Electronic structure of monolayer graphene

#### Graphene seminar 25/04/13

Andor Kormányos

# Literature

M. I. Katsnelson: Graphene (Cambridge University Press)

Ed McCann: Graphene Nanoelectronics: Metrology, Synthesis, Properties and Applications, pages 237-275 (Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2012) ArXiv:1205.4849

# Crystal lattice of monolayer graphene

Hexagonal lattice of carbon atoms

Two atoms in the unit cell:



More realistic view



### Electronic structure from DFT calculations



FIG. 1. (Color online) Band structure of a single graphene layer. Solid red lines are  $\sigma$  bands and dotted blue lines are  $\pi$  bands.

#### Phys Rev B 77, 035427 (2008)



#### Phys Rev B 82, 245412 (2010)

### Electronic structure from DFT calculations



FIG. 1. (Color online) Band structure of a single graphene layer. Solid red lines are  $\sigma$  bands and dotted blue lines are  $\pi$  bands.

#### Phys Rev B 77, 035427 (2008)

Crossing of  $\pi$  bands at the K point of the Brillouin zone

Dispersion is linear in Wavenumber close to the K point

# **Band dispersion from Angle Resolved Photoelectron Spectroscopy (ARPES)**



#### Tight-binding model: general theory

It is assumed that the system has translational invariance => we consider an infinite graphene sheet

In general, there are n atomic orbitals in the  $\phi_i$  t cell

We can form n Bloch functions

$$\Phi_j(\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{R}_{j,i}} \phi_j \left(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{j,i}\right)$$

An electronic function is a linear combination of these Bloch functions

$$\Psi_j(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{l=1}^n c_{j,l}(\mathbf{k}) \, \Phi_l(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{r}) \, .$$

#### Tight-binding model:general theory

The energy of the jth band:

 $E_j(\mathbf{k}) = \frac{\langle \Psi_j | \mathcal{H} | \Psi_j \rangle}{\langle \Psi_j | \Psi_j \rangle} \,,$ 

Substituting the expansion

$$E_j(\mathbf{k}) = \frac{\sum_{i,l}^n c_{ji}^* c_{jl} \langle \Phi_i | \mathcal{H} | \Phi_l \rangle}{\sum_{i,l}^n c_{ji}^* c_{jl} \langle \Phi_i | \Phi_l \rangle} = \frac{\sum_{i,l}^n H_{il} c_{ji}^* c_{jl}}{\sum_{i,l}^n S_{il} c_{ji}^* c_{jl}}$$

$$H_{il} = \langle \Phi_i | \mathcal{H} | \Phi_l \rangle$$
$$S_{il} = \langle \Phi_i | \Phi_l \rangle$$

#### Tight-binding model:general theory

Minimizing the energy with respect to the coefficients  $c_{jm}^* \Longrightarrow \partial E_j / \partial c_{jm}^* = 0$ 

$$\sum_{l=1}^{n} H_{ml}c_{jl} = E_j \sum_{l=1}^{n} S_{ml}c_{jl}$$

For the special case of two orbitals per unit cell:

$$\begin{pmatrix} H_{11} & H_{12} \\ H_{21} & H_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_{j1} \\ c_{j2} \end{pmatrix} = E_j \begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_{j1} \\ c_{j2} \end{pmatrix}$$

In short

$$H\psi_j = E_j S\psi_j$$

Eigenenergies:

 $\det\left(H - E_j S\right) = 0$ 

There are n=2 orbitals in the unit cell. Diagonal matrix elements

$$H_{AA} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} e^{i\mathbf{k}.(\mathbf{R}_{A,j} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i})} \langle \phi_A \left(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i}\right) |\mathcal{H}| \phi_A \left(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{A,j}\right) \rangle$$

 $\mathbf{k} = (k_x, k_y)$ 

Assumption: dominant contribution comes from i=j, others can be neglected

$$H_{AA} \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \langle \phi_A \left( \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i} \right) | \mathcal{H} | \phi_A \left( \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i} \right) \rangle$$

 $\langle \phi_A | \mathcal{H} | \phi_A \rangle$  Within the summation this expectation value is the same for every value of i

$$H_{AA} \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \epsilon_{2p} = \epsilon_{2p}$$

Carbon atoms on sublattice B are chemically identical to atoms on sublattice A:

$$H_{BB} = H_{AA} \approx \epsilon_{2p}$$

Overlap integrals: assuming again that same site contribution dominate (nearest neighbours are B atoms)

$$S_{AA} \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \langle \phi_A \left( \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i} \right) | \phi_A \left( \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i} \right) \rangle = 1$$



Off-diagonal matrix elements



$$H_{AB} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} e^{i\mathbf{k}.(\mathbf{R}_{B,j} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i})} \langle \phi_A \left(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i}\right) |\mathcal{H}| \phi_B \left(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{B,j}\right) \rangle$$

Assumption: dominant contribution comes from nearest-neighbors, other contributions can be neglected. Looking at, e.g., A type atoms, there are 3 nearest-neighbor B atoms

$$H_{AB} \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{l=1}^{3} e^{i\mathbf{k}.(\mathbf{R}_{B,l} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i})} \langle \phi_A \left(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i}\right) | \mathcal{H} | \phi_B \left(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{B,l}\right) \rangle$$

The index "I" depends on the index "i"

Off-diagonal matrix elements



$$H_{AB} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} e^{i\mathbf{k}.(\mathbf{R}_{B,j} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i})} \langle \phi_A \left(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i}\right) |\mathcal{H}| \phi_B \left(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{B,j}\right) \rangle$$

Assumption: dominant contribution comes from nearest-neighbors, other contributions can be neglected. Looking at, e.g., A type atoms, there are 3 nearest-neighbor B atoms

$$H_{AB} \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{l=1}^{3} e^{i\mathbf{k}.(\mathbf{R}_{B,l} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i})} \langle \phi_A \left(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i}\right) | \mathcal{H} | \phi_B \left(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{B,l}\right) \rangle$$

The index "I" depends on the index "i"

The matrix element between nearest-neighbor A and B atoms has the same value for each neighboring pair:

 $\gamma_{0} = -\langle \phi_{A} \left( \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i} \right) | \mathcal{H} | \phi_{B} \left( \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{B,l} \right) \rangle$ 

Note, at this step we have made use of the fact that the atomic orbitals  $\phi_j$  are actually p\_z orbitals, hence have a rotational symmetry

# Footnote: general method to obtain tight-binding Hamiltonians

General method: Slater-Koster parametrization of hopping integrals Physical Review 94, 1498 (1954) For recent introduction see,e.g., Sergej Konschuh PhD thesis

Slater-Koster parametrization is still useful, especially in connection with first principles methods and group theory. **Recent examples**: Bilayer MoS2, arXiv:1304.4831



Spin-orbit coupling in trilayer graphene: Phys Rev B **87**, 045419 (2013)

The matrix element between nearest-neighbor A and B atoms has the same value for each neighboring pair:

 $\gamma_0 = -\langle \phi_A \left( \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i} \right) | \mathcal{H} | \phi_B \left( \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_{B,l} \right) \rangle$ 

Note, at this step we have made use of the fact that the atomic orbitals  $\phi_j$  are actually p\_z orbitals, hence have a rotational symmetry

Therefore  

$$H_{AB} \approx -\frac{\gamma_0}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{l=1}^{3} e^{i\mathbf{k}.\boldsymbol{\delta}_l} \equiv -\gamma_0 f(\mathbf{k}) \qquad f(\mathbf{k}) = \sum_{l=1}^{3} e^{i\mathbf{k}.\boldsymbol{\delta}_l}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\delta}_l = \mathbf{R}_{B,l} - \mathbf{R}_{A,i}$$

Position of atom B relative to atom A



$$\delta_1 = \left(0, \frac{a}{\sqrt{3}}\right) \quad \delta_2 = \left(\frac{a}{2}, -\frac{a}{2\sqrt{3}}\right)$$
$$\delta_3 = \left(-\frac{a}{2}, -\frac{a}{2\sqrt{3}}\right)$$

 $f(\mathbf{k}) = e^{ik_y a/\sqrt{3}} + 2e^{-ik_y a/2\sqrt{3}}\cos(k_x a/2)$ 



$$\delta_1 = \left(0, \frac{a}{\sqrt{3}}\right) \quad \delta_2 = \left(\frac{a}{2}, -\frac{a}{2\sqrt{3}}\right)$$
$$\delta_3 = \left(-\frac{a}{2}, -\frac{a}{2\sqrt{3}}\right)$$

$$f(\mathbf{k}) = e^{ik_y a/\sqrt{3}} + 2e^{-ik_y a/2\sqrt{3}} \cos\left(k_x a/2\right)$$

Finally

 $H_{AB} \approx -\gamma_0 f\left(\mathbf{k}\right) \quad H_{BA} \approx -\gamma_0 f^*\left(\mathbf{k}\right)$ 

In a similar fashion:  $S_{AB} = s_0 f(\mathbf{k})$ 

In summary: 
$$H_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_{2p} & -\gamma_{0}f(\mathbf{k}) \\ -\gamma_{0}f^{*}(\mathbf{k}) & \epsilon_{2p} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$S_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & s_{0}f(\mathbf{k}) \\ s_{0}f^{*}(\mathbf{k}) & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The corresponding eigenenergies:

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_{2p} - E & -(\gamma_0 + Es_0) f(\mathbf{k}) \\ -(\gamma_0 + Es_0) f^*(\mathbf{k}) & \epsilon_{2p} - E \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

#### From

R. Saito, M.S. Dresselhaus, G. Dresselhaus *Physical Properties of Carbon Nanotubes*, (Imperial College Press, London, 1998)

 $\gamma_0 = 3.033 \,\mathrm{eV}$   $\epsilon_{2p} = 0$  Choice of the origin of the energy axis  $s_0 = 0.129$  Such parameters can be obtained from DFT or experiments







Fermi energy lies at E=0

Only two K points are inequivalent, the others are connected by reciprocal vector, or see the original Brillouin zone



 $\mathbf{K}_{\xi} = \xi \left( \frac{4\pi}{3a}, 0 \right) \quad \mathsf{K}_{,\mathsf{K}_{+}} \text{ points often called "valleys"}$ 

 $E_{\pm} = \frac{\epsilon_{2p} \pm \gamma_0 |f(\mathbf{k})|}{1 \mp s_0 |f(\mathbf{k})|} \qquad f(\mathbf{K}_{\xi}) = e^0 + e^{i\xi 2\pi/3} + e^{-i\xi 2\pi/3} = 0$ 

Gaples band structure

Introducing the momentum measured from the K point(s)

 $\mathbf{p} = \hbar \mathbf{k} - \hbar \mathbf{K}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}}$ 

and expanding f(k) up to first order in p

$$f(\mathbf{k}) \approx -\frac{\sqrt{3}a}{2\hbar} \left(\xi p_x - ip_y\right)$$

and we obtain the famous 2D massles Dirac Hamiltonian of graphene

$$H_{1,\xi} = v \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \xi p_x - ip_y \\ \xi p_x + ip_y & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad v = \sqrt{3}a\gamma_0/(2\hbar)$$

Introducing the momentum measured from the K point(s)

 $\mathbf{p} = \hbar \mathbf{k} - \hbar \mathbf{K}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}}$ 

and expanding f(k) up to first order in p

$$f(\mathbf{k}) \approx -\frac{\sqrt{3}a}{2\hbar} \left(\xi p_x - ip_y\right)$$

and we obtain the famous 2D massles Dirac Hamiltonian of graphene

$$H_{1,\xi} = v \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \xi p_x - ip_y \\ \xi p_x + ip_y & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad v = \sqrt{3}a\gamma_0/(2\hbar)$$

The actual value of the velocity v is  $10^6$  m/s  $\approx$  c/300

$$H_{1,\xi} = v \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \xi p_x - ip_y \\ \xi p_x + ip_y & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

If we now consider  $H_1$  to be an effective Hamiltonian and solve the corresponding Schrödinger equation:

$$E_{\pm} = \pm vp \qquad \qquad \psi_{\pm} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \pm \xi e^{i\xi\varphi} \end{pmatrix} e^{i\mathbf{p}.\mathbf{r}/\hbar}$$
$$\mathbf{p} = (p_x, p_y) = p(\cos\varphi, \sin\varphi)$$

What about the overlap matrix S?

 $E_{\pm} = \frac{\epsilon_{2p} \pm \gamma_0 |f(\mathbf{k})|}{1 \mp s_0 |f(\mathbf{k})|} \quad \text{Finite overlap contributes with } \sim p^2 \text{ terms}$ 

$$H_{1,\xi} = v \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \xi p_x - ip_y \\ \xi p_x + ip_y & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

If we now consider  $H_1$  to be an effective Hamiltonian and solve the corresponding Schrödinger equation:

$$E_{\pm} = \pm vp \qquad \qquad \psi_{\pm} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \pm \xi e^{i\xi\varphi} \end{pmatrix} e^{i\mathbf{p}.\mathbf{r}/\hbar}$$
$$\mathbf{p} = (p_x, p_y) = p(\cos\varphi, \sin\varphi)$$

What about the overlap matrix S?

 $E_{\pm} = \frac{\epsilon_{2p} \pm \gamma_0 |f(\mathbf{k})|}{1 \mp s_0 |f(\mathbf{k})|} \quad \text{Finite overlap contributes with } \sim p^2 \text{ terms}$ 

$$H_{1,\xi} = v \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \xi p_x - ip_y \\ \xi p_x + ip_y & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

If we now consider  $H_1$  to be an effective Hamiltonian and solve the corresponding Schrödinger equation:

$$E_{\pm} = \pm vp \qquad \qquad \psi_{\pm} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \pm \xi e^{i\xi\varphi} \end{pmatrix} e^{i\mathbf{p}.\mathbf{r}/\hbar}$$
$$\mathbf{p} = (p_x, p_y) = p(\cos\varphi, \sin\varphi)$$

What about the overlap matrix S?

 $E_{\pm} = \frac{\epsilon_{2p} \pm \gamma_0 |f(\mathbf{k})|}{1 \mp s_0 |f(\mathbf{k})|} \quad \text{Finite overlap contributes with } \sim p^2 \text{ terms}$ 

Higher order terms in momentum in  $E(\mathbf{p})$  are negligible for energies  $\leq 1 \text{ eV}$ 

The eigenstates have two components, reminiscent of spin  $\frac{1}{2}$ 

 $\psi_{\pm} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ \pm \xi e^{i\xi\varphi} \end{pmatrix} e^{i\mathbf{p}.\mathbf{r}/\hbar}$ 

Looking back to the original definitions, the two components correspond to the relative amplitude of the Bloch function on the A and B sublattice.

This degree of freedom is called pseudospin.

If the wavefunction was finite only on A sublattice  $\rightarrow (1,0)^T = |\uparrow >$ on B sublattice  $\rightarrow (0,1)^T = |\downarrow >$ 

In graphene, the density is usually shared equally between A and B sublattice.

Some substrates can break this symmetry, though

The eigenstates have two components, reminiscent of spin  $\frac{1}{2}$ 

$$\psi_{\pm} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ \pm \xi e^{i\xi\varphi} \end{pmatrix} e^{i\mathbf{p}.\mathbf{r}/\hbar}$$

Looking back to the original definitions, the two components correspond to the relative amplitude of the Bloch function on the A and B sublattice.

This degree of freedom is called pseudospin.

If the wavefunction was finite only on A sublattice  $\rightarrow (1,0)^T = |\uparrow >$ on B sublattice  $\rightarrow (0,1)^T = |\downarrow >$ 

In graphene, the density is usually sharer equally between A and B sublattice.

Some substrates can break this symmetry, though

Note the index  $\xi$ : in addition to pseudospin, there is another degree of freedom: valley

The valleys are usually not coupled, except in the case of atomic scale scatterers and certain boundaries => two independent Hamiltonians

The particles described by the Dirac Hamiltonian of monolayer graphene have yet another property: they are chiral

This means that the orientation of pseudospin depends on the direction of the electronic momentum **p** 

To see this more clearly, let's write the effective Hamiltonian as

$$H_{1,\xi} = v \left(\xi \sigma_x p_x + \sigma_y p_y\right)$$

and define a pseudospin vector as  $\boldsymbol{\sigma} = (\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z)$ and a unit vector as  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}_1 = (\xi \cos \varphi, \sin \varphi, 0)$ 

The particles described by the Dirac Hamiltonian of monolayer graphene have yet another property: they are chiral

This means that the orientation of pseudospin depends on the direction of the electronic momentum **p** 

To see this more clearly, let's write the effective Hamiltonian as

$$H_{1,\xi} = v \left(\xi \sigma_x p_x + \sigma_y p_y\right)$$

and define a pseudospin vector as  $\boldsymbol{\sigma} = (\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z)$ and a unit vector as  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}_1 = (\xi \cos \varphi, \sin \varphi, 0)$ 

Then 
$$H_{1,\xi} = v p \, \boldsymbol{\sigma}. \hat{\mathbf{n}}_1$$

therefore  $\sigma$  is linked to the direction of n

In other words, the eigenstates of the effective Hamiltonian are also eigenstates of the chiral operator  $\sigma_{.\hat{n}_{1}}$ 

 $\boldsymbol{\sigma}.\mathbf{\hat{n}}_1\psi_{\pm} = \pm\psi_{\pm}.$ 

Another way to express this is to calculate  $\langle \sigma \rangle = (\langle \sigma_x \rangle, \langle \sigma_y \rangle, \langle \sigma_z \rangle)$ with respect to  $\psi_{\pm}$ .

$$\langle \boldsymbol{\sigma} \rangle_{e/h} = \pm \left( \xi \cos \varphi, \sin \varphi, 0 \right)$$

In valley  $K_{\downarrow}$ 



Important consequence of the chirality of particles: the probability to scatter into a direction characterized by the angle  $\varphi$  ( $\varphi$ =0 corresponds to forward Scattering) is proportional to  $w(\varphi) = |\langle \psi_{\pm}(\varphi) | \psi_{\pm}(0) \rangle|^2$ 

For monolayer graphene

 $w(\varphi) = \cos^2(\varphi/2)$ 

