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Germanium disulfide as an alternative high refractive index and transparent material for UV-visible nanophotonics

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Abstract

Thanks to their record high refractive index and giant optical anisotropy, van der Waals (vdW) materials have accelerated the development of nanophotonics. However, traditional high refractive index materials, such as titanium dioxide (TiO₂), still dominate in the most important visible range. This is due to the current lack of transparent vdW materials across the entire visible spectrum. In this context, we propose that germanium disulfide (GeS₂) could offer a significant breakthrough. With its high refractive index, negligible losses, and biaxial optical anisotropy across the whole visible range, GeS₂ has the potential to complement TiO₂ and close the application gap of vdW materials in the visible spectrum. The addition of GeS₂ could have a profound impact on the design of van der Waals nanophotonic circuits for any operation wavelength from ultraviolet to infrared, emphasizing the significance of the potential impact of GeS₂ on the field of nanophotonics.

Introduction

Van der Waals (vdW) crystals have received considerable interest since their first appearance¹. Their captivating optical properties^{2–5} provided the groundwork for modern photonic applications, such as extreme skin-depth guiding^{2,6}, topological phase singularities^{7,8}, Mie nanoresonators^{9,10}, exciton-polaritons^{11,12}, to name a few. Moreover, recent studies^{13–15} demonstrated that low-symmetry vdW crystals, such as As₂S₃¹³, α-MoO₃¹⁴, and black phosphorus¹⁵, exhibit strong in-plane optical and mechanical anisotropy, which enables novel photonic

effects and devices, including ultrathin waveplates^{13,16}, twisted nanooptics^{17–19}, polarization-sensitive photodetectors^{20,21}, and wandering principal optical axes^{22,23}. The core parameter in all these applications is the refractive index and its unique dependence on wavelength and direction, where all records of absolute values belong to vdW materials³. As a result, several groups^{3,24,25} view vdW crystals as a perfect material platform for the next-generation nanophotonics. However, a smooth transition from conventional high refractive index materials, such as Si²⁶, GaP²⁷, and TiO₂²⁸, to vdW materials is hindered by the absence of high refractive index vdW crystal transparent in the entire visible spectrum.

One promising crystal is germanium disulfide (GeS₂), which stands out with low-symmetry crystallography²⁹ and a large bandgap of 3.4–3.7 eV, which lies at the boundary between visible and ultraviolet (UV) spectral intervals^{30–32}. Amorphous GeS₂ has already proven its utility in versatile photonic applications, such as

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chalcogenides glasses in optical fibers³³, photodoping³⁴, and gradient refractive index Fresnel lenses³⁵. With a plethora of distinguished properties, layered GeS₂ also emerged as a focal point for fundamental and applied research^{36–39}. However, the anisotropic optical properties of GeS₂ have not yet been investigated thoroughly, making it a crucial area for further exploration.

This work introduces GeS₂ as a new wide-bandgap vdW material with a large in-plane anisotropy. We present a comprehensive examination of its anisotropic structural, vibrational, and optical properties. First, we performed a detailed study of GeS₂ crystal structure and vibrational modes, establishing the relationship between those. Then we probed the full dielectric tensor of GeS₂ from ultraviolet (UV) to near-infrared (NIR) range by spectroscopic ellipsometry and underpinned our findings by first-principle calculations of dielectric function and vibrational modes. Finally, we independently verified the acquired optical constants through the characterization of waveguide modes propagating in GeS₂ using s-SNOM technique. Our work shows that GeS₂ demonstrates high optical anisotropy and the highest refractive index among transparent vdW materials in the visible-UV range down to 360 nm, making it, thus far, the only highly refractive anisotropic vdW material without optical losses across the entire visible spectrum.

Results

Anisotropic crystal structure of van der Waals GeS₂

Germanium disulfide is a gray semiconducting layered crystal from group IV–VI metal dichalcogenides. Figure 1a shows a schematic illustration of the monoclinic GeS₂ crystal structure. GeS₂ unit cell consists of two layers weakly bonded by van der Waals forces²⁹. At the same time, each layer is formed by combining visually distinctive structural units. The first block is a chain of tetrahedra GeS₄ connected by a common corner. Shared sulfur atoms are referred to as “corner S-atoms”⁴⁰ (marked by red rectangle). The second block is formed by two edge-shared tetrahedral units of GeS₄ (marked by a blue quadrilateral). These units form Ge–S–Ge–S rings whose S atoms we will call the “edge” S-atoms. The S-atoms connecting these two blocks are called the “bridges” S-atoms and are marked by green circles. Considering all these three patterns together (see colored dashed lines in Fig. 1a), it becomes apparent that the neighboring adjacent set (inside a given sublayer) is a copy of the initial set inverted relative to the *b*-axis. This means that the *b*-axis is a screw axis of 2₁/*c*. As shown in Fig. 1a, the resulting complex structure of the individual monolayer is riddled with infinite-shape hollows. These facts make GeS₂ one of the most interesting materials from the crystallographic point of view.

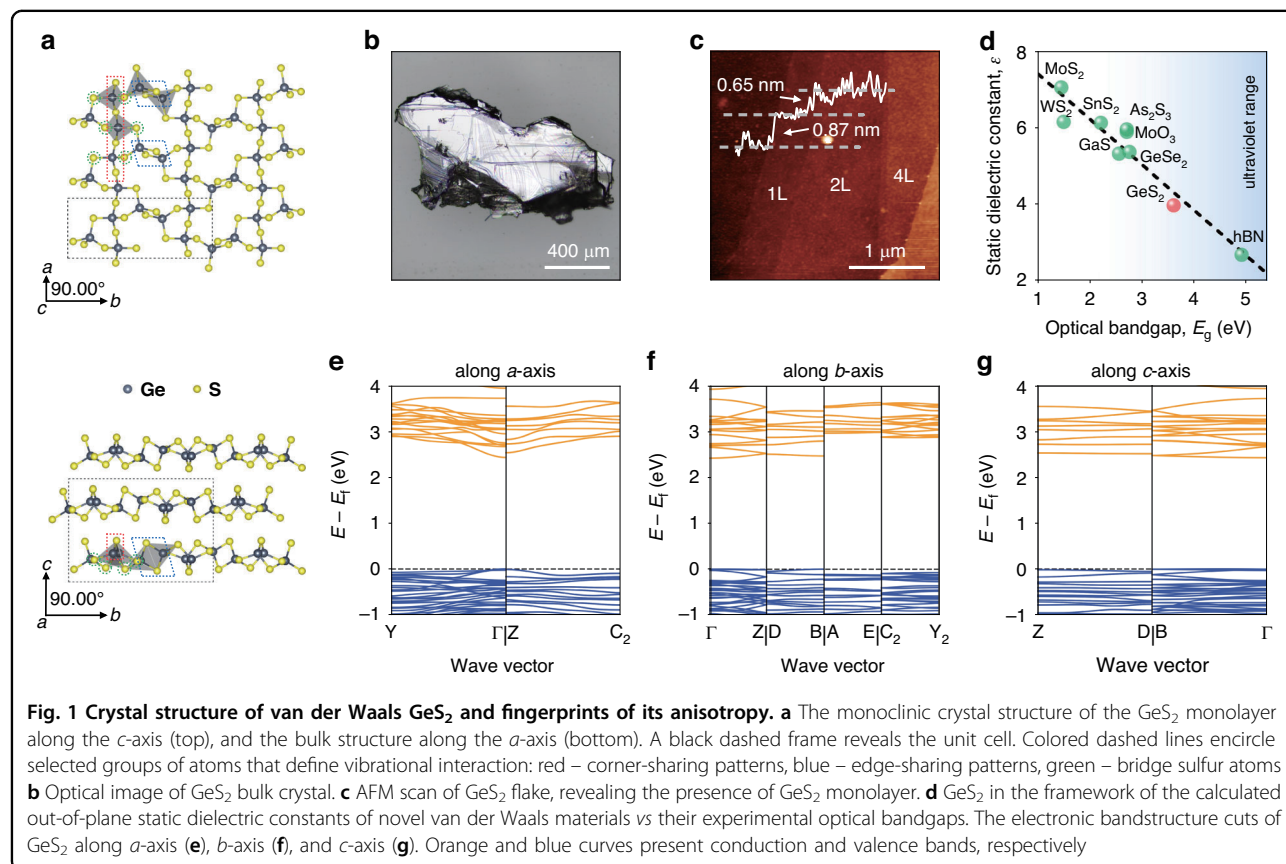


Figure 1b represents an optical image of GeS₂ bulk crystal. Since precise crystallographic information is critically important for ab initio calculations, we commenced our study by applying the X-ray diffraction (XRD) technique to refine its lattice constants. Our XRD results indicate P2₁/c space group with lattice parameters of $a = 6.6946(14)\text{\AA}$, $b = 16.037(3)\text{\AA}$, $c = 11.423(2)\text{\AA}$, $\alpha = 90^\circ$, $\beta = 90^\circ$, $\gamma = 90^\circ$ giving a remarkable accuracy with R -value of 3.6%. For further details on crystallographic data collection, see Methods and Supplementary Note 1. Additionally, we verified the crystal structure of thin GeS₂ by selected area electron diffraction (see Figure S3a–c). To ensure the quality of the flake, we investigated its elemental composition by energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS). From EDS, we found atomic stoichiometry of Ge:S \approx 35.9/64.1, which within the measurement accuracy corresponds to GeS₂.

The bulk crystal is amenable to exfoliation into a single layer, as shown in Fig. 1c. The thickness of the monolayer is half of the unit cell along the c -axis ($t \approx 0.5 \times 1.14\text{ nm} = 0.57\text{ nm}$). Considering that the height step observed *via* AFM is less than twice this thickness, we can confirm the exfoliation of a monolayer of GeS₂ (see inset in Fig. 1c). A similar discrepancy between measured (0.87 nm) and expected thicknesses in AFM studies of other 2D materials has been attributed to tip-surface interactions and surface chemistry⁴¹.

Based on these crystallographic data, we estimate dielectric properties and the bandstructure of the material *via* first-principles calculations (see Methods and Supplementary Note 2). Remarkably, GeS₂ possesses one of the largest bandgaps within the layered semiconductor family while maintaining a relatively high out-of-plane *static* dielectric permittivity (see Fig. 1d). Hence, GeS₂ can serve as an alternative insulating material to hBN in van der Waals nanoelectronics⁴². The GeS₂ bandstructure cuts along crystallographic directions determined by ab initio calculations are presented in Fig. 1e–g. The differences in dispersions for different directions as well as the flat bands along the c -axis indicate a strong anisotropic dielectric response, making GeS₂ a perfect candidate for optical studies.

GeS₂ anisotropic vibrational response

Having refined the crystallographic properties of GeS₂, we proceed with the determination of its anisotropic vibrational response. In doing so, we pursue several goals. First, polarized Raman spectra are one of the material fingerprints, that contain information regarding defects, crystallographic structure, and orientation in numerous vdW materials^{43–52}. Although previous works have demonstrated Raman response and theoretical analysis of vibrational modes in vdW GeS₂^{32,40,53,54}, the origin of the most observed Raman lines in GeS₂ and their anisotropic

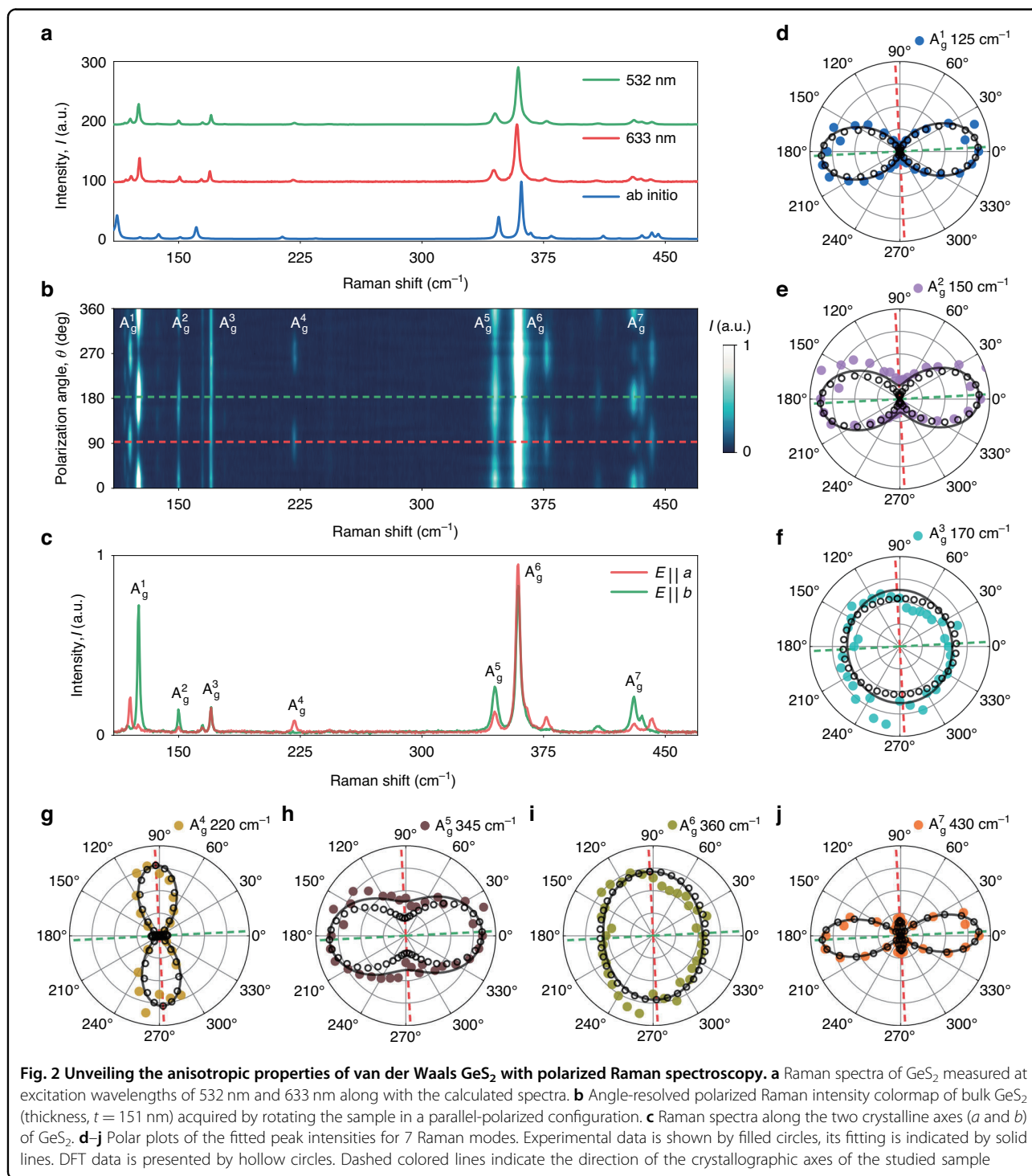
nature remains open for further investigation. Next, ab initio calculations of vibrational response provide additional verification for other theoretical calculations, in particular, of optical properties. Considering these factors, the detailed experimental and theoretical study of anisotropic optical and vibrational properties of GeS₂ is of great interest.

To explore the vibrational signature of GeS₂ and identify the orientation of the crystallographic axes of the sample, we utilized the polarization-resolved Raman spectroscopy method in combination with theoretical analysis of the vibrational modes. Here, we acquired Raman spectra for different polarization angles from 0° to 360° with the step of 10° by rolling the sample between a parallel-oriented polarizer and analyzer. Then, we used a phonon-based approach to calculate the vibrational response of the whole atomic system⁵⁵ (see Supplementary Note 2). A detailed discussion of vibration analysis is provided in Supplementary Note 3. Figure 2a presents the Raman spectra derived by averaging over all angles for 532 nm and 633 nm excitation wavelengths, as well as DFT vibrational mode calculations utilizing crystallographic parameters built upon our XRD measurements.

Figure 2b displays the angle-dependent polarized Raman intensity colormap for 151-nm-thick GeS₂ flake on Schott glass substrate. Figures 2b–j are obtained by using 532 nm excitation wavelength. The calculated angle-averaged spectrum demonstrates a high alignment with the experimentally acquired spectrum, as shown in Fig. 2a. This result is further confirmed by adequate alignment between experimentally derived and ab initio angle-resolved intensities of 22 Raman-active lines, as indicated by polar plots presented in Figure S10 (for 532 nm-excited spectra) and Figure S11 (for 633 nm-excited spectra). As suggested in⁴⁰, bands in the low-wavenumber region originate from the Ge-S bending, while the high-wavenumber region is mainly attributed to the Ge-S bond stretching. Our vibrational mode analysis significantly extends this approach by elaborating on the origin of 13 lines. Among these 13 lines, the origin of 10 lines is reported for the first time. Close examination of Fig. 2b reveals that modes in the range 90–180 cm⁻¹ are indeed assigned to various bending motions of Ge-S bonds, the 220-cm⁻¹-centered band is attributed to the breathing mode of (GeS)₂ rings, while 340–450 cm⁻¹ peaks are mainly ascribed to the stretching oscillations of S atoms. In such high-wavenumber oscillations, Ge atoms remain relatively immobile due to their high atomic mass in comparison to S atoms (see mode visualization in Table S5 and Table S6).

Excellent corroboration between experimental and theoretical studies confirms that the suggested approach can be applied to predict Raman spectra and angle-resolved vibrational response of vdW materials. The

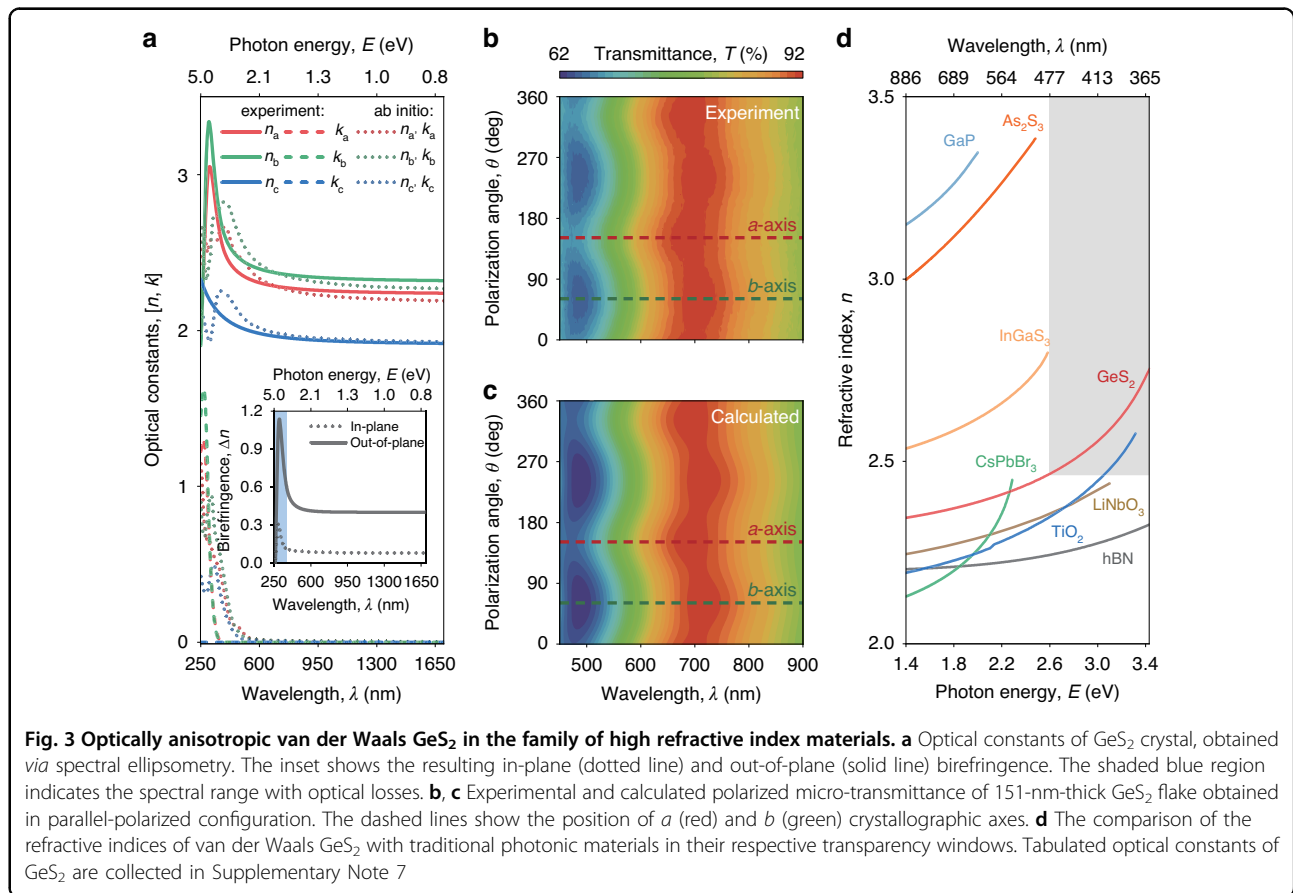




calculated Raman spectra for incident laser polarization along two crystallographic axes, and the intensities of Raman-active modes as a function of polarization angle are shown in Figure S8. The prominent in-plane anisotropy of germanium disulfide yields notable angular intensity variation for most lines. Acknowledging the fixed patterns of polar diagrams in relation to in-plane

crystallographic directions, we analyzed polar plots for five intensive modes to determine the orientation of the crystallographic axes. We fitted the experimental data and aligned the obtained curves with the calculated polar plots. The fitting model is discussed in detail in Supplementary Note 3. The resulting Raman spectra for incident laser polarization along the two crystallographic axes are





shown in Fig. 2c. Figure 2d-j demonstrates an outstanding match between the experimental and calculated polar diagrams for $A_g^1 - A_g^7$ modes. When the incident laser polarization is aligned with the *b*-axis of GeS₂, Raman peaks at 125 (A_g^1), 150 (A_g^2), 345 (A_g^5), and 430 (A_g^7) cm^{-1} have maximum intensity. Similarly, the *a*-axis corresponds to the maximum of 220 (A_g^4) and 360 (A_g^6) cm^{-1} (although the low aspect ratio of 360 cm^{-1} polar plot shape hinders its applicability in the determination of crystallographic axes). Our analysis reveals that A_g^6 vibration is synphase breathing of all GeS₄ tetrahedra. This explains why the mode has the highest intensity: light is scattered by simultaneously breathing tetrahedra. Hence, its Raman response is relatively isotropic, which is uncommon for anisotropic material (see Table S5). Owing to the high intensity of $A_g^1 - A_g^7$ peaks, prominent anisotropy of their angle-resolved intensities, and their perfect match with calculated data, we propose these peaks for potential use in the determination of the crystallographic axes for layered GeS₂.

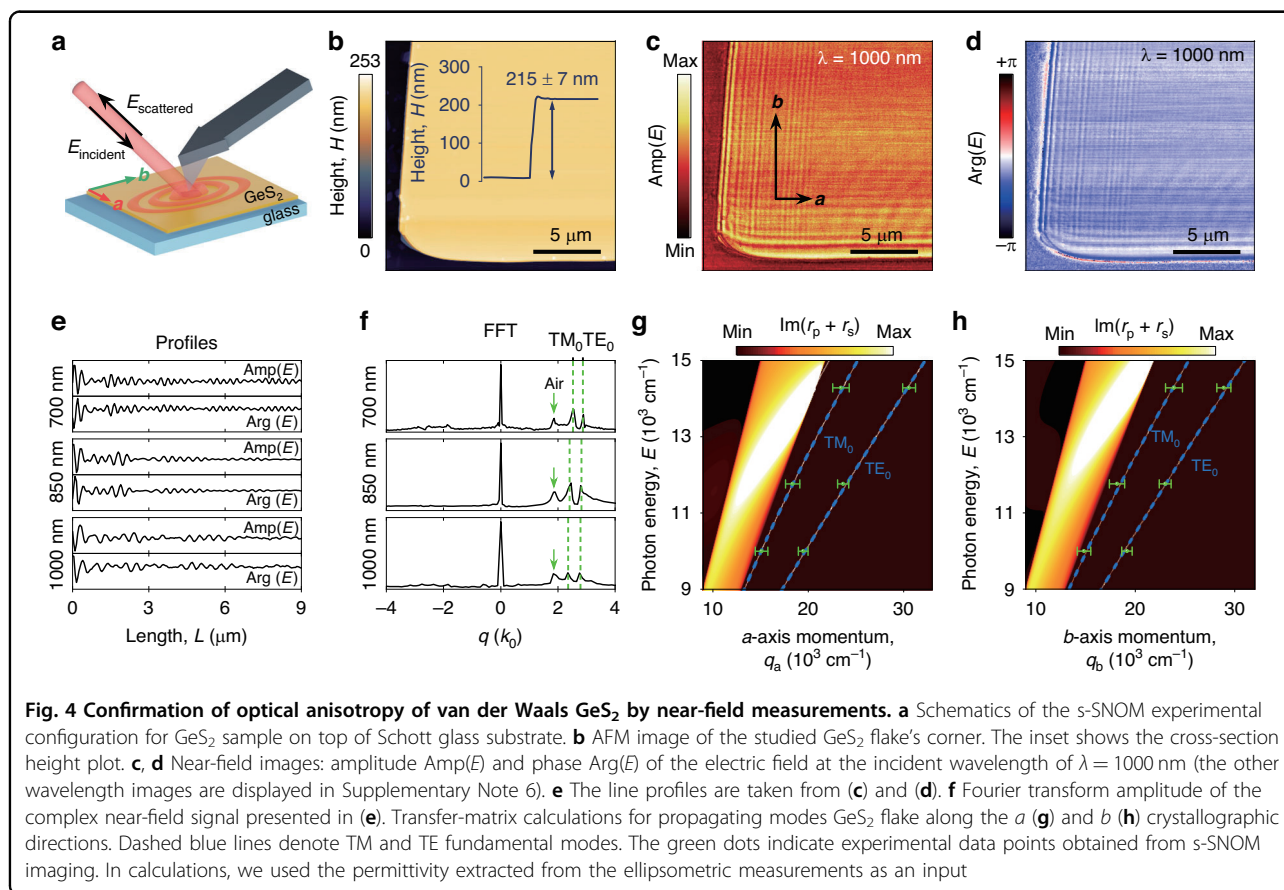
Optical anisotropy of van der Waals GeS₂

Generally, for monoclinic crystals, the dielectric tensor has a very nontrivial form^{22,23,56}. Indeed, since the

crystallographic axes are non-orthogonal - the dielectric tensor in Cartesian representation contains mixed contributions from different crystallographic axes, making extraction of underlying optical constants challenging. Fortunately, the monoclinic angle β of GeS₂, with a value of 90.935(7) $^\circ$, is practically indistinguishable from 90 $^\circ$, allowing us to treat GeS₂ as an orthorhombic crystal. Hence, we can use the diagonal form of the GeS₂ dielectric tensor, neglecting its off-diagonal elements.

We exfoliated GeS₂ flakes onto Si and Schott glass substrates, initially determining GeS₂ crystallographic axes by angle-resolved polarized Raman spectroscopy. Then, we performed spectroscopic ellipsometry measurements (see Methods and Supplementary Note 4 for more details). For enhanced accuracy, we analyzed data from multiple flakes with different thicknesses. The optical constants acquired from the ellipsometry data spectra are depicted in Fig. 3a. The inset in Fig. 3a presents the birefringence values between the in-plane refractive indexes and between the optical constants along the *b*- and *c*-axis. As a result, the measured in-plane birefringence of GeS₂ reaches $\Delta n \sim 0.12$. Utilizing the crystallographic data acquired through XRD analysis, we calculated the anisotropic permittivity tensor using first-





principle calculations (see Methods and Supplementary Note 2). As shown in Fig. 3a, the experimentally measured refractive index and birefringence are in precise agreement with the theoretical estimates.

For additional verification, we performed polarized micro-transmittance measurements of GeS₂ flakes exfoliated on Schott glass substrates (see Methods and Supplementary Note 5). Then, we calculated the transmittance spectra based on the optical constants (see Supplementary Note 8). Figure 3b, c shows the exemplified experimental and calculated transmittance maps in parallel-polarized configuration for 151-nm-thick flake. Notably, strong polarization-dependent transmittance already confirms high optical anisotropy of GeS₂. We note that calculated spectra perfectly match the experimental data, affirming the reliability of the measured optical constants. Remarkably, the results yield the extinction coefficient k close to zero for wavelengths above 362 nm. Hence, our quantitative study extends the list of lossless (bandgap > 3.4 eV) high-refractive-index vdW materials. Meanwhile, GeS₂ possesses in-plane and natural vdW out-of-plane anisotropy, as shown in Fig. 3a, d. Both in-plane and out-of-plane birefringent properties, in combination with the transparency in the ultraviolet-visible

range, distinguish GeS₂ among the broad family of vdW materials.

Near-field imaging of waveguide modes in GeS₂ flakes

To unambiguously verify the extracted dielectric function, we probed propagating modes in GeS₂ using scattering-type Scanning Near-field Optical Microscopy (s-SNOM) in the reflection mode (see Fig. 4a). A vertically oscillating metalized atomic force microscopy (AFM) tip was illuminated with *p*-polarized light using a parabolic mirror while scanning the GeS₂ flake. Acting as an antenna, the mirror concentrated the incident field at the very tip, forming a nano-sized focal spot for local study of material properties and excitation of polaritons. The radiation scattered by the tip and edges of the flake was recorded simultaneously with the topography, enabling near-field imaging with nanoscale resolution. At the same time, a pseudo-heterodyne interferometric module made it possible to recover both the phase and amplitude information from near-field radiation. We performed s-SNOM measurements at three representative wavelengths (700 nm, 850 nm, 1000 nm) on a freshly exfoliated 215-nm-thick GeS₂ flake placed on top of the Schott glass substrate.



Prior to the examination of the acquired results, we determined in-plane axes orientations by polarized Raman spectroscopy as discussed in previous sections. Figure 4b–d shows topography and near-field amplitude $\text{Amp}(E)$ and phase $\text{Arg}(E)$ signal maps recorded at the wavelength of 1000 nm. In the *s*-SNOM experiment, we observed multiple bright fringes parallel to all the flake edges. The observed fringes result from the interference between two signals: (1) the wave excited at the probe tip that propagates to the sample edge and scatters, and (2) the background signal, which is the result of the reflection of the evanescent field from the sample surface at the probe-sample interface (see Figure S16). This interference pattern creates alternating regions of constructive and destructive interference, manifesting as the visible fringe pattern in the experimental observations. In the frequency domain, this background signal corresponds to the zero-frequency peak in the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) of the fringe pattern. Importantly, the strong dependence of the fringes period on the direction is not only due to the anisotropy of the material but also due to the spatial frequency shift effect arising due to the geometry of the experiment.

To derive effective indices of propagating modes in GeS_2 flake, we analyzed the Fourier transform (FT) of complex near-field amplitude built upon both $\text{Amp}(E)$ and $\text{Arg}(E)$ line profiles extracted from experimental maps (see Fig. 4e, f). In our analysis, we utilized the established fact that modes propagating in different orientations within the flake exhibit spatial frequency shifts for *s*-SNOM measurements in reflection mode^{57,58}. These shifts are intricately linked to the orientation of the flake's edge that scatters the propagating mode and described by the following formula:

$$n_{\text{eff}} = n_{\text{obs}} + \cos(\alpha) \cos(\beta) \quad (1)$$

where n_{eff} is the actual effective index of the mode, n_{obs} is the observable effective mode index, α is the angle between the wavevector k of the incident light and its projection of the sample surface k_{II} , and β is the angle between k_{II} and the direction of propagation of the mode in the sample. Within the recorded near-field maps, we successfully identified both transverse electric (TE) and transverse magnetic (TM) fundamental modes within the GeS_2 flake, alongside the presence of air modes. To validate this observation, we performed transfer-matrix calculations⁵⁹ based on the previously determined dielectric function of the material. Figure 4g, h indicates calculated energy ($E_{\text{ph}} = hc/\lambda_{\text{vac}}$ with λ_{vac} being the wavelength of light in vacuum) versus in-plane momentum ($q_{a,b} = 1/\lambda_{a,b}$ with $\lambda_{a,b}$ being the wavelength of a guided mode) dispersion relation for waveguide modes in a planar waveguide of thickness 215 nm placed on top of the glass. The plotted variable $\text{Im}(r_p + r_s)$ allows to

observe singularities in the reflection amplitudes r_p and r_s corresponding to the TM and TE-polarized guided modes when in-plane component of the incident wavevector is below the light cone, i.e., the “incident wave” is evanescent. The experimentally determined effective mode indices for both in-plane directions are shown in dispersion maps as green dots. The agreement between experimental and calculated values serves as a robust confirmation of the constants derived in preceding chapters.

Polarizing beamsplitter based on GeS_2 - TiO_2 interface

Obtained anisotropic optical properties of GeS_2 offer numerous perspectives for photonic applications. To demonstrate this, we notice that GeS_2 refractive index n_a along the crystallographic *a*-axis almost coincides with TiO_2 refractive index n_{TiO_2} , as seen in Fig. 5a. At the same time, other components of GeS_2 refractive indices n_b and n_c significantly differ from n_{TiO_2} (Fig. 5a). Hence, one can construct a high-performance polarizing beamsplitter using an anisotropic/isotropic interface of $\text{TiO}_2/\text{GeS}_2$ (see the inset in Fig. 5a). It follows from the Fresnel equations of p- and s-polarized reflection coefficients r_p and r_s , respectively:

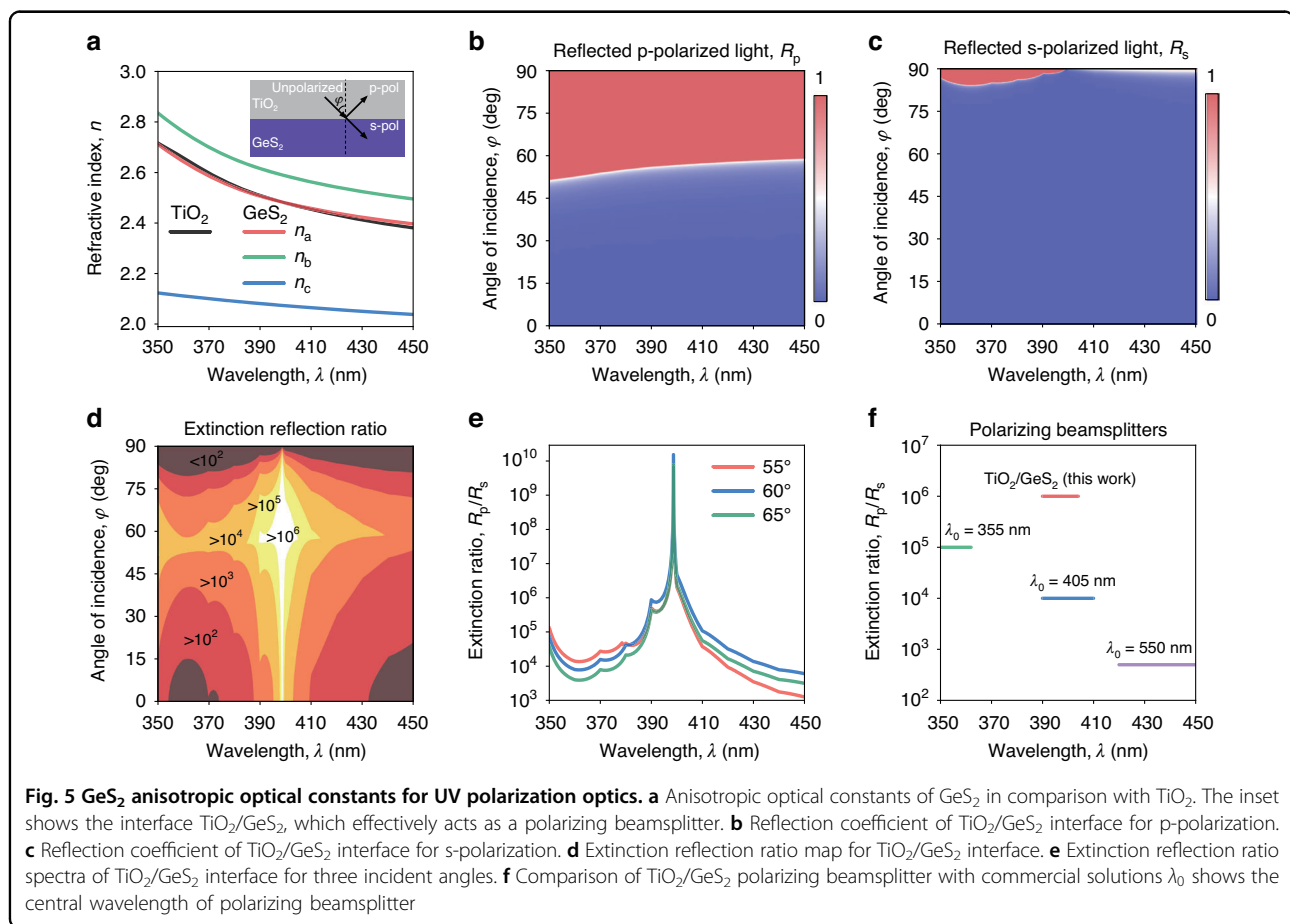
$$r_p = \frac{n_c n_b \sqrt{n_{\text{TiO}_2}^2 - n_{\text{TiO}_2}^2 \sin^2 \varphi} - n_{\text{TiO}_2}^2 \sqrt{n_c^2 - n_{\text{TiO}_2}^2 \sin^2 \varphi}}{n_c n_b \sqrt{n_{\text{TiO}_2}^2 - n_{\text{TiO}_2}^2 \sin^2 \varphi} + n_{\text{TiO}_2}^2 \sqrt{n_c^2 - n_{\text{TiO}_2}^2 \sin^2 \varphi}} \quad (2)$$

$$r_s = \frac{\sqrt{n_{\text{TiO}_2}^2 - n_{\text{TiO}_2}^2 \sin^2 \varphi} - \sqrt{n_a^2 - n_{\text{TiO}_2}^2 \sin^2 \varphi}}{\sqrt{n_{\text{TiO}_2}^2 - n_{\text{TiO}_2}^2 \sin^2 \varphi} + \sqrt{n_a^2 - n_{\text{TiO}_2}^2 \sin^2 \varphi}} \quad (3)$$

where φ is the incidence angle (see the inset in Fig. 5a). From Eqs. (2) and (3), $R_s = |r_s|^2 \approx 0$ since $n_a \approx n_{\text{TiO}_2}$, whereas $R_p = |r_p|^2 \neq 0$ because $n_b, n_c \neq n_{\text{TiO}_2}$ for a broad spectral range and incident angles (Fig. 5b, c). As a result, the extinction reflection ratio R_p/R_s reaches high values from 10^2 to above 10^6 (Fig. 5d, e), which is a record characteristic compared to commercial solutions (Thorlabs PBSW-405 $\lambda_0 = 405$ nm; EdmundOptics #21-884 $\lambda_0 = 355$ nm and #48-998 $\lambda_0 = 550$ nm) with only up to 10^5 extinction reflection ratios in the UV range (Fig. 5f). Furthermore, this result can be further improved by multilayer stacking of $\text{TiO}_2/\text{GeS}_2$. Thus, the proposed polarizing beamsplitter based on $\text{TiO}_2/\text{GeS}_2$ interface demonstrates a great promise of GeS_2 optical properties for polarization optics.

Discussion

In summary, we present a detailed analysis of the structural and optical properties of exfoliated GeS_2 flakes. Using a phonon-based approach, we calculated the



vibrational response of the whole structure involving the simultaneous vibration of several structural units and their interactions. Combining polarized non-resonant Raman spectroscopy with ab initio calculations we revealed the vibrational origin of 13 lines and identified 5 well-resolved lines whose polar plot maxima and minima are aligned with crystallographic axes. Furthermore, we found that GeS₂ demonstrates the highest refractive index among transparent van der Waals materials in the visible and near-ultraviolet regions. It exhibits a remarkably large in-plane and out-of-plane birefringence up to 0.12 and 0.63, respectively. As a result, GeS₂ is a rare example of a highly refractive material with a transparency band spanning over the whole visible spectral range. Such materials are very promising for use in integrated photonic nanostructures for light manipulation, e.g., waveguide networks and metasurfaces, and for macroscopic-scale structures, such as waveguide combiners for AR/VR headsets, for example. The former benefits from improved field confinement due to the high refractive index and optical anisotropy^{3,25}. In the case of waveguide combiners, the wave nature of light limits the optical resolution to $R < \pi n d \cos(\alpha) / (90\lambda)$ pixels per degree, where d is the thickness of the waveguide, n is the refractive index of

waveguide material, λ is free space wavelength of light, and α is the angle between the waveguide surface and the ray. Hence, waveguides based on high- n -materials can be made thinner, lighter, and easier to wear. Also, higher n extends the range of possible propagation angles α , which leads to a greater field of view⁶⁰. More advantages, such as higher diffraction efficiency and suppressed rainbow effect, are gained from the use of highly refractive material in waveguide in- and out-couplers^{60,61}. Still, the question of large-scale manufacturing of GeS₂ poses a challenge to its industrial implementation. To date, the best van der Waals crystals in terms of optical properties are produced by exfoliation⁶². While having the etalon properties, they are limited in lateral size to a few hundreds of micrometers and require manual handling, which is convenient in laboratory conditions, but is incompatible with mass production. In microelectronics and photonics, high-quality atomically smooth layers of semiconductors are grown by molecular beam epitaxy. The development of epitaxial growth methods for van der Waals materials is at the initial stage, but rapidly advances towards single-crystal quality, which preserves high-performance properties of the exfoliated counterpart⁶³. Although epitaxial technology is mostly focused on the synthesis of MoS₂



because of its promising properties, we hope our work ignites a substantial interest in epitaxial growth of GeS₂ and other van der Waals materials. As a result, our findings of GeS₂ promising optical properties expand the engineering capabilities for van der Waals materials-based photonics.

Materials and methods

Sample preparation

Bulk synthetic GeS₂ crystals were purchased from Six-Carbon Technology (Shenzhen, China) and exfoliated on top of Si, Si/SiO₂, and Schott glass substrates at room temperature using commercial scotch tapes from Nitto Denko Corporation (Osaka, Japan). Prior to exfoliation, the corresponding substrates were subsequently cleaned in acetone, isopropanol alcohol, and deionized water, and then subjected to air plasma to remove the ambient adsorbates. To perform TEM analysis, GeS₂ flakes were transferred onto TEM membranes (EMS non-porous Si TEM grid) using a polymer-assisted dry-transfer technique performed with polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) films.

Raman measurements

Raman spectra were acquired with a Horiba LabRAM HR Evolution (HORIBA Ltd., Kyoto, Japan) confocal Raman microscope. 100× (N.A. = 0.90) microscope objective and 1800 lines/mm diffraction grating were used. The studies were carried out at 532 nm and 633 nm excitation wavelengths. For 532 nm, excitation power density was 60 kW cm⁻², and integration time was 120 s for each point. For 633 nm, excitation power density was 11 kW cm⁻², integration time was 200 s for each point. In both cases, the spot area was 1.8 μm². The processing of the spectra was carried out as follows: first, the spectra background was subtracted. Afterward, background-subtracted spectra were fitted by Lorentzian lines. Finally, the results of the fitting were used to fit the data and construct the polar graphs. MagicPlot was used to fit the spectra, while OriginPro was used for background subtraction, polar plot fitting, and figure construction. Throughout the studies, angle-resolved Raman spectra were excited by various laser powers and acquired from multiple flakes to ensure the consistency and repeatability of obtained results.

Spectroscopic ellipsometry

To analyze the anisotropic optical response of GeS₂, we used a commercial imaging spectroscopic ellipsometer Accurion nanofilm_ep4 in the nulling mode. Ellipsometry spectra were recorded for three samples with various thicknesses of $t = 66$ nm, 87 nm, and 128 nm in the spectral range from ultraviolet (250 nm) to near-infrared (1650 nm). For ellipsometry analysis, we followed an algorithm similar to the procedure described in our recent

work². However, for a biaxial material, such as GeS₂, the key difference was the alignment of the sample in such a way that one of its in-plane optical axes was perpendicular to the plane of incidence. This was crucial for the separation of s- and p-polarized light, and therefore, Mueller-matrix measurement and analysis were not necessary for measuring the in-plane anisotropy of GeS₂.

Micro-transmittance

Spectroscopic transmittance was measured using a Zeiss Axio Lab.A1 optical microscope equipped with a halogen light source. Coupling to an Ocean Optics QE65000 grating spectrometer was achieved through a Thorlabs M92L02 optical fiber with a 200 μm core diameter. Transmitted light was collected from a spot smaller than 15 μm, utilizing the “N-Achroplan” 50× Pol M27 objective with a numerical aperture of 0.8. For a more detailed description of this micro-transmittance setup see ref. ⁶⁴.

Atomic force microscopy

The thickness of GeS₂ flakes was accurately characterized by an atomic force microscope (NT-MDT Ntegra II) operated in contact mode at ambient conditions. AFM measurements were obtained employing silicon tips (ETALON, HA_NC ScanSens) with a spring constant of 3.5 N/m and a resonant frequency of 140 kHz. Image processing and quantitative analysis were performed in Gwyddion software.

Scanning Near-Field Optical Microscopy

Near-field measurements were performed using a scanning near-field optical microscope (“NeaSNOM” from company Neaspec GmbH). Ti:Sapphire continuous wave tuning laser (TiC, AVESTA Lasers, and Optical Systems) with fiber coupling output was used, working at a wavelength range of $\lambda = 700\text{--}1000$ nm. We used Pt-coated silicon tip oscillating at a resonance frequency of $\Omega \approx 280$ kHz with an amplitude of ~ 80 nm (ARROW-NCPT-50). The microscope was used in the reflection mode, meaning the same parabolic mirror was used to excite and collect near-field signals. To enhance the quality of the near-field image, we reduced the optical background by demodulating the received signal at a high-order harmonic frequency $n\Omega$ (where n can be 2, 3, or 4), and using an interferometric pseudoheterodyne approach with a reference beam modulated by an oscillating mirror. For this study, the signal demodulated at the third harmonic (3Ω) proved adequate for analysis free from background interference.

X-ray diffraction analysis

X-ray diffraction analysis of GeS₂ single crystal was performed on a Bruker D8 QUEST diffractometer with a



Photon III CMOS area detector using Mo K α radiation ($\lambda = 0.71073 \text{ \AA}$) focused by a multilayer Montel mirror. The full data set was collected at 300 K within two ω -scans applying a sample-to-detector distance of 60 mm. Raw data were indexed with cell_now and integrated using Bruker APEX4 and SAINT V8.40B programs. Absorption correction was performed using a numerical method based on crystal shape as implemented in SADABS⁶⁵. Crystal structure was solved by direct methods using SHELXS and refined anisotropically with the full-matrix F² least-squares technique by SHELXL^{66,67}. CSD reference number 2363955 contains supplementary crystallographic data for this paper. These data can be obtained free of charge from the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre via https://www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/data_request/cif.

First-principle calculations

Ab initio calculations were performed using Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) code⁶⁸. The core electrons were described with projector augmented wave (PAW) pseudopotentials treating the Ge 3*d*, 4*s*, and 4*p* and the S 3*s* and 3*p* electrons as valence electrons. A kinetic energy cutoff for the plane-wave basis was set to 450 eV. For all of the computations, the lattice parameters, as well as atomic positions, were taken from our XRD measurements. Raman spectra and polar diagrams were computed based on the Phonopy-Spectroscopy package with our modifications. Optical properties of GeS₂ were calculated within GW approximation on top of wavefunctions calculated using PBE functional using the VASP code. For this, we used Γ -centered *k*-points mesh sampling the Brillouin zone with a resolution of $2\pi \cdot 0.05 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$.

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Author contributions

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I.A.Z., D.V.G., M.K.T., M.S.M., A.N.T., M.R.P., A.V.S., D.I.Y., D.M.T., D.A.G., and S.M.N. performed the measurements and analyzed the data. K.V.K., O.G.M., K.V.V., I.M.F., and A.A.V. provided theoretical support. A.S.S., G.A.E., I.A.Z., K.V.K., and A.A.V. wrote the original manuscript. All authors reviewed and edited the paper. All authors contributed to the discussions and commented on the paper.

Data availability

The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

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