

Anomalous Crystal Shapes of Topological Crystalline Insulators

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Understanding crystal shapes is a fundamental subject in surface science. It is now well studied how chemical bondings determine crystal shapes via dependence of surface energies on surface orientations. Meanwhile, discoveries of topological materials have led us to a new paradigm in surface science, and one can expect that topological surface states may affect surface energies and crystal facets in an unconventional way. Here, we show that the surface energy of glide-symmetric topological crystalline insulators (TCI) depends on the surface orientation in a singular way via the parity of the Miller index. This singular surface energy of the TCI affects equilibrium crystal shapes, resulting in emergence of unique crystal facets of the TCI. This singular dependence of the topological surface states is unique to the TCI protected by the glide symmetry in contrast to a TCI protected by a mirror symmetry. In addition, we show that such singular surface states of the TCI protected by the glide symmetries can be realized in KHgSb with first-principles calculations. Our results provide a basis for designs and manipulations of crystal facets by using symmetry and topology.

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Introduction.—One of the fascinating phenomena in crystal physics is characteristic crystal facets. The surface energy and the crystal facets affect morphologies of materials [1–4], and therefore they are vital factors in controlling properties of nanomaterials [5–10]. In particular, the surface energies determine equilibrium crystal shapes [11–13], which can be realized in nanocrystals [14–16], and the surface energies are mainly determined by chemical bondings in crystals [17–20].

We expect that exotic surface states of topological crystalline insulators (TCIs) [21–23] lead to unconventional contributions to surface energies and to unique crystal facets. Although the crystal shapes of TCIs have been observed [24,25], it is not well understood how the topological surface states affect the crystal shapes. Among TCIs with various crystal symmetries [26–35], those with nonsymmorphic symmetries are particularly interesting because of the presence of fractional translations, such as glide mirror and screw rotations [36–44]. Here, we focus on a glide-symmetric TCI with time-reversal (\mathcal{T}) symmetry [45–47].

In this Letter, we show that the emergence of the topological surface states depends on the surface orientation in a singular way because of the nonsymmorphic nature of the glide symmetry. In addition, we obtain equilibrium crystal shapes of the TCI from the surface energies. We discover that the crystal shapes of the TCI are affected by the topological surface states, and the TCI has unique facets, unlike the trivial insulator.

Analysis in terms of crystal symmetry.—Here, we consider nonmagnetic TCIs protected by glide symmetry $\hat{G}_y = \{M_y | \frac{1}{2}\hat{z}\}$, i.e., a mirror reflection M_y with respect to the xz plane followed by translation by a half of a lattice vector \hat{z} along the z direction. Henceforth, we take the lattice constants to be unity and let \hat{x} , \hat{y} , and \hat{z} denote the primitive vectors. Let us first discuss surfaces with a Miller index $(\alpha\beta\gamma)$, which can be written as $\alpha x + \beta y + \gamma z = d$, where d is a constant. Under \hat{G}_y , this plane is transformed into $\alpha x - \beta y + \gamma(z - \frac{1}{2}) = d$. The $(\alpha\beta\gamma)$ surface is glide-symmetric, if this plane is identical with a plane $\alpha(x - a) + \beta(y - b) + \gamma(z - c) = d$, where a , b , c are integers. Therefore, when the Miller index satisfies $\beta = 0$ and $\gamma \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, the surface is glide-symmetric. On the other hand, when $\beta = 0$ and $\gamma \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$, the surface is not glide-symmetric.

Layer constructions.—To construct a surface theory, we use layer constructions [29,32,42,43], where two-dimensional topological insulator layers are periodically located along the out-of-plane direction. Here, we consider the simplest layer constructions for a glide-symmetric TCI, which consists of two kinds of layers L_A at $z = n$ and L_B at $z = n + \frac{1}{2}$ (n , integer), where L_A and L_B can be interchanged by \hat{G}_y . Next, we introduce weak interlayer couplings without closing the gap, while preserving G_y symmetry. Through these procedures, we obtain a three-dimensional (3D) TCI phase protected by G_y symmetry [29,42,48–50].

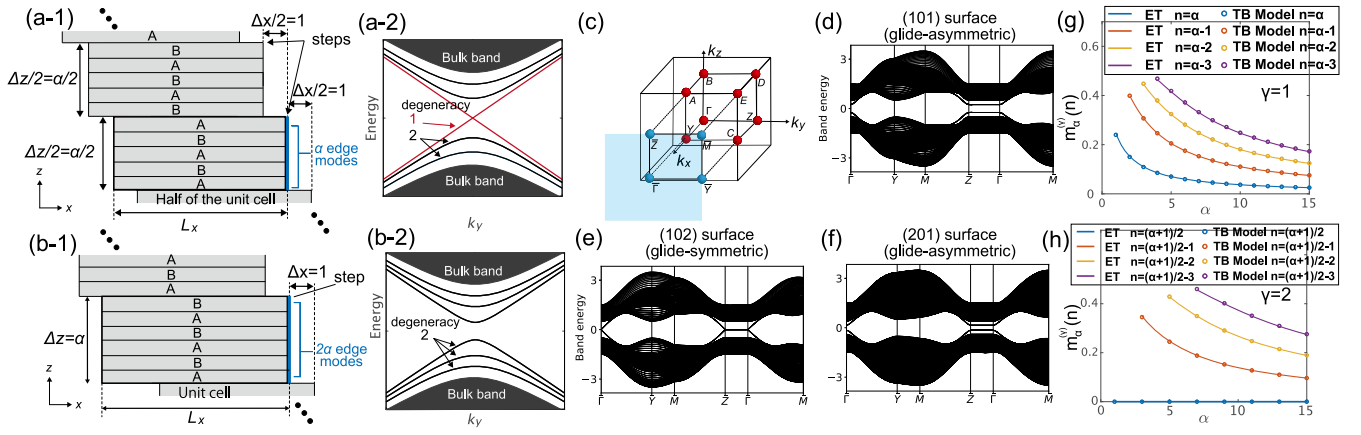


FIG. 1. (a), (b) The steps of the $(\alpha\gamma)$ surface consisting of the layers L_A and L_B with $\gamma = 2$ in (a-1) and $\gamma = 1$ in (b-1), respectively. When $\gamma = 2$, the α edge modes in each step lead to the surface bands in (a-2). When $\gamma = 1$, the 2α edge modes lead to the surface bands in (b-2). (c) The bulk Brillouin zone and the (100) surface Brillouin zone. (d)–(f) The band structures of Eq. (3) with the parameters $t_1 = t_2 = t_3 = m = 1$, $t_{AB} = 0.5$, $t'_{AB} = 0$. (g), (h) Comparison of the surface Dirac masses at \bar{Z} point from the effective theory by Eqs. (1) and (2) (solid lines) with those from the numerical diagonalization of the simple tight-binding model $\mathcal{H}_{\text{TCl}}^{(1)}(\mathbf{k})$ (dots), where the parameter is $\delta = 0.247$ in Eqs. (1) and (2).

Henceforth, we consider $(\alpha\beta\gamma)$ surfaces with $\beta = 0$ and $\gamma = 1, 2$ in order to see differences between glide-symmetric ($\gamma = 2$) and glide-asymmetric ($\gamma = 1$) cases. Here, the surface becomes equally spaced steps consisting of the layers L_A and L_B [Figs. 1(a-1) and 1(b-1)]. We can classify the configurations of the steps into two types in terms of the number of layers in each step. In the glide-symmetric case with $\gamma = 2$, α is odd because α and γ should be mutually coprime. In such a case, a surface step includes α (= odd) layers. On the other hand, in the glide-asymmetric case with $\gamma = 1$, a single step includes 2α (= even) layers. The odd (even) number of layers in each step leads to gapless (gapped) states.

From our effective surface theory (see Supplemental Material No. 1 and No. 7 [51]), the energy with $\gamma = 2$ is given by $E_n^\pm = \pm\sqrt{v^2k_y^2 + [m_\alpha^{(\gamma=2)}(n)]^2}$, where $m_\alpha^{(\gamma=2)}(n)$ is a Dirac mass

$$m_\alpha^{(\gamma=2)}(n) = 2\delta \cos\left(\frac{\pi n}{\alpha+1}\right) \quad \left(n = 1, 2, \dots, \frac{\alpha+1}{2}\right), \quad (1)$$

with δ being a real parameter. For the glide-symmetric case with $\gamma = 2$, the bands with $n = 1, 2, \dots, (\alpha-1)/2$ are doubly degenerate, and the band with $n = (\alpha+1)/2$ forms the gapless surface Dirac cone [Fig. 1(a-2)]. On the other hand, in the glide-asymmetric case with $\gamma = 1$, the energy is $E_n^\pm = \pm\sqrt{v^2k_y^2 + [m_\alpha^{(\gamma=1)}(n)]^2}$ [51], where the Dirac mass is

$$m_\alpha^{(\gamma=1)}(n) = 2\delta \cos\left(\frac{\pi n}{2\alpha+1}\right) \quad (n = 1, 2, \dots, \alpha). \quad (2)$$

In this case, all the bands are doubly degenerate, and gapless states do not appear [Fig. 1(b-2)].

Next, we calculate surface states of the following simple tight-binding model on a simple orthorhombic lattice:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H}_{\text{TCl}}^{(1)}(\mathbf{k}) = & (-m + t_1 \cos k_x + t_1 \cos k_y)\mu_0\tau_3 \\ & + t_2 \sin k_y\mu_3\tau_1\sigma_1 + t_3 \sin k_x\mu_0\tau_1\sigma_3 \\ & + (t_{AB} + 2t'_{AB} \cos k_x) \cos \frac{k_z}{2} \mu_1\tau_0, \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where σ_i , τ_i , and μ_i ($i = 1, 2, 3$) are the Pauli matrices, and σ_0 , τ_0 , and μ_0 are the 2×2 identity matrices. This model is constructed by stacking layers of the two-dimensional topological insulators, as shown in Supplemental Material No. 2 [51], and its topological invariant is given in Supplemental Material No. 3 [51]. Figure 1(c) shows the bulk Brillouin zone and the (100) surface Brillouin zone. In the following, we calculate this model using the PYTHTB package [61], and Figs. 1(d)–1(f) shows the band structures in the slab geometries. For the (101) and (201) surfaces with odd γ [Figs. 1(d) and 1(f)], the surface states are gapped. On the other hand, for the (102) surface with even γ [Fig. 1(e)], the surface states are gapless.

Next, we quantitatively compare the energy gaps of $\mathcal{H}_{\text{TCl}}^{(1)}(\mathbf{k})$ with the Dirac mass in Eqs. (1) and (2). Figures 1(g) and 1(h) show a half of the energy gap at \bar{Z} point for various surface bands. This value is to be compared with the Dirac mass in Eqs. (1) and (2). At \bar{Z} point, the i th energy closest to the zero energy is given by $m_\alpha^{(\gamma=2)}(n)$ with $n = (\alpha+1)/2 - (i-1)$ when $\gamma = 2$. When $\gamma = 1$, it is given by $m_\alpha^{(\gamma=1)}(n)$ with $n = \alpha - (i-1)$. The values of the Dirac mass perfectly agree with those from $\mathcal{H}_{\text{TCl}}^{(1)}(\mathbf{k})$

[Figs. 1(g) and 1(h)]. The behaviors of the surface states discussed so far for the nonmagnetic TCI also hold true in the magnetic TCI (Supplemental Material No. 4 [51]).

Crystal shape of TCI.—From the surface energies $E_{\text{surf}}^{(\alpha\beta\gamma)}$, we can calculate the equilibrium crystal shape of the TCI by using the Wulff construction [11,51]. The model $\mathcal{H}_{\text{TCI}}^{(1)}(\mathbf{k})$ is a minimal model for understanding the behaviors of the topological surface states. On the other hand, the surface energies of this model are quite anisotropic, which leads to the crystal shape with a very small thickness in the z direction (see Supplemental Material No. 3 [51]), and it is difficult to see the effects of the topological surface states on the crystal shape. Thus, we need another model with a more isotropic crystal shape and introduce the following tight-binding model on a simple orthorhombic lattice:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H}_{\text{TCI}}^{(2)}(\mathbf{k}) = & \left(-m + \sum_{j=x,y,z} t_j \cos k_j \right) \mu_0 \tau_3 \\ & + v_x \sin k_x \mu_0 \tau_1 \sigma_3 + v_y \sin k_y \mu_3 \tau_1 \sigma_1 \\ & + v_z \sin k_z \mu_0 \tau_1 \sigma_2 \\ & + (v_{ab1} + v_{ab2} \cos k_x) \sin \frac{k_z}{2} \mu_1 \tau_1 \sigma_1. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Both $\mathcal{H}_{\text{TCI}}^{(1)}(\mathbf{k})$ and $\mathcal{H}_{\text{TCI}}^{(2)}(\mathbf{k})$ have the same TCI phase, and the similar dependence of the surface states on the surface orientations (see Supplemental Material No. 5 [51]).

We calculate the surface energies $E_{\text{surf}}^{(010)}$ and $E_{\text{surf}}^{(\alpha 0 \gamma)}$ of this model for various surface orientations up to maximum absolute values of the Miller index $(\alpha_{\text{max}}, \gamma_{\text{max}}) = (3, 9)$, where $E_{\text{surf}}^{(\alpha\beta\gamma)}$ is defined by Eq. (S.3) in the Supplemental Material No. 1 [51]. According to the Wulff construction [11], we can obtain the equilibrium crystal shape minimizing the total surface energy as the following 3D region:

$$\mathcal{W} = \bigcap_{\mathbf{n}_{\alpha\beta\gamma} \in S^2} \Gamma_{\mathbf{n}_{\alpha\beta\gamma}}, \quad (5)$$

$$\Gamma_{\mathbf{n}_{\alpha\beta\gamma}} = \{ \mathbf{r} \in \mathbb{R}^3 | \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{n}_{\alpha\beta\gamma} \leq E_{\text{surf}}^{(\alpha\beta\gamma)} \}, \quad (6)$$

where $\mathbf{n}_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$ is the outward unit normal vector to the $(\alpha\beta\gamma)$ surface, and S^2 is the unit sphere. By using the WULFFPACK package [62], we obtain this shape from $E_{\text{surf}}^{(\alpha\beta\gamma)}$. Figures 2(a-1) and 2(b-1) show the equilibrium crystal shapes of $\mathcal{H}_{\text{TCI}}^{(2)}(\mathbf{k})$ with the trivial insulator phase and the TCI phase, respectively. We show the dependence of the surface energies on the surface orientations as a function of the angle θ between the surface and the (100) plane, defined by $\tan \theta = \gamma/\alpha$ [Figs. 2(a-2) and 2(b-2)]. To analyze the results, we introduce the following trial function:

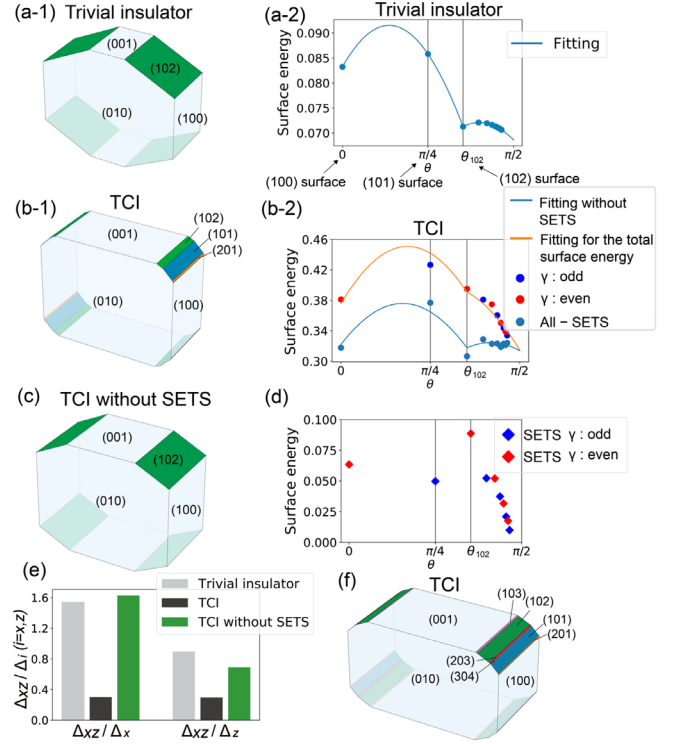


FIG. 2. (a), (b) Equilibrium crystal shapes and surface energies of $\mathcal{H}_{\text{TCI}}^{(2)}(\mathbf{k})$ with the parameters $t_x = t_y = t_z = 1$, $v_{ab1} = 0.8$, and $v_{ab2} = 1.2$. The other parameters are $m = 6$, $v_x = v_z = 0.4$, and $v_y = 0.6$ in (a) and $m = 2$, $v_x = v_y = v_z = 0.4$ in (b). The (10γ) surface energy from $\gamma = 0$ to $\gamma = 9$. The dots are determined by $E_{\text{surf}}^{(\alpha\beta\gamma)}$. (a-2) The surface energy can be fitted with $F(\theta)$ with $\Delta_x = 0.02218$, $\Delta_z = 0.03806$, and $\Delta_{xz} = 0.03414$. (b-2) We fit the total surface energy (orange) and the total surface energy without the SETs (blue) with $F(\theta)$ with $\Delta_x = 0.2445$, $\Delta_z = 0.2490$, and $\Delta_{xz} = 0.07343$ in the former case and $\Delta_x = 0.08238$, $\Delta_z = 0.1940$, and $\Delta_{xz} = 0.1340$ in the latter case. (c) The equilibrium crystal shape from the surface energies of (b-2) without the SETs. (d) The SETs in the TCI. (e) Comparison of Δ_{xz}/Δ_i ($i = x, z$) for the trivial insulator in (a-2), the TCI [orange fitting in (b-2)], and the TCI without the SETs [blue fitting in (b-2)]. (f) The equilibrium crystal shape when $\mathcal{H}_{\text{TCI}}^{(2)}(\mathbf{k})$ has the more distant hopping term with $m = 2$, $t_x = t_y = t_z = 1$, $v_x = 0.4$, $v_y = 0.6$, $v_z = 0.2$, $v_{ab1} = 0.8$, $v_{ab2} = 0.9$, and $v_{ab3} = 0.8$.

$$\begin{aligned} F(\theta) = & \Delta_x \cos |\theta| + \Delta_z \sin |\theta| \\ & + \Delta_{xz} \sin |\theta - \theta_{102}| + \Delta_{xz} \sin |\theta + \theta_{102}|, \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

where θ_{102} is the angle satisfying $\cos \theta_{102} = 1/\sqrt{5}$ and $\sin \theta_{102} = 2/\sqrt{5}$. This function can be obtained by the analysis in terms of the numbers of dangling bonds on the surface (see Supplemental Material No. 6 [51]). The surface energy of the trivial insulator can be fitted perfectly with $F(\theta)$ [Fig. 2(a-2)], and therefore the facets of the trivial insulator are determined mainly by the surface energy from chemical bonding (SECB).

Next, we discuss the surface energy of the TCI in Fig. 2(b-2). The appearance of the (101) and the (201) facets in Fig. 2(b-1) suggests a new mechanism other than the SECB. Here, we attribute it to the surface energy obtained only from the bands forming the Dirac cones. We refer to this as the surface energy from topological surface states (SETS), which is defined by Eq. (S.4) in Supplemental Material No. 1 [51]. Figure 2(b-2) also shows the total energy minus the SETS. We fit the total surface energy and the total surface energy without the SETS with Eq. (7), and in the latter fitting a sharp dip at $\theta = \theta_{102}$ appears, which is similar to the surface energy in the trivial insulator in Fig. 2(b-1). In addition, we calculate the equilibrium crystal shape from the surface energies of the TCI without the SETS [Fig. 2(c)]. This result shows that the (101) and the (201) facets are due to the SETS. Figure 2(d) also shows the SETS in the TCI.

We confirm the above interpretation by analyzing the fitting data for Δ_x , Δ_z , and Δ_{xz} . Figure 2(e) shows a comparison of Δ_{xz}/Δ_i ($i = x, z$) for the cases corresponding to Figs. 2(a-1), 2(b-1), and 2(c). In the trivial insulator, Δ_x , Δ_z , and Δ_{xz} are of a similar order of magnitude, corresponding to hoppings almost isotropically distributed in the xz plane. In the TCI phase, the hopping parameters used in our calculation are almost the same as the trivial insulator phase, but unexpectedly, Δ_x , Δ_z , and Δ_{xz} become quite anisotropic [Fig. 2(e)]. We see from Fig. 2(e) that it restores the isotropic behavior by subtracting the SETS. A more detailed discussion is in Supplemental Material No. 5 [51]. Thus, we conclude that the unique crystal shape of the TCI are due to the SETS. Figure 2(f) also shows the crystal shape when we add a more distant hopping term $v_{ab3} \cos 2k_x \sin(k_z/2)\mu_1\tau_1\sigma_1$ to $\mathcal{H}_{\text{TCI}}^{(2)}(\mathbf{k})$. In this case, the additional facets appear because of the interplay between the SETS and the SECB from the bonds in various directions.

Material realization.—Here, we show that these singular surface states can be realized in KHgSb proposed as a \hat{G}_x -symmetric TCI with space group #194 [47], where $\hat{G}_x = \{M_x | \frac{1}{2}\hat{z}\}$ with M_x being a mirror reflection with the yz mirror plane. It has a phase transition to #186 when $T < 150$ K [63], and here we will discuss the low-temperature phase with #186. Figures 3(a) and 3(b) show the crystal structures of KHgSb. Figure 3(c) is the Brillouin zone and the (010) surface Brillouin zone. To make it easier to see whether the surfaces are glide-invariant or not, we double the original hexagonal unit cell and take an orthorhombic unit cell with the lattice vectors $\mathbf{a}_1 = (A, 0, 0)$, $\mathbf{a}_2 = (0, B, 0)$, and $\mathbf{a}_3 = (0, 0, C)$, where A , B , and C are lattice constants. The enlarged unit cell leads to a translation symmetry given by $\hat{T} = \{E | \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}_1 + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}_2\}$. The index $(\alpha\beta\gamma)$ in this orthorhombic lattice is different from the conventional Miller index in hexagonal crystals.

Next, we consider the conditions for the $(\alpha\beta\gamma)$ surface to be glide-symmetric in these symmetry settings. Let a plane

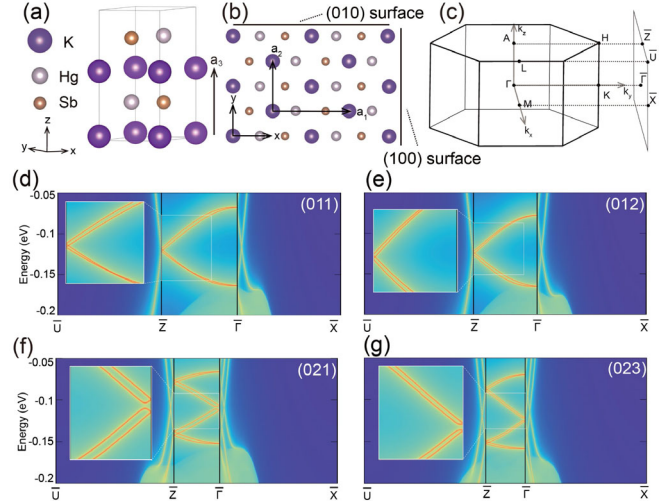


FIG. 3. (a), (b) Crystal structure of KHgSb. (c) The bulk Brillouin zone and the (010) surface Brillouin zone for KHgSb with space group #186. (d)–(g) Surface states of KHgSb for various surfaces.

P be the $(\alpha\beta\gamma)$ plane. Under \hat{G}_x , the plane P is transformed into \tilde{P} . The plane P is glide-symmetric when \tilde{P} is equivalent to either P or P' , where P' is the plane transformed from P via \hat{T} . In the former case, the index satisfies (i) $\alpha = 0$ and $\gamma \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, and in the latter case, the index satisfies (ii) $\alpha = 0$ and $\beta - \gamma \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. When the index satisfies (i) or (ii), the $(\alpha\beta\gamma)$ surface is symmetric under the glide \hat{G}_x symmetry.

The surface states on four different surfaces are shown in Figs. 3(d)–3(g), which have gapless hourglass surface states for the (011) and (012) surfaces because of the presence of the glide symmetry, but gapped surface states for the (021) and (023) surfaces because of the absence of the glide symmetry. These results are consistent with our analysis in terms of symmetries in the previous paragraph and can be observed by angle-resolved photoemission spectroscopy. Because these results are due to the glide symmetry, a similar result is expected in the high-temperature phase with space group #194. On the other hand, the gaps of the (021) and the (023) surface states are 2.4 meV and 2.6 meV, respectively. Therefore, the surface gap is smaller than temperatures in crystal growth, and the effects of these small band gaps cannot be reflected in crystal shapes in this material.

The smallness of the gaps on the glide-asymmetric surface states in KHgSb is attributed to weak interlayer coupling of KHgSb [63]. The gaps on the glide-asymmetric surfaces are proportional to the strength of the interlayer couplings, as seen from the calculation of $\mathcal{H}_{\text{TCI}}^{(1)}(\mathbf{k})$. Thus, the glide-symmetric TCIs with stronger interlayer coupling are suitable for experiments. In addition, nanocrystals are suitable for experimental realization of equilibrium crystal shapes.

Summary and Discussion.—Here, we discuss another type of TCI, i.e., a TCI with surface states protected by a mirror M_y symmetry. The surface states can affect the equilibrium crystal shapes. On the other hand, in this Letter, we theoretically show novel dependence of presence or absence of gapless topological surface states on the parity of the surface Miller index. This is unique to the TCI protected by glide symmetry. As we show in Supplemental Material No. 8 [51], the gapless surface states survive surface reconstructions. We discovered that the topological surface states significantly affect the facets realized in the TCI by calculations of the model. The facets of the TCI can be determined by the interplay between the surface energy from chemical bonding and that from the topological surface states.

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