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Thomas Frederiksen, Giuseppe Foti, Fabrice Scheurer, Virginie Speisser, Guillaume Schull. Chemical control of electrical contact to $sp(2)$ carbon atoms. *Nature Communications*, 2014, 5, <10.1038/ncomms4659>. <hal-03274291>

HAL Id: hal-03274291

<https://hal.science/hal-03274291v1>

Submitted on 29 Jun 2021

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ARTICLE

Received 3 Oct 2013 | Accepted 14 Mar 2014 | Published 16 Apr 2014

DOI: 10.1038/ncomms4659

OPEN

Chemical control of electrical contact to sp^2 carbon atoms

Thomas Frederiksen^{1,2}, Giuseppe Foti^{1,3}, Fabrice Scheurer⁴, Virginie Speisser⁴ & Guillaume Schull⁴

Carbon-based nanostructures are attracting tremendous interest as components in ultrafast electronics and optoelectronics. The electrical interfaces to these structures play a crucial role for the electron transport, but the lack of control at the atomic scale can hamper device functionality and integration into operating circuitry. Here we study a prototype carbon-based molecular junction consisting of a single C_{60} molecule and probe how the electric current through the junction depends on the chemical nature of the foremost electrode atom in contact with the molecule. We find that the efficiency of charge injection to a C_{60} molecule varies substantially for the considered metallic species, and demonstrate that the relative strength of the metal-C bond can be extracted from our transport measurements. Our study further suggests that a single- C_{60} junction is a basic model to explore the properties of electrical contacts to meso- and macroscopic sp^2 carbon structures.

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Thanks to their unique transport properties, carbon nanotubes (CNT), graphene sheets and nanoribbons are promising components for future nanoelectronics¹. A close attention is paid to the connections of these graphitic structures to external metallic leads where the injection and the collection of charges are controlled^{2–4}. Indeed, bad interfaces might ruin the transport properties of such carbon-based devices. To this respect, the chemical nature of the contacting leads is of major importance; it affects the electronic properties⁵ and, depending on the reactivity, the geometry of the contact⁶. The impact of these two aspects on the transport properties is entangled and, for mesoscopic structures, it is challenging to address them separately. Exploring the evolution of these parameters for contacts shrunk to the limit of individual atoms might solve this issue.

Scanning tunnelling microscopy (STM) contact experiments with fullerene molecules have revealed the decisive impact of atomic-scale modifications on transport properties^{7–10}. Recently, some of us demonstrated that the conductance of a Cu–C₆₀–Cu junction varies by more than an order of magnitude as a function of the number of Cu atoms in direct contact with the C₆₀ molecule¹¹. For small contact sections (that is, a single-atom contact) the conductance is limited by charge injection to the molecule, and depends essentially on the electronic and geometrical properties of the metal–C atomic contact, which acts as a conductance ‘bottleneck’.

Here we probe the charge injection efficiency at the interface between a C₆₀ molecule and single metallic atoms of different chemical nature. We demonstrate that information on the reactivity between the fullerene and each specific atom can be extracted from our experiments, which match the properties observed at the mesoscopic scale. First-principles transport simulations with a novel scheme to describe the single-C₆₀ junction reproduce the experimental findings and reveal how the chemical valence of the contacting atom determines the conductance of the junction^{12–14}. Our study further demonstrates that atomic-scale junctions may be used to explore the properties of mesoscale graphitic contacts.

Results

Metal adatoms as chemically controlled electrodes. To use different metal adatoms ($M_1 = \text{Cu}_1, \text{Au}_1, \text{Pd}_1, \text{Fe}_1, \text{Ti}_1, \text{Al}_1$) deposited on a Cu(111) surface as chemically controlled electrodes for molecular contacts, the apex of our STM tip was functionalized with a C₆₀ molecule previously evaporated on the surface¹⁵. Figure 1a shows metallic adatoms imaged with a C₆₀ tip at a sample voltage corresponding to the second lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO + 1) of the molecular tip. The image reveals that this particular C₆₀-functionalized tip is oriented with a bond between a pentagon and a hexagon (5:6 bond) towards the substrate¹⁶. Depending on the chemical nature of the adatom, a varying ‘apparent height’ is exhibited in the STM images as highlighted in the close-up views in Fig. 1b–d.

Figure 1e–f show contact experiments obtained with a C₆₀-terminated STM tip and the different adatoms. As expected, the conductances vary exponentially with the tip approach in the tunnelling regime (large z). At shorter distances, a change in the slopes is observed, which marks a transition towards a contact regime. A contact distance z_c and a contact conductance G_c (black crosses in Fig. 1f) are determined for each conductance trace following the method detailed in ref. 11. We emphasize that the contact measurements performed on Au₁, Cu₁ and Fe₁ were acquired with the same C₆₀ tip and can be directly compared. The traces obtained on Pd₁, Ti₁ and Al₁ pertain to other sets of measurements where they were compared with Cu₁. Taking Cu₁

as a reference, it is therefore possible to compare data from different experiments with different adatom species. Using this method, the impact of different molecular orientations and of different tip-side interfaces between C₆₀ and metal on the experimental data is strongly reduced. Figure 2 and Table 1 summarizes the relative distances and conductances at contact.

Mechanical aspects of contact formation. First we focus on the mechanical aspects of the different junctions. Figure 2a shows that the contact takes place at different tip-sample distances z_c depending on the chemical nature of the metallic adatom. For instance, the contact point occurs systematically at larger z_c values with Ti₁ than with any of the other species. We find that the experimental variation in z_c correlates very well with binding energies E_b (blue triangles) between an atom M_1 and a single C₆₀ molecule calculated using density functional theory (DFT), see

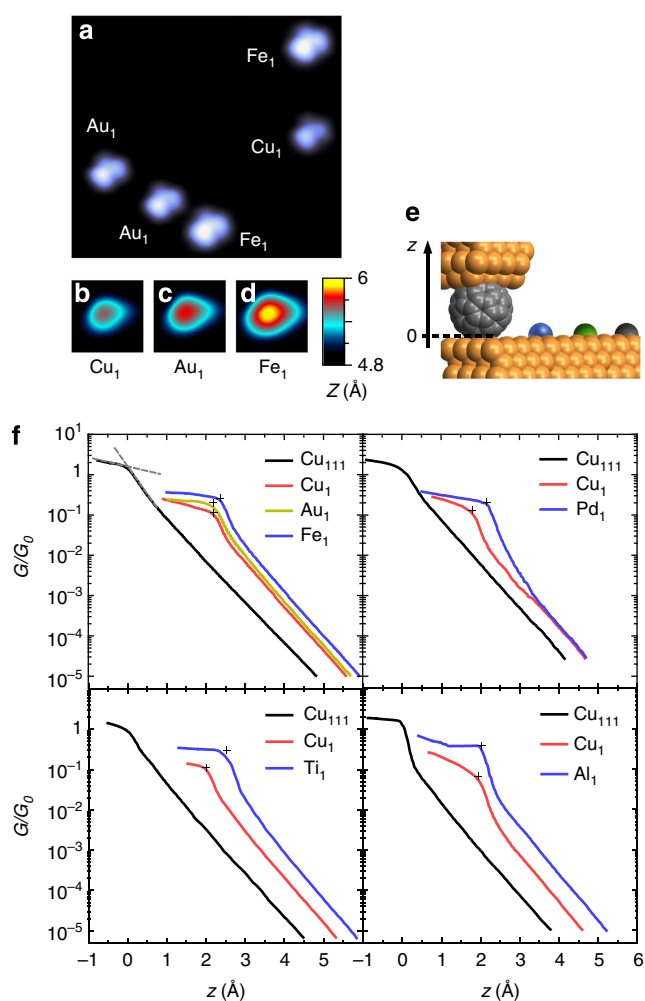


Figure 1 | Individual metal adatoms contacted with a C₆₀-functionalized STM tip. (a) STM image ($7.0 \times 6.2 \text{ nm}^2$) of different metal adatoms on Cu(111) acquired with a C₆₀ tip at a sample voltage $V = 1.7 \text{ V}$.

(b–d) Close-up views ($1.4 \times 1.4 \text{ nm}^2$) of Cu₁, Au₁ and Fe₁ images with a C₆₀ tip for tunnelling conditions corresponding to the initial parameter of the traces in f. (e) Sketch of the C₆₀ tip where $z = 0$ corresponds to contact with the flat surface. (f) Experimental conductance traces $G(z)$ in units of the conductance quantum $G_0 = 2e^2/h$. Black crosses mark the contact points defined as the intersection of the contact and transition regimes such as indicated by the dashed grey lines in panel f for the bare surface data.

Methods section. The substrate has little impact on these binding energy trends, as discussed in Supplementary Fig. 1.

This suggests that the shape of the conductance trace around the point of contact is a measure of the attractive chemical forces between the adatom and the C_{60} tip. Indeed, when the C_{60} tip approaches the adatom, the attractive force between them increases giving rise to an elastic response¹⁷. The larger the attractive force between the molecule and the adatom, the ‘sooner’ a contact is established (that is, larger z_c). Our DFT-generalized gradient approximation (GGA) calculations^{18,19} for the various junctions (Fig. 3a) also support that the variation observed in Fig. 2a is not due to the natural height variations of the different adatoms on Cu(111) (Supplementary Fig. 2). These findings also agree with measurements of the sticking behaviour of mesoscopic metallic electrodes on single-wall CNT⁶, supporting a hierarchy $E_b(\text{Pd}) > E_b(\text{Fe}) > E_b(\text{Al}) > E_b(\text{Au})$ for the binding energy. Theoretical works have revealed similar hierarchies for metallic adatoms²⁰, clusters of metallic atoms⁵, and metal surfaces²¹ interacting with graphene sheets. While the reactivity between sp^2 carbon atoms and metallic electrodes varies with the dimensionality (0D, 1D or 2D) and the curvature of the graphitic structure, it is noticeable that our atomic-scale experiment reproduces accurately all these trends.

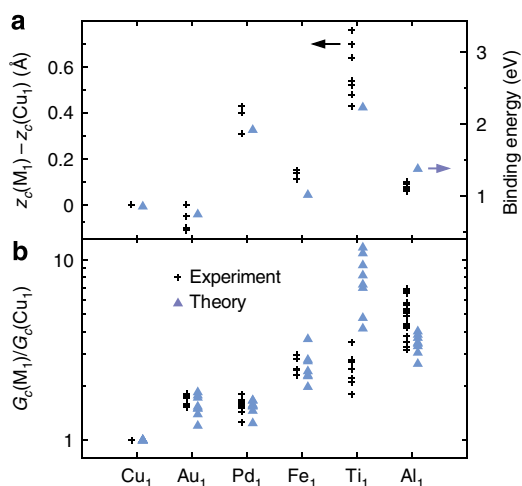


Figure 2 | Mechanical and conductive trends with different adatom electrodes. (a) Experimental (black crosses) contact distances z_c and (b) contact conductances G_c for each of the considered metallic adatoms M_1 , obtained with different C_{60} tips. As a common reference, the data are (a) compared with or (b) normalized by the value obtained on Cu_1 . In panel a, the experimental contact distances are compared with calculated binding energies between an atom M_1 and a single C_{60} molecule. In panel b, the experimental data are compared with calculated conductances (normalized by Cu_1) for different electrode separations and binding sites (see text). The scattering in the theoretical data (blue triangles) corresponds to calculations for different lateral adatom positions and distances with respect to the C_{60} tip.

Chemical trends of the adatom on contact conductance. We next turn to the discussion of the contact conductance values. The experimental data in Fig. 2b (black crosses) reveal that G_c is on average about 1.6 times higher for Au_1 and Pd_1 than for Cu_1 contacts. The largest average ratio was observed for Al_1 . Although we took the greatest care to locate the molecular tip over each adatom with the same relative position before the tip approach, sub-ångström variations of this parameter are unavoidable. Such

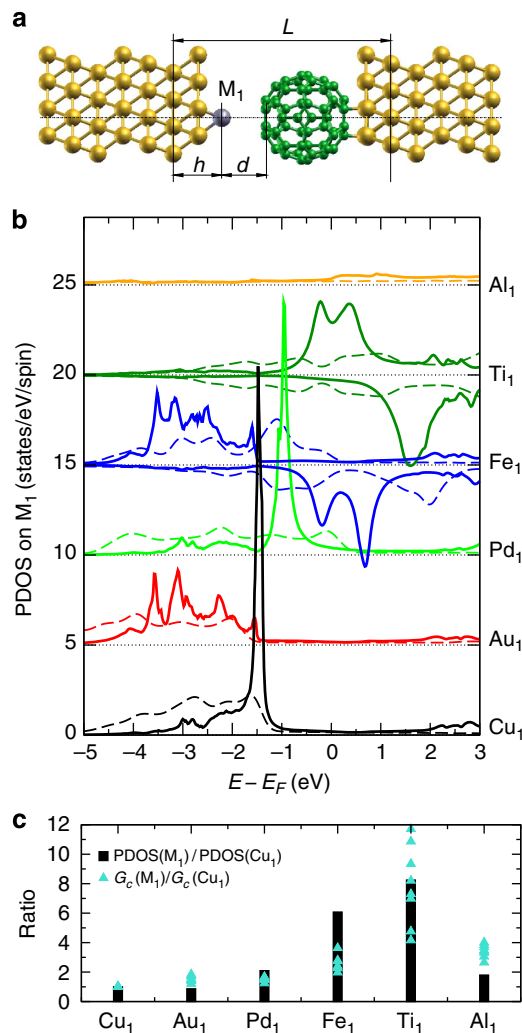


Figure 3 | Analysis of calculated junction properties. (a) Model of the C_{60} - M_1 junctions considered in the calculations. (b) PDOS onto adatom basis (full lines: adatoms positioned in hollow sites on the molecular symmetry axis, $L = 18.5 \text{ \AA}$) compared with the density of states for the same species in its bulk environment (dashed lines, Supplementary Fig. 5). For Fe and Ti, the two spin components are shown with opposite sign. The datasets are offset for clarity. (c) Comparison of adatom PDOS at the Fermi level ($L = 18.5 \text{ \AA}$) with the calculated junction conductance $G_c(M_1)$ at different electrode separations, normalized with respect to Cu_1 .

Table 1 | Absolute experimental contact distances \bar{z}_c and contact conductances \bar{G}_c .

Adatom	Cu_1	Au_1	Pd_1	Fe_1	Ti_1	Al_1
\bar{z}_c (Å)	1.9 ± 0.2	1.9 ± 0.2	2.3 ± 0.2	2.1 ± 0.2	2.5 ± 0.3	2.0 ± 0.2
\bar{G}_c (G_0)	0.11 ± 0.02	0.18 ± 0.05	0.17 ± 0.05	0.29 ± 0.08	0.28 ± 0.10	0.65 ± 0.20

The estimates for each adatom species are determined according to these expressions: $\bar{z}_c(M_1) = \bar{z}_c(\text{Cu}_1) + z_c(M_1) - z_c(\text{Cu}_1)$ and $\bar{G}_c(M_1) = \bar{G}_c(\text{Cu}_1) \times G_c(M_1)/G_c(\text{Cu}_1)$. The absolute values for Cu_1 were deduced from the overall experimental data sets.

small variations can lead to different contact geometries and, consequently, to different contact conductances⁹. This explains the scattering in the experimental data in Fig. 2b. In our simulations we account for this aspect by considering different lateral positions of the adatoms with respect to the C₆₀ tip¹¹. We also consider different C₆₀-adatom distances around the point of contact (Fig. 3a). The result of these simulations is displayed as blue triangles in Fig. 2b. An overall good agreement is obtained between experiment and theory. The conductance ratios are quantitatively reproduced for the Au₁, Fe₁ and Pd₁ species. Ti₁ and Al₁ are also found to be the most conductive species, but contrary to the experiment theory assigns a larger conductance to Ti₁ than to Al₁. Our conductance ratios also agree with simulations for metal-graphene and metal-CNT interfaces^{5,22}. Importantly, these results confirm that the efficiency of charge injection to a C₆₀ molecule can vary substantially for different metal adatoms, independently of any geometrical considerations.

To rationalize the observed hierarchy, it is useful to consider the projected density of states (PDOS) on the different metallic adatoms as shown in Fig. 3b and Supplementary Fig. 3. For Cu₁, Au₁ and Pd₁ a *d*-orbital adatom resonance is present significantly below the Fermi level E_F . Around E_F , these three species as well as Al₁ exhibit no particular spectral features corroborating that their *sp* electronic states of the free atoms hybridize strongly with Cu(111). The situation is very different for Fe₁ and Ti₁ which both exhibit a spin-polarized electronic structure with *d*-orbital resonances located around E_F . For Fe₁ (Ti₁), the PDOS at E_F is dominated by the minority (majority) spin channel, rather analogous to the case of these metals adsorbed on graphene²⁰. The transmission spin polarization²³ is predicted to be as high as 88% in the case of Ti (Supplementary Fig. 4). Figure 3c compares the calculated junction conductances with the PDOS(E_F) of the adatom at relatively large electrode separation ($L = 18.5 \text{ \AA}$, Fig. 3a). To a first approximation, it is observed that the conductance is related to the PDOS.

This interpretation in terms of PDOS on the adatoms also offers an explanation for the overestimated conductance of Ti₁ in the simulations. Close to resonant transport conditions—that is, when the adatom *d*-orbitals are nearly aligned with E_F —the conductance depends sensitively on the resonance position and width. An inadequate description of the strong Coulomb repulsion between the *3d* electrons localized on the adatom with standard DFT methods (and consequently their hybridization with the substrate) can therefore have a large impact on the calculated conductance. Although theory still provides a qualitative agreement with experiment in these cases (Fe₁ and Ti₁), a quantitative comparison needs to be taken with caution.

Figure 3b also compares PDOS of the various metal adatoms with the corresponding density of states in the bulk (Supplementary Fig. 5). Interestingly, despite of very different environments, their spectral features are rather similar. The main difference is obtained for Pd, where the *d*-band in bulk reaches E_F while it is located well below for Pd₁ on Cu(111). This general correspondence supports the notion that our single adatoms can be considered representative for meso- and macroscopic electrodes. Therefore noble metals Cu₁ and Au₁ as well as Pd₁ (closed *d*-shell elements) are generally less favourable for charge injection to C₆₀ than the open *d*-shell elements Fe₁ and Ti₁ or the open *p*-shell element Al₁. These observations suggest that the ability of a given metal to inject charges to *sp*² carbon can, to some extent, be intuited from its chemical valence.

Adatom influence on C₆₀ orbitals. Finally, the electronic properties of the C₆₀ are affected by the hybridization with the different adatoms^{11,24} with consequences for the junction

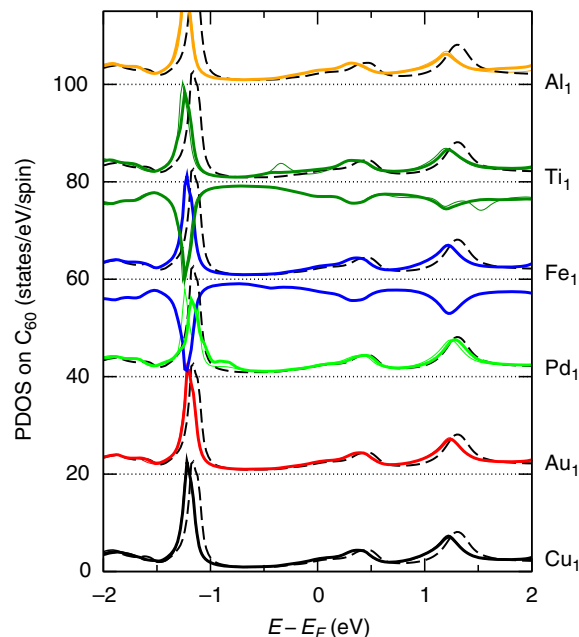


Figure 4 | Influence of adatoms on the C₆₀ orbitals. PDOS onto the C₆₀ basis at relatively small electrode separation ($L = 17.2 \text{ \AA}$, Fig. 3a). Adatoms in hollow sites on the molecular symmetry axis (thin lines) as well as adatoms shifted one hollow site away (thick lines) are considered. For Fe and Ti, the two spin components are shown with opposite sign. The datasets are offset for clarity and compared with PDOS for the isolated C₆₀ tip (dashed black lines).

conductance. Figure 4 shows the PDOS onto the C₆₀ basis at relatively small electrode separation ($L = 17.2 \text{ \AA}$, Fig. 3a). It reveals the characteristic spectral features of the C₆₀ tip (essentially the highest occupied molecular orbital around -1.2 eV , the LUMO around 0.4 eV and the LUMO + 1 around 1.2 eV), but also subtle differences depending on the adatom species. Compared with the PDOS for the isolated C₆₀ tip (dashed black lines), it is observed that the spectrum is only weakly perturbed by the interaction with the adatoms. For Pd₁, Fe₁ and Ti₁, additional features appear coinciding with the *d*-resonances shown in Fig. 3b. The stronger impact of these adatoms on the C₆₀ orbitals is consistent with their significant reactivities reported in Fig. 2a.

Figure 4 also reveals that the molecular resonances shift to lower energies as the contact is established, suggesting that these adatoms transfer additional electrons to C₆₀ (for the full evolution with electrode separation L , see Supplementary Fig. 6). As a consequence, the LUMO becomes more resonant with the Fermi level and conductance is enhanced.¹¹ These shifts are weak with Pd₁ (little charge transfer) but strong with Al₁ and Ti₁ (significant charge transfer). The differences among the adatoms may therefore affect the conductance hierarchy for larger contacts (more than one atom); for example, the conductance would be expected to increase more rapidly with the number of atoms in the cluster for Al₁ and Ti₁ than for Pd₁.

Discussion

We have presented a systematic approach to probe the impact of electrode material on structure and electron transport at metal-*sp*² carbon interfaces. DFT simulations confirm our observations and rationalize the observed properties. We find that some experimental parameters (the contact distance z_c) directly reflect the strength of the metal-C bonds, but also that this strength does not necessarily reflect its conductive properties. In fact, we

conclude that the ability of a metal atom to efficiently inject charges into a sp^2 carbon atom is intimately linked to its chemical valence. For transition metals, it appears that elements in the centre of the d -block present a higher ability for charge injection than atoms from the d -block extrema due to a higher density of states at the Fermi level. Charge transfer between the metal adatom and the contacted C atoms of the C_{60} molecule modifies somewhat the position of the molecular resonances that also affects the conductance of the atomic-scale contact. Our single- C_{60} junctions are thus good models to explore the properties of electric contacts to sp^2 carbon materials.

Methods

STM setup. The experiments were performed with an Omicron low-temperature STM operated at ≈ 4.5 K in ultrahigh vacuum (below 10^{-10} mbar). Cu(111) samples and etched W tips were prepared by Ar^+ bombardment and annealing. W tips were indented into the sample surface to cover them with Cu. Approximately 0.2 monolayer of C_{60} molecules were deposited on a sample kept at room temperature. Au, Pd, Fe, Ti or Al atoms were deposited on the C_{60} -covered Cu(111) surface kept at low temperature (4.5 K). Cu atoms were deposited using the method described in ref. 25.

Identification of the different metallic species. In a first step, each of the metallic species (except Cu_1) was evaporated individually (that is, different experimental sets) on a pristine Cu(111) sample maintained at low temperature. As referenced in the paper, Cu_1 was systematically deposited by contacting the Cu(111) surface with the STM tip. For Cu_1 , Au_1 and Fe_1 , it was possible to register

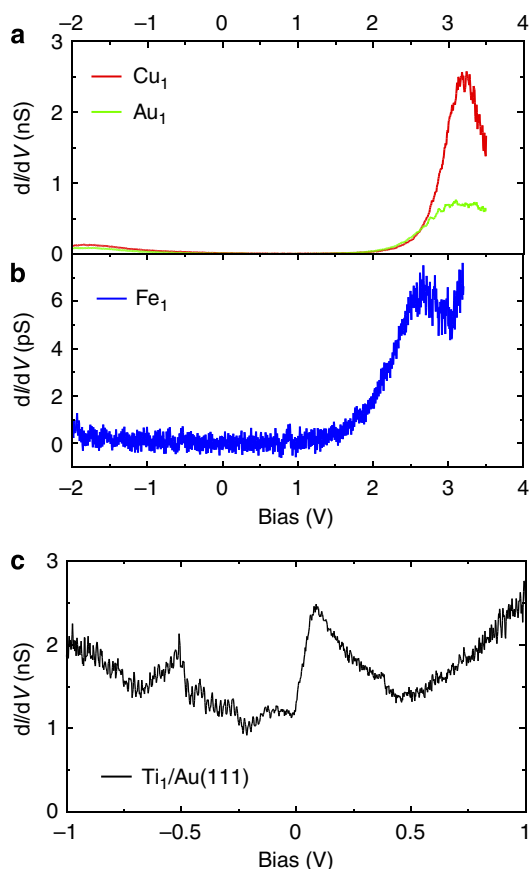


Figure 5 | Experimental constant-height spectra of deposited adatoms recorded with a metallic STM tip. (a) Cu_1 , Au_1 and (b) Fe_1 deposited on Cu(111). Note that the spectrum in **b** was acquired with a lower current set point to limit instabilities at high voltages. These spectra are characteristic of the different species and are used to identify them. (c) Ti_1 deposited on Au(111). The same features as those reported in ref. 27 confirm that we evaporated Ti_1 . The structure around ≈ -0.5 V corresponds to the localization of the Au(111) surface state at the adatom.

constant height differential conductance (dI/dV) spectra over a large energy range (Fig. 5a,b). The dI/dV spectra were acquired using lock-in detection with a modulation frequency of 740 Hz and a root-mean-square modulation amplitude of 10 mV. These data reveal resonances characteristic of the different species. The dI/dV spectra of $Cu_1/Cu(111)$ are even referenced in the literature²⁶. Using these signatures, it was easy to discriminate these three adatoms from each other on the surface. The dI/dV spectra of Pd_1 , Ti_1 and Al_1 could not be measured because of instabilities at high voltages. This is why these elements were measured separately and were only compared with Cu_1 (which can be easily identified). It is therefore impossible to take one species for another.

We had a particularly critical look at the Ti_1 and Al_1 cases. Although the evaporation of Cu_1 , Au_1 , Pd_1 and Fe_1 is well known and relatively easy to control, Ti_1 and Al_1 are less documented. Ti_1 was deposited by T. Jamneala *et al.*²⁷ on Au(111). In this case, dI/dV data reveal a small Kondo feature at the Fermi level as well as a characteristic feature around 150 mV (most likely a $3d$ -orbital resonance). We were able to reproduce these features (Fig. 5c), which validates the evaporation of Ti_1 . Unfortunately, Al_1 reveals no features in dI/dV spectroscopy and this strategy can thus not be used for the identification. To investigate if the evaporated material really corresponds to individual atoms (and not clusters of atoms), we used atom manipulation techniques to form dimers Al_2 and trimers Al_3 (Fig. 6). The fuzzy image in Fig. 6e is a strong indication of a dimer, similar to the $Cu_2/Cu(111)$ case²⁶. While we cannot rule out a possible contamination of the deposited adatoms, we believe the manipulation sequence is a strong support for Al_1 .

C_{60} - M_1 binding energy calculations. The binding energy E_b between a C_{60} molecule and a single metallic atom M_1 is defined as $E_b(C_{60}M_1) = E_{tot}(C_{60}) + E_{tot}(M_1) - E_{tot}(C_{60}M_1)$, where $E_{tot}(i)$ is the total energy of system i from a spin-polarized calculation. A positive binding energy thus corresponds to a stable system. DFT calculations were carried out with the Vasp code²⁸ using a 515-eV plane-wave cutoff, the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) of Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) for the exchange-correlation functional²⁹, a tetragonal supercell of $14 \times 14 \times 20 \text{ \AA}^3$, a Gaussian smearing of 1 meV for the occupancies, and relaxations until residual forces were smaller than 0.02 eV \AA^{-1} . Constraints were imposed to fix the metal atom to different binding sites on the C_{60} cage. The results for the binding energies E_b , spin magnetic moment μ and characteristic bond lengths are given in Tables 2 and 3. These trends are mostly in agreement with those reported in ref. 23. We checked the role of applying a dipole correction for electrostatic interactions between neighbouring cells along the dimer axis, but this only affects the binding energies by a few percent for our simulation cells (Supplementary Table 1).

Electronic structure of model junctions. The electronic structure for the various junction geometries (Fig. 3a) was calculated with the Siesta¹⁸ pseudopotential DFT method with the GGA-PBE exchange-correlation functional²⁹ as described in refs 11 and 15. The junctions are modelled by structures comprising a 13-layer slab Cu(111) in a 4×4 representation, the adatom as well as the C_{60} molecule.

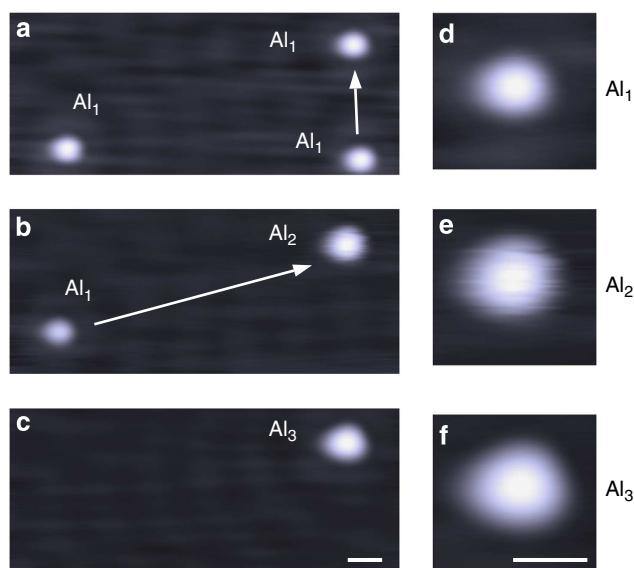


Figure 6 | Experimental STM images of a manipulation sequence on Cu(111). (a) Three individual Al_1 are arranged into (b) Al_1 and a dimer Al_2 , and finally into (c) a trimer Al_3 . Panels (e,f) show image close ups of the cluster to the upper right. The scale bar, 1 nm.

Table 2 | Calculated binding energies and spin magnetic moments of C₆₀-M₁ clusters.

	Al ₁	Au ₁	Co ₁	Cu ₁	Fe ₁	Pd ₁	Ti ₁
5:6 bond	1.23 (1)	0.58 (1)	1.32 (1)	0.87 (1)	1.02 (4)	1.69 (0)	1.61 (4)
6:6 bond	1.38 (1)	0.55 (1)	1.67 (1)	0.74 (1)	1.03 (2)	1.93 (0)	2.06 (2)
Corner	1.26 (1)	0.75 (1)	1.15 (3)	0.87 (1)	0.92 (4)	1.56 (0)	1.45 (4)
Hexagon	1.22 (1)	—	1.14 (1)	0.18 (1)	1.03 (2)	0.95 (0)	2.30 (2)
Pentagon	1.39 (1)	—	1.23 (1)	0.42 (1)	0.61 (4)	1.26 (0)	1.84 (4)

Vasp GGA-PBE binding energies E_b in eV (spin magnetic moment μ in μ_B) for different metallic species M₁ bonded at specific sites of a C₆₀ molecule. Non-bonding configurations are indicated with —.

Table 3 | Calculated bond lengths of C₆₀-M₁ clusters.

	Al ₁	Au ₁	Co ₁	Cu ₁	Fe ₁	Pd ₁	Ti ₁
5:6 bond	2.30	2.29	1.94	2.07	2.07	2.12	2.25
6:6 bond	2.32	2.29	1.92	2.06	1.98	2.09	2.09
Corner	2.18	2.12	1.93	1.95	1.98	2.01	2.19
Hexagon	2.66	—	2.17	2.46	2.18	2.50	2.28
Pentagon	2.53	—	2.10	2.37	2.35	2.41	2.35

Vasp GGA-PBE results for the average bond length (in Å) between the metallic species M₁ and the bonding-C atoms. Non-bonding configurations are indicated with —.

A standard single-zeta plus polarization basis was employed for bulk Cu (0.15-eV energy shift) and a long-ranged (0.02-eV energy shift), double-zeta plus polarization basis for C₆₀ and the adatoms. The pseudopotentials were constructed according to the parameters specified in Supplementary Table 2. Real-space grid integrations were carried out using a 200 Ry energy cutoff. The 3D Brillouin zone was sampled with a $2 \times 2 \times 1$ Monkhorst-Pack k -mesh. The lattice constant for the Cu crystal was set to 3.70 Å. As a function of varying the electrode separation L (Fig. 3a), the adatoms and underlying surface layer were relaxed to 0.02 eV \AA^{-1} . The adatom heights h and radial distances r to the molecular symmetry axis are reported in Supplementary Fig. 7. PDOS were calculated using Inelastica³⁰ with a 13×13 k_{\parallel} -mesh of Gauss-Kronrod points and a broadening of $\eta = 0.1 \text{ eV}$ in the bulk part of the semi-infinite electrodes.

First-principles transport simulations. The electronic structure from Siesta was used to calculate the transport properties for the TranSiesta¹⁹ setup using Inelastica³⁰. The zero-bias conductance G is determined by the electron transmission function $T(E)$ evaluated at the Fermi energy E_F :

$$G = G_0 T(E_F), \quad (1)$$

where $G_0 = 2e^2/h$ is the conductance quantum. We calculate the electron transmission in two different approaches as described below.

The typical approach is to calculate $T(E_F)$ per unit cell for a system which is periodically repeated in the plane perpendicular to the electron transport. This periodic (P) approach is consistent with the DFT treatment that relies on this periodicity. As a consequence of Bloch's theorem, the electron transmission is averaged over k -points in the 1st Brillouin zone (with weights $w_k = 1/N_k$ when using a linearly spaced mesh with N_k points):

$$T_P(E) = \langle T(E, k) \rangle_k \approx \sum_k w_k T(E, k). \quad (2)$$

Here $T(E, k)$ is the electron transmission resolved in terms of electron momentum k

$$T(E, k) = \text{Tr}[G(E, k)\Gamma_L(E, k)G^\dagger(E, k)\Gamma_R(E, k)], \quad (3)$$

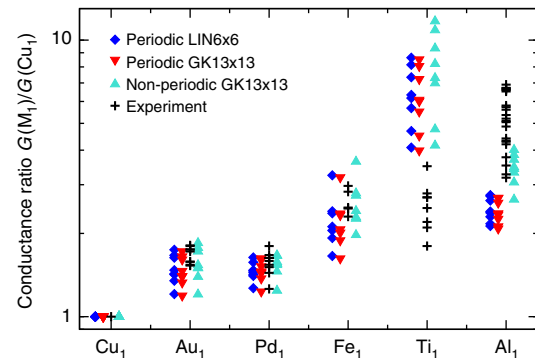
and where the retarded Green's function G in the device region is

$$G(E, k) = [(E + i\eta)S(k) - H(k) - \Sigma_L(E, k) - \Sigma_R(E, k)]^{-1}, \quad (4)$$

with $S(k)$ and $H(k)$ being the overlap and Hamiltonian matrices, respectively. The electrode-coupling rates are related to the self-energies via

$$\Gamma_{L/R}(E, k) \equiv i[\Sigma_{L/R}(E, k) - \Sigma_{L/R}^\dagger(E, k)]. \quad (5)$$

The experiment, however, concerns a single C₆₀-functionalized STM tip in contact with a single adatom on Cu(111). Our alternative computational approach, more in line with this situation, corresponds to partitioning the system into periodic leads (where quantities are k -sampled) and a 'non-periodic' device region (which does not depend on k). This is similar to a real-space DFT approach for STM simulations^{31,32} and methods used for phonon transport through nanoconstrictions^{33,34}. For our simulation cells, the natural choice is to consider the adatom and C₆₀ as the device, since the electronic coupling between these

**Figure 7 | Comparison of conductance ratios with different computational approaches.**

Calculations for periodic arrays of C₆₀ junctions with the transmission $T(E_F)$ sampled on a k -mesh of 6×6 linearly spaced points (blue diamonds) or with 13×13 Gauss-Kronrod points (red triangles) in 1st Brillouin zone (1BZ). Calculations for a 'non-periodic' molecular junction with electrode self-energies $\Sigma_{L/R}$ sampled on a k -mesh of 13×13 Gauss-Kronrod points in 1BZ (turquoise triangles). The device region consists of the adatom and C₆₀. The experimental ratios (black crosses) are shown for comparison.

atoms and their periodic repetitions is significantly smaller than for the Cu atoms in the two semi-infinite electrodes. The transmission $T_{NP}(E)$ is then given by

$$T_{NP}(E) = \text{Tr}[G(E)\langle \Gamma_L(E, k) \rangle_k G^\dagger(E)\langle \Gamma_R(E, k) \rangle_k], \quad (6)$$

where now the device Green's function G is thought to concern a single junction

$$G(E) = [(E + i\eta)S - H - \langle \Sigma_L(E, k) \rangle_k - \langle \Sigma_R(E, k) \rangle_k]^{-1}, \quad (7)$$

with only the self-energies being sampled over k . In practice, since the device region may not be completely decoupled from its periodic repetitions, we sample $T_{NP}(E)$ over a coarse 3×3 - k -mesh for the device part (H and S) and check that there are only small variations on this mesh.

Figure 7 compares the conductance ratios for the two computational schemes as well as for different sampling of k -space (6×6 linearly spaced points versus 13×13 Gauss-Kronrod points). We find that the latter 'non-periodic' approach, implemented on this occasion in Inelastica³⁰, gives a slightly better overall agreement with the experimental conductance ratios (in particular for the Al₁ case). The figure also highlights the convergence in k -space as essentially the same conductance ratios are obtained for the two periodic sets of calculations (blue diamonds versus red triangles). In the Gauss-Kronrod scheme, a broadening of $\eta = 0.1 \text{ eV}$ was used in the bulk electrode.

The absolute conductances for both schemes are shown in Supplementary Figs 8 and 9. Further, for the spin-polarized species (Fe and Ti) the transmission per spin channel as well as the transmission spin polarization is shown in Supplementary Fig. 4. We also checked that the calculated conductance ratios for Al₁ shows no significant dependence on the C₆₀-orientation (Supplementary Fig. 10).

Kondo physics. We note that eventual Kondo physics^{35,36}, beyond the DFT methods employed here, is not expected to impact our results. No Kondo resonances were experimentally resolved in dI/dV for any of the considered species on Cu(111). Therefore, even if a narrow Kondo feature would exist for species like Fe₁ and Ti₁, it has a negligible effect on the measured conductance at $V = -50 \text{ mV}$.

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Acknowledgements

We thank Daniel Sánchez-Portal, Andrés Arnau, Magnus Paulsson, Mads Brandbyge, Andrea Donarini and Hervé Bulou for stimulating discussions, and Jean-Georges Faullumel for technical support. T.F. and G.F. acknowledge the support of the Basque Departamento de Educación and the UPV/EHU (Grant No. IT-756-13), the Spanish Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad (Grant No. FIS2010-19609-CO2-00) and the European Union Integrated Project PAMS. T.F. and G.F. thank Center for Nanostructured Graphene (Project DNRF58) for hospitality. F.S. and G.S. acknowledge the Agence Nationale de la Recherche for financial support (Contracts TRANSMOL ANR-2010-JCJC-1004 and SPINCOMM ANR-13-BS10-0016).

Author contributions

The experiment was conceived by G.S. and carried out by G.S., F.S. and V.S. T.F. and G.F. performed the simulations. T.F. and G.S. wrote the paper with comments and input from all authors.

Additional information

Supplementary Information accompanies this paper at <http://www.nature.com/naturecommunications>

Competing financial interests: The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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How to cite this article: Frederiksen, T. *et al.* Chemical control of electrical contact to sp² carbon atoms. *Nat. Commun.* **5**:3659 doi: 10.1038/ncomms4659 (2014).



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