

Quantum Transport in Nanoporous Graphene

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Abstract: Abstract...



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I. INTRODUCTION

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II. QUANTUM TRANSPORT

A. Ballistic quantum transport

As graphene is a two dimensional material that consists of carbon atoms arranged in a hexagonal pattern, features in such a material can approach nanometer and sub nanometer scales. Because of the small scale the electrical properties and the electrical nature of the material is greatly changed. Normal drift-diffusion current models describe electric charges per area and current per area, but because the conductor is graphene, it can be considered one dimensional. This makes drift-diffusion models insufficient to describe the electrical transport and properties of graphene because the drift-diffusion model is based on scattering of multiple electrons and the mean free path between scattering. Because of the strong binding between atoms in graphene hardly any phonons are present in the material, even at room temperature. In the ballistic model, this means that electrons are not affected by phonons, i.e. no electrons will be excited by phonons, and that they move through the material as waves. Furthermore the model looks at only one electron at a time in the presence of an electron gas. This model has been used with big success for

regular graphene and it seems the model also gives a good approximation for NPG.

B. π -orbitals and π -electrons

The main scope of this paper is dealing with electron transport in novel nanoporous graphene devices. When modeling such transport one needs to address the orbital structure of carbon lattices and later this will motivate the use of tight-binding and Green's functions. In its basic form graphene can be divided into rings of carbon atoms as shown in Fig. 1. In the (x, y) -plane the carbon atoms are bound in sp^2 orbitals as shown in Fig. 2.

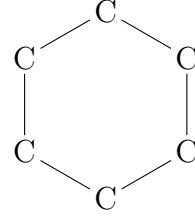


Figure 1: Graphene lattices consists of hexagonal arrangements of carbon atoms.

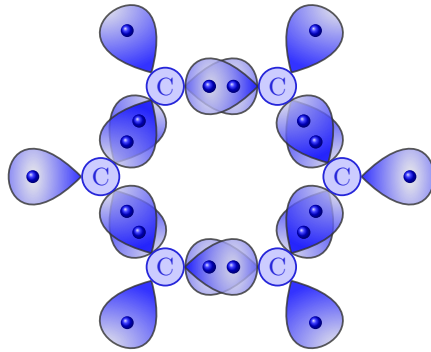


Figure 2: Carbon atoms in a hexagonal lattice are sp^2 hybridised in the (x, y) -plane.

This hybridisation lock all but one valence electron for the carbon atoms. These electrons exists in a p-orbital in the z -direction. Fig. 3 shows the valence orbitals of carbon.

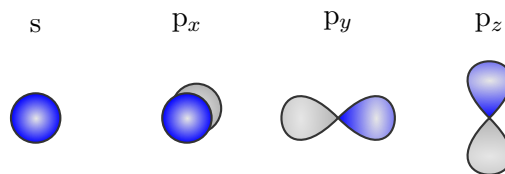


Figure 3: The valence orbitals of carbon.

The last electron in the p_z orbital does not mix with the tightly bound s , p_x and p_y electrons and moves more freely. Thus these electrons have higher energies compared to the sp^2 electrons and occupy states at the Fermi level. These electrons dominates transport in the graphene lattice. The p_z orbital is also known as the π -orbital and as such the electron lying there is called a π -electron. Through a carbon lattice the π -electrons will travel through π -orbitals, switching sign as they go as shown in Fig. 4.

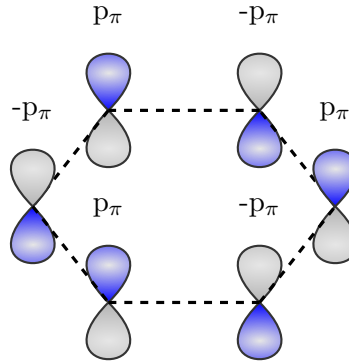


Figure 4: When jumping from one carbon atom to another, the π -electron goes between p_π and $-p_\pi$. Such a jump is described by two matrix elements in the system's Hamiltonian.

C. Tight-binding

Now that the transport carrying electrons are defined, one must choose a formalism for the transport itself. Introducing: “**The Tight-Binding approximation**”. In this approximation the electrons are considered being tightly bound to the atoms. Contrary to a free electron gas approximation, the electrons does not spend time in between orbitals, but jump from orbital in atom a to orbital in atom b . In this world view the Hamiltonian contains a matrix of hopping elements for a collection of neighbouring atomic orbitals, i.e. molecular orbitals, as well as the energy contained within each orbital (which will be addressed later on). This can be done by describing the orbitals as a Linear Combination of Atomic Orbitals (LCAO). The solution to the Schrödinger equation is then:

$$\Psi_{\text{MO}} = \sum_{\alpha, R} c_{\alpha, R} \phi_{\alpha}(R) \quad (\text{C.1})$$

where $\phi_{\alpha}(R)$ is some atomic orbital at position R , with α denoting the valence of the orbital ($2s, 2p_x, 2p_y, 2p_z$). In electron transport the states close to the Fermi level is of interest. These are namely the highest occupied molecular orbitals (HOMO), or the lowest

unoccupied molecular orbitals (LUMO). As stated earlier only the π -electrons is then of interest. The electrons' motion can be described with the hopping matrix of elements:

$$V_{pp\pi} = \langle \phi_\pi(1) | \hat{H} | \phi_\pi(2) \rangle \quad (\text{C.2})$$

Physically this means that there is a potential between the π orbitals of neighbouring atoms 1 and 2. The element

$$\epsilon_0 = \langle \phi_\pi(1) | \hat{H} | \phi_\pi(1) \rangle \quad (\text{C.3})$$

is the average energy of the electron on atom 1 and, it is normal to define the hopping energy relative to this:

$$\epsilon_0 = 0 \quad (\text{C.4})$$

If the atoms or their environment differs, so does the on-site potential.

D. The benzene molecule

As an example the Hamiltonian of benzene is considered. In Fig. 5 one can see the indices of a benzene molecule. Remember that $\langle \phi_\pi(1) | \hat{H} | \phi_\pi(1) \rangle = 0$ and Eq. (C.2), the Hamiltonian reads:

$$\mathbf{H} = V_{pp\pi} \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{matrix} & \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{matrix} \quad (\text{D.1})$$

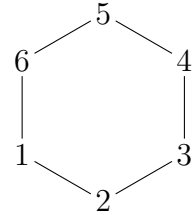


Figure 5: Indices of a benzene molecule

As a helping aid, Eq. (D.1) shows the atomic indices of the atom on the top and to the left of the matrix. This will give an understanding of how to work with such matrices. The structure of the benzene molecule is rotationally symmetric and rotating the indices one sixth must yield the same Hamiltonian. Consider the energy eigenvector:

$$\phi = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 & c_2 & c_3 & c_4 & c_5 & c_6 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{D.2})$$

There must exist an operator that rotates the indices as such:

$$C_6\phi = \begin{pmatrix} c_2 & c_3 & c_4 & c_5 & c_6 & c_1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{D.3})$$

The rotated Hamiltonian is the same, and thus C_6 and \mathbf{H} commutes. The rotated vector must be an eigenvector with the same energy and it should be possible to find simultaneous eigenvectors to C_6 and \mathbf{H} .

$$C_6\phi = \begin{pmatrix} c_2 & c_3 & c_4 & c_5 & c_6 & c_1 \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} c_1 & c_2 & c_3 & c_4 & c_5 & c_6 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{D.4})$$

This operator C_6 is represented with the matrix:

$$\mathbf{C}_6 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{D.5})$$

It can quickly be shown that the normalised eigenvectors to C_6 are

$$\phi_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_n^0 & \lambda_n^1 & \lambda_n^2 & \lambda_n^3 & \lambda_n^4 & \lambda_n^5 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \lambda_n = \exp\{-i2\pi n/6\}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 \quad (\text{D.6})$$

These eigenvectors are also eigenvectors for \mathbf{H} with the eigenvalues:

$$\varepsilon_n = \lambda_n + \lambda_{n-1} = 2 \cos n\pi/3 \quad (\text{D.7})$$

Thus thanks to the rotational symmetry it was possible to find the eigenvectors and eigenenergies for the Hamiltonian.

III. BAND STRUCTURE OF NPG

A. Creating on-site Hamiltonian and hopping matrices for the NPG system

In order to calculate and visualise the band structure of the NPG within a unit cell, the on-site Hamiltonian along with its hopping matrices must be defined. The on-site Hamiltonian lies within the unit cell of the system. As the unit cell is repeated periodically the on-site Hamiltonian fills out one full period of the system. The unit cell is defined with respect given unit vectors which determine the periodicity of the system. By these

definitions the elements of the hopping matrices represents hops between the repeated unit cells with respect to the periodicity. See Fig. 8 for a visual representation of the structure with its periodicity.

On the premise of the Tight Binding Model, the next step to find all the nearest neighbouring atoms within the given set of atom coordinates to define the on-site Hamiltonian \mathbf{h}_0 and then define the hopping matrices \mathbf{V} and its conjugate \mathbf{V}^\dagger . This is because the Tight Binding model only allow for hopping of electrons between nearest neighbours which in this case is the periodic boundary conditions set for the system.

Maybe implement code pieces or explain code terms that executes these operations. i.e. "By using two for loops and the numpy function np.subtract(), we get the all the combinations of... etc. This should be considered throughout the section. This can be done simply by taking what is similar to an outer product of the coordinate matrix with itself only here every combination of coordinates are subtracted not multiplied, hereafter taking the norm of all those combinations. Such an outer product in python is done using numpy as shown in Listing 1.

```
31
32 def Onsite(xyz, Vppi):
33     h = np.zeros((xyz.shape[0], xyz.shape[0]))
34     for i in range(xyz.shape[0]):
35         for j in range(xyz.shape[0]):
36             h[i, j] = LA.norm(np.subtract(xyz[i], xyz[j]))
37     h = np.where(h < 1.6, Vppi, 0)
38     h = np.subtract(h, Vppi * np.identity(xyz.shape[0]))
```

Listing 1: *The outer operator in numpy is manifested as two nested loops. On lines 35-37 each atomic distance is calculated. Line 38 replaces all nearest neighbour distances with an input potential, leaving the rest as zero. Lastly the diagonal is subtracted from the matrix.*

This will produce a matrix which contain all distances between all atoms in the NPG. Once obtained a threshold will be applied to sort out the nearest neighbours within the matrix. In this specific case the coordinates given was with respect to unit vectors with a lattice constant of 1.00 Å, which means that the threshold in this case should be 1.60 Å

which is the inter-atomic distance for nearest neighbours in a graphene mesh. All distances above 1.60 \AA will be changed to a 0-element in the on-site Hamiltonian as no hopping of electrons is possible between atoms that are more than one inter-atomic distance apart. All distances below the threshold will be changed to 1 to represent a hop between to atoms. The on-site Hamiltonian is then multiplied by at scalar which is the on-site potential V_{ppi} which in this case is -1 . Now the on-site Hamiltonian is complete and the construction of the hopping matrices can begin.

As the on-site Hamiltonian represents a (three)two-dimensional structure one has to make sure that hopping between the nearest neighbour atoms relative to that of a repeated unit cell (on-site Hamiltonians) can be described in all directions in the plane. Effectively this means that six hopping matrices should be created. One in the x-direction, one in the y-direction, one in the xy-direction and their hermitian conjugates. Graphically this corresponds to a structure of this kind:

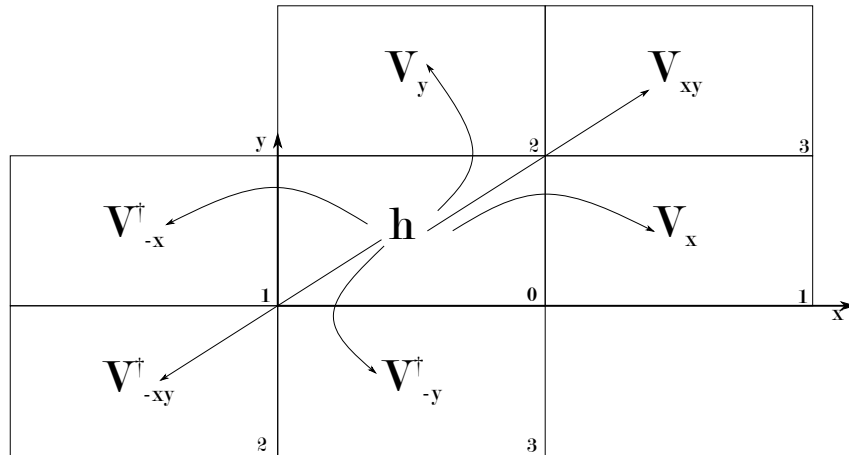


Figure 6: Representative figure of how the on-site Hamiltonian along with its hopping matrices are structured

In practice this is done by shifting the original coordinates by the given unit vectors of the system in each direction, adding the unit vector to the coordinate matrix making three new matrices. Now that three shifted matrices has been obtained, the same routine to find the distances as with the on-site Hamiltonian can be utilised, the only difference being that the outer subtraction will be between the on-site Hamiltonian and the shifted matrices respectively to make sure it is the distance between the on site Hamiltonian and the shifted matrices that is calculated. Again by replacing the distances in the shifted matrices with 1 and 0 according to the inter-atomic threshold, the hopping matrices are obtained. The three hopping matrices denoted \mathbf{V}_{1x} , \mathbf{V}_{2y} and \mathbf{V}_{3xy} represent hopping in

the "forward" direction (left-to-right). To create the hopping matrices hopping in the "backwards" (right-to-left) direction one simply has to transpose the hopping matrices. These matrices are denoted with a dagger: V_{1x}^\dagger , V_{2y}^\dagger and V_{3xy}^\dagger . Fig. 7 is a figure of the resulting matrix-maps from the calculation, stitched together like in Fig. 6.

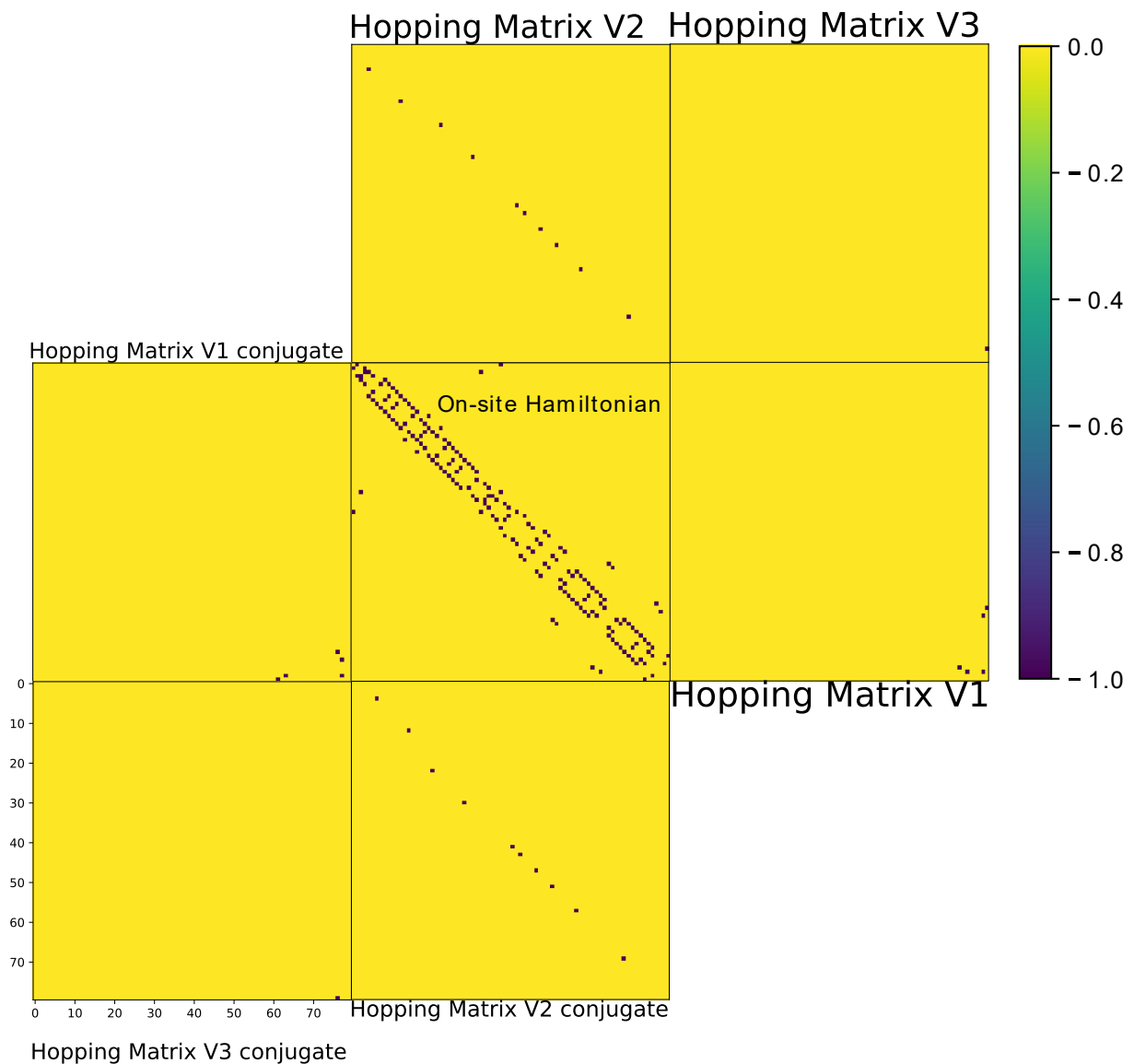


Figure 7: Matrix maps from calculation on the NPG. The on-site Hamiltonian along with all its hopping matrices are stitched together like the representative figure Fig. 6. All the dark spots represents a hopping of an electron to its nearest neighbour.

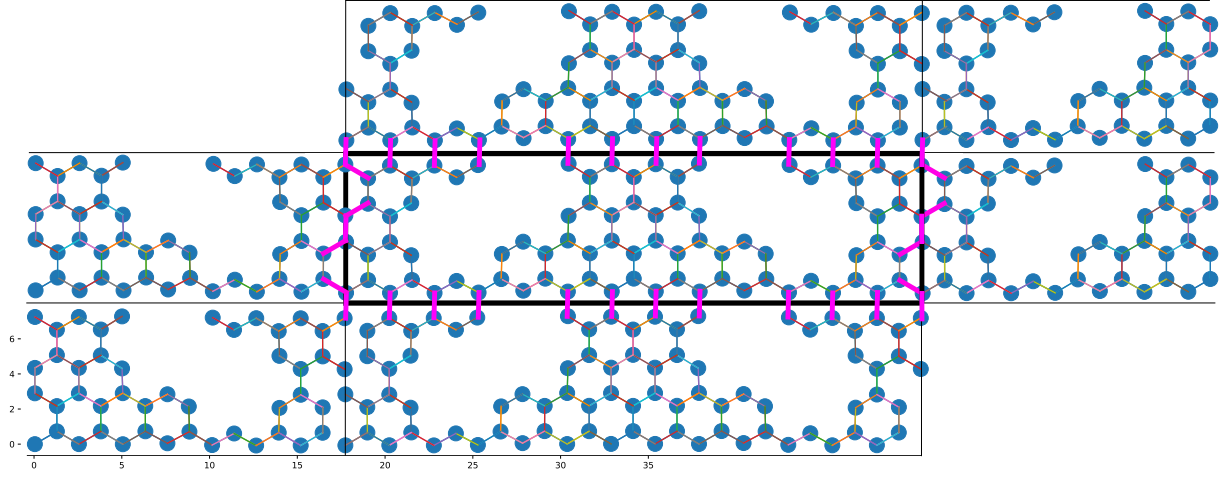


Figure 8: Visual representation of the periodic NPG-structure. The atoms surrounded by the black box in the centre represents the unit cell. The neighbouring boxes are unit cells repeated periodically. Note that the two cells left and right with respect to the centre cell has been cut in half for figure space. The pink lines crossing the black box represents the link between the nearest neighbours in the adjacent cell. Note how this representation corresponds to that of Fig. 7. There is more 'hopping' when going up and down, than left or right and the two cells at the diagonal only have one atom which is nearest neighbour to the centre cell which corresponds to the one hopping elements in Fig. 7.

B. Defining the full Hamiltonian and solving the Schrodinger equation

Now that the on-site Hamiltonian along with its hopping matrices has been defined, the next step is to create the full Hamiltonian in order to solve the Schrodinger equation for system, which is a eigen-value/vector problem. In essence the full Hamiltonian denoted \mathbf{H} is a sum of the on-site Hamiltonian and its corresponding hopping matrices multiplied by a complex exponential function that has the appropriate phase relative to the hopping matrix:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H}(k_x, k_y) = & \mathbf{h}_0 + (\mathbf{V}_{1x}e^{-ik_x} + \mathbf{V}_{1x}^\dagger e^{ik_x} \\ & + \mathbf{V}_{2y}e^{-ik_y} + \mathbf{V}_{2y}^\dagger e^{ik_y} \\ & + \mathbf{V}_{3xy}e^{-ik_x}e^{-ik_y} + \mathbf{V}_{3xy}^\dagger e^{ik_x}e^{ik_y}) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.1})$$

Here k represents a continuous variable between 0 and π along the x- and y-axis in inverse space. Using the full Hamiltonian, the Schrodinger equation can be solved

$$\mathbf{H}(k_x, k_y)\phi_k = \epsilon_n(k_x, k_y)\phi_k \quad (\text{B.2})$$

In practice this is all done by defining a function that takes the on-site Hamiltonian, the hopping matrices, and $k(x, y)$ as inputs and outputs the eigenvalues, using numpy's `numpy.linalg.eigh`. The number of eigenvalues in the output corresponds to the dimension of the full Hamiltonian. In Listing 2 the code for the function is shown.

```

50
51 def Hkay(Ham, V1, V2, V3, x, y):
52     Ham = Ham + (V1 * np.exp(-1.0j * x)
53                 + np.transpose(V1) * np.exp(1.0j * x)
54                 + V2 * np.exp(-1.0j * y)
55                 + np.transpose(V2) * np.exp(1.0j * y)
56                 + V3 * np.exp(-1.0j * x) * np.exp(-1.0j * y)
57                 + np.transpose(V3) * np.exp(1.0j * x) * np.exp(1.0j * y))
58     e = LA.eigh(Ham)[0]
59     v = LA.eigh(Ham)[1]

```

Listing 2: Function producing the full hamiltonian, corresponding to Eq. (B.1).

C. Plotting the band structures

The continuous variable k extends in two directions ($-k_x$) and (k_y) which corresponds to lengths between the symmetry points X , Γ and Z in the Brillouin zone, with Γ being the zero-point. It is therefore necessary to make two plots, one for each pair of symmetry points. The y-values in each plot corresponds to the eigenvalues obtained by the function described in Section III B. Each x-value between Γ , X and Γ , Z therefore has associated with it the amount of y-values which the dimension of full Hamiltonian dictates. F.ex. if the full Hamiltonian has dimension 80×80 there is 80 eigenvalues associated with it and the amount of y-values for each x-value between Γ , X and Γ , Z is 80. In this specific case, the full Hamiltonian for obtaining the eigenvalues that corresponds to X and Z are:

$$X : \mathbf{H}_X = \mathbf{h}_0 + (\mathbf{V}_{1x}e^{ik_x} + \mathbf{V}_{1x}^\dagger e^{-ik_x} + \mathbf{V}_{2x} + \mathbf{V}_{2x}^\dagger + \mathbf{V}_{3xy}e^{ik_x} + \mathbf{V}_{3xy}^\dagger e^{-ik_x}) \quad (\text{C.1})$$

$$Z : \mathbf{H}_Z = \mathbf{h}_0 + (\mathbf{V}_{1x} + \mathbf{V}_{1x}^\dagger + \mathbf{V}_{2x}e^{-ik_y} + \mathbf{V}_{2x}^\dagger e^{ik_y} + \mathbf{V}_{3xy}e^{-ik_y} + \mathbf{V}_{3xy}^\dagger e^{ik_y}) \quad (\text{C.2})$$

Using the eigenvalues as y-values in the two plots, putting the two plots together will yield a full plot of the band structure shown in Fig. 9.

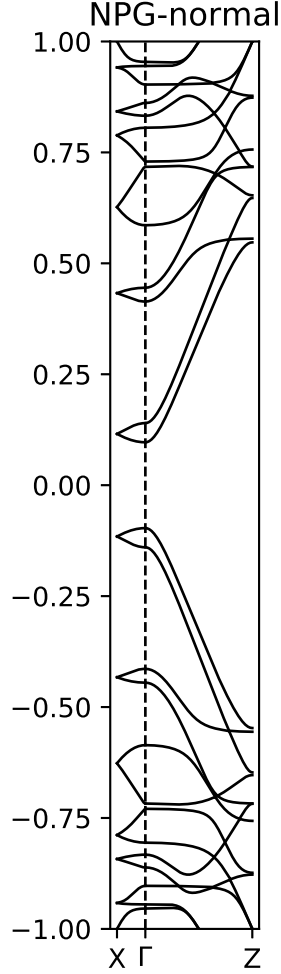


Figure 9: Plot showing the band structure in the energy range -1 to 1 for NPG with normal bridges between symmetry points X and Z with respect to Γ

IV. SELF ENERGY, GREENS FUNCTIONS AND THE RECURSION ROUTINE

In order to calculate the transport of electrons in NPG one must obtain the Green's functions and self energies related to the unit cells of the system. To do so, a recursion algorithm must be implemented as calculations become too costly for the system, even if it is small. Especially the inversion of matrices required to obtain the Green's function can be very demanding computationally, when the system contains a lot of atoms. The recursion algorithm reduces the size of the system and thereby the amount of computational time required to obtain both the first cell Green's function, the Green's function within the chain (of repeated unit cells) sometimes called \mathbf{G}_{bulk} as well as the self energies related

to those Green's functions. The recursion works by utilising that one can remove every second cell in an infinite chain of cells. As the chain originally was infinite, removing every second cell will just yield a new infinite chain. Every cell has with it, its hopping matrices and hamiltonian. The removal of every second cell is iterated, changing the effective interaction between the cells and thus the hopping matrices as well as the hamiltonians of the system. In the end the recursion algorithm produces re-normalised hamiltonians and hopping matrices, which can be used to obtain the Green's functions and self energies.

A. Obtaining first cell self energy and Green's function for a simple four-atom system

For simplicity and in order to check whether the routine would yield the results expected, the starting point is a simple system containing only 4 atoms in the unit cell. The idea is to make a function that takes in an energy, a hamiltonian (alternatively two in case there is a special site in the molecule) and a hopping matrix as arguments and in turn outputs the Green's function at the zeroth site as well as the self energies going left and right. Firstly all the necessary variables are defined. The first of these consists of a complex number matrix which has the value $E + i\eta$ in the diagonal and dimension identical to that of the hamiltonian given as argument (in the case of the four-atom system a 4x4). Here E is the energy which the function takes as an argument as well as η which is a small number (in this specific case 1×10^{-6}). Note that η should not be made too small as it will yield incorrect results. The rest of the variables are the hamiltonian, hopping matrices and Green's function. They are defined as: $a0 = V^\dagger$, $b0 = V$, $e0_s = h_s$, $e0 = h$, $g0 = (z - e0)^{-1}$. Note that the hamiltonian h , in this specific case, is the same for both $e0_s$ and $e0$ as the zeroth cell is identical to those of the rest of the molecule. Now that the variables is defined, the actual recursion can begin. As the recursion is an algorithm that runs for an arbitrary amount of iterations, a while loop is chosen to run the iterations until a threshold has been reached. In Listing 3 the code for the routine is shown. Line 64-70 is the listing of variables, 71-78 is the while loop with the matrix multiplication, 80-84 is the redefinition of new variables in terms of the old and 86-89 is the definition of the outputs as per Eq. (A.1).

```
62
63 def RecursionRoutine(En, h, V, eta):
64     z = np.identity(h.shape[0]) * (En - eta)
65     a0 = np.transpose(V)
66     b0 = V
67     es0 = h
68     e0 = h
69     g0 = LA.inv(z - e0)
70     q = 1
71     while np.max(np.abs(a0)) > 1e-6:
72         ag = a0 @ g0
73         a1 = ag @ a0
74         bg = b0 @ g0
75         b1 = bg @ b0
76         e1 = e0 + ag @ b0 + bg @ a0
77         es1 = es0 + ag @ b0
78         g1 = LA.inv(z - e1)
79         a0 = a1
80         b0 = b1
81         e0 = e1
82         es0 = es1
83         g0 = g1
84         q = q + 1
85     e, es = e0, es0
86     SelfER = es - h
87     SelfEL = e - h - SelfER
88     G00 = LA.inv(z - es)
89     # print(q)
```

Listing 3: The while loop in the recursion routine. The matrix elements are overwritten with the new variables until the resulting matrix is small enough to diagonalise

The threshold is defined as the absolute maximum value element in the hopping matrix a_0 approaches zero. In this specific case it was set to 1×10^{-8} . Within this while loop a range matrix multiplications are computed. These constitutes the actual recursion and their order are of big importance for a correct result. Notice, however, that the code (Listing 3) contains intermediate products of a_0, b_0 and g_0 . This is for run time optimisation. Following is a list of these matrix products:

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 &= a_0 g_0 a_0 \\ b_1 &= b_0 g_0 b_0 \\ e_1 &= e_0 + a_0 g_0 b_0 + b_0 g_0 a_0 \\ e_{1s} &= e_{0s} + a_0 g_0 b_0 \\ g_1 &= (z - e_1)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

As stated above in the equations, the matrix product are defined as new variables with a +1 variable name. This is all very well but the while loop would stop here because of the definition of new variables. It is therefore necessary to redefine the new variables in terms of the old ones (f.ex. $a_0 = a_1$) (see Listing 3 line 78-82) an as such the while loop will continue until the threshold has been reached. For the rest of the function the only thing left to do is to define the self energies and the first cell Green's function using the variables obtained from the while loop. These are simply given as:

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma_R &= e_s - h \\ \Sigma_L &= e - h - \Sigma_R \\ \mathbf{G}_{00} &= (z - e_s)^{-1} \end{aligned} \tag{A.1}$$

Where e_s and e are the resulting matrices from the while loop (e_{0s}, e_0). The first cell Green's function as well as the self energies has now been obtained by recursion.

B. Plotting the real and imaginary part of the first cell Green's function

As a good way to check whether the recursion routine has been implemented successfully, the real and imaginary part of the Green's function can be plotted. With a relatively simple approach, the Green's function can be obtained as a function of energy, using a *for loop*, looping over a range of energies which is then used as input in the function Listing 3 (see Listing 4):

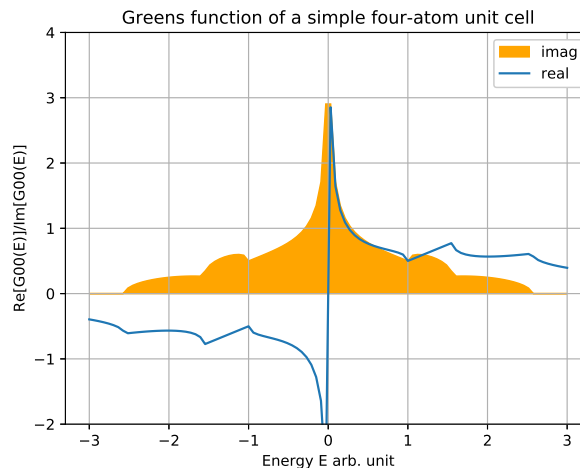


Figure 10: A plot showing the real and imaginary part of the first cell Green’s function resulting from the recursion routine on the simple system. Note that the yellow imaginary part is the representation of the local density of states.

```
64 G00 = np.zeros((En.shape[0]), dtype=complex)
65 for i in range(En.shape[0]):
66     G, SelfER, SelfEL = RecursionRoutine(En[i], h, V)
67     G = np.diag(G)
68     G00[i] = G[0]
```

Listing 4: Code showing the loop which produces the Green’s function (or y) values for a range of energies used in the plot.

The output from this loop will be the complex y -values for the plot. These will have to be sorted to imaginary and real parts before plotting. The x -values will just be the energy range used for the loop. The imaginary, it represents the local density of states LDOS. Note that the plot only represents the LDOS for a specific site on the molecule and that they change radically from site to site (see Appendix A, Fig. 14 for an example using the same structure as Fig. 12). The site can be changed by choosing another index, which corresponds to the atom indices in Listing 4 line 68. A plot of the real and imaginary part of the first cell Green’s function (index 0) obtained by the recursion routine for the simple four-atom unit cell described in Section IV A is shown in Fig. 10.

V. TRANSMISSION ROUTINE

The conclusion of the preliminary work revolves around the Transmission Routine. Here all the functions producing on-site hamiltonians, full hamiltonians, hopping matrices, band structures, self energy and Green's functions by recursion play their part in getting the transmission through the material. *This part is an attempt to describe the basic theory behind transmission/transport and it is very likely to need rework, additions and editing*

The transmission tells us the likelihood whether an electron will be transported through a "device region" at different energies and thus how the "device region" affects the overall current through larger systems. This means that the system will have to be well defined before one can use the functions developed for calculation of the different parts needed for production of transmission. The "device region" contains at least one central unit cell as well as a "left" and "right" unit cell. The left and right unit cell represents the contact region of the device i.e. the two parts that connects to the "rest" of the system/molecule. It is assumed that the contacts represent a system that is made up of unit cells which can be reduced by recursion, though not necessarily identical on each side (left and right). Knowing which "blocks" the system contains and how to obtain them with the already developed functions, three main ingredients are needed to obtain the transmission through a device. The first one is the Green's function for the device region \mathbf{G}_D for which one needs the device hamiltonian \mathbf{H}_D as well as the left and right selfenergies Σ_L , Σ_R . The left and right selfenergies constitutes the second ingredient and can be obtained through left and right hopping matrices as well as the left and right on-site Green's functions. The last main ingredient are Γ_L , Γ_R which are matrix operators describing the coupling between the left and right parts of hilbert space. They are called rate equations because..... The rate equation are obtained via the self energies in the following fashion:

$$\Gamma_{L/R} = i(\Sigma_{L/R} - \Sigma_{L/R}^\dagger) \quad (.1)$$

To give an overview of how the different matrices are defined in relation to a system an illustration has been made. See Fig. 11. Using the Green's function, left/right self energies as well as the left/right rate matrices, the transmission, as a function of energy, can be obtained via the following equation:

$$T(E) = \text{Tr}[\Gamma_R \mathbf{G}_D \Gamma_L \mathbf{G}_D^\dagger](E) \quad (.2)$$

Where Tr is the trace of the matrix product.

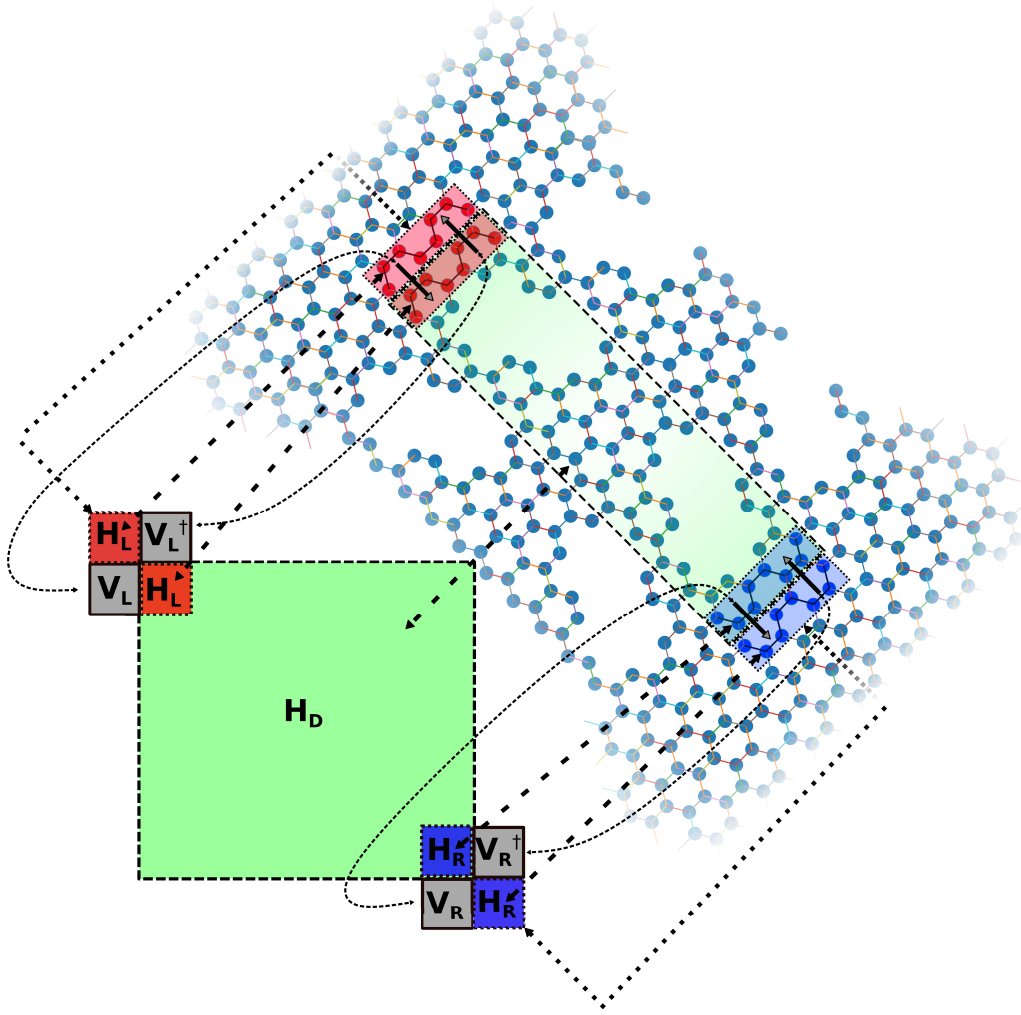


Figure 11: Illustration showing how the different parts of the system are translated into matrix blocks. On the graphene the green box is the unit cell of the device. It includes one red and blue box which themselves are unit cells of the left and right contacts. These unit cells can be translated into hamiltonian matrices \mathbf{H}_D , \mathbf{H}_L , \mathbf{H}_R as illustrated. Note that because the first of the left and right unit cells (red and blue) are inside the device (green region), they can be picked out of \mathbf{H}_D directly and so it is not necessary to make them from scratch. The two other unit cells lying outside the device region represents what could be an infinite contact region. The contact region is therefore potentially of an infinitely bigger dimension compared to the device region, however, by recursion, this region can be collapsed into a single hamiltonian of same dimension as the one inside the device region. Finally the two fat black arrows on each side of the device represents the hopping between the device and contact region. Note that the direction of hopping corresponds to a specific hopping matrix. F.ex. left-to-right is the ordinary hopping matrix while right-to-left is its conjugate (for both left and right side of the device).

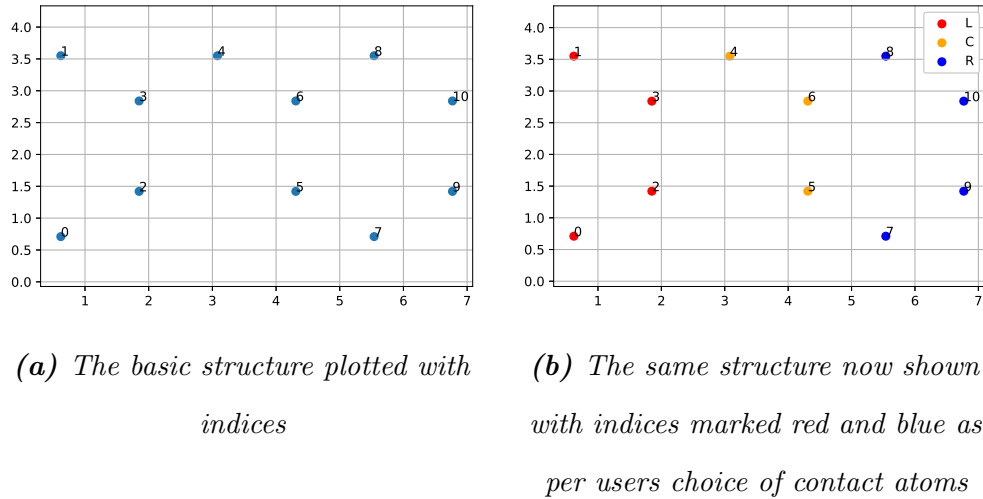


Figure 12: Figure showing the interface integrated into the script.

A. Transmission in 1D a simple example

As with the Recursion Routine, the development of this routine will be build up around a small system in order to make sure that the obtained results are as expected, thereafter generalising the routine to suit all kinds and sizes of system. First thing is to define the device in the same manner as Fig. 11 so that the device hamiltonian can be obtained through the already defined function *Onsite*. The left and right hamiltonian are thus picked out as described in Fig. 11. A smart function has been implemented in order to allow the user to choose the left and right contact cells using indices given to each atom in the system of choice (See Fig. 12 for an example). This allows the user to get the dimensions needed to define the left and right hamiltonians so they can be picked out of the device hamiltonian. From the left and right hamiltonian the corresponding hopping matrices are defined using the *Hop* function. Then the *EnergyRecursion* is used to obtain the Green's function for the device. This function is a more elaborate version of the earlier mentioned *RecursionRoutine*. It uses the old recursion routine to calculate the self energies for the left and right cells (see line 164-165 Listing 5) and then uses those to calculate the device Green's function as well as the left and right rate matrices, using the equations Eq. (.1), ?? (see Listing 5 line 176-179).

```

156 plt.scatter(Restxyz[:, 0], Restxyz[:, 1], c='k')
157 plt.legend()
158 plt.axis('equal')
```

```
159     for i in range(xyz[:, 0].shape[0]):
160         s = i
161         xy = (xyz[i, 0], xyz[i, 1])
162         plt.annotate(s, xy)
163     plt.grid(b=True, which='both', axis='both')
164     plt.show()
165     return RestL, L, R, C, RestR
166
167
168 def EnergyRecursion(HD, HL, HR, VL, VR, En, eta):
169     HD = scp.csr_matrix(HD)
170     HL = scp.csr_matrix(HL)
171     HR = scp.csr_matrix(HR)
172     VL = scp.csr_matrix(VL)
173     VR = scp.csr_matrix(VR)
174     start = time.time()
175     GD = {}
176     GammaL = {}
177     GammaR = {}
178     bar = Bar('Running Recursion', max=En.shape[0])
179     q = 0
180     for i in En:
181         gl, crap, SEL = RecursionRoutine(i, HL, VL, eta=eta)
182         gr, SER, crap = RecursionRoutine(i, HR, VR, eta=eta)
183         SS = SEL.shape[0]
184         Matrix = np.zeros((HD.shape), dtype=complex)
185         Matrix[0:SS, 0:SS] = SEL
```

Listing 5: lalala

The output of the energy recursion function is the two rate matrices (left and right) as well as the device Green's function and as per Eq. (.2) the matrices needed for transmission have been obtained. As seen in Listing 6 the transmission function simply carries out

the matrix product and subsequent trace of the resulting matrix and outputs a range of transmission probabilities which then can be plotted against an energy range. Do mind that this is still just 1D in the sense that the transmission only moves in one direction. A plot of the transmission for such a simple 1D system can be seen in Fig. 13.

```

188     SS = SER.shape[0]
189     Matrix = np.zeros((HD.shape), dtype=complex)
190     Matrix[-SS:, -SS:] = SER
191     SER = Matrix
192
193     SEL = scp.csr_matrix(SEL)
194     SER = scp.csr_matrix(SER)
195     GD["GD{:d}".format(q)] = scp.linalg.inv(

```

Listing 6: lalala

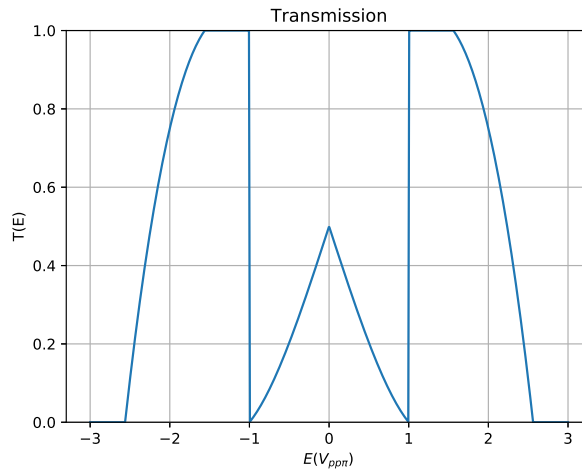


Figure 13: Transmission plot for a simple system

B. Development of transmission to 2D

Lastly the transmission routine needs to be generalised so it can handle transport in two directions. The most convenient approach is to work with five real space unit cells as a starting point. One center cell, a right and a left cell representing the contacts and then two additional cells on the left and right, representing the rest of the contact

region. This would be the minimum amount of cells needed to generalise the transmission. One might have more center cells if the structure changes from one of those cells to the other. First these five unit cells will be defined using already developed tools. Then a big hamiltonian, including all coordinates from the five cells representing real space are created, again using existing functions. One could call this big hamiltonian $\mathbf{H}_{\text{Bigreal}}(xyz_0, xyz_0)$. It is a function of two sets of identical coordinates, namely the ones used to create the hamiltonian itself. This has also been the case for all previous calculations, but the following steps will make it clear why it is explicitly stated for this hamiltonian. The left/right onsite and hopping matrices can thus be picked out of $\mathbf{H}_{\text{Bigreal}}(xyz_0, xyz_0)$ as before to get the Green's functions, selfenergies for transmission in real space, just as in the previous section. But instead, before the Green's function, selfenergies and transmission is calculated, the left/right onsite-hamiltonian as well as their hopping matrices are defined as functions of a variable k and the hopping will additionally have a phase added which depends on a variable q . As an example the following is the equation for the full right side hamiltonian using the right on-side hamiltonian with its hopping matrices: $\mathbf{H}_R(k, q) = \mathbf{V}_R(k)e^{iq} + \mathbf{V}_R^\dagger(k)e^{-iq} + \mathbf{h}_R(k)$. The k represents and the q represents The next part is to obtain the hop from $\mathbf{H}_{\text{Bigreal}}(xyz_0, xyz_0)$ to an equal cell in the other (transverse) direction, so that the transmission will become truly 2D. Firstly the hopping between $\mathbf{H}_{\text{Bigreal}}(xyz_0, xyz_0)$ and a transversely shifted hamiltonian is defined as $\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{H}_{\text{Bigtrans}}(xyz_0, xyz_1)$ (Here using \mathbf{W} as not to confuse it with \mathbf{V} which is hopping between cells in real space). Note that the index of one of the coordinate sets have changed to 1. This corresponds to a shift by the lattice vector going in the transverse direction to that of the transmission defined in 1D. With the hopping matrices for the transverse direction defined a hamiltonian dependent on k -point values can be defined as:

$$\mathbf{H}(k) = \mathbf{h} + \mathbf{W}e^{ik} + \mathbf{W}^\dagger e^{-ik} \quad (\text{B.1})$$

$$= \mathbf{H}_{\text{Bigreal}}(xyz_0, xyz_0) + \mathbf{H}_{\text{Bigtrans}}(xyz_0, xyz_1)e^{ik} + \mathbf{H}_{\text{Bigtrans}}^\dagger(xyz_0, xyz_1)e^{-ik} \quad (\text{B.2})$$

Now a hamiltonian, dependent of a variable k has been defined, and thus it is now possible to get self energies, Green's functions that is k -dependent as well as a transmission (also k -dependent) which can be found for different k -points i.e. different points in the transverse direction. This hereby concludes the all the initial effort to develop a code which can do calculations of different points of interest (Green's function plots, band structures and transmission) in a two dimensional material such as NPG. Following is a walk through as to how this last step has been implemented through code programming.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank...

-
- [1] G. Calogero, N. R. Papior, B. Kretz, A. Garcia-Lekue, T. Frederiksen, and M. Brandbyge, Electron Transport in Nanoporous Graphene: Probing the Talbot Effect, [Nano Letters](#) **19**, 576 (2019).

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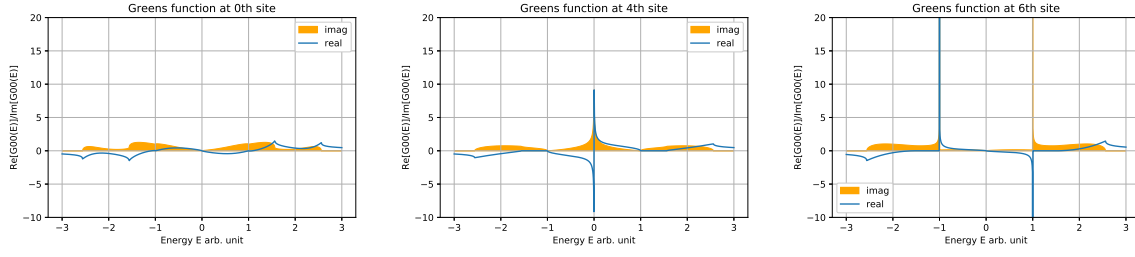
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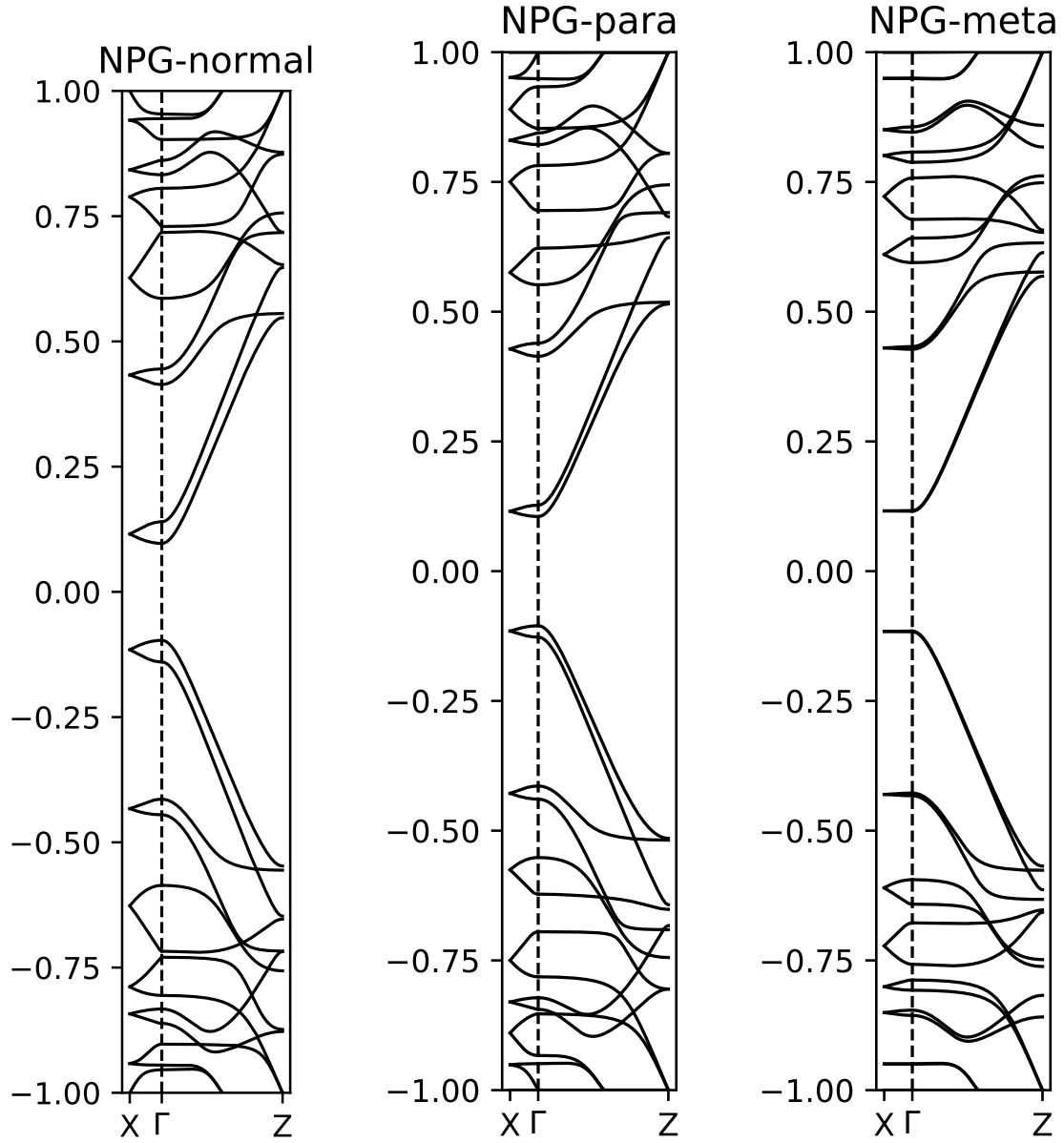
Appendices

Appendix A: Additional figures



(a) Figure showing a plot of the Green's function at the 0th site (b) Figure showing a plot of the Green's function at the 4th site (c) Figure showing a plot of the Green's function at the 6th site

Figure 14: Three plots showing how the Green's function changes as the site is changed. The 0th, 4th and 6th sites are corresponding to atoms of those indices (0, 4, 6) in Fig. 12. Note how the LDOS changes (imaginary part) for the different sites.



(a) Plot showing the band structure in the energy range -1 to 1 for NPG with normal bridges between symmetry points X and Z with respect to Γ

(b) Plot showing the band structure in the energy range -1 to 1 for NPG with para bridges between symmetry points X and Z with respect to Γ

(c) Plot showing the band structure in the energy range -1 to 1 for NPG with meta bridges between symmetry points X and Z with respect to Γ

Figure 15: Figure showing para, meta and normal NPG band structures