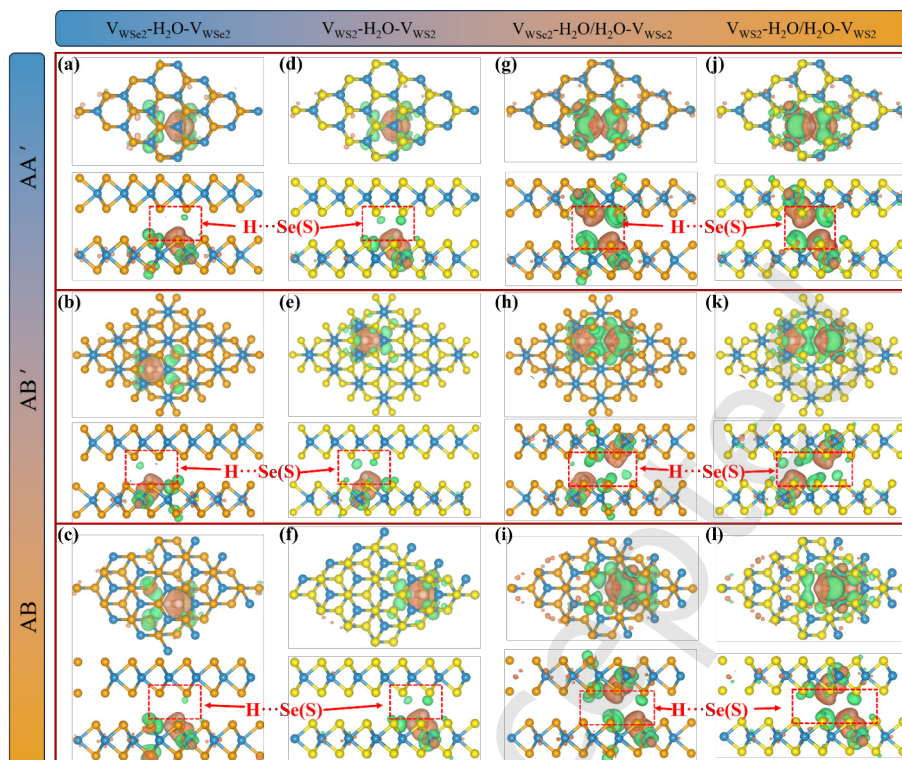


Figure 6. Top and side views of charge density difference (CDD) plots for bilayer configurations of (a-c) WSe₂-H₂O/WSe₂, (d-f) WS₂-H₂O/WS₂, (g-i) WSe₂-H₂O/H₂O-WSe₂, and (j-l) WS₂-H₂O/H₂O-WS₂ in AA', AB', and AB stacks. The isosurface value was 0.0015 e/Bhor³, and the orange and green zones represent charge accumulation and depletion, respectively.

To further clarify the effect of water molecule adsorption on WS₂ and WSe₂ interfaces, charge density difference (CDD) analysis was performed to reveal the associated changes in electron transfer behaviour. As can be seen from the CDD contour plots of WSe₂-H₂O/WSe₂, WS₂-H₂O/WS₂, WSe₂-H₂O/H₂O-WSe₂, and WS₂-H₂O/H₂O-WS₂ in AA', AB', and AB stacks, the charge depletion zones (green zones) near S and Se atoms could be identified from both the upper and lower layers of WSe₂ and WS₂ bilayer interfaces. Meanwhile, the charge accumulations zones are shown near the H atom from H₂O at vacancy defects. It should be noted that the charge depletion zones near S atoms were substantially larger than those near Se atoms, which would consequently lead to stronger interaction between the H₂O and S atoms than that with

S atoms. To reach deeper insights into the reduced E_B values between WSe₂ layers, the net charge transfer between H₂O and WS₂ and WSe₂. As shown in Table 3, there are more charge transfer between H₂O and WS₂ than that with WSe₂. Moreover, the bond lengths of O-H $\cdots$ Se bonds (3.02 Å~ 3.25 Å) were larger than those of O-H $\cdots$ S (2.80 Å~ 2.98 Å). According to the bond length and bond angles summarized in Table 3, it can be inferred that the O-H $\cdots$ Se is a weaker hydrogen bonds as the bond length and strength were substantially lower than O-H $\cdots$ S, although the H₂O configurations at the WSe₂ interface are highly similar to that at WS₂ interfaces. In addition, it could be noted from Figure 7 that an increase in the number of H₂O molecules at interfaces would induce more the charge accumulation and stronger interfacial interactions. These interactions would lower the system energy and raise the E_B values by 0.01 J/m² and 0.01 J/m² ~ 0.02 J/m² for WSe₂ interfaces with one and two intercalated H₂O molecules, compared to 0.01 J/m² ~ 0.02 J/m² and 0 J/m² ~ 0.02 J/m² for WS₂ interfaces with one and two intercalated H₂O molecules. The charge state of hydrogen atoms in water molecules was analyzed using Bader charge analysis. As shown in Table 3, the number of H atom charge transfers in the WSe₂ interface is generally larger than that in WSe₂. This pronounced difference may be originated from the higher electronegativity of S than that for Se, as well as the difference in their atomic radius. In summary, the CDD analysis and bond length statistics (Figure 7, Table 3) confirm that O-H $\cdots$ Se bonds are weaker than O-H $\cdots$ S bonds, leading to reduced charge transfer and weaker water–film interactions in WSe₂ compared to WS₂. To understand how these differences in interfacial bonding translate into sliding behavior and friction, layer sliding simulations were carried out, as shown in Figure 8.

Table 3. Bond lengths and bond angles and average charge transfer per H atom in interfacial H₂O molecules for WS₂ and WSe₂ bilayers in different stackings.

System		Bond length O-H $\cdots$ Se(S) (Å)	Bond angle O-H $\cdots$ Se(S) (°)	ΔQ_H (e)
AA'	V _{WSe2} -H ₂ O/Pristine	3.22	148.00	-0.600
	V _{WSe2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WSe2} (down)	3.02	148.28	-0.602
	V _{WSe2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WSe2} (up)	3.02	148.27	-0.612
	V _{WS2} -H ₂ O/Pristine	2.94	147.77	-0.613
	V _{WS2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WS2} (down)	2.88	144.70	-0.618
	V _{WS2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WS2} (up)	2.88	144.60	-0.614

AB'	V _{WSe2} -H ₂ O/Pristine	3.15	162.02	-0.602
	V _{WSe2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WSe2} (down)	3.12	162.74	-0.610
	V _{WSe2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WSe2} (up)	3.12	162.60	-0.607
	V _{WS2} -H ₂ O/Pristine	2.83	163.87	-0.609
	V _{WS2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WS2} (down)	2.80	163.90	-0.628
	V _{WS2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WS2} (up)	2.80	163.95	-0.629
AB	V _{WSe2} -H ₂ O/Pristine	3.25	148.17	-0.596
	V _{WSe2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WSe2} (down)	3.09	148.78	-0.589
	V _{WSe2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WSe2} (up)	3.12	139.18	-0.590
	V _{WS2} -H ₂ O/Pristine	2.92	146.69	-0.612
	V _{WS2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WS2} (down)	2.86	145.96	-0.620
	V _{WS2} -H ₂ O/H ₂ O-V _{WS2} (up)	2.98	137.61	-0.611

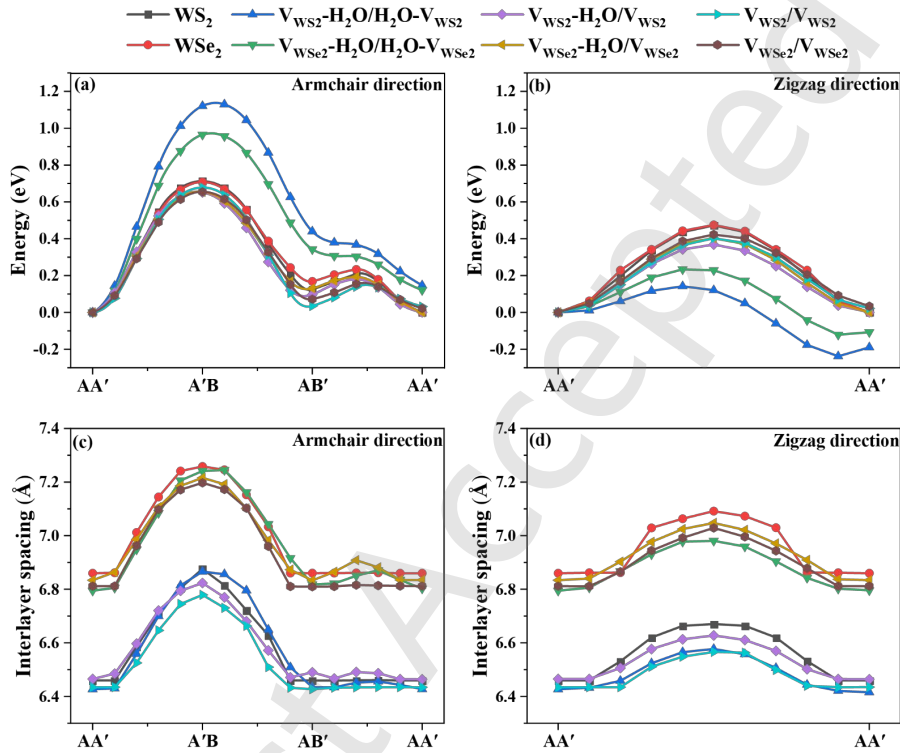


Figure 8. (a, b) Sliding energy barriers of bilayer WS₂ and WSe₂ with and without interfacial H₂O in the armchair and zigzag directions. (c) Interlayer spacing variations corresponding to the sliding configurations.

In order to understand how the changes in E_B values translate into layer sliding and friction performance, the layer sliding properties was simulated by sliding both pristine and vacancy defected WS₂ and WSe₂ layers without and with one or two adsorbed H₂O molecules at the interfaces along the sliding direction shown in Figure 5(a). The relative energy changes along the sliding direction shown Figure 8(a, b) revealed almost the sliding energy barrier for pristine WS₂ (0.71 eV in armchair and 0.47 eV in Zigzag) and WSe₂ (0.70 eV in armchair and 0.48 eV in zigzag). The presence

of V_{WX_2} ($X=S, Se$) vacancies reduces the sliding energy barriers of WS_2 and WSe_2 in the armchair direction to 0.68 eV and 0.65 eV, respectively, and in the zigzag direction to 0.40 eV and 0.42 eV, respectively. Furthermore, the adsorption of a water molecule in the V_{WX_2} ($X=S, Se$) vacancy has no significant effect on the sliding energy barrier in zigzag direction.

However, when water molecules are adsorbed on the upper and lower interfaces of WX_2 , the sliding energy barrier is significantly affected. In the zigzag direction, the sliding energy barriers for WS_2-H_2O/H_2O-WS_2 and WSe_2-H_2O/H_2O-WSe_2 are 0.14 eV and 0.23 eV, respectively. The decrease in the energy barrier values is due to the fact that the sliding paths in the zigzag direction deviate from the high symmetry stacks and the atomic stacks formed are mostly relatively misaligned structures. That prevents the water molecules from stabilizing the formation of a hydrogen bonding network, at which time the water molecules are present at the interface as spacers, reducing the direct contact at the WX_2 ($X=S, Se$) interface and thus the sliding energy barrier. In the Armchair direction, the sliding energy barriers were increased by 0.42 eV to 1.13 eV for WS_2-H_2O/H_2O-WS_2 and by 0.26 eV to 0.96 eV for WSe_2-H_2O/H_2O-WSe_2 . The energy barriers were all met during sliding process that reached the A'B stack, which correspond to the stack of X on X for WX_2 ($X=S, Se$). The layer spacing changes displayed in Figure 8(c) showed the largest layer expansions for the interfaces in A'B stack owing to the repulsion between the S(Se) planes. The layer spacings between bilayer WS_2 and bilayer WSe_2 at the energy barrier configurations were 6.88 Å and 7.26 Å, which were almost the same as those of 6.86 Å and 7.24 Å for WS_2-H_2O/H_2O-WS_2 and WSe_2-H_2O/H_2O-WSe_2 . Hence, it can be inferred that the sliding process in the simulated system with H_2O adsorbed at vacancy defect sites was affected by the interaction between H_2O and Se for WSe_2 and S for WS_2 , as the changes in the layer spacing indicate almost no difference between the computed interfaces with and without adsorbed H_2O corresponding to van der Waals interactions. Thus, the layer sliding simulations showed H_2O was less effective on impeding the layer shearing for WSe_2 than WS_2 , which is consistent with the E_B values and CDD analyses. Figure 8 therefore demonstrates that water molecules affect sliding anisotropically—reducing

barriers in the zigzag direction but increasing them in the armchair direction—yet the overall penalty of H₂O is less severe in WSe₂ than in WS₂, consistent with weaker O–H···Se interactions.

In summary, the differences in electronegativity and atomic radius between S and Se result in variations in the strength of the interface hydrogen bonds formed between WS₂, WSe₂, and water molecules. Therefore, in the experiment, Se was introduced into WS₂ to alter its interface electronic structure, and the W–S–Se interface hydrogen bonding network was adjusted through the differences between S and Se. Thereby reducing the interaction between the W–S–Se film and water molecules. In the following subsection, the effect of Se doping on mitigating the friction sensitivity to humid air was explored by performing sliding friction experiments in humid environments.

3.2 Tribological behaviour of WS₂, WSe₂, W-S-Se films in dry and humid air

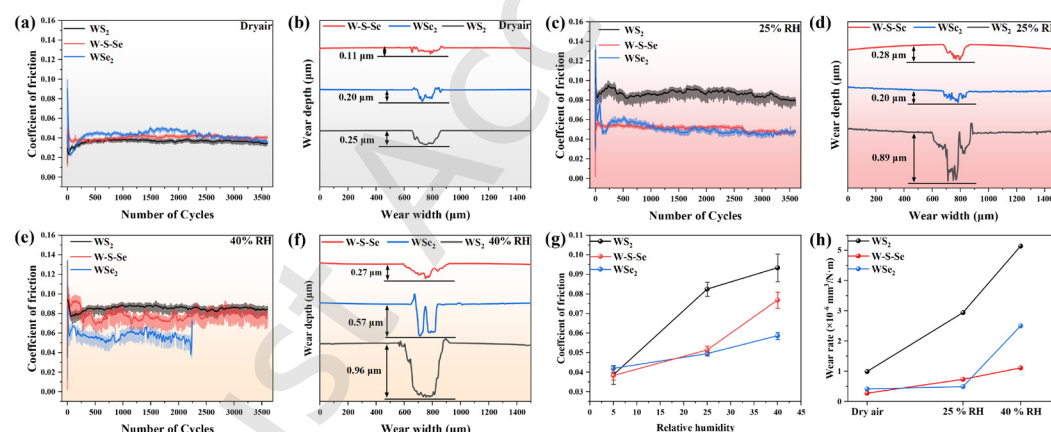


Figure 9. Curve of coefficient of friction with number of cycles and cross-sectional wear depth plots of WS₂, WSe₂ and W-S-Se films under different humidity conditions: (a-b) dry air, (c-d) 25% RH, (e-f) 40% RH. Variation curves of (g) coefficient of friction and (h) wear rates with relative humidity for WS₂, WSe₂ and W-S-Se films.

To verify the effect of Se on inhibiting friction increase in humid environments by forming hydrogen bonds that increase the layer adhesion and impeded layer shearing, sliding tests of WS₂, WSe₂, W-S-Se in air with different humidity levels were performed, i.e. dry air, 25% RH, and 40% RH. Firstly, the friction curves in Figure 9(a) showed a common low COF of ~0.04 for all the three films. This result is consistent

with the sliding simulations where both WS₂ and WSe₂ showed an identical sliding energy barrier of ~0.70 eV. Meanwhile, the profiles of the wear tracks of the films after tests in Figure 9(b) showed a decrease in the wear depth from 0.25 μm for WS₂ to 0.20 μm for WSe₂, and further to 0.11 μm for W-S-Se. Due to the low hardness of 0.95 GPa, the wear rate of WS₂ is the highest among the three films, with the maximum wear depth and highest specific wear rate of $0.99 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mm}^3/\text{N} \cdot \text{m}$. It is interesting to note the W-S-Se film, with hardness of 2.10 GPa showed lower wear than WSe₂ which had the highest hardness of 3.69 GPa. This indicates that increasing the hardness beyond a certain level may not necessarily reduce wear in dry environments. Overall, W-S-Se film showed the best tribological performance in the dry environment, possibly due to its improved hardness without sacrificing the lubricity of the layered structure. Thus, simply increasing hardness (as in WSe₂) does not ensure lowest wear; rather, Se-doped WS₂ (W-S-Se) optimizes both hardness and layered lubricity, achieving the best performance in dry sliding.

With the humidity level raised to 25% RH, the COFs of WS₂, WSe₂, and W-S-Se were subjected to different increases due to different levels of moisture sensitivity of the films. As can be seen in Figure 9(c), WS₂ experienced the most significant increase in COF from 0.04 in dry air to 0.08. Meanwhile, the COFs of WSe₂ and W-S-Se only increased slightly to a common low value of 0.05 compared to the low value of 0.04 in dry air, confirming the effect of Se on inhibiting the film sensitivity to moisture. The 2D wear profiles of the three films corresponding to the friction curves in Figure 9(d) showed substantially smaller wear depths for WSe₂ (0.20 μm) and W-S-Se (0.28 μm) than the 0.89 μm depth observed for WS₂, corresponding to specific wear rates reductions from $2.94 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mm}^3/\text{N} \cdot \text{m}$ for WS₂ to $0.49 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mm}^3/\text{N} \cdot \text{m}$ for WSe₂ and $0.73 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mm}^3/\text{N} \cdot \text{m}$ for W-S-Se.

The effectiveness of Se doping on enhancing the film resistance to tribological performance degradation induced by H₂O molecules could be better manifested from sliding tests performed in air with 40% RH. As shown in Figure 9(e, f), both the COF and wear depth of WS₂ (0.96 μm) are the highest compared to those of WSe₂ and W-S-Se. It is noted that the COF of WSe₂ increased slightly further to 0.06 but suffered

from film failure after ~2200 cycles due to its lowest film thickness. The COF of the W-S-Se film increased to ~0.08, which is slightly lower than WSe₂. However, the wear depth of the former (0.27 μm) is less than half of WSe₂ (0.57 μm).

The above friction and wear results are summarized in Figure 9(g, h), where WSe₂ showed the lowest moisture induced friction increase and WS₂ the highest friction increase with humidity. While the W-S-Se film showed intermediate friction increase with humidity, it exhibited the lowest specific wear rate of $1.11 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mm}^3/\text{N}\cdot\text{m}$ representing a reduction of 56% and 78% compared to $2.50 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mm}^3/\text{N}\cdot\text{m}$ for WSe₂ and $5.14 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mm}^3/\text{N}\cdot\text{m}$ for WS₂. These results clearly demonstrate that Se doping enhanced the resistance of the WS₂ films to humidity-induced degradation in both dry and humid air. The worn surfaces were analyzed in the following sub-section to illustrate the underlying mechanism.

3.3 Worn surface analyses

The transfer layers formed on the worn scars of the steel balls (counterfaces) were analyzed using SEM coupled with EDS mapping, as the TMD transfer layer are an essential factor controlling the friction process by creating an interface that prevents direct contact between the metal surfaces. As can be seen in Figure 10, the diameter of the wear scars of WS₂ increased from 157 μm in dry air to 226 μm and 264 μm at 25% RH and 40% RH respectively, whereas those of WSe₂ remained mainly unchanged at ~165 μm in dry air and 25% RH under the same testing conditions. The larger wear scar diameter of 238 μm of WSe₂ tested at 40% RH could be to increased friction after partial film failure. In addition, the formation of WS₂ and WSe₂ transfer layers can be identified from the W, S, and Se elemental maps. It could also be noted that the O overlapping with those of W and S from WS₂ film becomes more obvious with increasing humidity level, while in WSe₂ films such overlap with O is insignificant. The low W and Se coverage with high O signal in Figure 10(d) for WSe₂ tested at 40% RH likely arises from severe wear and film failure leading to iron oxide formation from the exposed substrate. These observations agree with the computational results predicting that H₂O adsorption is stronger on WS₂ than WSe₂ (either dissociated or

undissociated) which consequently forms weaker interfacial bonds and makes friction of WSe₂ less sensitive to humid environment.

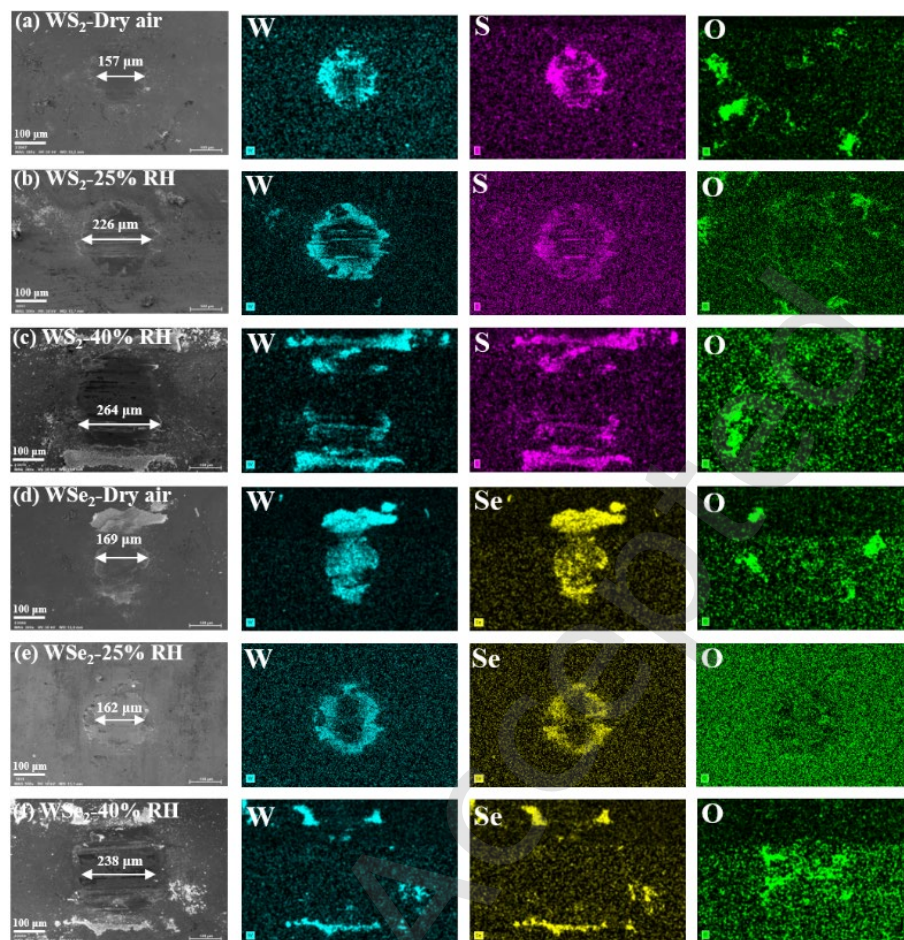


Figure 10. SEM images and EDS maps of the wear scars on steel ball surfaces during sliding against WS₂ at (a) dry air, (b) 25% RH, (c) 40% RH; and against WSe₂ at (d) dry air, (e) 25% RH, (f) 40% RH.

In alignment with the friction results, the wear scars on steel balls tested against the W–S–Se film showed the smallest diameters under both dry and humid conditions, indicating reduced sensitivity to moisture-induced degradation. As shown in Figure 11, the diameter of the wear scars in all the testing conditions were the smaller compared to those for both WS₂ and WSe₂, increased modestly from 141 μm in dry air to 152 μm and 211 μm in at 25% RH and 40% RH respectively. Similar to WSe₂, the W-S-Se transfer layer could be clearly identified from the W, S, Se elemental maps, while O enrichment was minimal. However, unlike WSe₂ tested at 40% RH where no transfer layer remained on the wear scar, the central region of the wear scars on steel sliding

against W-S-Se film retained a relatively more uniform transfer layer. These SEM/EDS analyses therefore indicate that the W-S-Se film is less sensitive to moisture adsorption than WS₂ and exhibits better tribological stability in humid environments than WSe₂, consistent with the friction and wear data in Figure 9.

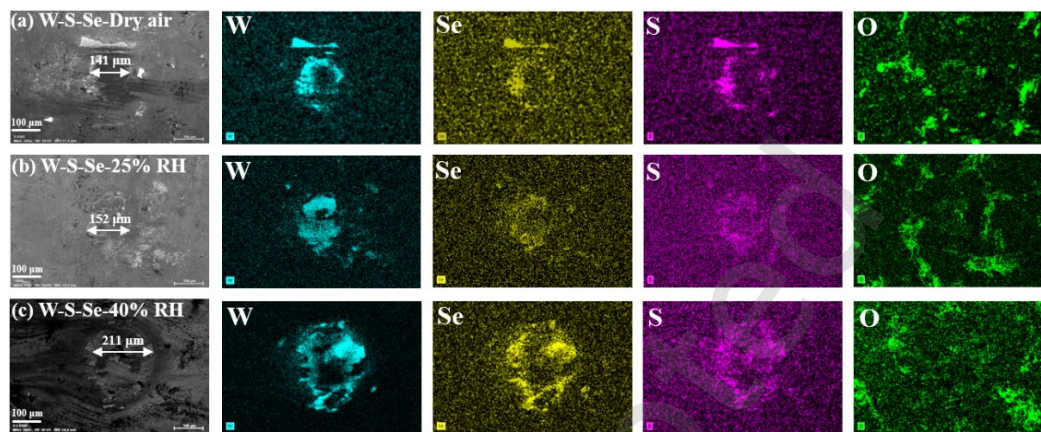


Figure 11. SEM images and EDS maps of the wear scars on steel ball surfaces sliding against W-S-Se at (a) dry air, (b) 25% RH, (c) 40% RH.

In order to understand the effect of water molecules on the compositional changes in WS₂, WSe₂ and W-S-Se films, i.e. potential oxidation of the film during the sliding tests, the films before and after sliding were analyzed by Raman spectroscopy. As shown in Figures 12(a, b), both the WS₂ and WSe₂ on wear tracks and on wear scars (transfer layers) exhibited the Raman peaks around 350 cm⁻¹ and 420 cm⁻¹ corresponding to the E_{2g}¹ and A_{1g} modes of WS₂ [54] and the peaks at 249 cm⁻¹ and 259 cm⁻¹ for the E_{2g}¹ and A_{1g} modes of WSe₂ [55], similar to those of the as deposited films. In comparison, Raman peaks for WS₂ and WSe₂ in W-S-Se film displayed in Figure 12 (c) were relatively weak in the as deposited state, but became more pronounced in the transfer layers on the wear tracks after sliding in both dry and humid environments. These changes in the Raman peaks of W-S-Se film could be attributed to more layered structures in the transfer layer. It is also noted that no significant Raman peaks of WO₃ or SeO₂ were observed on the wear scars or wear tracks of the WS₂, WSe₂, and W-S-Se films, indicating that while some oxidation cannot be excluded, it does not play a dominant role in the tribological response under humid conditions, consistent with DFT results showing that interfacial water adsorption governs the humidity effect. Taken

together, these Raman observations, along with the friction, wear, and transfer layer analyses, are consistent with the DFT results showing that Se substitution weakens water–film interactions, thereby reducing the humidity sensitivity of WS₂.

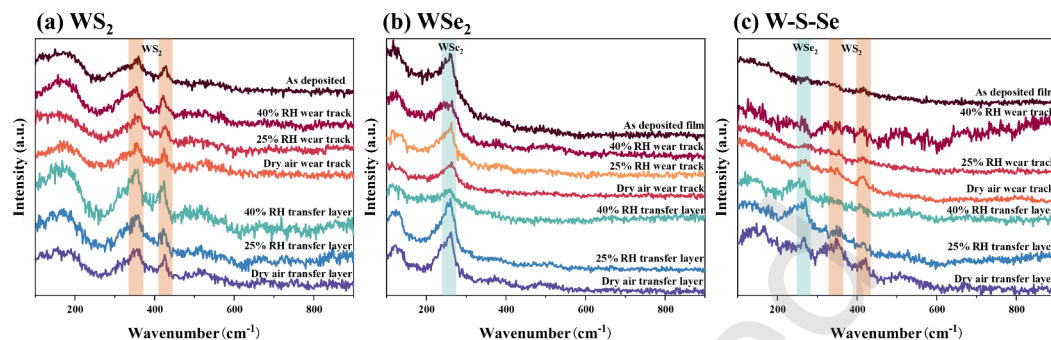


Figure 12. Raman spectra of wear scars and wear tracks in (a) WS₂, (b) WSe₂ and (c) W-S-Se, in comparison with the as deposited films.

The cross-sectional microstructure of the W-S-Se film before and after sliding tests was characterized by TEM using FIB lift out technique. As shown in Figures 13 (a, b), the W-S-Se film exhibited a typical columnar morphology with layers containing amorphous zones, similar to WS₂ and MoS₂ films deposited by magnetron sputtering [21, 24, 25]. This indicates that Se doping does not alter the fundamental growth mode of the film. Compared to the as deposited W-S-Se film where the layers were misoriented, the W-S-Se transfer layer displayed in Figure 13 (c) showed parallel re-oriented layers along the sliding direction. It is also noted that the amorphous zones presented in the as deposited film are barely observable in the transfer layer, which may be related to friction induced the crystallization of the amorphous TMD layers. This friction-induced structural reorganization dominates the interfacial characteristics where shear actually occurs, thereby significantly weakening the secondary influence of the initial crystallinity variations and associated defect differences on the friction behavior. The increased number of rings in the selected area electron diffraction image insert of Figure 13 (d) compared to Figure 13 (b) indicating that the transfer layer is more crystalline than the as-deposited film. Although it is challenging to directly distinguish WSe₂ layers from WS₂ in the transfer layer, the distinct difference of the layer spacings provide an approach. As shown in Figure 13 (d) that the transfer layers mainly consist of spacings of ~0.66 nm for WS₂ and ~0.75 nm for WSe₂. It should be

noted S substitution by Se may be widely present within the WS_2 layers, and vice versa. The shearing of these layers could be responsible for the improved performance of W-S-Se film. Furthermore, sliding induces local reorientation of the layered structure in the transfer layer, resulting in parallel-aligned lamellae along the sliding direction [24, 56]. This friction-induced lattice rearrangement effectively reproduces the atomic-scale anisotropic sliding behavior predicted by our DFT calculations, linking the observed microscopic structural evolution to the macroscopic tribological performance of the W-S-Se film.

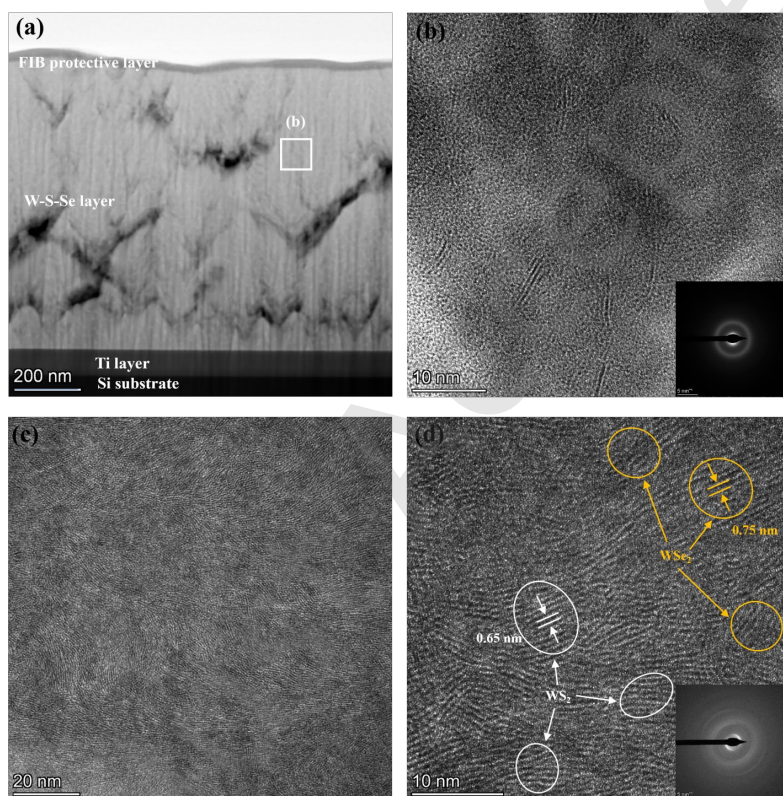


Figure 13. Cross-sectional TEM (a) and HR-TEM (b) of the as-deposited W-S-Se film, showing columnar growth with amorphous zones. (c, d) Cross-sectional HR-TEM of the transfer layer formed on the steel surface after sliding at 25% RH, revealing re-oriented parallel layers with reduced amorphous regions. Distinct lattice spacings of ~ 0.66 nm (WS_2) and ~ 0.75 nm (WSe_2) confirm Se incorporation, while sharper SAED rings indicate enhanced crystallinity of the transfer layer.

In summary, the worn surface analyses showed that oxidation of the three films is insignificant with no observable WO_3 detected by Raman and TEM. While the COF of WS_2 is known to depend strongly on humidity with WSe_2 being less sensitive to moisture and exhibiting lower friction the WSe_2 film nevertheless experienced more severe wear under higher humidity (40% RH), whereas Se-doped WS_2 balances both properties. The mechanism of friction increase by moisture for MoS_2 and WS_2 has been revealed by the authors' previous work, where adsorption of H_2O molecules at the interfaces would form $\text{O-H}\cdots\text{S}$ type of interfacial bonds that increased the E_B and impeded layer shearing [21, 24, 25]. In this work, DFT computations showed that although WSe_2 exhibits E_B values comparable to WS_2 its larger layer spacing and lower E_B upon H_2O adsorption correspond to weaker $\text{O-H}\cdots\text{Se}$ bonds and a lower sliding energy barrier. The W-S-Se films verified the effectiveness of Se doping, showing inhibited degradation of tribological performance under both low and high humidity levels. Sliding experiments confirmed that the W-S-Se film exhibited the lowest friction and wear across both dry and humid environments. The formation of parallel layers at the interface was similar to that observed in MoS_2 and WS_2 . Therefore, this study revealed the effectiveness of Se doping in inhibiting the formation of interfacial hydrogen bonds and improving the tribological performance.

4. Summary and Conclusions

Friction of transition metal dichalcogenides is known to increase with exposure to humidity due to adsorption of H_2O molecules at interfaces that form interfacial hydrogen bonding. Using DFT computation coupled with sliding experiments, this paper investigates the mechanism differentiating the tribological properties of WS_2 and WSe_2 under humid conditions and explores how Se doping into WS_2 can inhibit the formation of interfacial bonding for improved tribological performance in humid environments. The main conclusion drawn from this study are as follows:

1. DFT studies showed that WSe_2 has an E_B value comparable to WS_2 , but it increases slightly once with H_2O adsorbed at the interface, whereas that of WS_2 increases more significantly due to formation of $\text{O-H}\cdots\text{S}$ hydrogen bonds. The

interfacial sliding simulation showed that the sliding energy barrier of bilayer WSe₂ increases less than that of WS₂

2. The Se-doped W–S–Se film was prepared by magnetron sputtering using a WS₂/WSe₂ composite target, exhibited a higher hardness of 2.10 GPa than that of 0.95 GPa for WS₂, but lower than that of 3.69 GPa for WSe₂. Sliding friction revealed that the W-S-Se film showed the lowest friction and wear rates across both dry and humid environments, with 40% RH compared to pure WS₂ and WSe₂.

3. The W-S-Se transfer film exhibited layer parallel re-oriented lamellae with a layer spacing larger than that of pure WS₂. This coupled with the weaker interfacial O–H···Se hydrogen bonds compared to O–H···S, contributed to the enhanced tribological performance of the W-S-Se film in both dry and humid environments.

This study demonstrates that the friction and wear of TMDs in the presence of water are not fixed material properties but can be rationally designed by controlling hydrogen bond strength at the atomic level. The concept of doping to modulate interfacial water interactions opens a generic and powerful avenue for developing next-generation lubricants capable of operating reliably across a wide spectrum of environmental conditions.

Credit authorship contribution statement

Yuqian Huang: Investigation, Data curation, Writing original draft. Bin Zhang: Investigation, Writing original draft. Zhiwei wang: Investigation, Zaixiu Yang: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing-review & editing. Zhenwei Niu: Formal analysis. Kaixiong Gao: Funding acquisition. Junyan Zhang: Supervision. Goksel Hizli: Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing. Kürşat Kazmanlı: Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing. Ahmet Alpas: Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing, Software.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data Availability

Data will be made available on request.

Acknowledgments

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