Investigation of the effects of defects and impurities on nanostructures consisting of Group IV and V elements using First-principles calculations

Thesis submitted to achieve the degree of doctor of science by

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DEDICATION

I dedicate my thesis to God who has been my guide during all my life. My faith in Him always empowered me with the courage to help me cross each hurdle that I came across as I did this thesis.
Also, I dedicate my thesis to my girl Yara and my loving parents who have made me stronger, better and more fulfilled than I could have ever imagined.
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List of Figures ix
List of Tables xvii

1 Introduction 1
  1.1 Two-dimensional material (2DM) . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 2
  1.2 Crystal structures . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 3
  1.3 Overview of 2DM . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 5
    1.3.1 X-enes and X-anes . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 5
    1.3.2 TMDs and SMCs . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 7
    1.3.3 MX-enes . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 7
    1.3.4 2D carbon nitride materials . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 8
    1.3.5 Further 2DM . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 10
  1.4 Structural modifications of 2DM . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 11
    1.4.1 Defects . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 11
    1.4.2 Dopants . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 12
    1.4.3 Number of layers . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 13
    1.4.4 Strain engineering . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 14
  1.5 Motivation of this thesis . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 15
  1.6 Method of Calculations . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 16
    1.6.1 Overview on Density Functional Theory . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 16
    1.6.2 Formalism . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 16
    1.6.3 Hohenberg-Kohn Theorems . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 17
# CONTENTS

1.6.4 The Kohn-Sham Equations ........................................ 18
1.6.5 Exchange-Correlation Functional ................................ 19

2 Adsorption of atom and molecule .................................... 21
  2.1 Introduction ....................................................... 21
  2.2 Computational method ............................................ 22
  2.3 Structure and electronic properties of monolayer C\textsubscript{3}N .............................................. 24
  2.4 Effect of adatom adsorption ........................................ 26
    2.4.1 Adsorption of simple adatoms ................................ 28
    2.4.2 Adsorption of alkali and alkaline-earth adatoms ............. 31
    2.4.3 Adsorption of 3d-transition metal adatoms .................... 34
    2.4.4 Effect of atom diffusion ..................................... 40
  2.5 Adsorption of molecule ............................................ 41
    2.5.1 Introduction .................................................. 41
    2.5.2 Structural and energetic properties ............................ 42
    2.5.3 Electronic and magnetic properties ............................ 46
  2.6 Summary and conclusions ........................................... 48

3 Functionalization and conformation of atom ......................... 49
  3.1 Introduction ....................................................... 49
  3.2 Effect of H and O atoms coverages ................................ 50
    3.2.1 Adsorption two H and O atoms ................................. 53
  3.3 Effect of H atom clusters: Ortho, Meta and Para configurations .............................................. 55
    3.3.1 Effect of H adsorption with different distances ................ 58
    3.3.2 Effect of H adsorption with 0.125\% concentration .............. 59
  3.4 Functionalization of C\textsubscript{3}N with H, O and F atoms .............................................. 60
    3.4.1 Structure properties ........................................... 61
  3.5 Electronic properties ............................................... 62
    3.5.1 Smei and fully hyrogenation with boat-like conformation ....... 65
  3.6 Effect of vacancy defect ............................................ 65
    3.6.1 Effect of vacancy defect in boat-like conformation .......... 67
    3.6.2 Simulated STM images and molecular dynamics simulations .... 68
  3.7 Conclusion .......................................................... 70

4 Topological defect and impurity atoms ............................... 71
  4.1 Effect of topological defects ....................................... 73
    4.1.1 Structure properties ........................................... 73
    4.1.2 Electronic and magnetic properties ............................ 74
  4.2 Substitution of atom ................................................ 77
List of Figures

1.1 2D material families. [1] ................................................................. 3

1.2 Atomic structures of 2D non-graphene materials. (a) 1T (right) and 2H (left) phases of MoS$_2$, respectively. In the upper diagram, the trigonal prismatic and octahedral coordination are shown. The lower panel shows the c-axis view of single-layer MoS$_2$. Atom colour: purple, Mo; yellow, S. (b) Two layers of GaSe, where the selenium and gallium atoms are represented by orange and green spheres, respectively. (c) Atomic structure of GaTe. Blue balls, Te; yellow balls, Ga. (d) Atomic lattice of GeS with a rhombohedra structure. (e) Atomic structures of Bi$_2$Se$_3$ and Bi$_2$Te$_3$. (f) Atomic structure of black phosphorus. [2] ............................................... 5

1.3 Structure of atomically thin 2D materials: graphene, silicene, germanene (and their derivatives), silicon carbide (SiC), hexagonal boron nitride (h-BN) and α-transition metal chalcogenides (TMC) (top). Ultrathin 2D materials such as transition metal dichalcogenides (TMD) (bottom). Unit cells are depicted in red. Colour code: Metals in ice blue, halides in green, chalcogenides in yellow, nitrogen in blue, carbon in grey, silicon and germanium in gold, boron in pink and hydrogen in white. [3] .............................. 6
MXenes can have at least three different formulas: $M_2X$, $M_3X_2$ and $M_4X_3$, where $M$ is an early transition metal and $X$ is carbon and/or nitrogen. They can be made in three different forms: mono-$M$ elements (for example, $\text{Ti}_2\text{C}$ and $\text{Nb}_2\text{C}_3$); a solid solution of at least two different $M$ elements (for example, $(\text{Ti},\text{V})_3\text{C}_2$ and $(\text{Cr},\text{V})_3\text{C}_2$); or ordered double-$M$ elements, in which one transition metal occupies the perimeter layers and another fills the central $M$ layers (for example, $\text{Mo}_2\text{TiC}_2$ and $\text{Mo}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{C}_3$, in which the outer $M$ layers are Mo and the central $M$ layers are Ti). Solid solutions on the $X$ site produce carbonitrides. [4]

Schematic view of different carbon nitride nanosheets with their possible areas of applications. [4]

Building van der Waals heterostructures from 2D materials. [5]

(a) Stone-Wales defect (55-77) in graphene. (b) Single vacancy defect (5-9) in graphene. (c) Double vacancy defect (5-8-5) in graphene.

(a) Schematic diagrams of lattice structures and the corresponding band structures of monolayer graphene, bilayer graphene, and bilayer graphene under a vertical electrical field. The opened bandgap 2D can be tuned by the magnitude of the field. (b) Band structures of MoS$_2$ from the bulk to the monolayer (1L). The arrows show the transitions from valence band edge to the lowest energy conduction band edge.

(a) Schematic of uniaxial tensile stress applied in graphene and the calculated band structure of 1% tensile strained graphene. An opened band gap can be clearly observed. (b) Band gap of monolayer MoS$_2$ as a function of applied strain. The direct band gap of pristine MoS$_2$ becomes indirect and even metallic when tensile strain is applied.

(a) Optimized atomic structure of C$_3$N, with its hexagonal primitive unit cell, indicated by a red parallelogram. The blue (brown) dots are N (C) atoms. The total and difference charge density isosurfaces are also shown in the same panel. (b) Simulated STM image and (b) STM image of C$_3$N structure. Inset structure represents C$_3$N repeating unit cell.

(a) Electronic band structure of C$_3$N with corresponding DOS and PDOS on C and N atoms. The zero of energy is set to the Fermi level ($E_F$). (b) The DOS and band structure (insets) of C$_3$N calculated with OpenMX, QUANTUM ESPRESSO and SIESTA codes.

(a) Schematic view of possible adsorption sites of adatoms on C$_3$N. (b) Adsorption energy of different atoms on C$_3$N.
2.4 (a) Variation of structural parameters including bond lengths, height and buckling for different adatoms adsorbed on C$_3$N at the stable sites.  

2.5 (a) Optimized atomic structures with corresponding, difference charge density of the C$_3$N with H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, Si, N and P adatoms at stable sites.  

2.6 (a) Electronic band structure with corresponding, (b) DOS and PDOS of C$_3$N with H, O, S, F and Cl adatoms at stable $T_C$-site. The zero of the energy is set at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green-point line.  

2.7 (a) Electronic band structure with corresponding, (b) DOS and PDOS of adsorbed B, C, Si, N and P adatoms at $T_C$-site. The zero of the energy is set at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green-point line.  

2.8 (a) Optimized atomic structures with corresponding, difference charge density of the C$_3$N with Li, Na, K, Be, Mg, Ca and Al adatoms at stable sites.  

2.9 (a) Electronic band structures with corresponding, (b) DOS and PDOS of adsorbed Li, Na, K, Be, Mg, Ca and Al adatoms at stable $H_{CC}$-site. The zero of the energy is set at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green-point line.  

2.10 Optimized atomic structures with corresponding, difference charge density of the C$_3$N with Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and Zn adatoms at stable sites.  

2.11 (a) Electronic band structures with corresponding, (b) DOS and PDOS of adsorbed Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and Zn adatoms at stable sites.  

2.12 (a) Electronic band structure with corresponding, (b) DOS and PDOS of adsorbed Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and Zn adatoms at stable site. The zero of the energy is set at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green-point line.  

2.13 (a) Difference spin densities of TMs/C$_3$N (Ad= Fe, Co, Ni and Zn). The blue and yellow colors show the $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin states directions, respectively. (b) Magnetic moment of TMs/C$_3$N. The energy scheme of 3d-orbital states spin-splitting under hexagonal crystal field (top figure).  

2.14 Total energy of an adsorbed adatoms at the symmetry points and motion along the symmetry ($T_C \rightarrow B_{CC} \rightarrow H_{CC} \rightarrow T_C$) directions.  

2.15 Schematic view of favorable adsorption (a) sites and (b) orientation of molecules including $H_2$, $N_2$, $O_2$, $CO$, $CO_2$, $NO$, $NO_2$, $SO_2$, $H_2O$, $H_2S$, $NH_3$ and $CH_4$ on the C$_3$N. (c) Top view of the final structure of C$_3$N adsorbed with various gas molecules corresponding to the stable sites. (d) Adsorption energy of molecules on C$_3$N at most stable site.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>Optimized structures with corresponding structural parameter for adsorption of $H_2$, $N_2$, $O_2$, $CO$, $CO_2$, $NO$, $NO_2$, $SO_2$, $H_2O$, $H_2S$, $NH_3$ and $CH_4$ molecules on C$_3$N at the most stable site. Both, top and side views are shown. Difference charge density are indicated in the same panel. The blue and yellow regions represent charge accumulation and depletion, respectively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>Electronic band structure for adsorption of $H_2$, $N_2$, $O_2$, $CO$, $CO_2$, $NO$, $NO_2$, $SO_2$, $H_2O$, $H_2S$, $NH_3$ and $CH_4$ molecules on C$_3$N at the most stable site. The zero of energy is set at $E_F$.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>DOS and PDOS for adsorption of $H_2$, $N_2$, $O_2$, $CO$, $CO_2$, $NO$, $NO_2$, $SO_2$, $H_2O$, $H_2S$, $NH_3$ and $CH_4$ molecules on C$_3$N at the most stable site. Charge densities of HOMO and LUMO are shown in the insets. The blue and yellow regions represent charge accumulation and depletion, respectively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Optimized structures, electronic band structure and DOS of H/C$<em>3$N for difference coverages of H atoms. (a) Relaxed structure of 3.1% (C$</em>{32}$N$_8$H$<em>1$), 6.2% (C$</em>{32}$N$_8$H$<em>2$), 9.3% (C$</em>{32}$N$_8$H$<em>3$) and 12.5% (C$</em>{32}$N$_8$H$_4$). (b) The corresponding band structure and DOS. Difference charge densities are also shown. The blue and yellow regions represent the charge accumulation and depletion, respectively. The zero of energy is at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green line.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Optimized structures, electronic band structure and corresponding DOS of C$_3$N for difference coverages of O atoms. (a) The relaxed structure of 3.1%, 6.2%, 9.3% and 12.5%. (b) The corresponding band structures and DOS. Difference charge density are also shown. The blue and yellow regions represent the charge accumulation and depletion, respectively. The zero of energy is at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green line.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>Optimized structures, electronic band structure and DOS of H and O atoms adsorbed on two sides of C$_3$N for (a) $H_t$/$H_b$, (b) $O_t$/$O_b$ and (c) $H_t$/$O_b$. Difference charge densities are also shown, and for (b), the charge density of the highest occupied and lowest unoccupied molecular orbitals (HOMO and LUMO) are shown as insets. The zero of energy is at $E_F$ as shown by the dashed green line.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4 (a) Optimized atomic structures of two H atoms adsorbed on C$_3$N. (b) Difference electron charge densities and (c) simulated STM images of three different configurations including one-side ortho, meta and para. Blue and yellow regions represent the charge accumulation and depletion, respectively. ................................................................. 56

3.5 Electronic band structure, DOS and PDOS for the six different H pair configurations including (a) one-side ortho, (b) one-side meta, (c) one-side para, (d) two-side ortho, (e) two-side meta and (f) two-side para. The zero of energy is at $E_F$ and shown by the dashed green line. .......................... 57

3.6 Optimized atomic structures, electronic band structure, DOS and PDOS of two H atoms adsorbed on the same side of C$_3$N for four different configurations, namely, (a) I, (b) II, (c) III and (d) IV for increasing H-H distance. The zero of energy is at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green line. .......................... 58

3.7 (a) Optimized structures (b) electronic band structure, for a 0.125\% one-sided uniform coverage of H atoms adsorbed on each ($n \times m$) supercell of C$_3$N: $C_{96}N_{32}H_4$, $C_{192}N_{64}H_8$, $C_{214}N_{72}H_9$ and $C_{240}N_{80}H_{10}$. The zero of energy is set at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green-point line. (c) Difference spin density. Blue and yellow regions represent the $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin channels, respectively. ......................................................... 60

3.8 Schematic atomic structures of (a) semi and (b) fully functionalized (hydrogenated, fluorinated and oxidized) C$_3$N in the chair-like conformation. (c-e) Variation of structural parameters including (c) lattice constant, (d) bond lengths (e) and buckling together with the thickness of the layers for the different structures. ......................................................... 61

3.9 Electronic band structure, DOS and PDOS of (a) semi-hydrogenated, (b) semi-fluorinated, (c) semi-oxidized, (d) fully-hydrogenated, (e) fully-fluorinated and (f) fully-oxidized in the chair-like conformation of C$_3$N. The difference charge density is given in the top of the panels. The blue and yellow regions represent the charge accumulation and depletion, respectively. The zero of energy is at $E_F$ as shown by the dashed green line. .......................... 63

3.10 Optimized atomic structures, electronic band structure, DOS and PDOS of boat-like conformation for (a,b) semi-hydrogenated, (c,d) fully-hydrogenated of C$_3$N. The difference charge densities indicated in top of panels. The blue and yellow regions represent the charge accumulation and depletion, respectively. The zero of energy is set at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green-point line. ................................................. 64
3.11 Relaxed atomic structures, band structure and DOS of fully hydrogenated C$_3$N with the boat-like conformation for the (a) single vacancy H formed by removing one H atom and (b) a double vacancy H structure by removing two H atom, from one side. The difference spin density is shown as inset. The blue and yellow regions represent the $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin channels, respectively. The difference charge densities are also indicated at the top of the figures. The blue and yellow regions represent the electron accumulation and depletion, respectively. The zero of energy is set at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green-point line...

3.12 Relaxed atomic structures, band structure and DOS of fully hydrogenated C$_3$N with the boat-like conformation for the (a) single vacancy H formed by removing one H atom and (b) a double vacancy H structure by removing two H atom, from one side. The difference spin density is shown as inset. The blue and yellow regions represent the $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin channels, respectively. The difference charge densities are also indicated at the top of the figures. The blue and yellow regions represent the electron accumulation and depletion, respectively. The zero of energy is set at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green-point line...

3.13 Simulated STM images of semi-hydrogenated C$_3$N. (b) Top and side views of snapshots for the relaxed structures of the C$_3$N at temperatures of 1000K, as obtained from molecular dynamics simulations...

4.1 Schematic view of the different topological defects considered in the present paper: single vacancy with missing one C atom (SV$_C$), single vacancy with missing one N atom (SV$_N$), double vacancy with missing a pair of C (DV$_{CC}$), double vacancy with missing a pair of N (DV$_{NN}$), double vacancy with missing a pair of N and C (DV$_{NC}$), Stone-Wales (SW) and anti-site with exchange of the position of N and C atoms (AS$_{NC}$)...

4.2 Optimized structures with corresponding bond lengths and angles of (a) SV$_C$, (b) SV$_N$, (c) C+C (DV$_{CC}$), (d) N+C (DV$_{NC}$), (e) N+N (DV$_{NN}$), (f) anti-site (AS$_{NC}$), (g) C-C (SW$_{CC}$) and (h) N-C (SW$_{NC}$) defects on C$_3$N...

4.3 Electronic structure of C$_3$N with different defects including SV$_C$, SV$_N$, C+C (DV$_{CC}$), N+C (DV$_{NC}$), N+N (DV$_{NN}$), anti-site (AS$_{NC}$), C-C (SW$_{CC}$) and N-C (SW$_{NC}$). Dotted curves represent the electronic structure of pristine C$_3$N. The zero of energy is set to $E_F$, shown by the green dash-point line...

...
4.4 DOS and PDOS $SV_C$, $SV_N$, C+C ($DV_{CC}$), N+C ($DV_{NC}$), N+N ($DV_{NN}$), anti-site ($AS_{NC}$), C-C ($SW_{CC}$) and N-C ($SW_{NC}$) defects on $C_3N$. The charge distributions for the VBM and CBM are shown in the insets. Blue and yellow regions represent charge accumulation and depletion, respectively. ........................................ 76

4.5 (a) Lattice constant of $C_3N$ substituted with different atoms. Schematic model of two substitution sites is shown in the inset. (b,c) Effect of strain in lattice constant of $C_3N$ substituted with different atoms. (d,e) Energy band gap and (f,g) magnetic moment due to substitution by difference species of atoms at respectively the, C and N host atom sites. .............. 78

4.6 Optimized structures for substitution of (a) C or (b) N in the $C_3N$ lattice with H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, Si, N and P. Structural parameters including atomic bond length and angles are indicated. C, N and foreign atoms are shown by brown, blue and different colored balls, respectively. ............ 79

4.7 Electronic structure for substitution of (a) C or (b) N in the $C_3N$ lattice with H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, Si, N and P. The dotted curves represent the electronic structure of pristine $C_3N$. The zero of energy is set to $E_F$, shown by the green dash-point line. ................................................................. 81

4.8 DOS and PDOS for substitution of (a) C or (b) N in the $C_3N$ lattice with H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, Si, N and P. ................................................................. 82

4.9 Electronic structure for substitution of (a) C or (b) N in the $C_3N$ lattice with Li, Na, K, Be, Mg, Ca and Al. The zero of energy is set to $E_F$, shown by the green dash-point line. .................... 83

5.1 Optimized structures, band structure, DOS and PDOS of a few layer $C_3N$ nanosheet with different stackings. The zero of energy is set to the Fermi level energy. ................................................................. 88

5.2 Electronic band structures and DOS of $C_3N$ as a function of (a,b) charging and (c) electric field. The $F= +1$ and -1 V/Å denotes parallel and antiparallel to the z-axis), respectively. The $q= +1 e$ and $q= -1 e$, corresponds to the charging where one electron is removed from and added to the $C_3N$, respectively. Zero of energy is set at the $E_F$ indicated by dash-dotted lines. .......... 89

5.3 (a) Electronic structure of bilayer $C_3N$ as a function of the an electric field, whose strength varies from -0.8 to +0.8 V/Å. The perpendicular electric field $F> 0$ and $< 0$ that denotes parallel and antiparallel to the z-axis, respectively. The zero of energy is set at the $E_F$. (d) Band gap of bilayer $C_3N$ with respect to the electric field. ........................................ 90
5.4 (a) Schematically view of the uniaxial and biaxial strain applied on C$_3$N along ab-axis. Electronic band structures of C$_3$N as a function of (b) uniaxial strains along zigzag directions and (c) biaxial strains. The $E_F$ is set to zero. (d) The band gap a function of uniaxial and biaxial strains.

5.5 Electronic band structure of (a) Ti, (b) Mn and (c) Fe adsorbed C$_3$N as a function of charging. The q= +1 e and q= -1 e, corresponds to the charging where one electron is removed from and added to the C$_3$N, respectively.

5.6 DOS and PDOS of (a) Ti, (b) Mn and (c) Fe adsorbed C$_3$N as a function of charging. The q= +1 e and q= -1 e, corresponds to the charging where one electron is removed from and added to the C$_3$N, respectively.

5.7 Electronic band structure of (a) Ti, (b) Mn and (c) Fe adsorbed C$_3$N as a function of electric field (F). F= +1 and -1 V/Å denotes parallel and antiparallel to the z-axis, respectively.

5.8 DOS and PDOS of (a) Ti, (b) Mn and (c) Fe adsorbed C$_3$N as a function of electric field (F). F= +1 and -1 V/Å denotes parallel and antiparallel to the z-axis, respectively.

5.9 Electronic band structures of (a) Mn and (b) Fe adsorbed C$_3$N for different of uniaxial strain (tensile and compression). The $E_F$ is set to zero.

5.10 (a) Band gap as a function of uniaxial strain for Fe/C$_3$N. (b) Magnetic moment of TMs/C$_3$N (TM=Ti, Mn and Fe) as a function of uniaxial strain.

5.11 (a) Schematic view of the boat-like conformation of SH-C$_3$N upon uniaxial strain (tensile and compressive). Electronic band structure of SH-C$_3$N with the boat-like conformation as a function of uniaxial strains along the (b) zigzag and (c) armchair directions. (d) Variations of the band gap as a function of uniaxial strain.
2.1 The structural, electronic and magnetic parameters of Ad/C₃N at the stable adsorption $T_C$, $B_{CC}$ and $H_{CC}$ adsorption sites shown in Fig. 3(a); The corresponding structural, electronic and magnetic parameters including bond length between adatom and its nearest atom ($d_{AC}$); the bond length between C-C atoms ($d_{CC}$); the bond length between N-C atoms ($d_{NC}$); the height of adatom from the C₃N plane (h); the buckling of C₃N defined by difference between the largest and smallest $Z$ coordinates of C atoms in C₃N ($\Delta Z$); the adsorption energy of adatom, ($E_a$); the magnetic moment per supercell ($\mu$). Electronic states is specified as metal (M), half-metal (HM) or semiconductor (SC). The band gap the system after adsorption ($E_g$); the charge transfer ($\Delta Q$) between adatoms and C₃N are also listed.
CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Over the last decade, two-dimensional materials (2DM) have attracted great attention from the scientific community owing to their applications in electronic devices. The first ever realized 2DM is graphene and, since 2007, it has intensively been explored to electronic device applications, in particular, transistors. While graphene transistors are still on the agenda, researchers have extended their work to 2DM beyond graphene and the number of 2DM under examination has literally exploded recently. Meanwhile, several hundreds of different 2DM have been added to 2D library up to date, a substantial part of them has been considered to be suitable for nanoelectronics. The intention of the present thesis is to shed more light on the merits and drawbacks of 2DM for nanoelectronic applications and to add useful investigations to the ongoing discussion on the prospects of two-dimensional electronic.

2DM have been extensively studied owing to their novel properties and technologically important applications. Especially, the discovery of graphene has stimulated importance of investigations to exploit its novel properties for nanoscale applications. In the post-silicon era, graphene has been widely investigated as the most promising building blocks for the electronic devices. However, its semi-metallic nature is limited its scope for applications. Semiconductors are known to be essential for the applications in nano devices such as transistors. Such a limitation associated with graphene has led to the exploration of 2DM beyond graphene.
1.1 **Two-dimensional material (2DM)**

2DM, normally referred to as single atomic thin layer materials, have become a central topic of research interest since the exfoliation of graphene in 2004. In contrast to their bulk structures, 2DM have surfaces which enable their energy band structures to be sensitive to external perturbations and functionalization. This all-surface nature of 2DM makes them competitive for devices as described by Herbert-Kroemer in The interface is the device. Research on 2D material-based devices not only has contributed to a deeper understanding of the physics of these novel layered materials but also has provided a great platform for the potential opportunities in many fields ranging from electronics to optoelectronics and even to energy and sensing applications.

In 1959, Richard Feynman gave an inspiring and influential lecture entitled “There is Plenty of Room at the Bottom”. In his talk, Feynman envisioned a scientific breakthrough in the field of physics with his questions “What could we do with layered structures with just the right layers? What would the properties of materials be if we could really arrange the atoms the way we want them?” Those Questions challenged scientists to manipulate and control materials on the atomic scale. It was not until 2004, 45 years later, that the University of Manchester physicists Andre K. Geim, Konstantin S. Novoselov, and collaborators experimentally exfoliated and identified graphene, a 2D single atomic layer of carbon. The history of research on graphene, however, can be traced back much further. As early as 1947, Philip Wallace calculated the band structure of this one-atom-thick crystal.

15 years later, Hanns-Peter Boehm synthesized graphene flakes through reductions of graphene oxide dispersions. Then, material scientists tried to produce this one-layer graphite with exfoliation methods or thin-film growth technologies. Indeed, graphene was officially defined to introduce this single atomic carbon layer of graphite structure by the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry in 1995. Based on the earlier studies of ultrathin graphite, along with the rise of other carbon nanomaterials (such as fullerene and carbon nanotubes), scientists and engineers devoted more interests and energy into this new fascinating material to discover its remarkable science and its potential for practical applications. In recent years, various 2DM beyond graphene have attracted considerable attention to the research community, including insulators [e.g., hexagonal boron nitride (h-BN) and transition metal oxides], topological insulators (e.g., Bi$_2$Te$_3$), semiconductors [e.g., MoS$_2$, WSe$_2$, and black phosphorus (BP)], metals (e.g., TiS$_2$), superconductors (e.g., NbSe$_2$), and charge density waves (e.g., 1T-TaS$_2$ at low temperatures) (see in Fig. 1.1).
1.2 Crystal structures

The properties of materials are strongly affected by nanostructuring. For a better understanding, a brief introduction about crystalline structures of some typical 2D layered materials will be given in this part. There are more than 40 types of 2DM. [5, 18, 19]

On the basis of their chemical composition, those materials are divided into the following categories: TMDs in the form of MX$_2$ (M stands for transition metal, like Mo, W, Nb, Re, Ni and V, X stands for chalcogens, including S, Se and Te); TMCs with an MX stoichiometry (III-VI group, and IV-VI group compounds); layered insulator h-BN; single element materials like graphene, black phosphorus (BP), silicene and germanene; V-VI group of topological insulators (TIs) as Bi$_2$Te$_3$, Sb$_2$Se$_3$ and Bi$_2$Se$_3$; transition metal oxides/hydroxides, such as MoO$_3$, V$_2$O$_5$, Ni(OH)$_2$ etc; as well as others (including metal-organic frames and mica etc).
TMDs have layered nature where the layers are weakly coupled while the atoms in the layer are covalently bonded. Variation in the stacking sequence along the out-of-plane direction leads to six different polytypes in bulk form. Among them, 1T (refers to trigonal) and 2H (refers to hexagonal) are usually the most stable states. In the 1T phase, metal atoms are octahedrally coordinated with six neighboring chalcogens, whereas the coordination in 2H is trigonal prismatic. Fig. 1.2(a) shows the crystal structures of 1T and 2H type MoS$_2$ as an example. The studies on TMDs were date back to the 1970s. Up to now, comprehensive conclusions have been addressed. In general, the TMDs formed from groups IVB and VIB metals show semiconducting properties, whereas group VB exhibit metallic properties. Very similar structures were found for group III-VI group TMCs (MX, where M=Ga, In; X=S, Se). Fig. 1.2(b) gives the example of GaSe.

Unlike X-M-X layers in TMDs, hexagonal GaSe has a layered structure in which Se-Ga-Ga-Se atomic order is formed within the layer. According to the ab initio calculation method, one formula unit thickness of GaSe is about 0.75 nm. Unlike its analogues, GaTe has a relatively complicated structure which 1D-like anisotropic structure. As shown in Fig. 1.2(c), there are two kinds of Ga-Ga bonds: two-thirds are perpendicular to the layer and the others are parallel to the layer. As a consequence, a less symmetric monoclinic structure is induced. IV-VI group TMCs, including MX with M=Ge, Sn, Pb and X=S, Se, Te, have a distorted NaCl-type structure. Fig. 1.2(d) shows the crystal structure of GeS as an example the atoms are covalently bonded to three neighbors, forming armchair and zigzag conformations within a layer. Perpendicular to the layers direction, weak van der Waals forces link the layers together making up the 3D bulk materials.

Topological insulators (TIs) are materials with an insulating bulk state and a metallic state at the surface/edge. Holding this special property, TIs are promising for designing novel spintronic, electronic and optoelectronic devices. Layered TIs, including Bi$_2$Te$_3$, Bi$_2$Se$_3$ and Sb$_2$Se$_3$, are of great interest for their large surface-to-volume ratio, which favors the manipulation of surface states. All these layered TIs share the same structure, as shown in Fig. 1.2(e). Each layer consists of covalently bonded X (Se and Te)-M (Bi and Sb)-X-M-X sheets, and these quintuple layers (with a thickness of about 1 nm) are stacked together by the weak van der Waals forces. Phosphorene is another single element layered material besides graphite (graphene). Its crystal structure is given in Fig. 1.2(f). In a layer, each phosphorous atom is covalently bonded with three neighbors forming a zigzag configuration. Weak van der Waals strength stacks each layer together to form a puckered honeycomb structure.
1.3 Overview of 2DM

The successful isolation of graphene has intensively increased the attention to other stable 2DM. Not only experimental efforts but also theoretical predictions on the stability of novel 2DM have been widely done. For the latter, an Á·las of 2DM have been published including the prediction of more than 140 different 2DM. [3]

1.3.1 X-enes and X-anes

Single-layer crystals consisting of single elements, which are arranged in a honeycomb hexagonal lattice, are known as the single-layer X-enes. So far, graphene as well as its Si-, Ge-, and P-based counterparts silicene, germanene, and phosphorene [39] [41] [42] have been experimentally realized, and their properties have been investigated. [43] (see Fig. 1.3)
Figure 1.3: Structure of atomically thin 2D materials: graphene, silicene, germanene (and their derivatives), silicon carbide (SiC), hexagonal boron nitride (h-BN) and α-transition metal chalcogenides (TMC) (top). Ultrathin 2D materials such as transition metal dichalcogenides (TMD) (bottom). Unit cells are depicted in red. Colour code: Metals in ice blue, halides in green, chalcogenides in yellow, nitrogen in blue, carbon in grey, silicon and germanium in gold, boron in pink and hydrogen in white. [3]

The crystallographic structure of the X-anes, which are known as the hydrogenated structures of X-enes, is closely related to that of the X-enes. They also possess a hexagonal lattice of carbon (graphane), silicon (silicane), germanium (germanane), or tin (stanane) atoms. However, the lattice atoms are saturated by H atoms by the out-of-plane orbitals. Among them, graphane has been theoretically predicted[44] and then has been demonstrated to exist experimentally.[45] Recently, germanane has also been realized experi-
mentally.

Most relevant for electronic applications is the fact that graphane, silicane, and germanane possess sizeable band gaps. Here, the lattice atoms are now bonded to F atoms through the out-of-plane unoccupied orbitals. Fluorographene has already been produced experimentally and has been shown to exhibit a wide band gap, possibly even exceeding 3 eV.\[46, 47\] Theory has confirmed these results for fluorographene and furthermore has predicted a gap around 1 eV for fluorosilicene while fluorogermanene seems to be gapless.\[3\]

### 1.3.2 TMDs and SMCs

The transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) is an important group of 2DM which constitute a group of materials consisting of a transition metal M (elements of groups 4, 5, and 6 of the periodic table of elements) and a chalcogen X, i.e., sulfur (S), selenium (Se), or tellurium (Te) (see in Fig. 1.3). These M and X elements form covalently bonded 2D layers of the MX$_2$ type (e.g., MoS$_2$) with a hexagonal lattice. Single-layer TMDs consist of three atomic layers where the layer of M atoms is sandwiched between two layers of X atoms. Currently, more than 40 different types of TMDs have been either experimentally synthesized or theoretically predicted. Many of single-layer TMDs, i.e., MoS$_2$, WSe$_2$, and Hf-, Pd-, Pt-, and Zr-based TMDs, exhibit semiconducting behavior with band gaps of the order of 1-2 eV.\[3, 21\] Notably, TMDs can crystallize in different polytypes, namely 1T, 1T', 2H, and 3R, where T means trigonal, T' distorted trigonal, H hexagonal, and R rhombohedral, and 1, 2, or 3 indicates the number of TMD layers in the unit cell.\[48, 49\] For example, while 2H polytypes are known to be semiconductors, their metastable counterparts, the 1T phases, are metals.\[50\]

### 1.3.3 MX-enes

There is a material class called the MAX family comprising more than 60 individual ternary layered materials (see Fig. 1.4).\[51\] These materials crystallize in a hexagonal lattice and have the composition M$_{n+1}$AX$_n$ where M is an early transition metal, A is a group 13 or 14 element, X is either carbon or nitrogen, and n is an integer equal to 1, 2, or 3. The bonds between the M and X atoms are much stronger than the M-A bonds so that the A atoms can easily be removed, e.g., by an acid treatment. By a subsequent sonication, single M$_{n+1}$X$_n$ layers, the so-called MX-enes, have been shown to be synthesized. As the first MX-ene, Ti$_3$C$_2$ has been successfully prepared from the MAX material Ti$_3$AlC$_2$,\[52\] soon followed by the experimental verification of five further MX-enes,\[51\] and the existence of even more MX-enes have been predicted. Furthermore, F$_2$, (OH)$_2$, and O$_2$ groups
Figure 1.4: MXenes can have at least three different formulas: \( M_2X \), \( M_3X_2 \) and \( M_4X_3 \), where \( M \) is an early transition metal and \( X \) is carbon and/or nitrogen. They can be made in three different forms: mono-\( M \) elements (for example, Ti\(_2\)C and Nb\(_4\)C\(_3\)); a solid solution of at least two different \( M \) elements (for example, (Ti,V)\(_3\)C\(_2\) and (Cr,V)\(_3\)C\(_2\)); or ordered double-\( M \) elements, in which one transition metal occupies the perimeter layers and another fills the central \( M \) layers (for example, Mo\(_2\)TiC\(_2\) and Mo\(_2\)Ti\(_2\)C\(_3\), in which the outer \( M \) layers are Mo and the central \( M \) layers are Ti). Solid solutions on the \( X \) site produce carbonitrides. [4]

can attach to the pure MX-enes of the \( M_2X \) configuration, resulting in the formation of the modified MX-enes \( M_2XF_2 \), \( M_2X(OH)_2 \), and \( MXO_2 \). Several modified MX-enes have been predicted to be semiconductors with sizable band gaps. [53]

### 1.3.4 2D carbon nitride materials

Recently, a special class of 2DM, made from carbon and nitrogen atoms has attracted a lot of attention due to their outstanding physical and chemical properties. Layered nanomaterials solely composed of \( C \) and \( N \) atoms, with the ability of \( N \) atoms to take many different
1.3 Overview of 2DM

Figure 1.5: Schematic view of different carbon nitride nanosheets with their possible areas of applications. [4]

positions, enhance the possibilities to form strong covalent networks. These features allow to grow an extensive number of graphenic carbon-nitride lattices.

It is known that the strong C bonds give rise to the unique properties of graphene. Layered nanomaterials composed of C and N atoms with the ability of N to take many different positions, enhances the options to from strong covalent organic frameworks. These features allow to grow a number of graphenic carbon-nitride lattices. These two-dimensional carbon nitride (2DCN) show attractive band gap and surface-engineered applications in both energy- and environmental-related topics including photocatalysis for water splitting and hydrogen evolution. The strong C bonds give rise to the unique properties of graphene. Among the different classes of materials, 2D carbon nitrides (2DCN) have been among the most successful nanomaterials with inherent various different electronic character. Two-dimensional carbon nitride (2DCN) allotropes, show a common chemical formula C$_n$N$_m$, where n and m represent the number of C and N atoms in the primitive lattice, respectively.

2DCN nanomaterials are well-known to exhibit strong and stable components, owing to the formation of covalent bonds between the C-C and C-N bonds. For different compositions and configurations of the C and N atoms, these nanomaterials can exhibit diverse and promising electronic, optical, mechanical and thermal properties. 2DCN show attractive band gaps and offer surface engineering possibilities, and are well-known to have interesting application prospects in both energy- and environment-related topics, including catalysts, photocatalysis and hydrogen evolution. [54–58] A few decades ago, 2DCN with the
chemical formula $C_3N_4$, has been synthesized. Unlike graphite, 2DCN show porous atomic lattices and more importantly are inherent semiconductors. Very recently, 2D nitrogenated holey graphene with $C_2N$ stoichiometry was experimentally fabricated via a wet-chemical reaction. $C_2N$ which contains an evenly distributed lattice of N and hole sites, makes it an excellent candidate as a nanofilter and an interesting structure for the adsorption of atoms and molecules.

Recently, the first experimental realization of 2D polyaniline (PANI) with stoichiometric formula $C_3N$ and a graphene-like structure is reported. Theoretical studies showed that $C_3N$ exhibits ultrahigh stiffness and thermal conductivity. Furthermore, DFT calculations showed that the electronic properties of $C_3N$ can be tuned by adsorption of atoms. Like its $C_2N$ counterparts, $C_3N$ is also an intrinsic semiconductor according to recent theoretical studies. A $C_3N$ nanosheet can show desirable properties for different applications, like; nanoelectronics, catalysis and hydrogen storage. $C_3N_4$ showed semiconducting properties with the possibility to be a potential photo-catalyst for water splitting. This structure features intrinsic vacancies that are expected to produce a spin polarized state, while the electronic property of $C_3N_4$ will be drastically modified when atoms are substituted. The $C_4N_3$ is the counterpart of $C_3N_4$ that has been experimentally synthesized and was identified to be half-metallic. Metal-free magnetism and half-metallicity in $C_4N_3$ nanosheet and nanotubes was recently predicted to be useful in spintronic devices. $C_6N_6$ is another 2DCN that has been explored in experiments and was investigated theoretically. It was shown that $C_6N_6$ has topologically nontrivial electronic states and it can be tuned into a topological insulator by doping. The successful synthesis and fabrication of different 2DCN motivated us to consider different approaches to tune the band gap. Schematic view of 2DCN nanosheets including $C_2N$, $C_3N$, $C_3N_2$, $C_3N_4$, $C_4N_3$, $C_6N_6$, $C_6N_8$, $C_9N_4$, $C_9N_7$, $C_{10}N_9$ and $C_{14}N_{12}$ with its various possible applications, are shown in Fig. 1.5.

### 1.3.5 Further 2DM

By first-principles calculations, the phonon properties and band structures of entire classes of 2D IV-IV and III-V compounds and of many other 2DM have been investigated. It has been shown that a large body of these 2DM with both hexagonal and tetragonal lattice structures should be stable and show band gaps between 0.2 and 5 eV, respectively. Although it is uncertain whether all these 2DM can be synthesized, at least part of them may become available for experiments in the future. More interestingly, these 2DM can be considered as Lego bricks. We can assemble these bricks together to design materials with completely different functionalities, known as van der Waals heterostructures as illustrated in Fig. 1.6.
1.4 Structural modifications of 2DM

In this part, we introduce the structural modifications of 2D layered materials. This modifications of structur, could strongly alter the physical properties of 2DM and affect the performance of their as electronic and magnetic devices. The structural modifications are such as different defects, dopants and impurities, thickness layers and strain, which are most important and play a key role in 2DM properties.

1.4.1 Defects

Defects in crystals is one of the most important structural properties of nanomaterials since it can modify their electronic and magnetic properties. For example, various defects can affect the electronic band structure, the thermal conductivity, and the mechanical properties of 2DM. Most important lattice imperfections for 2DM are Point defects and line defects. These defects are generated at the synthesis process and chemical or physical post-treatment. [81, 82]

*Stone-Wales defect.* Stone-Wales type defect in graphene is formed such that two pentagons and two heptagons (55-77) occur due to rotation of two p-bonded carbon atoms by 90° (see Fig. 1.7(a)). [83] In Stone-Wales defect the total number of atoms remain the same and the defected structure does not involve any dangling bonds.
Vacancy defects. On the other hand, vacancy defects are created at the lattice sites where one or more atoms are missing. When an odd number of carbon atoms are missing in graphene, dangling bonds remain making the structure chemically active to many functional groups, such as hydroxyl and carboxyl. For instance, single vacancy in graphene results in the formation of a (5-9) defect (see Fig. 1.7(b)).

Adatoms. In contrast to bulk crystals, interstitial defects are not thermodynamically favorable in 2DM due to prohibitively high energy in the single atomic plane structure. Instead, additional atoms tend towards the third dimension to form defects in 2DM. When the adatoms interact with a perfect carbon hexagon in graphene, physisorption or chemisorption occur depending on the adsorbed atom type.

Substitutions. Foreign atoms can also be replaced with the intrinsic atoms in 2DM, leading to substitutional defects. Due to different atomic bond lengths, the substituted atom may optimize through the out-of-plane direction in the structure. Importantly, the formed covalent bond is so strong that the substitutional impurities are considerably stable.

1.4.2 Dopants

Dopant atoms are desirable that they can adjust the Fermi-level and/or modify the electronic structure. Spatially controlled doping by ion implantation has been widely demonstrated in bulk semiconductors. However, alternative methods for doping of 2D materials should be considered since the ion implantation technique is difficult to be adopted in 2D systems. Substitutions and adatoms in 2DM are the two important defect engineering types over electrostatic doping. Substitutional doping of foreign atoms offers a control-
1.4 Structural modifications of 2DM

Figure 1.8: (a) Schematic diagrams of lattice structures and the corresponding band structures of monolayer graphene, bilayer graphene, and bilayer graphene under a vertical electrical field. The opened bandgap 2D can be tuned by the magnitude of the field. (b) Band structures of MoS$_2$ from the bulk to the monolayer (1L). The arrows show the transitions from valence band edge to the lowest energy conduction band edge. [1]

stable and stable doping method in 2DM. Typically, boron (B, called an acceptor), as a substitutional impurity atom replacing a carbon atom dopes graphene as p-type (hole is created in the valence band). Similarly, nitrogen (N) atoms (called a donor) are able to dope graphene as n-type (the electron is donated to the lattice in the conduction band). Another method for doping of 2DM has been achieved by the adsorption of inorganic or organic molecules on the surface. In general, adatoms, unlike substitution, do not disrupt strongly the electronic structure of graphene and the doping effect weakens or disappears if these molecules desorb from graphene. Similarly, molecules with electron donating groups lead to n-type graphene and molecules with electron accepting groups lead to p-type graphene. Alloying in 2DM can bring continuously tunable band gap by changing the composition, which is similar to bulk semiconductors. For example, graphene can be hybridized with separated-domain h-BN and this BNC alloy has tunable properties. [87] Moreover, the similar crystal structures and lattice constants between two different TMDs make the consequent 2D alloy materials chemically stable.

1.4.3 Number of layers

The band structure of a 2DM strongly depends on the number of layers because the vdW interaction plays a crucial role in the electronic properties of the 2D structure. For instance, in graphene, the energy dispersion near the Dirac point is linear, leading to its semimetallic features. However, the energy dispersion relation in the low-energy regime is parabolic...
14 Introduction

Figure 1.9: (a) Schematic of uniaxial tensile stress applied in graphene and the calculated band structure of 1% tensile strained graphene. An opened band gap can be clearly observed. (b) Band gap of monolayer MoS$_2$ as a function of applied strain. The direct band gap of pristine MoS$_2$ becomes indirect and even metallic when tensile strain is applied. [1]

due to interlayer coupling in bilayer graphene. [88] The band structure of TMD semiconductors are also highly dependent on the number of layers. Fig 1.8(b) shows the calculated band structure of representative MoS$_2$ with different number of layers from the bulk to the monolayer. [89]

1.4.4 Strain engineering

Strain engineering is an effective way to tune the electronic properties of semiconductors because energy band characteristics around the Fermi level are very sensitive to orbital coupling between neighboring atoms. 2DM have excellent elasticity which makes them suitable for strain engineering. [89, 90] Several ways have been demonstrated to introduce strain into 2DM: (1) Using a piezoelectric substrate to generate controllable biaxial strain by applying voltage between the sides of the substrate, which can be efficiently transferred to the 2DM. [91, 92] (2) Inducing controllable biaxial strain at a certain point of the 2DM by using an atomic force microscope tip. [90, 93] (3) Applying strain to 2DM via a patterned substrate. [94] Strain engineering offers an efficient and controllable way to open a band gap in graphene. The first-principles calculations have predicted that 1% of uniaxial strain creates a 300 meV band gap in graphene (see Fig 1.9(a)). [95] Strain-induced band gap engineering of 2D semiconductors is another interesting topic. Theoretical works have shown that compressive strain increases band gap while tensile strain results in a decrease
in the band gap in 2D TMD semiconductors. \[96\] Furthermore, a direct to indirect band gap transition in 2D TMDs can occur when strain is applied (see Fig 1.9(b)). \[97\]

1.5 Motivation of this thesis

In spite of the fact that 2DM hold great potential for a wide range of applications, for their real life applications, the tuning of their electronic properties are quite important. In recent years, several approaches have been developed for modifying the electronic and magnetic properties of 2DM. Defects are spontaneously generated during the growth of the 2D nanomaterials. It is well known that defects are difficult to avoid in materials especially in 2DM, which can dramatically affect the structure, its electronic and magnetic properties and the performance of 2DM-based devices. Defects are usually seen as detrimental to device performance. However they also can bring about new beneficial effects on the electronic structure and expand the potential applications of 2DM. Therefore, it is very important to understand the influence of these defects on their electronic and magnetic properties. Such understanding would also useful for controlling the defects. Recent advances in the fabrication of 2D carbon nitride (2DCN) structures have undoubtly enhanced the prospect for the experimental realization of novel nanosheets. In addition, the comprehensive insight provided by the extensive theoretical investigations have proven that 2DCN can serve as promising candidates for a wide range of applications.

The purpose of the present thesis is to investigate the structural, electronic and magnetic properties of nanostructures (nanosheet, nanoribbon and nanotube) of $C_3N$ (polyaniline) by using first-principles calculations based on density functional theory (DFT). In Chapter 1, we introduce graphene and all kinds of two-dimensional materials, and discuss a variety of methods for modifying and adjusting the electronic and magnetic properties of two-dimensional materials and their properties and their applications. In the following, we give a brief overview of the density functional theory and the Kohn-Sham equations and computational code that will be used. In Chapter 2, we investigate the structural and electronic properties of $C_3N$ nanosheet and examine the effects of adsorption of atoms and different molecules. Parameters calculated include adsorption energy and stable structure, charge analysis and others. In Chapter 3, we investigate the effects of chemical functionalization with hydrogen and oxygen atoms on $C_3N$ nanosheet and examine their electronic properties. Here the effect of a variety of functionalization templates on the armchair and zigzag configuration are presented. At the end of this chapter, we will address the defects of hydrogen atoms in hydrogenated polyaniline nano-sheets. In Chapter 4, we study the band structure and density of polyaniline nanoparticles due to various defects and insertion of atomic impurities. In Chapter 5, we study the electronic properties of $C_3N$ nanosheet...
by changing the layers, applying electric field and mechanical strain.

1.6 Method of Calculations

1.6.1 Overview on Density Functional Theory

Density Functional Theory (DFT) \[98\] is one of the most popular, powerful, versatile and successful quantum mechanical modeling methods used to investigate the electronic, magnetic, structural, and vibrational properties of materials. It was formulated by Hohenberg, Kohn, and Sham and aims to describe the ground state properties of many-electron systems in terms of the electronic charge density. Within this approach, the many body problem of interacting electrons in a static external potential is reduced such that one can tackle the problem by non-interacting electrons moving in an effective potential. It is being used for calculating the binding energy of molecules in chemistry and the electronic and phononic band structures of solids in physics. Since the past twenty years the success of DFT roots in the availability of accurate exchange-correlation functionals and sufficient computational resources. In this section, some of the basic ideas and practical methods related to DFT are introduced.

1.6.2 Formalism

A solid can be described as a collection of heavy positively charged particles (i.e., nuclei) and lighter negatively charged particles (i.e., electrons). Each nucleus has a charge $Z\cdot e$, where $Z$ is the atomic number and $e$ is the electronic charge. A system with $N$ nuclei thus leads to a problem of $N+ZN$ interacting particles, which is a many body problem and demands a quantum mechanical approach. The many particle Hamiltonian for this system is

$$
\hat{H}_{tot} = \hat{T}_e(\vec{r}_i) + \hat{T}_N(\vec{R}_\lambda) + \hat{V}_{ee}(\vec{r}_i, \vec{r}_j) + \hat{V}_{NN}(\vec{R}_\lambda, \vec{R}_\sigma) + \hat{V}_{eN}(\vec{r}_i, \vec{R}_\lambda), \tag{1.1}
$$

where $\hat{T}_e$ and $\hat{T}_N$ are the kinetic energy operators for the electrons and nuclei, respectively. The last three terms describe the electron-electron, nucleus-nucleus, and electron-nucleus Coulomb interactions. Computation of the energy and wavefunction of an average-size molecule is a formidable task that can be simplified by the Born-Oppenheimer approximation. \[99\] The nuclei are much heavier and therefore much much slower than the electrons. As a result, the nuclei can be considered as effectively frozen at fixed positions, while the electrons are mobile. As a consequence, the kinetic energy of the nuclei is zero and the first term in equation (1.2) disappears. The potential term $\hat{V}_{NN}(\vec{R}_\lambda)$ also reduces to a constant and we are then left with the kinetic energy of the electrons, the potential energy due
to electron-electron interaction, and the potential energy of the electrons in the potential of the nuclei. Therefore, the Hamiltonian operator has only three terms: the kinetic energy of the electrons as well as the electron-electron ($V_{ee}$) and the electron-nucleus interactions ($V_{ext}$)

$$\hat{H}_{tot} = \hat{T}_e + \hat{V}_{ee} + \hat{V}_{ext}$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.2)

These terms (in atomic units $m = \hbar = e^2 = 1$) are:

$$\hat{T}_e = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \nabla_i^2,$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.3)

$$\hat{V}_{ee} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i \neq j} \frac{1}{|\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_j|},$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.4)

$$\hat{V}_{ext} = -\sum_{i,j} \frac{Z_\lambda}{|\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_\lambda|},$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.5)

Here $\vec{r}_i$ and $\vec{r}_j$ are the coordinates of electron i and j, respectively, and $Z_\lambda$ is the charge of the nucleus at position $R_\lambda$. It is important to note that the kinetic and electron-electron terms depend only on the electron system. Information about the nuclei and their positions is entirely contained in $\hat{V}_{ext}$. The Hamiltonian within the Born-Oppenheimer approximation is much simpler than the original, but still far too difficult to solve. There are several methods to reduce equation (1.2) to an approximate but treatable form. A very important one is the Hartree-Fock method, which is used in quantum chemistry because it performs well for atoms and molecules. An alternative is DFT, which was established in 1964 and formulated in term of two theorems by Hohenberg and Kohn.

### 1.6.3 Hohenberg-Kohn Theorems

The conventional formulation of the two theorems of Hohenberg and Kohn is as follows [100]:

**Theorem 1:** The non-degenerate ground state electron density $\rho_0$ determines the external potential $\hat{V}_{ext}$. Thus the external potential is a well-defined functional of the ground state electron density $\hat{V}_{ext}[\rho_0]$.

**Theorem 2:** The ground state total energy functional $E_{\hat{V}_{ext}}[\rho_0]$ reaches its minimal value at the ground state electron density $\rho_0$ corresponding to $\hat{V}_{ext}$.

$$E[\rho] \geq E[\rho_0]$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.6)
for every trial electron density $\rho$. The ground state total energy functional $E_{V_{\text{ext}}}[\rho]$ can be written as

$$E_{V_{\text{ext}}}[\rho] = \langle \Psi(r)|\hat{T}_{e} + \hat{V}_{ee}|\Psi(r)\rangle + \langle \Psi(r)|\hat{V}_{\text{ext}}|\Psi(r)\rangle$$

(1.7)

$$= F_{HK}[\rho] + \int \rho V_{\text{ext}} d\mathbf{r}$$

(1.8)

where $F_{HK}[\rho]$ is universal for any many-electron system. We next explain the one-to-one correspondence $\rho \leftrightarrow V_{\text{ext}}$, universality of $F_{HK}[\rho]$, and ground state total energy functional $E_{V_{\text{ext}}}[\rho]$.

First, the external potential correspond to a unique ground state many particle wave function, by the Schrodinger equation and the Hamiltonian given in equation (1.6). This wave function defines the corresponding electron density. Hence, an external potential gives a unique ground-state density corresponding to it. The first theorem of Hohenberg and Kohn demonstrates that the density contains as much information as the wave function. Thus, all observables can be written as a functional of the density, i.e., all their physical quantities can be recovered from the density only. From equation (1.7) one can see that $F_{HK}[\rho]$ does not contain any information on the nuclei and their position. Therefore, it is a universal functional for any many-electron system, implying that, in principle, there exists an expression for $F_{HK}$ which can be used for every atom, molecule or solid. The ground state density corresponding to the external potential $V_{\text{ext}}$ can be obtained by the second theorem only if an appropriate expression is known for $F_{HK}[\rho]$. The energy functional $E_{V_{\text{ext}}}[\rho]$ for the density $\rho$ corresponding to the particular $V_{\text{ext}}$ for any solid gives the ground state energy. For any other density $\rho$ which is not the ground state density $\rho$, the energy will be higher, i.e. $E_{V_{\text{ext}}}[\rho] \geq E_{V_{\text{ext}}}[\rho]$.

1.6.4 The Kohn-Sham Equations

The Hohenberg-Kohn theorems show that it is possible to use the ground state density to calculate the physical properties of a system, but it does not tell us a way to find the ground state density. This difficulty is overcome by the Kohn-Sham equations [101]. The correlation energy is defined as part of the total energy absent in the Hartree-Fock solution. This motivates rewriting the total energy $E = T + V$ as

$$E_{V_{\text{ext}}}[\rho] = T_{0}[\rho] + V_{H}[\rho] + V_{xc}[\rho] + V_{\text{ext}}[\rho],$$

(1.9)

where $T_{0}$, $V_{H}$, and $V_{xc}$ are the kinetic energy, Hartree potential, and exchange-correlation functional, respectively. The corresponding Hamiltonian is called the Kohn-Sham Hamiltonian $\hat{H}_{KS} = \hat{T}_{0} + \hat{V}_{H} + \hat{V}_{xc} + \hat{V}_{\text{ext}}$. The exchange-correlation potential is given by
1.6 Method of Calculations

the functional derivative of the exact ground state density \( \dot{V}_{xc} = \frac{\delta E_{xc}[\rho]}{\delta \rho} \). Finally, the Kohn-Sham equations can be written as:

\[
H_{KS} \phi_i = \varepsilon_i \phi_i,
\]

where the single particle wave functions \( \phi_i \) fulfills \( \sum_i \phi_i^* \phi_i = \rho \) and \( \varepsilon_i \) can be energy. The Kohn-Sham method is an exact description of the ground state properties of many-electron systems. However, the exchange-correlation functional is unknown and demands further approximations.

1.6.5 Exchange-Correlation Functional

The most widely used approximation to the exchange-correlation functional is the local density approximation (LDA). In this approximation the exchange-correlation energy is compared to the homogeneous electron gas,

\[
E_{xc}^{LDA}[\rho] = \int \rho(\vec{r}) \varepsilon_{xc}^{hom}(\rho(\vec{r})) d^3r,
\]

where \( \varepsilon_{xc}^{hom}(\rho(\vec{r})) \) is the exchange-correlation energy density. The many-electron system is divided into infinitesimally small regions located at positions \( \vec{r} \), each containing a homogeneous interacting electron gas with a constant local density \( \rho \). Particularly, the LDA is exact in the case of constant density, but (surprisingly) also works well in several realistic cases. Magnetic materials are modelled using the local spin density approximation, in which the electron density is divided into spin-up \( \rho \uparrow (\vec{r}) \) and spin-down \( \rho \downarrow (\vec{r}) \) densities, with \( \rho(\vec{r}) = \rho \uparrow (\vec{r}) + \rho \downarrow (\vec{r}) \). Using the spin polarization \( \zeta(\vec{r}) = \frac{\rho \uparrow (\vec{r}) - \rho \downarrow (\vec{r})}{\rho \uparrow (\vec{r}) + \rho \downarrow (\vec{r})} \) equation (1.10) takes the form

\[
E_{xc}^{LDA}[\rho(\vec{r}), \zeta(\vec{r})] = \int \rho(\vec{r}) \varepsilon_{xc}^{hom}(\rho(\vec{r}), \zeta(\vec{r})) d^3r \tag{1.12}
\]

and the exchange-correlation functional becomes

\[
V_{xc}[\rho(\vec{r}), \zeta(\vec{r})] = \frac{\delta E_{xc}^{LDA}[\rho(\vec{r}), \zeta(\vec{r})]}{\delta \rho(\vec{r})} \delta \rho(\vec{r}). \tag{1.13}
\]

The LDA drastically fails for a rapid variation in the electron density, such as in molecules, at surfaces, and in strongly correlated electron systems. The well-known underestimation of the band gap in semiconductors and insulators, for example, results in a...
major drawback as well as studying defects at semiconductor-oxide interfaces. To overcome this deficiency, various approximations have been proposed. Most widely used is the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) \cite{102,103}, where the exchange-correlation functional depends on both the electron density and its gradient $|\nabla (\vec{r})|$:

$$E_{xc}^{GGA} [\rho(\vec{r}), \zeta(\vec{r})] = \int \rho(\vec{r}) \varepsilon_{xc}^{hom} (\rho(\vec{r}), \nabla (\vec{r})) d^3 r,$$

(1.14)

$$E_{xc}^{GGA} [\rho \uparrow (\vec{r}) - \rho \downarrow (\vec{r})] = \int \rho(\vec{r}) \varepsilon_{xc} (\rho \uparrow (\vec{r}), \rho \downarrow (\vec{r}), \nabla \rho \uparrow (\vec{r}), \nabla \rho \downarrow (\vec{r})) d^3 r.$$  (1.15)

In many cases the GGA improves the total energy, structural parameters and binding energies of molecules. Many systems are not correctly described by both LDA and GGA, in particular strongly correlated systems. In these cases an extra parameter U, using the framework of the Hubbard model \cite{104}, can be added to the Hamiltonian. Resulting approximations are known LDA+U or GGA+U. In the recent years, hybrid functional methods are used for solids to accurately calculate band gaps, lattice parameters, bulk moduli, formation energies, and other related properties. However, hybrid functionals lead to huge computational demands.
2.1 Introduction

In spite of the fact that 2DM hold great potential for a wide usage of applications, it will be necessary to modulate their intrinsic properties to transfer them into real applications. In recent years, several approaches have been developed to modify the electronic and magnetic properties of 2DM. These methods involve substitutional doping, defect engineering, surface functionalization with adatoms, and application of an electric field. \([105-110]\) From another perspective, the properties of 2DM can be modulated by strain engineering which does not involve any complicated chemical processing. \([111, 112]\)

The adsorption of molecules is another important factor to affect the performance of nanosensors. Owing to the thin thickness and large surface-to-volume ratio, the electronic and magnetic properties of 2DM can be easily tuned by adsorbate molecules thus area should play an important role in sensing performance. Furthermore, the adsorption is an important and initial step in the activation of gas molecules. Detection of gas molecules is of great importance in both human health and environmental protection and the searching for suitable materials for gas sensing has important scientific significance \([113, 114]\). Types gas sensors may be useful for numerous applications, such as medical diagnosis, environmental monitoring and surveillance, agriculture production, military safety, emission control \([114, 115]\). The adsorption of molecules, has been extensively studied by first-principle calculations on graphene \([116-121]\) and other 2DM \([122-124]\).

Most recently, 2D polyaniline with stoichiometric formula $C_3N$ and a graphene-like
structure in which nitrogen is uniformly distributed has been successfully synthesized. C$_3$N is predicted to offer a variety of applications such as solar cell devices, electrolyte gating and doping of transistors and anode material. The single layer C$_3$N, was first reported to be an indirect band-gap semiconductor and three possible planar structures were suggested. It exhibits ferromagnetic order at low temperatures when doped with hydrogen atoms. The electronic structure of monolayer C$_3$N is give in Refs. 6, 128, 129, 131. Theoretical studies showed that C$_3$N exhibits ultrahigh stiffness and thermal conductivity. Furthermore, DFT calculations showed that the electronic properties of C$_3$N can be tuned by adatom adsorption. In this chapter we present an extensive analysis and consider adsorption of 27 adatoms such as, Al, alkali metal (AM) (Li, Na, K), alkaline earth metal (AEM) (Be, Mg and Ca) and 3d transition metal (TM) (Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and Zn) elements, and nonmetallic adatoms such as H, B, C, N, O, F, and P on the structural, electronic and magnetic properties of C$_3$N. Each adatom can be adsorbed at six most stable adsorption sites within a $2 \times 2$ supercell of C$_3$N. We found that H, O, S, F and Cl adatoms are adsorbed at stable $T_C$-site and B, C, Si, N, P and Cu preferentially at $B_{CC}$-site, while other adatoms at $H_{CC}$-site. In conclusion, while C$_3$N is a nonmagnetic semiconductor, its band gap can be modulated through adatom adsorption. In specific cases C$_3$N attains its magnetic properties and becomes metallic and the adsorbed adatoms give rise to donor or acceptor states in the band gap. Understanding the interaction between C$_3$N and the adsorbate gas molecules, is important for to exploit the C3N gas sensors. In addition, to our best knowledge, gas sensing behavior, we have systematically investigated the adsorption of numerous gas molecules such as, atmospheric gas molecules (including $H_2$, $O_2$, $CO_2$ and $H_2O$) and common polluted gases (including $CO$, $NO$, $NO_2$, $SO_2$, $H_2S$, $NH_3$ and $CH_4$) on the C$_3$N. These kinds of calculation results will help us to expand our understanding and could have practical interest in the difference applications such as gas sensors. Each molecule can adsorbed at difference configuration with multiple position and orientation as for these surfaces.

2.2 Computational method

We choose the OpenMX code [134, 135] for our calculations which is one of the fastest DFT codes. It can quickly perform structural optimization of molecular structures using atomic orbital basis (PAO) sets and pseudopotential method, which can simulate a wide range of properties of crystals and surfaces of materials such as semiconductors, ceramics, metals and minerals. In this paper, we performed first-principles total energy and electronic structure calculations, within the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof variant of the
2.2 Computational method

generalized gradient approximation (PBE-GGA)\textsuperscript{[136]} method, to deal with the exchange-correlation functionals. We used norm-conserving pseudopotentials \textsuperscript{[137]}, for carbon, nitrogen and adatoms. The wave functions are expanded in a linear combination of multiple pseudoatomic orbitals (LCPAOs) generated by using a confinement scheme \textsuperscript{[134] [135]}. In the first step, the atomic structure positions in the C\textsubscript{3}N and Ad/C\textsubscript{3}N are optimized using OpenMX, which implements a quasi-Newton algorithm for atomic force relaxation. The geometries were fully relaxed with force convergence acting on each atom less than 1 meV/Å. The k-points for sampling over the Brillouin zone (BZ) integration were generated using the Monkhorst-Pack scheme \textsuperscript{[138]}. For a primitive cell of hexagonal C\textsubscript{3}N, a k-mesh grid of 15 × 15 × 1 was used. After the convergence tests in OpenMX, we chose cutoffs of 250 Ry for C\textsubscript{3}N, so that the total-energies converge below 1.0 meV/atom. With these parameters the resulting structures are found to be sufficiently relaxed to obtain various properties in the next steps of the calculation. The charge transfer was calculated using the Mulliken charge analysis \textsuperscript{[139]}.

Furthermore, we used the PW basis set with QUANTUM ESPRESSO \textsuperscript{[140]} code, with kinetic energy cutoffs of 40 Ry and 320 Ry for the wave-functions and charge densities, with convergence in the total energy below 1.0 meV/atom. All atomic positions and lattice constants are optimized by using the conjugate gradient method, where the total energy and atomic forces are minimized. The convergence for total energy difference is less than \textbf{10^{-6}} Ry between two steps, and the maximum force allowed on each atom is less than \textbf{10^{-3}} a.u. between subsequent iterations. The Brillouin zone (BZ) is sampled by \textit{K}-mesh grid of 23 × 23 × 1 for primitive unit cell and scaled according to the size of the supercells. The large difference in the numbers of k-points in the PW and PAO basis sets is due to the different symmetrization treatments in the programs.

In addition calculations within SIESTA code \textsuperscript{[141]} are performed where the eigenstates of the Kohn-Sham Hamiltonian are expressed as linear combinations of numerical atomic orbitals. A 200 Ry mesh cut-off is chosen and the self-consistent calculations are performed with a mixing rate of 0.1. Core electrons are replaced by norm-conserving, nonlocal Troullier-Martins pseudopotential. The convergence criterion for the density matrix is taken as \textbf{10^{-4}} Ry. The C\textsubscript{3}N are modeled as a periodic slab with a sufficiently large vacuum layer (20 Å) in order to avoid interaction between adjacent layers. In order to accurately describe the vdW interaction in the C\textsubscript{3}N, we adopted the empirical correction method presented by Grimme (DFT-D2), which had been proven reliable for describing the long-range vdW interactions. \textsuperscript{[142]}

In order to reveal whether the adsorbed adatoms can diffuse or migrate, we investigate the energy barriers for the displacement of the adatoms. The barrier is estimated through the Nudged Elastic Band (NEB) method \textsuperscript{[143]}. In short, the NEB method allows for the determination of a minimum energy path (MEP) for the reaction pathway between two
2.3 Structure and electronic properties of monolayer C$_3$N

The honeycomb atomic structure of C$_3$N is a planar lattice which contains eight atoms (6 C and 2 N atoms) and can be regarded as a $2 \times 2$ supercell of graphene with two C substituted by two N atoms, as shown in Fig. 2.1(a). The optimized lattice constant of C$_3$N is 4.861 Å, which agrees well with the experimental value of 4.75 Å [6] and the C-C ($d_{CC}$) and C-N ($d_{NC}$) bond lengths are, 1.404 and 1.403 Å respectively, which agrees with previous theoretical calculations [62, 63, 128, 132]. The total and difference charge densities are shown in Fig. 2.1(a). Notice that a high charge density is found around the N atoms. The difference charge density is calculated by subtracting the charge densities of free C and N atoms from the charge density of C$_3$N. The high charge density around N atoms indicate a charge transfer from C to N atoms. The C-N bonds have covalent bond character. Bader charge was analysis performed with the QUANTUM ESPRESSO code. Our result shows that for C$_3$, each N atom gains about 0.6 electrons from the adjacent C.
2.3 Structure and electronic properties of monolayer C₃N

Figure 2.2: (a) Electronic band structure of C₃N with corresponding DOS and PDOS on C and N atoms. The zero of energy is set to the Fermi level (Eᵥ). (b) The DOS and band structure (insets) of C₃N calculated with OpenMX, QUANTUM ESPRESSO and SIESTA codes.

The electronic band structure, DOS and PDOS of C₃N, are shown in Fig. 2.2(a). The present GGA-PBE calculations demonstrate that C₃N is an indirect semiconductor with 0.4 eV band gap between the valence band maximum (VBM) at M point and the conduction band minimum (CBM) at Γ point. Our calculated gap value using GGA-PBE functional is in good agreement with previous results [6, 129, 131]. The energy band gap between CB and VB are dominated by the orbital character of C/N-pz states as shown in Fig. 2.2(a), with red and green curves near Eᵥ. Since in C₃N two C atoms are replaced by N, the pz orbital band is fully occupied by the additional two electrons. In addition the higher electro-negativities and smaller atomic size of N as compared with C, result in a shorter partially covalent C-N bond. This leads to semiconducting behavior with band gap between the pz states forming a Dirac-point, which is 2.25 eV below Eᵥ. The DOS and PDOS of the C₃N, are similar to those of C₃N presented in Fig. 2.2(a). In addition the density of state (DOS) and Partial DOS were calculated using Gaussian smearing with...
Adsorption of atom and molecule

Figure 2.3: (a) Schematic view of possible adsorption sites of adatoms on C$_3$N. (b) Adsorption energy of different atoms on C$_3$N.

a width of 0.2 eV. From PDOS, we see that the VBM of C$_3$N is dominated by the N-$p_z$ orbitals and the Dirac-Point is formed by N-$p_z$ orbitals, whereas the CBM is prominent by C-$p_z$ orbital states. The s-orbital states have a flat band and reflect heavy charge carriers. The C/N-$p_z$ orbitals, open a gap in the C$_3$N as bonding and antibonding combinations.

The DOS and band structure calculations of pristine C$_3$N calculated with QUANTUM ESPRESSO (plane-wave basis set) [140] and SIESTA (atomic orbitals basis set) [141], are shown in Fig. 2(b). The unit cell parameters are the same for both cases. The plane-wave basis set takes two orders of magnitude more calculation time as compared to the atomic orbital basis set calculation. One can see from Fig. 2.2(b), that C$_3$N VB are identical and it is a semiconductor with an indirect band gap of $\sim$ 0.4 eV using QUANTUM ESPRESSO and SIESTA, and is very similar to the OpenMX results.

2.4 Effect of adatom adsorption

Adsorption of adatom will affect the structural, electronic and magnetic properties of pristine C$_3$N. The minimum energy or most stable sites of various adsorbed adatom are obtained by placing the adatom to six prefable adsorption sites at an initiate height of $\sim$ 2 Å from the surface of C$_3$N as schematically illustrated in Fig. 2.3(a). With fully structural optimizations, where all atoms are relaxed in all directions, we determine the most stable site as the minimum energy configuration among the six different sites. Calculations are performed using 2 $\times$ 2 supercell of C$_3$N. These six possible adsorption sites are; (1) the hollow site above the center of a hexagon with six C atoms ($H_{CC}$), (2) the hollow site
2.4 Effect of adatom adsorption

Figure 2.4: (a) Variation of structural parameters including bond lengths, height and buckling for different adatoms adsorbed on C₃N at the stable sites.

above the center of a hexagon composed of both C and N atoms ($H_{NC}$), (3) the bridge site above the middle of a C-C bond ($B_{CC}$), (4) the bridge site above the middle of a N-C bond ($B_{NC}$), (5) the top site above a C atom ($T_{C}$), and (6) the top site above a N atom ($T_{N}$) (see Fig. 2.3(a)). The adsorption energy for adatoms on C₃N is defined as
\[ E_a = E_{C_3N} + E_{Ad} - E_{Ad/C_3N}, \]
where \( E_{Ad/C_3N} \) is the total energy of the structure with adatom adsorption on \( C_3N \), \( E_{C_3N} \) is total energy of pristine \( C_3N \) without adatom, and \( E_{Ad} \) is the total energy of an isolated adatom in vacuum. A positive value of the adsorption energy indicates that the adsorption of adatom to \( C_3N \) is favorable for a given geometry. The variation of adatoms adsorption energy adsorbed on \( C_3N \), is shown in Fig. 2.3(b). Variation of structural parameters including bond lengths, height and buckling for different adatoms adsorbed on \( C_3N \) at the stable sites, are shown in Fig. 2.4.

The structural, electronic and magnetic parameters of \( Ad/C_3N \) at the stable adsorption sites involving the \( T_C \), \( B_{CC} \) and \( H_{CC} \) sites are summarized in Table I. We present also the corresponding structural, electronic and magnetic parameters including bond length between adatom and its nearest atom \( (d_{AC}) \); the bond length between C-C atoms \( (d_{CC}) \); the bond length between N-C atoms \( (d_{NC}) \); the height of adatom from the \( C_3N \) plane \( (h) \); the buckling of \( C_3N \) defined by the difference between the largest and smallest \( Z \) coordinates of C atoms in \( C_3N \) \( (\Delta z) \); the adsorption energy of adatom, \( (E_a) \) and the magnetic moment per supercell \( (\mu) \). The electronic state is specified as metal (M), half-metal (HM) or semiconductor (SC). The band gap of the system after adsorption \( (E_g) \); the charge transfer \( (\Delta Q) \) between adatoms and \( C_3N \) are listed in Table I. The adsorption energy at stable \( T_C \)-site, is significantly larger with value in the range \( E_a \sim 1.5 - 4.2 \text{eV} \) with smaller \( d_{AC} \sim 1.1-2.4 \text{Å} \). While at stable \( B_{CC} \)-site, B, C, Si, N, P and Cu adatoms, possess adsorption energies in the range \( \sim 1.8-3.7 \text{eV} \) with smaller \( d_{AC} \sim 1.4-2.0 \text{Å} \). The adsorption energy of Al, AMs (Li, Na and K) and AEMs (Be, Mg and Ca) adatoms at stable \( H_{CC} \)-site, in the range of \( 0.037 \text{eV}-0.89 \text{eV} \) and have a larger \( d_{AC} \sim 2.2-3.6 \text{Å} \). For TM adatoms, the adsorption energy is larger than for Al, AM, AEMs and \( d_{AC} \sim 2.3-5 \text{Å} \). In the situation that the \( d_{AC} \) is long, the \( E_a \) tends to decrease and the adatoms show physical adsorption. In contrast, when \( d_{AC} \) is short, the \( E_a \) tends to increase and the adatom exhibit chemical adsorption. We found that adatom species at stable \( T_C \) and \( B_{CC} \) sites, causes the C atom to move out of plane and this geometrical transformation changes the structural parameters. The adsorption of adatom at stable \( T_C \) and \( B_{CC} \) sites, can result in considerable lattice deformations due to the relative stronger interaction between adatom and \( C_3N \). Thus a buckling of \( \Delta z \sim 0.5 \text{Å} \) of \( C_3N \) is occurs; the \( d_{CC} \) and \( d_{NC} \) with its first neighbor Åžs are elongated to \( \sim 1.50 \text{Å} \), which compares with 1.40 Å for \( C_3N \).

### 2.4.1 Adsorption of simple adatoms

The optimized atomic structures with corresponding, difference charge density of the \( C_3N \) with H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, Si, N and P adatoms at stable sites is shown in Fig. 2.5. Now we study the effects of adatoms adsorbed to \( C_3N \) at stable \( T_C \)-site on electronic and magnetic properties by calculating band structure, DOS and PDOS (see Fig. 2.6). Here the anal-
Table 2.1: The structural, electronic and magnetic parameters of Ad/C₃N at the stable adsorption $T_C$, $B_{CC}$ and $H_{CC}$ adsorption sites shown in Fig. 3(a); The corresponding structural, electronic and magnetic parameters including bond length between adatom and its nearest atom ($d_{AC}$); the bond length between C-C atoms ($d_{CC}$); the bond length between N-C atoms ($d_{NC}$); the height of adatom from the C₃N plane($h$); the buckling of C₃N defined by difference between the largest and smallest Z coordinates of C atoms in C₃N ($\Delta Z$); the adsorption energy of adatom, ($E_a$); the magnetic moment per supercell ($\mu$). Electronic states is specified as metal (M), half-metal (HM) or semiconductor (SC). The band gap the system after adsorption ($E_g$); the charge transfer ($\Delta Q$) between adatoms and C₃N are also listed.

<table>
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<th>adatom</th>
<th>Site</th>
<th>$E_a$ (eV)</th>
<th>$d_{AC}$ (Å)</th>
<th>$h$ (Å)</th>
<th>$d_{NC}$ (Å)</th>
<th>$d_{CC}$ (Å)</th>
<th>$\Delta Z$ (Å)</th>
<th>$\Delta Q$ (e)</th>
<th>$M_{ad}(\mu)$</th>
<th>$E_g$ (eV)</th>
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<td>3.650</td>
<td>3.309</td>
<td>1.404</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2.384</td>
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ysis of new states appearing around $E_F$ is essential for a better insight of the electronic band structure. We found that the energy band dispersion of pristine C$_3$N with adsorption of adatom at stable $T_C$-site is strongly modified by the adatoms. The bonding between adatom and C$_3$N is covalent. The energy bands below and above $E_F$ are mainly due to the adatom orbital states and appear as localized impurity states. The shape of Dirac-point in pristine C$_3$N and Ad/C$_3$N are shown in Fig. 2.6(a). In comparison with pristine C$_3$N, the shape of Dirac-point is greatly changed due to the strong disturbance of $p_z$ states caused by the adatom. This illustrates that the interaction between adatom and C$_3$N may be determined by adatom $p_z$-orbital states rather than $s$ states. From the DOS and PDOS shown in Fig. 2.6(b), we can see that the VBM of Ad/C$_3$N is due to the hybridization of $s$ and $p_{x,y}$-adatoms as well as $p_z$-orbitals of the nearest C and N atoms. The main contribution to VBM comes from, for example H-$s$, O-$p_{x,y}$ and C and N-$p_z$ orbitals hybridization, whereas $p_z$-orbital of O, S adatoms does not mix with surrounding C and N states. The CBM of both O and S is formed by hybridization of $p_{x,y}$ with $p_{x,y,z}$ orbital states of C$_3$N. The interaction of adatoms with C$_3$N induces metallic and semiconducting properties. For adatoms at stable $T_C$-site, the H and Cl/C$_3$N becomes a metal and the O, S, F/C$_3$N becomes a semiconductor with $E_g$ ~ 60-90 meV. As they mostly provide a p-type charge carrier by moving the $E_F$ to the VB edge. We found that the Ad/C$_3$N at stable $T_C$-site exhibits a nonmagnetic ground state (see Table I).

Figs. 2.7(a,b) show the energy band structure with corresponding DOS and PDOS for
2.4 Effect of adatom adsorption

Figure 2.6: (a) Electronic band structure with corresponding, (b) DOS and PDOS of C₃N with H, O, S, F and Cl adatoms at stable T_C-site. The zero of the energy is set at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green-point line.

Ad/C₃N (Ad= B, C, Si, N and P). The interaction of these adatoms with C₃N, eliminates the semiconducting band gap of pristine C₃N and induce metallic properties, and mostly provide a p-type charge carrier. From the DOS and PDOS shown in Fig. 2.7(b), we can see that the VBM of Ad/C₃N is due to the hybridization of $s, p_{x,y,z}$-adatoms orbitals with $p_z$-orbitals of the nearest C and N atoms. The main contribution to VBM comes from; for example B-$s$, B-$p_z$ and C and N-$p_z$ orbitals hybridization, whereas B-$p_{x,y}$ and C/N-$p_z$ orbitals does not mix. The CBM of both B and N is formed by hybridization of B-$p_x$ with N-$p_z$ orbital states of C₃N.

2.4.2 Adsorption of alkali and alkaline-earth adatoms

In here, we study of adsorbed Al, AMs (Li, Na and K) and AEMs (Be, Mg and Ca) adatoms at stable $H_{CC}$-site. The optimized atomic structures with corresponding, difference charge
density of the C$_3$N with Li, Na, K, Be, Mg, Ca and Al adatoms at stable sites are shown in Fig. 2.8. These adatoms species are located above the hollow site above the center of a hexagon with six C atoms of C$_3$N at stable $H_{CC}$-site. In contrast H, O, S, F, C, Si, N and P which cause strongly distortions in the C$_3$N structure, adsorption of Li, Na, K, Be, Mg, Ca and Al adatoms to C$_3$N, due to the weaker interaction between adatoms and C$_3$N, does not yield any significant distortion. Accordingly, calculated adsorption energies range between 0.44 and 1.2 eV. The structure of the Ad/C$_3$N and the structural parameters of the adatoms adsorbed on C$_3$N are listed in Table I. The adatoms adsorbed on C$_3$N at $H_{CC}$-site have $h$=1.8-3.6 Å, and the adatoms do not shift neighboring C atoms and buckling is negligible. Among the adatoms, Na adatom binds most strongly to C$_3$N, which generates the shortest $d_{AC}$=2.25 Å and the smallest $h$=1.83 Å. It is also found that $h$ increases from Li to K due to the increasing atomic radius. The transfer of charge between adatoms and the C$_3$N is $\sim$ 0.2-0.9 eV for Li, Na and K/C$_3$N, respectively, indicating an ionic bonding character between adatoms and its neighboring C atoms. Band structure
with corresponding DOS and PDOS for Ad/C\textsubscript{3}N (Ad= Li, Na, K, Be, Mg, Ca and Al) at the stable $H_{CC}$-site are shown in Figs. 2.9(a,b). The adsorption of AEM adatoms, turns semiconductor $C_3N$ metallic. In the case of Be, Mg and Ca, due to the donation of $\sim 0.8$ eV charge from the AMs into the $C_3N$, it remains semiconducting with $E_g = 0.43$, 0.43 and 0.16 eV. Compared with the band structure of pristine $C_3N$, the AM adatoms adsorption bands concentrate mainly at the vicinity of 0.5 eV, which are formed by the hybridization between AM adatom s and C/N-\textit{p} orbital states. Each isolated AMs has a net initial magnetic moment of 1 $\mu_B$, and the $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin degeneracy is not broken upon charge transfer and therefore all the AMs and AEMs adsorption on $C_3N$ are nonmagnetic. From the PDOS shown in Fig. 2.9(b), the VBM of Ad/$C_3N$ is due to the hybridization of C-\textit{p} orbital with the Li, Na, K, Be, Mg, Ca and Al adatoms s-orbital states around $E_F$. Due to the charge transfer, $E_F$ is shifted, while $p_{x,y,z}$-orbital of adatoms does not mix with
34 Adsorption of atom and molecule

2.4.3 Adsorption of 3d-transition metal adatoms

The optimized atomic structures with corresponding, difference charge density of the C$_3$N with Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and Zn adatoms at stable sites are shown in Fig. 2.10. For the TM/C$_3$N (TM=Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and Zn), adsorption energies are in the range of ~ 0.08-3 eV (see Table I). Ti and Zn have largest and smallest adsorption energy among TM adatoms on C$_3$N. The Zn adatom has the largest bond length of 3.4 Å. Top and side views of the structure of TM/C$_3$N and the structural parameters including
2.4 Effect of adatom adsorption

Figure 2.10: Optimized atomic structures with corresponding, difference charge density of the C$_3$N with Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and Zn adatoms at stable sites.

$d_{AC}$, $d_{CC}$, $d_{NC}$, $h$, $\Delta z$ for adatoms are listed in Table 1. For TMs/C$_3$N, the adatoms height are also relative larger (about 2-3 Å), while the buckling of C atoms is relative small. For Ti/C$_3$N, a charge accumulation appears in the region between Ti and the neighboring C
adsorption of atom and molecule

atoms and shows a strong covalent bonding character in the formed $d_{Ti-C}$. Such strong covalent bonding is also found in most other TMs/C$_3$N. In addition, we also calculated the charge transfer between TM adatom and the C$_3$N. The corresponding results are listed in Table I, with some degree of ionic bonding for these structures. After optimization, it is the Fe and Co adatoms that bind to the six C with adatom height 1.5 Å for both and $d_{Fe-C}$ and $d_{Ni-C}$ is only 2 Å. We can see that for Cu/C$_3$N at the stable B$_{CC}$-site, $d_{AC}$= 2 Å, and the C atoms directly below Cu adatom undergoes a notable displacement towards the opposite direction, resulting in a buckling of 0.369 Å. However, the charge accumulation in the region between Zn and the neighboring C atoms is less for Zn/C$_3$N, and thus the $d_{Zn-C}$ only display slightly covalent bonding character.

The band structure of TMs adatoms at stable site with corresponding spin-polarization DOS and PDOS, are shown in Figs. 2.11(a,b). Though the 3d-orbital have similar energy values with 4s-orbital states, is partially occupied, in addition the initial magnetic moments of isolated TMs are nonzero unless the 3d-orbital shell is completely occupied. As the 3d-orbital are near to the nucleus, TMs with their partially occupied 3d-orbital shells are relaxed to different stable sites on C$_3$N and we can expect a variety of electronic properties. We can see that in the Sc, Ti and V/C$_3$N energy bands split into $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin channels resulting in a ferromagnetic-metal, while the Cr/C$_3$N, becomes a direct semiconductor with 0.44 eV band gap. The Mn/C$_3$N exhibit a ferromagnetic-metal for both $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin channels (see Fig. 2.11(a)). The hybridized $sp$-orbital states of C and N are shown at the CB and lower energy of the VB (see Fig. 2.11(b)). For TMs adatoms, strong and weak hybridization between 3d and the C/N-$pz$ orbital states is found, while we found a strong as well as weak covalent bonding character between TM adatom and C$_3$N. The TMs adsorption induces magnetic moments in the C$_3$N yielding an exchange-splitting in 3d-orbital.

In the case of Ni, Cr, Zn and Cu exhibit no spin-splitting due to their nonmagnetic ground state (see Fig. 8(b)). While the isolated Sc, Ti and V adatoms, have initial magnetic moments of 1.0, 2.0 and 3.0 $\mu_B$, respectively and when on C$_3$N exhibits a ferromagnetic-metal with 1.1, 2.56 and 2.0 $\mu_B$ magnetic moments, respectively for the Sc-4s and Sc-3d orbital states, spin-splitting can be found in the vicinity of $E_F$ of the main 3d-orbital peaks located at the CBM zone. Metallic energy bands of the Sc/C$_3$N originate from the Sc-3d$_{xy}(\uparrow)$ and C/N-$pz$ orbital states. For Ti, the spin-splitting is slightly larger than for Sc, resulting in strong bonding and the degeneracies of the Ti-3d orbital states are broken. Metallic state originate from the $Ti = 3d_{x^2-y^2}(\uparrow) / 4s(\uparrow)$ with C and N-$pz(\downarrow)$ orbital states. In the V/C$_3$N, metallic energy bands originates from the $3d_{x^2-y^2}(\uparrow) / 4s(\uparrow)$ with C-$pz(\downarrow)$ and N-$pz(\uparrow)$ orbitals, respectively. With adsorption of Mn, the degeneracy of $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin channels is shifted and induce 3.56 $\mu_B$ and both spin states have metallic character, that originates from the $4s(\uparrow)$ and $3d_{z^2}(\downarrow) / 3d_{xy}$-orbital at $E_F$ with 3.6 $\mu_B$ magnetic moment.
The Fe and Co have the smallest atomic size of the considered TMs, they are the most closely bonded one among all TM adatoms. The Fe/C$_3$N, exhibit a dilute-magnetic semiconductor with an indirect band gap of 0.35 and zero eV in the $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin channels, respectively. The bands around $E_F$ mainly originate from the hybridization of Fe-4s($\uparrow$) orbital. For Co/C$_3$N, the configuration remains semiconducting with a direct band gap of $\sim$ 0.55 eV in the electron $\uparrow$ spin state, whereas the $\downarrow$ spin band shows a metallic behavior, thus the density of $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin channels exhibit a spin polarization at $E_F$ and Co/C$_3$N becomes a half-metal. This suggests that the charge carriers within the vicinity of $E_F$ are mobile,
Figure 2.12: (a) Electronic band structure with corresponding, (b) DOS and PDOS of adsorbed Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and Zn adatoms at stable site. The zero of the energy is set at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green-point line.

which is not only useful for conductive behavior but also for magnetic coupling. The bands around $E_F$ mainly originate from the hybridization of $d_{x^2-y^2}$-orbitals and the C-$p_z$-orbital states. In addition, the degeneracy of $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin states are broken and induces 2.0 and 1.0 $\mu_B$ magnetic moments, respectively. Note that the half-metal behavior in Co/C$_3$N can be quite important for application in spintronics. The Ni and Zn/C$_3$N, exhibit a direct semiconductor with 0.46 and 0.4 eV band gaps, respectively, while the Cu/C$_3$N, becomes a metal. For Ni, Zn and Cu/C$_3$N, we can see that the 4s and 3d-orbitals in the $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin states are completely occupied and there is no spin-splitting and the configuration is nonmagnetic (see Fig. 2.12(b)).

In order to know the spin state arrangement on each atom, the difference spin density of the Sc, Ti, V, Mn, Fe and Co/C$_3$N is shown in Fig. 2.13(a). The blue and yellow colors
Figure 2.13: (a) Difference spin densities of TMs/C$_3$N (Ad= Fe, Co, Ni and Zn). The blue and yellow colors show the $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin states directions, respectively. (b) Magnetic moment of TMs/C$_3$N. The energy scheme of 3d-orbital states spin-splitting under hexagonal crystal field (top figure).

show the $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin states, respectively. The difference spin density of Sc and Ti/C$_3$N, show that the spin accumulates mainly around Sc and Ti adatom with its six C atom neighbors, thus displaying ferromagnetic interaction between them. We can see, a highly localized spin density around V and Mn/C$_3$N and its six C atom neighbors, thus indicating an anti-ferromagnetic interaction between them. The difference spin density of Co/C$_3$N, shows that the spin accumulates mainly around Co adatom and its six C atom neighbors, thus displaying FM interaction between them, while this is different for Fe/C$_3$N. We can see from right panel of Fig. 2.13(a), a highly localized difference spin density around Fe
Adatom and its six C atom neighbors, indicating an anti-ferromagnetic interaction between them.

Adsorption of TMs adatoms on the C$_3$N can significantly modulate the magnetic and electronic properties. In here we analyze the spin-splitting of 3d-orbitals in the TMs/C$_3$N under hexagonal crystal field. The hexagon ring of C$_3$N is made of six C atoms as a stable HCC-site, creating hexagonal crystal field, that can trap TMs adatoms. As a result the occupied asymmetrically $d_{xy}/d_{x^2-y^2}$-orbital, could break the hexagonal symmetry leading to a Jahn-Teller-type distortion [146], which cause TMs adatoms shift toward $d_{xy}/d_{x^2-y^2}$ orbitals. From Fig. 2.13(b), we see that the degenerate 3d-orbitals are broken into three energy levels, which consist of two-fold degenerate $d_{xz}/d_{yz}$ and $d_{x^2-y^2}/d_{xy}$ with non-degenerate $d_{z^2}$-orbital. Due to the repulsive effect between 3d-orbital electrons and the C-$p_{x,y}$ orbital states, the in-plane 3d-orbitals including $d_{xy}/d_{x^2-y^2}$-orbitals, have a relatively higher energy because of facing the C-$p_{x,y}$ orbitals, while the other orbitals are out of plane, such as $d_{xz}, d_{yz}$ and $d_{z^2}$-orbitals that are located at lower energy.

### 2.4.4 Effect of atom diffusion

In order to reveal whether the adatoms adsorbed on C$_3$N can diffuse or migrate, we investigate as an example the energy barriers for the displacement of single H, O and F adatoms. The variation of total energy in the Ad/C$_3$N at the symmetry points and motion along the $T_C \rightarrow B_{CC} \rightarrow H_{CC} \rightarrow T_C$ directions or the migration on a hexagon is shown in Fig. 2.14. By using these total energy curves we obtain the energy barriers that have to be overcome by the adsorbate in order to diffuse or migrate on the C$_3$N surface. The minimum energy barrier occurs at the $B_{CC}$-site between two adjacent $T_C$-sites. This analysis suggests that a diffusing adatom can take a path of minimum energy barrier following the
edges of the hexagon at one $T_C$-site to another $T_C$-site through the barrier in the range of 1-4 eV at $H_{CC}$-site. This barrier energy is very large and does not allow adatoms to migrate on the surface of C$_3$N.

### 2.5 Adsorption of molecule

#### 2.5.1 Introduction

Due to the thin thickness and large surface-to-volume ratio of two-dimensional materials (2DM), the electronic and magnetic properties can be tuned by adsorbate molecules. Furthermore, adsorption is a significant initial step in the activation of gas molecules. Detection of gas molecules is of great importance in both human health and environmental protection. \cite{113,114} The various types of gas sensors may be useful for numerous applications, such as in medical diagnosis, environmental monitoring and surveillance, agriculture production, military safety and emission control \cite{114,115}. The adsorption of
molecules has been extensively studied by first-principle calculations on graphene [116–121] and other 2DM [122–124].

In this section, we study systematically the adsorption of numerous gas molecules such as, atmospheric gas molecules (including $H_2$, $O_2$, $CO_2$ and $H_2O$) and common polluted gases (including $CO$, $NO$, $NO_2$, $SO_2$, $H_2S$, $NH_3$ and $CH_4$) on C$_3$N. These kinds of calculation results will help to expand our understanding of molecule-C$_3$N interaction and could be of practical interest in different applications.

2.5.2 Structural and energetic properties

Adsorption of gas molecules affects on the structural and electronic properties of 2DM. Schematic view of favorable adsorption sites of gas molecules including $H_2$, $N_2$, $O_2$, $CO$, $CO_2$, $NO$, $NO_2$, $SO_2$, $H_2O$, $H_2S$, $NH_3$ and $CH_4$ on C$_3$N are shown in Fig. 2.15(a). After structural optimization, the most stable site configuration among the six different sites are determined where all atoms are relaxed in all direction.

These six possible adsorption sites includes: (1) the hollow site above the center of a hexagon with six C atoms ($H_{CC}$), (2) the hollow site above the center of a hexagon with composed of both C and N atoms ($H_{NC}$), (3) the bridge site above the middle of a C-C bond ($B_{CC}$), (4) the bridge site above the middle of a N-C bond ($B_{NC}$), (5) the top site above a C atom ($T_C$), and (6) the top site above a N atom ($T_N$) (see Fig. 2.15(a)). Schematic view of favorable adsorbed molecule orientation on C$_3$N at stable sites, is shown in Fig. 2.15(b). In the first step, the molecule is placed above these adsorption sites, for each of which different orientations of molecules are assessed. Several typical orientations of the gas molecule either vertically or parallel to the C$_3$N surface are examined, and relative rotation of gas molecule to the C$_3$N surface is considered. For example, for the CO molecule, the molecular axis could be oriented parallel to the C$_3$N surface or perpendicular with the C or O atom pointing to the C$_3$N surface. While for the molecule $SO_2$, the molecular plane could be oriented parallel to the C$_3$N surface: the S-O bonds are towards the C$_3$N surface. The adsorption energy of the molecule on C$_3$N was determined as $E_a = E_{C_3N} + E_{Mol} - E_{Mol/C_3N}$, where $E_{Mol/C_3N}$ denote the total energy of the structure with the molecule adsorption on C$_3$N, $E_{C_3N}$ denotes the total energy of the pristine C$_3$N without molecule, and $E_{Mol}$ denote the total energy of isolated molecule in vacuum. The variation of adsorption energy for different molecules on C$_3$N at most stable site are shown in Fig. 2.15(b). The configuration will be considered as physisorbed when the adsorption energy is low and the nearest atomic distance between the adsorbed molecule and the support is much larger than the sum of the covalent radii of the corresponding atoms. The adsorption energies of corresponding gas molecules such as $H_2$, $N_2$, $O_2$, $CO$, $CO_2$, $NO$, $H_2O$, $H_2S$, $NH_3$ and $CH_4$ on C$_3$N are quite small, as compared with 0.72 eV and
2.5 Adsorption of molecules

Figure 2.16: Optimized structures with corresponding structural parameters for adsorption of $H_2$, $N_2$, $O_2$, $CO$, $CO_2$, $NO$, $NO_2$, $SO_2$, $H_2O$, $H_2S$, $NH_3$ and $CH_4$ molecules on C$_3$N at the most stable site. Both, top and side views are shown. Difference charge density are indicated in the same panel. The blue and yellow regions represent charge accumulation and depletion, respectively.

0.59 eV for $NO_2$ and $SO_2$, respectively.
The optimized structures with corresponding structural parameter for adsorption of $H_2$, $N_2$, $O_2$, $CO$, $CO_2$, $NO$, $NO_2$, $SO_2$, $H_2O$, $H_2S$, $NH_3$ and $CH_4$ molecules on $C_3N$ at most stable site were are also in Fig. 2.16. It can be seen that the stable adsorption site for $H_2$, $N_2$, $O_2$, $CO$ and $NO$ molecules is at $H_{CC}$-site, while $CO_2$ is adsorbed in $BN$-site. For $H_2$ and $N_2$, the H and N atoms points towards the $C_3N$ surface and bond lengths are 0.757 (H-H) and 1.119 (N-N) Å. For $O_2$, O atom points toward the $C_3N$ surface and O-O bond length is 1.345 Å, while the $CO$ points parallel to the $C_3N$ surface and C-O bond length is 1.345 Å. In $CO_2$, the C-O bond length is 1.195 Å. The N atom of $NO$ molecule, points toward the surface and bond length of N-O is 1.221 Å. Also the closest distance between the lower atoms of the molecules with the $C_3N$ surface is in the range of 2.371 Å ($NO$)- 3.564 Å ($CO_2$). The adsorption energy of $H_2$, $N_2$, $O_2$, $CO$, $CO_2$ and $NO$ molecules is 0.13, 0.15, 0.29, 0.24, 0.21 and 0.24 eV respectively, which can be considered as physisorption which agrees with the relative large distance between these molecules and the $C_3N$ surface. The stable adsorption site for $NO_2$ and $SO_2$ is $BN$-site, while the $H_2O$ and $H_2S$ molecules are adsorbed at $H_{NC}$-site. For $NO_2$ and $SO_2$, bond lengths were calculated as 1.270 Å (N-O) and 1.528 Å (S-O), while the bond angles are 122° (O-N-O) and 117° (O-S-O). The distance between the molecules and the $C_3N$ surface are 2.894 ($NO_2$), 2.919 ($SO_2$), 2.630 ($H_2O$) and 2.962 Å ($H_2S$). The $NO_2$ and $SO_2$, have large adsorption energy of 0.72 eV and 0.59 eV, respectively, which can be considered as weak chemisorption. Whereas, $H_2O$ and $H_2S$ exhibit a small adsorption energy of, respectively, 0.17 and 0.21 eV and therefore can be considered as physisorption. It was found that the $NH_3$ and $CH_4$ molecules are located at stable adsorption site of $H_{NC}$ and $T_C$, respectively. The N-H bond length is 1.304 Å and the H-N-H bond angle is 104°, while the distance between $NH_3$ with the $C_3N$ surface is 2.837 Å. The closest distance of the most stable site between $CH_4$ molecule with the $C_3N$ surface is 2.821 Å. The C-H bond lengths were 1.101 Å and the H-C-H bond angle is 110°. The $NH_3$ and $CH_4/C_3N$, had adsorption energy of 0.23 eV and 0.19 eV, respectively. To know the bonding character between molecules and $C_3N$, the difference charge densities indicated, in the same panel in Fig. 2.16. The blue and yellow regions represent the charge accumulation and depletion, respectively.

To know the bonding character between molecules and $C_3N$, the difference charge densities indicated, in the same panel in Fig. 2.16. The blue and yellow regions represent the charge accumulation and depletion, respectively. It can be seen that electrons were accumulated on the atoms of $H_2$, $N_2$, $O_2$, $CO$, $CO_2$ and $NO$ molecules, whereas the depletion of electrons in its three nearest C neighbors of $C_3N$, which shows that there are small charge transfers from $C_3N$ to these molecules. Difference charge density of these molecules indicates, that there is no formation of chemical bonds, hence we have physisorption rather than chemisorption. The charge transfer analysis showed weak electron
2.5 Adsorption of molecule

acceptors by gaining electrons of 0.01e ($H_2$), 0.01e ($N_2$), 0.19e ($O_2$), 0.14e ($CO$), 0.14e ($NO$), 0.01e ($H_2O$) and 0.02e ($H_2S$) from C$_3$N. Such a subtle charge transfer indicates that these molecules were physisorbed on C$_3$N through weak van der Waals interaction. The charge transfer calculations showed that NO$_2$ and SO$_2$ are strong electron acceptors by gaining 0.26 e and 0.23 e electrons from C$_3$N to NO$_2$ and SO$_2$, respectively. Such a large charge transfer shows that NO$_2$ and SO$_2$ is weak chemisorbed on C$_3$N. Moreover, the electrons were depleted on the atoms of CO$_2$, NH$_3$ and CH$_4$, whereas electrons are accumulated on C$_3$N, which shows there is charge transfer from these molecules to C$_3$N. Charge transfer analysis shows that CO$_2$, NH$_3$ and CH$_4$ act as weak electron donors by donating -0.002e, -0.002e and -0.004e to C$_3$N.

Figure 2.17: Electronic band structure for adsorption of $H_2$, $N_2$, $O_2$, $CO$, $CO_2$, $NO$, $NO_2$, $SO_2$, $H_2O$, $H_2S$, $NH_3$ and $CH_4$ molecules on C$_3$N at the most stable site. The zero of energy is set at $E_F$. 

![Electronic band structure figure](image-url)
2.5.3 Electronic and magnetic properties

As shown in Fig. 2.17, \( H_2, N_2, CO, CO_2, H_2O, H_2S, NH_3 \) and \( CH_4/C_3N \) molecules can hardly change the band structure around \( E_F \). We found that \( CO/C_3N \) becomes a semiconductor with band gap 0.4 eV. Furthermore, \( NO \) molecule causes modification to the electronic structure and result in induced impurity states around \( E_F \). These impurity states mainly come from states of \( NO \) molecule. It is also observed that the \( \uparrow \) and \( \downarrow \) spin states for \( NO/C_3N \) exhibit a dilute-magnetic semiconductor character and induce 1 \( \mu_B \) magnetic moment. The \( O_2 \) and \( SO_2 \) molecules modify the electronic state around \( E_F \), giving rise to a vanishing band gap resulting in metallic characteristics with their Fermi levels crossing the electronic states. DOS of these structures is different from that of pristine \( C_3N \), showing an impurity state around \( E_F \). The \( NO_2 \) paramagnetic molecule can induce impurity states around \( E_F \) and these impurity states come mainly from states of \( NO_2 \). It becomes a ferromagnetic-metal and spin-splitting occurs in the \( \uparrow \) and \( \downarrow \) spin channels and with 0.6 \( \mu_B \) magnetic moment.

The very weak interaction of \( H_2, N_2, CO, CO_2 \) and \( NO \) molecules with \( C_3N \) is also reflected by the sharp peaks in the PDOS (see Fig. 2.18). For these molecules, the HOMO and LUMO is fully filled and lies about 0.22 eV below and 0.21 eV above \( E_F \), respectively. When these molecules weakly interact with \( C_3N \), it occupies the HOMO state which moves below \( E_F \). Therefore, the net gain of electrons from \( C_3N \) acts as an acceptor and the charge transfer are due to orbital overlap between the HOMO of these molecules with \( C_3N \). The LUMO will mostly interact with the DOS above \( E_F \) which does not cause any adsorption therefore making HOMO a more important orbital and the charge transfer is consequently always to \( C_3N \). The interaction between \( O_2 \) and \( C_3N \) is also reflected by the broad peaks in the PDOS. For \( O_2 \) molecule, the HOMO and LUMO are 0.05 eV below and 0.004 eV above \( E_F \), respectively. These states induce a small charge transfer from \( C_3N \) to \( O_2 \). When \( O_2 \) molecule strongly interact with \( C_3N \), its occupied HOMO state moves below \( E_F \), increasing electrons in \( O_2 \) molecule. Therefore, it makes an acceptor and the charge transfer are due to orbital overlap between the HOMO of \( O_2 \) molecule and \( C_3N \). For \( NO_2 \) molecule, the HOMO and LUMO of \( \uparrow \) spin state are 0.097 eV below and 0.115 eV above \( E_F \), respectively and also HOMO and LUMO of \( \downarrow \) spin channel are 0.733 eV below and 0.106 eV above the \( E_F \). For \( NO_2 \) molecule, a spin-splitting orbital is located above \( E_F \) that contributes to the LUMO state. \( NO_2 \) molecule can accept electrons from \( C_3N \) and the charge transfer occurs mainly through the orbital hybridization. From the difference spin density of \( NO \) and \( NO_2 \) molecules, it can be concluded that the magnetism originates mainly from these molecules and its C and N atom neighbors of \( C_3N \). For \( H_2O \) and \( H_2S \), HOMO state is completely located on the O atom, but the LUMO state is mostly located on the H atoms, while HOMO plays the prominent role and donates
Figure 2.18: DOS and PDOS for adsorption of \( H_2, N_2, O_2, CO, CO_2, NO, NO_2, SO_2, H_2O, H_2S, NH_3 \) and \( CH_4 \) molecules on \( C_3N \) at the most stable site. Charge densities of HOMO and LUMO are shown in the insets. The blue and yellow regions represent charge accumulation and depletion, respectively.

Electrons through a small mixing with \( C_3N \) orbitals above \( E_F \). There is also a mixing with the orbitals below \( E_F \), because they are closer in energy. These states induce a small charge transfer from \( C_3N \) to \( H_2O \) and \( H_2S \). The HOMO and LUMO of \( NH_3 \) and \( CH_4 \) are located 0.21 eV below and 0.21 eV above \( E_F \) and these states induce a small charge transfer from these molecules to \( C_3N \). The orbitals originally located above \( E_F \) contribute to the LUMO state. It is found that the HOMO is the only orbital that can have a significant overlap with the \( C_3N \) orbitals and thus can cause charge transfer. Therefore, these
molecules will act as a donor.

2.6 Summary and conclusions

In summary, based on first-principles calculations, we investigated the structural, electronic and magnetic properties of a novel 2D material, with stoichiometry $C_3N$ that has been recently synthesized from carbonized organic single crystals. The $C_3N$ is an indirect band-gap semiconductor. This study highlights that the adatom adsorption to $C_3N$ is a favorable approach to modulate its properties which may have significant importance because of its basic relevance to applications in catalysis, batteries and nanoelectronics. These results will be very useful for theoretical and experimental studies that are considering the use of atoms and molecules as building blocks for making new nano devices. We investigated systematically the interaction between 27 different adatoms and the $C_3N$ honeycomb structure. These adatoms lead to considerable modifications in the electronic structure, when the related adsorption energy is significant. Under these conditions, the band gap of $C_3N$ can be reduced and the system becomes metal or semiconductor. We presented here the effect of charging, electric field and strain on the electronic and magnetic properties of $C_3N$ and Ti, Mn and Fe/$C_3N$. Our results show that the band gap and magnetic moment considerable changes with charging, applied electric field and strain. In this way it is possible to tune the electronic and magnetic properties.

Two-dimensional polyaniline with structural unit $C_3N$ is a semiconductor, which has attracted a lot of interest because of its unusual electronic, optoelectronic, thermal and mechanical properties useful for various applications. Understanding the interaction between $C_3N$ and adsorbate gas molecules is important for the exploitation of $C_3N$ in e.g. gas sensors. In summary, using first principle calculations, the adsorption of common atmospheric ($H_2$, $N_2$, $O_2$, $CO$, $H_2O$ and $H_2S$) and polluted ($CO$, $CO_2$, $NO$, $NO_2$, $SO_2$, $NH_3$ and $CH_4$) gas molecules on $C_3N$ nanosheet was investigated. A detailed analysis of the optimized atomic structure and electronic properties of adsorption of different molecules was carried out. The results showed that $O_2$, $NO$, $NO_2$ and $SO_2$ are chemisorbed on $C_3N$. It was also found that the corresponding electronic structure of $C_3N$ was modified. Adsorption of $O_2$ and $SO_2$ molecules, $C_3N$ becomes a metal, while under $NO_2$ adsorption it turns into a dilute-magnetic semiconductor with 0.6 $\mu_B$ magnetic moment. Our computational results show that other molecules including $H_2$, $N_2$, $CO$, $CO_2$, $H_2O$, $H_2S$, $NH_3$ and $CH_4$ are physisorbed causing little distortion of $C_3N$. The amount of charge transfer upon adsorption of these gas molecules are found to be small. Our theoretical studies indicate that $C_3N$-based sensor has a high potential for $O_2$, $NO$, $NO_2$ and $SO_2$ detection due to the significant electronic structure changes with moderate adsorption energy.
CHAPTER 3

Functionalization and conformation of atom

3.1 Introduction

Functionalization with oxygen atoms [147], fluorine atoms [47, 148], and hydrogen atoms [49–153], alters the properties of graphene and, in some cases, causes a transition to a different kind of material: For example, full hydrogenation (a graphene layer with full coverage of hydrogen on each side) leads to a nonmagnetic, direct wide-gap semiconductor, as predicted in 2007 by Sofo et al. [44] from ab initio calculations, which was demonstrated experimentally by Elias et al. [154] two years later. Semi-hydrogenation (full coverage of hydrogen on one side), on the other hand, as predicted by Zhou et al. [155], produces the ferromagnetic, indirect narrow-gap semiconductor graphone. The predicted transition from graphene to graphone and graphane with increasing hydrogen coverage, demonstrates the decisive role of adsorbed hydrogen for determining the properties of the resulting graphene derivate. The inducing of a magnetic moment in the structure is particularly important for graphene-based spintronics [156, 157]. A number of studies have reported that hydrogenated graphene is magnetic for certain degrees of hydrogenation [158–161]. Optical spectra could be an effective approach of studying the exchange-split electronic band structure of magnetic hydrogenated graphene, and enable the determination of whether the ground state of hydrogenated graphene is magnetic. Functionalization by adsorbed atoms is an approach to tune the atomic, electronic, and magnetic structure of 2DMs; in particular, hydrogenation [68, 162–164]. By chemically modifying C₃N to its fully hydrogenated form (FH) C₃N, each C or N atom in will have an extra nonbonding
electron. Thus, fully hydrogenated C$_3$N may be expected to have similar properties to graphene, silicene, or germanene, for example, as becoming a Dirac material [165, 166].

In the present chapter, to exploit the application possibilities of C$_3$N, we perform extensive ab initio investigations into the effects of adatom adsorption for a range of coverages, and conformation (Ortho, Meta and Para) as well as nanoribbons and effect of strain, on the properties of C$_3$N. Our findings indicate that the band gap and magnetism can be modulated with these approaches. In particular, we study the atomic, electronic and magnetic structure of C$_3$N, semi/fully functionalized with H, O and F atoms. The functionalization, significantly modifies the electronic and magnetic properties, and results in interesting characteristics for C$_3$N, ranging from metallic, dilute-magnetic semiconducting and insulating characteristics. Moreover, we found that in semi and fully hydrogenated C$_3$N with H vacancy defects, a defect state is induced around the Fermi level, decreasing the band gap, and also interestingly, inducing magnetism in these structures.

We also investigate the adsorption of H adatoms on C$_3$N nanoribbons, and find that they can induce half-metallic, metallic, semiconducting, and ferromagnetic character. Furthermore, to provide visible guidance for experimental observations, simulated scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) images are calculated. All together our results show wide variety of emergent unique electronic and magnetic properties, which differ significantly from pristine C$_3$N. We expect that these thorough theoretical studies, and identified interesting phenomena will attract more experimental and theoretical studies and prove useful for engineering and design of new practical applications for C$_3$N in nanoelectronic, spintronic, catalysts, energy storage and optical device applications.

### 3.2 Effect of H and O atoms coverages

We have systematically investigated the structural and electronic properties of adsorption of H and O adatoms, for different coverages, on C$_3$N. It is interesting to note that H/C$_3$N structures induce metallic character, which can be continuously tuned by varying the H coverage from 3.1% to 12.5%.

The optimized structures, top and side views, of H atom adsorption on C$_3$N, with different coverages, calculated using various sized a surface unit-cells, namely, 3.1%, 6.2%, 9.3% and 12.5%, are shown in Fig. 3.1(a). We consider the optimized configuration and electronic structure corresponding to the H atom adsorbed at the most stable $T_C$-site (on-top of the C-atom). For each coverage, we consider the top, bridge and hollow sites for 1H/C$_3$N (3.1%), the H atom locates preferentially on top of a C atom ($C_H$), with formation of a single covalent bond between $C_H$-H. The $C_H$-H bond length for a H atom is 1.12 Å, indicating that H is chemically adsorbed on C$_3$N. The C-C and C-N bonds are elongated
3.2 Effect of H and O atoms coverages

Figure 3.1: Optimized structures, electronic band structure and DOS of H/C$_3$N for different coverages of H atoms. (a) Relaxed structure of 3.1\% (C$_{32}$N$_8$H$_1$), 6.2\% (C$_{32}$N$_8$H$_2$), 9.3\% (C$_{32}$N$_8$H$_3$) and 12.5\% (C$_{32}$N$_8$H$_4$). (b) The corresponding band structure and DOS. Difference charge densities are also shown. The blue and yellow regions represent the charge accumulation and depletion, respectively. The zero of energy is at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green line.

to 1.5 Å in comparison with the C-C and C-N bond lengths (1.404 and 1.403 Å) in pure C$_3$N. The H-C$_H$-C angles are in the range of 105-110 °, displaying the characteristic of $sp^3$ hybridization. The C$_H$ atom moves out of the base plane of C$_3$N. For 1H/C$_3$N (3.1\%), nearest C atoms to H adatom, move from the C$_3$N plane in the upward direction and induce a buckling of 0.64 Å. As the coverage of H increases to two H atoms (7.14\%), the surface distortion becomes more apparent and the bond lengths of C-C and C-N are changed significantly. We see clearly that these adatoms alter the atomic structure of C$_3$N as compared with that of pure C$_3$N. Increasing the hydrogen coverage a similar behavior is exhibited with a more distorted surface configuration.

The difference electron densities are presented in Fig. 3.1(b). It can be seen that there is a high charge density around the N and H atoms on C$_3$N. This high charge density around the H atom projecting toward the C-N and C-H bonds shows a charge transfer from the C to H atom, indicating a covalent bond. The corresponding electronic band structure and
DOS are also shown in Fig. 3.1(b). The electronic properties of C$_3$N strongly depends on adatom coverage. For 1H/C$_3$N (3.1%), there is a metallic behavior unlike pure C$_3$N. As the H coverage increases to 6.2%, the metallic behavior remains with an increased density of states at the Fermi level. For further increase of H coverages to 9.3%, there is still metallic character, while increasing the H coverage to 12.5%, we see from the electronic band structure that two non-trivial band gaps appear, with values of 30 and 65 meV, together with two Dirac-points around $E_F$. This results in a semiconductor-to-semimetal transition. For the coverages of 3.1, 6.2, 9.3 and 12.5%, there is no net spin ($\uparrow$ minus $\downarrow$) i.e. no magnetic moment is induced. The tunable properties of functionalized C$_3$N with H atom coverage may have potential applications for the development of nanodevices.

Similar to H atom adsorption, we have considered four coverages of O adsorption at the most stable $T_C$-site on C$_3$N, as shown in Fig. 3.2. Coverages of homogeneously arranged O atoms are 3.1% (C$_{32}$N$_8$O$_1$), 6.2% (C$_{32}$N$_8$O$_2$), 9.3% (C$_{32}$N$_8$O$_3$) and 12.5%
3.2 Effect of H and O atoms coverages

(C_{32}N_{8}O_{4}). We assume that the so-called epoxy group is formed at each adsorption site in these geometries. The optimized atomic structures of O/C_{3}N for the considered coverages are shown in Fig. 3.2(a). We find that the optimized lattice constant increases with O atom coverage due to charge transfer from C_{3}N to the O atoms (due to the large electronegativity of O), and the formation of epoxy groups at the C-N and C-C bonds. The C-O bond length for an O atom is 1.12 Å, indicating that O is chemically adsorbed on C_{3}N. The C-C and C-N bond lengths are elongated to 1.5 and 1.5 Å and the O-C-O-C angles are in the range of 110 °, displaying the characteristics of \textit{sp}^3 hybridization. Similar to H adsorption, the C-O atom moves out of the base plane of C_{3}N, and induce a buckling of 0.64 Å. The corresponding band structures and DOS for the four considered O/C_{3}N systems with different O coverages are shown in Fig. 3.2(b). We see from the electronic band structures that the width of the energy band gap becomes narrow and decreases with increasing O/C ratio, reflecting the localization of electronic states that is, the decrease of interaction between C and N atoms in C_{3}N with the increase of O coverage. For 1O/C_{3}N (3.1%), we see a striking difference compared to pure C_{3}N, although also a very small indirect band gap. For 2O/C_{3}N (6.2%) the structure has a band gap of 0.12 eV, while 3O/C_{3}N (9.3%), becomes a metal. For the coverages of 3.1, 6.2 and 9.3%, there is no net spin in the \uparrow minus \downarrow channels. Interestingly, we see that 4O/C_{3}N, for 12.5% coverage, has an induced magnetic moment of 0.17 \mu_{B} in the ground state. These result shows that the electronic and magnetic properties of C_{3}N depends on the O absorbed concentration.

3.2.1 Adsorption two H and O atoms

We next consider the adsorption of a second H or O atom on the opposite side of C_{3}N. Three two-side configurations are considered, including \textit{H}t-\textit{H}b, \textit{O}t-\textit{O}b and \textit{H}t-\textit{O}b. The optimized structures, top and side views, are shown in Figs. 3.3(a-c). After optimization of the structures, we find that the stable structures have a very slight buckling. The structural parameters of the optimized structures, including the C-C and C-O bond lengths, are shown in Figs. 3.3(a-c). For all structures, the H and O atoms are located at the top site of a C atom, and form a single covalent bond between C-H and C-O. The C-H and C-O bond lengths are 1.118 (\textit{H}t-\textit{H}b), 1.355 (\textit{O}t-\textit{O}b) and 1.119/1.356 (\textit{H}t-\textit{O}b) Å, indicating that these atoms are chemically adsorbed on C_{3}N. For \textit{H}t-\textit{H}b, the C-C and C-N bonds are elongated to 1.502 and 1.504 Å and the H-C-H angle is 110 °, displaying the character of \textit{sp}^3 hybridization. The C-H and C-O atoms move out of the base plane of C_{3}N and induce a buckling of 0.64 Å. In the case of, \textit{H}t-\textit{O}b, the C-C and C-N bonds is elongated to 1.502 and 1.504 Å showing the character of \textit{sp}^3 hybridization. The C-H and C-O atoms move out of the base plane of C_{3}N and induce a buckling 0.64 Å. These results indicate that the stronger orbital hybridizations in C-O bonds significantly
reduce their lengths and even weaken the C-C bonds. There exists a partial transformation from $sp^2$-type covalent bond character in pure C$_3$N into $sp^3$-type covalent bond character. The above-mentioned rich geometric structures lead to diverse electronic properties.

To gain insight into the bonding character, the difference electron charge density is shown in Figs. 3.3(a-c). The blue and yellow regions represent electron accumulation and depletion, respectively. It can be seen that electrons are accumulated on the H and O atoms, whereas the majority of electron depletion is on C$_3$N, which shows there is partial electron transfer from C$_3$N to the adsorbates, and the formation of chemical bonds. When H and O atoms are adsorbed on both sides of C$_3$N, the energy dispersion relations exhibit dramatic changes. The band structure and corresponding DOS for the different configurations of H and O atoms are shown in Figs. 3.3(a-c). The electronic properties of
3.3 Effect of H atom clusters: Ortho, Meta and Para configurations

these structures strongly depend on the type of the double H and O adsorption site. We can see that the $H_t - H_b$ geometry exhibits metallic characteristics with the Fermi level, $E_F$, crossing the bands, whereas the $O_t - O_b$ structure is a semiconductor with an indirect band gap of 0.2 eV, the VBM and CBM located at the $\Gamma$ point. We see that in the case of $H_t - O_b$, the electronic states are particularly modified and the structure is a nonmagnetic metal. The strong interaction between H and O atoms is also reflected by the broad peaks in the PDOS.

3.3 Effect of H atom clusters: Ortho, Meta and Para configurations

To understand the formation of H clusters (hydrogenated domains) on C$_3$N, we investigate the adsorption of a second H atom at different sites at close distances to the first. When a H atom is adsorbed on top of a surface C atom, the second H atom can adsorb on six possible relevant sites on the hexagonal C ring. The closest pairing, most commonly labeled as the "ortho" pair is where the H atoms are directly bonded to adjacent C atoms. The next closest pairing is labeled as the "meta" pair, and finally the next next closest pairing is labeled as the "para" pair. The optimized atomic structure and corresponding structural parameters for six types of two-H clusters/pairs on C$_3$N, namely, one-side ortho, one-side meta, one-side para, two-side ortho, two-side meta and two-side para, are shown in Fig. 3.4(a). We see that the H-C bonds are approximately vertical to the C$_3$N surface and the range of the C-H bond lengths is $\sim$ 1.113-1.125 Å. Adsorption of a single H atom yields 0.05 Å buckling of the C$_3$N lattice, and adjacent C atoms forming C-H bonds in these configurations are buckled by a similar small amount of $\sim$ 0.03 Å. The difference charge densities shown in Fig. 3.4(b) indicate that there is formation of chemical bonds for all configurations, and clearly explains the $sp^3$-type covalent character of the C-H bonds. We see a charge accumulation about the H and N atoms, whereas a depletion of electrons in C$_3$N, showing that there is charge transfers from C$_3$N to the H atoms. In order to help to visualize the effects of the adsorbed H clusters on C$_3$N, we also performed STM image calculations. The same set of simulation parameters were used for all the structures investigated. The simulated STM images for the three one-sided configuration, namely ortho, meta and para, are shown in Fig. 3.4(c). The atomic structure, with C (gray balls), N (blue balls) and H (white balls) atoms, is overlayed. From the predicted STM images, it is straightforward to recognize and correlate them with the corresponding atomistic structure. The H atoms around the adsorption site correspond to the bright spots.

We now discuss the surface electronic states in the presence of adsorbed H pairs, which is important for the identification of adsorbed H structures, and for providing fundamental
Figure 3.4: (a) Optimized atomic structures of two H atoms adsorbed on C$_3$N. (b) Difference electron charge densities and (c) simulated STM images of three different configurations including one-side ortho, meta and para. Blue and yellow regions represent the charge accumulation and depletion, respectively.
 knowledge on how C\textsubscript{3}N electronics can be tailored by H adsorption. The electronic band
structure, DOS and PDOS for the six configurations of two-H atom clusters adsorbed on C₃N (namely one-side ortho, one-side meta, one-side para, two-side ortho, two-side meta and two-side para) are shown in Figs. 3.5(a-f). It can be seen that the one-side and two-side ortho shows a semiconducting character, with a narrow band gap at Γ (0.37/0.47 eV). The one-side and two-side para structures are also nonmagnetic with a direct band gap 0.7 eV and the VBM and CBM is located at the Γ point. The one-side and two-side meta structure induces impurity states around $E_F$ which mainly originate from states of the adsorbed H pair. Interestingly, we find these systems exhibit a magnetic moment of $1\mu_B$ (Figs. 3.5(b,e)). It can be seen that the VBM and CBM of the one-side and two-side meta structure is due to the hybridization of C- and N-p orbitals. Also, the VBM of one-side and two-side para is due to the hybridization of N and H orbitals, and the CBM is due to the hybridization of C and H orbitals. Our results show that the electronic and magnetic structure are significantly affected by the configuration of two-H atom clusters and the systems can exhibit diverse electronic characteristics from metal to semiconductor and to inducing magnetism in some configurations.

3.3.1 Effect of H adsorption with different distances

The interaction between the adsorption of two H atoms on C₃N as a function of the distance between them is important in order to understand the coverage dependence of the electronic properties. We consider two H atoms on the C₃N surface using a (4 × 2) surface unit cell and investigate the electronic properties as a function of the separation between

Figure 3.6: Optimized atomic structures, electronic band structure, DOS and PDOS of two H atoms adsorbed on the same side of C₃N for four different configurations, namely, (a) I, (b) II, (c) III and (d) IV for increasing H-H distance. The zero of energy is at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green line.
3.3 Effect of H atom clusters: Ortho, Meta and Para configurations

them. The corresponding supercell contains 48 C, 16 N and 2 H atoms with \((x, y)\) lattice constants of 19.44 and 9.72 Å, respectively. The distances considered between the H atoms are: I (2.876Å), II (4.817Å), III (7.565Å) and IV (9.722Å). All of the atoms are fully relaxed. The resulting optimized atomic structures, electronic band structure and DOS are shown in Figs. 3.6(a-d). It can be seen that the electronic and magnetic properties change with H-H separation. The (I) configuration exhibit metallic character with the Fermi level crossing the bands. The (II) configuration is a indirect semiconductor with 0.25 eV band gap, and the VBM and CBM located at the K and M points, respectively. The (III) configuration is a semiconductor with a narrow indirect band gap of 0.23 eV.

3.3.2 Effect of H adsorption with 0.125\% concentration

It is known that the introduction of electrons into a system pushes the \(E_F\) up into the CB so that the \(E_F\) may approach the singularity point which may be associated with ferromagnetism. We have considered four structures for a 0.125\% one-sided uniform coverage of H atoms on \((n \times m)\) supercells of C\(_3\)N. The coverages of homogeneously arranged H atoms are \(C_{96}N_{32}H_4\), \(C_{192}N_{64}H_8\), \(C_{214}N_{72}H_9\) and \(C_{240}N_{80}H_{10}\), and are shown in Fig. 3.7(a). For the first structure, we have constructed a \((4 \times 4)\) supercell of 132 atoms \((C_{96}N_{32}H_4)\) to study a series of H adsorbed C\(_3\)N systems (0.125\%). The H atoms are adsorbed in such a way that the distance between them is 9.722 Å. The \(C_{96}N_{32}H_4\) exhibit a metallic character and induces a negligible magnetic moment. Smaller and larger supercells of H/C\(_3\)N systems are studied to determine the role of the size of the supercell on the electronic and magnetic properties. The spin-polarized electronic band structure for 0.125\% H adsorbed C\(_3\)N is shown in Fig. 3.7(b). For \(C_{192}N_{64}H_8\), it exhibits metallic characteristics with a small magnetic moment of 4 \(\times\) \(10^{-4}\)\(\mu_B\). With increase of supercell size, the magnetic moment increases slightly, and for \(C_{214}N_{72}H_9\), the magnetic moment becomes 7 \(\times\) \(10^{-3}\)\(\mu_B\), and the \(C_{240}N_{80}H_{10}\) (10 \(\times\) 2 structure with 330 atoms) exhibits a magnetic moment of 2 \(\times\) \(10^{-2}\)\(\mu_B\) in the ground state. Thus, our calculations for C\(_3\)N\(_{H_{0.125}}\) using the large supercells, show that the hydrogenated material becomes slightly ferromagnetic. The electronic band structure for the 0.125\% one-sided uniform coverage structures of H atoms adsorbed on each \((n \times m)\) supercell of C\(_3\)N \((C_{96}N_{32}H_4, C_{192}N_{64}H_8, C_{214}N_{72}H_9\) and \(C_{240}N_{80}H_{10}\)), are shown in Fig. 3.7(b). Compared to the electronic band structure of C\(_3\)N, C\(_3\)N\(_{H_{0.125}}\) becomes a metal with impurity states appearing near \(E_F\). These impurity states arise from the chemical adsorption of H atoms and their nearest-neighbor C atoms which change from \(sp^2\) to \(sp^3\) hybridization. Concominantly, there are electrons transferred from C\(_3\)N to the H atoms. The ↑ and ↓ spin channels are not symmetric at the Fermi energy level, which gives rise to small associated magnetic moments as shown in Fig. 3.7(c). The blue and yellow regions represent the ↑ and ↓ spin channels, respectively.
3.4 Functionalization of C$_3$N with H, O and F atoms

Functionalization by the adsorption of atoms is a feasible method to modify the electronic and magnetic properties of 2DMs. Below, we investigate the structural and electronic properties of semi and full coverages of H, O and F atoms on C$_3$N in the chair-like conformation. For this we fully optimize the atomic structures.
3.4 Functionalization of C$_3$N with H, O and F atoms

3.4.1 Structure properties

After optimization we find that these adatoms are adsorbed on C atoms with bonds approximately perpendicular to the C$_3$N plane. Here, SH- and FH-C$_3$N are the abbreviations for
semihydrogenated C$_3$N and fully hydrogenated C$_3$N, respectively. The relaxed structures and corresponding atomic parameters such as lattice constant, the bond lengths between C-(H,F,O), N-C, C-C and buckling parameter for SH-, SO- and SF-C$_3$N, are shown in Figs. 3.8(a,b) schematically. Variation of the lattice constant, bond length, buckling and thickness layers, are shown in Figs. 3.8(c-e). We see that for C$_3$N, the lattice constant and the bond lengths between C-(H,F,O), N-C and C-C are slightly increased upon semi and full coverage. In general, the C-C and C-N bond lengths without SH-, SO- and SF-C$_3$N are smaller than that between the C and N atoms with one or both C and N atoms bonded to the H, O and F atoms (C-C$_{H,O,F}$ or C$_{H,O,F}$-$C_{H,O,F}$). For example, for SH- and FH-C$_3$N there is a slight increase of the lattice constant from 4.861 Å in pristine C$_3$N, to 5.080 and 5.313 Å, respectively. The increase in lattice parameter is due to the increase in bond lengths, which is changed from 1.4 to 1.5 Å (for SH-C$_3$N) and 1.6 (for FH-C$_3$N) Å. For SH-C$_3$N, the C$_H$-H bond length is 1.147 Å. The values of rumpling for SH- and FH-C$_3$N are 0.114 Å and 0.244 Å, respectively.

### 3.5 Electronic properties

We now consider the atomic and electronic structure of the semi coverage of C$_3$N with H, O and F atoms in the chair-like conformation. After relaxation, we see that the H, O and F atoms are adsorbed on the C atoms with bonds oriented approximately normal to the both sides of the C$_3$N plane. The optimized structures and corresponding atomic parameters such as lattice constant, the bond lengths between C-(H,F,O), N-C and C-C and buckling parameter for SH-, SO- and SF-C$_3$N, are shown in Figs. 3.9(a-f). For C$_3$N, the lattice constant a plus the bond lengths between C-(H,F,O), N-C and C-C are slightly increased on SH-, SO- and SF-C$_3$N. In general, the C-C and C-N bond lengths adsorption, are smaller than those between the C and N atoms with one or both C and N atoms bonded with H, O and F atoms (C-C$_{H,O,F}$ or C$_{H,O,F}$-$C_{H,O,F}$). We find that SH and FH-C$_3$N slightly enlarge the lattice constant from 4.861 Å for C$_3$N, to 5.080 Å and 5.313 Å, respectively. The increase of lattice parameter is due to the increase in the bond length, which changes from 1.4 to 1.5 Å for SH-C$_3$N. For SH-C$_3$N, C$_H$-H bond length is 1.147 Å and bond angle between C$_H$-N-C$_H$, N-C$_H$-C and C-C$_H$-C are 105, 113 and 115°, respectively. The values of rumpling for the SH- and FH-C$_3$N structures are 0.114 Å and 0.244 Å, respectively. In general, the C-C and C-N bond lengths without hydrogenation are smaller than those between the C and N atoms with one or both C and N atoms bonded to H atoms (C-C$_{H,F,O}$ or C$_{H,F,O}$-$C_{H,F,O}$). For the FH-C$_3$N, C$_H$-H bond length is 1.147 Å and bond angles between C$_H$-N-C$_H$, N-C$_H$-C and C-C$_H$-C are 105, 113 and 115°, respectively. The values of rumpling for FH-C$_3$N is 0.244 Å. The difference charge density are shown in top of panels.
3.5 Electronic properties

Figure 3.9: Electronic band structure, DOS and PDOS of (a) semi-hydrogenated, (b) semi-fluorinated, (c) semi-oxidized, (d) fully-hydrogenated, (e) fully-fluorinated and (f) fully-oxidized in the chair-like conformation of C$_3$N. The difference charge density is given in the top of the panels. The blue and yellow regions represent the charge accumulation and depletion, respectively. The zero of energy is at $E_F$ as shown by the dashed green line.

in Figs. 3.9(a-c). The high charge density around C bonded, H and N atoms projecting toward the C-N and C-H bonds indicate charge transfer from C to N and H atoms. In order to understand the effects of semi and full coverage on C$_3$N, we investigate the electronic properties.

The electronic band structure corresponding to the DOS and PDOS of SH-, SO- and SF-C$_3$N, are shown in Figs. 3.9(a-c). Our results show impurity states appear around $E_F$, and induce metallic properties in the former two systems. In comparison with pure C$_3$N, the band structure is greatly changed due to the functionalization. For SH-, SO- and SF-C$_3$N, all the H, O and F atoms are adsorbed on one side, which naturally results in a repulsion among the H, O and F atoms. This results in a shift of most of the C-$p_z$ orbital type bands and this further causes the crystal to expand. It becomes evident from comparison that for SH-C$_3$N, the N-$p_z$ and H-$s$ orbitals are shifted toward $E_F$. In fact, the
Figure 3.10: Optimized atomic structures, electronic band structure, DOS and PDOS of boat-like conformation for (a,b) semi-hydrogenated, (c,d) fully-hydrogenated of C₃N. The difference charge densities indicated in top of panels. The blue and yellow regions represent the charge accumulation and depletion, respectively. The zero of energy is set at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green-point line.

The contribution from N-$p_z$ orbitals is almost as large as that of C-$p_z$ orbitals. The electronic band structure, DOS and PDOS for full coverage of C₃N are shown in Figs. 3.9(d-f). The FH- and FF-C₃N, exhibits a insulator, with very large band gaps of 4.8 eV and 5.8 eV, respectively, while the FO-C₃N structure is metallic.
3.5.1 Smei and fully hyrogenation with boat-like conformation

We next consider the boat-like conformation/structure to investigate the effects of H coverage on C$_3$N. The optimized structures and geometrical parameters (bond lengths, bond angles) of semi and fully hydrogenated-C$_3$N are shown in Figs. 3.10(a,b). The lattice constant of C$_3$N and the C-C and C-N bond lengths are slightly increased upon semi and full hydrogenation and the C-C bond length is the largest for FH-C$_3$N, however the buckling parameter is significantly increased. We see that the C-C and C-N bond lengths are increased from 1.403 to 1.616 Å (C-C bond) and 1.404 to 1.611 Å (C-N bond), respectively. The lattice constant of FH-C$_3$N is 9.10 Å and the bond lengths between C and H atoms (C-H bond) in SH-C$_3$N are 1.111 Å, larger than those in FH-C$_3$N, 1.105 Å. The bond angle between N-C$_H$-C for SH-C$_3$N is 114°, also H atoms not sitting directly above the C atoms, whereas the C$_H$-H bond is approximately perpendicular to the C$_3$N plane. The geometry of hydrogenated C$_3$N is buckled and the range of buckling constants for SH-C$_3$N is 0.229 Å and for FH-C$_3$N are 0.373 Å for C bonded toward up and 0.260 Å for C bonded toward down, respectively. The difference charge density are shown in Figs. 3.10(a-c). We see a high electron density around C bonded and N atoms. The band structure, DOS of SH- and FH-C$_3$N with boat-like conformation, are shown in Figs. 3.10(c,d). Our results show that the boat-like conformation of SH-C$_3$N becomes an indirect semiconductor with a 1.4 eV band gap, while the FH-C$_3$N exhibits a direct band gap of 3.45 eV. C$_3$N without hydrogenation is a typical $sp^2$ bonded system. When a H atom is adsorbed on a C atom, $sp^3$ hybridized bonds form, leading to a distortion of C$_3$N and results in the opening of a band gap.

3.6 Effect of vacancy defect

The synthesis of large C$_3$N sheets having a high-density of nanoscale holes or multiple C vacancies is another landmark in controlling the electronic properties of C$_3$N. Controllable change of the electronic and magnetic properties of C$_3$N through holes and vacancies can potentially be utilized for different technological applications. To study the effect of such defects on the electronic and magnetic structure, we consider 1H-, 2H and 3H-vacancies in one-side of FH-C$_3$N. Our calculations show that ferromagnetic ordered states form, where the larger the number of H vacancies, the larger the magnetic moments. The optimized atomic structures for the chair-like conformation of fully hydrogenated C$_3$N with H vacancies (by removing one, two and three H atoms), are shown in Figs. 3.11(a-c). The difference charge density is shown, where it can be seen that there is a charge accumulation in the region of the H vacancies, as well as on the neighboring C/N atoms. The band structure and corresponding DOS are shown in Figs. 3.11(a-c). We can see that the
Figure 3.11: Relaxed atomic structures, band structure and DOS of fully hydrogenated C\textsubscript{3}N with the boat-like conformation for the (a) single vacancy H formed by removing one H atom and (b) a double vacancy H structure by removing two H atom, from one side. The difference spin density is shown as inset. The blue and yellow regions represent the $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin channels, respectively. The difference charge densities are also indicated at the top of the figures. The blue and yellow regions represent the electron accumulation and depletion, respectively. The zero of energy is set at $E_F$ shown by the dashed green-point line.

Energy band dispersion is modified by removing the H atoms. Each 1H-vacancy leads to a half-filled $sp^3$-like orbital on the C\textsubscript{3}N surface and the band gap decreases as the vacancy defect states are located in the band gap. FH-C\textsubscript{3}N is nonmagnetic insulator with a large band gap of 4.8 eV. By introducing a single H vacancy on one-side, the band gap decreases to 4.3 eV due to the defect states that appear in the gap. Each 1H-vacancy, induces a 1 $\mu_B$ magnetic moment, as shown in Fig. 3.11(a). The 2H and 3H-vacancy structures also exhibits a semiconducting nature with a reduced band gap compared to C\textsubscript{3}N. The magnetic moment enhanced with increase of number of H atoms removed. In particular, we find
that the magnetic moments are 2 and 3 $\mu_B$, respectively. These induced magnetic properties in C$_3$N may be useful for future data storage and spintronics applications. The spin density shows that the unpaired spin states are located in the region around the vacancy. Upon removing one H atom (the 1H-vacancy) the original $sp^3$ bonding is re-transformed into planar $sp^2$ bonding and perpendicular $p_z$ orbitals. At the vacancy, the one electron accommodated in the dangling $p_z$ orbital becomes unpaired and induces the 1 $\mu_B$ magnetic moment. Therefore we find that FH-C$_3$N with the considered H vacancies yield interesting magnetic properties (ferromagnetic domains with large net magnetic moments) which are promising for nanoscale spintronic devices and useful for future data storage applications. These properties may also enable the engineering of desired electronic characteristics.

We also consider double H-vacancies. The optimized atomic structures of FH-C$_3$N formed by removing two H atoms from first and third neighbor atoms, from two sides, are shown in Figs. 3.11(d,e). The corresponding electronic band structure and DOS are also shown. We can see that there is no spin splitting of the band structure for the 2H-vacancy FH-C$_3$N from first neighbor atoms. In comparison with the electronic band structure of FH-C$_3$N, the the 2H-vacancy FH-C$_3$N remains a semiconductor with the introduction of impurity states in the gap. These impurity states, comes from the H-vacancy and their nearest-neighbor C atoms. The 2H-vacancy structure formed from third neighbor atoms, is also a semiconductor, but with a smaller band gap of 2.8 eV. The $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin channels are not symmetric which results in an induced magnetic moment of 2 $\mu_B$. Our results thus show that H vacancy domains on FH-C$_3$N, which is the hydrogenated counterpart of C$_3$N, exhibit induced states in the band gap, which are not present for defect-free FH-C$_3$N. This furthermore demonstrates that FH-C$_3$N surfaces may result in a ferromagnetic states, and that the magnetism depends on the concentration of the H vacancies, as well as their distribution on the surface.

### 3.6.1 Effect of vacancy defect in boat-like conformation

In the following we examine the effect of H vacancies on SH-C$_3$N with the boat-like conformation. The optimized atomic structures, band structure and DOS are shown in Figs. 3.12(a-d). We see from the difference charge density that there is accumulation of electron density in the region of the H-vacancy with neighboring C/N atoms, resulting in strong H-C and F-C bonds. Our results show that the boat-like conformation of SH-C$_3$N, is an indirect semiconductor with a band gap of 1.4 eV. For the 1H-vacancy SH-C$_3$N structure, there are defect states introduced into the band gap, but it is still semiconducting with a band gap of 0.2 eV. The VBM and CBM are located at the Y and $\Gamma$ points, respectively, thus it is indirect. The spin density (difference between spin up and down electrons) are shown in Fig. 3.12(a). The unpaired electron at the unsaturated C site, leads to an induced
Figure 3.12: Relaxed atomic structures, band structure and DOS of fully hydrogenated \( \text{C}_3\text{N} \) with the boat-like conformation for the (a) single vacancy H formed by removing one H atom and (b) a double vacancy H structure by removing two H atoms, from one side. The difference spin density is shown as inset. The blue and yellow regions represent the \( \uparrow \) and \( \downarrow \) spin channels, respectively. The difference charge densities are also indicated at the top of the figures. The blue and yellow regions represent the electron accumulation and depletion, respectively. The zero of energy is set at \( E_F \), shown by the dashed green-point line.

magnetic moment of \( 1 \mu_B \). For the 2H-vacancy SH-C\(_3\)N structure, we see from the band structure that its a semiconductor.

### 3.6.2 Simulated STM images and molecular dynamics simulations

In order to facilitate comparisons between theory and experiment, we present a simulated STM image of SH-C\(_3\)N that was discussed in the previous section as shown in Fig. 3.13(a). The overlayed structure represents the SH-C\(_3\)N repeating unit. From the STM image, it is straightforward to recognize and correlate features with the corresponding atomic structure. The atoms in the vicinity of the adsorbed H atoms exhibit the bright spots. The
3.6 Effect of vacancy defect

Figure 3.13: Simulated STM images of semi-hydrogenated $\text{C}_3\text{N}$. (b) Top and side views of snapshots for the relaxed structures of the $\text{C}_3\text{N}$ at temperatures of 1000K, as obtained from molecular dynamics simulations.

thermodynamic stability of the SH- and FH-$\text{C}_3\text{N}$ structures, is investigated by performing DFT molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. A large $3 \times 3$ supercell of SH- and FH-$\text{C}_3\text{N}$ is used and we consider the effect of temperature at 1000 and 1500 K. Top and side views of snapshots for the relaxed structures of SH- and FH-$\text{C}_3\text{N}$ at 1000K, are shown in Figs.
3.13(b,c). At 1000 K, SH- and FH-C$_3$N is predicted to maintain its original structure.

3.7 Conclusion

Using of first-principles calculations, we carried out extensive and systematic investigations into the atomic, electronic and magnetic structure of C$_3$N that has been recently synthesized. Functionalization by atoms is widely believed to be an effective way to improve and tune the properties of two-dimensional materials. We discussed the modifications that occur in the electronic structure of C$_3$N when adsorbed with different coverages of H and O atoms. Our results show that the electronic band gap values depend on the coverage, and also that the electronic and magnetic structure are significantly affected by the configuration of two-H clusters/pairs (ortho, meta and para) and the structures exhibit diverse electronic characteristics, from metal to semiconductor and to induce magnetism in some of the configurations. We considered various large super cells for investigating magnetism in the C$_3$N$H_{0.125}$. The magnetic state results for C$_3$N$H_{0.125}$ exhibiting ferromagnetism. Furthermore, we investigated effects of semi and full functionalization (with two types configurations ‘chair-’ and ’boat-like’) for adsorption of H, O and F atoms on C$_3$N and found how the electronic and magnetic properties C$_3$N are modified. From C$_3$N to semi-hydrogenated C$_3$N and then to fully-hydrogenated C$_3$N, the system changes from semiconducting to metallic and then to insulating. In addition, the electronic and magnetic properties of the resulting semi/fully hydrogenated C$_3$N can be further controlled by introducing H atoms vacancies, which also show diverse electronic properties including metallic, dilute-magnetic semiconductor and ferromagnetic insulator, depending on the side the H-vacancy is created and the vacancy concentration. Thus, creation of H vacancies is an effective method to control the magnetism in the semi and fully functionalization of C$_3$N. Finally, we studied the interaction of H and O atoms with zigzag and armchair C$_3$N nanoribbon. Adsorption of H can lead to considerable modifications in the electronic structure. Under these conditions, either the wide band gap of the C$_3$N nanoribbon with two difference types of zigzag and armchair, can be reduced or diminished and the C$_3$N nanoribbons becomes metal or semiconductor with an induced a magnetic moment. Furthermore, for exploiting the application possibilities of C$_3$N, we also investigate the effects of strain on the properties of hydrogenated C$_3$N. We showed that the band gap could be modulated with strain, and thus offering the potential to control this property. Overall, our detailed investigations show that there are unique opportunities to engineer the electronic properties of C$_3$N which may enable many useful potential technological applications in fields such as catalysis, energy storage and nanoelectronic devices.
CHAPTER 4

Topological defect and impurity atoms

Many approaches have been developed to modify the electronic and magnetic properties of 2DM. These methods involve substitution of atoms, defect engineering, surface functionalization and applying strain and/or electric field. Several computational studies have been conducted to investigate adatom and molecule adsorption on 2D monolayers \([167]–[173]\) and substitution of atoms \([174]–[176]\). Substitution of atoms into 2DM is of fundamental importance in order to tailor their electronic and magnetic properties, which are useful for numerous applications such as energy storage and conversion \([177]–[179]\), sensing \([180]–[181]\) and nanoelectronics devices \([176]–[182]–[184]\). The substitution of atoms into carbon nitride materials is of fundamental importance, enabling a wide range of applications by tailoring the electronic and magnetic properties \([185]–[187]\).

In this chapter, by using first-principles calculations, we carried out a detailed investigation of how various point defects including vacancies (single and double vacancy), Stone-Wales (SW) and anti-site defects affect the structure of C\(_3\)N and its electronic and magnetic properties. We demonstrate the capability of defect engineering to alter the properties of C\(_3\)N from nonmagnetic semiconductor to a metal and/or a magnetic ground state. Furthermore, we present a detailed study of the effect of substitution of H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, N, Si, P, Li, Na, K, Be, Mg, Ca and Al atoms on the electronic and magnetic properties of C\(_3\)N. We analyze the modification of the band structure of C\(_3\)N as the underlying mechanism for the changes in its properties. One of the goals is to show how introducing the above impurities turns the semiconductor of C\(_3\)N into a metal, half-metal, spin-glass semiconductor or dilute-magnetic semiconductor. The effects of charging and strain on
The substituted-C$_3$N are studied and we show how the band gap and magnetism can be modulated. The important point here is that a wide variety of electronic and magnetic properties, differing from pristine C$_3$N, emerge using the above methods.
4.1 Effect of topological defects

We investigate different topological defects in monolayer C$_3$N and in addition vacancies, Stone-Wales and anti-site defects. In order to investigate vacancies, we removed C and N atoms to produce single vacancy of the C atom SV$_C$ or N atom SV$_N$, while for double vacancies, we remove C+C (DV$_{CC}$), N+N (DV$_{NN}$) and N+C (DV$_{NC}$) atoms respectively. For the Stone-Wales (SW) defect, we rotate a single C-C (SW$_{CC}$) or N-C (SW$_{NC}$) bond in C$_3$N by 90°, resulting in a structure with a pair of seven-membered and five-membered rings, respectively. For the anti-site defects, we replaced N with C atoms (i.e., exchanged the position of N and C atoms) (AS$_{NC}$). Typical defects are schematically shown in Fig. 4.1. With fully structural optimization, where all atoms are relaxed in all directions and calculations are performed using $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell of C$_3$N which contains 32 atoms (24 C and 8 N atoms).

4.1.1 Structure properties

In Fig. 4.5, we present the optimized structures with corresponding bond lengths and bond angles of SV$_C$ and SV$_N$. The C and N atoms around the vacancy in C$_3$N undergo a Jahn-Teller distortion [146] and C and N atoms close to the vacancy site move towards each other to form C-C or C-N bonds. For the reconstructed SV$_C$ (SV$_N$), two C atoms bond together to build a joint pentagonal and nonagonal (i.e., the 5-9 configurations). Two C atoms around the vacancy are approaching each other, so the C-C (N-C) bond lengths are changed to 1.597 (1.730) and 1.550 (1.560) Å, respectively, which differs from pristine C$_3$N (1.403 and 1.404 Å) (see Fig. 3). For SV$_C$, upon structural optimization the same symmetry and a planar structure of C$_3$N is found. In DV$_{CC}$ case, we observed no deviation from the planar configuration upon structural relaxation and it exhibits a non-reconstructed structure, while DV$_{NC}$ shows reconstructed structure and two C atoms bond together to build two pentagon and one heptagon (i.e. the 5-8-5 configurations) (see Fig. 4.2). The distance between dangling bonds in DV$_{CC}$ is found to be about 1.404 Å and the bond lengths of C and N atoms around the vacancies become 2.041 and 1.404 Å. The bond lengths of DV$_{NC}$ are 1.404 and 1.404 Å (see Fig. 3). The DV$_{NN}$ shows a non-reconstructed structure and the bond lengths of C and N atoms around the vacancies become 1.44 and 1.43 Å. For AS$_{NC}$ we see a negligible bond length elongation in the modified structure. The C-C bond length undergoes a small modification from 1.404 to 1.406 Å, and the N-C bond length is calculated to be 1.400 Å. As can be seen from Fig. 4.2, after the formation of SW defect, four neighboring hexagons of C$_3$N are transformed into one pentagon and two heptagons (the 55-77 configurations), and C$_3$N maintains its planer 2D structure. Through 90° rotation of a dimer, the C-C bond becomes stronger than the...
one in pristine C₃N, and its length decreases from 2.281 to 2.191 Å. Due to the shortening of bond lengths along the direction parallel to the pentagons, the lattice constant decreases from 23.212 to 23.041 Å.

### 4.1.2 Electronic and magnetic properties

The effect of SV defects on the electronic and magnetic properties of C₃N, are shown in Fig. 4.3. It is noticeable that the band structure of pristine C₃N is strongly disturbed by
4.1 Effect of topological defects

Figure 4.3: Electronic structure of C\textsubscript{3}N with different defects including SV\textsubscript{C}, SV\textsubscript{N}, C+C (DV\textsubscript{CC}), N+C (DV\textsubscript{NC}), N+N (DV\textsubscript{NN}), anti-site (AS\textsubscript{NC}), C-C (SW\textsubscript{CC}) and N-C (SW\textsubscript{NC}). Dotted curves represent the electronic structure of pristine C\textsubscript{3}N. The zero of energy is set to $E_F$, shown by the green dash-point line.

the vacancy defects. The SV\textsubscript{C} and SV\textsubscript{N} turns pristine C\textsubscript{3}N into a metal and ferromagnetic-metal, respectively. In addition, SV\textsubscript{N} has 0.3 $\mu_B$ magnetic moment due to the dangling bond around the defect sites with an unpaired electron. For DV\textsubscript{CC} and DV\textsubscript{NC}, similar to what we have for the SV-defect, states appear near $E_F$, resulting in metallic characteristics in the electronic structure. Our results show that DV\textsubscript{NN}, becomes a ferromagnetic-metal and induces 3.5 $\mu_B$ magnetic moment to C\textsubscript{3}N. We see that AS\textsubscript{NC}, is a semiconductor with 0.2 eV indirect band gap. After introducing the SW defects, the electronic states experience a shift due to the breaking of the hexagonal lattice symmetry by the SW defect.
Figure 4.4: DOS and PDOS $SV_C$, $SV_N$, C+C ($DV_{CC}$), N+C ($DV_{NC}$), N+N ($DV_{NN}$), anti-site ($AS_{NC}$), C-C ($SW_{CC}$) and N-C ($SW_{NC}$) defects on C$_3$N. The charge distributions for the VBM and CBM are shown in the insets. Blue and yellow regions represent charge accumulation and depletion, respectively.

The SW-C$_3$N, is an indirect semiconductor with 0.2 eV band gap due to the introduction of an energy level near the CB, which is related to some bonds of both C and N atoms around the defect. The VBM (CBM) is located at $\Gamma$ (between M and $\Gamma$ points). Moreover, the band becomes flatter which indicates a strongly localized charge around these defects.

The DOS and PDOS $SV_C$, $SV_N$, C+C ($DV_{CC}$), N+C ($DV_{NC}$), N+N ($DV_{NN}$), anti-site ($AS_{NC}$), C-C ($SW_{CC}$) and N-C ($SW_{NC}$) defects on C$_3$N is shown in Fig. 4.4. It is also evident from the DOS and PDOS, that the state at $E_F$ of SV-C$_3$N belongs to the C/N-$p_z$ orbital around the missing atom which confirms the metallic behavior of SV-C$_3$N. By analyzing of PDOS it is clear that the magnetism in $SV_N$ are derived from the C-$p$ orbitals of the C atoms in $SV_N$. For the case of $DV_{CC}$, we found that the state at $E_F$ belongs to the s and p-orbitals of C and N atoms locating around the missing atom which confirms the metallic behavior, whereas, for $DV_{NC}$, the state around $E_F$ originates from C/N-$p_z$ orbitals. While the VB and CB of $DV_{NN}$ belongs to the C/N-$s,p_{x,y}$ orbital, the VB and CB of $AS_{NC}$ belongs to the C/N-$p_z$ orbitals. The VB of $SW_{CC}$ and $SW_{NC}$ has N-$p_z$ orbital and the CB is build up of the C-$p_z$ orbital around the defect, which results in
4.2 Substitution of atom

With fully structural optimization, where all atoms are relaxed in all directions and calculations are performed using $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell of C$_3$N which contains 32 atoms (24 C and 8 N atoms). We consider two substitution sites: (1) the C host atom site (Sb$_C$) and (2) the N host atom site (Sb$_N$). The change of lattice constant is shown in Fig. 4.5(a) and a schematic view of two substitution sites are shown in the inset. The substitution of foreign atoms with C (N) host atom of C$_3$N, is labeled as $Sb_C$-C$_3$N ($Sb_N$-C$_3$N). For instance, substitution of H atom for C (N), is labeled as $H_C$-C$_3$N ($H_N$-C$_3$N). The induced strain to the lattice structure of the C$_3$N can be estimated by calculating $(a-a_0)/a_0$, where $a_0$ is the lattice constant of pristine C$_3$N and $a$ is the lattice constant of Sb-C$_3$N. The induced strain is plotted in Figs. 4.5(b,c). Lattice deformation of the substituted-C$_3$N structure exhibit an increase of induced distortion to the C$_3$N lattice constant. From Figs. 4.5(b,c), we find that the strain for H, O, S, F, Cl, B, Si and P substitution for C and N sites varies between 0.5 to 5%. For the Li, Na, K, Be, Mg, Ca and Al atoms the strain varies between 2.5 to 9% which is significantly larger. Notice the increase in lattice constant with the atomic number which is present in both cases (see Fig. 4.5(a)). The interaction between the substituted atoms and the C$_3$N lattice can induce a charge redistribution. The Mulliken population analysis was performed to quantitatively analyze this effect. Positive (negative) charge transfer indicates a loss (gain) of electrons for each substituted atom to (from) C$_3$N. In pristine C$_3$N there is a charge transfer from C to N atoms. However, those C and N atoms in the substituted C$_3$N, have different Mulliken charges because of the different arrangement of atoms. The redistribution of charge for substituted C$_3$N depends mainly on the incorporation of substituted atom into the C and N lattice. For example, substitution of C host atom with Li and P atoms, induce Mulliken charges of -0.48 e and +0.53 e, respectively, while substitution with Na and Al yield +0.14 e and +0.23 e, respectively. The C and N atoms bonded to the substitutional atoms have much larger Mulliken charges than those in pristine C$_3$N. This difference can be attributed to the different atomic radius, electro-negativities, and their bond length of C and N atom with the foreign atoms.
Figure 4.5: (a) Lattice constant of C$_3$N substituted with different atoms. Schematic model of two substitution sites is shown in the inset. (b,c) Effect of strain in lattice constant of C$_3$N substituted with different atoms. (d,e) Energy band gap and (f,g) magnetic moment due to substitution by difference species of atoms at respectively the C and N host atom sites.
Figure 4.6: Optimized structures for substitution of (a) C or (b) N in the C₃N lattice with H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, Si, N and P. Structural parameters including atomic bond length and angles are indicated. C, N and foreign atoms are shown by brown, blue and different colored balls, respectively.
4.3 Substitution of simple atoms

4.3.1 Structure properties

The optimized structures of H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, Si, N and P substituted C$_3$N on C or N sites with their corresponding structural parameters including atomic bond length and angles are shown in Figs. 4.6(a,b). In the case of reconstruction, the honeycomb structure is deformed locally and the host atoms are pushed away from its lattice position. It can be seen that for H$_C$ and H$_N$, the H atom becomes bonded to the neighboring C atom and the resulting length of the H-C bond is 1.116 and 1.086 Å, respectively. The O and F atoms interact through $sp^2$-hybridization, resulting in the formation of two and three $\sigma$ bonds with the neighboring C atoms of C$_3$N, respectively. The bond length of O$_C$, O$_N$ are 1.341 and 1.541 Å, and the C-O-C bond angles are 135° and 119°, respectively. For F$_C$ and F$_N$, the F-C bond length is 1.582 and 1.712 Å, and the C-F-C bond angle is 145° and 119°, respectively. We can see a strong effect on the planar structure of C$_3$N for F$_C$. For B$_C$ and B$_N$, the B atoms form one and three $\sigma$ bonds with the neighboring N and C atoms, respectively. and the bond length with the nearest N atom is 1.441 Å, while for B$_N$ the bond length with the nearest C atom is 1.482 Å and the C-B-C bond angle is 120°, with a small in plane distortion of the C$_3$N lattice. The Si and P atomic radius is larger than that of C or N atom and as a consequence the Si and P atoms induce a structural deformation along the direction of the C$_3$N plane, leading to an expansion of the lattice parameter with $\sim$ 3.0%. The change in bond lengths and angles reflect the size of substituted atoms, and due to changes in the optimized structure the charge transfer between the substituted atoms and the substrate are modified.

4.3.2 Electronic and magnetic properties

The electronic structure of H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, Si, N and P atoms substituted C$_3$N, are shown in Figs. 4.7(a,b). The blue-lines and red-dash lines represent up and down spin states, respectively. The electronic states of C$_3$N after substitution of different atoms are listed in Table 1. The corresponding electronic states are specified as metal (M), half-metal (HM), ferromagnetic-metal (FM), spin-glass semiconductor (SG-SC), dilute-magnetic semiconductor (DM-SC) and semiconductor (SC) and are indicated in Fig. 4.5. The band gap and magnetic moment are indicated inside parentheses. In comparison with pristine C$_3$N, the shape of the electronic structure of Sb-C$_3$N is significantly modified. The H$_C$, Cl$_C$, H$_N$, O$_N$ and S$_N$ are metal, while O$_C$ is a semiconductor with 0.6 eV direct band gap, where the VBM and CBM are located at the $\Gamma$ point. We can see that S$_C$ and Cl$_N$ are indirect semiconductors with band gap of 0.33 eV and the VBM and CBM are
4.3 Substitution of simple atoms

Figure 4.7: Electronic structure for substitution of (a) C or (b) N in the \( \text{C}_3\text{N} \) lattice with H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, Si, N and P. The dotted curves represent the electronic structure of pristine \( \text{C}_3\text{N} \). The zero of energy is set to \( E_F \), shown by the green dash-point line.

located at the K point and between the M and \( \Gamma \) point, respectively. Moreover, \( S_C \) exhibit a p-type semiconductor, because these atoms gain electrons, resulting in a down shift of the \( E_F \) inside the VB edge. \( F_C \) is a dilute-magnetic semiconductor and the excess electron of the substituted F atom relative to C leads to spin-polarization and induces a magnetic moment of \( 1 \mu_B \) in the ground state per F atom. \( B_C \) is a metal, while \( B_N \) is an indirect semiconductor with 0.5 eV band gap. Notice that the N atom has two extra electrons on the outer shell as compared to B which influences the VB and CB of \( \text{C}_3\text{N} \). These excess electrons of the substituted N atom leads to a filling of the VB edge, similar to a p-type semiconductor and as a result \( B_N \) exhibit hole doping and thus causes a down shift of \( E_F \). Also \( \text{Si}_C \) is a direct semiconductor with 0.34 eV band gap, while \( \text{Si}_N \) becomes a metal and the impurity states appear near the VBM and CBM edge.

The electronic structure of H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, Si, N and P atoms substituted \( \text{C}_3\text{N} \), are shown in Figs. 4.7(a,b). We found no spin polarized band structure for \( N_C, P_C, \text{C}_N, \text{Si}_N \) and \( P_N \) which exhibit metallic characteristics with their \( E_F \) crossing the electronic states. For \( \text{Cl}_C \) the electron states near \( E_F \) are mainly governed by the C/N-\( p_z \) orbitals and for \( \text{Cl}_N \) are governed by the C-\( p_{x,y} \), N-\( p_z \) and Cl-s orbitals. We found that the VBM of \( \text{Cl}_C \) is due to the hybridization of Cl-s with C-\( p_{x,y} \) and N-\( p_z \) orbitals of the nearest atoms and
CBM of Cl\textsubscript{C} originates from Cl-\(p_{x,y}\) with \(p_{x,y}\) orbitals of the nearest C atoms. The VBM of S\textsubscript{C} is due to the hybridization of S-\(s, p_{x,y}\) with \(p_{x,y}\) orbitals of the nearest N atoms and the CBM of S\textsubscript{C}-N originates from S-\(p_z\) with \(p_z\) orbitals of the nearest C atoms. For F\textsubscript{C}, there is an asymmetric spin splitting around \(E_F\) and as a consequence the defected structure becomes a dilute-magnetic semiconductor with an induced magnetic moment.

The DOS and PDOS for substitution of (a) C or (b) N in the C\textsubscript{3}N lattice with H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, Si, N and P is shown in Fig. 4.7. The discussion of corresponding PDOS further reveals that these asymmetric impurity states in the band gap mainly originates from the hybridization of N/F-2p and the C-2p orbitals leading to a magnetic moment of 1 \(\mu_B\). However for F\textsubscript{N}, the hybridization is slightly different and the state near \(E_F\) mainly originates from the F-3s and C-\(p_z\) orbital states. PDOS of B\textsubscript{C} shows that the CBM arises from the B-\(p_z\) and C/N-\(p_z\) orbitals. Also hybridization between the B-\(p_z\) and C/N-\(p_z\) orbitals mainly contributes to the VBM. For Si\textsubscript{C}, Si being in the same group as C in the
4.4 Substitution of alkaline metals and alkaline earth metals atoms

periodic table with a larger atomic radius, distorts the planar structure of \( \text{C}_3\text{N} \) and causes an increase in the bond length. VBM of \( \text{C}_3\text{N} \) is not influenced much upon substitution, where the states originate from Si-\( p_z \) orbitals. DOS and PDOS of \( P_C \) and \( P_N \), show that both the CBM and VBM are composed of \( P-p_z \) and \( C-p_z \) orbitals. As expected, DOS of the \( B_C, N_C, P_C, B_C, C_N \) and \( Si_N \), shows that the interaction between these atoms and \( \text{C} \) or \( \text{N} \) host atoms is responsible for the semiconductor to metal transition. Based on the calculated PDOS, both the CBM and VBM receive mainly contributions from the hybridization of the \( p_z \) orbitals.
4.4 Substitution of alkaline metals and alkaline earth metals atoms

4.4.1 Electronic and magnetic properties

Figs. 4.9(a,b) show the electronic band structure of Li, Na, K, Be, Mg, Ca and Al substitution in C$_3$N, while Na$_C$ is ferromagnetic-metal with 1.3 $\mu_B$ magnetic moment. Interestingly, Na$_N$ and K$_N$, exhibit spin-glass semiconductor behavior with 1.9 and 2 $\mu_B$ magnetic moments, respectively. Namely, the $\uparrow$ spin channel is gapless, while the $\downarrow$ spin channel is a semiconductor and the VBM touches the Fermi level. Such spin-gapless semiconductors are of particular interest for e.g. spin photo-diodes, spin detectors and electromagnetic radiation generators for a wide range of wavelengths based on spin photo-conductivity. We found that Be$_C$, Mg$_C$, Li$_N$, Li$_C$, K$_C$ and Be$_N$, are metallic, while Ca$_C$ and Mg$_N$ are ferromagnetic-metals with induced 1.3 and 0.7 $\mu_B$ magnetic moments, respectively. Al$_N$ is a direct semiconductor with 0.43 eV band gap where the VBM and CBM are located at the $\Gamma$ point. Unlike Ca$_C$, we see that Ca$_N$ remains a direct semiconductor with a 1 eV band gap in the $\downarrow$ spin channel, whereas the $\uparrow$ spin channel is metallic, thus Ca$_N$ is a half-metal with 1 $\mu_B$ magnetic moment. This suggests that the charge carriers within the energy bands in the vicinity of $E_F$ are mobile, which is not only useful for electrical conduction but also for magnetic coupling. Notice that the half-metallic behavior of Ca$_N$ can be useful in spintronics. Finally, Al$_N$ is a direct semiconductor with band gap of 0.43 eV, while VBM and CBM are located at the $\Gamma$ point.

4.5 Conclusion and Summary

In summary by using first-principle calculations within the framework of DFT, a systematic investigation of the effect of topological defects including single and double vacancies, Stone-Wales and anti-site, on the structure and electronic properties of C$_3$N was presented. Our results show that for both single and double vacancies C$_3$N becomes a metal, except in the case of a single vacancy of N and double vacancy of N+N. C$_3$N with anti-site defects when C$_3$N becomes a direct semiconductor with 0.2 eV band gap. With Stone-Wales defects, C$_3$N becomes an indirect semiconductor with the band gap of 0.2 eV. Furthermore, we studied the effects due to H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, N, Si, P, Li, Na, K, Be, Mg, Ca and Al substitution on the electronic properties of C$_3$N. When the C site is substituted with O, S and Si atoms, the system remains a semiconductor with band gap in the range of 0.25-0.75 eV, while with H, Cl, B, P, Li, Na, K, Be and Mg atoms the system turns into a metal. Also, upon substitution of the native C with F atom, C$_3$N becomes
a dilute-magnetic semiconductor, while with Ca substitution it is a ferromagnetic-metal. Moreover, when N is replaced with H, O, S, C, Si, P, Li and Be atoms the system turns into a metal and with F, Cl, B and Al atoms becomes a semiconductor. With Mg and Ca atoms it becomes a ferromagnetic-metal and half-metal with induces magnetic moments of 0.3 and 2 $\mu_B$, respectively. In addition, with Na and K shows spin-glass semiconductor. Moreover, we investigated the effect of charging and strain on the electronic structure of C$_3$N, in which native C and N atoms are substituted with Na atom. Our result shows that the magnetic moment with applied charging and strain can be tuned. It is possible to tune the magnetism by controlling the Fermi level via external fields such as by charging and strain. Our calculations predict that the introduction of typical topological defects or by substitution of atoms in C$_3$N, provides an interesting way to tune the electronic and magnetic properties which can be useful in a diversity of applications including solar cells, sensors, nanoelectronics, optoelectronics and spintronic devices.
CHAPTER 5

Electric filed and mechanical strain

In this chapter, by using of first-principles calculations, we as systematically investigate the structural, electronic and magnetic properties of a novel two-dimensional materials (2DM), with a stoichiometry of C₃N is recently synthesized. Control of layer thickness, is an effective method to tune the electronic properties of 2DM. We found that single layers of C₃N are stacked together to form a bilayer and trilayer with multiple type stacking of layers. In result shows metallic and semiconducting character. Transition of semiconductor to metal in C₃N nanosheet through thickness control could potential application in future nanoelectronic devices. In addition, we study the effects of width and length of C₃N nanoribbon as well as radius and length of C₃N nanotube, on structure and electronic properties. In result, we found how the electronic and magnetic properties C₃N nanoribbon and nanotube, depending on the width, length and radios of C₃N nanoribbon and nanotube are modified. It would be noted that the properties of nanoribbon and nanotube are significantly dependent on the edge states. Adsorption of adatom is an robust approach to improve and modulate the properties of 2DM. We investigated the adsorption of H adatom on C₃N nanostuctures, and our calculation shows that they may induce metallic, half-metalic, semiconducting and ferromagnetic behaviors. We also, investigate effect of an external field strain on C₃N nanostuctures and found that the electronic and magnetic properties C₃N are modified. Our calculation insight into C₃N showing an unusual electronic and magnetic properties. Therefore, the C₃N nanosheet, nanoribbons, nanotubes are predicted to have great potential applications in sensor, electronics and optoelectronic at the nanoscale. We investigate effects of an electrical field, charging and strain on C₃N
Figure 5.1: Optimized structures, band structure, DOS and PDOS of a few layer C$_3$N nanosheet with different stackings. The zero of energy is set to the Fermi level energy.

and found how the electronic and magnetic properties are modified. Semi and fully hydrogenation, are studied. From our calculations we gained novel insights into the properties of C$_3$N demonstrating its unique electronic and magnetic properties that can be useful for semiconducting, nanosensor and catalytic applications.

In this paper, firstly we investigate the layer thickness-dependent on the electronic property of C$_3$N nanosheet. Single layers of C$_3$N can be stacked together and form a few layer of C$_3$N with multiple type stacking configuration. In result, depending to layer thickness and type of stacking, we can see that the band structure, exhibits a metallic or semiconducting behaviors. The main point is that the C$_3$N nanoribbon (C$_3$NNR) and nanotube (C$_3$NNT) are characterized through the change electronic character by width, length and radius respect to the zigzag and armchair edges states. The character of these nanostuctures in either shape can be tuned through changing length/width in the nanoribbon or length/radius of the nanotube. Moreover, we investigate an analysis from adsorption of H adatom on the C$_3$N nanostuctures. Our result show that the electronic and magnetic properties can be modified through adsorption of H adatom. In addition, the effects of charging and strain on the electronic structure of C$_3$N nanostructures, are studied. Our result showed that the band gap and magnetism can be modulated by these ways. Some of these properties can be useful and very promising for future applications.
5.1 Layer thickness

We constructed bilayer C$_3$N (2L-C$_3$N) with two different stacking sequences of AA and AB. In the AA stacking, the in-plane position of atoms on the two layers are exactly the same, while in the AB stacking, the in-plane atomic positions of the top layer are shifted such that some of the atoms are placed on the hollow center of the hexagonal lattices of the atoms on the bottom layer. In the trilayer C$_3$N (3L-C$_3$N), sandwich structure, we consider four stacking configurations: AAA, ABA, ABB and AAB. In the ABA stacking configuration, a hexagonal ring center (labeled by) and a C atom are located directly below and above the C atom of the a C$_3$N lattice, respectively; and a N atom and a hexagonal ring
90 Electric filed and mechanical strain

Figure 5.3: (a) Electronic structure of bilayer C$_3$N as a function of the electric field, whose strength varies from -0.8 to +0.8 V/Å. The perpendicular electric field $F > 0$ and $< 0$ that denotes parallel and antiparallel to the $z$-axis, respectively. The zero of energy is set at the $E_F$. (d) Band gap of bilayer C$_3$N with respect to the electric field.

center are located directly below and above the C atom of C$_3$N lattice, respectively. The optimized atomic structure of 2L- and 3L-C$_3$N, are shown in Fig. 5.1. After the geometry optimization, the interlayer distances between the layers of 2L-C$_3$N, were obtained 3.309 (AA) and 3.298 Å (AB), While for the 3L-C$_3$N were obtained 3.301 (AAA), 3.305 (ABA), 3.587 (ABB) and 3.316 (AAB) Å, stackings. For the 2LAA- and 2LAB-C$_3$N, the in-plane
covalent bond lengths of the C-C and C-N atoms were 1.398 and 1.408 Å, respectively that compared to C\textsubscript{3}N the bond lengths changed (C-C and C-N bond lengths are 1.403 and 1.404 Å). For 3L-C\textsubscript{3}N, the in-plane covalent bond length of the C-C and C-N atoms is $\sim$ 1.40 Å. The electronic structure of 2L- and 3L-C\textsubscript{3}N, are shown in Fig. 5.1. We found that the energy band of C\textsubscript{3}N is modified by number of layer and type of stacking configuration. Our result show that the 2LAA, eliminate the semiconducting band gap of C\textsubscript{3}N and exhibit a metallic property, while the 2LAB, becomes a indirect semiconductor with 0.45 eV band gap, while the VBM and CBM are located at the $\Gamma$ and M points, respectively. In the 3L-C\textsubscript{3}N, exhibit a metallic characteristics with their Fermi levels crossing the electronic states for all stacking except the 3LABA, that becomes a indirect semiconductor with 0.5 eV band gap. Compared to the monolayer C\textsubscript{3}N nanosheet band gap (0.4 eV), the band gaps of bilayer and trilayer in the 2LAB and 3LAB stackings ones are pronouncedly reduced because of the strong interlayer interaction and some bonds of both C and N atoms. \cite{171, 188}
Figure 5.5: Electronic band structure of (a) Ti, (b) Mn and (c) Fe adsorbed C$_3$N as a function of charging. The q= +1 e and q= -1 e, corresponds to the charging where one electron is removed from and added to the C$_3$N, respectively.
5.2 Applying an electric field and charging on the pristine $C_3N$

We present here the effect of charging, electric field and strain on the properties of $C_3N$. In Figs. 5.2(a-b), the changes in band structure and DOS with charging are shown. For $q = +1$ e, the Fermi level shift into the VB and creates holes, while for $q = -1$ e, the Fermi level shifts into the CB and creates electrons. Incidentally, as a result of negative charging ($q = -8$ e), Dirac-point moves to the Fermi level and the VBM and CBM touch each other at the Fermi level, similar to graphene. The electronic band structures and DOS of the $C_3N$ as a function of electric field, is shown in Fig. 5.2(c). The $F = +1$ and $-1$ V/Å denotes electric field parallel and antiparallel to the z-axis, respectively. For both $F = +1.0$ and $-1.0$ V/Å, the $C_3N$ did not yield any change in electronic state as a result of applied electrical field. We examined other values of $F$ and found that the electronic structure of $C_3N$ does not change.

Here we investigate the effect of an uniform electric field on the electronic property of bilayer $C_3N$ under a perpendicular electric field $F > 0$ and $< 0$ that denotes parallel
and antiparallel to the z-axis, respectively. The electronic structure, under an electric field of -0.8 to +0.8 V, is shown in Fig. 5.3(a). We found that, the electric field changes the electronic structure of bilayer C₃N and brings out a redistribution of molecular orbitals as well as a reduction in the gap between frontier molecular orbitals, result in the presence of a electric field lowers energy gap. My results show, when we apply an electric field the band gap will decrease and reach to zero gap as the electric field increases (parallel and antiparallel to the z-axis) and a semiconductor-to-metal transition occur.

Result in, it is possible to tune the electronic properties by controlling the Fermi-level. The energy band gap versus the applied electric field in the normal direction, whose strength varies from -0.8 to +0.8 V, is shown in Fig. 5.3(b). The optimized atomic structure of bilayer C₃N indicated in the inset. Owing to their tunable band gaps in a wide range for the layered C₃N materials will have tremendous opportunities to be applied in nanoscale electronic and optoelectronic devices.

5.3 Mechanical strain

5.3.1 Strain on the pristine C₃N

2DM monolayers are often put or a substrate which may induce strain. Strain engineering is a important methods to change the properties of 2DM. We investigate the effects of uniaxial and biaxial strain (tensile and compression) on C₃N. The tensile and compression strain are defined as \( \varepsilon = \frac{(a - a_0)}{a_0} \times 100 \), where \( a \) and \( a_0 \) are strained and non-strained lattice constants, respectively. Uniaxial strain is applied along zigzag direction, while biaxial strain is applied along ab-axis. The band structure under uniaxial (tensile and compression) strains, are shown in Fig. 5.4. Under uniaxial tensile strain along zigzag direction C₃N becomes metallic when it is larger than +14\%. The reason is that the CB at the C point shifts down to the \( E_F \) and in the VB vicinity the \( \Gamma \) point rises up to \( E_F \). Interestingly, the Dirac-point (located at about -2.25 eV) will move away from the K point to the M point in the Brillouin zone. Under uniaxial compression strain along zigzag direction the structure becomes metallic when larger than -8\% and the Dirac-point will move away from the K point to the M point in the Brillouin zone. The electronic band structure under biaxial strain (tensile and compression), are shown in Figs. 5.4(b,c). For biaxial compression strain, we see that C₃N transforms into a metallic state if the amount of compression strain is larger than -8\%. This differs from the case of biaxial tensile strain where semiconducting behavior is found up to +14\%. Fig. 5.4(d), shows the variation of energy band gap with strain. The energy band with increase of uniaxial strain, decreases to zero gap for compression strain of -8\%, and becomes metallic for tensile strain of +14\%. Also the band gap increases from 0.4 eV as biaxial tensile strain is applied to C₃N and the
5.4 Effect of charging on the adsorbed-TM atoms $C_3N$

Figure 5.7: Electronic band structure of (a) Ti, (b) Mn and (c) Fe adsorbed $C_3N$ as a function of electric field ($F$). $F = +1$ and $-1$ V/Å denotes parallel and antiparallel to the $z$-axis, respectively.

Energy band gap increases with biaxial compression and becomes metal at $-8\%$. 
5.4 Effect of charging on the adsorbed-TM atoms C₃N

The effect of charging, electric field and strain on the properties of TMs/C₃N (TMs= Ti, Mn and Fe) are here discussed. We show the calculated variation of the magnetic moment with charging in the case of q = +1 e (when one electron is removed) and q = -1 e (when one electron is added). The electronic band structure and DOS of the TMs/C₃N (TM= Ti, Mn and Fe) as a function of charging, are shown in Fig. 5.5. and 5.6, respectively. Our results show that Ti/C₃N is spin-polarized with 2.58 $\mu_B$ and the magnetic moment of the Ti/C₃N increases to 2.6 $\mu_B$ with q = +1 e and remains a ferromagnetic-metal, whereas for excess electronic charge of q = -1 e, the magnetic moment increases to 2.95 $\mu_B$ and it become a ferromagnetic-half metal. Namely it is metal for one spin channel, but a semiconductor for the opposite spin channel. This material transports electrons only in one spin channel and can function as a spin valve. The Mn/C₃N is a ferromagnetic-metal with 3.47 $\mu_B$ and reach 2.62 $\mu_B$, when 1 electron is removed (q = +1 e) from the Mn/C₃N and it remains metal. Under excess electronic charge a reverse situation is observed, where the magnetic moment decreases to 4 $\mu_B$ for q = -1 e and C₃N becomes a semiconductor. For Fe/C₃N, which is a semiconductor with 2 $\mu_B$ in neutral state, magnetic moment decreases to 0.11
5.4 Effect of charging on the adsorbed-TM atoms C$_3$N

$\mu_B$ for q = +1 e and 1.51 $\mu_B$ for q = -1 e and becomes metal. The variation of $M_T$ is due to the accommodation of different electronic charges of TMs-3d orbital states for different values of q.

The electronic band structure and DOS for Ti, Mn and Fe adatoms as a function of electric field is here investigated. The $F = +1$ and -1 V/Å denotes parallel and antiparallel to the z-axis, respectively, are shown in Fig. 5.7. and 5.8. The applied electric field effects on the electronic and magnetic properties of TMs/C$_3$N are significant and cause spin polarizations of TMs/C$_3$N show also considerable changes. In the case of Ti/C$_3$N, magnetic moments decreases to 2.37 $\mu_B$ with $F = +1.0$ V/Å, and increases to 2.74 $\mu_B$ for $F = -1.0$ V/Å. In both cases it remains a metal. For $F = +1.0$ V/Å, the charge on the Ti decreases with increasing $F$ and Ti/C$_3$N remains metal and with $F = -1.0$ V/Å, the charge on the Ti increases with increasing value of $F$ and excess electronic charge on the Ti is transferred from C atoms. The magnetic moment of Mn/C$_3$N decreases to 3.33 $\mu_B$ in $F =$
Electric field and mechanical strain

Figure 5.10: (a) Band gap as a function of uniaxial strain for Fe/C$_3$N. (b) Magnetic moment of TMs/C$_3$N (TM=Ti, Mn and Fe) as a function of uniaxial strain.

+1.0 V/Å, and increases to 3.62 $\mu_B$ in $F = -1.0$ V/Å. In both cases it remains metallic. But Fe/C$_3$N, will remain unchanged, whereas the energy band gap will be changed.

5.4.1 Strain effect on the adsorbed atom C$_3$N

The strain effects on the electronic and magnetic properties of the TMs/C$_3$N cause spin polarization. The band structure under uniaxial strain with tensile and compression states for Mn and Fe/C$_3$N in the $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin states, are shown in Figs. 5.9(a,b). The range of uniaxial strain is from $-8\%$ to $+8\%$. We see, that Mn/C$_3$N is initially a ferromagnetic-metal but becomes half-metal under compression larger than $-8\%$. While with increasing tensile strain, structure preserved ferromagnetic-metallic character. The Fe/C$_3$N is dilute-omagnetic semiconductors we see from Fig. 5.9(b), that C$_3$N transforms into a half-metal if the amount of compression strain is larger than $-8\%$. This differs from the case of Mn/C$_3$N, while Fe/C$_3$N, keeps its dilute-omagnetic semiconducting character with increasing strain to $+8\%$. Fig. 5.10(a), shows the variation of Fe/C$_3$N energy band gap with strain. The band gap with increase of uniaxial strain, decreases and becomes zero for compression, and remains scemiconductor with increasing tensile strain but band gap decreases for both $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ spin state. Variation of magnetic moment of Mn and Fe/C$_3$N as a function of uniaxial strain, is shown in Fig. 5.10(b). For Mn/C$_3$N, magnetic moments decreases from $3.5 \mu_B$ to $3 \mu_B$ with tensile strain $+8\%$, and increases to larger than $3 \mu_B$ with increasing compression strain. The magnetic moment of Fe/C$_3$N is approximately constant in the range of $-8\%$ to $+8\%$. For Ti/C$_3$N, magnetic moment is approximately constant in the range of 0% to −8% and decreases for range of 0% to +8%.

It is interesting to investigate the affect of uniaxial tensile and compressive strain on the electronic properties of C$_3$N. A schematic view of the boat-like conformation of SH-C$_3$N upon uniaxial strain, along the armchair and zigzag directions, is presented in Fig.
5.4 Effect of charging on the adsorbed-TM atoms C$_3$N

5.11(a). The tensile and compressive strain is defined as $\varepsilon = (a - a_0)/a_0 \times 100$, where $a$ and $a_0$ are the strained and equilibrium lattice constants, respectively. The electronic band structures of the boat-like conformation of SH-C$_3$N as a function of uniaxial strains (tensile and compressive), are shown in Figs. 5.11(b,c). For the zigzag direction, we see that electronic band structure changes systematically with $\varepsilon$ ($\varepsilon = -8, -6, -4, -2, 0, +2, +4, +6$ and $+8\%$), namely the band gap decreases when $\varepsilon$ varies from $-8\%$ to $+8\%$. On increasing $\varepsilon$ from zero to $+8\%$, the band gap decreases from 1.4 eV to 0.8 eV in $+8\%$.

Figure 5.11: (a) Schematic view of the boat-like conformation of SH-C$_3$N upon uniaxial strain (tensile and compressive). Electronic band structure of SH-C$_3$N with the boat-like conformation as a function of uniaxial strains along the (b) zigzag and (c) armchair directions. (d) Variations of the band gap as a function of uniaxial strain.
For a huge strain of +14%, the system becomes metallic. For compressive strain, the band gap increases, specifically, when $\varepsilon$ varies from zero to -8%, the band gap increases from 1.4 to 1.56 eV in +7%. For the armchair direction, there is very little change in the band gap with strain. The variation of the energy band gap as a function of strain (tensile and compressive) is shown in Fig. 5.11(d). Thus it can be seen that the band gap is sensitive to structural strain particularly for the zigzag direction.

### 5.5 Conclusion

In summary, based on the first-principles calculations, we as systematically investigate the structural and electronic properties of a novel 2DM, with a stoichiometry of C$_3$N is recently synthesized. Firstly, we investigate the electronic property of few-layer C$_3$N with different stacking and layer numbers. Because of the interlayer coupling band gap depends on its stacking order between the layers and exhibits monotonically decreasing behavior as the layer number increases. Besides when we apply an uniform electric field on bilayer C$_3$N its band gap will decrease as the electric field changes and a semiconductor-to-metal transition may occur.
CHAPTER 6

Summary

In summary, based on first-principles calculations, I investigated the structural, electronic and magnetic properties of a novel 2D material, with stoichiometry C$_3$N that has been recently synthesized from carbonized organic single crystals. Two-dimensional polyaniline with structural unit C$_3$N is a semiconductor, which has attracted a lot of interest because of its unusual electronic, optoelectronic, thermal and mechanical properties that are potentially useful for various applications. The present study highlights that adatom adsorption on C$_3$N is a favorable approach to modulate its properties which may be relevant applications in catalysis, batteries and nanoelectronics. I investigated systematically the interaction between 27 different adatoms and the C$_3$N honeycomb structure. These adatoms lead to considerable modifications in the electronic structure, when the related adsorption energy is significant. In this case, the band gap of C$_3$N can be reduced and the system tune into a metal or semiconductor. The effect of charging, electric field and strain on the electronic and magnetic properties of C$_3$N were studied. My results show that the band gap and magnetic moment considerable changes with charging, applied electric field and strain. In this way it is possible to tune the electronic and magnetic properties.

Understanding the interaction between C$_3$N and adsorbate gas molecules is important for the exploitation of C$_3$N in e.g. gas sensors. In particular, using first principle calculations, the adsorption of common atmospheric (H$_2$, N$_2$, O$_2$, CO, H$_2$O and H$_2$S) and polluted (CO, CO$_2$, NO, NO$_2$, SO$_2$, NH$_3$ and CH$_4$) gas molecules on C$_3$N was investigated. A detailed analysis of the optimized atomic structure and electronic properties of adsorption of those different molecules was carried out. The results showed that O$_2$, NO,
$NO_2$ and $SO_2$ are chemisorbed on $C_3N$ and that the corresponding electronic structure of $C_3N$ was modified. Adsorption of $O_2$ and $SO_2$ molecules, turns $C_3N$ into a metal, while for $NO_2$ adsorption $C_3N$ becomes a dilute-magnetic semiconductor with 0.6 $\mu_B$ magnetic moment. Our computational results show that other molecules including $H_2$, $N_2$, $CO$, $CO_2$, $H_2O$, $H_2S$, $NH_3$ and $CH_4$ are physisorbed causing little distortion of $C_3N$. The amount of charge transfer upon adsorption of these gas molecules are found to be small. Our theoretical studies indicate that $C_3N$-based sensor has a high potential for $O_2$, $NO$, $NO_2$ and $SO_2$ detection due to the significant electronic structure changes with moderate adsorption energy.

Functionalization by atoms is widely believed to be an effective way to improve and tune the properties of two-dimensional materials. I investigated discussed the modifications that occur in the electronic structure of $C_3N$ when adsorbed with different coverages of $H$ and $O$ atoms. Our results show that the electronic band gap depends on the amount of coverage, and also that the electronic and magnetic structure are significantly affected by the configuration of two-$H$ clusters/pairs (ortho, meta and para). These structures exhibit diverse electronic characteristics, from metal to semiconductor and induce magnetism in some of the configurations. We considered various super cell in order to investigate magnetism in $C_3N H_{0.125}$. The magnetic state for $C_3N H_{0.125}$ exhibit ferromagnetism. Furthermore, we investigated effects of semi and full functionalization (with two types of configurations 'chair-' and 'boat-like') for adsorption of $H$, $O$ and $F$ atoms on $C_3N$ and found how the electronic and magnetic properties of $C_3N$ are modified. From $C_3N$ to semi-hydrogenated $C_3N$ and then to fully-hydrogenated $C_3N$, the system changes from semiconducting to metallic and then to insulating. In addition, the electronic and magnetic properties of the resulting semi/fully hydrogenated $C_3N$ can be further controlled by introducing $H$ atom vacancies, which result in metallic, dilute-magnetic semiconductor and ferromagnetic insulator behavior depending on the particular side of the $H$-vacancy and the vacancy concentration. Thus, creation of $H$ vacancies is an effective method to control the magnetism in the semi and fully functionalization of $C_3N$. Finally, we studied the interaction of $H$ and $O$ atoms with zigzag and armchair $C_3N$ nanoribbon. Adsorption of $H$ can lead to considerable modifications in the electronic structure. Under these conditions, either the wide band gap of the $C_3N$ nanoribbon with two difference types of zigzag and armchair, can be reduced or diminished and the $C_3N$ nanoribbons becomes metal or semiconductor with an induced magnetic moment. I also investigate the effect of strain on the properties of hydrogenated $C_3N$. I showed that the band gap could be modulated with strain, offering the potential to control e.g. its optical properties.

Next we investigated the effect of topological defects including single and double vacancies, Stone-Wales and anti-site, on the structure and electronic properties of $C_3N$. Our results show that for both single and double vacancies $C_3N$ becomes a metal, except in the
case of a single vacancy of N and double vacancy of N+N. C₃N with anti-site defects turns
C₃N into a direct semiconductor with 0.2 eV band gap. With Stone-Wales defects, C₃N
becomes an indirect semiconductor with band gap of 0.2 eV. Subsequently, we studied the
effects due to H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, N, Si, P, Li, Na, K, Be, Mg, Ca and Al substitution on
the electronic properties of C₃N. When the C site is substituted with O, S and Si atoms, the
system remains a semiconductor with band gap in the range of 0.25-0.75 eV, while with H,
Cl, B, P, Li, Na, K, Be and Mg atoms the system turns into a metal. Also, upon substitution
of the native C with F atom, C₃N becomes a dilute-magnetic semiconductor, while with Ca
substitution it is a ferromagnetic-metal. Moreover, when N is replaced with H, O, S, C, Si,
P, Li and Be atoms the system turns into a metal and with F, Cl, B and Al atoms becomes
a semiconductor. With Mg and Ca atoms it becomes a ferromagnetic-metal and half-metal
with induces magnetic moments of 0.3 \( \mu_B \) and 2 \( \mu_B \), respectively. In addition, with Na
and K substitution we predict that C₃N becomes a spin-glass semiconductor. Moreover,
we investigated the effect of charging and strain on the electronic structure of C₃N, when
native C and N atoms are substituted with Na atom. We found that it is possible to tune
the magnetism by controlling the Fermi level via external fields such as by charging and
strain. The effect of different stacking and layer numbers on the electronic property of
few-layer C₃N was studied. Because of the interlayer coupling the band gap depends on
its stacking order between the layers and exhibits monotonically decreasing behavior as
the layer number increases. Besides when we apply an uniform electric field on bilayer
C₃N its band gap will decrease as the electric field changes and a semiconductor-to-metal
transition may occur. Furthermore, the effects of nanoribbon width/length and nanotube
width/diameter on structure, and electronic properties of C₃N are investigated.
Op basis van 'first principle' berekeningen, hebben we de structurele, elektronische en magnetische eigenschappen van een nieuw 2D-materiaal onderzocht, met stoichiometrie C$_3$N die onlangs is gesynthetiseerd uit gecarboniseerde organische kristallen. Twee-dimensionale polyaniline met structurele eenheid C$_3$N is een halfgeleider, die in de belangstelling is gekomen vanwege zijn ongebruikelijke elektronische, opto-elektronische, thermische en mechanische eigenschappen die kunnen nuttig zijn voor verschillende toepassingen. Mijn studie vond dat de adsorptie van adatomen aan C$_3$N de eigenschappen ervan kon moduleren, dat relevant is voor toepassingen in katalyse, batterijen en nano-elektronica. We onderzochten systematisch de interactie tussen 27 verschillende adatomen en de honingraatstructuur C$_3$N. Deze adatomen leiden tot aanzienlijke wijzigingen in de elektronische structuur, wanneer de gerelateerde adsorptie-energie aanzienlijk is. Onder deze omstandigheden kan de bandkloof van C$_3$N worden verkleind en wordt het systeem metaal of halfgeleider. Het effect van het introduceren van lading en van een elektrisch veld op de elektronische en magnetische eigenschappen van C$_3$N werd berekend. Onze resultaten laten zien dat de bandkloof en het magnetische moment aanzienlijk veranderen met het introduceren van lading, of het aanlegen van een elektrisch veld.

Inzicht in de interactie tussen C$_3$N en adsorbaat gasmoleculen is belangrijk voor de exploitatie van C$_3$N in b.v. gas sensoren. Met behulp van eerste princiepe berekeningen, werd de adsorptie van de atmosferische (H$_2$, N$_2$, O$_2$, CO, H$_2$O en H$_2$S) en giftige (CO, CO$_2$, NO, NO$_2$, SO$_2$, NH$_3$ en CH$_4$) gasmoleculen op C$_3$N onderzocht. Een gedetailleerde analyse van de geoptimaliseerde atoomstructuur en elektronische eigenschappen
van adsorptie van verschillende moleculen werd uitgevoerd. De resultaten toonden aan dat $O_2$, NO, NO$_2$ en SO$_2$ chemisch geadsorbeerd zijn op C$_3$N. Er werd ook vastgesteld dat de overeenkomstige elektronische structuur van C$_3$N werd gewijzigd. Adsorptie van $O_2$ en SO$_2$ moleculen maakt van C$_3$N een metaal, terwijl onder NO$_2$ adsorptie verkrijgen we een verdunde magnetische halfgeleider met 0.6 $\mu_B$ magnetisch moment. Onze resultaten tonen aan dat andere moleculen waaronder H$_2$, N$_2$, CO, CO$_2$, H$_2$O, H$_2$S, NH$_3$ en CH$_4$ fysisch geabsorbeerd zijn. De hoeveelheid ladingoverdracht bij adsorptie van deze gasmoleculen blijkt klein te zijn. Onze theoretische studies geven aan dat een op C$_3$N gebaseerde sensor een groot potentieel heeft voor $O_2$, NO, NO$_2$ en SO$_2$ detectie vanwege de significante verandering van de elektronische structuur met kleine adsorptie-energie.

Functionalisatie door atomen wordt algemeen beschouwd als een effectieve manier om de eigenschappen van tweedimensionale materialen te veranderen. We bestudeerde de veranderingen in de elektronische structuur van C$_3$N wanneer geadsorbeerd met H- en O-atomen. Onze resultaten laten zien dat de waarde van de elektronische bandkloof afhankelijk is van de dekking, en ook dat de elektronische en magnetische structuur aanzienlijk worden beïnvloed door de configuratie van twee-H-clusters/paren (ortho, meta en para). The elektronische structuur is een metaal of halfgeleider en magnetisme wordt geïnduceerd in sommige configuraties. We hebben verschillende grote supercellen beschouwd voor het onderzoek van magnetisme in C$_3$NH$_{0.125}$. De magnetische toestand van C$_3$NH$_{0.125}$ is een ferromagneet. Verder onderzochten we effecten van semi- en volledige functionalisatie (met twee typen van configuraties 'stoel-' en 'boot-achtig') voor adsorptie van H-, O- en F-atomen op C$_3$N en ontdekten hoe de elektronische en magnetische eigenschappen C$_3$N zijn gewijzigd. Van C$_3$N naar semi-gehydrogeneerde C$_3$N en vervolgens naar volledig gehydrogeneerde C$_3$N, vonden we dat het systeem verandert van halfgeleidend naar metallic en vervolgens naar isolerend. Bovendien kunnen de elektronische en magnetische eigenschappen van de resulterende semi/volledig gehydrogeneerde C$_3$N worden bepaald door H-atoom vacatures. Dit leidt tot een metal, verdunde magnetische halfgeleider en ferromagnetische isolator, afhankelijk van de zijde waar de H-vacature is gecreeerd en van de vacature-concentratie. Ten slotte hebben we de interactie van H- en O-atomen met zigzag en armchair C$_3$N nanoribbon bestudeerd. Adsorptie van H kan leiden tot aanzienlijke wijzigingen in de elektronische structuur. Onder deze omstandigheden kan de grote bandkloof van de C$_3$N nanoribbon met twee verschillende soorten zigzag en armchair worden verkleind.

Vervolgens onderzochten we het effect van topologische defecten, waaronder enkele en dubbele vacatures, Stone-Wales en anti-site, op de structuur en elektronische eigenschappen van C$_3$N. Onze resultaten laten zien dat voor zowel enkele als dubbele vacatures C$_3$N een metaal wordt, behalve in het geval van een enkele vacature van N en dubbele vacature van N+N. C$_3$N met anti-site-defecten in C$_3$N resulteert in een directe halfgeleider met een
bandkloof van 0.2 eV. Met Stone-Wales-defecten wordt $C_3N$ een indirecte halfgeleider met een bandkloof van 0.2 eV. Verder hebben we de effecten onderzocht van H, O, S, F, Cl, B, C, N, Si, P, Li, Na, K, Be, Mg, Ca en Al substitutie op de elektronische eigenschappen van $C_3N$. Wanneer C wordt gesubstitueerd met O-, S- en Si-atomen, blijft het systeem een halfgeleider met een bandkloof van 0.25-0.75 eV, terwijl met H, Cl, B, P, Li, Na, K, Be en Mg atomen verandert het systeem in een metaal. Ook wordt bij vervanging van C door het F-atoom $C_3N$ een verdunde magnetische halfgeleider, terwijl bij Ca-substitutie we een ferromagnetisch metaal voorpellen. Wanneer N wordt vervangen door H-, O-, S-, Si-, P-, Li- en Be-atomen verandert het systeem bovendien in een metaal en voor F-, Cl-, B- en Al-atomen wordt het een halfgeleider. Met Mg- en Ca-atomen wordt het een ferromagnetisch metaal en een halfmetaal met magnetische momenten van respectievelijk 0.3 en 2 $\mu_B$. Met Na en K bekomen we een spin-glas halfgeleider. Bovendien onderzochten we het effect van lading en spanning op de elektronische structuur van $C_3N$, waarbij Âaal C- en N-atomen worden vervangen door Na.

We onderzochten de elektronische eigenschap van verschillende lagen $C_3N$ voor verschillende stapel configuraties. Vanwege de tussenlaag is de koppelingsbandafstand afhankelijk van de stapelvolgorde tussen de lagen en vertoont deze een monotoon afnemend gedrag naarmate het aantal lagen toeneemt. Bovendien, wanneer we een uniform elektrisch veld aanbrengen, wordt de bandkloof Âääkleiner naarmate het elektrische veld verandert en er een overgang van halfgeleider naar metaal kan optreden. Vervolgens worden de effecten van de breedte/lengte van de nanoribbon op de structuur en de elektronische eigenschappen van $C_3N$ onderzocht. We vonden hoe de elektronische structuur van een $C_3N$ nanoribbon afhankelijk is van de breedte, lengte en diameter. Bovendien wordt de adsorptie van het H-atoom op $C_3N$ nanostructuren bestudeerd en vonden dat dit kan leiden tot aanzienlijke wijzigingen in de elektronische structuur, waarneer de gerelateerde adsorptie-energie aanzienlijk is. Ons resultaat laat zien dat de bandkloof en het magnetische moment met aangelegde lading, elektrisch veld en spanning, aanzienlijke veranderingen kunnen ondergaan. Het is mogelijk om de elektronische en magnetische eigenschappen te manipuleren door het Fermi-niveau te regelen of door het elektrische veld te veranderen.


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Special Packages

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- Applied Physics Letters
- Material Chemistry C
- Journal of Applied Physic
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