

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Realization of Iodinene with Tunable Topological Edge States and Flat Bands

Dong Li^{1,2} | Yu Wang^{1,2} | Xinlei Zhao³ | Jisong Gao^{1,2} | Zhicheng Gao^{1,2} | Yudian Zhou^{1,2} | Yogendra Kumar⁴ | Chenmin Liu^{1,2} | Xuegao Hu^{1,2} | Qiaoxiao Zhao^{1,2} | Peng Cheng^{1,2} | Masashi Arita⁴ | Shin-ichiro Ideta⁴ | Kenya Shimada⁴ | Kehui Wu^{5,8} | Yong Xu³ | Lan Chen^{1,2,6} | Baojie Feng^{1,2,7,8} 

¹Institute of Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China | ²School of Physical Sciences, University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China |

³State Key Laboratory of Low Dimensional Quantum Physics and Department of Physics, Tsinghua University, Beijing, China | ⁴Research Institute for Synchrotron Radiation Science (HiSOR), Hiroshima University, Higashi-Hiroshima, Japan | ⁵Tsientang Institute for Advanced Study, Hangzhou, Zhejiang, China |

⁶School of Physics, Hangzhou Normal University, Hangzhou, China | ⁷Songshan Lake Materials Laboratory, Dongguan, Guangdong, China |

⁸Interdisciplinary Institute of Light-Element Quantum Materials and Research Center For Light-Element Advanced Materials, Peking University, Beijing, China

Correspondence: Lan Chen (lchen@iphy.ac.cn) | Baojie Feng (bjfeng@iphy.ac.cn)

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ABSTRACT

Halogens, known for their diatomic molecular structures, typically do not form extended covalent materials. The development of 2D elemental materials from halogens is therefore significant for both fundamental research and practical applications. Here, we report the realization of a monolayer iodine sheet, namely iodine, with multiple exotic properties. Using angle-resolved photoemission spectroscopy, scanning tunneling microscopy, and first-principles calculations, we show that iodine hosts 2D topological crystalline insulator states, a long-sought topological state previously observed only in 3D materials. Moreover, iodine is exceptionally stable under ambient conditions. By applying a tensile strain of 48%, we realize two nearly flat bands with robust topological edge states in between, paving the way for the design and fabrication of tunable topological and spintronic devices.

1 | Introduction

Monoelemental 2D materials beyond graphene, known as Xenes, have garnered significant attention over the past decade [1–4]. Due to their intriguing physical, chemical, and biological properties, Xenes are considered promising materials for optoelectronic and spintronic devices, biomedical applications, and high-capacity batteries. To date, various Xenes—including those derived from Group III to Group VI elements and even transition metals—have been successfully synthesized, such as borophene [5, 6], silicene [7, 8], stanene [9, 10], bismuthene [11, 12], tellurene [13, 14], molybdenene [15], and goldene [16]. However, these

materials often suffer from rapid degradation in air, limiting their ex situ characterization and hindering practical applications. For instance, silicene field-effect transistors degrade within just 2 min in air despite their notable carrier mobility [17]. Although borophene exhibits some resistance to oxidation, a significant portion can still be rapidly oxidized [6]. Furthermore, the limited range of exotic properties in most Xenes restricts their application in multifunctional quantum devices.

To overcome these challenges, a promising strategy is to synthesize Xenes from materials with high electronegativity and strong spin-orbit coupling (SOC), such as halogens. Under standard

Dong Li, Yu Wang and Xinlei Zhao contributed equally to this work.

conditions, most halogens are gases, making the synthesis of solid-state Xenex challenging. Iodine, however, is a notable exception, as it maintains its crystalline phase under ambient conditions. Its reactivity and polarizability make it essential in organic synthesis, catalysis, and halogen bonding, enabling advancements in pharmaceuticals, supramolecular chemistry, and crystal engineering. Recently, few-layer iodine nanosheets have been synthesized via liquid-phase exfoliation [18–21]. These nanosheets have shown promise for applications such as high-rate ion batteries [18, 19] and antibacterial therapies, including treatments for bacterial wound infections and pneumonia [20, 21]. However, monolayer iodine with covalent bonding has not yet been realized, and the electronic properties of iodine remain largely unexplored. Theoretical calculations predict several monolayer iodine structures stabilized by halogen bonding and diatomic molecular arrangements, exhibiting exotic properties such as nontrivial topology, flat bands, and remarkable optical characteristics [22, 23]. Recently, a honeycomb iodine structure has been reported by a mild liquid-phase method under ambient conditions, but its intriguing electronic structure has not been experimentally investigated [24].

Topological crystalline insulators (TCIs) [25–28] represent a novel class of quantum materials where topological protection arises from crystalline symmetries rather than time-reversal symmetry, as is the case in conventional topological insulators. Consequently, TCIs offer robust electronic properties under a wide range of conditions, such as in the presence of magnetic fields or symmetry-conserving lattice distortions [29]. Moreover, TCIs support multiple Dirac cones, providing opportunities for the hybridization of Majorana zero modes when interfaced with superconductors [30]. To date, however, experimental work has predominantly focused on 3D TCIs. In the 2D limit, TCIs exhibit even more exotic properties [31–35], including gate-controllable Fermi levels, electric-field-tunable band gaps [31], and large-Chern-number quantum anomalous Hall effects [32], and strain-tunable topological phase transitions [34]. Nevertheless, the experimental realization of 2D TCIs remains challenging due to the limited availability of suitable material candidates.

Here, we report the realization of monolayer iodine on Au(111) using molecular beam epitaxy (MBE). We investigated its atomic and electronic structures through scanning tunneling microscopy/spectroscopy (STM/S) and angle-resolved photoemission spectroscopy (ARPES), supported by first-principles calculations. Remarkably, iodine exhibits exceptional air stability and several unprecedented properties, including 2D TCI states, high strain tolerance without altering its topological characteristics, and strain-tunable flat bands.

2 | Results

2.1 | DFT Calculations of Freestanding Iodine

Freestanding iodine has a triangular lattice with space group P6/mmm, where each iodine atom is covalently bonded to six nearest neighbors, as illustrated in Figure 1a. After full structural relaxation, the lattice constant is determined to be $a = 3.37 \text{ \AA}$, indicating that this geometry corresponds to a local minimum on the potential-energy surface for freestanding iodine. Figure 1b

depicts the band structures without and with SOC, respectively. In the absence of SOC, the two highest valence bands are degenerate at the Γ point and along the M-K- Γ path; these degeneracies are lifted when SOC is included. However, the SOC-induced gap is not global due to the dispersive nature of these bands, which can be viewed as an insulator defined on a curved Fermi level, as indicated by the grey shaded regions in Figure 1b. Applying tensile strain reduces the bandwidth of each band, potentially leading to the formation of a global gap. Figure S1 presents the calculated band structures for various lattice constants, demonstrating the expected gradual decrease in bandwidth with increasing tensile strain. When the lattice constant reaches 5.0 \AA , corresponding to a tensile strain of approximately 48%, the bandwidth decreases by an order of magnitude, and only a slightly negative gap remains according to Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) functional calculations, as shown in Figure 1c. We will show later that a global gap exists when iodine is grown on Au(111), which is essential for the detection of the topological edge states (TESSs) discussed subsequently. Notably, the bands still exhibit finite dispersion, indicating the persistence of the I–I bonds.

Since the freestanding monolayer iodine possesses mirror symmetry M_z , its topology can be classified using the mirror Chern number $C_{M_z} = (C_{+i} - C_{-i})/2$ [26, 31, 36, 37] where $C_{\pm i}$ are the Chern numbers for the eigenstates with $M_z = \pm i$. We employed the Wilson loop method [38, 39] to compute C_{M_z} for the lowest four occupied bands. Our calculations show that $C_{M_z} = 2$, as illustrated in Figure 1d, indicating the presence of two pairs of counter-propagating, spin-polarized TESSs within the gap. We calculated the TESSs of iodine with $a = 5.0 \text{ \AA}$, which form two Dirac cones along the (01) edge (the x direction) and the ($2\bar{1}$) edge (the y direction), as shown in Figure S2. On the projected (01) edge, two pairs of counter-propagating TESSs with opposite mirror eigenvalues are clearly visible, which connect two energy bands and intersect, forming two Dirac points along the $\bar{\Gamma} - \bar{X} - \bar{\Gamma}$ line. On the projected ($2\bar{1}$) edge, two pairs of TESSs intersect at the \bar{Y} point and subsequently merge into the bulk states along the $\bar{\Gamma} - \bar{Y} - \bar{\Gamma}$ direction. Moreover, there is no band crossing or inversion with changes in the lattice constant, suggesting that the nontrivial topology in the iodine is robust against tensile strain. Thus, we conclude that the freestanding iodine belongs to the topological crystalline insulator phase with $C_{M_z} = 2$ and possesses two pairs of helical edge states.

2.2 | Epitaxial Growth of Iodine on Au(111)

The adsorption of halogen atoms on noble metal surfaces has been extensively studied over the past decades [40]. For example, the I/Au(111) system can be prepared by depositing a dilute solution of iodine in methanol [41]. We develop a method for synthesizing a high-quality iodine monolayer on Au(111) by directly evaporating nickel diiodide (NiI_2) under ultra-high vacuum conditions. Since the decomposition temperature of NiI_2 is lower than the evaporation temperature of the NiI_2 molecules, we can ensure the growth of pure iodine without Ni contaminants, as confirmed by our X-ray photoemission spectroscopy measurements (Figure S4). Remarkably, we find that the resulting iodine monolayer forms a covalently bonded 2D material—iodine—rather than a simple adsorbed layer.

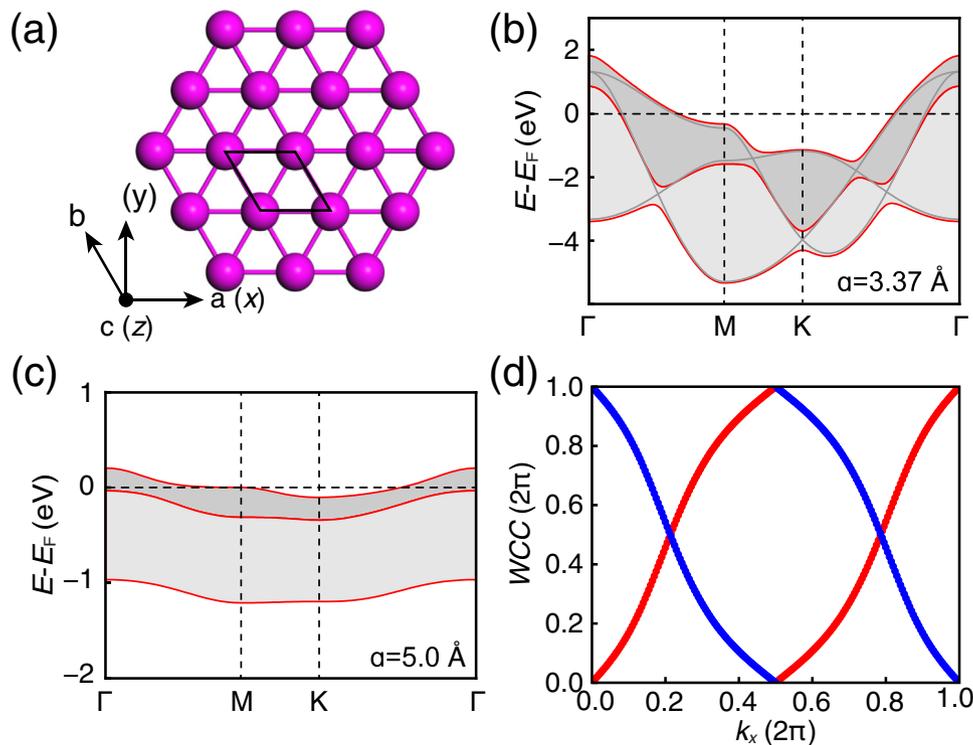


FIGURE 1 | Atomic and electronic structures of iodine. (a) Schematic illustration of the atomic structure of freestanding iodine. The black rectangle denotes a unit cell. (b) Calculated band structures of optimized freestanding iodine without (grey) and with (red) SOC. The optimized lattice constant is 3.37 Å. (c) Calculated band structure of iodine with a lattice constant of 5 Å, including SOC. (d) Wannier charge centers for $M_z = +i$ (red) and $M_z = -i$ (blue) eigenstates. The grey shaded regions in (b) and (c) indicate the SOC-induced band gaps.

When the iodine coverage reaches approximately one-third of a monolayer, a well-ordered iodine monolayer covers the entire surface, accompanied by the disappearance of the $22 \times \sqrt{3}$ herringbone reconstruction characteristic of pristine Au(111). A high-resolution STM image, Figure 2a, reveals a triangular lattice with a lattice constant of 5.0 Å, corresponding to a $(\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3})R30^\circ$ superstructure ($\sqrt{3}$ -iodine), which is further confirmed by low-energy electron diffraction (LEED) measurements, as shown in Figure S5f. Figure 2c shows the atomic structure of the $\sqrt{3}$ -iodine, and each protrusion in the high-resolution STM image corresponds to one iodine atom. Remarkably, iodine on Au(111) exhibits excellent air stability. LEED patterns and ARPES spectra show negligible degradation of iodine after exposure to air (Figures S6 and S7). The stability of iodine is also confirmed by AFM and STM measurements; after air exposure, the iodine remains unchanged, and negligible adsorbates are observed. The air stability might originate from the high electronegativity and strong bonding of iodine atoms.

Given that freestanding iodine has a lattice constant of 3.37 Å, the $\sqrt{3}$ iodine on Au(111) experiences a tensile strain of approximately 48%. When the iodine coverage exceeds one-third of a monolayer, the $\sqrt{3}$ -iodine transitions into a striped phase with higher iodine density, due to the relaxation of tensile strain through uniaxial compression. This transition is consistent with the system relieving the high strain toward the freestanding structure. As the coverage increases, the spacing between stripes decreases, leading to a denser stripe pattern until a saturated striped phase is achieved. This entire process is monitored by

STM and LEED, as shown in Figure S5. The saturated striped phase has a period of $15 \text{ Å} \times 4.98 \text{ Å}$, corresponding to a $5 \times \sqrt{3}$ superstructure, as shown in Figure 2b,d.

The evolution of the striped phase with increasing iodine coverage suggests that the distance between nearest-neighbor iodine atoms can be tuned quasi-continuously, offering opportunities to study the electronic structure as a function of strain. Interestingly, upon moderate annealing of the saturated stripe phase, the period of iodine gradually increases and eventually reverts to the $\sqrt{3}$ -iodine. This behavior indicates that iodine with a lattice constant of 5.0 Å is the most stable phase on Au(111).

2.3 | ARPES Measurements of the Band Structure

ARPES measurements were performed to investigate the electronic structure of iodine. After the growth of iodine, the Shockley surface state of Au(111) disappears, and only the folded bulk *sp* bands are observed within 1.5 eV below the Fermi level, as shown in Figure 3a–c. At higher binding energies, two nearly flat bands appear along the Γ –M direction of iodine, as indicated by black arrows in Figure 3c. These two bands show negligible dispersion when measured with different photon energies (Figure S8), indicating weak hybridization between the electronic states of Au and iodine. The weak hybridization is reasonable, as the interaction between iodine and gold is among the weakest in halogen-metal systems [40]. This is further supported by our X-ray photoemission spectroscopy

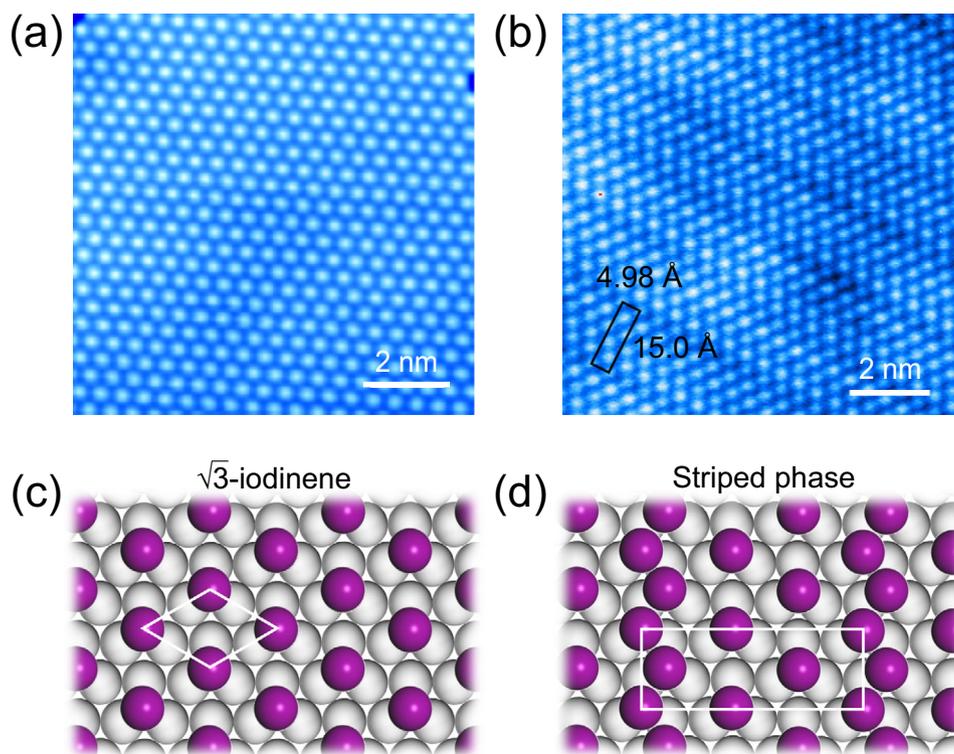


FIGURE 2 | Growth of iodine on Au(111). (a,b) STM images of $\sqrt{3}$ -iodinene and the saturated striped phase on Au(111). (c,d) Atomic structural models of $\sqrt{3}$ -iodinene (c) and the striped phase (d). Purple and grey balls represent I and Au atoms, respectively. The striped phase consists of both strained and unstrained $\sqrt{3}$ -iodinene regions.

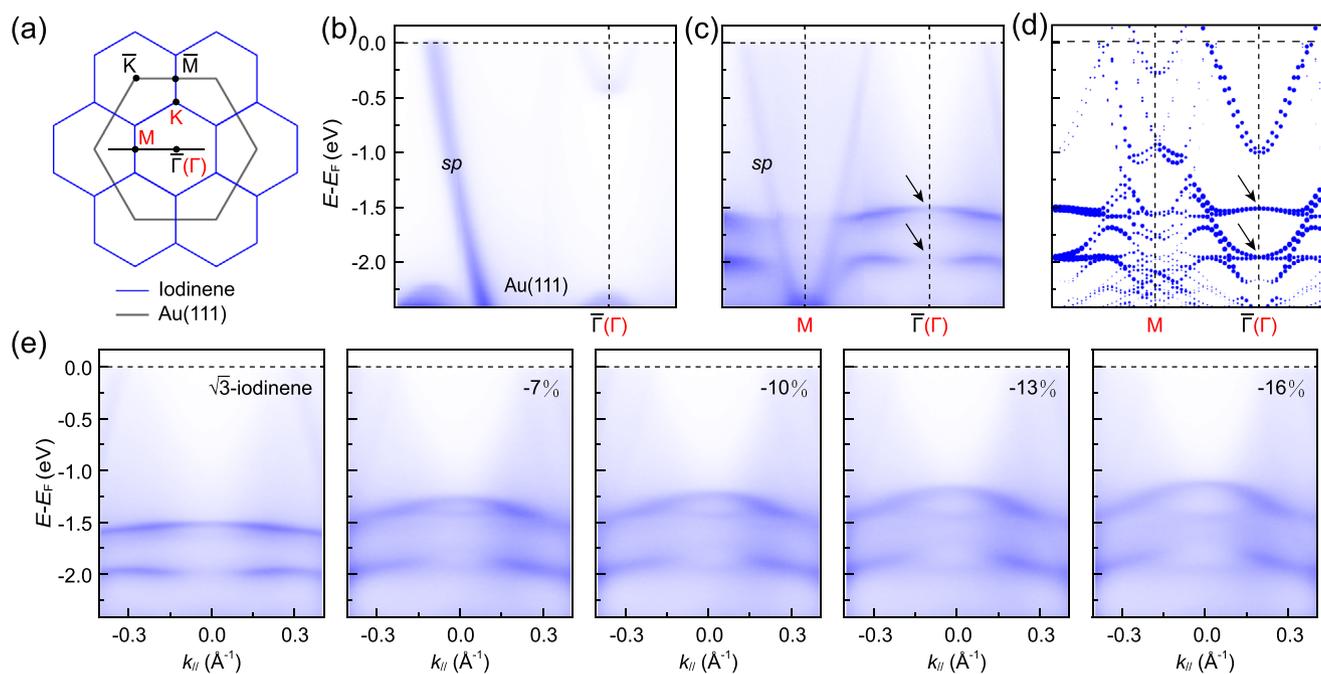


FIGURE 3 | ARPES measurements of iodine. (a) Schematic drawing of the BZs of $\sqrt{3}$ -iodinene and Au(111), respectively. (b,c) ARPES intensity plots along the $\bar{K} - \bar{\Gamma} - \bar{K}$ direction of Au(111) for pristine Au(111) and $\sqrt{3}$ -iodinene, respectively. (d) Unfolded band structures of $\sqrt{3}$ -iodinene, including the substrate. SOC was included in the calculations. The marker size represents the spectral weight projected onto the iodine atoms. (e) ARPES intensity plots of the striped phases. The strain values, relative to the $\sqrt{3}$ -iodinene are indicated in each panel.

measurements (Figure S9). Both bands are nearly flat near the Γ point at binding energies of 1.6 and 2 eV, respectively, and exhibit slight downward dispersion halfway along the Γ -M direction, forming hole-like pockets in the constant energy contours (Figure S10). These bands are symmetric with respect to the M point of iodine, consistent with its periodicity. Notably, the two nearly flat bands have a global gap, making it feasible to detect the TESSs.

To understand the electronic structure of iodine, we performed first-principles calculations including the Au(111) substrate. Using an orbital-selective band unfolding technique, we unfolded the effective band structures of the iodine/Au(111) system onto the first Brillouin zone (BZ) of Au(111), as shown in Figure 3d and Figure S11. The calculated band structures along the $\bar{\Gamma}$ - \bar{K} direction of Au(111) was projected onto the atomic orbitals of iodine to compare with the ARPES data. Our results show excellent agreement with the ARPES measurements. Further calculations reveal that the two nearly flat bands derive from the *p* orbitals of iodine atoms (Figure S12). Notably, these findings are also consistent with the calculated band structures of freestanding iodine shown in Figure 1c. This suggests a weak hybridization between the nearly flat bands of iodine and the Au(111) substrate. At the same time, significant charge transfer occurs at the interface, indicating strong chemical bonding between iodine and Au, which is essential for imposing the large tensile strain on iodine.

We then conducted ARPES measurements on the striped phase, which corresponds to iodine with varying tensile strains, as discussed earlier. The ARPES data are presented in Figure 3e. As the iodine coverage increases or the lattice constant decreases, the two nearly flat bands near the Γ point gradually become more dispersive until the saturated striped phase is formed. Notably, the nearly flat bands remain observable in the striped phase, although their intensity is significantly weaker compared to the $\sqrt{3}$ -iodine, suggesting the non-uniform nature of the stripe phase, as illustrated by the structural model in Figure 2d.

2.4 | Topological Edge States of Iodine

Since the non-trivial band topological properties and the bulk-edge correspondence in iodine, TESSs are expected to exist at arbitrary edges. In unstrained iodine, the absence of a global bandgap and interference from bulk bands make it difficult to detect TESSs using scanning tunneling spectroscopy (STS). However, our ARPES measurements demonstrate that a global bandgap exists in $\sqrt{3}$ -iodine, making it suitable for measuring edge states. The differential conductance (dI/dV) curves acquired on a flat terrace of $\sqrt{3}$ -iodine are shown by the blue line in Figure 4a. Two prominent peaks were observed at 1.59 eV and 1.95 eV, respectively, corresponding to the two nearly flat bands observed in our ARPES measurements Figure 3c. The dI/dV curves taken near the edges reveal an increase in spectral weight between these two peaks, as shown by the red lines in Figure 4a and Figure S13, indicating the presence of in-gap edge states. This behavior is in good agreement with the calculated local density of states, as shown in Figure 4b.

Next, we investigated the spatial distribution of the TESSs through a series of dI/dV maps on $\sqrt{3}$ -iodine with a step edge of Au(111), as shown in Figure 4c1-c5. A trivial edge state is located directly at the atomic edges over a wide energy range, as indicated by the black arrow in Figure 4c. However, an additional unique edge state appears on both the upper and lower terraces, slightly away from the atomic edges, as indicated by the red arrows. This state is only observed from -1.70 to 1.85 eV, which is between the two nearly flat bands, in contrast to the trivial edge states that exist over a wider energy range. For comparison, we performed STS measurements on the striped phase, and the results are shown in Figure 4d1-d5. As expected, neither the gap nor the edge states were observed due to the lack of a global bandgap.

To further confirm the robustness of the edge states, we studied a submonolayer $\sqrt{3}$ -iodine with irregular holes, as shown in Figure 4e1-e4. The dI/dV maps display additional spectral weight around the holes at energies from -1.70 to -1.80 eV, corresponding to the TESSs, as indicated by the red arrows. This observation suggests that the edge states are independent of the crystalline orientation, consistent with their topological origin. Notably, the edge states were observed around the edges of the holes, while the interiors, being bare Au(111), did not exhibit such states. Collectively, our findings provide solid evidence for the existence of TESSs in $\sqrt{3}$ -iodine, suggesting the nontrivial topological nature of iodine.

It should be noted that the mirror symmetry M_z is broken when iodine is grown on Au(111), as one side of the iodine layer interfaces with the substrate while the other faces vacuum. Generally, breaking mirror symmetry would result in the opening of a band gap at the Dirac points formed by the TESSs of a 2D TCI. However, we did not observe such a gap within our experimental resolution, likely due to the weak band hybridization between iodine and Au(111). On the other hand, for the gapless Dirac points at time-reversal invariant momenta [such as the \bar{Y} point shown in Figure S2], the band crossings are simultaneously protected by time-reversal symmetry and mirror symmetry M_z . These band crossings would be destroyed only if both symmetries are broken. Therefore, the TESSs of iodine are preserved on Au(111).

The mirror symmetry M_z , which protects the TESSs of iodine, can be broken by applying a perpendicular electric field. Therefore, it is feasible to induce band gaps in the TESSs through an external electric field. This indicates that the conductance of iodine can be precisely controlled via electric fields, in addition to the gate voltages used in conventional 2D materials. Similar properties have been predicted in other 2D TCIs such as $Pb_{1-x}Sn_xSe(Te)$ [31] and Sb/Bi honeycomb structures [42, 43]. This mechanism can achieve high on/off speeds and power efficiency [44]. In contrast, achieving an energy gap in a quantum spin Hall insulator typically requires external magnetic fields or induced ferromagnetism, both of which present challenges [45]. Additionally, because the spin polarization in the *z* direction is proportional to the M_z eigenvalue, the electric current carried by the TESSs of iodine is spin polarized. Reversing the direction of the current will also reverse the spin polarization, indicating a full entanglement of charge and spin transport [31]. Therefore, it is possible to realize a topological transistor device where charge

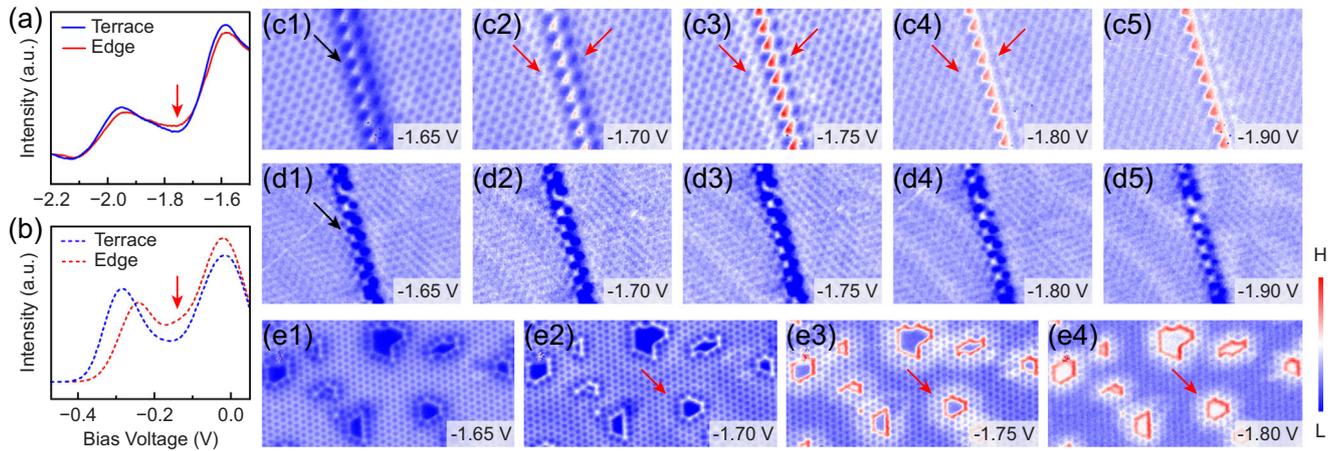


FIGURE 4 | Topological edge states of iodine. (a) dI/dV spectra acquired on a flat terrace (blue) and at a step edge (red), respectively. The data were normalized by I/V . (b) Calculated density of states of bulk (blue) and edge (red) atoms in freestanding nanoribbons. (c1)–(c5) and (d1)–(d5) dI/dV mappings of $\sqrt{3}$ -iodine and the striped phase across step edges, respectively. (e1)–(e4) dI/dV mappings of $\sqrt{3}$ -iodine on an area with irregular holes. Black and red arrows indicate trivial and topological edge states, respectively.

and spin transport can be simultaneously controlled by an electric field.

In summary, we present compelling experimental and theoretical evidence for monolayer iodine, a material that hosts multiple exotic properties—including air stability, symmetry-protected topological edge states, and strain-tunable flat electronic bands. Beyond the discovery of a new elemental 2D material, our work introduces a substrate-enabled strategy to simultaneously stabilize the lattice and engineer nontrivial band topology and electronic correlations in the 2D limit. These findings not only deepen the understanding of 2D topological materials but also establish iodine as a versatile platform for exploring robust edge transport and flat-band physics, opening pathways toward designing multifunctional quantum devices.

3 | Experimental Section

3.1 | Sample Preparation

Iodine samples were prepared in an MBE chamber with a base pressure better than 1×10^{-10} mbar. Iodine atoms were evaporated from a NiI_2 source onto Au(111) substrates at room temperature. The NiI_2 source temperature was maintained at 500 and 650 K for the growth of iodine and NiI_2 , respectively. Prior to growth, the Au(111) substrates were cleaned by repeated argon ion sputtering and annealing cycles. The quality of the samples was confirmed by LEED, STM, and ARPES measurements.

3.2 | ARPES and STM Measurements

ARPES measurements were performed using both laboratory and synchrotron facilities. Three light sources were employed: a helium discharge lamp (He α radiation), a 10.8 eV p -polarized laser [46], and synchrotron radiation. The samples were maintained at 70 K during measurements. The base pressure during ARPES measurements was approximately 1×10^{-10} mbar.

STM experiments were conducted using a home-built low-temperature STM. All topographic images and scanning tunneling spectroscopy spectra were acquired at 5 K using a chemically etched tungsten tip. The bias voltages were defined as the sample bias with respect to the tip. The dI/dV spectra were measured with a modulation voltage of 20 mV at 667 Hz. Atomic force microscopy (AFM) measurements were conducted using a commercial scanning probe microscope (Asylum Research Cypher S, Oxford Instruments) at room temperature in ambient conditions.

3.3 | Theoretical Calculations

First-principles calculations were carried out by using density functional theory (DFT) together with the projector augmented wave (PAW) method [47, 48] as implemented in the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) [49, 50]. The Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof type exchange correlation functional [51] was employed. The energy cutoff of the plane wave basis was set to 500 eV. The Brillouin zone was sampled by the Monkhorst-Pack method in the self-consistent process with a $12 \times 12 \times 1$ k -mesh. The thickness of the vacuum along the z -direction was set to >20 Å. The phonon spectrum was calculated using a finite displacement approach as implemented in the PHONOPY code [52]. The maximally localized Wannier functions for the I p orbitals were constructed using the Wannier90 package [53]. The edge spectra were calculated using the surface Green's function of a semi-infinite system [54, 55], as implemented in the WannierTools package [39]. Wannier charge centers were calculated using the WannierTools package [39].

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Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Data Availability Statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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