

A highly linear and durable flexible strain sensor based on MoS₂ van der Waals films for soft machines

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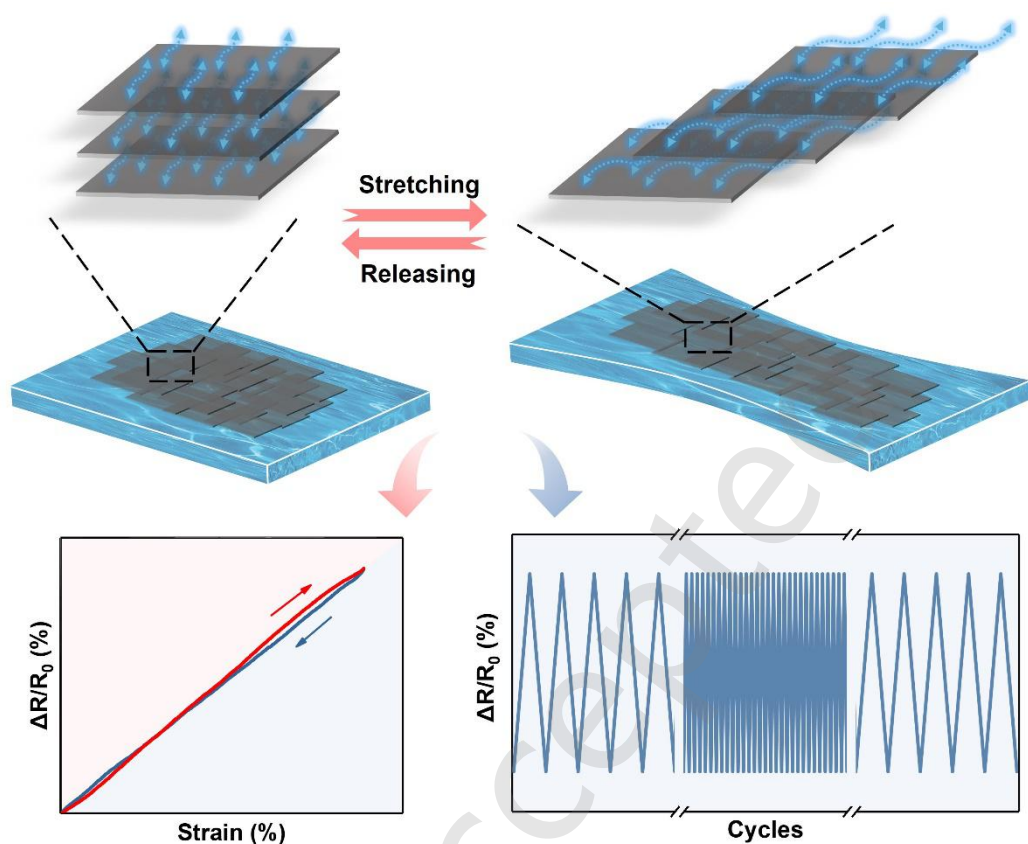
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A MoS₂ van der Waals film strain sensor leverages reversible interlayer sliding to deliver high linearity ($R^2 = 0.999$), low hysteresis, and high durability (>40,000 cycles), overcoming limitations of crack-based sensors. Its reliable performance enables precise soft machine applications, such as deformation monitoring and slip detection in a flexible gripper.

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ABSTRACT: Flexible strain sensors for soft and deformable mechanical systems are required to deliver high linearity and durability under repeated deformation, which remain challenging for crack-based sensing mechanisms. Here, we report a highly linear and durable flexible strain sensor based on molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂) van der Waals films. MoS₂ nanosheets were prepared via electrochemical intercalation exfoliation and assembled into conductive films dominated by interlayer van der Waals interactions, followed by surface treatment to enable strong bonding with a polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) substrate. Benefiting from a reversible interlayer sliding dominated sensing mechanism, the sensor exhibits high linearity ($R^2 = 0.999$) over a wide strain range, low hysteresis, fast response and recovery behavior, and excellent durability exceeding 40,000 loading–unloading cycles. Furthermore, the sensor shows reliable response under the temperature range from $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ to $80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, ensuring its applicability across different scenarios. As a representative demonstration, the sensor is integrated onto a flexible gripper to enable deformation monitoring and slip state discrimination. These results highlight the potential of interlayer sliding based strain sensors for advanced soft machine related applications.

KEYWORDS: flexible strain sensor, MoS₂ van der Waals films, interlayer sliding, durability, soft machines

1 Introduction

In recent years, driven by the rapid development of emerging information technologies such as big data, artificial intelligence, and the Internet of Things, electronic devices have been accelerating toward flexible, wearable, and intelligent architectures[1]. As core components for information perception and interaction, flexible sensors have demonstrated broad application prospects in healthcare monitoring[2-5], human–machine interfaces[6, 7], and deformable mechanical systems[8, 9].

In practical applications involving soft and deformable mechanical structures, such as soft grippers and soft robots, flexible strain sensors are not only responsible for detecting structural deformation but also play critical roles in state recognition, closed-loop control, and motion feedback[10, 11]. These application scenarios impose stringent requirements on sensing linearity, signal fidelity, and long term operational durability under repeated deformation[12, 13]. Consequently, the development of flexible strain sensors capable of delivering stable, repeatable, and quantitatively reliable signals under cyclic loading has become a key pathway toward advanced intelligent flexible systems.

Among various types of flexible sensors, resistive strain sensors have attracted extensive attention due to their simple device configuration, mature fabrication processes, and stable

electrical signals that are easy to acquire and process[14, 15]. Their working principle relies on converting external mechanical strain into measurable resistance variations through deformation-induced changes in conductive networks[16]. However, conventional bulk metallic or semiconducting conductive materials generally suffer from limited ductility, intrinsic brittleness, and poor fatigue resistance, which severely restrict their applicability in flexible devices subjected to large deformations and repeated loading cycles[17, 18]. To overcome these limitations, increasing research efforts have been devoted to low-dimensional conductive materials, such as carbon nanotubes[19, 20], graphene[21-24], MXenes[25-27], and metallic nanowires[28-30], which are commonly integrated with elastomeric substrates (e.g., PDMS, Ecoflex, or TPU) to construct stretchable flexible strain sensors. At the initial stage of stretching, the adjacent structural units of the low-dimensional materials can undergo relative sliding. However, owing to strong interfacial interactions such as hydrogen bonding, physical entanglement, or junction welding in common low-dimensional materials, the interunit sliding process is often constrained. As strain continues to increase, stress concentration accumulates locally, eventually leading to crack initiation and propagation, even rupture of conductive pathways.[31] Consequently, most reported resistive flexible strain sensors operate based on crack-dominated sensing mechanism. Although such crack

formation can effectively amplify resistance variation and improve strain sensitivity, the random initiation and evolution of cracks during stretching often lead to segmented or nonlinear electrical responses, thereby compromising quantitative accuracy and repeatability. For example, Lee et al.[32] developed a laser-induced graphene-based strain sensor fabricated via ZnO nanoparticle-assisted photothermal enhancement, in which microcracks were generated and propagated during stretching. The gauge factor (GF) increases from approximately 146 at 4% strain to 1214 at 10% strain, accompanied by a distinctly nonlinear and piecewise resistance-strain relationship. Yang et al.[33] reported a MXene strain sensor modulated by Ag-thiolate interactions to control the crack structure, which exhibits a significant nonlinear resistance-strain response. Moreover, cracks are typically difficult to fully recover during repeated loading-unloading cycles, which results in irreversible structural damage in conductive layers, increased hysteresis, and degradation of cycling stability.[25, 34] These issues have become major bottlenecks for the long term reliable operation of high-performance flexible strain sensors.

In contrast, strain response mechanisms dominated by interlayer sliding provide an alternative strategy to address these challenges.[35] By transforming macroscopic mechanical deformation into relative sliding between microscopic conductive units, interlayer sliding effectively alleviates stress concentration within conductive layers and suppresses crack initiation and propagation[36]. This mechanism enables continuous, reversible, and highly linear resistance responses while mitigating material fatigue and structural degradation,

offering a promising route toward high-precision and durable flexible strain sensors.[37]

To realize such a sliding-dominated sensing mechanism, the choice of conductive material is of critical importance. Recent studies have shown that certain inorganic semiconductors can exhibit pronounced plastic deformation enabled by crystallographic slip or interlayer sliding.[38] However, plastic deformation in inorganic semiconductors that relies on defect-mediated dislocation motion or lattice rearrangement often exhibits irreversible electrical behavior under mechanical deformation.[39] Metallic nanowire networks may also allow relative sliding in the absence of junction welding, but their high aspect ratios result in limited changes in conductive pathway geometry under strain, leading to small resistance variation and limited sensitivity.[40] In this context, layered van der Waals semiconductors exhibit distinct advantages.[41] Among them, molybdenum disulfide (MoS_2), a representative layered transition metal dichalcogenide, has been experimentally demonstrated to sustain deformation dominated by interlayer sliding rather than brittle fracture.[42] MoS_2 nanosheets can be readily produced via scalable solution-based exfoliation and assembled into large-area van der Waals thin films.[43] Owing to weak interlayer van der Waals interactions, such films enable reversible interlayer sliding under applied strain.[44] As a result, MoS_2 van der Waals thin films can accommodate large mechanical deformation without fracture, endowing flexible strain sensors with continuous, highly linear resistance responses, enhanced durability, and excellent structural stability under cyclic loading.

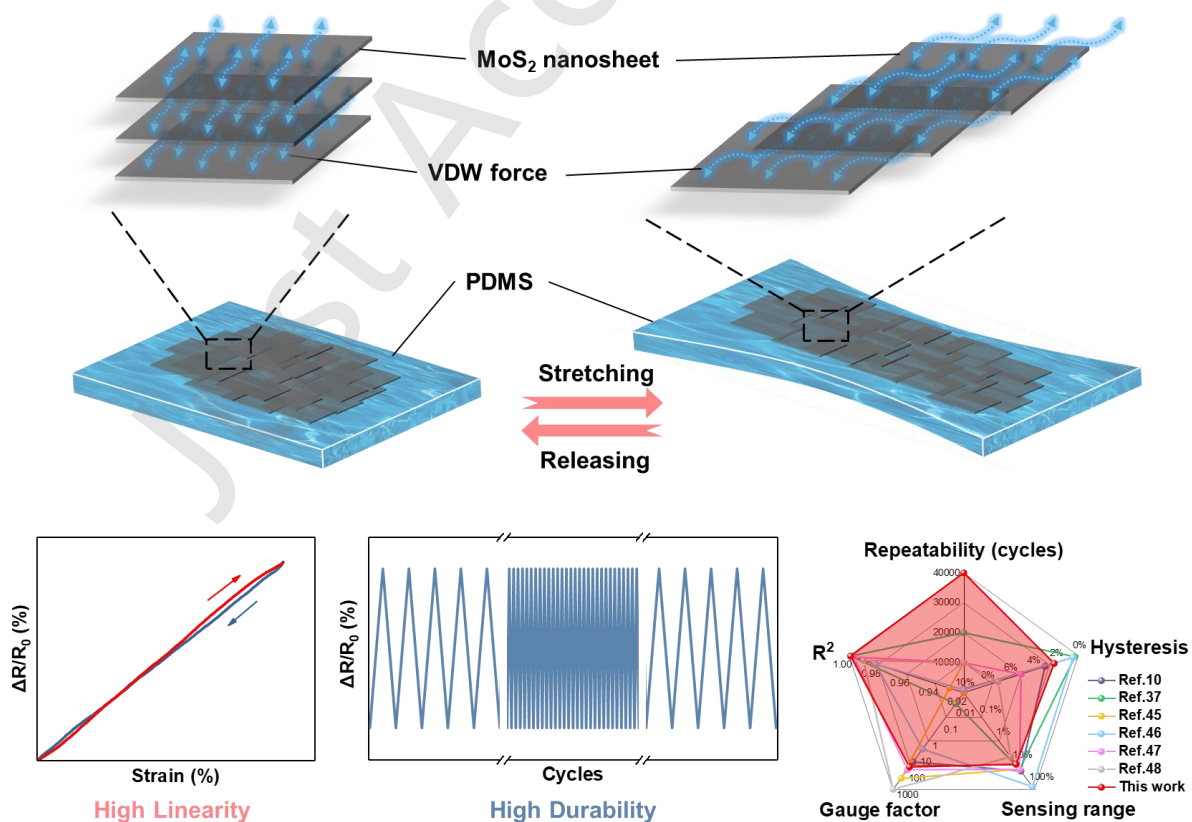


Figure 1 Design concept and overall performance of the flexible strain sensor based on MoS_2 van der Waals films.

Herein, we report a crack-free flexible strain sensor based on MoS_2 van der Waals films (as shown in Figure 1). MoS_2 crystals

were exfoliated via an electrochemical intercalation approach to obtain conductive thin films without interlayer chemical

bonding, in which the nanosheets are assembled through van der Waals interactions. After surface treatment by oxygen plasma, the films were integrated with a PDMS substrate through a facile transfer process to construct flexible strain sensors. Distinct from crack-based sensing mechanisms, the strain response of the proposed sensor is governed by reversible interlayer sliding, which results in a highly linear and stable electromechanical behavior with effectively suppressed hysteresis under repeated deformation. Moreover, compared to the recently published result,[10, 37, 45-48] our strain sensor achieves a favorable balance among key sensing metrics, including gauge factor, sensing range, linearity, hysteresis, and repeatability (Table S1 in the ESM). More importantly, this work establishes interlayer sliding as a core sensing paradigm, which provides a generalizable design principle for realizing highly linear and durable flexible strain sensors. Leveraging this comprehensive sensing performance, the sensor was further integrated into a flexible gripper, which enables reliable identification of grasping states and accurate discrimination of objects with different sizes. These results demonstrate the promising potential of the proposed flexible strain sensor in soft mechanical systems and suggest its applicability in future soft robot-related applications.

2 Results and discussion

2.1 Structural and Electrical Characterization

We fabricated the strain sensor using a facile method, as shown in Figure S1 in the Electronic Supplementary Material (ESM). The nanosheets were prepared via electrochemical intercalation exfoliation, with the crystals expanding and being loosely structured (Figure S2 in the ESM). Figure 2a shows the transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image of an individual MoS₂ nanosheet. The relatively low contrast indicates its ultrathin nature. The high-resolution TEM image in Figure 2b reveals clear lattice fringes with an interplanar spacing of 0.28 nm, corresponding to the (100) plane of 2H-MoS₂. The inset selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern displays hexagonally symmetric diffraction spots indexed to the (100) and (110) planes, confirming the preserved 2H crystalline phase of the exfoliated nanosheets. These results are further corroborated by UV-vis absorption (Figure S3 in the ESM). Atomic force microscopy (AFM) characterization (Figure 2c) shows that the MoS₂ nanosheets possess an average thickness of approximately 4 nm, corresponding to a few-layer structure.

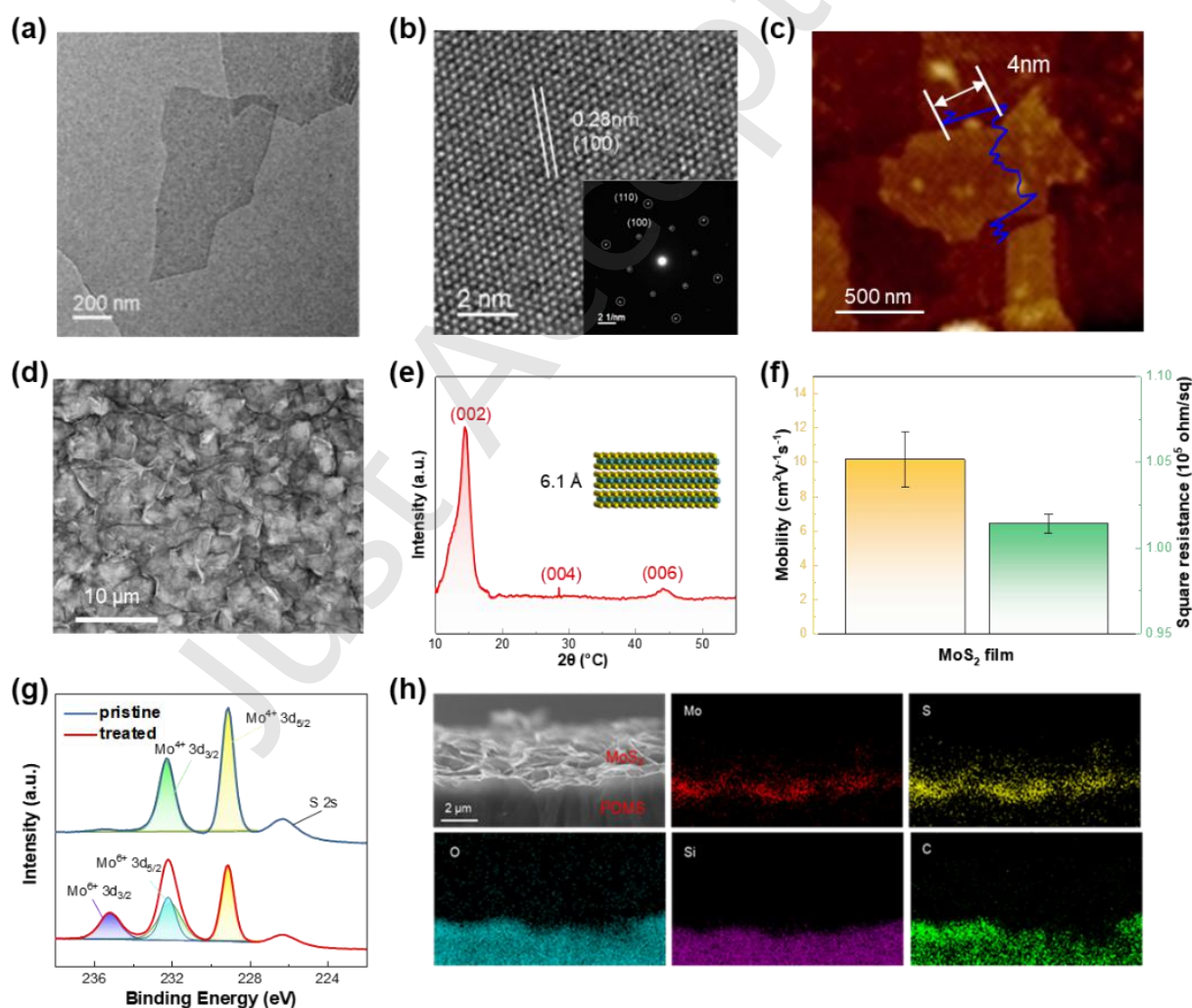


Figure 2 Structural and interfacial characterization of MoS₂ sensing layers. (a) TEM image of an exfoliated MoS₂ nanosheet. (b) High-resolution TEM of the MoS₂ nanosheet, the inset shows the SAED pattern. (c) AFM image and height profile of a MoS₂ nanosheet with an average thickness of ~4 nm. (d) SEM image of the MoS₂ thin film. (e) XRD pattern exhibiting a pronounced (002) peak with an interlayer spacing of ~6.1 Å. (f) Mobility and square resistance of the MoS₂ thin film. (g) XPS spectra and elemental analysis comparing pristine and plasma-treated MoS₂. (h) Cross-sectional SEM image and corresponding EDS elemental mappings of the MoS₂/PDMS composite.

Uniform and crack-free MoS₂ thin films were subsequently fabricated via vacuum filtration. The scanning electron

microscopy (SEM) image in Figure 2d reveals a dense and continuous stacked nanosheet morphology, indicative of effective film formation. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of the MoS₂ film (Figure 2e) exhibits a pronounced (002) diffraction peak, from which an interlayer spacing of ~6.1 Å is derived, close to that of pristine bulk MoS₂. This result indicates the absence of interlayer covalent bonding and confirms that the nanosheets are predominantly assembled through van der Waals interactions. Electrical characterization (Figure 2f) shows that the film possesses a sheet resistance of approximately $1.01 \times 10^5 \Omega \text{ sq}^{-1}$ and a carrier mobility of $\sim 10.16 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, comparable to values reported for individual MoS₂ nanosheets, suggesting that interlayer charge transport is not significantly hindered.

To enhance interfacial coupling with the elastomeric substrate, the MoS₂ film was subjected to oxygen plasma surface treatment. As shown in Figure 2g and Figure S4 in the ESM, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was performed on the pristine and treated film surfaces. The peaks of Mo 3d can be divided into Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{3/2} (232.3 eV) / Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{5/2} (229.1 eV) and Mo⁶⁺ 3d_{3/2} (235.2 eV) / Mo⁶⁺ 3d_{5/2} (232.2 eV). [49] After the treatment, the Mo⁶⁺ peak emerged, while S 2s peak decreased and O 1s peak increased. Moreover, XPS combined with argon ion etching was used to characterize the treated film surfaces. The tests shown in Figure S5 in the ESM indicate that the Mo⁶⁺ peak weakened as the etch depth increased. The above results demonstrate the formation of an oxidized surface layer with a thickness of approximately 5–7 nm and the introduction of abundant oxygen-containing functional groups. This modification effectively converts the weak van der Waals interaction between the MoS₂ film and PDMS into strong interfacial bonding. It should be emphasized that the treatment is limited to the film surface and does not extend into the bulk of the film, thus preserving the intrinsic van der Waals interactions that govern the overall film structure. In addition, cross-sectional SEM and elemental mapping images (Figure 2h) further confirm a compact, void-free interface, indicative of robust interfacial integration.

2.2 Sensing Performance Analysis

The sensing performance of the MoS₂-based strain sensors was then evaluated. Figure 3a shows the relative resistance change ($\Delta R/R_0$) of the sensors as a function of applied tensile strain. The gauge factor (GF), which reflects the sensitivity of the strain sensor, is defined as the slope of the $\Delta R/R_0$ -strain curve [50]:

$$GF = \frac{\Delta R/R_0}{\varepsilon} \quad (1)$$

where R_0 is the initial resistance and ΔR is the change in resistance under applied strain. As shown in Figure 3a, sensors fabricated from MoS₂ nanosheets obtained under different processing conditions exhibit distinct sensitivities and linear sensing ranges. Specifically, the d_{5min}-C_{1-3k}-MoS₂, d_{10min}-C_{3-5k}-MoS₂, and d_{30min}-C_{5-8k}-MoS₂ sensors (where d denotes the ultrasonication time and c denotes the centrifugation speed range) show GF values of 1.85 (0–30%), 7.19 (0–24.1%), and 40.87 (0–10.8%), respectively. With increasing ultrasonication time and centrifugation speed, the lateral size of the nanosheets decreases from 1.55 μm to 0.52 μm (Figure S6 in the ESM), leading to enhanced sensitivity but a reduced detectable strain range. To balance sensitivity and stretchability, MoS₂ nanosheets with an intermediate lateral size of

approximately 800 nm (d_{10min}-C_{3-5k}-MoS₂) were selected for subsequent studies, while the sensor exhibited the highest linearity ($R^2 = 0.999$). After fixing the lateral size of the MoS₂ nanosheets, the effect of film thickness on sensing performance was investigated. The film thickness was tuned by varying the deposited mass during vacuum filtration. As the filtration volume at a fixed concentration increased from 5 mL to 15 mL, the sensitivity of the strain sensor gradually decreased, whereas the linear sensing range expanded (Figure S7 in the ESM). This trend can be attributed to the increased number of parallel conductive pathways and the suppressed interlayer sliding in thicker films. An intermediate film thickness at a filtration volume of 10 mL provides a balanced combination of sensitivity and stretchability and was therefore selected for subsequent device fabrication.

Beyond sensitivity and linear sensing range, hysteresis is another critical parameter for flexible strain sensors, especially for applications requiring accurate quantitative strain analysis and long-term cyclic operation. The hysteresis phenomenon describes the difference of electrical signal output in flexible sensors at same strain during loading and unloading, which limits measurement accuracy and repeatability in real-time sensing systems. Therefore, low hysteresis is essential for ensuring reliable and stable signal output. To quantitatively evaluate the hysteresis behavior of the strain sensors, the degree of hysteresis (DH) is introduced and defined as [50, 51]:

$$DH = \frac{A_{\text{stretching}} - A_{\text{releasing}}}{A_{\text{stretching}}} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

where $A_{\text{stretching}}$ and $A_{\text{releasing}}$ denote the areas enclosed by the stretching and releasing curves, respectively. A lower DH value corresponds to weaker hysteresis and better reversibility of the electrical response. As shown in Figure 3b, the interfacially treated sensor exhibits nearly overlapping stretching–releasing trajectories with a low hysteresis (DH = 2.10%), indicating highly reversible electromechanical behavior. In contrast, the untreated sensor displays pronounced hysteresis (DH = 26.72%), together with lower

sensitivity (GF = 5.15) and inferior linearity ($R^2 = 0.993$), which can be attributed to irreversible deformation induced by interfacial mismatch. These results highlight the critical role of interfacial optimization in suppressing hysteresis and enhancing signal reversibility.

Moreover, the sensor exhibits a minimum detectable limit of 0.1% (Figure S8 in the ESM), highlighting its ability to resolve small strains. As shown in Figure 3c, the sensor exhibits a stable electrical response with good symmetry under step-strain loading. The applied tensile strain is increased stepwise from 0% to 15% and subsequently released back to 0% with identical strain increments. During both the loading and unloading processes, the resistance responses corresponding to the same strain levels remain nearly unchanged. This highly symmetric stepwise response indicates excellent reversibility of the sensor within the tested strain range. Under a rapid strain of 0.25%, the response and recovery times are 100 ms and 90 ms, respectively (Figure 3d), confirming fast electromechanical response characteristics. Furthermore, stable resistance responses are observed under various applied strain and loading frequencies. As shown in Figure 3e, the sensor exhibits highly repeatable resistance responses under different strains. As the strain increases, the corresponding

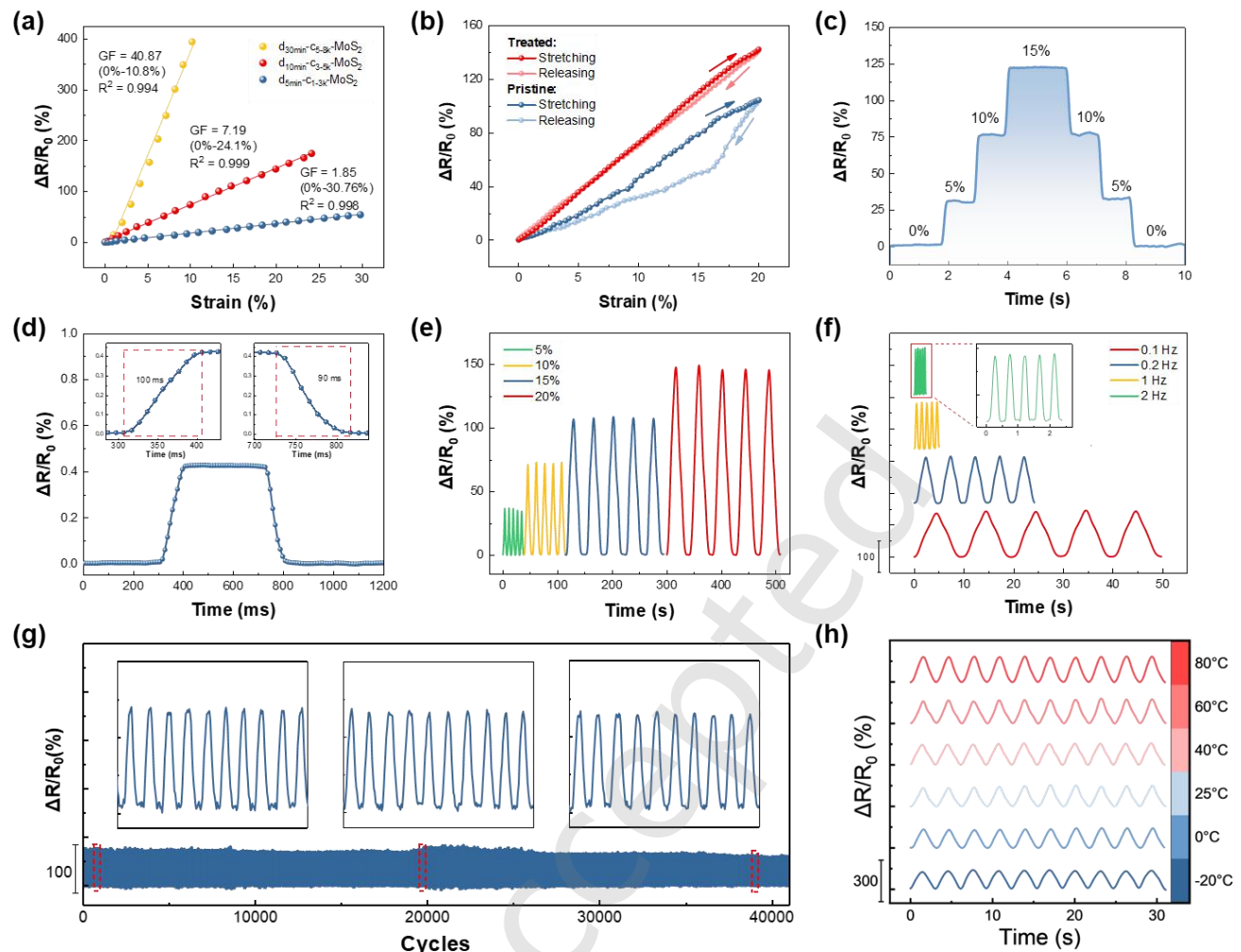


Figure 3 Electromechanical sensing performance of the flexible strain sensor based on MoS₂ van der Waals films. (a) Relative resistance change as a function of applied tensile strain. (b) Stretching and releasing curves of interfacially treated and untreated sensors. (c) Stepwise strain response under incremental tensile deformation. (d) Response and recovery behavior under a small applied strain. (e) Relative resistance responses under different applied strain. (f) Relative resistance responses under different loading frequencies ($\epsilon = 20\%$). (g) Cyclic loading–unloading stability over repeated deformation ($\epsilon = 10\%$). (h) Resistance response under different ambient temperatures ($\epsilon = 20\%$).

relative resistance change increases proportionally, while the response waveforms remain regular and stable. Figure 3f presents the relative resistance change responses of the sensor under a constant strain of 10% at different frequencies ranging from 0.1 to 2 Hz, which shows consistent amplitudes and well-defined waveforms. These results indicate that the sensor maintains a robust and clearly distinguishable electromechanical response over a wide range of strains and loading frequencies.

Cyclic tests (Figure 3g) further demonstrate the excellent mechanical robustness and electrical stability of our strain sensor. Under continuous loading–unloading cycles, the sensor maintains a highly stable relative resistance signal over more than 40,000 cycles without observable performance degradation, indicating that the conductive network and interfacial structure remain intact under repeated mechanical deformation. Notably, such an ultrahigh cycling endurance underscores the exceptional durability of the sensor under repeated mechanical deformation, which is essential for long-term operation in soft machines and wearable applications. For comparison, the cyclic stability of the untreated sensor was also evaluated under the same strain (Figure S9 in the ESM). In contrast to the interfacially treated sensor, the untreated

sensor exhibits a pronounced degradation in cyclic stability, characterized by a progressively reduced resistance change amplitude and increased signal fluctuations during repeated loading–unloading cycles. This behavior can be attributed to the insufficient interfacial adhesion between the conductive layer and the substrate, which leads to irreversible interlayer sliding and loss of effective conductive pathways. These results demonstrate that interfacial optimization plays a critical role in enhancing the cyclic stability and signal repeatability of the strain sensor. In addition, the strain sensor maintains reliable operation over a temperature range from −20 °C to 80 °C (Figure 3h), indicating good environmental adaptability. The minor difference in the amplitude of resistance change is mainly attributed to the combined effects of MoS₂'s negative temperature coefficient of resistance and the thermal expansion of PDMS.[52] To further investigate the thermal robustness of the sensor, temperature cycling tests were conducted by alternating the temperature between −20 °C and room temperature 25 °C. As shown in Figure S10 in the ESM, the sensor exhibits stable and repeatable resistance responses over multiple temperature cycles. This result indicates that the sensing performance is not significantly affected by temperature variations within this range.

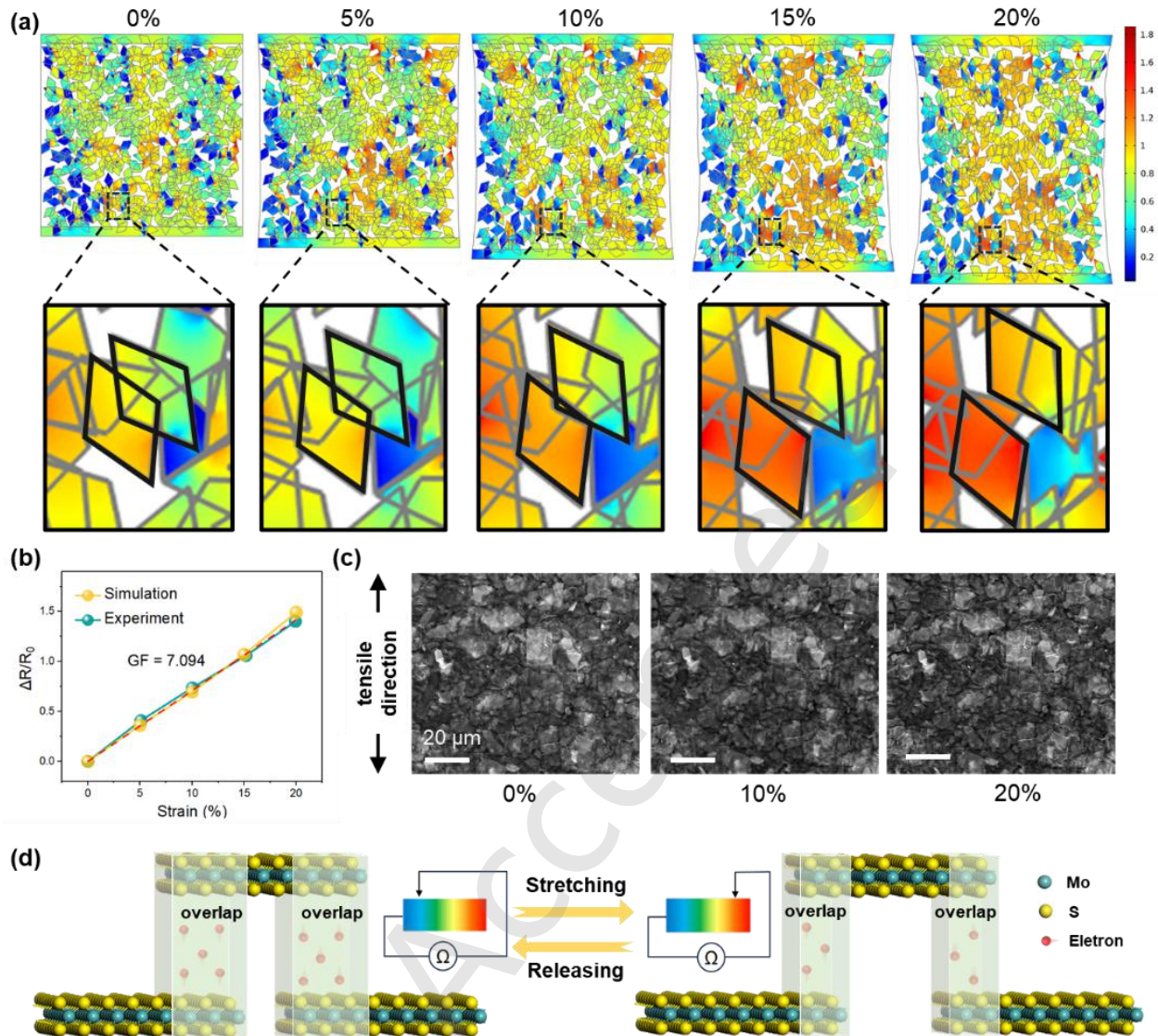


Figure 4 Sensing mechanism of the flexible strain sensor based on MoS₂ van der Waals films. (a) Finite element simulation analysis of current density distribution. (b) Relative resistance variation curves of simulation and experiment. (c) SEM images of the sensors under various strain: 0%, 10%, and 20%. (d) Schematic illustration of "Nanoscale Sliding Variable Resistor" model.

2.3 Sensing Mechanism Analysis

To clarify the relationship between the macroscopic performance and the microscopic structure of our flexible strain sensor, thereby deepening the understanding of its sensing mechanism, we performed finite element simulation analysis coupling electric field and solid mechanics field. Herein, we constructed a model representing layers of stacked MoS₂ nanosheets on PDMS substrate. Figure 4a shows the simulated current density distribution within the sensor model under tensile strains ranging from 0% to 20%. As the strain increases, local slip occurs between the nanosheets, reducing the overlapping area of adjacent nanosheets and consequently increasing the overall current density. Figure 4b presents the simulated relative resistance change ($\Delta R/R_0$) as a function of strain. The results show a linear increase in relative resistance with a constant gauge factor. The fitting curve agrees well with the experimental data, strongly supporting the premise that the response of our flexible strain sensor is governed by the interlayer sliding mechanism of the MoS₂ nanosheets. In situ SEM observations of the sensor surface under strains up to 20% (Figure 4c) reveal no discernible crack formation or propagation,

thereby excluding crack-driven mechanisms and offering additional support for the interlayer sliding sensing mechanism. To visualize this mechanism, we conceptualize it as a "Nanoscale Sliding Variable Resistor" model (Figure 4d). When an external force stretches the PDMS substrate, the strong interfacial bonding between the substrate and the MoS₂ film effectively transfers the substrate deformation to the nanosheet layers. The stretching force is then transmitted layer-by-layer through the stacked nanosheets. The relatively weak van der Waals forces between adjacent nanosheets induce interlayer sliding upon stretching, reducing their overlapping area. Consequently, fewer electrons migrate across the nanosheet interfaces, which cause the interlayer contact resistance to increase. As this process occurs across multiple stacked nanosheet layers, the macroscopic resistance increases as well. Upon release of the external force, the nanosheets reversibly slide back to their initial positions so that good interlayer contact is restored and the resistance returns to its original state. This "Nanoscale Sliding Variable Resistor" mechanism leverages changes in the microscopic conductive pathway contact area to achieve a highly reversible electrical

response in the macroscopic resistance signal of the thin film.

It should be noted that the present analyses focus on the linear sensing range, where interlayer sliding between MoS₂ nanosheets remains reversible. Beyond this range, excessive strain may lead to irreversible nanosheet slippage, interfacial delamination, or crack formation, resulting in a pronounced increase in resistance. Such failure behaviors are beyond the scope of the current study and will be investigated in future work.

2.4 Application in Soft Mechanical Systems

To demonstrate practical applicability, the strain sensor was integrated onto a two-finger flexible gripper as a representative soft mechanical system. Figure 5a presents the overall circuit schematic of the actuated flexible gripper system. The electrical signals from the strain sensor are collected by the electrochemical workstation. The stepper motor is installed at the bottom of the flexible gripper and is controlled and adjusted by the motor driver connected to the microcontroller, allowing precise adjustment of the gripping motion. The gripping angle of the gripper can be controlled by adjusting the step distance of the screw. Figure 5b shows photographs of the flexible gripper. The flexible strain sensor is firmly fixed on the outer surface of the two-finger electrically driven gripper. As illustrated in the right image, bending deformation occurs during object grasping,

during which the sensor undergoes tensile strain synchronously with the gripper fingers.

Based on this configuration, an intelligent closed-loop grasping system capable of discriminating grasping states and identifying objects of different sizes was developed, as schematically illustrated in Figure 5c. The grasping process starts with the gripper opening to a predefined angle to ensure object enclosure, followed by grasping and lifting using a small closing angle (i.e., step distance). During this process, the strain sensor monitors gripper deformation in real time and outputs electrical signals for analysis. If the resistance signal rises to a peak and subsequently exhibits pronounced fluctuations followed by a continuous decrease, the grasping event is identified as slipping. In this case, the gripper returns to its initial open state and applies a larger closing angle for a new grasping attempt. In contrast, if the resistance signal rises to a peak and remains nearly stable, the grasp is identified as stable, and the object is held in a lifted state, completing the grasping cycle. To achieve this objective, the strain sensor is required to exhibit high linearity, low hysteresis, and stable signal output under cyclic deformation, since ambiguous or delayed signal responses may lead to incorrect grasping decisions. The strain sensor developed in our work satisfies these requirements, thereby enabling robust grasping-state discrimination and size perception in the proposed system.

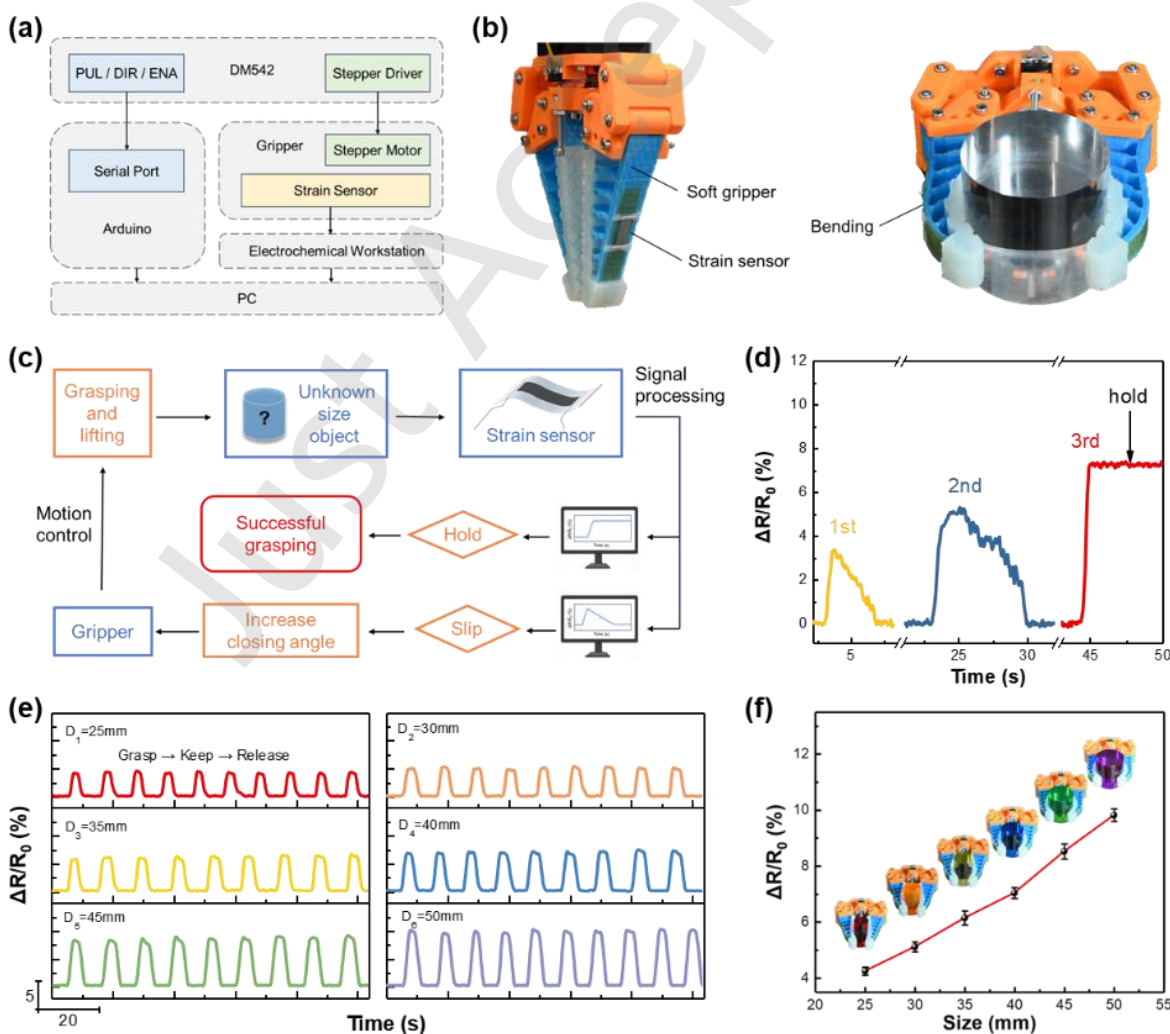


Figure 5 Application of the strain sensor in a flexible gripper system. (a) Circuit schematic of the flexible gripper and signal acquisition system. (b) Photographs of the two-finger flexible gripper integrated with the strain sensor. (c) Workflow diagram of the intelligent closed-loop grasping system based on

strain sensing. (d) Resistance response during repeated grasping of the same object. (e) Relative resistance responses during repeated grasping and releasing of cylindrical objects with different diameters. (f) Peak relative resistance changes extracted from multiple grasping cycles for objects of different sizes.

Movie S1 shows three consecutive grasping attempts of the same object. The first two attempts result in slipping, which is identified by pronounced resistance fluctuations exceeding the baseline noise level followed by a continuous and monotonic decrease in resistance, indicating relative motion between the gripper and the object. In contrast, during the third attempt, the resistance signal remains stable after reaching its peak, indicating successful and stable grasping (Figure 5d). Under the condition that stable grasping is ensured, the gripper was operated with identical opening and closing angles to identify objects of different sizes. Figure 5f shows the resistance responses during grasping of cylindrical objects with different diameters (25 mm, 30 mm, 35 mm, 40 mm, 45 mm and 50 mm). The resistance variations remain highly consistent over multiple grasping–releasing cycles, demonstrating good repeatability. Based on the peak resistance changes extracted from ten grasping events, Figure 5e reveals that the strain sensor can clearly distinguish object sizes through deformation-induced resistance variations, even without explicit visual or geometric feedback.

Such repeatable resistance responses based on strain sensing show strong potential for applications in soft robotic manipulation, such as adaptive gripping of fragile objects, sorting based on size perception and human–robot interaction tasks. In particular, the ability to infer grasping stability and object size from deformation feedback makes the proposed sensor well suited for soft machines operating in complex environments and uncertain object properties. Benefiting from the crack-free MoS₂ van der Waals film and the interlayer sliding–dominated sensing mechanism, the sensor presented in this work shows a highly linear and stable electrical response under repeated deformation. This feature effectively reduces signal fluctuation and drift during practical operation, which is critical for reliable motion monitoring and closed-loop control applications. In addition, the outstanding cycling durability ensures consistent performance during long-term use, highlighting the strong potential of this sensor for practical flexible and wearable systems.

3 Conclusions

In this study, we developed a flexible strain sensor based on MoS₂ van der Waals films, which exhibits a rare combination of high linearity, low hysteresis, and outstanding durability under cyclic deformation. Enabled by reversible interlayer sliding and robust interfacial bonding with PDMS, the sensor maintains stable electrical performance over more than 40,000 cycles, effectively mitigating fatigue-induced degradation commonly observed in crack-based sensing mechanisms. Using a flexible gripper as a representative soft mechanical system, the practical sensing capability of the device is demonstrated. This work establishes interlayer sliding as an effective design principle for durable flexible strain sensors and suggests promising opportunities for their application in advanced soft machines and deformable electronic systems.

4 Experimental Section

4.1 Materials

Molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂, single crystal) was purchased

from SixCarbon Technology Shenzhen. Tetraheptylammonium bromide (THAB), acetonitrile (ACN), polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP), N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF), and isopropyl alcohol (IPA) were obtained from commercial suppliers and used as received. Polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS, Sylgard 184) was purchased from Dow Corning.

4.2 Synthesis of MoS₂ Nanosheets

MoS₂ nanosheets were prepared via electrochemical intercalation exfoliation followed by liquid cascade centrifugation. Briefly, 150 mg of THAB was dissolved in 30 mL of acetonitrile to serve as the electrolyte. A MoS₂ single crystal was used as the cathode and graphite as the anode. An intercalation voltage of −8 V was applied for 2 h. The intercalated crystals were transferred into a PVP/DMF solution and ultrasonicated for 5–30 min. The resulting dispersion was centrifuged and repeatedly washed with IPA to obtain uniformly dispersed MoS₂ nanosheets.

4.3 Deposition of MoS₂ Films

A defined volume of MoS₂ nanosheet dispersion with a concentration of 0.1 mg mL^{−1} was vacuum-filtered to form a conductive MoS₂ film. The film was cut into rectangular strips (0.5 cm × 1.5 cm) and subjected to oxygen plasma surface treatment at 50 W for 5 s to enhance surface reactivity.

4.4 Fabrication of Strain Sensors

PDMS prepolymer and curing agent were mixed at a mass ratio of 10:1 and degassed under vacuum. The mixture was partially cured at 80 °C for 15 min to obtain a tacky surface. The plasma-treated MoS₂ film was laminated onto the pre-cured PDMS and further cured at 80 °C for 1 h. After demolding, electrical leads were attached to both ends of the MoS₂ film using silver paste and encapsulated with silicone rubber to complete the fabrication of the flexible strain sensor.

4.5 Characterization and Measurements

The crystal phase structure of the nanosheets was characterized using a field-emission transmission electron microscope (FE-TEM, Tecnai G2 F20, FEI Electron Optics, Netherlands). The morphology of the nanosheets and the films was examined by field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM, SU8200, Hitachi, Japan) and atomic force microscopy (AFM, NTEGRA, NT-MDT, Russia). The concentration of the nanosheet dispersions was determined using a UV–visible spectrophotometer (Lambda 1050, PerkinElmer, USA). The elemental composition and chemical states of the films were analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, K-Alpha, Thermo Scientific, USA). The interlayer spacing of the films was measured using an X-ray diffractometer (XRD, D8 DISCOVER DAVINCI, Bruker AXS GmbH, Germany). The electrical properties of the films were evaluated using a Hall measurement system (Accent HL5500). The resistance variation of the devices was measured using a portable precision resistance/capacitance meter (True Box RC01, LinkZill, China) and an electrochemical workstation (PGSTAT302N, Autolab, Switzerland).

Electronic Supplementary Material: Supplementary material

(Manufacturing process and supplementary characterization data of MoS₂ van der Waals film strain sensors) is available in the online version of this article at <https://doi.org/10.26599/NR.2026.94908860>.

Data availability

All data needed to support the conclusions in the paper are presented in the manuscript and the Electronic Supplementary Material. Additional data related to this paper may be requested from the corresponding author upon request.

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Declaration of competing interest

All the contributing authors report no conflict of interests in this work.

Author contribution statement

X. X. Z.: Data curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology, project administration, validation, visualization, writing – original draft. H. O.: Data curation, methodology, software. L. J. S.: Funding acquisition, project administration, supervision. Y. C.: Funding acquisition, project administration, supervision. J. S.: Funding acquisition, project administration, supervision. R. R. W.: Conceptualization, funding acquisition, methodology, project administration, resources, supervision, writing – review & editing. All the authors have approved the final manuscript.

Use of AI statement

None.

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A highly linear and durable flexible strain sensor based on MoS₂ van der Waals films for soft machines

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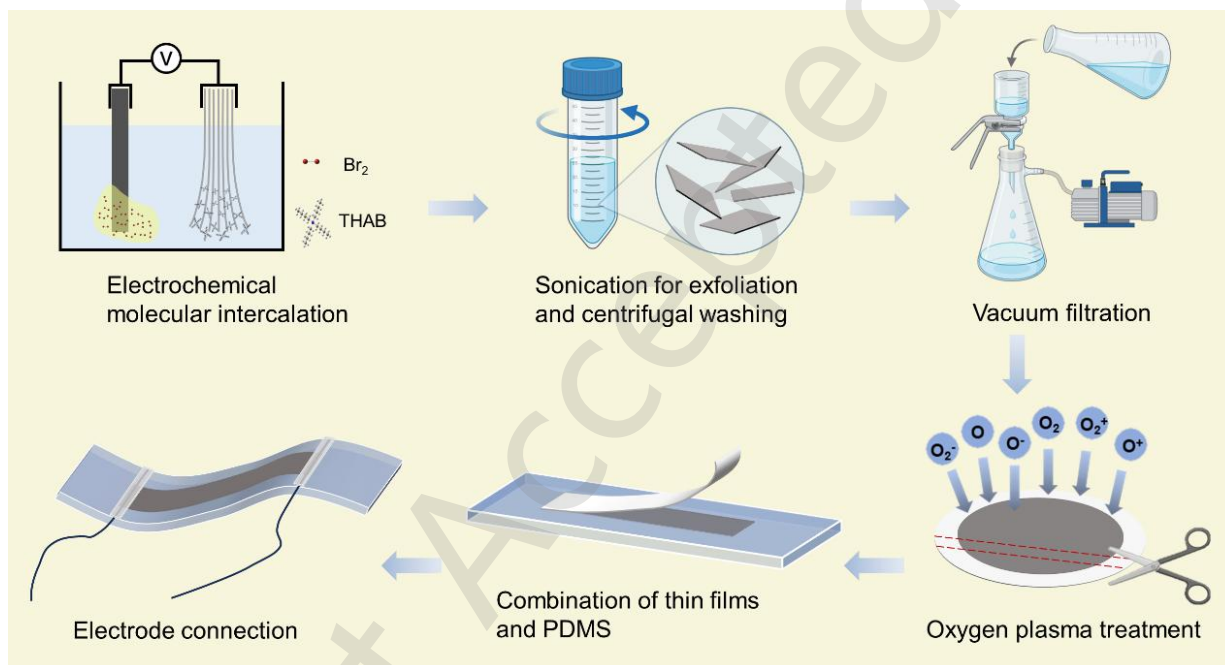


Figure S1 The manufacturing and preparation process of the strain sensor.

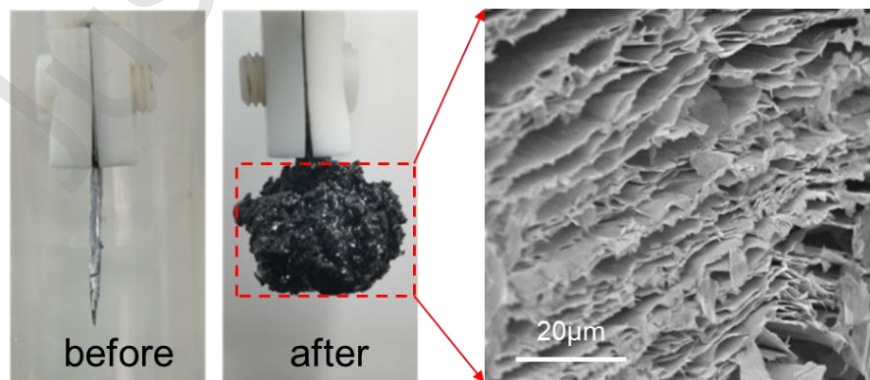


Figure S2 Photos of MoS₂ crystal before and after intercalation.

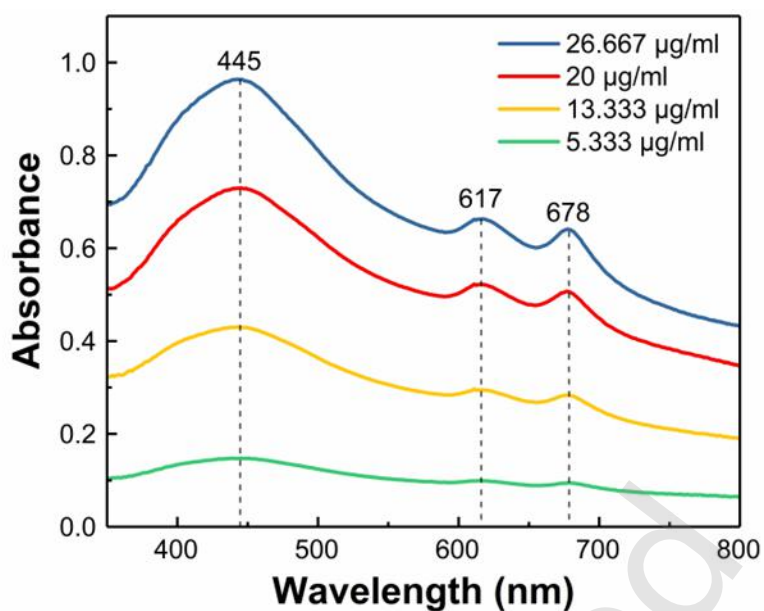


Figure S3 UV-vis absorption of MoS₂ nanosheet dispersion solutions with different concentrations.

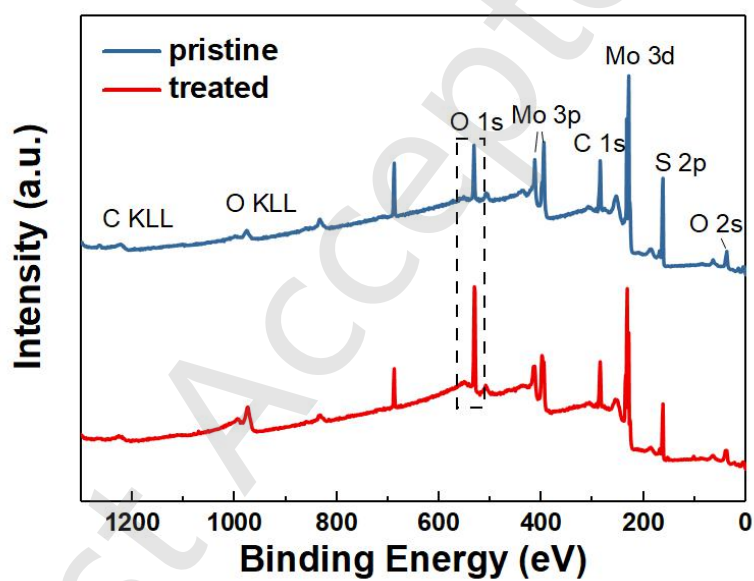


Figure S4 XPS spectra and elemental analysis comparing pristine and plasma-treated MoS₂.

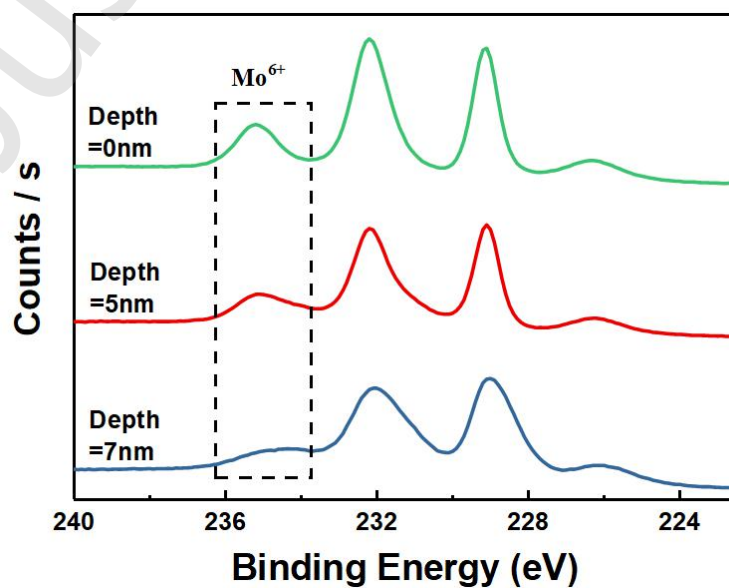


Figure S5 XPS spectra of plasma-treated MoS₂ under different etch depth.

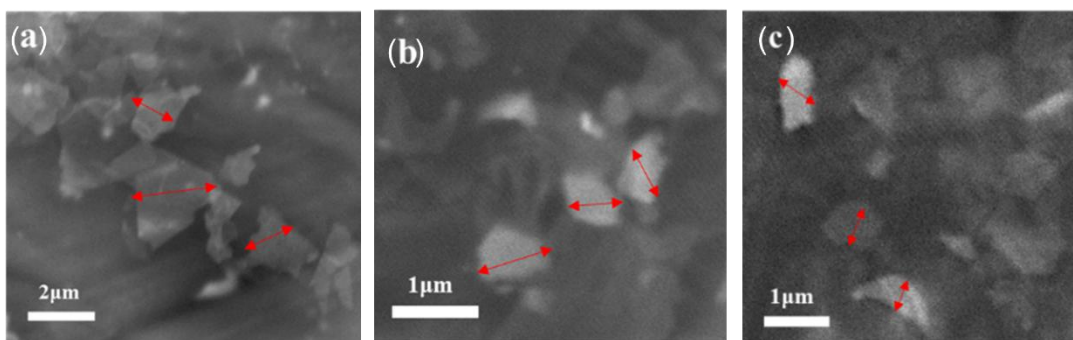


Figure S6 The lateral size of (a) $d_{5\text{min}}\text{-C1-3k-MoS}_2$ nanosheets ($\sim 1.55 \mu\text{m}$), (b) $d_{10\text{min}}\text{-C3-5k-MoS}_2$ nanosheets ($\sim 0.80 \mu\text{m}$), and (c) $d_{30\text{min}}\text{-C5-8k-MoS}_2$ nanosheets ($\sim 0.52 \mu\text{m}$).

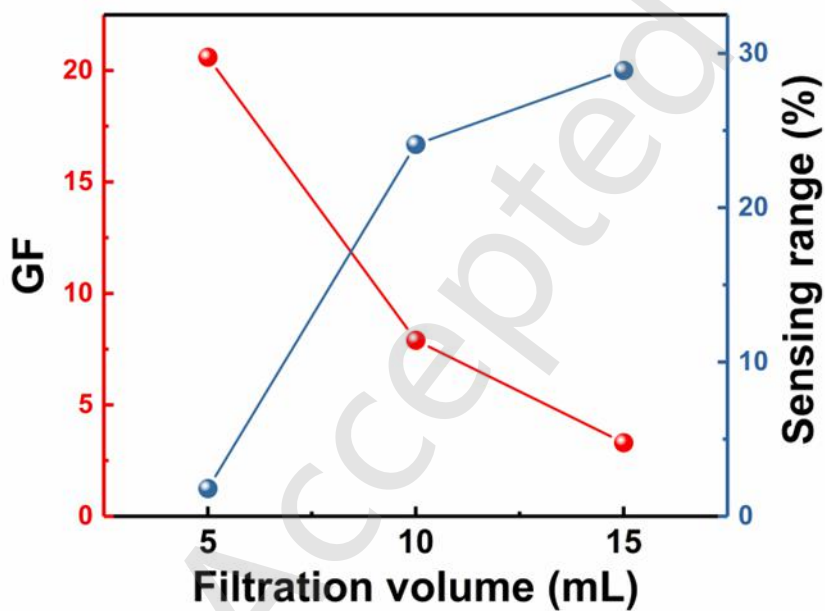


Figure S7 Dependence of gauge factor (left axis) and linear sensing range (right axis) on the filtration volume at a fixed concentration, reflecting the relative thickness of MoS_2 films.

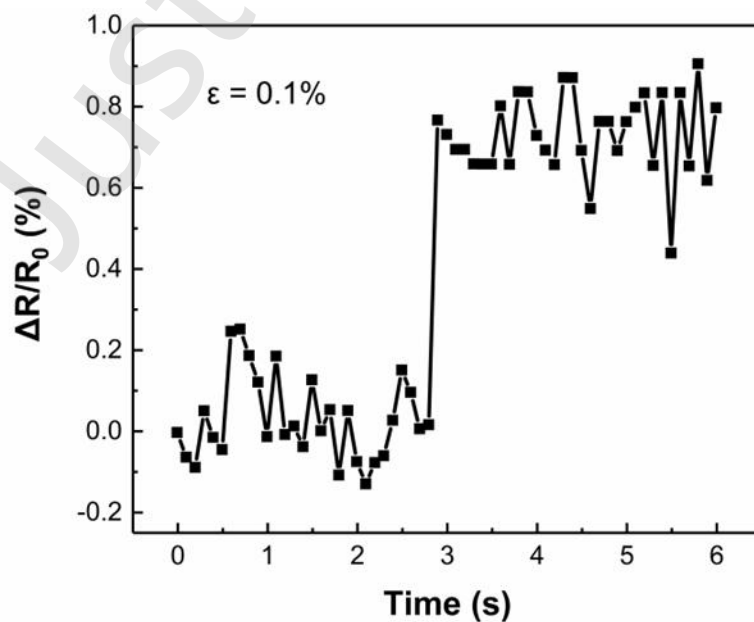


Figure S8 Minimum detectable limit of the strain sensor.

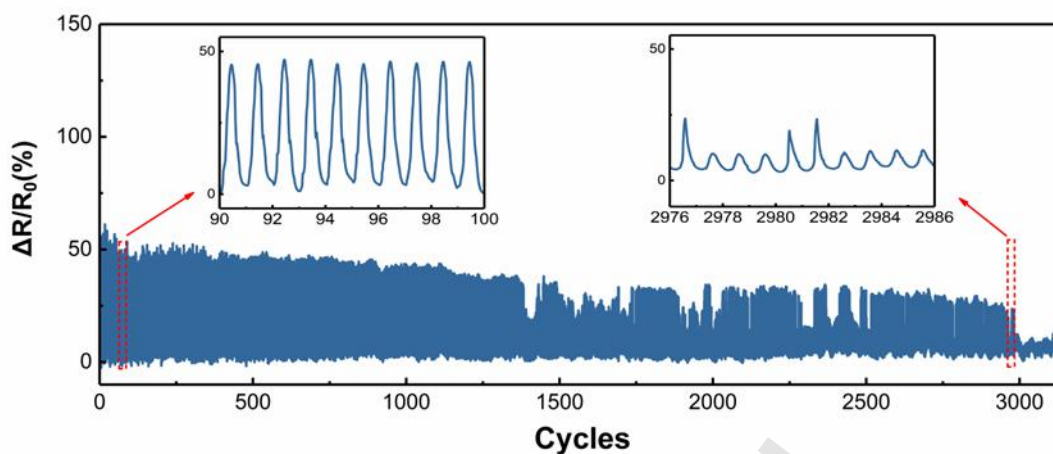


Figure S9 Minimum detectable limit of the strain sensor.

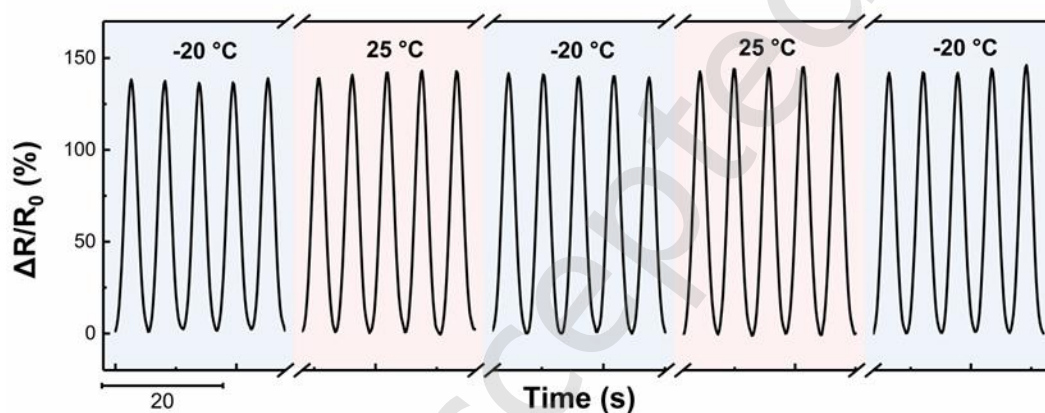


Figure S10 Temperature cycling response of the strain sensor during repeated switching between $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $25\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($\epsilon = 20\%$).

Table S1 Performance comparison of the MoS_2 flexible strain sensor in this work with representative flexible strain sensors reported in the literature.

Materials	Gauge factor	Sensing range	R^2	Hysteresis	Repeatability (cycles)	References
Constantan/PI/Ecoflex	20	60%	N/A	2.9%	1200*	[10]
Au/CNT/PDMS	0.0052	50%	0.999	0.3%	20000	[37]
CNT/PDMS	207	50%	0.93	N/A	10000	[45]
$\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ MXene/AgNW/liquid metal	3.22	300%	0.98157	0.448%	1000	[46]
CNT/TPU	60	50%	0.997	5%	10000	[47]
Lignin-derived porous graphene	960	14%	0.99	7%	10000	[48]
MoS_2 /PDMS	40.87	30%	0.999	2.1%	40000	This work

* Calculated from the reported loading–unloading frequency (1 Hz) and cycling duration (20 min).