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# Al<sub>x</sub>C Monolayer Sheets: Two-Dimensional Networks with Planar Tetracoordinate Carbon and Potential Applications as Donor Materials in Solar Cell

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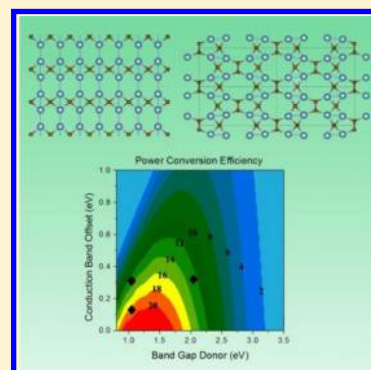
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## S Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** We perform a global search of the most stable structures of 2D stoichiometric Al<sub>x</sub>C ( $x = 1/3, 1, 2,$  and  $3$ ) monolayer sheets. In the most stable 2D planar AlC network, every carbon atom is tetracoordinated. In addition to the structure of AlC, structures of the most stable Al<sub>2</sub>C and Al<sub>3</sub>C monolayer sheets are also predicted for the first time. AlC and Al<sub>2</sub>C monolayers are semiconducting, while Al<sub>3</sub>C monolayer is metallic. In particular, Al<sub>2</sub>C monolayer possesses a bandgap of 1.05 eV (based on HSE06 calculation), a value suitable for photovoltaic applications. Moreover, three Al<sub>2</sub>C/WSe<sub>2</sub>, Al<sub>2</sub>C/MoTe<sub>2</sub>, and AlC/ZnO van der Waals heterobilayers are investigated, and their power conversion efficiencies are estimated to be in the range of 12–18%. The near-perfect match in lattice constants between the Al<sub>2</sub>C monolayer and PdO (100) surface suggests strong likelihood of experimental realization of the Al<sub>2</sub>C monolayer on the PdO (100) substrate.



**SECTION:** Molecular Structure, Quantum Chemistry, and General Theory

As one of most popular elements in nature, carbon is known for its capability to form sp-, sp<sup>2</sup>-, and sp<sup>3</sup>-hybridized bonds. In bulk diamond and lonsdaleite, carbon exhibits tetrahedral sp<sup>3</sup> coordination, while in low-dimensional carbon allotropes such as graphite, 2D graphene,<sup>1</sup> 1D carbon nanotubes,<sup>2,3</sup> and 0D fullerene,<sup>4</sup> carbon displays sp<sup>2</sup> hybridization. Moreover, in 2D graphyne and graphyline monolayer sheets, carbon atoms are predicted to form both sp and sp<sup>2</sup> bonds.<sup>5,6</sup> Besides the sp, sp<sup>2</sup>, and sp<sup>3</sup> hybridizations, Hoffmann et al. predicted the possible existence of planar tetracoordinate carbon (ptC).<sup>7</sup> This intriguing chemical bonding of carbon has attracted growing attention since 1970; considerable research efforts have been devoted to producing chemical species that contain the ptC.<sup>8–10</sup> To date, two possible ways are commonly considered to stabilize a ptC system: (1) incorporating substituents of strong  $\sigma$ -donors and  $\pi$ -acceptors to mitigate the lacking of  $\sigma$  electron density and to decrease the unstable  $\pi$  electron density and (2) incorporating a ptC unit into a rigid steric framework in which the steric forces can stabilize the ptC configuration. Since the first ptC compound synthesized by Cotton and Millar in 1977,<sup>11</sup> numerous ptC-containing molecules have been either theoretically predicted or experimentally detected.<sup>8–10,12,13</sup>

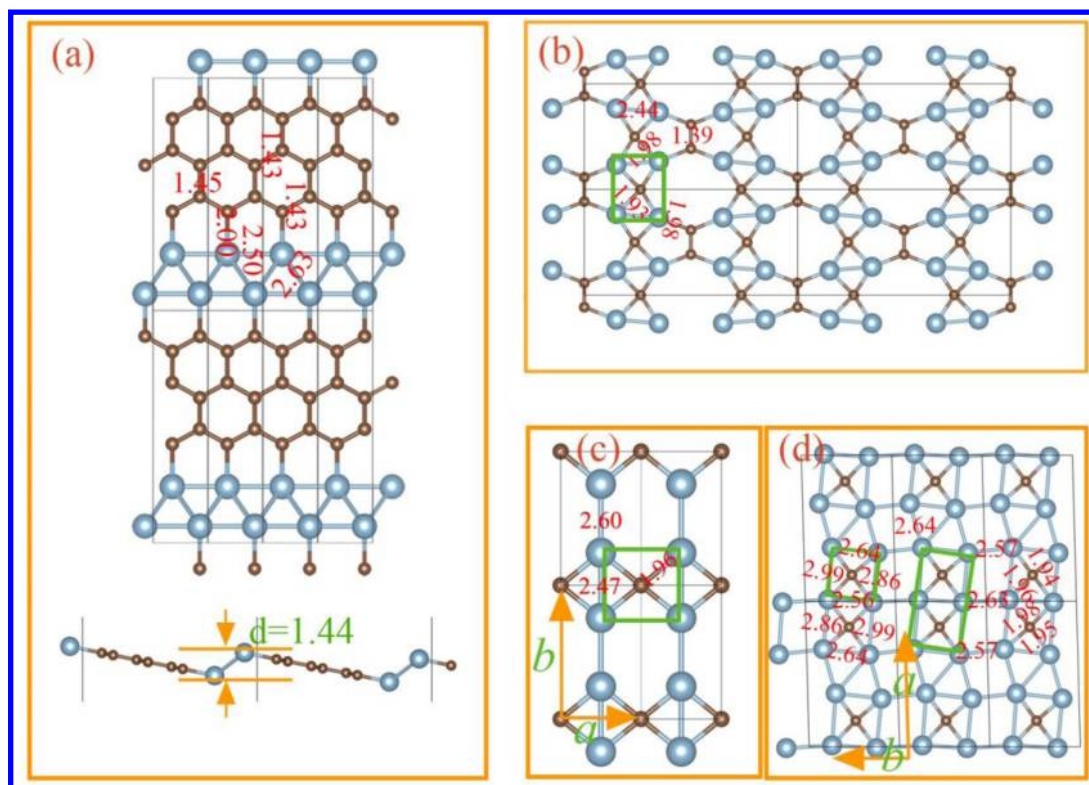
The successful isolation of 2D graphene in 2004 has also greatly boosted research interests in 2D monolayer materials

with atomic thickness.<sup>14</sup> Growing attention has also been paid to 2D materials containing ptC units. For example, on the basis of the simplest ptC species C<sub>5</sub><sup>2-</sup>, Pancharatna et al. constructed 1D, 2D, and 3D networks of stoichiometric C<sub>3</sub>M<sub>x</sub> (M = Li,  $x = 2$ ; M = Be, Pt, Zn,  $x = 1$ ).<sup>15</sup> Wu et al. predicted highly stable B<sub>2</sub>C monolayer, single-walled B<sub>2</sub>C nanotubes and nanoribbons containing ptC. This prediction was inspired from the stable molecular BC<sub>4</sub> motif.<sup>16</sup> A global search of the most stable structures of 2D B<sub>x</sub>C<sub>y</sub> compounds also suggests that the ptC-containing 2D networks are likely the most stable structures among the B<sub>2</sub>C, B<sub>3</sub>C, and B<sub>5</sub>C monolayer sheets.<sup>17</sup> The C<sub>3</sub>B<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub> ptC unit was used to construct nanoribbons and nanotubes.<sup>18,19</sup> Moreover, ptC was predicted to exist in transition-metal-decorated graphene ribbons<sup>20</sup> and transition-metal-connected graphene biwings and triwings.<sup>21</sup> Very recently, 2D tetragonal TiC monolayer with quasi-planar tetracoordinate carbon has been predicted by Zhang et al.<sup>22</sup> Regarding the Al–C systems, several extended structures with containing ptC have been predicted. For instance, on the basis of the experimentally characterized AlC<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> motif, bulk ionic materials containing

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**Figure 1.** Predicted most stable monolayer structure of (a)  $\text{AlC}_3$ , (b)  $\text{AlC}$ , (c)  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , and (d)  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$ . To illustrate the buckled structure of  $\text{AlC}_3$ , we present both top and side views in panel a. Al and C atoms are denoted by silver and brown spheres. The ptC units are highlighted with green rectangles. The unit of the bond lengths is angstroms.

$\text{Na}^{+23,24}$  and alkali- and alkaline-earth metal sandwich complexes have been designed.<sup>25–28</sup> Wu et al. constructed 1D molecular chains based on the ptC containing  $\text{C}_2\text{Al}_4$  unit.<sup>29</sup> Besides ptC, ptSi-containing silagraphene<sup>30</sup> and 2D B–Si compounds<sup>31</sup> have also been predicted.

We note that the ptC-containing Al–C species are among the most studied molecular systems on the ptC chemistry.<sup>12,23,24,29,32</sup> However, to date, little attention has been paid to the extended 2D Al–C systems that entail the ptC chemistry. On the basis of Allen’s definition,<sup>33</sup> the difference in electronegativity between Al and C is 0.931, close to that between B and N (1.015). Since the electronic bandgap usually increases with the difference in electronegativity for binary compounds, 2D Al–C monolayers might possess a desirable bandgap suitable for electronic or optoelectronic applications. In this work, we employ a global optimization method based on the particle-swarm optimization (PSO) algorithm<sup>34,35</sup> to search for the most stable structures of stoichiometric Al–C monolayers. The most stable structures of 2D  $\text{AlC}_3$ ,  $\text{AlC}$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$  sheets are predicted for the first time. In particular, the ptC-containing  $\text{AlC}$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$  monolayers are obtained. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations with screened-hybrid HSE06<sup>36,37</sup> functional suggest that the  $\text{AlC}$  and  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayers are semiconducting with a bandgap of 2.05 and 1.05 eV, respectively. Interestingly, we find that the optimized lattice constants of  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer ( $a = 3.03$  Å,  $b = 5.06$  Å) are nearly the same as those of the PdO-terminated PdO (100) surfaces ( $a = 3.08$  Å,  $b = 5.46$  Å), suggesting that the  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer may be synthesized on the PdO (100) surface (serving as a template). Furthermore, we predict that the  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}/\text{WSe}_2$  van der Waals heterobilayer may be a potential

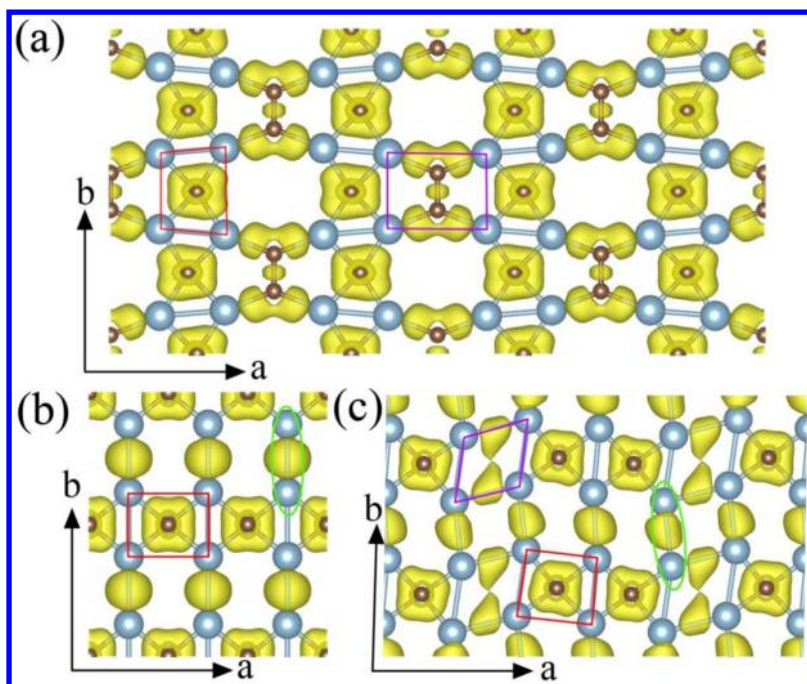
van der Waals material for solar-cell application due to its high theoretical efficiency ( $\sim 18\%$ ) for power conversion.

The predicted most stable structures of 2D Al–C compounds with various Al–C stoichiometric compositions are listed in Figure 1. For the  $\text{AlC}_3$  monolayer (Figure 1a), its structure can be viewed (in top view) as an alternative arrangement of zigzag graphene nanoribbons and Al nanoribbons.  $\text{AlC}_3$  monolayer is nonplanar, and the energy of the planar  $\text{AlC}_3$  is 0.050 eV/atom higher than the nonplanar one. In the side view (Figure 1a), the graphene nanoribbon and Al nanoribbon exhibit an interplanar angle of  $132.1^\circ$  with a buckled distance of 1.44 Å. In the  $\text{AlC}_3$  monolayer, the Al–Al bond lengths are 2.50 and 2.63 Å, the Al–C bond length is 2.00 Å, and the C–C bond lengths are 1.43 and 1.45 Å, respectively.

All  $\text{AlC}$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$  monolayers (Figure 1b–d) contain the ptC motif, and all three monolayers are planar. The most stable structure of  $\text{AlC}$  (Figure 1b) can be viewed as periodic and parallel  $[\text{Al}_4\text{C}_2]_n$  chains connected by parallel C–C dimer chains. Each  $[\text{Al}_4\text{C}_2]_n$  chain is composed of connected  $\text{Al}_4\text{C}$  units where each carbon atom is bonded with four Al atoms, forming a ptC motif. Each C–C dimer together with the four neighboring Al atoms and two carbon atom forms two neighboring  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}_3$  pentagons. Between two neighboring  $[\text{Al}_4\text{C}_2]_n$  chains, the  $\text{Al}_4\text{C}_4$  octagons give rise to an “8558” line defect. The closest Al–Al distance in  $\text{AlC}$  is 2.44 Å, the bond length of C–C dimer is 1.39 Å, and the Al–C bond lengths in the ptC are 1.93 and 1.98 Å, respectively.

The  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer has a similar structure as previously predicted structure of  $\text{B}_2\text{C-IV}$ <sup>16,17</sup> or  $\text{SiC}_2$ .<sup>30</sup> The optimized lattice constants for the  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer, labeled as  $a$  and  $b$  in Figure 1c, are  $a = 3.04$  Å and  $b = 5.07$  Å, respectively. The  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer can be viewed as fused  $\text{Al}_4\text{C}$  units, as highlighted by





**Figure 2.** Isosurfaces of ELF with the value of 0.75 for (a) AlC, (b) Al<sub>2</sub>C, and (c) Al<sub>3</sub>C.

a green rectangle in Figure 1c. Along the *a* direction, two neighboring Al<sub>4</sub>C units share a pair of Al atoms, while along the *b* direction, the two neighboring Al<sub>4</sub>C units are connected via two Al–Al bonds with the Al–Al bond length of 2.60 Å. The Al–C bond length in each Al<sub>4</sub>C unit is 1.96 Å, and the Al–Al distance along the *b* direction is 2.47 Å.

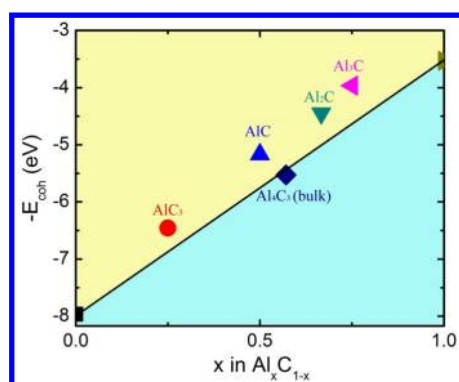
The Al<sub>3</sub>C monolayer can be viewed as a 2D network of Al<sub>6</sub>C<sub>2</sub> units. An Al<sub>6</sub>C<sub>2</sub> unit is composed of two edge-sharing Al<sub>4</sub>C units. As shown in Figure 1d, along the *a* direction, Al<sub>6</sub>C<sub>2</sub> units are connected via two Al–Al bonds, and along the *b* direction, Al<sub>6</sub>C<sub>2</sub> units are connected with three Al–Al bonds. Note that the two Al<sub>4</sub>C units in Al<sub>6</sub>C<sub>2</sub> are slightly distorted, where the Al–C bond lengths are within the range of 1.94 to 1.98 Å, the Al–Al bond lengths are 2.56 and 2.64 Å along the *b* direction, and 2.86 and 2.99 Å are along the *a* direction, respectively. The Al–Al bond lengths between two adjacent Al<sub>6</sub>C<sub>2</sub> units are 2.64 Å along the *a* direction and 2.57 and 2.63 Å along the *b* direction, respectively.

To better understand bonding nature of the predicted ptC-containing AlC, Al<sub>2</sub>C, and Al<sub>3</sub>C monolayers, we undertook an analysis of electron localization function (ELF).<sup>38,39</sup> For highlighting the in-plane  $\sigma$  states, we plot isosurface of ELF for AlC, Al<sub>2</sub>C, and Al<sub>3</sub>C monolayers, all with an isovalue of 0.75 au, as shown in Figure 2. The AlC monolayer exhibits two ELF domains: One is the ptC containing Al<sub>4</sub>C (highlighted by a red quadrangle in Figure 2a), where ELF distributes around the C-centered four Al–C bonds, while another is the C–C dimer containing Al<sub>4</sub>C<sub>2</sub> (highlighted by a purple quadrangle in Figure 2a), where one C–C  $\sigma$  bond and four Al–C  $\sigma$  bonds are seen. The bonding between Al–Al in the AlC monolayer is weak. For Al<sub>2</sub>C, the ELF distributes symmetrically around the ptC, the Al–Al bonding in the ptC-containing Al<sub>4</sub>C domain (see the red rectangle in Figure 2b) is weak, while the Al atoms between the two neighboring Al<sub>4</sub>C along the *b* direction form Al–Al  $\sigma$  bonds (see area highlighted by green long oval in Figure 2b). For Al<sub>3</sub>C, we can see that along the *b* direction, the Al atoms between two edge-sharing Al<sub>6</sub>C<sub>2</sub> units form Al–Al  $\sigma$  bonds, and

along the *a* direction, ELF is mainly distributed along the Al–Al bonds in the *a* direction for the four Al atoms between the two neighboring Al<sub>6</sub>C<sub>2</sub> units (highlighted by purple quadrangle in Figure 2c).

To examine structure stabilities of the four 2D stoichiometric Al–C monolayers, we computed cohesive energies of these compounds. The computed cohesive energies of AlC<sub>3</sub>, AlC, Al<sub>2</sub>C, and Al<sub>3</sub>C monolayers are 6.46, 5.17, 4.45, and 3.97 eV/atom, respectively, while the computed cohesive energy of bulk Al<sub>4</sub>C<sub>3</sub> is 5.53 eV/atom. The relatively large cohesive energies of new 2D Al–C compounds suggest that the monolayers are stable phases of Al–C systems. Next, we compute molar formation energy  $\delta G$  for Al<sub>*x*</sub>C<sub>1–*x*</sub> using the formula  $\delta G(x) = -E_{\text{coh}}(x) - x\mu_{\text{Al}} - (1 - x)\mu_{\text{C}}$ , where  $E_{\text{coh}}(x)$  is the cohesive energy of Al<sub>*x*</sub>C<sub>1–*x*</sub> and  $\mu_{\text{Al}}$  and  $\mu_{\text{C}}$  are chemical potentials of pure Al and C.<sup>22,40–42</sup> Note that  $\mu_{\text{Al}}$  and  $\mu_{\text{C}}$  represent environmental conditions and thereby a better description of relative stabilities of the 2D Al–C compounds. Relative stabilities can be determined based on the altitude of each  $-E_{\text{coh}}$  point from the line connecting the reference  $\mu_{\text{Al}}$  and  $\mu_{\text{C}}$  values at  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$ . A phase with higher  $\delta G(x)$  would be less stable. In general, a phase with its  $-E_{\text{coh}}$  in the light-blue area of Figure 3 is thermodynamically stable, while the one in the light-yellow region is metastable or unstable. Here we choose  $\mu_{\text{Al}}$  as  $\mu_{\text{Al}} = \mu_{\text{Al}}^{\text{bulk}} = -E_{\text{coh}}(\text{Al})$  in fcc bulk phase of Al and  $\mu_{\text{C}}$  as that in graphene  $\mu_{\text{C}} = \mu_{\text{C}}^{\text{graphene}} = -E_{\text{coh}}(\text{C})$ . As shown in Figure 3, the bulk Al<sub>4</sub>C<sub>3</sub> is thermodynamically stable because its  $-E_{\text{coh}}$  is below the straight line ( $\delta G(4/7) = -0.10$  eV), while all predicted 2D Al–C compounds are located above the line with a positive  $\delta G(x)$  value and are thus metastable. The AlC<sub>3</sub> (with  $\delta G(1/4) = 0.40$  eV) appears to be more stable than AlC ( $\delta G(x1/2) = 0.58$  eV), Al<sub>2</sub>C ( $\delta G(2/3) = 0.56$  eV), and Al<sub>3</sub>C ( $\delta G(3/4) = 0.67$  eV).

The dynamical stability of the four 2D Al–C monolayers is also confirmed via phonon spectrum calculations based on density functional perturbation theory as implemented in Quantum-Espresso package.<sup>43</sup> As shown in Figure S1 in the



**Figure 3.** Cohesive energy  $E_{\text{coh}}$  for the 2D binary phases of  $\text{Al}_x\text{C}_{1-x}$  at different Al mole fraction  $x$ . The straight line connects the cohesive energies of graphene at  $x = 0$  and bulk Al at  $x = 1$ .

Supporting Information, the phonon spectra show no imaginary phonon modes, suggesting that the monolayers are locally stable without any dynamical instability. The highest frequency is  $1491\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for  $\text{AlC}_3$  and  $1285\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for  $\text{AlC}$ , significantly higher than those for  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$  ( $896\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  and  $827\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$ ). This behavior is due to the C–C bonds in  $\text{AlC}_3$  and  $\text{AlC}$ , while in  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$ , the strongest bond is Al–C bond. Although the phonon instability is the necessary and sufficient condition for testing mechanical instability of a crystal at low temperature, the thermal stability at elevated temperatures is also another important indicator for testing structure stability. To this end, a Born–Oppenheimer molecular dynamics (BOMD) simulation at DFT level is carried out for each new 2D Al–C compound. The constant-volume and constant-temperature ensemble (NVT) is adopted. The initial structures for the BOMD simulation are taken from the optimized structures at zero temperature. BOMD simulations are performed with temperature controlled at 1000, 2000, and 2500 K, respectively, for all  $\text{AlC}_3$ ,  $\text{AlC}$ , and  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayers and at 1000, 1500, and 2000 K for  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$ . Snapshots at 9 ps of the simulation are plotted for each system at each given temperature. (See Figure S2 in the Supporting Information.) It can be seen that  $\text{AlC}_3$ ,  $\text{AlC}$ , and  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  are likely to melt at a temperature between 2000 and 2500 K, while for  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$ , the melting temperature is between 1500 and 2000 K. These results indicate that the predicted 2D Al–C compounds can be thermally stable under high-temperature environment.

Elastic constants of the ptC-containing  $\text{AlC}$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$  monolayers are computed and listed in Table 1. As a

**Table 1.** Calculated Elastic Constants of  $\text{AlC}$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$  Monolayer Sheets in Gigapascals

	$C_{11}$	$C_{22}$	$C_{12}$	$C_{66}$
$\text{AlC}$	395.8	333.1	74.0	109.3
$\text{Al}_2\text{C}$	344.8	315.2	35.9	61.0
$\text{Al}_3\text{C}$	239.0	242.4	38.0	30.2
graphene	1005.6	$= C_{11}$	180	412.8

benchmark, the elastic constants of graphene are also computed at the same level of DFT, which are  $C_{11} = 1005.6\text{ GPa}$ ,  $C_{12} = 180\text{ GPa}$ , and  $C_{66} = 412.8\text{ GPa}$ , in good agreement with experimental results ( $C_{11} = 1060\text{ GPa}$ ,  $C_{12} = 180\text{ GPa}$ ,  $C_{66} = 440\text{ GPa}$ ).<sup>44</sup> Our results show that the  $C_{ij}$  constants of  $\text{AlC}$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$  are lower than those of the graphene, consistent with the fact that the in-plane bonding of these predicted

structures are weaker than that of graphene. Taking  $\text{AlC}$  as an example (see Figure 2a), the Al–C- and C-centered regions are weaker than the C–C  $\sigma$  bonding in graphene. Nevertheless, several  $C_{ij}$  constants of  $\text{AlC}$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$  are higher than reported values for SiC ( $C_{11} = 118.8\text{ GPa}$ ,  $C_{12} = 255.5\text{ GPa}$ ),  $\text{Si}_2\text{C}$  ( $C_{11} = 143.0\text{ GPa}$ ,  $C_{12} = 41.4\text{ GPa}$ ,  $C_{22} = 142.3\text{ GPa}$ ), and silicene ( $C_{11} = 287\text{ GPa}$ ,  $C_{12} = 127\text{ GPa}$ ) monolayers,<sup>45</sup> while those of  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$  and silicene are comparable to one another. Hence, the ptC-containing Al–C monolayers possess relatively good elastic property.

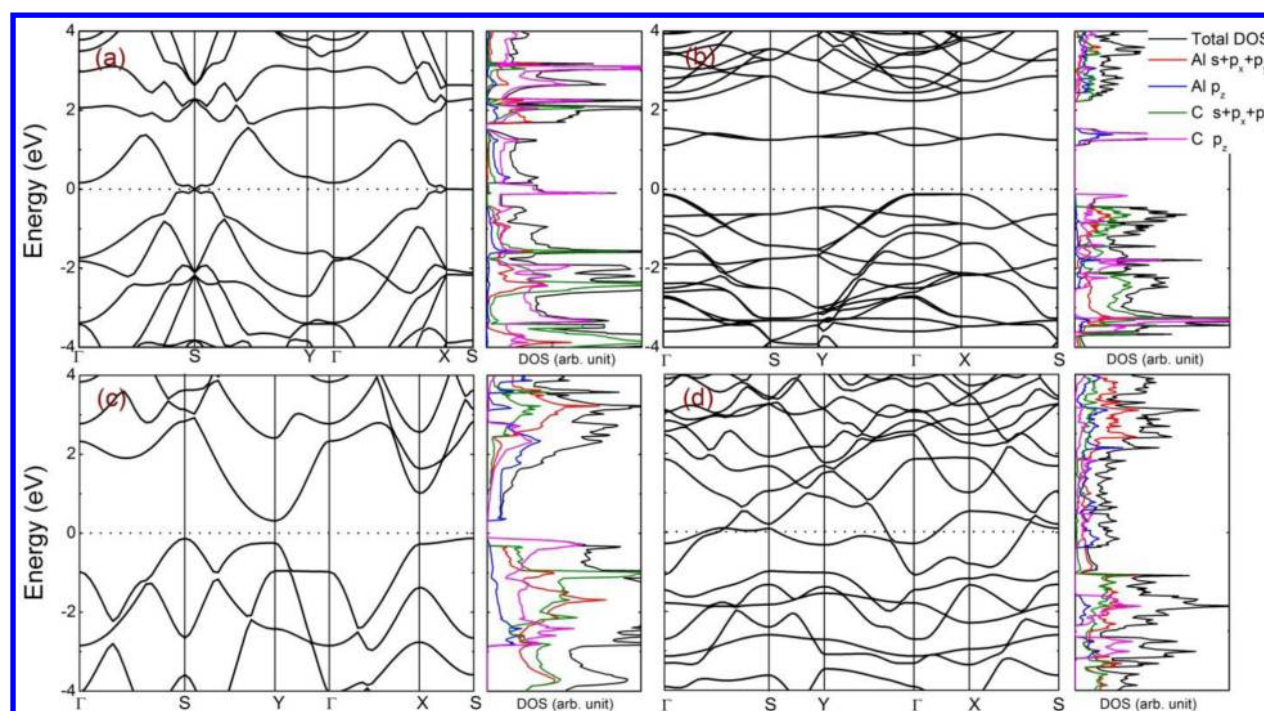
The electronic band structures, together with atomic and orbital projected density of states (PDOS), are plotted in Figure 4. The metallic feature of  $\text{AlC}_3$  and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$  monolayers is expected because one can see fully connected carbon and aluminum chains in  $\text{AlC}_3$  and fully connected aluminum chains in  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$ . For  $\text{AlC}_3$ , the electronic states near the Fermi level are mainly contributed by carbon's delocalized  $2p_z$   $\pi$  electrons, where  $\pi$  and  $\pi^*$  bands intersect at S point, showing a metallic feature. For  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$ , as shown in Figure 4d, it has two bands across the Fermi level, and both aluminum's s and p electrons and carbon's  $p_z$  electrons contribute to the states near the Fermi level.

The  $\text{AlC}$  monolayer has a bandgap of 1.26 eV, and both valence band maximum (VBM) and the conduction band minimum (CBM) are located at the  $\Gamma$  point, a feature of direct-gap semiconductor. Electronic orbital analysis indicates that the VBM is from the  $p_z$  states of the pt-C atoms, while the CBM is from the mixed  $p_z$  states of C atoms in C–C dimers and their neighboring Al atoms. (See Figure S3 of the Supporting Information).

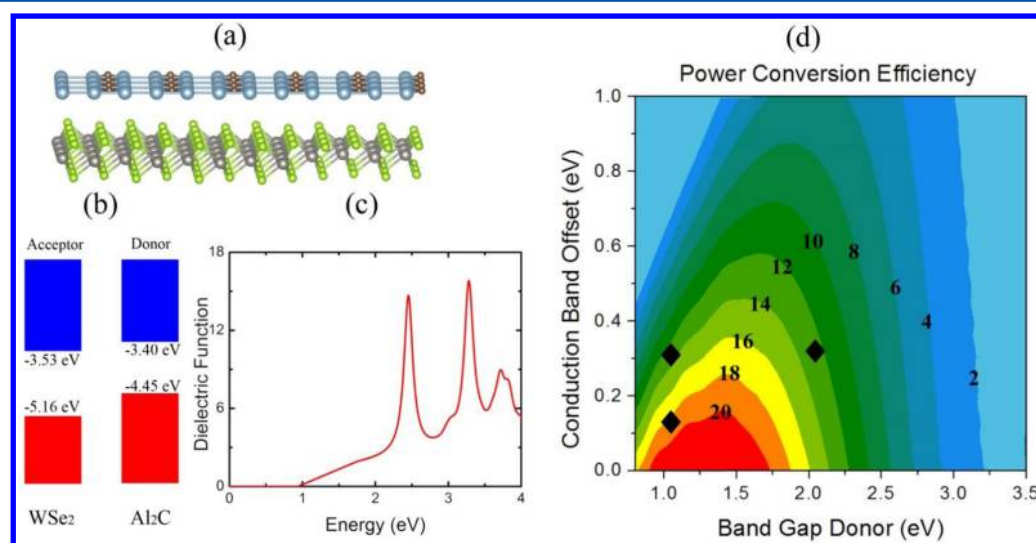
The  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer is a semiconductor with an indirect bandgap of 0.47 eV. Its VBM at S is from the  $p_z$  states of carbon, and the CBM at Y is from the  $p_z$  states of Al. (See Figure S4 of the Supporting Information.) Interestingly, the top of the valence band at Y also stems from Al  $p_z$  states, and the direct bandgap at Y is 0.56 eV, close to the indirect gap of 0.47 eV. For both  $\text{AlC}$  and  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayers, the in-plane bonding  $\sigma$  states are fully occupied and the antibonding  $\sigma^*$  states are empty. This feature that the Fermi level is located within the gap of the in-plane PDOS, that is, the in-plane bonding  $\sigma$  states are fully occupied, the antibonding  $\sigma^*$  states are unfilled, while the remaining electrons either fill or partially fill the out-of-plane  $\pi$  states, has been used to explain the peculiar stability of boron monolayers,<sup>46–48</sup> 2D boron–carbon compounds,<sup>17</sup> or 2D boron–silicon compounds.<sup>31</sup> A reason why the most stable structures of these 2D materials can be understood by the optimal filling of the in-plane states is that the in-plane  $\sigma$  bonds are stronger than the out-of-plane  $\pi$  bonds. This feature is also consistent with the stability analysis based on the molar formation energy and BOMD simulations; namely, the  $\text{AlC}$  and  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayers have lower  $\delta G$  values and higher melting points than  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$ .

It is known that the PBE functional tends to underestimate the bandgap of semiconductors and may give an incorrect gap feature for some narrow-gap semiconductors. Additional computation of the electronic band structures is carried out based on the screened HSE06 hybrid functional,<sup>36,37</sup> which has been shown to give more reliable bandgaps for many semiconductors, including diamond and  $\text{AlN}$ .<sup>49</sup> As shown in Supporting Information Figure S5, HSE06 band structures show qualitatively the same features as those based on PBE functional, that is, the metallic features of  $\text{AlC}_3$  and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$ , the direct-gap semiconducting feature of  $\text{AlC}$ , and the indirect-gap





**Figure 4.** Computed electronic band structures and projected density of states (pDOS) based on PBE functional of (a)  $\text{AlC}_3$ , (b)  $\text{AlC}$ , (c)  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , and (d)  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$ . The Fermi level is set to zero.



**Figure 5.** (a) Schematic drawing of an interface between  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  and  $\text{WSe}_2$  monolayers. (b) Band offsets between  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  and  $\text{WSe}_2$  monolayers. (c) Computed imaginary part of the frequency-dependent dielectric function. (d) Power conversion efficiency as a function of the donor bandgap and conduction band offset.

semiconducting feature of  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , suggesting that the PBE calculation is qualitatively reliable for the Al–C systems. The bandgaps predicted via HSE06 calculation are 2.05 eV for  $\text{AlC}$ , 1.05 eV (indirect Y–S), and 1.25 eV (direct Y–Y) for  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , respectively. The direct bandgap of  $\text{AlC}$  renders the material a promising candidate for optoelectronic applications. Note that the predicted bandgap of  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  is very close to that of bulk Si (PBE 0.58 eV, HSE06 1.15 eV, experimental 1.12 eV).<sup>50</sup> Such similarity in bandgap between  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer with bulk Si points out a possibility of using 2D Al–C materials in future as complementary metal-oxide semiconductor (CMOS) devices.

Our HSE06 calculations indicate that the  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer possesses similar electronic structures as bulk Si, and the  $\text{AlC}$

monolayer has a direct bandgap of 2.05 eV. These results suggest that both monolayers may be applied as solar cell donor materials if an appropriate acceptor material can be found. For the  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer, the computed VBM and CBM levels (HSE06) are  $-4.45$  and  $-3.40$  eV, respectively, while for the  $\text{WSe}_2$  monolayer, the computed VBM and CBM levels are  $-5.16$  and  $-3.53$  eV, respectively. The latter levels match those of  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer very well, giving a type-II alignment with both materials. (See Figure 5b.) Thus, a potential solar-cell device made of  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  and  $\text{WSe}_2$  monolayers is constructed, as shown in Figure 5a. The computed imaginary part of the frequency-dependent dielectric function of  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , based on GW-BSE approach, is plotted in Figure 5c. We can see that the

optical absorption is fairly strong over a wide energy range between 2 and 4 eV, a range important for enhancing efficiency of a solar cell. Similar devices could be constructed with  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}/\text{MoTe}_2$  or  $\text{AlC}/\text{ZnO}$  bilayer, in which the CBM of  $\text{MoTe}_2$ ,  $\text{AlC}$ , and  $\text{ZnO}$  is  $-3.71$ ,  $-2.51$ , and  $-2.83$  eV, respectively, and the corresponding VBM is  $-4.99$ ,  $-4.56$ , and  $-6.12$  eV, respectively. The upper limit of the power conversion efficiency (PCE)  $\eta$  is estimated in the limit of 100% external quantum efficiency (EQE),<sup>51,52</sup>  $\eta = J_{\text{sc}} V_{\text{oc}} \beta_{\text{FF}} / P_{\text{solar}} = 0.65(E_{\text{g}}^{\text{d}} - \Delta E_{\text{c}} - 0.3) \int_{E_{\text{g}}^{\text{d}}}^{\infty} (P(\hbar\omega) / \hbar\omega) d(\hbar\omega) / \int_0^{\infty} P(\hbar\omega) d(\hbar\omega)$ , where the fill factor (FF) is taken to be 0.65,  $P(\hbar\omega)$  is the AM1.5 solar energy flux (expressed in  $\text{W m}^{-2} \text{eV}^{-1}$ ) at the photon energy  $\hbar\omega$ ,  $E_{\text{g}}^{\text{d}}$  is the bandgap of the donor material,  $\Delta E_{\text{c}}$  is the offset of conduction bands,  $d(\hbar\omega)$  indicates integration over  $\hbar\omega$ , the  $(E_{\text{g}}^{\text{d}} - \Delta E_{\text{c}} - 0.3)$  term is an estimation of the maximum open-circuit voltage  $V_{\text{oc}}$ , and 0.3 eV is an empirical value for the efficient electron–hole charge separation. The integral in the numerator is the short-circuit current  $J_{\text{sc}}$  in the limit of 100% EQE, and the integral in the denominator is the integrated AM1.5 solar flux. As shown in Figure Sd, the  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}/\text{WSe}_2$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}/\text{MoTe}_2$ , and  $\text{AlC}/\text{ZnO}$  heterobilayers could yield PCE of 18.4, 13.0, and 12.6%, respectively. These PCE values are comparable to those of the PCBM/CBN system (10–20%)<sup>51</sup> as well as recently predicted g- $\text{SiC}_2$ -based systems (12–20%)<sup>45</sup> and bilayer phosphorene/ $\text{MoS}_2$  system (16–18%).<sup>53</sup>

Although the newly predicted 2D Al–C monolayers show intriguing structural and electronic properties for potential applications in solar cells, how to synthesize these materials is a critical issue. Remarkably, we find that the lattice constants of the  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer match those of PdO-terminated PdO(100) surface very well. Our PBE calculations show that the optimized lattice constants of  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  are  $a = 3.03$  Å,  $b = 5.07$  Å and those for PdO (100) surface are  $a = 3.08$  Å,  $b = 5.46$  Å. Moreover, the total energy of  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  with lattice parameter  $a = 3.08$  Å and  $b = 5.46$  Å is only 0.089 eV/atom higher than that of  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  with the optimized lattice parameter. Note also that the PdO-terminated (100) surface is predicted to be the most stable surface termination among all of  $1 \times 1$  low-index surfaces.<sup>54</sup> Thus, we propose to synthesize the  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer on PdO (100) surface using prevailing techniques such as CVD or MBE. (See Figure S6 in the Supporting Information for a schematic view.)

In conclusion, we have performed a global search of the most stable monolayer structures of  $\text{Al}_x\text{C}$  compounds with  $x = 0.5$ , 1, 2, and 3. Our DFT calculations predicted three stable planar Al–C monolayers, namely,  $\text{AlC}$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$  sheets, which all contain the planar tetracoordinate carbon. In particular, the  $\text{AlC}$  and  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayers are predicted to be semiconducting.  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  has a bandgap of 1.05 eV, comparable to that of bulk Si. More importantly, we predict that the  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}/\text{WSe}_2$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}/\text{MoTe}_2$ , and  $\text{AlC}/\text{ZnO}$  van der Waals heterobilayers can be promising for solar-cell applications due to their type-II alignment. The theoretical upper limit of PCE for these heterobilayers is in the range of 12–18%. Finally, we propose that the  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer can be synthesized on the PdO (100) surface due to the remarkable lattice-constant match between the  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer and PdO (100) surface.

## ■ COMPUTATIONAL METHODS

**PSO Structural Search.** The structure search is performed using the PSO algorithm within the revolutionary scheme, as implemented in the CALYPSO (Crystal structure AnaLYsis by Particle Swarm Optimization) code.<sup>34,35</sup> The PSO algorithm

offers an efficient and fast way to obtain reliable structures with only the input of chemical composition. It also requires very few parameters to adjust. In combination with DFT optimization, the PSO algorithm has been shown to successfully predict low-energy structures of 2D boron–carbon compounds,<sup>17</sup> boron monolayer sheets,<sup>48</sup> 2D boron–silicon compounds,<sup>31</sup>  $\text{SiC}_2$  siligraphene,<sup>45</sup> and numerous 3D ground-state structures of elements and compounds.<sup>55–61</sup> For the Al–C systems, we consider four Al/C ratios for the structure search, including  $\text{AlC}_3$ ,  $\text{AlC}$ ,  $\text{AlC}_2$ , and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$ . Specifically, in the PSO search, the population size is set to be 30, and the number of generations is maintained at 30. Various supercell sizes are considered with the total number of atoms less than 16 in the supercell. Taking  $\text{AlC}$  as an example, supercell sizes up to eight unit cells have been examined. As such, a total number of 7200 configurations are probed to ensure the unbiased search. In the first generation of the structure search, random structures are constructed by generating atomic coordinates using crystallographic symmetry operations. These structures are then optimized by using a DFT method. The best 60% structures are selected through PSO to generate the next generation, while the other structures are generated randomly to guarantee the structure diversity.

**DFT Calculations.** The electronic band structures are computed using DFT methods implemented in VASP package.<sup>62,63</sup> The DFT calculations are within the framework of generalized gradient approximation (GGA) in the form of Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) for the exchange–correlation energy. The ion–electron interaction is treated using the projector-augmented wave (PAW) method.<sup>64</sup> For geometric optimization, both lattice constants and atomic positions are relaxed until the forces on atoms are  $<0.02$  eV/Å, and the total energy change is  $<1.0 \times 10^{-5}$  eV. A vacuum distance of  $\sim 20$  Å is adopted so that the interlayer interaction is negligible. For the geometric optimization, the Brillouin zone is sampled using  $k$  points with  $0.02$  Å<sup>−1</sup> spacing in the Monkhorst–Pack scheme,<sup>65</sup> while for computing the density of states and total energies a denser  $k$ -point grid with  $0.01$  Å<sup>−1</sup> spacing is used.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### ⑤ Supporting Information

Phonon band structures of  $\text{AlC}_3$ ,  $\text{AlC}$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$  monolayer sheets, BOMD snapshots of  $\text{AlC}_3$ ,  $\text{AlC}$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$  monolayer sheets at different temperatures, isosurface plots of VBM and CBM for  $\text{AlC}$  and  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  monolayer sheets, HSE06 band structures for  $\text{AlC}_3$ ,  $\text{AlC}$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$ , and  $\text{Al}_3\text{C}$  monolayer sheets, schematic view of  $\text{Al}_2\text{C}$  on PdO (100) surface, and details of HSE06 and GW/BSE computation. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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### Notes

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