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# Magnetism and Geometrical Frustration in Archimedean Lattices

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Master's thesis  
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# 1. Introduction

Back in ancient Greece, Archimedes was one of the first people to describe two-dimensional regular patterns. Until now, there are eleven different uniform two-dimensional Archimedean lattices, which are formed from 2D arrangements of regular polygons with every site being topologically equivalent [1–4]. Artists and Scientists in the Renaissance such as Leonardo DaVinci or Albrecht Dürer rediscovered these Archimedean patterns and incorporated them as well as regular and semi-regular polyhedra already known in antiquity in paintings and architecture [5]. In 1619 Kepler derived a complete description of these 2D and 3D patterns in his "Harmonices Mundi" and proved that there exist only eleven Archimedean lattices [2, 6].

As they exhibit exotic physical properties due to geometrical frustration materials with an archimedean lattice attract more and more attention in the fields of condensed matter physic and material science. They provide an ideal playground to systematically study the interplay between magnetic interaction, lattice topology and quantum fluctuations [1]. One speaks of geometrical frustration, which origins in a crystal lattice structure and the frustration of spins, if nearest neighbor interactions compete with each other and hence, a system is unable to simultaneously minimize the competing interactions to the neighboring spins. In 1977 Gerard Toulouse introduced the term frustration in the context of magnetic systems [7, 8], although they had been studied before, for example by G.H. Wannier in 1950 in the context of the Ising model on a triangular lattice [9]. In the early 1970ies spin systems with competing or frustrated interactions have drawn a renewed interest, especially in the context of spin glasses [10].

One of the material groups hosting an Archimedean lattice structures and hence being prone to geometrical frustration exhibit multiple types of exotic properties such as topological non-trivial electronic structures, charge density waves [11] and superconductivity [12, 13] are the Kagome-lattice materials.

Furthermore, the coexistence of Dirac cones and flat bands can produce correlated topological states, and the presence of a magnetic order stabilizes novel quantum anomalous Hall behaviour [14–16]. A subgroup of the Kagome materials consists of the basic building blocks  $T_3X$  with  $T = \text{Fe, Mn, Co}$  and  $X = \text{Ge, Sn}$ . One example is the itinerant Kagome ferromagnet  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$ , where the spin reorientation induces frustrated ferromagnetism [17].  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  also possesses an unusual anomalous Hall effect being three orders of magnitude larger than the anomalous Hall effect in pure Fe [18]. Another member of this material group is the Weyl semimetal  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ , which hosts a giant anomalous Hall effect [19]

and a large Berry curvature [20]. In 2019, another family of layered Kagome metals was discovered by Ortiz *et al.* [21], which have the structure  $AV_3Sb_5$  ( $A = K, Rb, Cs$ ). These two-dimensional metals with high mobility are playgrounds for metallic Dirac physics, frustrated magnetism, unconventional superconductivity among other exotic quantum phenomena. For this thesis the compound  $CsV_3Sb_5$  is of special interest, as it develops, in addition to topological superconductivity, a charge density wave below 94 K, indicating strong electronic correlations [22].

The rare-earth tetraboride  $TmB_4$  is also a member of the Archimedean lattice materials, and its sublattices have the same topology as a frustrated Shastry-Sutherland lattice consisting of perfect squares and nearly equilateral triangles of Tm atoms. Rare-earth tetraborides in general have a long-range magnetic ground state [23] and exhibit rich phase diagrams as a function of magnetic field and temperature [24].  $TmB_4$  also exhibits two additional magnetic effects, namely a magneto-caloric and a rotating magneto-caloric effect [25].

As Raman scattering is a sensitive method to analyze lattice-, electron- and spin dynamics, it affords a window into various types of exotic phenomena, the underlying interactions, and the interrelation thereof. Raman spectra show the superposition of all possible excitations at their corresponding energies in different symmetries [26], which are mapped via the Raman selection rules and show for instance, the impact of electronic or magnetic phase transitions on optical phonons [27].

The thesis is organized as follows: Chapter 2 introduces the examined Kagome lattice materials  $Fe_3Sn_2$ ,  $Co_3Sn_2S_2$ , and  $CsV_3Sb_5$ , and the Tetraboride  $TmB_4$ , their lattice structure, and both their electronic and magnetic properties. Chapter 3 gives an overview of the concepts of Raman scattering. Chapter 4 describes the experimental setup for inelastic light scattering used in this thesis. The experimental Raman scattering results are presented in Chapter 5, which are then discussed in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 summarizes the results obtained.



## 2. Properties of Kagome Lattice Materials and Tetraborides

The following chapter gives an overview of three specific materials with a Kagome lattice structure, in particular  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$ ,  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  and  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$ . Additionally, the tetraboride  $\text{TmB}_4$  and its properties are described.

### 2.1. Kagome Lattice Materials

Materials with Kagome lattice structures can be divided into two different categories: insulating or metallic (semi-metallic) materials. For the latter group, a broad spectrum of instabilities is possible, depending on the degree of electron filling. These include, for example, the wave order of the bond density [12, 28], charge density waves [11] and superconductivity [12, 13].

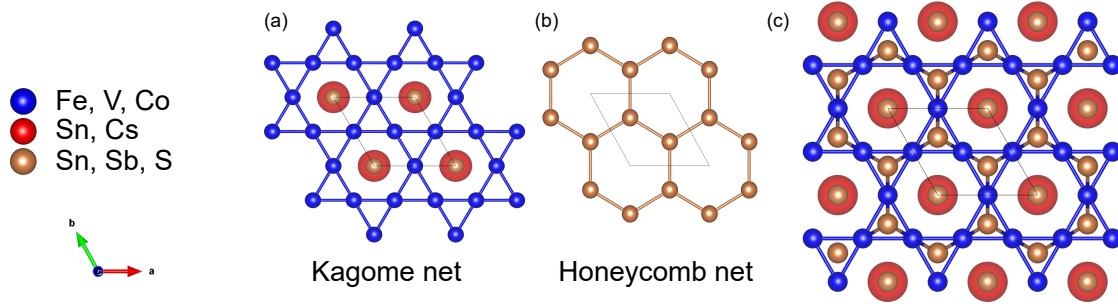
In addition, these materials enable the investigation of topologically non-trivial electronic structures. Here, the coexistence of Dirac cones and flat bands, which promote strong correlation effects, can produce correlated topological states. For example, the presence of a magnetic order stabilizes [14–16] novel quantum anomalous Hall behavior. Moreover, electron-electron interactions can promote the formation of topological insulating phases [29]. In  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$ , the presence of ferromagnetic ordering leads to the splitting of the spin-degenerate Dirac bands. This leads to the generation of a topologically nontrivial phase and a two-dimensional “Chern gap” [15]. A large anomalous Hall reaction and a large Berry curvature make  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  an attractive Weyl semimetal candidate [20]. Besides the two mentioned materials, another family of layered Kagome metals has recently been discovered, which have the structure  $\text{AV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  ( $A = \text{K}, \text{Rb}, \text{Cs}$ ) [21]. These compounds are two-dimensional metals with high mobility and exhibit both correlation effects and potential electronically controlled symmetry breaking [22].

#### 2.1.1. Lattice Structure

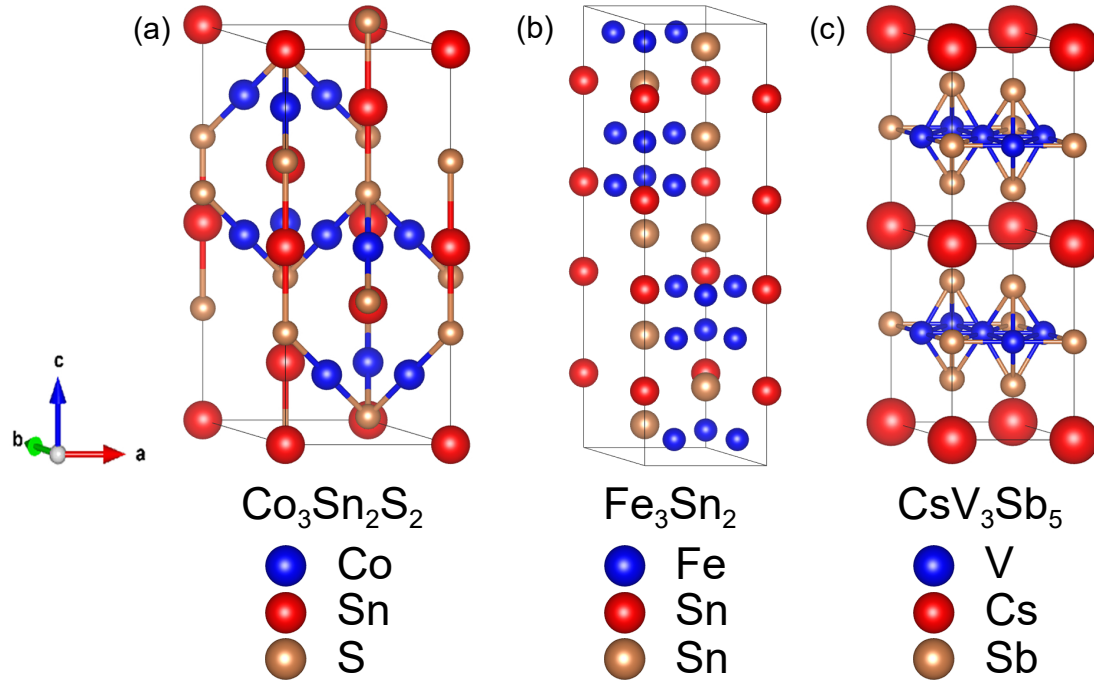
##### $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$ and $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$

The basic building blocks of a subgroup of the Kagome lattice materials examined in this thesis is  $\text{T}_3\text{X}$ , where  $T = \text{Fe}, \text{Mn}, \text{Co}$  and  $X = \text{Ge}, \text{Sn}$ . As shown in Fig. 2.1.1 these Kagome layers are perfectly aligned being either interleaved with Graphite like sulfur (S) layers, tin (Sn) layers [ $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$ : Fig. 2.1.2 (b)] or both of them [ $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ : Fig. 2.1.2 (a)]. These Kagome

lattices have a rhombohedral lattice structure with the space group  $R\bar{3}m$  (Nr. 166). This space group has a triple rotation axis, threefold mirror planes and an inversion center [30].



**Figure 2.1.1.:** 2D lattice structure of the kagome lattices [Fig. 2.1.1 (c)]: Structurally perfectly aligned kagome lattices [blue atoms in Fig. 2.1.1 (a)] are interleaved with two different kind of sublattices. The first sublattice is a simple hexagonal net, which is formed by the X-atoms [red spheres in Fig. 2.1.1 (a)]. The second sublattice is a honeycomb lattice below and above each kagome lattice [gold coloured atoms in Fig. 2.1.1 (b)]. Adapted from [21, 22]



**Figure 2.1.2.:** Crystal structures of the relevant kagome lattice material investigated in this work. Adapted from [17, 22, 31]

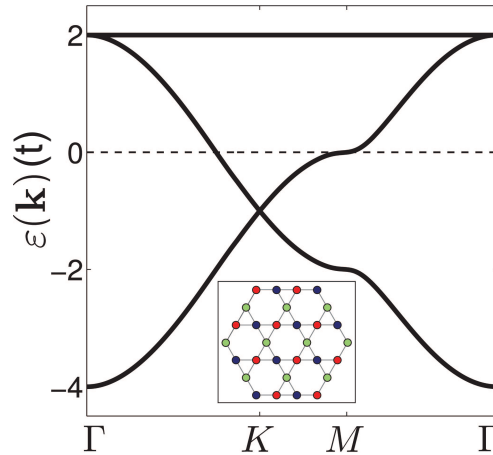
### $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$

The layered superconductor  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  shown in Fig. 2.1.2 (c) with a  $T_C \approx 2.5$  K [22] has a hexagonal crystal structure with V-Sb layers intercalated by Cs. These consist of a structurally perfect, 2D kagome lattice of vanadium [Fig. 2.1.1 (a)]. The first Sb-sublattice is a simple hexagonal net, which is centered on each kagome hexagon. The second sublattice

formed by Sb-atoms forms a honeycomb layer [Fig. 2.1.1 (b)] located above and below each kagome layer [22, 32].

## 2.1.2. Electronic Structure

### Band Structure



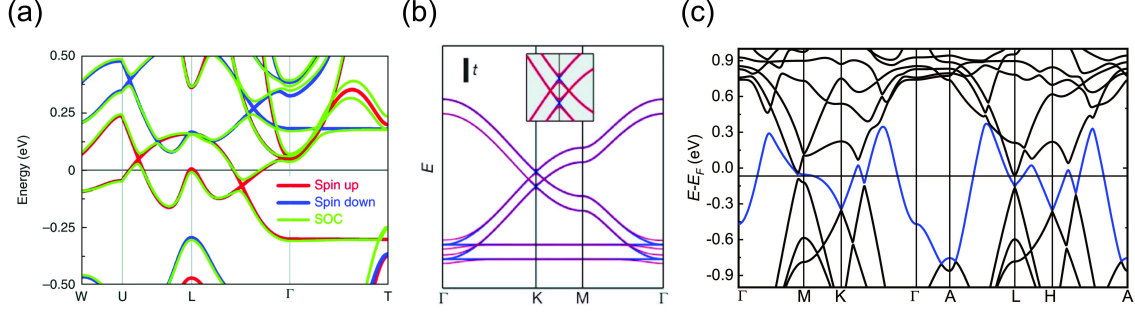
**Figure 2.1.3:** Tight-binding model band structure in units of the kinetic energy term in the tight binding model  $t$  resulting from the three-sublattice structure of the kagome lattice shown in the inset. Taken from [33].

The theoretical band structure of Kagome lattice materials from a tight binding model, which is shown in Fig. 2.1.3 exhibits various characteristic properties for Kagome lattices. The highest band above the Fermi energy is a flat band with low dispersion. The two lower bands are Dirac bands, which cross linearly at the  $K$  point. If one includes spin orbit coupling (SOC), anti-crossings can occur leading to a gap opening [34].

At the  $M$  point the two lower bands show saddle points, which means the dispersion curve runs horizontally and therefore the group velocity goes to zero. Since the dispersion slope is flat at this point, so called Van Hove-singularities or critical points occur at the  $M$  point in the density of states [35]. For energies close to the Fermi level this divergence in the density of states can lead to increased electron correlation with quasiparticles, resulting in various ordered phases of matter such as superconductivity, magnetism and density waves [36].

Expanding on this simple and general approach of a Kagome lattice, the three separate crystals of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ ,  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  and  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  are now described in more detail.

The band structure of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  obtained by density functional theory (DFT) calculations, which is pictured in Fig. 2.1.4 (a), leads to the following three key points: (i) The spin-up channel crosses the Fermi level, which leads to a metallic character, in contrast to the insulating spin down channel with a gap of 0.35 eV. (ii) Two hole pockets are located at  $L$  point and  $L-U$  path and two electron pockets at the  $\Gamma$  point and  $L-\Gamma$  path. This makes



**Figure 2.1.4.:** (a) Band structure of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  [20]. (b) Tight-binding band model of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  with (red) and without (blue) spin-orbit coupling. The in-set shows a magnified view of the double Dirac structure near the  $K$  point. The spin-orbit coupling strength was set to  $\lambda = 0.05 t$  [15]. (c) Calculated electronic band structure of  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  along the high-symmetry directions across the Brillouin zone. The band, which crosses the  $E_F$  is highlighted in blue. Adapted from [37].

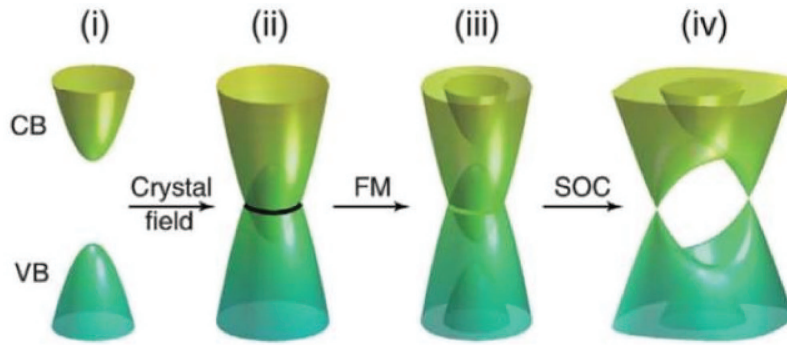
the compound semimetal-like. (iii) Linear band crossings appear along  $L - \Gamma$  paths slightly below and along the  $L - U$  paths slightly above the Fermi energy, which open small gaps with band anti-crossings for finite spin-orbit coupling [20].

The band structure of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  is shown in Fig. 2.1.4 (b). Tight-binding calculations in the double-layer kagome lattice are sufficient to reproduce the main features of the band dispersion in this material. Two overlapped Dirac cones can be found at the  $K$  point, which are located 70 meV and 180 meV below the Fermi level, respectively. A gap opening of 30 meV was identified at the second Dirac point. Therefore, massive Dirac fermions at the  $K$  point dominate the physical properties of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$ . According to Ye *et al.* [15] the  $k_z$  dispersion of this system appears to be irrelevant for this material, indicating the quasi 2D nature of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$ .

The band structure of  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  is pictured in Fig. 2.1.4 (c). First-principle DFT calculations show a metallic behaviour. The band crossing the Fermi level  $E_F$  is highlighted in blue. Dirac-like features are the origin of most of the band crossings at various points like  $H$ ,  $K$ ,  $L$  or even along the  $H - A$  and the  $\Gamma - K$  directions of the Brillouin zone. Multiple Dirac points with nearly linear dispersion are located near the Fermi level  $E_F$ . The band crossings with nearly linear dispersion at  $K$  and  $H$  are not isolated Dirac cones. According to Ortiz *et al.* [21] taking the dispersion along  $K - H$  into account leads to connected features, which form a conical valley. Van Hove singularities occur at the  $\Gamma$  and the  $M$  point close to the Fermi energy [21, 22, 32, 37]

## Weyl-Points

When talking about coincidental touching points of non-degenerate bands corresponding to magnetic monopoles in momentum space [39], one talks about the so-called Weyl points. These are sources or sinks of Berry curvature [40]. Either time reversal symmetry (broken by ferromagnetic transition) or space inversion symmetry should be broken to form these double degenerate Weyl points. This is the difference between a Weyl point and a Dirac



**Figure 2.1.5.:** Schematic drawing illustrating the formation of Weyl points in  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ . The crystal field shifts the bands (i) and makes them overlap (ii). (iii) Ferromagnetism (FM) splits the individual bands in spin-up and spin-down parts. (iv) The spin-orbit interaction (SOC) introduces a coupling between the bands which leads to a gap in most parts of the BZ except for the high-symmetry points. Taken from [38]

point, which is four-fold degenerate and protected by both time reversal and spacial inversion symmetry. The mechanism for the formation of Weyl points in magnetic semimetals is depicted in Fig. 2.1.5. To form a four-fold degenerate (i.e.  $+k \uparrow$ ,  $+k \downarrow$ ,  $-k \uparrow$ ,  $-k \downarrow$ ) nodal ring, the crystal field mixes the conduction band (CB) with the valence band (VB). Afterwards, ferromagnetic transition lifts the spin degeneracy and with the existence of spin-orbit coupling (SOC) the nodal ring splits into a pair of so-called Weyl points with opposite chirality [38].

$\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  is a magnetic Weyl semi metal, which is confirmed by different experiments in the form of the intrinsic large anomalous Hall effect [20, 41], the zero-field Nernst effect [31], and surface Fermi arcs by scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) and angle-resolved photo emission spectroscopy (ARPES) [16, 38]. In this material six nodal rings can be found, whose planes are perpendicular to the  $k_x - k_y$  plane [30]. As described earlier the nodal ring splits and a gap opens except for two Weyl points [Fig. 2.1.5 (iv)], which have opposite chirality and are located 60 meV above the Fermi Energy [20]. There are six Weyl-points in the first Brillouin zone [41].

On one hand  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  is considered to host massive Dirac electronic states. Here the bulk Dirac cones open gaps below the Fermi Energy at the corner of the Brillouin zone [15]. On the other hand Yao *et al.* argued that  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  is a Weyl semimetal, where the quantity and locations of the Weyl points depend on the orientation of the magnetization. They assume the threefold rotational degeneracy of the magnetic domains to be the reason for the absence of Weyl-points in ARPES data of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  [42].

In  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  ARPES measurements combined with DFT calculations show the existence of multiple Dirac points near the Fermi level  $E_F$ . There are also topologically protected surfaces states at the  $M$  point located only 0.05 eV above the Fermi level  $E_F$  [22].

### Flat band dispersion

The existence and impact of flat bands on the physical properties of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  is still a highly debated topic. According to Yin *et al.* there exists a flat band below the Fermi level [43]. They found a sharp peak at  $E_p = -8$  meV in tunneling spectra of a S-terminated surface, which is associated with flat band induced features. Such a peak on S-surface was reproduced by LDOS calculations. Here the enhanced DOS comes from the contribution of Co 3d electrons. Xu *et al.* [44] on the other hand found an asymmetric peak-like feature at 38 meV in optical conductivity spectra, which was suggested to arise from a flat band. Yet, the theoretically predicted energy scale of this feature is much higher than the experimentally observed one in tunneling spectra. ARPES measurement refute the existence of extended flat bands over the entire Brillouin zone due to the interlayer hybridization. The strong  $k_z$  dispersion already mentioned also does not support the existence of a flat band. Nevertheless DFT and DMFT calculations predict flat bands centered at the  $L$  point, which connect the Weyl points. These flat bands could still exist within a small range and close to the Fermi level, which would be hard to identify by ARPES due to both the low spectral weight or the low energy resolution.

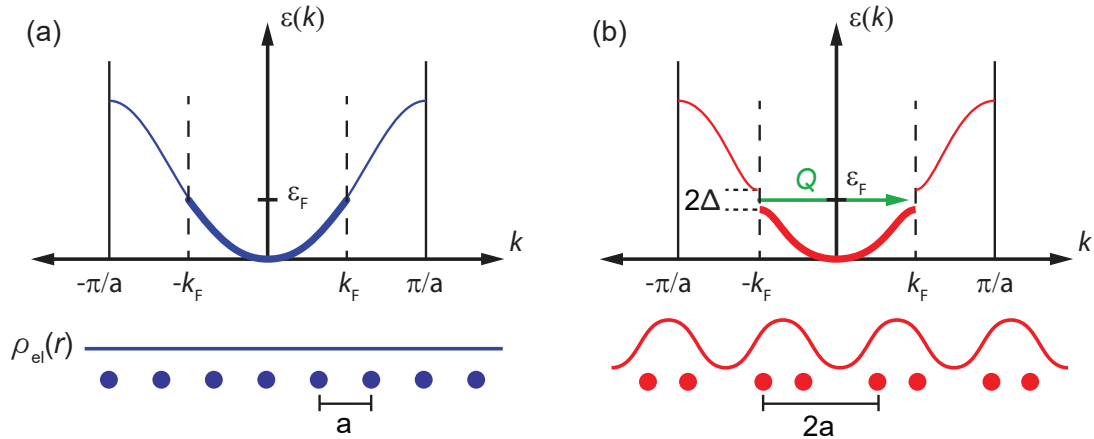
In  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  a flat band was found around 0.2 eV below the Fermi energy by both STS and ARPES experiments [45]. This flat band is centered at the  $\Gamma$ -point, which is consistent with DFT calculation.

According to Hu *et al.* [46]  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  does exhibit a flat band around  $-1.2$  eV, which can be found across the entire momentum space. This flat band exists in both ARPES measurements and DFT calculations at the same energy. Another non-dispersive feature was found in the region of  $E_F$ , which is similar to the one found in  $\text{FeSn}$  [14]. Not only the kagome physics might be the origin of this non-dispersive feature near  $E_F$ , but the existence of quasi-1D stripe order [32, 47], the formation of dangling bonds on the surface [48, 49] or a magic twist angle between adjacent layers [50–52].

### Charge Density Wave

According to Peierl, at low temperatures, a 1D metal, which couples to the underlying lattice, is not stable and is therefore susceptible to periodic lattice distortion. This distortion changes the lattice periodicity and hence can lower the total energy of the system. This phenomenon is pictured in Fig. 2.1.6. Fig. 2.1.6 (a) illustrates the ground state without accounting for interactions between electrons or electrons and phonons at  $T = 0$  K. The atoms, shown as blue circles, are located at the same distance  $a$  from one another. The electronic states are filled up to the Fermi surface  $E_F$  and the Fermi wave vector  $k_F$ , which means the electron band is half occupied. If interactions between electrons and phonons are considered, a lattice distortion with the periodicity  $\lambda = \pi/k_F$  is energetically favourable. Here, the previously equidistant atoms now move closer to one neighbour atom and further away from another neighbouring atom. Therefore the lattice constant  $a$  doubles, but

the unit cell now not only contains one atom but a pair of atoms. This opens a finite energy gap  $2\Delta$  at the Fermi level at  $\pm\pi/2a$  in  $k$ -space, which is depicted in Fig. 2.1.6 (b). As metals have a constant charge density  $\rho_0$ , the formation of an energy gap transforms a metallic to an insulating phase, where the conduction electrons can be modulated statically by a standing wave, the so-called charge density wave (CDW). Therefore, the charge density can be described by  $\rho(r) = \rho_0 + \rho_1 \cos(2k_F \cdot r + \phi)$  with the amplitude  $\rho_1$  and phase  $\phi$  of the periodically modulated electron density and the displacement  $r$ . The CDW most likely forms, if Fermi surface nesting with wave vector  $Q = 2k_F$  occurs, which means areas at the Fermi surface are connected by the same wavevector  $Q$ , the so-called Nesting vector. Gaps, which modify the Fermi surface, form at these nested positions and due to that, the system can gain energy. If this gained energy is bigger than the energy lost due to the strain associated with the periodic lattice distortion, a CDW can be formed. In addition, strong electron-phonon coupling is required to form a CDW [53–56].



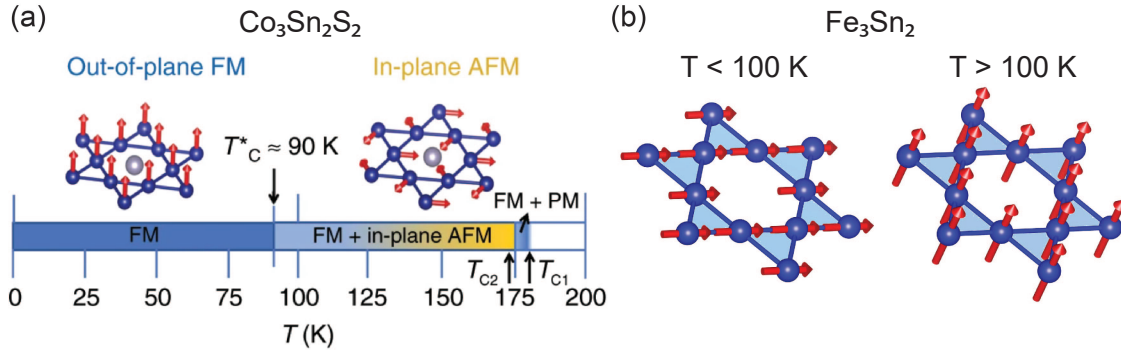
**Figure 2.1.6.:** Schematic drawing of Peierls distortion in 1D metal. (a) Without interactions like electron-phonon interaction or electron-electron interactions the electron states are filled up to the Fermi level and the charge density is constant. (b) If these interactions are considered, Peierl’s distortion occurs and an energy gap  $2\Delta$  opens at the Fermi level at  $\pm\pi/2a$ . This results in a periodically modulated charge density. Taken from [27].

In 2D materials multiple bands, electron-electron correlations and spin-orbit coupling can manifest simultaneously. Due to these various interactions the formation mechanism for a CDW is more complex. Possible mechanisms for forming CDWs could be electronic-based mechanisms due to van Hove singularities, Fermi surface nesting or strong electron-phonon coupling.

According to Wang *et al.* [57] single crystal x-ray diffraction (XRD) experiments suggest the existence of charge density wave order in  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  below the CDW critical temperature  $T_{\text{CDW}} = 94 \text{ K}$  [22].

### 2.1.3. Magnetism

$\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  is a ferromagnetic material with  $T_C = 175$  K as determined by magnetization, resistivity and specific heat measurements [20, 38, 58]. An anomalous magnetic transition occurs around 150 K at low field (0.0025 T = 25 Oe) in the zero field cooled (ZFC) curve, which is suppressed during the field cooled (FC) measurement as well as for higher external magnetic fields. The magnetic momenta are parallel to the c-axis in the ground state, which is confirmed by DFT calculations and longitudinal magnetization measurements [59].



**Figure 2.1.7.:** (a) In-plane antiferromagnetic and out-of-plane ferromagnetic order in  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ . The magnetic phase is shown in a schematic diagram as a function of temperature and spin structures (out-of-plane FM and the in-plane AFM structures) of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ . The arrows highlight the critical and the transition temperatures ( $T_{C1} = 177$  K,  $T_{C2} = 172$  K and  $T_C^* = 90$  K). Taken from [60]. (b) Spin reorientation in  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  around  $T_f \approx 100$  K: When reducing the sample temperature, the spins first rotate from parallel for  $T_f < 100$  K to perpendicular alignment and then to the kagome planes for  $T_f > 100$  K.

The Co-spins have both ferromagnetic interactions along the c-axis as well as antiferromagnetic interactions within the kagome plane, which compete with each other as shown in Fig. 2.1.7 (a). Two oscillating components of  $\mu\text{SR}$  time spectra between 90 K – 177 K were found, which stem from an out-of-plane FM and an in-plane AFM interaction. Only one component can be identified below 90 K. In the AFM state, the spins are aligned non-collinearly at an angle of  $120^\circ$ . AFM as well as FM states can be tuned by pressure and magnetic field. Increasing pressure suppresses both AFM and FM and the AFM state disappears below an applied magnetic field of 0.1 T [60]. With Neutron scattering experiments [58] a spin wave gap below  $T_C$  was discovered, whose gap energy is approximately 2.3 meV in the ground state. Generally, spin waves of ferromagnetic metals are either gap-less in the weak correlation limit, or exhibit an isotropic spin gap following the magnetic order parameter in the strong correlation limit with SOC. The spin wave gap is considerably larger than the estimated spin anisotropy energy [58] due to possible contributions from the Weyl fermions. This indicates that the low-energy spin dynamics can interplay with the topological states.

$\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  is an unusual magnetic conductor with a high  $T_C = 670$  K, which undergoes



an unexplained spin reorientation at  $T_f \approx 100$  K [42, 61, 62] [Fig. 2.1.7 (b)]. The magnetization rotates from perpendicular to the kagome planes to parallel while cooling down. Two mechanisms for ferromagnetism can be found on the kagome lattice: The first one is Mielke's flat-band ferromagnetism [63, 64]. This is an extreme case of the Stoner instability, which reduces the potential energy of repulsive electron-electron interactions. The second one is Nagaoka-type ferromagnetism [65] which is a result of the gain in kinetic energy of electrons [66]. The dominant mechanism for the formation of magnetic order in these materials is still under debate.

Unlike  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  or  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$ ,  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  has no resolvable magnetic order [22].

## 2.2. Tetraborides

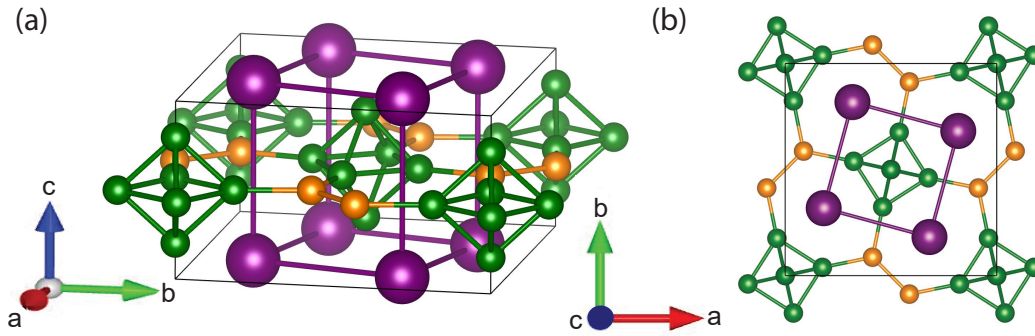
The interplay of geometric frustration with strong correlations can lead to exotic quantum phases such as superconductivity in organic materials [67] and quantum spin liquid in frustrated magnets [68]. The rare earth (RE) tetraborides (RE = C, Er, La, Y, Tm, Eu, etc.) are members of the metallic frustrated magnets, which have long range magnetic ground states [23]. According to Kato *et al.* [69] and Olsen *et al.* [70], who made high-resolution structural refinement of  $\text{LaB}_4$  and  $\text{HoB}_4$ , respectively, the RE-RE bonds in both materials, which correspond to  $J_1$  and  $J_2$  are nearly equal in length. Due to this fact, the RE sublattice belongs to the eleven Archimedean lattices. Other members of the frustrated Archimedean lattices are triangular lattices or Kagome lattices, which were already discussed in this thesis [1, 71, 72].

### 2.2.1. Lattice Structure

$\text{REB}_4$  materials belong to the space group  $P4/m\bar{b}m$  (127) and crystallize in a tetragonal structure. The crystal structure is shown in Fig. 2.2.1 in (a) 3D and (b) 2D in the (a,b) plane. In addition to the  $\text{B}_6$  octahedra and metal atoms in hexaborides, RE tetraborides also consist of planar dimer pair  $\text{B}_2$  units. Below or above these dimer pairs are no extra-planar borons. Therefore, their  $2 p_z$  are not occupied and thus couple most strongly to the  $Tm 4f$  level electrons.

The atom Boron is expected to form 6-element rings, but in contrast to  $\text{TmB}_2$  this is not the case in  $\text{TmB}_4$ . Here the Boron atoms form 7-atom rings. This can be seen in Fig. 2.2.1 (b) [73]. The purple atoms represent the rare-earth thulium atoms and the green and orange atoms illustrate the  $\text{B}_6$  octahedra and the  $\text{B}_2$  units, respectively, which form alternating layers of Tm and B [Fig. 2.2.1 (a)].

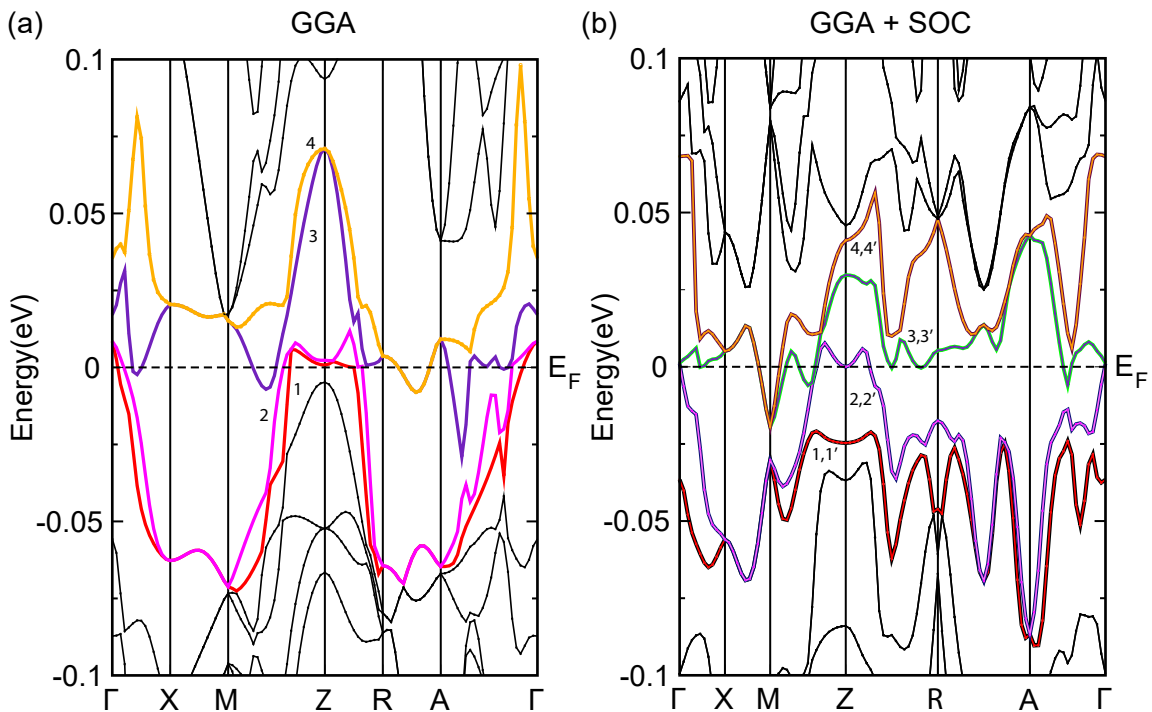
The thulium lattice is orientated perpendicular to the tetragonal c-axis [73]. This lattice consists of 2D sublattices and each sheet has the same topology as a frustrated Shastry-Sutherland lattice (SSL), which consists of perfect squares and nearly equilateral triangles of Tm atoms [72–74].



**Figure 2.2.1.:** Crystal structure of  $\text{TmB}_4$ . Tm atoms (purple) and B atoms ( $\text{B}_6$  octahedra in green and  $\text{B}_2$  units in orange) form alternating layers. (a) 3D crystal structure (b) 2D lattice structure of the (a,b) plane [72, 74, 75].

## 2.2.2. Electronic Structure

In the works of Pakhira *et al.* [23] significant dispersion along various high symmetry directions are detected in angle resolved photo-emission spectra (ARPES). Along the  $X-M$  line a flat band and therefore no dispersion occurs. The band structure calculated within GGA (Generalized Gradient Approximation) shows four bands crossing the Fermi level. The bands are mostly of Tm f-character. Spin orbit coupling, which modifies the topology of the Fermi surface, occurs due to the large atomic mass of thulium.

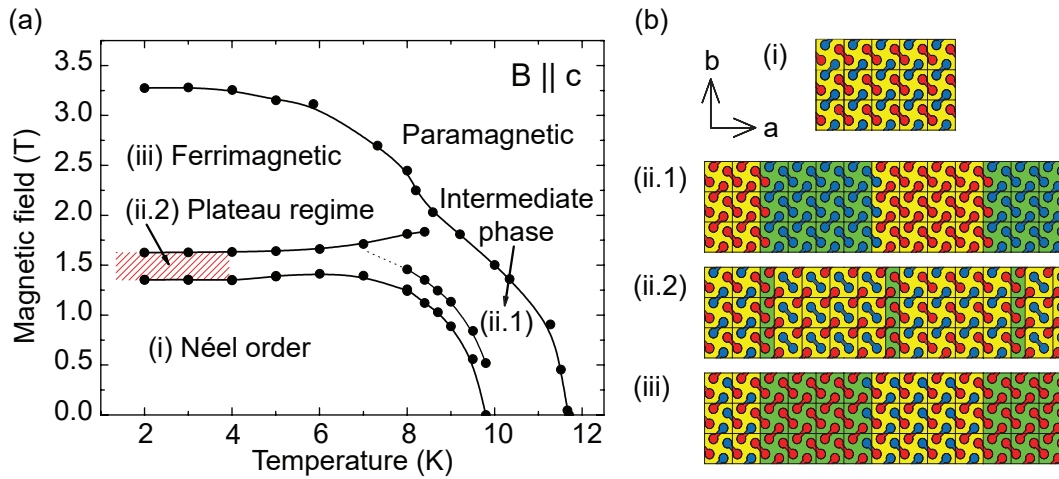


**Figure 2.2.2.:** Band structure of  $\text{TmB}_4$  within (a) GGA and (b) GGA + SO. All bands, which cross  $E_F$  are highlighted in different colours. Adapted from [23].

Taking spin-orbit interaction into account, the bands, which cross the Fermi level double and some of these bands are degenerate. Only 6 (2,2'; 3,3'; 4,4') of these 8 new bands cross the Fermi level. The other two (1,1') are pushed below  $E_F$ . The Fermi surface, which corresponds to the degenerate bands (2,2'), has disconnected hole pockets along the  $Z - \Gamma - Z$  path, while the Fermi surface, which corresponds to the degenerate bands (3,3') and (4,4') has hole pockets at the  $R$  point. In addition, the Fermi surface of bands 5 and 6 also consists of electron like pockets. Some of the valence electrons of  $\text{TmB}_4$  are delocalized in a conduction band, and are therefore itinerant electrons, while others fill the bonding orbitals. Two electrons from each metal atom (rare-earth materials) are required to stabilize the boron framework of the  $\text{REB}_4$  materials [76]. One of the three valence electrons per rare-earth ion ( $\text{RE}^{3+}$ ) goes into the conduction band. Thus, tetraborides are good metals. The RKKY exchange interaction, which describes the indirect exchange between localized magnetic moments of the metal atoms, plays an important role. Another interesting aspect about  $\text{TmB}_4$  are the strong correlation effects and the large Hund's coupling. Due to these effects the degeneracy of certain manifolds is lifted at low temperatures. Some orbitals in other manifold still remain degenerate [23–25, 72, 73].

### 2.2.3. Magnetism

Now the magnetic properties of  $\text{TmB}_4$  as examined by Siemensmeyer *et al.* [24] and Orendáč *et al.* [25] will be reviewed.



**Figure 2.2.3:** Magnetic ordering in  $\text{TmB}_4$ . (a) Phase diagram of  $\text{TmB}_4$  as a function of field and temperature. It was derived from magnetization data for  $B \parallel (001)$ . (b) Orientation of the Ising-spins in the  $ab$ -plane in  $\text{TmB}_4$ . Spin up and down along the  $c$ -axis are presented as red and blue circles. The periodicity of the magnetic domains along the  $a$ -axis are indicated with different surface colours. The labeling in (a) and (b) correspond to each other. Adopted from [24].

The magnetic  $\text{Tm}^{3+}$  ions have a 4f configuration and an angular momentum  $J = 6$ . Crystal field effects occur at  $\text{Tm}^{3+}$  sites. These crystal field effects lift the degeneracy of the  $J = 6$  multiplet. This lifted degeneracy leads to a doublet  $M_J = \pm 6$  ground state. Due to this

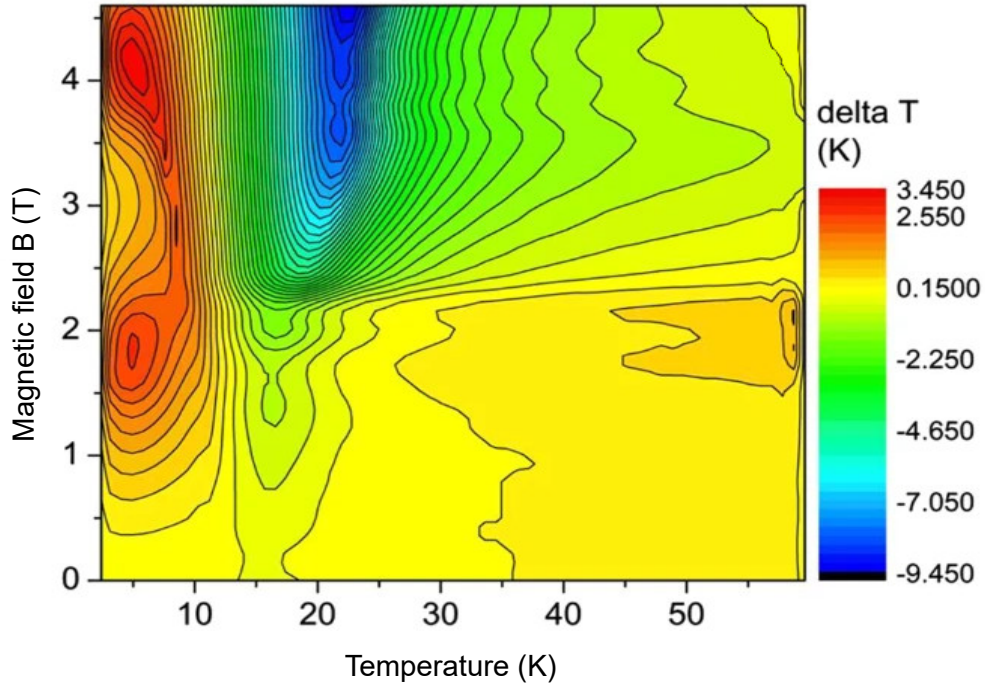
ground state a strong Ising-like magnetic anisotropy is induced. The magnetic moments of the Tm ions point in c-direction within the Néel phase below  $T_N = 11.8$  K. In this antiferromagnetic phase, a saturated magnetization is reached at  $\approx 4$  T, if the magnetic field is applied parallel to c-direction of the crystal. Here, also magnetization plateaus occur at a fraction of saturation magnetization, which are attributed to the large spin degeneracy in TmB<sub>4</sub>. The stable plateaus appear at  $M/M_{\text{sat}} = 1/2$  and the fractional plateaus at  $M/M_{\text{sat}} = 1/7, 1/8, \text{etc.}$ . These plateaus also appear at the magnetization of a 2D degenerate electron gas. In TmB<sub>4</sub> also hysteretic longitudinal magneto-resistance, anomalous Hall resistivity as well as a rich phase diagram are found. If the magnetic field is applied perpendicular to the c-direction, the magnetization saturation is not reached until a magnetic field of 30 T is applied.

The rich phase diagram as a function of magnetic field and temperature and the magnetic structure of Ising spins in the ab-plane are shown in Fig. 2.2.3 (a) and (b), respectively. With no magnetic field applied TmB<sub>4</sub> orders magnetically below  $T_N = 11.8$  K. Full antiferromagnetism [Fig. 2.2.3 (b-i)] is observed below  $T_N = 9.8$  K [Fig. 2.2.3 (a-i)]. Besides these two ordered states, three other phases were found. Below temperatures of  $\approx 8$  K and an applied field of  $B \approx 3.6$  T the order is ferrimagnetic [Fig. 2.2.3 (a-iii) and (b-iii)]. There, a plateau at  $M/M_{\text{sat}} = 1/2$  can be identified. The main portion of the plateau regime [Fig. 2.2.3 (a-ii.2)] with magnetization plateaus at  $M/M_{\text{sat}} = 1/7, 1/8, 1/9, \dots$  below 4 K, which are hysteretic, is located below  $\approx 1.6$  T and at temperatures between 0 – 7 K. The Plateau regime [Fig. 2.2.3 (a-ii.2)] shows a long range antiferromagnetic order intercalated with small stripes of ferromagnetic order [Fig. 2.2.3 (b-ii.2)]. The intermediate phase [Fig. 2.2.3 (a-ii.1)] at temperatures ranging from 7 – 11.8 K orders ferromagnetically in the short range regime and antiferromagnetically in the long range regime [Fig. 2.2.3 (b-ii.1)]. Once the ferrimagnetic phase was reached, the zero field cooling plateaus are independent of both the magnetic field direction and the magnetic field changes. Close to  $T_N = 9.8$  K the intermediate state splits into two phases, which was found in specific heat and resistivity measurements.

According to Orendáč *et al.* TmB<sub>4</sub> shows a magnetocaloric effect (MCE) as well as a rotating magnetocaloric effect (R-MCE). If the applied magnetic field is increased, the magnetic moments align parallel to the direction of the field. This alignment leads to a decrease of the magnetic entropy. For adiabatic conditions the energy of the system stays constant, and therefore the lattice entropy increases, which leads to a heating by a temperature  $\Delta T$ . The magnetization in TmB<sub>4</sub> for fields parallel to the c-direction is much higher up to 4 T compared to the magnetization perpendicular to the c-direction, which can be beneficial for the emergence of the R-MCE. The magnetocaloric effect describes a magneto-thermodynamic phenomenon. The change of the orientation of an external applied magnetic field changes the temperature of the material. This phenomenon can be enhanced and intensified by geometrical spin frustration, which is found in TmB<sub>4</sub>.

Fig. 2.2.4 shows the distribution of the temperature difference  $\Delta T(T, B)$ . The strongest

cooling effect occurs above 4 T at temperatures around  $\approx 20$  K, while the sample heats up as much as 5 – 10 K, if a magnetic field of more than 3.5 T is applied. The strongest R-MCE is detected when the sample is rotated by  $90^\circ$  or  $270^\circ$ .



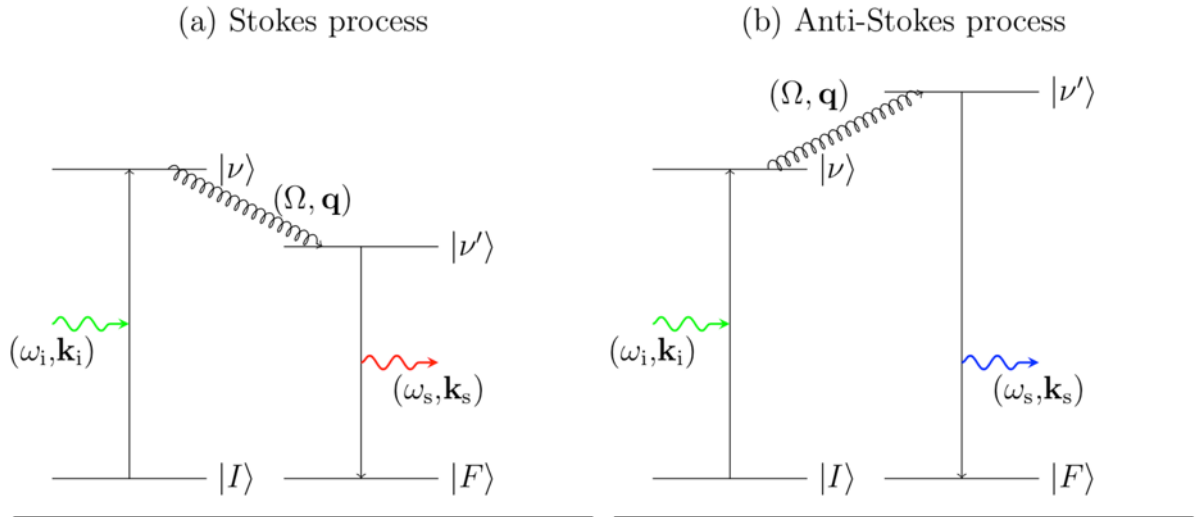
**Figure 2.2.4.:** Distribution of the temperature difference  $\Delta T(T, B)$  due to the magnetocaloric effect in  $\text{TmB}_4$  during rotation from  $B \parallel c$  to  $B \perp c$ . Taken from [25].



## 3. Raman Scattering

This chapter introduces Raman spectroscopy as the main experimental method of this thesis. A more detailed description for Raman spectroscopy can be found in Ref. [77].

### 3.1. Theory of Raman Scattering



**Figure 3.1.1.:** Simplified scheme of a Raman scattering process. The incident photon  $(\omega_i, \mathbf{k}_i)$  (green wavy line) excites the system from its initial state  $|I\rangle$  to an intermediate state  $|\nu\rangle$ . By either (a) creating or (b) destroying an excitation  $(\Omega, \mathbf{q})$  (curled line) the system makes a transition to a second intermediate state  $|\nu'\rangle$ , and relaxes to its final state  $|F\rangle$  by emission of a (a) red- or (b) blue-shifted photon  $(\omega_s, \mathbf{k}_s)$  [78]. Taken from [79].

Smekal predicted the inelastic scattering of visible light from matter in 1923 [80], the so-called Raman scattering. Raman and Krishnan discovered Raman scattering in liquids experimentally in 1928 [81] and, in the same year, it was also discovered in crystals by Landsberg and Mandelstam [82].

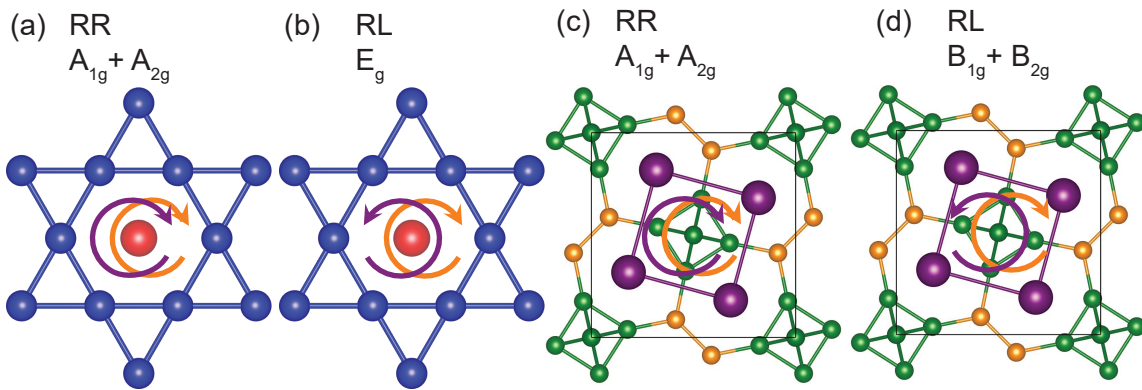
In Fig. 3.1.1 the principle of Raman scattering is illustrated. First, in a scattering event a photon of energy  $\omega_i$  and momentum  $\mathbf{k}_i$  is absorbed. This photon excites the system from the initial state  $|I\rangle$  to an intermediate state  $|\nu\rangle$ , which can now couple to low energy excitations such as e.g. phonons or magnons. This coupling destroys or creates an excitation with energy  $\Omega$ . Thus the system reaches a second intermediate state  $|\nu'\rangle$ , before it emits another photon with energy  $\omega_s$  and momentum  $\mathbf{k}_s$  before relaxing to its final state  $|F\rangle$ . The

energy difference between the incident and the emitted photon is called Raman shift  $\Omega$ . It corresponds to the energy transferred to or from the material.

$$\Omega = \omega_i - \omega_s \quad (3.1)$$

If an excitation is created, the process is called Stokes process, which is shown in Fig. 3.1.1 (a). In this process, the energy of the incident photon is larger than the energy of the emitted photon. In the opposite case, if the emitted photon energy is larger than the energy of the incident photon, the process is called anti-Stokes process (Fig. 3.1.1 (b)). In both cases the transferred momentum  $\mathbf{q}$  can be considered small, putting Raman scattering in the limit  $|\mathbf{q}| = 0$ . Anti-Stokes processes vanish at  $T = 0$

Every scattering process involves two dipole transitions  $|I\rangle \rightarrow |\nu\rangle$  and  $|\nu'\rangle \rightarrow |F\rangle$ . These transitions and the symmetry of the crystal are the basis for the Raman selection rules.



**Figure 3.1.2.:** Selection rules of Raman scattering in Kagome lattice materials [(a) and (b)] and the Tetraboride TmB<sub>4</sub> [(c) and (d)]. The orange and the purple arrows denote the polarizations of the incident and the scattered light, respectively. Here, only circular polarizations are shown. For individual symmetries separately at least one (a) and (b) or two (c) and (d) additional configurations are necessary.

As shown in Fig. 3.1.2, every set of polarizations ( $\mathbf{e}_i, \mathbf{e}_s$ ) of the incident (orange arrow) and scattered (purple arrow) light projects different symmetries. Each symmetry can be extracted as a linear combination of spectra. The relevant coordinate system for the selection rules in Kagome materials is given by the Kagome net and in the Tetraboride TmB<sub>4</sub> is given by the tetragonal unit cell. As will be shown experimentally below, the A<sub>2g</sub> symmetry can be neglected in both Kagome and Tetraboride material classes. Only RR- and RL-polarization combinations were used in the measurements for this thesis. Therefore only contributions stemming from A<sub>1g</sub> and E<sub>g</sub> pictured in Fig. 3.1.2 (a) and (b), respectively, are relevant for Kagome lattice materials. The relevant contributions of the Tetraboride TmB<sub>4</sub> stem from A<sub>1g</sub> and B<sub>1g</sub> + B<sub>2g</sub> pictured in Fig. 3.1.2 (c) and (d), respectively.

In general, both intermediate states  $|\nu\rangle$  and  $|\nu'\rangle$  are virtual states. They exist within time and energy uncertainty, but they can also be eigenstates of the system. In this case, the scattering intensity diverges as the energy denominator (in perturbation theory) becomes



zero [83]. This effect is called resonance and provides a probe to the electronic structure of the material [78, 79].

## 3.2. Raman Features

Raman scattering is a method, which is very sensitive to detect various excitations and their possible changes. Therefore, Raman spectra show the superposition of various excitations at their corresponding energies [26]. Some Raman features, which are important for this thesis, are shown schematically in Fig. 3.2.1.

Fig. 3.2.1 (a) shows a schematic plot of spectra typical for particle-hole excitations, which are visible in most Raman measurements of metals. This electronic continuum of a correlated metal <sup>1</sup> can be described phenomenologically by Eq. 3.2, where  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$  and  $d$  are adjustable parameters,

$$\chi''(\Omega) = a \tanh(b + c \cdot \Omega) + d. \quad (3.2)$$

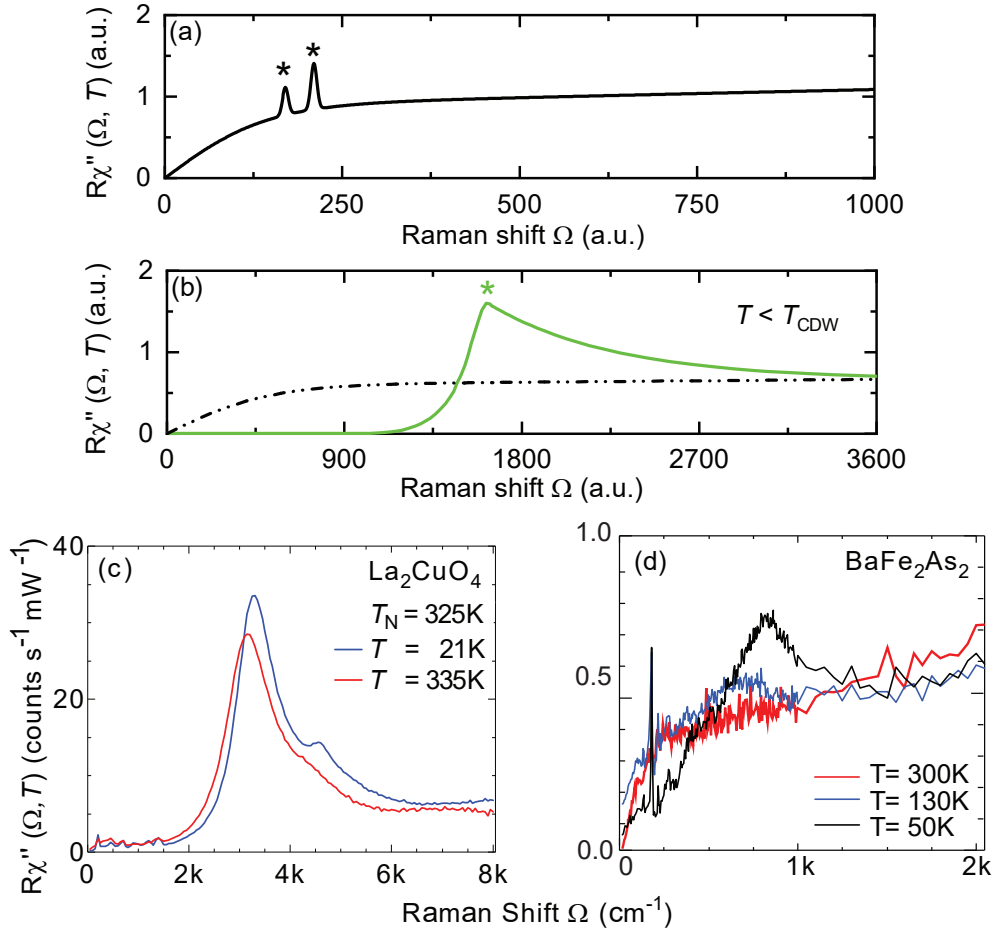
The Raman response of other excitations is superimposed on this continuum. One type of excitations are phonons, whose Raman response is marked by two asterisks. Phonons typically have a width of only a few wavenumbers and a symmetric shape, which can be represented by a Voigt function due to the Lorentz-distribution of the excitation response itself and the Gaussian-distribution caused by the resolution of the spectrometer. Taking a look at phonons and how they change in energy and linewidth can provide information about changes in the lattice, the symmetries of the crystal or, for instance magnetic ordering phenomena.

Peierls considered the case of a linear chain with just one electron per unit cell (half filling) [84]. Then the energy may be reduced if two unit cells dimerize (the new superlattice contains not only one but two atoms) and the elastic energy required for the distortion is smaller than the energy gain from the opening of a gap at the Fermi level. The modulation is called a charge density wave (CDW). Fig. 3.2.1 (b) shows the typical Raman response of an opening gap of the charge density wave (CDW) below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ , which consists of a redistribution of spectral weight [85, 86]. The asterisk marks the approximate position of the CDW gap [26].

Magnetism can arise from localized or from itinerant electrons. Fig. 3.2.1 (c) and (d) show exemplary Raman spectra. The driving force for magnetism in  $\text{La}_2\text{CuO}_4$  is the exchange interaction  $J$  between localized electrons. The corresponding Raman response is characterized by a two-magnon peak. This peak hardens upon cooling [87]. In the metallic material  $\text{BaFe}_2\text{As}_2$  magnetism arises from itinerant electrons and therefore, the Raman response has a different shape. The spectrum at  $T = 300$  K is described by particle-hole excitations with superimposed phonons [88, 89]. At 130 and 50 K (blue and black lines, respectively), below

<sup>1</sup>where the relaxation of the electrons follows approximately  $\Gamma \propto k_{\text{B}}T + \hbar\omega$  (marginal Fermi liquid) as opposed to  $\Gamma \propto (k_{\text{B}}T)^2 + (\hbar\omega)^2$  in the Landau-Fermi liquid.

the spin density wave critical temperature  $T_{\text{SDW}}$  a gap evolves at low energies and spectral weight gain occurs at higher energies. This behaviour is typical for spin *and* charge density waves.



**Figure 3.2.1.:** Schematic spectra observed with Raman spectroscopy. (a) The black curve corresponds to a phenomenological description of the particle-hole (p-h) continuum. The two modes marked by the asterisks are phonon modes superimposed on the p-h continuum [26]. (b) The dashed line represents the p-h continuum for  $T > T_{\text{CDW}}$ . The gap of the CDW phase opening for  $T < T_{\text{CDW}}$  redistributes the spectral weight (green). The spectrum has its maximum (green asterisk) at approximately  $2\Delta_{\text{CDW}}$  [26]. (c) Raman spectra in  $B_{1g}$  symmetry of  $\text{La}_2\text{CuO}_4$ . Since  $\text{La}_2\text{CuO}_4$  hosts localized magnetic order, the Raman spectra are dominated by a two-magnon peak, which hardens upon reducing temperature [87]. (d) Raman spectra in  $B_{1g}$  symmetry of  $\text{BaFe}_2\text{As}_2$  hosting itinerant electrons. The spectrum at room temperature  $T = 300\text{K}$  does not exhibit abrupt changes in the detected light intensity. For  $T < T_{\text{SDW}} = 135\text{K}$  a gap opens and weight is redistributed [88, 89].

### 3.3. Intensity Calibration

A short overview of the intensity calibration in both laboratories "Raman I" and "Raman II" is given in this subsection.

### 3.3.1. Laboratory "Raman I"

Experimentally, the count rate  $\dot{N}_{is}$  of detected photons is measured for a certain wavelength of the scattered light, which corresponds to a certain Raman shift  $\Omega$ . The physical property of interest is the susceptibility  $\chi''$ , which can be calculated using Eq. 3.3.

$$R\chi''_{is}(\Omega, T) = \frac{\dot{N}_{is}}{P_1 \cdot s(\omega_s)} \frac{\omega_i^2}{\omega_s \tilde{\omega}} \left[ 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{\hbar\Omega}{k_B T}\right) \right] \quad (3.3)$$

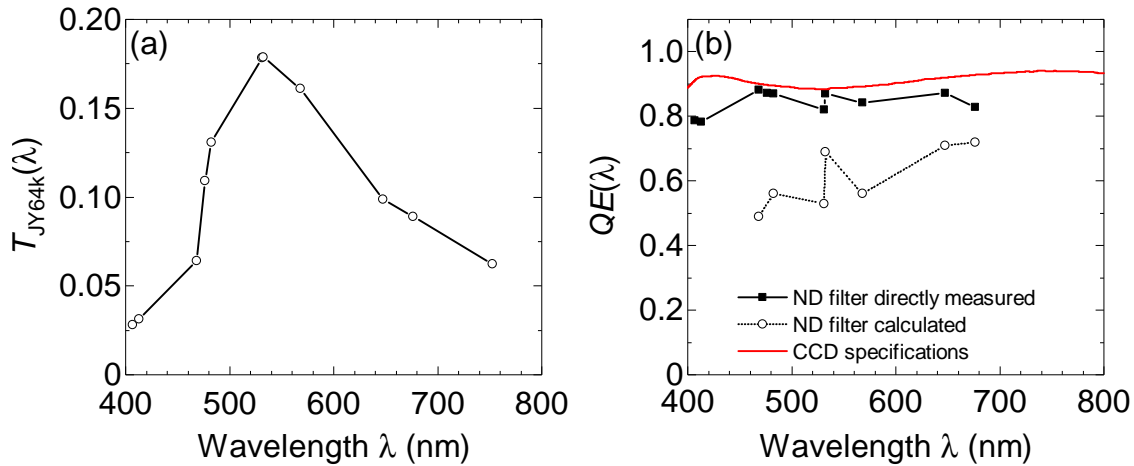
In Eq. 3.3  $\omega_i$  and  $\omega_s$  are the energies of the incident and the scattered photons,  $P_1$  is the absorbed laser power of the incident light and the constant  $R$  includes temperature- and energy-independent factors.  $\tilde{\omega} = 20000$  is used to keep the corrections close to one for visible incoming photons. The instrument has an energy-dependent sensitivity  $s(\omega_s)$  which becomes relevant if spectra are measured in large energy ranges. Therefore, one needs to correct the data to calculate  $\chi''$  properly. This sensitivity was determined by calibration [90]. The expression in the square brackets results from the fluctuation-dissipation theorem. In Refs. [77] and [78] a more detailed description can be found [79].

### 3.3.2. Laboratory "Raman II"

As already mentioned in Sec. 3.3.1 measurements of the Raman scattered light over a wide energy range require energy dependent corrections with respect to the sensitivity of the setup  $s(\omega)$  according to Eq. 3.3. Therefore, also a sensitivity curve for the setup of the laboratory "Raman II" is required. To get this sensitivity curve, the transmission of the spectrometer with the 1800 gr/mm gratings and the quantum efficiency (QE) of the CCD need to be determined. In addition the spectral resolution as a function of the grating angle is required. In Ref. [91] a more detailed description of the whole process can be found.

The transmission of the spectrometer can be determined the following way: The laser beam is directed through the spectrometer. The spectrometer's gratings must be set to  $-1^{\text{st}}$  order, while the light has to be polarized parallel to their dispersion direction (perpendicular to the grooves). The laser beam exits at the monochannel exit after the third monochromator. To get the transmission, the ratio of the laser power right in front of the entrance slit and after the monochannel exit needs to be calculated. This ratio is determined for all available laser lines of the Krypton ion laser and the green Nd-YAG diode-pumped solid state laser (Fig. 3.3.1 (a)). It reaches a maximum in the green range of the laser beam and drops rapidly towards both shorter and longer wavelengths.

The quantum efficiency of the CCD on the other hand is determined by directing the beam directly on the CCD. The intensity is then measured by the detector. Since the CCD is very sensitive, an overflow of the detector needs to be avoided. Therefore, the beam needs to be attenuated sufficiently to keep the number of registered counts below the maximum capacity of the analog-to-digital converter ( $2^{16} = 65536$  counts) with the use of neutral density (ND) filters. The optical density of the ND filters also depends on the wavelength and hence needs to be measured by measuring their transmission using a power meter



**Figure 3.3.1:** Optical sensitivity of the setup in the laboratory "Raman II". (a) Transmission through the Jobin-Yvon T64000 spectrometer as a function of wavelength. (b) Quantum efficiency (QE) of the Jobin-Yvon Symphony II CCD as a function of wavelength. The QE is determined experimentally by using neutral density (ND) filters with method 1 (black circles) and method 2 (white circles). The red curve is the QE taken from the CCD's datasheet. In addition the spectral resolution as a function of the grating angle is required. Taken from [79].

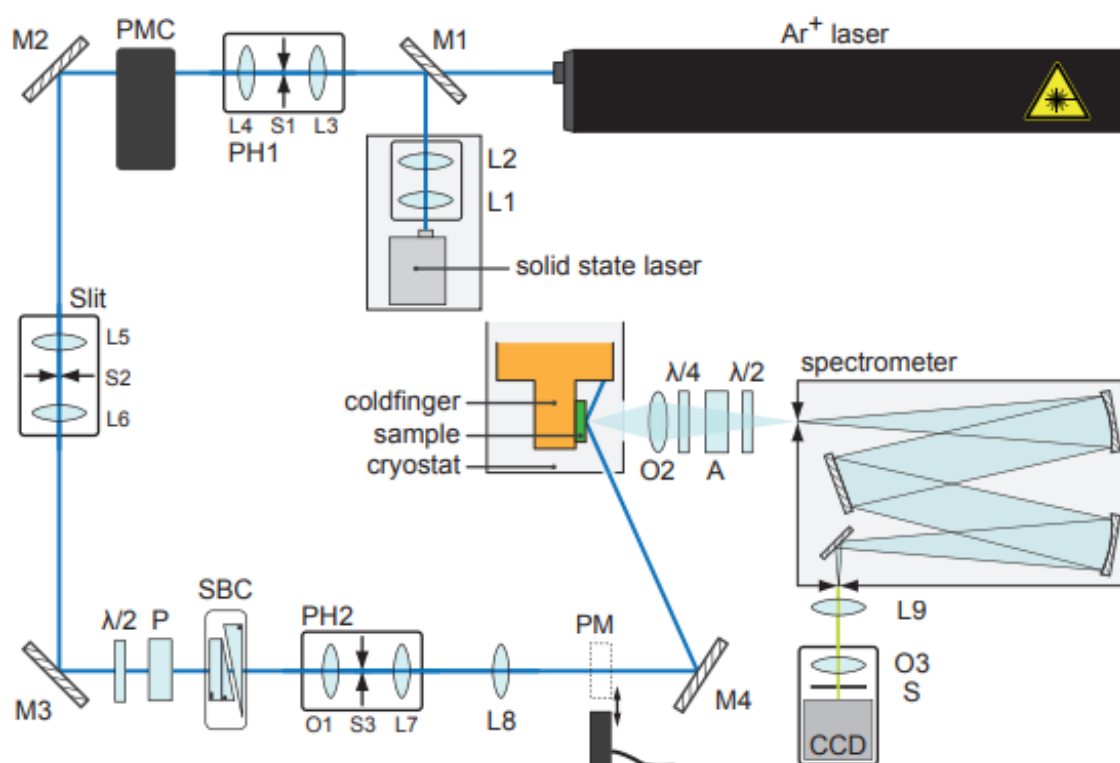
(method 1). Another method (method 2) to get the quantum efficiency of the CCD is the usage of different combinations of ND filters for measuring the intensity of the beam on the CCD. To obtain the OD and the QE a set of equations [91] needs to be solved. The results obtained with both methods are pictured in Fig. 3.3.1 (b) together with the QE as given in the CCD's datasheet. The QE determined with method 1 (black circles) agrees reasonably well with the specifications (red line) of the CCD. The QE determined with method 2 is much lower and varies strongly over the whole measured range (white circles) [79].

## 4. Experimental Setup

The measurements performed in this thesis using the Raman spectroscopy setups in the laboratories "Raman I" and "Raman II". Both setups will be described in this chapter.

### 4.1. Laboratory "Raman I"

#### 4.1.1. Scattering Setup



**Figure 4.1.1.:** Setup in the laboratory "Raman I" for Raman spectroscopy. Mirrors are marked with M, lenses with L, objectives with O and slits with S. The numbering index of the components rise by 1 with respect to their position to the light source. The two pinhole systems are labeled with PH1 and PH2 [26, 92].

The Setup of the laboratory "Raman I" is shown in Fig. 4.1.1. The setup for Raman spectroscopy consists of a source of monochromatic polarized (P) light. Either a yellow solid state laser (Coherent-Genesis MXSLM), which emits light with a wavelength of 575 nm or an ion laser (Coherent Innova 300C), which provides five lines in the range from 458 nm to 514 nm, is used. The beam, shown as a blue line, is expanded using a lens system (L1, L2).

Afterwards it gets filtered spatially by the pinhole system (PH1) to remove off-axis contributions. To suppress plasma lines of the laser beam, the prism monochromator (PMC) and the following slit system (L5, S2, L6) act as a single-stage spectrometer. Since the laser light is already polarized, the  $\lambda/2$ -plate can be rotated to set the desired laser power for the experiment. The laser power is determined using a power meter (PM) before and after every measurement to ensure the comparability of the different measurements. The combination of the polarizer (P) and the Soleil-Babinet compensator (SBC) enables the generation of any polarization of the incident light via the variable phase shift between ordinary and extraordinary direction in the compensator. Afterwards the beam gets filtered spatially again by the second pinhole system (PH2) and is focused to a spot of roughly  $50 \times 100 \mu\text{m}^2$  onto the sample using a lens (L8) and a mirror (M4) on a kinetic mount, which can be tilted in along two axes to position the laser spot on the sample surface. The angle of incidence is  $\theta_i = 66^\circ$ .

After the light was focused onto the sample an objective (O2) collects the scattered light. The polarization of the scattered light is selected using a  $\lambda/4$ -retardation plate and a polarizer/analyzer (A). A second  $\lambda/2$ -plate rotates the polarization of the scattered light into the direction of highest sensitivity of the spectrometer. The light is focused on the entrance slit (SL1) of the spectrometer (Jarrell-Ash 25-100 double monochromator equipped with 2400 gr/mm gratings). The spectrometer selects a frequency band the width of which can be determined by the slit between the two subtractively coupled monochromators. The resolution of the spectrometer, which operates in subtractive mode is given by the width  $M$  of the intermediate slit (SL2). The absolute wavelength of the transmitted light is chosen by the rotation angle of the gratings. Afterwards the transmitted light is focused onto the CCD detector by a lens (L9) and an objective (O3).

The sample is mounted on a cold finger inside a continuous-flow  $^4\text{He}$ -cryostat, which can be set to temperatures in the range of 4.2 K to 350 K. To assure a steady temperature, a heater controlled by a temperature controller and a silicon diode near the sample holder are built in. The sample stage of the cryostat is evacuated to pressures below  $2 \cdot 10^{-6}$  mbar to reduce the contamination of the sample surface [26, 78].

#### 4.1.2. Optical Constants

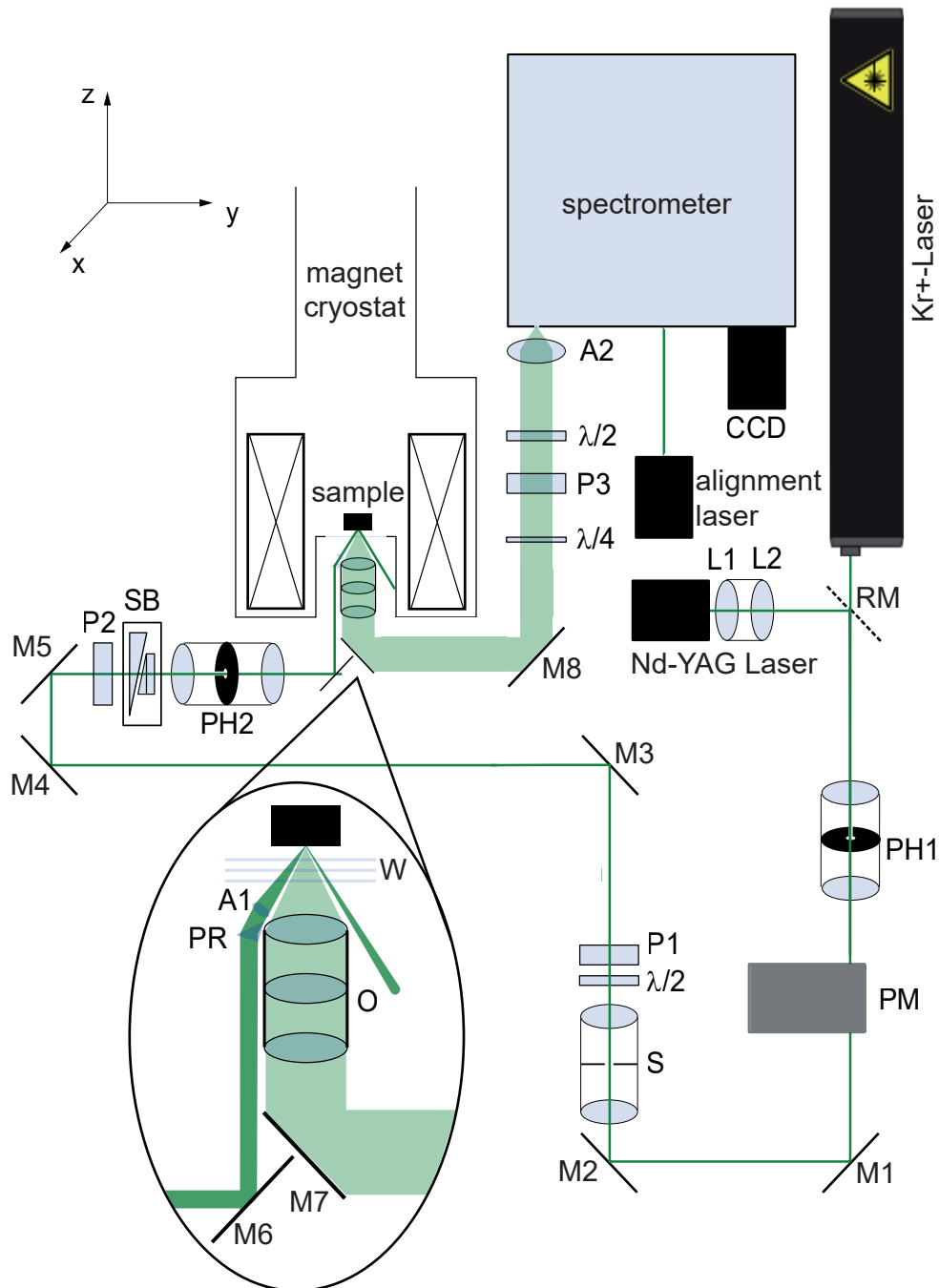
The Raman selection rules introduced in Section 3.1 require a precise setting of the light polarization and absorbed power of the sample.

Due to the complex index of refraction of a metal  $\tilde{n} = n + ik$  the light polarization inside the sample is elliptical in general except for normal incidence and polarization parallel or perpendicular to the plane of incidence. Here the angles of incidence are  $\theta_i = 66^\circ$  and the desired polarization inside the sample may be circular or at  $45^\circ$  with respect to the plane of incidence. This condition which determines the selection rules requires the appropriate polarization outside the sample to be determined individually by applying the Fresnel formulae due to the angle of incidence  $\theta_i = 66^\circ$  in laboratory "Raman I" and  $\theta_i = 30^\circ$  in

laboratory "Raman II" the polarization inside the sample differs from the polarization of the incident beam in the setup used here. Similarly the propagation direction of light inside the sample depends on the index of refraction  $n$  of the sample according to the Fresnel equations. Therefore,  $\tilde{n} = n + ik$  was determined for each sample by ellipsometry. The correct polarization inside the sample and the power factor between the incident and the absorbed light can be calculated based on  $\tilde{n}$ . More detailed information can be found in Refs. [93] and [94][78].

## 4.2. Laboratory "Raman II"

### 4.2.1. Scattering Setup



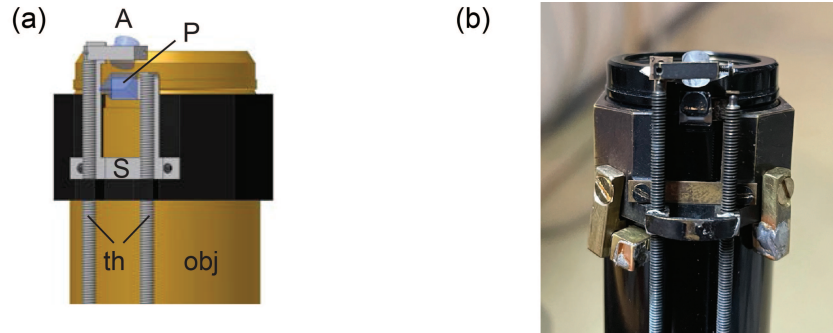
**Figure 4.2.1:** Experimental setup and beam path in the laboratory "Raman II". Mirrors are marked with M, lenses with L, objectives with O, polarizers with P and the pinhole systems with PH. The numbering index of the components rise by 1 with respect to their position to the light source. Adapted from [95].



The setup of the laboratory "Raman II" is shown schematically in Fig. 4.2.1. Here, either a Krypton ion laser (Coherent Sabre Innova), which emits laser light with different wavelengths in the range of 406.7 nm and 799.3 nm or a green Nd-YAG diode-pumped solid state laser (Coherent Sapphire) emitting light with a wavelength of 532 nm were used as a light source. To switch between the solid state laser and the ion laser a mirror (RM) needs to be removed or added to the beam path. The light emitted by the chosen laser is initially filtered spatially and expanded in diameter by a lens system (PH1). The system consists of a microscope objective, which focuses the beam onto a pinhole, and a lens, which makes the beam parallel after the pinhole.

Afterwards a prism monochromator (PM) disperses the laser light and the following lens focuses the beam on a slit (S), so just monochromatic light of a selected wavelength can pass. A  $\lambda/2$ -plate in combination with a polarizer (P1) is used to reduce the power of the pre-polarized laser light. The polarization of the incident light is selected by a polarizer (P2) and a Soleil-Babinet compensator. This compensator consists of wedge-shaped crystals, which can be rotated and shifted against each other to adjust the relative phases of the ordinary and the extraordinary beams. Then, the beam is directed by a mirror (M6) and a prism (PR) onto the sample with an angle of incidence  $\theta_i = 30^\circ$  and is finally focused onto the sample surface with an achromat (A1) into warm bore of a solenoid superconducting magnet providing fields up to 7.5 T. A schematic drawing and an actual picture of these optical components in the bore of the cryostat are shown in Fig. 4.2.2. Since the angle of incidence is  $\theta_i = 30^\circ$ , the absorption coefficients for light polarized parallel or perpendicular to the plane of incidence are different. As the incoming light is focused on the sample surface at a non-zero angle, for example circularly polarized light, assumes an elliptical polarization inside the sample. This problem can be solved with the compensator (SB). It polarizes the light elliptically outside the sample such that the absorbed light is circularly polarized inside. Therefore the complex index of refraction needs to be known and experimentally determined for every sample and excitation wavelength, as already mentioned in Section 4.1.2. Since the incidence angle of the photons reflected from the sample surface is larger than the aperture angle of the objective lens (O), they cannot enter the collection optics. The collection optics consist of a custom-made objective lens with a numerical aperture of  $NA = 0.34$  ( $19.5^\circ$ ). The lens corrects optical aberrations introduced by the cryostat windows (W). The z-axis points in a positive direction to the ceiling, which means it perpendicular to the cryostat. The y-axis runs parallel to the optical axis below the cryostat and the x-axis is derived from the right hand rule. The magnetic field always points in the z-direction. Before entering the spectrometer the desired polarization of the scattered light is selected with a  $\lambda/4$ -plate and an analyzer (P3). The spectrometer is most sensitive in the vertical direction, so a  $\lambda/2$ -plate rotates the light polarization into the vertical direction. A triple-stage spectrometer (Jobin-Yvon T64000) in combination with a liquid nitrogen cooled charge coupled device (CCD, Jobin-Yvon Symphony II) is used to spectrally analyze the scattered light.

The sample is mounted on a sample holder made out of copper at the end of a dipstick and is built into the He flow magnet cryostat. This allows the sample to be exposed to a magnetic field of up to 7.5 T in a temperature range of 1.8 – 330 K. The orientation of the sample in the applied magnetic field can be controlled by tilting and rotating the sample manipulator. The sample is in thermal contact with the sample holder. A Cernox resistor is used to determine the temperature near the sample [27, 95–97].



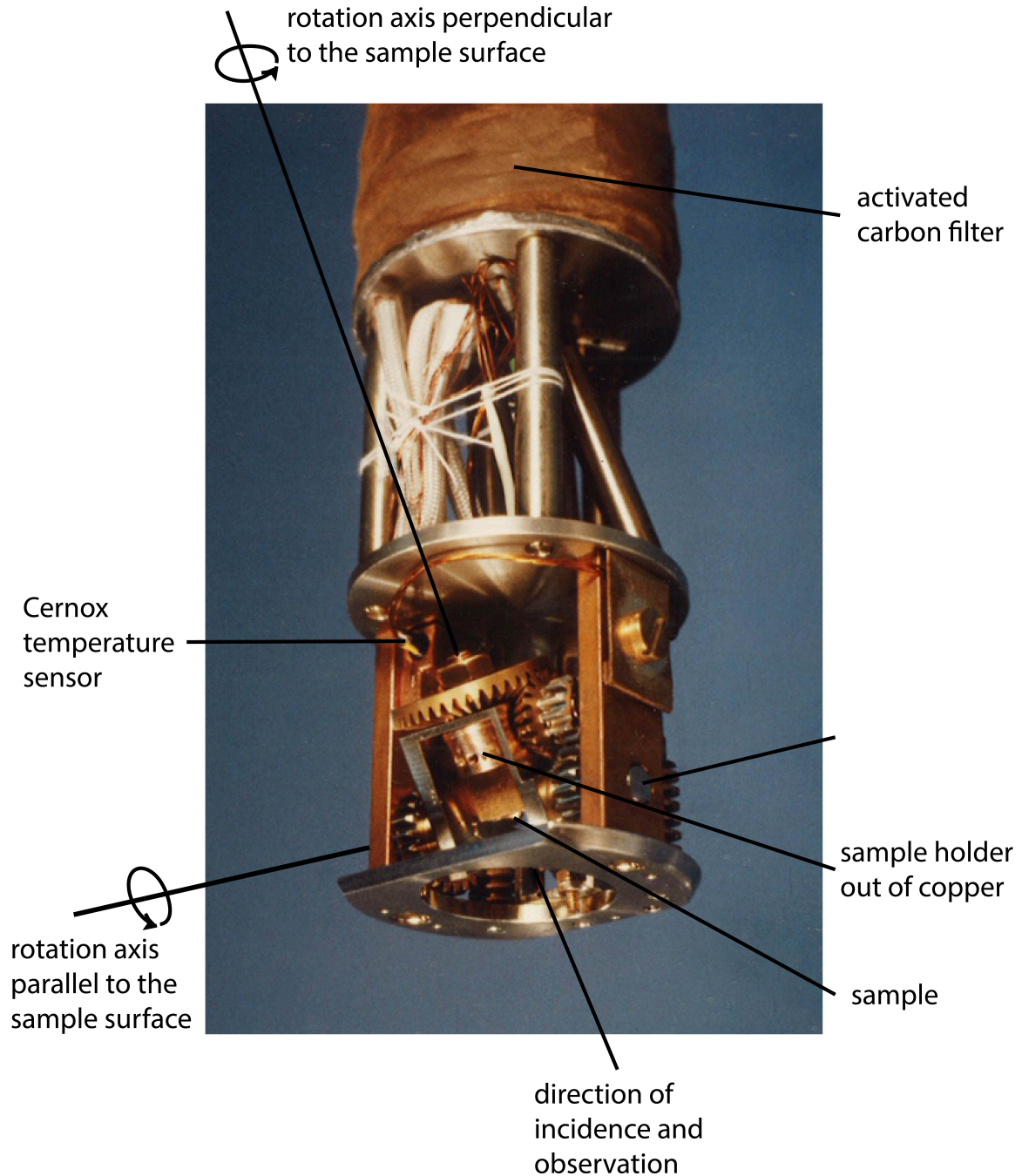
**Figure 4.2.2.:** Drawing (a) and photograph (b) of the optics in the bore of the magnet cryostat, which are focusing the laser on the sample. The objective (obj) collects the scattered light. With threaded rods (th), which are pushing against springs (S), the position of both the achromat (A) and the prism (P) can be adjusted separately. Adapted from [27].

#### 4.2.2. Sample Orientation in the Magnetic Field

To observe the magneto-caloric effect in the Tetraboride  $TmB_4$  a magnetic field parallel and perpendicular to the sample surface needs to be applied. Thus, the sample needs to be tilted by  $90^\circ$  with the manipulator. Fig. 4.2.3 shows both the sample holder and the sample manipulator at the lower end of the sample rod in the laboratory "Raman II". The sample on the sample holder can be rotated or tilted vertically and parallel to the sample surface. If the sample is aligned horizontally, which means the surface is perpendicular to the z-axis of the cryostat, the incoming laser beam and the scattered light irradiate directly onto the sample. If the sample is vertically orientated, which means the surface is parallel to the z-axis, an additional mechanically foldable mirror is needed to direct the excitation laser onto the sample. Analogously the scattered light is also directed back into the objective via this mirror. The mirror is not visible in Fig. 4.2.3, because it is hidden by the tilting mechanism.

The Faraday rotation needs to be taken into account for measurements in a magnetic field. If polarized light propagates parallel to a magnetic field in a dielectric, the Faraday rotation causes a rotation of the light polarization which is proportional to the magnetic field strength. Due to their position in the warm bore hole of the cryostat the prism (P), the achromat (A1), the cryostat window (W) and the objective lens (O) (Fig. 4.2.1) are all exposed to the magnetic field. Hence both the incident and the scattered light experience a Faraday rotation of their polarization. The rotation for the incident light is  $1.2^\circ/T$  and for the scattered light  $8.7^\circ/T$ . In order to obtain the desired light polarization, the settings of

the polarizer (P2) and the compensator (SB) on the side of the incident light and the  $\lambda/4$ -delay plate, the polarizer (P3) and the  $\lambda/2$ -plate on the side of the scattered light must be adjusted accordingly [95].



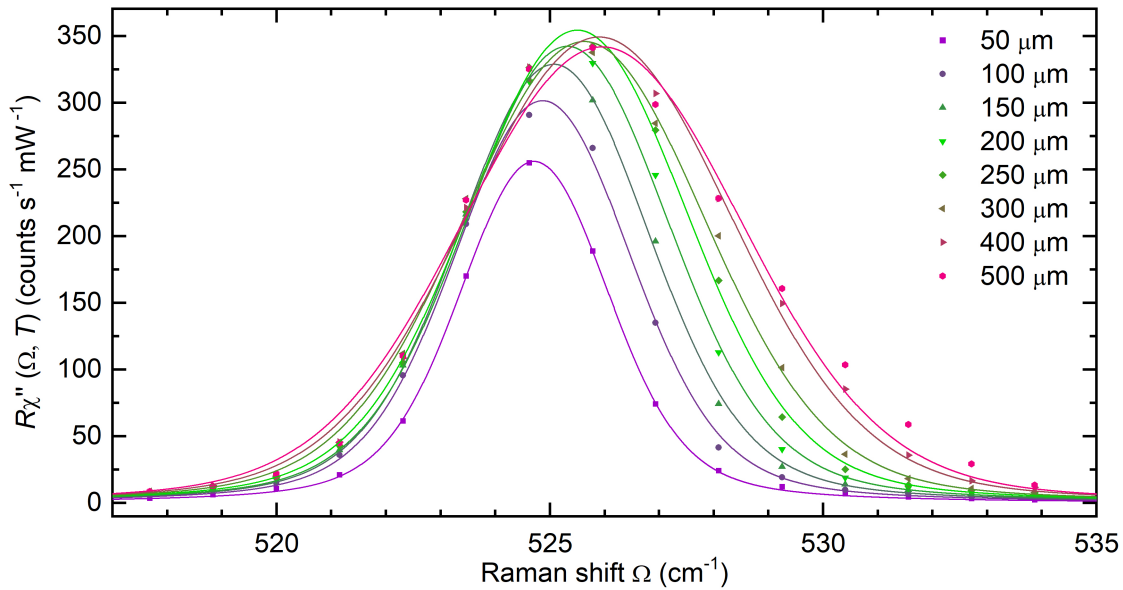
**Figure 4.2.3.:** The sample manipulator is located at the lower end of the sample stick. The rotation axis of the device parallel to the sample surface as well as the rotation axis perpendicular to the sample intersect in the sample. The sample is in thermal contact with the sample holder made out of copper. Adapted from [95, 97].

### 4.2.3. Determination of the Gaussian Width

To quantitatively analyze symmetric phonon peaks a Voigt-function is needed. The Voigt-function is a convolution of the intrinsic line-width of the phonons or other homogeneously broadened responses (Lorentzian shape) and the setup broadening/spectral resolution of the setup, which has approximately a Gaussian shape (Eq. 4.1). For measurements in the laboratory "Raman I" in a narrow spectral range and for the laser line used ( $\lambda = 575$  nm) the resolution is set to the constant value  $2.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

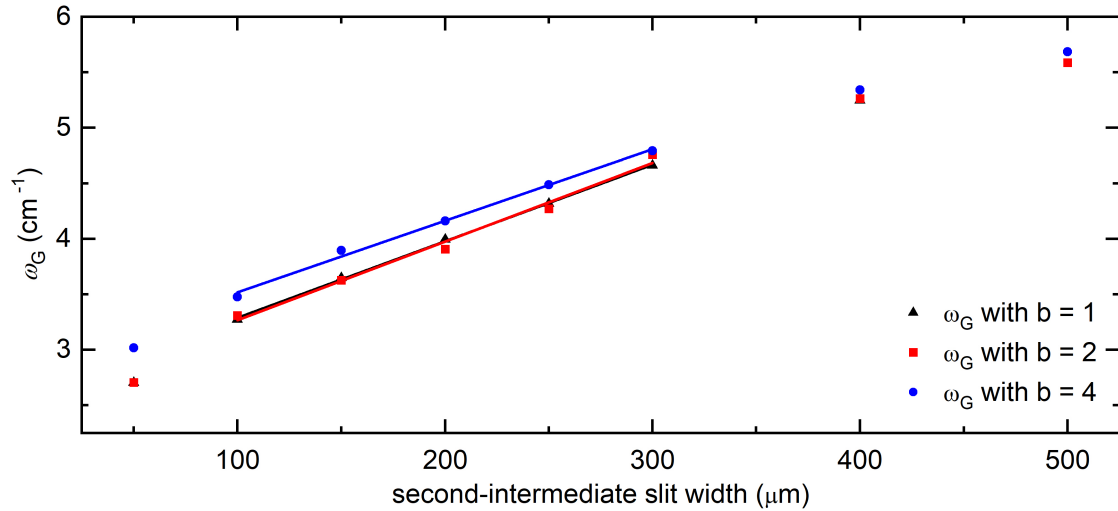
$$y(\omega) = y_0 + A \cdot \frac{2 \cdot \ln(2)}{\pi^{3/2}} \cdot \frac{\omega_L}{\omega_G^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-t^2}}{\left(\sqrt{\ln(2)} \cdot \frac{\omega_L}{\omega_G}\right)^2 + \left(2\sqrt{\ln(2)} \cdot \frac{\omega - \omega_c}{\omega_G} - t\right)^2} dt \quad (4.1)$$

In order to find a suitable value for the resolution for the "Raman II" laboratory, Raman spectra of the silicon phonon were measured at 20 K in xy-polarization for different second-intermediate slit settings of the triple stage spectrometer (cf. Fig. 4.2.1) and various binning settings of the CCD. The silicon phonon was examined at 20 K, since the intrinsic line width is nearly constant and small here, so only the Gaussian width changes with the changing second-intermediate slit settings and can be investigated.



**Figure 4.2.4.:** The Raman spectra (symbols) of a silicon sample were detected at 20 K with different second intermediate slit widths as indicated in the legend. The data was plotted with the Voigt-function (line), which is a convolution of a Lorentz and a Gauss distribution. The best fitting value of the intrinsic line width  $\omega_L$  was used for all the spectra.

The measurements of the silicon phonon were then fitted with the Voigt function with a shared intrinsic line width  $\omega_L$ . The fitting leads to an intrinsic linewidth of  $\omega_L \approx 1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  as the best fit. The data and the corresponding fits of the silicon phonon with binning  $b = 2$  are shown in Fig. 4.2.4. For measurements with a second intermediate slit setting between



**Figure 4.2.5:** The Gaussian widths of the Voigt fits of the Silicon phonon (Fig. 4.2.4) with different binnings of the CCD pixels are fitted linearly. Only the data points with a second intermediate slit width between 100 – 300  $\mu\text{m}$  were taken into account for the linear fit. More information can be found in the text.

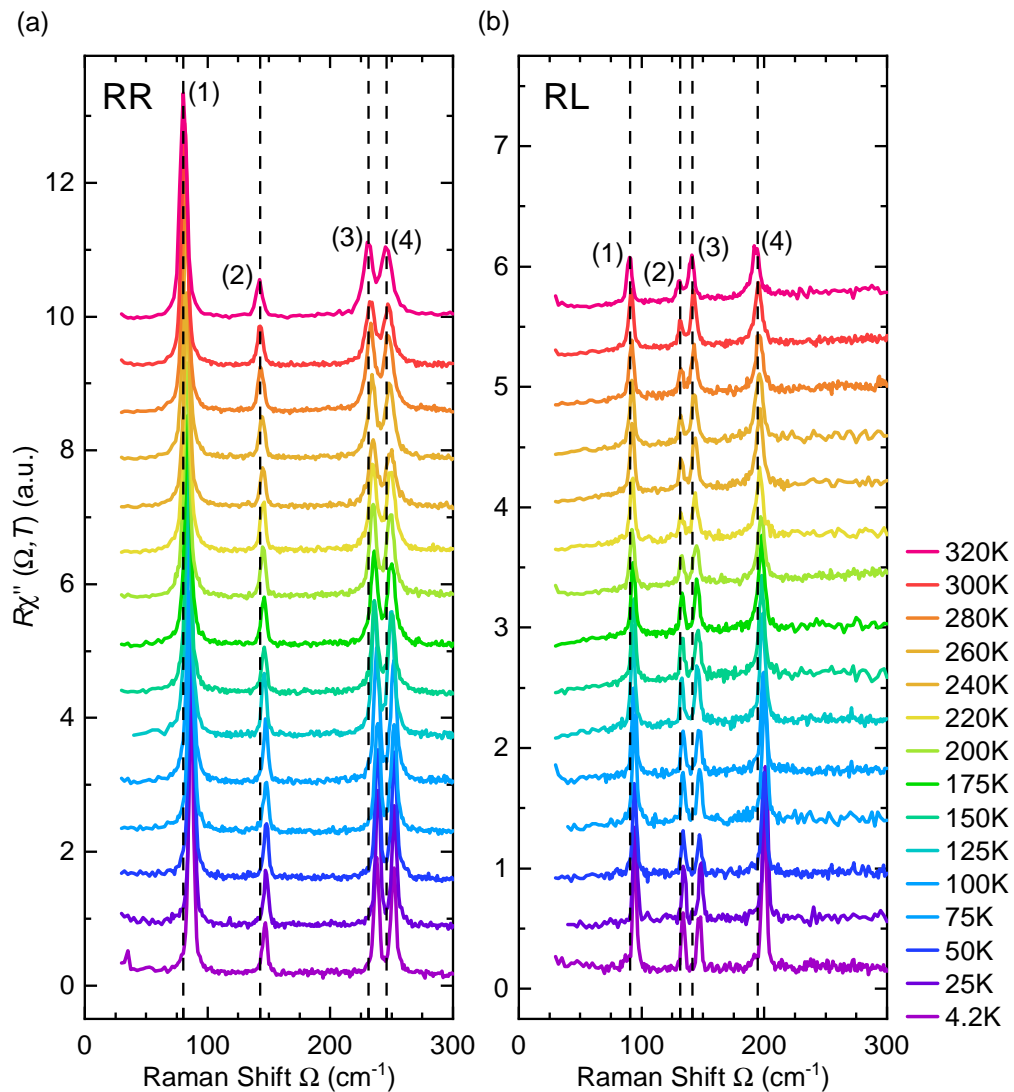
100–300  $\mu\text{m}$  in the spectrometer, the Gaussian width increases linearly with increasing second intermediate slit as shown in Fig. 4.2.5 for all binnings, which agrees to expectations. The data points for 50  $\mu\text{m}$ , 400  $\mu\text{m}$  and 500  $\mu\text{m}$  do not follow this linear regression. The slit cuts into the focus and the slit width determines the Gaussian distribution. If the slit width is now bigger than the spot size, no cutting appears and the curve flattens. The data of the  $b = 4$  measurements are a little shifted upwards, which corresponds to the binning distribution for  $\geq 100 \mu\text{m}$  to the Gaussian broadening. The Gaussian width for the measurement setup (second intermediate slit width = 300  $\mu\text{m}$ ,  $b = 2$ ) can now be determined from Fig. 4.2.5:  $\omega_G = 4.7 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ .



# 5. Experimental Raman Scattering Results

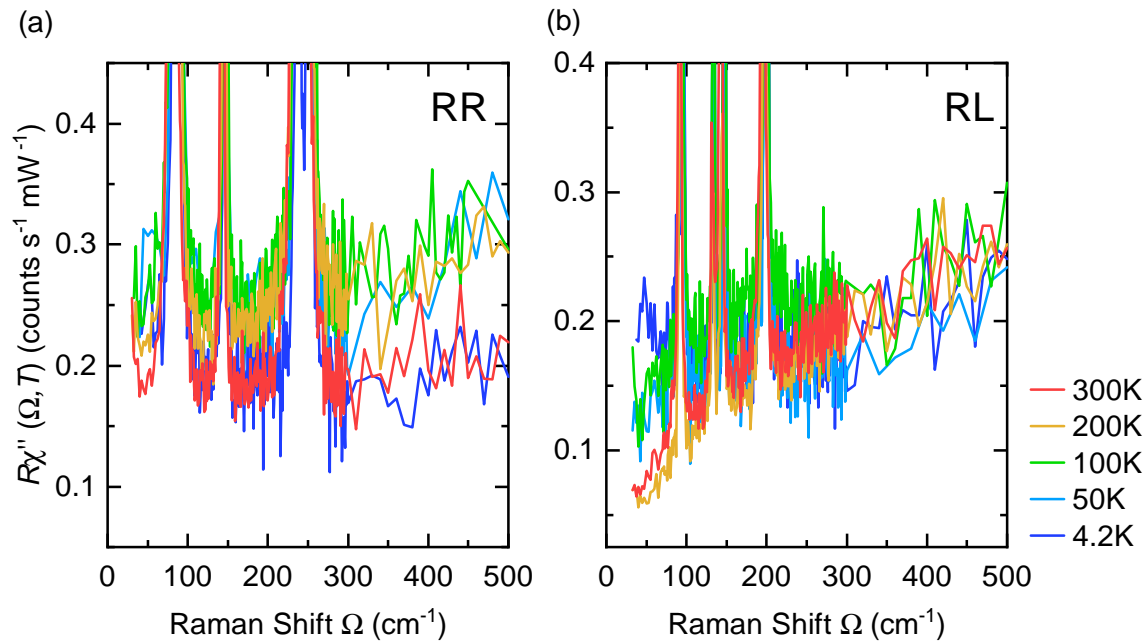
## 5.1. Kagome Lattice Materials

### 5.1.1. $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$



**Figure 5.1.1.:** Raman spectra of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$ . Panel (a) and (b) depict the temperature dependence of the eight observed peaks in  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  in RR- and RL-polarization, respectively. The spectra at the lowest temperature display the experimentally detected intensity. The  $A_{1g}$  spectra are consecutively offset by 0.7 cts/(s mW) and those in  $E_g$  symmetry by 0.4 cts/(s mW) each for clarity [17].

Spectra of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  measured in the laboratory "Raman I" are shown in Fig. 5.1.1. The range of the measured Raman shift  $\Omega$  is from  $30 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $300 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  with steps of  $\Delta\Omega = 2.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  between  $\Omega \in [30, 70] \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $\Delta\Omega = 1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  between  $\Omega \in [70, 300] \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The colour scale on the right indicates the temperatures at the sample holder. Raman spectra were taken in RR- (shown in Fig. 5.1.1 (a)) and RL-polarization (shown in Fig. 5.1.1 (b)) at temperatures ranging between 4.2 K and 320 K. The spectra in Fig. 5.1.1 (a) show clear peaks. At the temperature  $T = 320 \text{ K}$  they are located at  $80.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (1),  $142.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (2),  $230.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (3), and  $245.9 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (4). All of them harden continuously with decreasing temperature and get sharper. At  $T = 4.2 \text{ K}$  they are located at  $86.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (1),  $146.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (2),  $237.7 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (3), and  $251.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (4). On the other hand the measurements in Fig. 5.1.1 (b) were performed with the polarization "RL". Here, four peaks could be identified. At the temperature  $T = 320 \text{ K}$  the peaks are located at  $90.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (1),  $130.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (2),  $140.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (3), and  $193.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (4). All peaks harden continuously with decreasing temperature as well especially peak (2) and gain intensity. At  $T = 4.2 \text{ K}$  they are located at  $94.3 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (1),  $133.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (2),  $147.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (3), and  $199.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (4). The spectra in RR- and RL-polarization are consecutively offset by  $0.7 \text{ cts}/(\text{s mW})$  and  $0.4 \text{ cts}/(\text{s mW})$  for clarity, respectively [17].



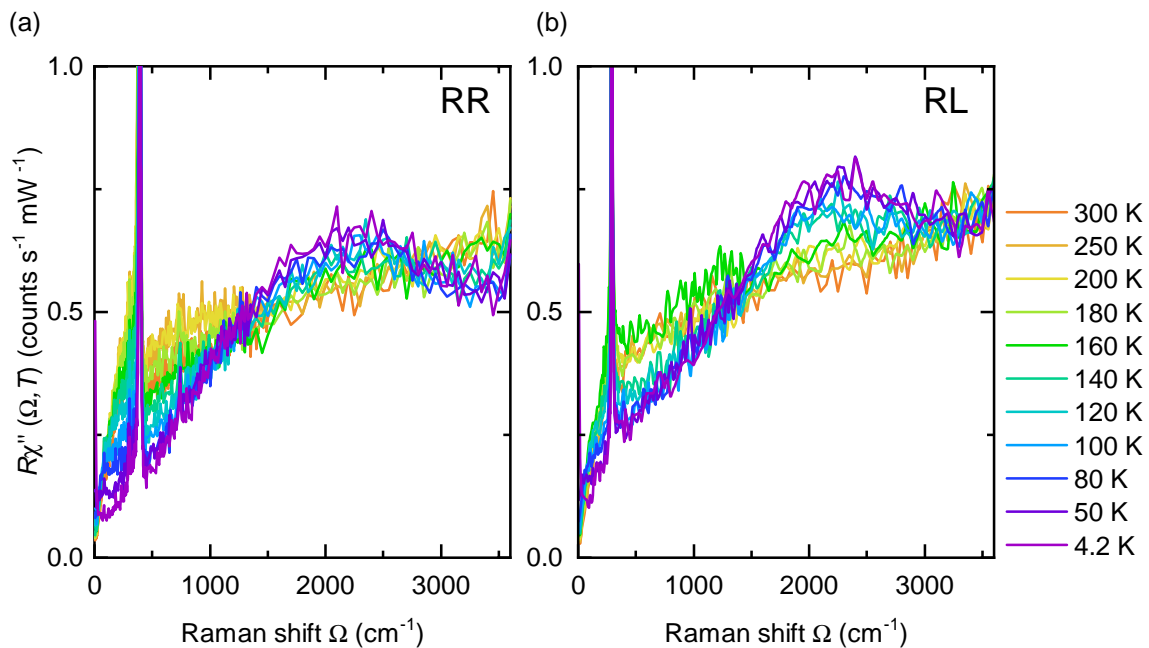
**Figure 5.1.2.:** Electronic continuum in (a) RR- and (b) RL-polarization at temperatures as indicated. Only the continuum in RL-polarization remains examinable at low temperature, since the spectra in RR-polarization increase too strongly towards low energies due to surface contamination and diffuse elastic scattering from the laser. The increase of the spectra in RL-polarization in the limit  $\Omega \rightarrow 0$  is a real physical effect since the spectra at 4.2 K have a peak at finite energy and then decrease again as opposed to a laser-induced divergence [17].

To take a closer look at the electronic continuum at low energies, Fig. 5.1.2 shows the spectra from Fig. 5.1.1 zoomed in for the relevant temperatures at the right bottom. Only



the measurements in RL-polarization exhibit a visible temperature dependency, while the spectral weight at low energies in RR-polarization increases strongly. This stems most likely from surface contamination leading to diffuse elastic scattering of the laser light. Upon cooling from 300 K the initial slope and the spectral weight below  $100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  increase and a peak forms at approximately  $47 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at 4.2 K. The increase in the limit  $\Omega \rightarrow 0$  is a real effect since the spectra at 4.2 K have a peak at finite energy and then decrease again as opposed to a laser-induced divergence [17].

### 5.1.2. $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$

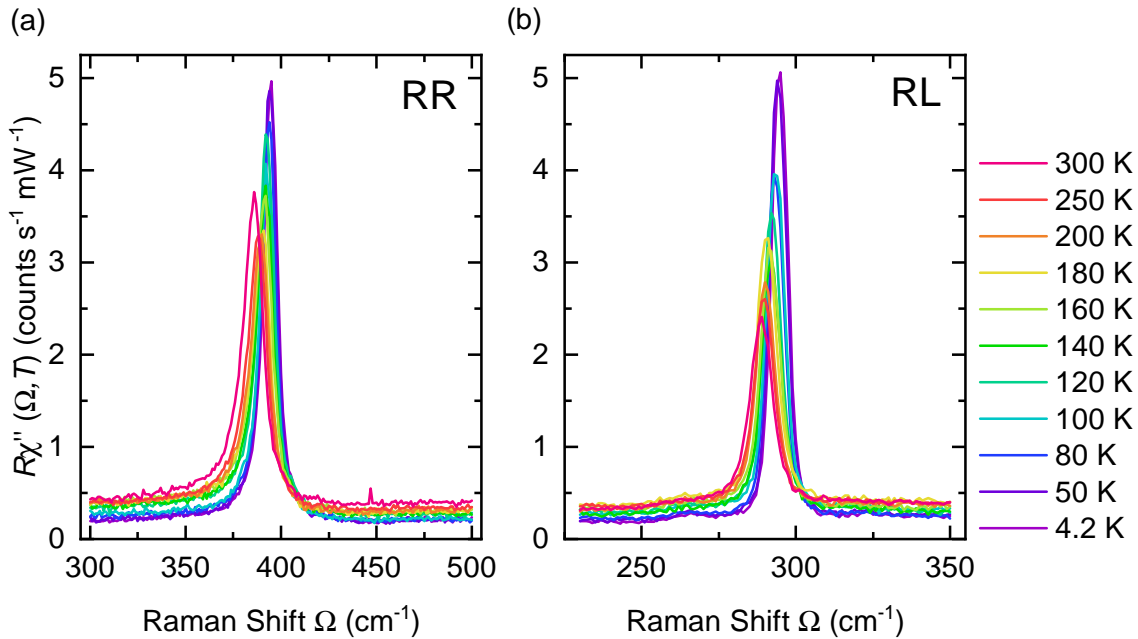


**Figure 5.1.3.:** Raman spectra in (a) RR- and (b) RL-polarization recorded for various temperatures ranging from 4.2 K – 300 K.

Fig. 5.1.3 (a) and (b) show Raman spectra of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  measured in the laboratory "Raman I" at temperatures ranging between 4.2 K and 300 K. Measurements were done in a Raman shift  $\Omega$  range from  $5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $3600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The colour scale on the right displays the temperatures measured at the sample holder. The measurements in Fig. 5.1.3 (a) were performed in RR-polarization with steps of  $\Delta\Omega = 5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  between  $\Omega \in [5, 230] \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\Delta\Omega = 2.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  between  $\Omega \in [230, 450] \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\Delta\Omega = 10 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  between  $\Omega \in [450, 1350] \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and  $\Delta\Omega = 50 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  between  $\Omega \in [1350, 3600] \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The measurements in Fig. 5.1.3 (b) were taken in RL-polarization with steps of  $\Delta\Omega = 10 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  between  $\Omega \in [5, 175] \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\Delta\Omega = 5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  between  $\Omega \in [175, 410] \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\Delta\Omega = 20 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  between  $\Omega \in [410, 1410] \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and  $\Delta\Omega = 50 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  between  $\Omega \in [1410, 3600] \text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

The spectra in both RR- and RL-symmetries consist of a continuum with an overlaying peak. In RR-symmetry (Fig. 5.1.3 (a)) the spectrum shows one clear peak with an asym-

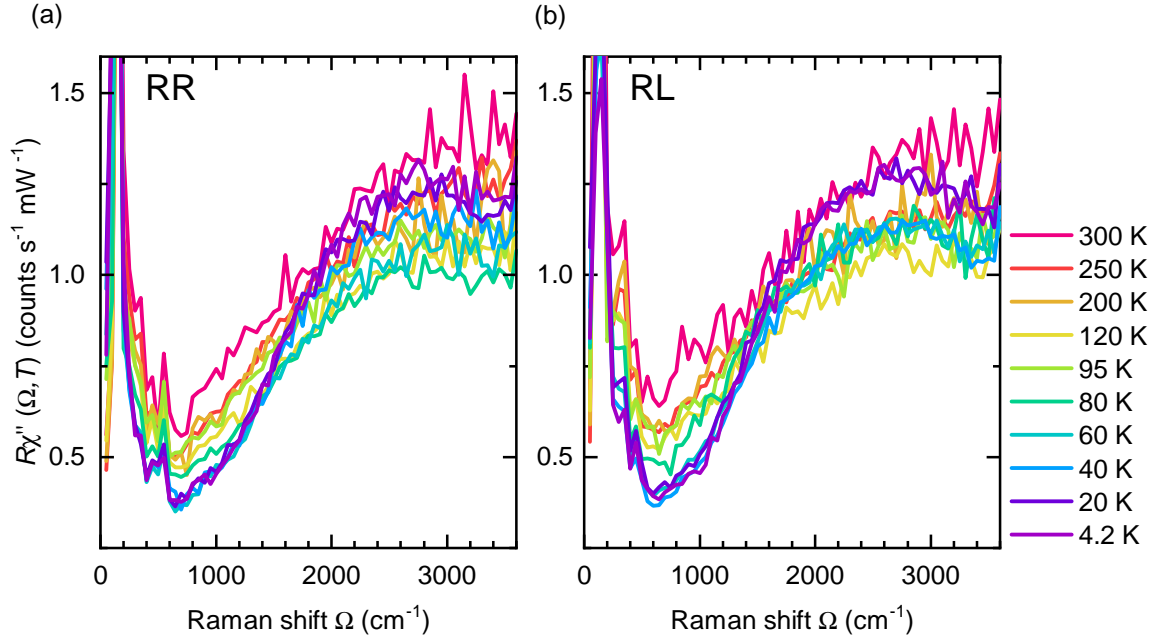
metric shape, which hardens and sharpens continuously with decreasing temperature. In RL-symmetry on the other hand, a clear peak with a symmetric shape appears, which hardens and sharpens continuously with decreasing temperature as well. Cooling down from 200 K leads in both spectra to a decrease in the initial slope of the electronic continuum and the spectral weight in the range from  $5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  up to  $1400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . At energies above  $1400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  the spectral weight increases again, but shows another decrease in spectral weight above  $3000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The decrease of spectral weight at lower energies is stronger in RR-symmetry compared to RL-symmetry, while the increase of spectral weight at high energies is vice versa. The strong increase at  $4.2 \text{ K}$  for  $\Omega \rightarrow 0$  stems from insufficient suppression of the laser light.



**Figure 5.1.4.:** Raman spectra in (a) RR- and the (b) RL-polarization at temperatures as indicated in  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ .

Fig. 5.1.4 (a) and (b) takes a closer look at the peaks in RR- and RL-symmetry from Fig. 5.1.3, respectively. The range of the measured Raman shift  $\Omega$  is from  $300 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $500 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in Fig. 5.1.4 (a) and from  $230 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $350 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in Fig. 5.1.4 (b). The measurements were performed with steps of  $\Delta\Omega = 1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  over the whole range. The RR- (shown in Fig. 5.1.4 (a)) and the RL-polarized (shown in Fig. 5.1.4 (b)) Raman spectra were measured at temperatures ranging between  $4.2 \text{ K}$  and  $300 \text{ K}$ .

The spectrum taken in RR-polarization shows one clear peak with an asymmetric shape, which hardens and sharpens continuously with decreasing temperature. The peak position shifts from  $386.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at  $T = 300 \text{ K}$  to  $394.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at  $T = 4.2 \text{ K}$ . The spectrum taken in RL-symmetry on the other hand shows one clear peak with a symmetric shape, which hardens and sharpens continuously with decreasing temperature as well. The peak position moves from  $288.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at  $T = 300 \text{ K}$  to  $294.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at  $T = 4.2 \text{ K}$ .

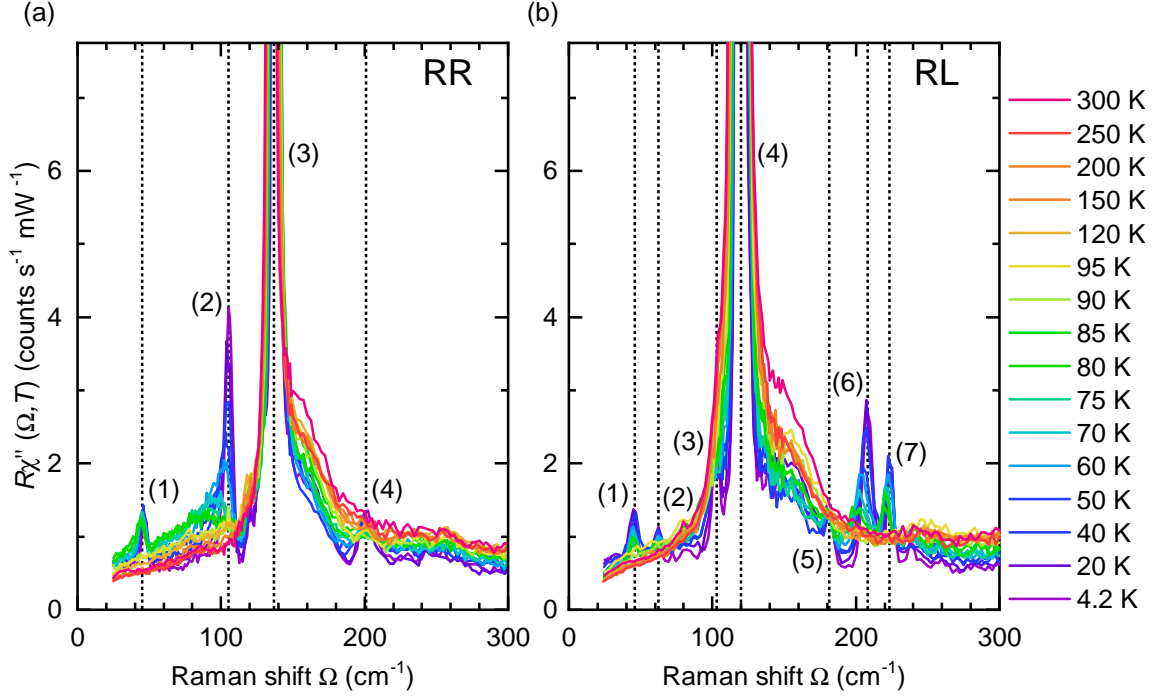
5.1.3.  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$ 

**Figure 5.1.5.:** Raman spectra from  $50 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $3600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in (a) RR- and (b) RL-polarization for  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  at temperatures measured at the sample holder as indicated.

Long  $\Omega$ -range spectra of  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  measured in the laboratory "Raman I" are shown in Fig. 5.1.5. Measurements in RR- and RL- polarization were taken with steps of  $\Delta\Omega = 50 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  from  $50 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $3600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at temperatures between  $4.2 - 300 \text{ K}$  measured at the sample holder.

Fig. 5.1.5 (a) shows Raman spectra in RR-polarization above and below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ , which consist of a strong peak at  $138.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at  $300 \text{ K}$  on top of an electronic continuum. Upon cooling below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ , spectral weight starts shifting from low to high energies with a crossing point at around  $1500 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The magnitude of this redistribution increases with lower temperatures, while no change is found above  $95 \text{ K}$ . Fig. 5.1.5 (b) shows Raman spectra in RL-polarization above and below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ , which as well consist of a strong peak at  $119.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at  $300 \text{ K}$  on a continuum. In RL-polarization, the same behaviour as in RR-polarization can be found, although the extent of the redistribution is slightly larger in the latter.

To take a closer look at the lower energy region, Raman spectra from  $25 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $300 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at temperatures between  $4.2 - 300 \text{ K}$  were measured. Here, a step size of  $\Delta\Omega = 1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  between  $\Omega \in [25, 150] \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $\Delta\Omega = 2.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  between  $\Omega \in [150, 300] \text{ cm}^{-1}$  was used. Both, RR- and RL-polarization are pictured in Fig. 5.1.6 (a) and (b), respectively. In RR-polarization three peaks appear additionally to the peak (3) at  $138.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  as already seen in Fig. 5.1.5 (a). The first peak (peak (1)) at the lowest energies appears below the CDW

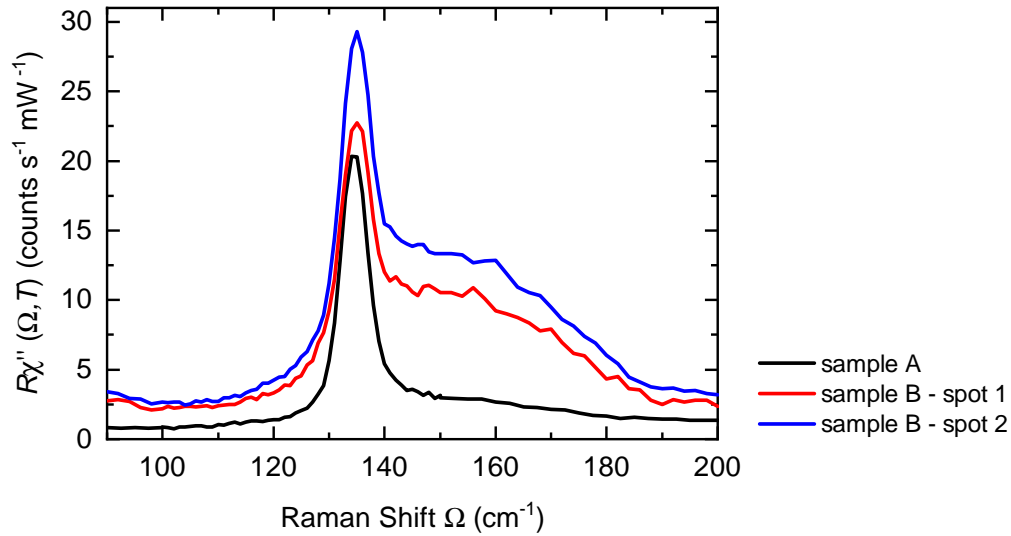


**Figure 5.1.6.:** Raman spectra from  $50 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $300 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in (a) RR- and (b) RL-polarization at temperatures measured at the sample holder as indicated in  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$ .

critical temperature  $T_{\text{CDW}} = 94 \text{ K}$  at  $42.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . It gains intensity, gets sharper and hardens for lower temperatures. Hence, the peak shifts from  $42.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $44.3 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . A second peak (peak (2)) builds up at low energies. First, a small hump appears around  $85 \text{ K}$  at  $89.9 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . This hump shifts drastically to higher energies (from  $89.9 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $104.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), sharpens and gains intensity. Also, this peak shows an asymmetric form. The third peak at  $134.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at  $300 \text{ K}$  shifts to higher energies ( $136.7 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at  $4.2 \text{ K}$ ) and sharpens for lower temperatures. The fourth peak (peak (4)) slowly arises for temperatures below  $70 \text{ K}$ , sharpens and gains in intensity, but stays at its peak position of approximately  $201 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

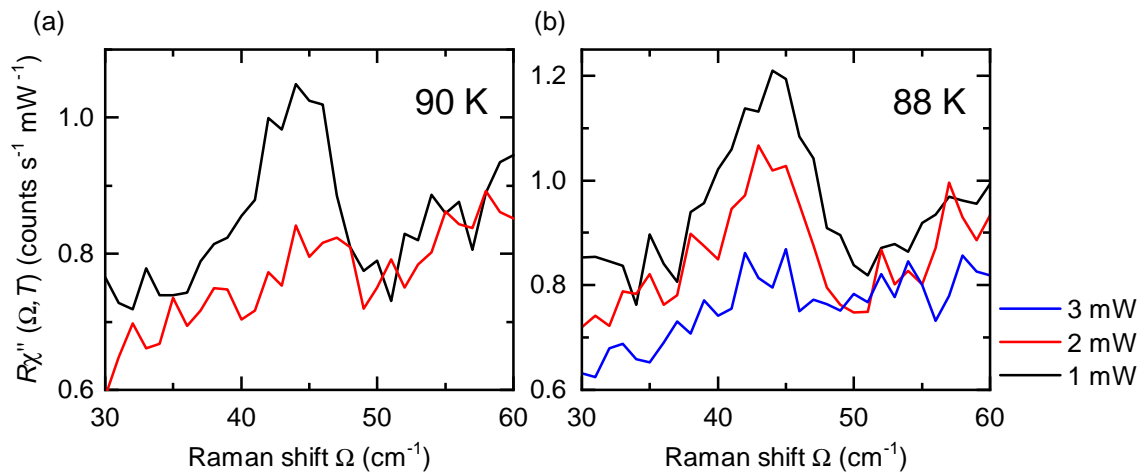
In RL-polarization more peaks manifest additionally to the peak (peak (4)) located at  $118.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at  $300 \text{ K}$ . Four peaks develop below  $85 \text{ K}$ . The first peak (peak (1)) is located at  $44.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , the second one (peak (2)) at  $60.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , the third one (peak (5)) at  $179.3 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and the fourth one (peak (7)) at  $220.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . All these four peaks sharpen, gain in intensity and shift to higher energies for lower temperatures ( $45.7 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $62.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $181.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $223.9 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at  $4.2 \text{ K}$ , respectively). A fifth peak (peak (3)) begins to form below  $60 \text{ K}$  at  $101 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  overlaying on the slope of the fourth peak at  $119.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . This peak behaves similar to the other already observed peaks. A sixth peak (peak (6)) arises from a small hump below  $85 \text{ K}$  at  $199.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . This one behaves kind of similar to the second peak (peak (2)) in RR-polarization. The hump shifts drastically to higher energies (to  $208.3 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at  $4.2 \text{ K}$ ), sharpens and gains intensity, but it shows a symmetric form. In both, RR- and RL-polarization the peaks at  $138.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $119.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  exhibit a shoulder on the higher

energy side, respectively.



**Figure 5.1.7.:** Raman spectra in RR-polarization at 300 K for different samples of the material  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$ . In contrast to sample A, a clear shoulder manifests for sample B for both spots.

For the measurements on the material  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  different samples and the same sample reinstalled for a second time were investigated. Sample B designates the reinstalled sample A after some time at the air. A broad shoulder, which can be seen in Fig. 5.1.7, appears for sample B for different spots on the sample but is not observed for sample A. The same shoulder can be found in Fig. 5.1.6. Due to the fact, that in contrast to sample A, sample B was exposed to air for a long time, this shoulder probably originates from contamination of the sample surface.



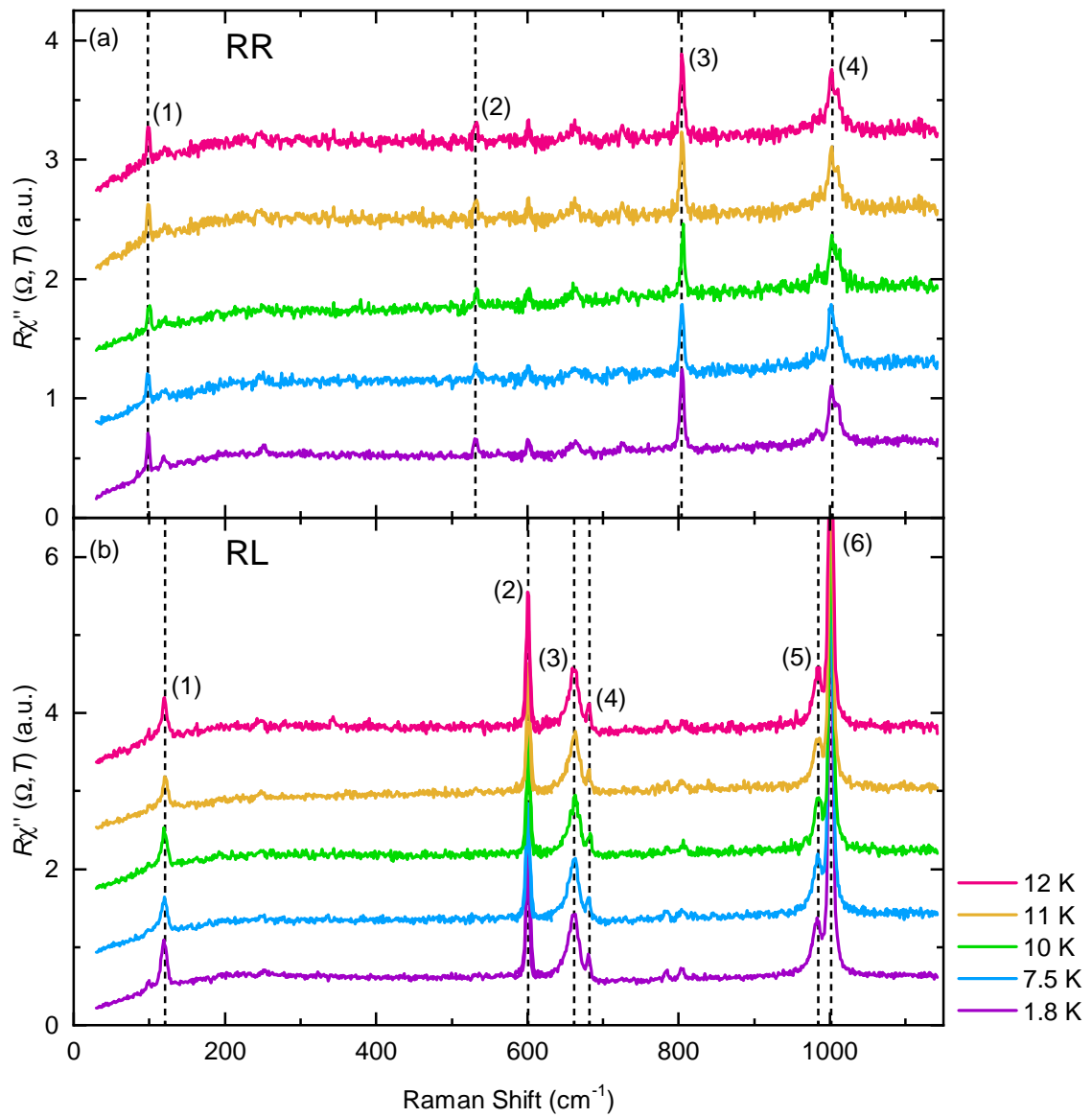
**Figure 5.1.8.:** Temperature calibration of the actual temperature on the sample  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  with the peak at  $43.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in RR-polarization. (a) At 90 K the peak appears, if the laser beam has an absorbed laser power  $p_{\text{abs}} = 1 \text{ mW}$  and disappears for  $p_{\text{abs}} = 2 \text{ mW}$ . (b) At 90 K the peak appears up to an absorbed laser power  $p_{\text{abs}} = 2 \text{ mW}$ . For  $p_{\text{abs}} = 3 \text{ mW}$  the peak disappears.

The peak with the energy  $\Omega = 43.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  appears abruptly in RR-polarization, when cooling down below the CDW critical temperature  $T_{\text{CDW}} = 94 \text{ K}$  [22]. Therefore, this sharp peak can be used to determine the additional heating of the sample due to the laser spot on the sample. Measurements were made at two different temperatures, 90 K and 88 K using a different laser beam power. These measurements are pictured in Fig. 5.1.8 (a) and (b), respectively. At 90 K, the peak appears, if 1 mW absorbed laser power is applied and disappears for  $p_{\text{abs}} = 2 \text{ mW}$ . At 88 K the peak is visible for  $p_{\text{abs}} = 1 \text{ mW}$  and  $p_{\text{abs}} = 2 \text{ mW}$  but vanishes for  $p_{\text{abs}} = 3 \text{ mW}$ . Since the peak only appears for temperatures below  $T_{\text{CDW}} = 94 \text{ K}$  a value for the laser-induced heating can be found:  $2 \text{ K} < h < 3 \text{ K}$ . Looking at the measurement at 85 K with a laser power of  $p_{\text{abs}} = 4 \text{ mW}$ , the peak is also present. Therefore the heating range is  $2 \text{ K} < h < 2.25 \text{ K}$ . Although the impact of heating is higher at lower temperatures, a constant value for the heating will be taken into account. Therefore, the average of the two boundary values is used and added to the temperature values measured at the sample holder:  $h \approx 2.1 \text{ K}$ . From now on temperatures of measurements of  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  will be adjusted.

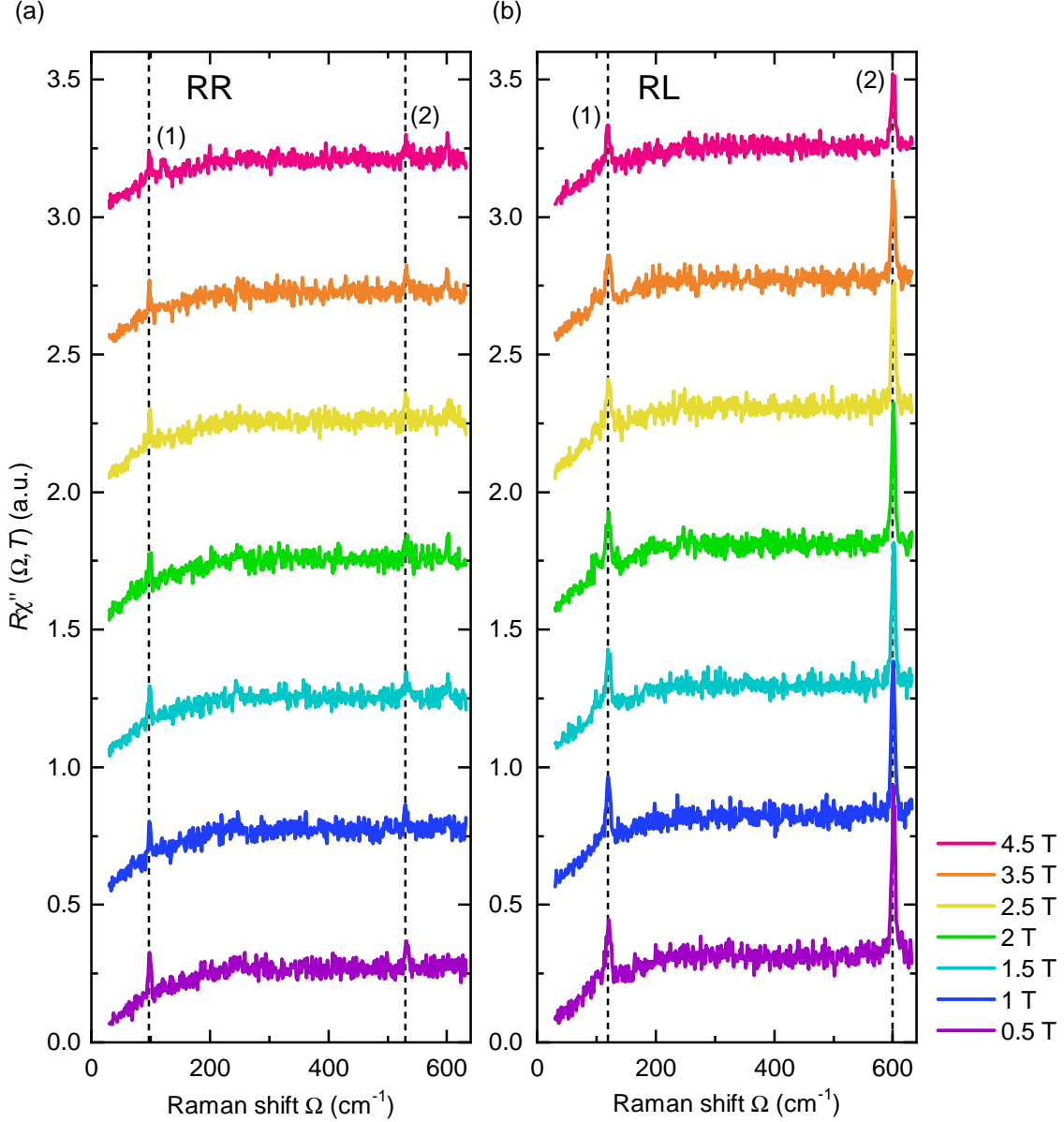
## 5.2. Tetraboride $\text{TmB}_4$

All measurements of  $\text{TmB}_4$  were performed in the laboratory "Raman II". Long  $\Omega$ -range spectra of  $\text{TmB}_4$  are shown in Fig. 5.2.1. Measurements in RR- and RL- polarization were taken with steps of  $\Delta\Omega = 1.25 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  from  $30 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $1142.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at temperatures between  $1.8 - 12 \text{ K}$  at the sample holder as indicated. A static external magnetic field  $B = 1 \text{ T}$  was applied during the measurements. The data are consecutively offset by  $0.65 \text{ cts}/(\text{s mW})$  in RR- and by  $0.8 \text{ cts}/(\text{s mW})$  in RL-polarization for clarity.

Fig. 5.2.1 (a) present Raman spectra in RR-polarization at temperatures as indicated, which consist of various peaks on an electronic continuum. Four peaks are observed in this polarization. The first peak appears at around  $98.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , the second peak at  $531.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , the third peak at  $804.45 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and the fourth one at  $1000.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in all temperatures. Fig. 5.2.1 (b) depicts Raman spectra in RL-polarization at temperatures as indicated, which consist of six peaks on an electronic continuum. The following peak energies were recorded at  $1.8 \text{ K}$ . The first peak appears at  $119.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and the second peak at  $601.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The following double peak consists of the third and fourth peak of the spectra, which are located at  $660.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $681.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively. The fifth peak with energy  $982.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  overlaps with the shoulder of the sixth peak, which has a Raman shift of  $1001.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . No visible change in linewidth or position occurs for higher temperatures.



**Figure 5.2.1.:** The temperature-dependent Raman spectra of  $TmB_4$  in the (a) RR- and (b) RL-polarization at temperatures as indicated in the "Raman lab II", respectively. A magnetic field  $B = 1$  T was applied. The data are consecutively offset by 0.65 cts/(s mW) in RR- and by 0.8 cts/(s mW) in RL-polarization for clarity. The dashed black lines mark the energy of the peak at the highest temperature.

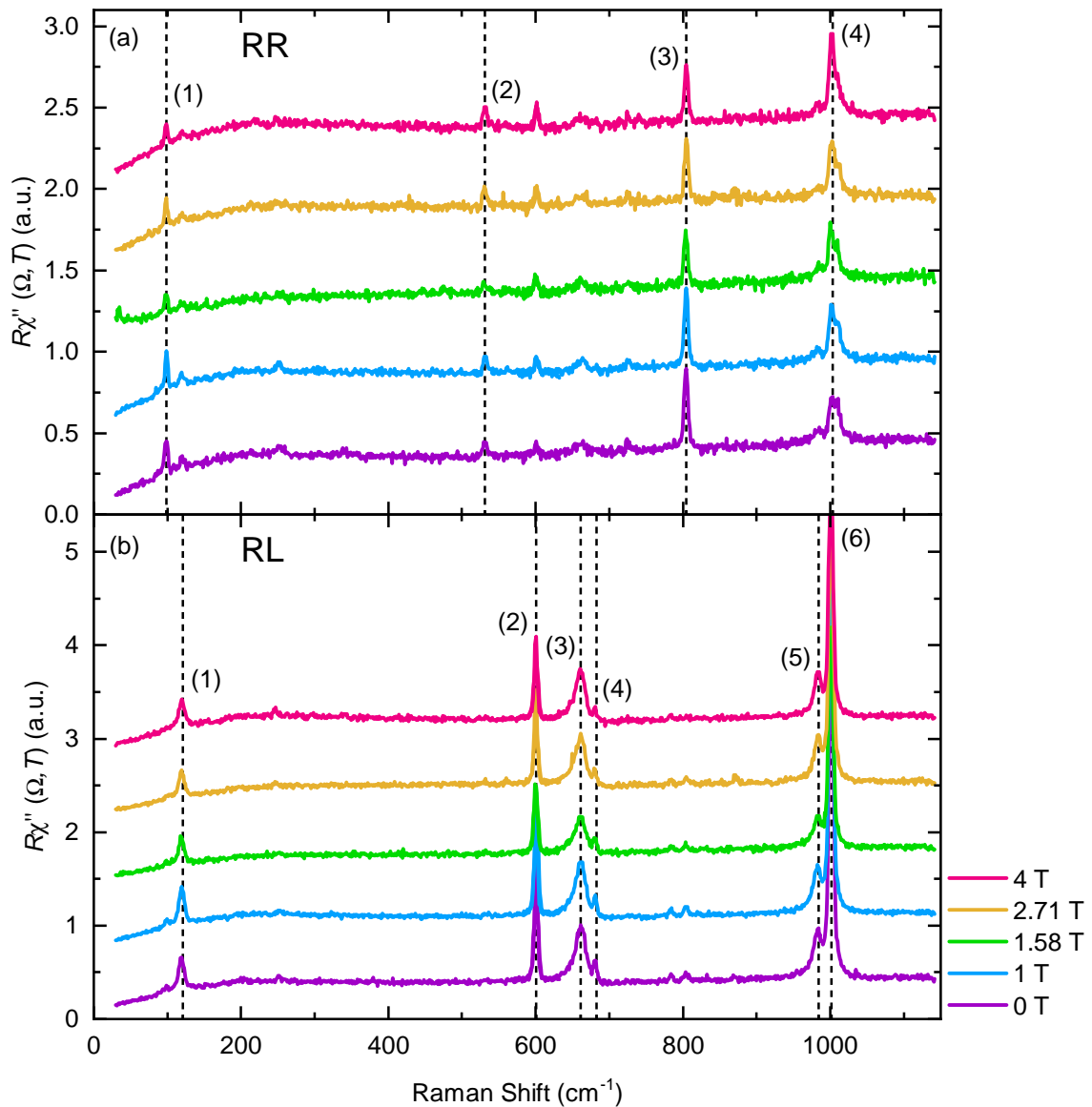


**Figure 5.2.2:** The temperature-dependent Raman spectra at  $T = 20$  K of  $\text{TmB}_4$  in the (a) RR- and (b) RL-polarization measured with applied magnetic fields as indicated in the "Raman lab II", respectively. The data are consecutively offset by 0.5 cts/(s mW) each for clarity. The dashed black lines mark the energy of the peak at the highest magnetic field.

Low energy Raman spectra of  $\text{TmB}_4$  obtained at  $T = 20$  K are pictured in Fig. 5.2.2. Measurements with a step size of  $\Delta\Omega = 1.25$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  from  $30$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  to  $632.5$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  were performed in RR- and RL-polarization while a static external magnetic field was applied ranging between  $B = 0.5 - 4.5$  T. The magnetic field was ramped up in steps of  $\Delta B = 0.5$  T. The data are consecutively offset by 0.5 cts/(s mW) each for clarity. Raman spectra obtained in RR-polarization, which are illustrated in Fig. 5.2.2 (a) are composed of two peaks superimposed on a continuum. The first peak appears at  $98.3$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and the second peak at  $532.2$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . In RL-polarization on the other hand two peaks appear as well. The



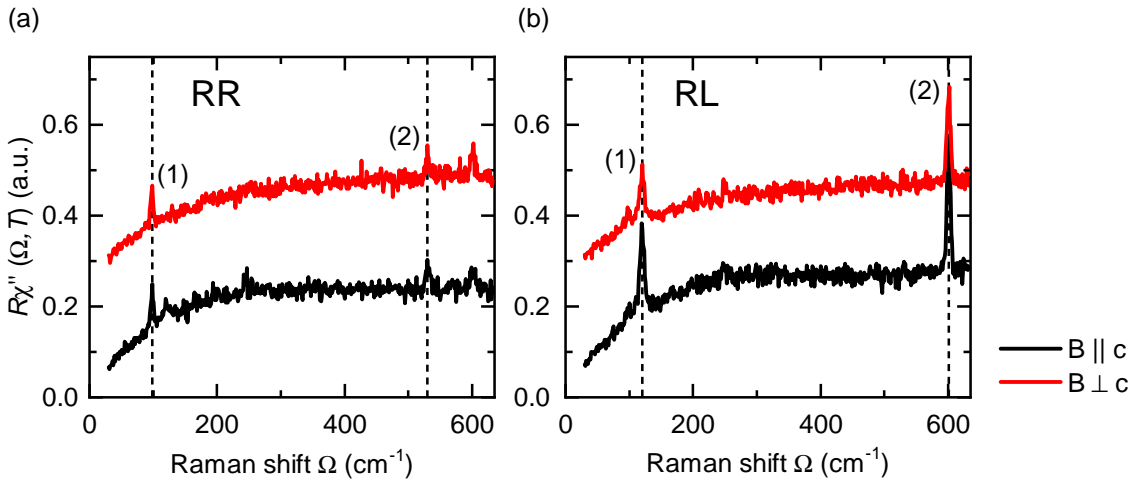
corresponding Raman spectra are shown in Fig. 5.2.2 (b). These two peaks at  $120.35\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $601.2\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively, are also overlaying on an electronic continuum.



**Figure 5.2.3:** The temperature-dependent Raman spectra in the superfluid phase at  $T = 1.8\text{ K}$  of  $TmB_4$  in the (a) RR- and (b) RL-polarization measured with applied magnetic fields as indicated in the "Raman lab II", respectively. The data are consecutively offset by  $0.5\text{ cts}/(\text{s mW})$  in RR- and  $0.7\text{ cts}/(\text{s mW})$  in RL-polarization for clarity. The dashed black lines mark the energy of the peak at the highest magnetic field.

Fig. 5.2.3 illustrates Raman spectra taken in the superfluid phase at  $T = 1.8\text{ K}$  in both RR- and RL-polarization. These measurements were carried out in steps of  $\Delta\Omega = 1.25\text{ cm}^{-1}$  in an energy range of  $30\text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $1142.5\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . A static external magnetic field as indicated was applied during the measurements. The data are consecutively offset by  $0.5\text{ cts}/(\text{s mW})$  in RR- and  $0.7\text{ cts}/(\text{s mW})$  in RL-polarization for clarity.

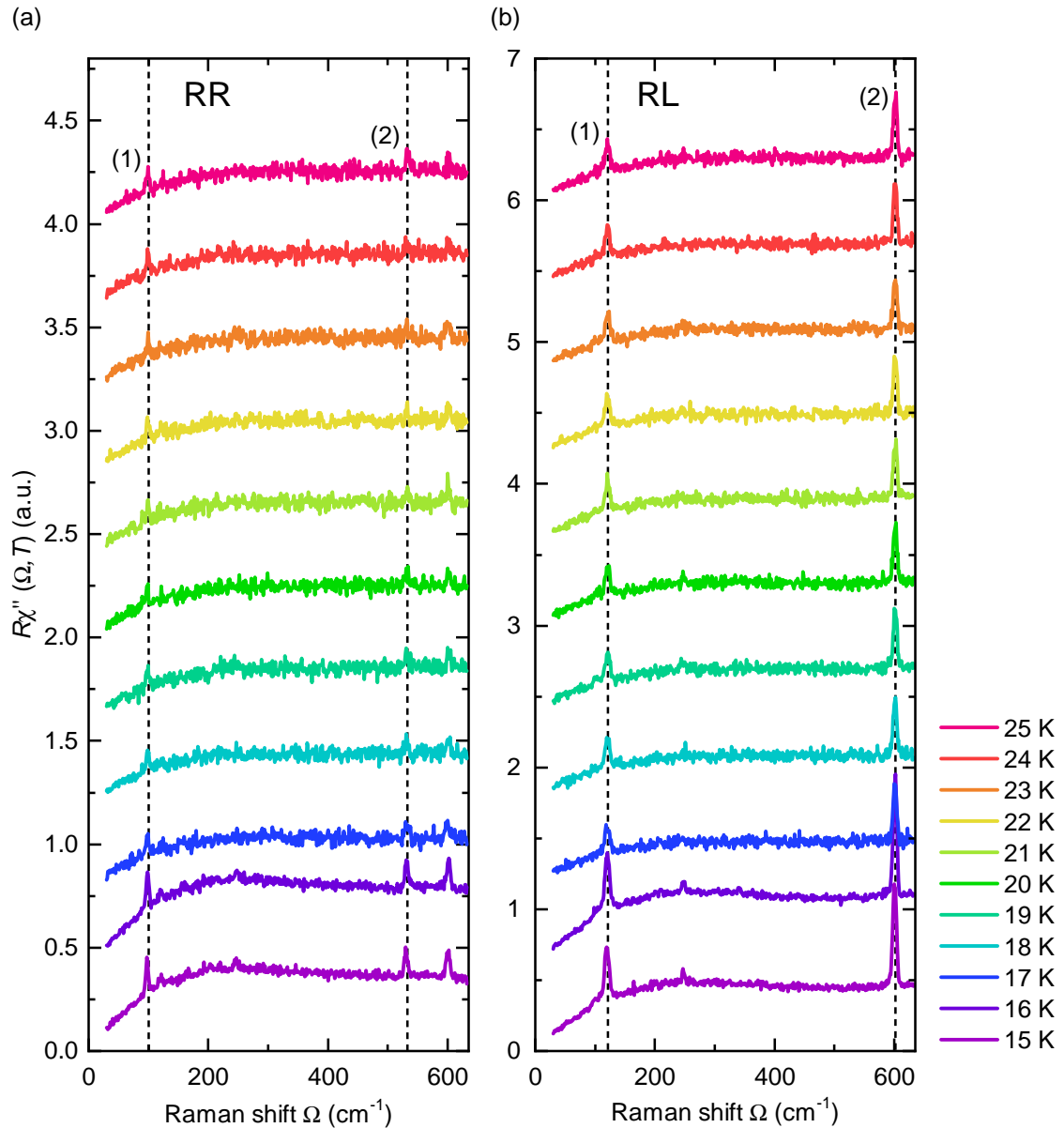
The RR-polarized Raman response in Fig. 5.2.3 (a) consists of four sharp peaks superimposed on a continuum. At zero-field the first peak is located at  $98.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , the second peak at  $531.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , the third peak at  $804.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and the fourth peak at  $1005.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . In RL-polarization in addition to the first peak with the energy  $119.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and the second peak with the energy  $600.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , two double peaks can be identified. The first double peak consists of the energy-wise third and the fourth peak, which occur at  $660.9 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $680.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively. The fourth peak overlaps with the shoulder of the third peak. The second double peak arises from the fifth and the sixth peak of the RL-polarized Raman response. These members of the second double peak have the energies  $982.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1001.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively.



**Figure 5.2.4:** The temperature-dependent Raman spectra with an applied magnetic field  $B = 5 \text{ T}$  at  $T = 20 \text{ K}$  of  $\text{TmB}_4$  in the (a) RR- and (b) RL-polarization measured in the "Raman lab II", respectively. The data are consecutively offset by  $0.25 \text{ cts}/(\text{s mW})$  each for clarity. The dashed black lines mark the energy of the peak. The sample was cooled down to  $T = 20 \text{ K}$ . First, the measurement with  $B \parallel c$  was performed. Afterwards, the sample was rotated so  $B \perp c$ .

The measurements of  $\text{TmB}_4$  in Fig. 5.2.4 were performed at a static externally applied magnetic field at  $T = 20 \text{ K}$  in both RR- and RL- polarization. First, the sample was cooled down to the desired temperature and afterwards the magnetic field, which was applied parallel to the  $c$ -direction of the sample, was ramped up to  $B = 5 \text{ T}$ . After the measurement with  $B \parallel c$  were taken, the sample was rotated to  $B \perp c$  and the same measurement was repeated. These measurements were performed with a step size of  $\Delta\Omega = 1.25 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  from  $30 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $632.55 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The data are consecutively offset by  $0.25 \text{ cts}/(\text{s mW})$  each for clarity.

The two peaks onto a continuum in RR-polarization are located at  $98.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $530.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively, while the RL-polarization data consist of two peaks onto a continuum as well, which have the energies  $119.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $600.7 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The energies of the peaks correspond to  $B \parallel c$ . The peaks change neither in shape nor in position, if the sample is rotated in an applied external magnetic field.



**Figure 5.2.5.:** The temperature-dependent Raman spectra with an applied magnetic field  $B = 4.5$  T of  $TmB_4$  in the (a) RR- and (b) RL-polarization measured at temperatures as indicated in the "Raman lab II", respectively. The data are consecutively offset by 0.4 cts/(s mW) in RR- and 0.6 cts/(s mW) in RL-polarization for clarity. The dashed black lines mark the energy of the peak.

Raman spectra were recorded at temperatures between 15 K and 25 K with  $\Delta T = 1$  K. The corresponding Raman response is illustrated in Fig. 5.2.5 (a) in RR- and (b) in RL-polarization. The step size was  $\Delta\Omega = 1.25$   $cm^{-1}$  in a range  $[30, 1142.5]$   $cm^{-1}$ . The two peaks in RR-polarization have the energies  $97.8$   $cm^{-1}$  and  $530.2$   $cm^{-1}$  at 15 K. The two sharp peaks in RL-polarization are located at  $119.5$   $cm^{-1}$  and  $600.5$   $cm^{-1}$ , respectively. The shape of the continuum and the lost intensity between of the spectra below 16 K and above 17 K has changed due to the new alignment of the optics.



## 6. Discussion

### 6.1. Kagome

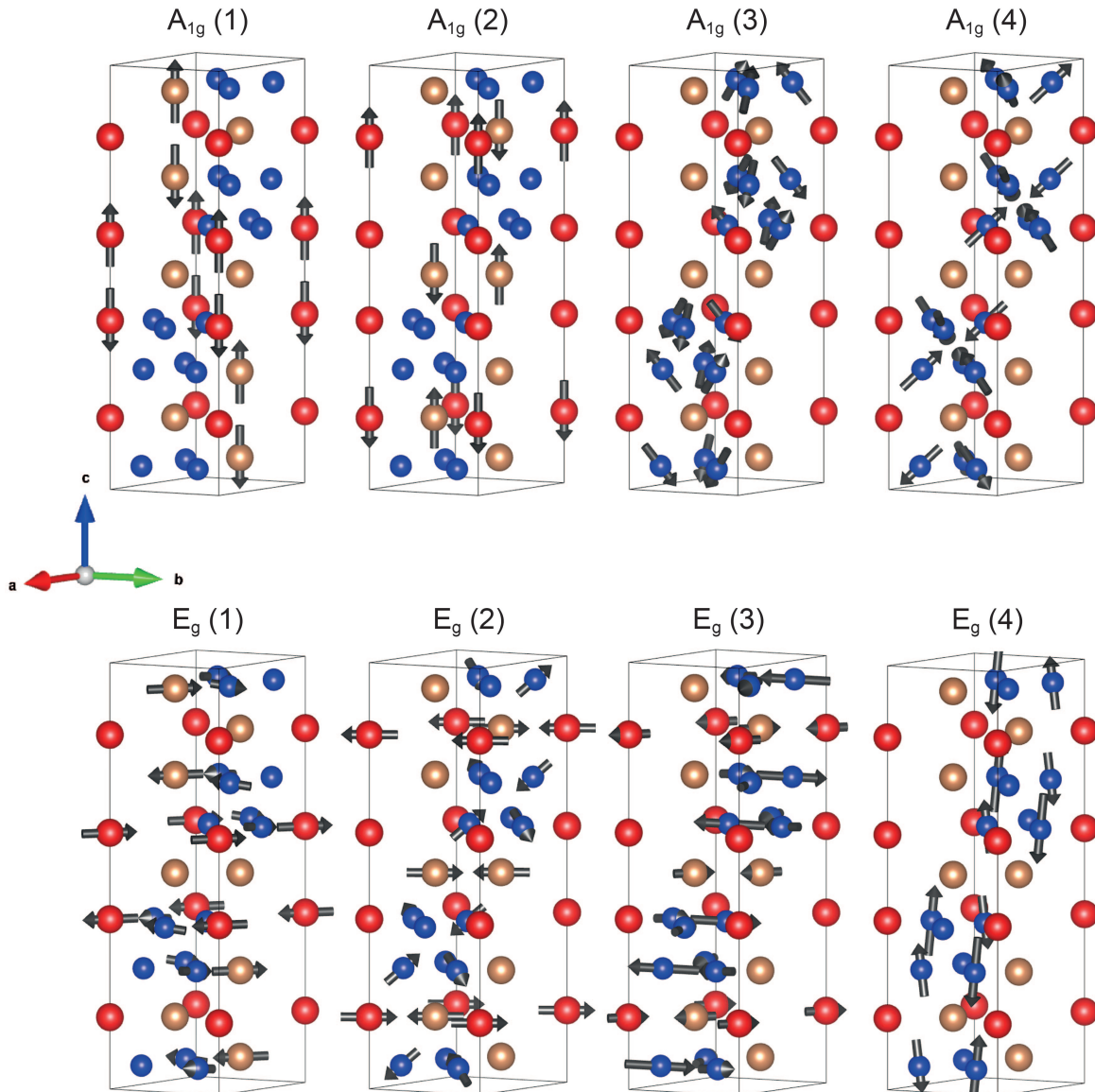
#### 6.1.1. Fe<sub>3</sub>Sn<sub>2</sub>

As already introduced in Section 2.1.1 the space group of Fe<sub>3</sub>Sn<sub>2</sub> is R $\bar{3}$ m (No. 166) and is part of the D<sub>3d</sub> point group. This leads to the corresponding Raman tensors

$$\begin{aligned} A_{1g} &= \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & b \end{pmatrix}, \\ E_g^{(1)} &= \begin{pmatrix} c & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -c & d \\ 0 & d & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ and} \\ E_g^{(2)} &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -c & -d \\ -c & 0 & 0 \\ -d & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned} \tag{6.1}$$

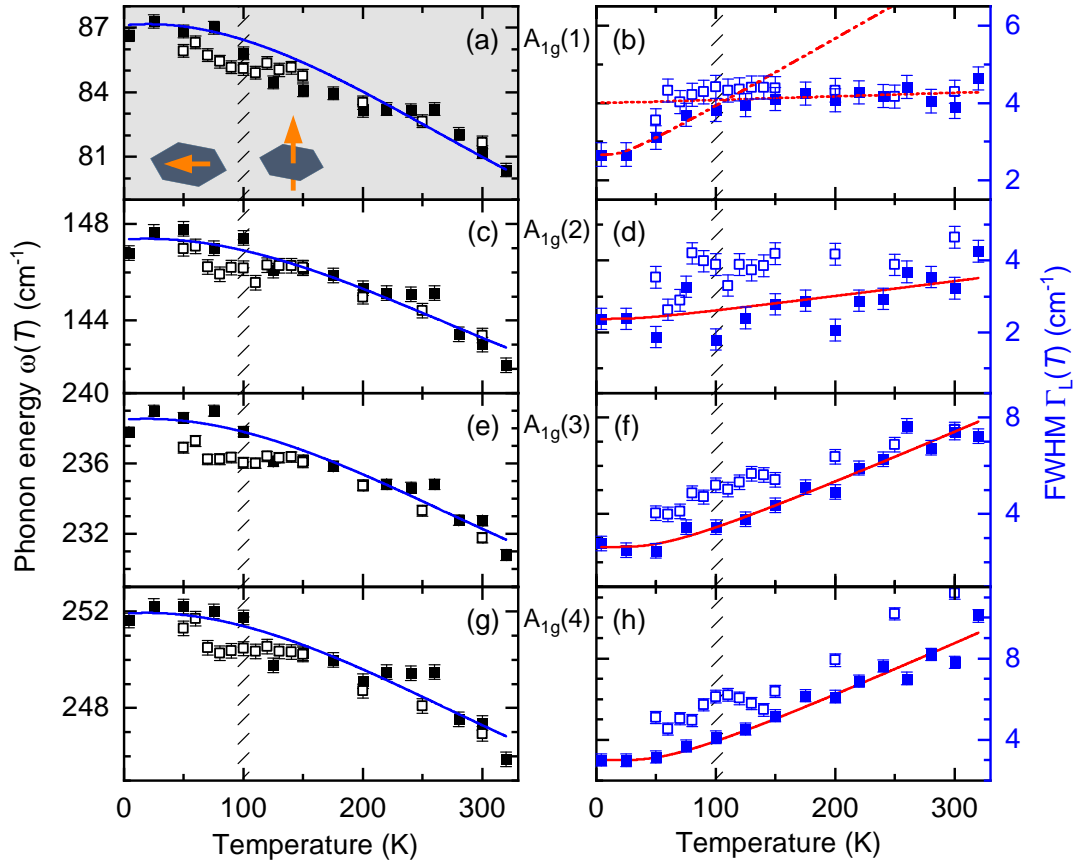
The Wyckoff positions of the Fe (18h) and the Sn (6c1, 6c2) atoms indicate the existence of four A<sub>1g</sub> and five E<sub>g</sub> Raman-active phonons. According to the Raman tensors shown in Eq. 6.1 the A<sub>1g</sub> phonons may be projected in the RR- and the E<sub>g</sub> phonons in the RL-channel. With this information the peaks in Fig. 5.1.1 (a) can be identified as the four A<sub>1g</sub> Raman-active phonons. In Fig. 5.1.1 (b) only four out of the five expected E<sub>g</sub> Raman-active phonons can be identified. The fifth absent E<sub>g</sub> phonon is probably to weak in intensity to be detected with this experimental setup. The respective eigenvectors of the identified A<sub>1g</sub> and E<sub>g</sub> phonon modes are pictured in Fig. 6.1.1.

To quantitatively analyze the observed phonons in the A<sub>1g</sub> and E<sub>g</sub> channels, these were fitted using a Voigt function (see Section 4.2.3). The widths indicated correspond directly to those of the phonon modes. The investigated peak energies and the linewidths (FWHM) are shown in Fig. 6.1.2 and 6.1.3. They were labeled consecutively from low to high energies. All phonon modes behave similar as a function of temperature, as already described in Section 5.1.1: they become harder and narrower upon cooling, which is a usual change in width and energy of phonons and is related to the anharmonic decay [98] and the lat-



**Figure 6.1.1.:** Eigenvectors of the  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_g$  phonon modes. The blue atoms describe the position of the Fe atoms, which order in a perfectly aligned kagome lattice. The red and gold atoms represent the Sn atoms either located on the corners of the unit cell or forming a honeycomb lattice below and above each kagome lattice. The black arrows indicate the possible phononic vibration modes of the individual atoms in the lattice [17].

tice contraction [99]. As it can be seen in Fig. 6.1.2 the  $A_{1g}$  modes (full black symbols), which were measured upon cooling as indicated in the figure, deviate from the expected behaviour in the temperature range around 100 K (hatched area). There, kinks are observed in the energies of the  $A_{1g}(1)$ ,  $A_{1g}(3)$  and  $A_{1g}(4)$  modes. Upon remeasuring the data in a row warming up from 50 K with an increment of 10 K in the temperature range from 50 – 150 K and an increment of 50 K in the temperature range from 150 – 300 K (open black symbols) demonstrates that the kinks can still be observed, although they are shifted slightly in energy. The origin of this shift is not entirely clear. It may be related to the first-order nature of the reorientation transition and a possible hysteresis [62]. An influence of



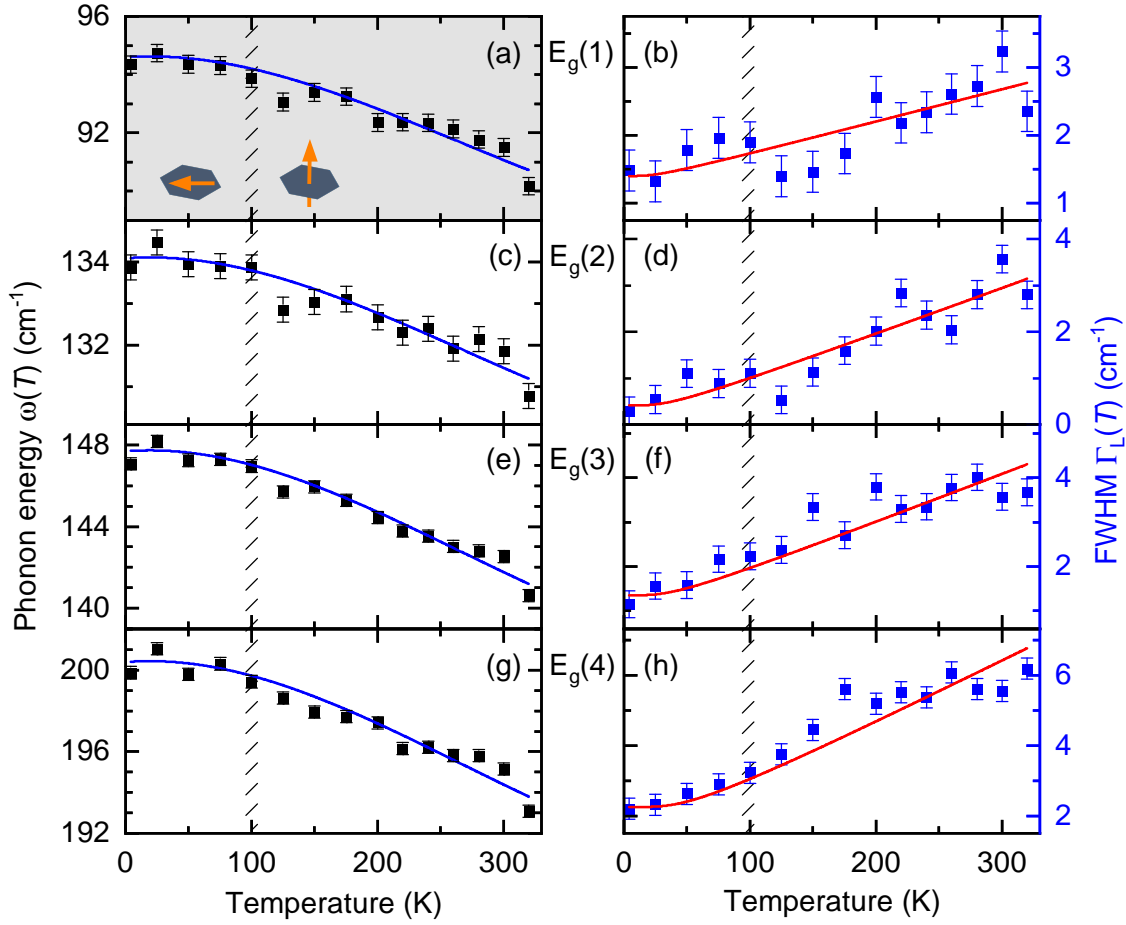
**Figure 6.1.2.:** Phonon energies  $\omega_0$  (black) and Lorentzian widths  $\Gamma_L$  (blue) of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  in  $A_{1g}$  symmetry. The magnetization orientation with respect to the  $ab$  plane is indicated in (a). The parameters are derived by fitting procedures as described in the text. The first series of measurements (full black and blue symbols) were taken at temperatures listed in the following sequence: [320, 300, 200, 100, 75, 50, 25, 4.2, 125, 150, 175, 220, 240, 260, 280] K. The second series (open black and blue symbols) was measured in a row warming up from 50 K with an increment of 10 K in the range of interest from 50 – 150 K. All linewidths  $\Gamma_L$  were fitted according to Eq. 6.2 (red lines). The linewidth of the  $A_{1g}$  mode at 86  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  in panel (b) shows an anomalous behavior, displaying a change in the expected temperature dependence at  $\approx 100$  K as indicated by the dashed area. Eq. 6.2 yields  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},1} = 0.2$  at low temperature and only  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},1} = 0.015$  above 100 K [17].

the fitting procedure is unlikely but cannot be excluded with certainty.

As already mentioned the phonon width reduces with decreasing temperature. This conventional reduction can be understood in terms of anharmonic decay [98] and can be represented by

$$\Gamma_L(T) = \Gamma_{L,0} \left( 1 + \frac{2\lambda_{\text{ph-ph}}}{\exp\left(\frac{\hbar\omega_0}{2k_B T}\right) - 1} \right). \quad (6.2)$$

Since  $\Gamma_{L,0}(T)$  and  $\omega_0$  can be extrapolated to zero from the experimental points below 50 K, only the phonon-phonon coupling  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$  in Eq. 6.2 is left as a free parameter, which is determined by a least-square fit of Eq. 6.2 to the experimental data. The fitted curves are



**Figure 6.1.3.:** Phonon energies  $\omega_0$  (black) and Lorentzian widths  $\Gamma_L$  (blue) of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  in  $E_g$  symmetry. The linewidth and phonon energies behave like those of ordinary phononic excitations without anomaly near the spin reorientation transition temperature [17].

shown as dashed-dotted and dotted red lines in Fig. 6.1.2. The resulting values for  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph}}$  can be found in Table 6.1.1.

All phonons except for the  $A_{1g}(1)$  mode show conventional behaviour and become exponentially narrower upon cooling. The only exception, the  $A_{1g}(1)$  phonon, behaves unexpectedly. The impact of the Kagome layer on the phonon energy changes is only visible in the  $A_{1g}$  channel due to the eigenvectors. Hence, it can not be seen in  $E_g$ . The temperature-dependence according to Eq. 6.2 only appears for  $T \leq 100$  K as shown as a dashed-dotted line in Fig. 6.1.2 (a). The phonon-phonon coupling yields  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph}}(A_{1g}(1)) = 0.2$ . For a temperature  $T \geq 100$  K the width is nearly temperature independent which corresponds to an unusually small coupling of  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph}}(A_{1g}(1)) = 0.015$ . The symmetric phonon-phonon decay channel is only accessible, if the spins are rotated into the  $ab$ -plane. Otherwise (spins pointing along the  $c$ -axis) the channel is blocked.

Since the phonon energy  $\omega(T)$  contains contributions from the lattice contraction, which depends on the thermal occupation of the phonons, as well as from the anharmonic decay it can be described by



Phonon	$A_{1g}(1)$	$A_{1g}(2)$	$A_{1g}(3)$	$A_{1g}(4)$
$\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$	$0.20 \pm 0.02, 0.015 \pm 0.008$	$0.14 \pm 0.05$	$0.68 \pm 0.08$	$0.74 \pm 0.08$
$\gamma_i$	$0.84 \pm 0.05, 0.88 \pm 0.05$	$0.34 \pm 0.02$	$0.32 \pm 0.02$	$0.22 \pm 0.01$
Phonon	$E_g(1)$	$E_g(2)$	$E_g(3)$	$E_g(4)$
$\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$	$0.11 \pm 0.03$	$1.11 \pm 0.59$	$0.29 \pm 0.06$	$0.42 \pm 0.07$
$\gamma_i$	$0.46 \pm 0.02$	$0.25 \pm 0.01$	$0.51 \pm 0.02$	$0.37 \pm 0.02$

**Table 6.1.1.:** Electron-phonon coupling and mode-specific Grüneisen parameters. The phonon-phonon coupling parameters  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$  were derived from the approximate harmonic fits to the temperature-dependent linewidths according to Eq. 6.2. As indicated in Fig. 6.1.2 as dashed-dotted and dotted lines, respectively, the two values of  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$  for  $A_{1g}(1)$  correspond to temperatures above and below 100 K [17]. The Grüneisen parameters are derived according to Eq. 6.3.

$$\begin{aligned}
\omega_{\text{ph},i}(T) &= \omega_i(0) + \Delta_i(T) = \omega_i(0) + \Delta_i^{(1)}(T) + \Delta_i^{(2)}(T) \\
&= \omega_i(0) + \omega_i(0) \left\{ \exp \left[ -3\gamma_i \int_0^T \alpha(T') dT' \right] - 1 \right\} - \frac{\Gamma_i(0)^2}{2\omega_i(0)} \left[ 1 + \frac{4\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}}{\exp\left(\frac{\hbar\omega_i}{2k_B T}\right) - 1} \right].
\end{aligned} \tag{6.3}$$

Here, only the two lowest-order contributions  $\Delta_i(T) = \Delta_i^{(1)}(T) + \Delta_i^{(2)}(T)$  are taken into account. The first order contribution  $\Delta_i^{(1)}(T)$  originates from the thermal lattice expansion, while the second order contribution  $\Delta_i^{(2)}(T)$  stems from the anharmonic decay of phonons. The phonon energy  $\omega_{\text{ph},i}(T)$  can be described by Eq. 6.3 [100]. The thermal expansion data  $\alpha(T)$  was obtained from unpublished data [101] (c.f. Appendix A.1). The theoretical temperature dependences according to Eq. 6.3 are displayed in Fig. 6.1.2 (a), (c), (e) and (g) as well as Fig. 6.1.3 (a), (c), (e) and (g) by blue curves. The relative change in frequency of the lattice vibrations is proportional to the relative volume change [102]. This fact is expressed by the Grüneisen parameter  $\gamma_{\mathbf{k}s} = -\partial(\ln \omega_i)/\partial(\ln V)$  of the mode  $\mathbf{k}s$ . In a real solid,  $\gamma_{\mathbf{k}s}$  is not the same for all normal modes. Hence, the overall Grüneisen parameter  $\gamma$

$$\gamma = \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{k},s} \gamma_{\mathbf{k}s} c_{vs}(\mathbf{k})}{\sum_{\mathbf{k},s} c_{vs}(\mathbf{k})}, \tag{6.4}$$

defined as the weighted average of  $\gamma_{\mathbf{k}s}$ , is temperature-dependent. As stated by Ashcroft and Mermin. [103],  $\gamma_{\mathbf{k}s}$  of each normal mode is weighted by its contribution to the specific heat  $c_{vs}$ . According to Eq. 6.4,  $\gamma$  approaches a constant value at temperatures close to and above the Debye temperature (c.f. Ref. [100]), as well as a (different) constant value for  $T \rightarrow 0$  [103]. All Grüneisen parameters  $\gamma_i$  in this thesis describe the overall Grüneisen parameter  $\gamma$  in the large temperature limit.

The mode specific Grüneisen parameters  $\gamma_i$  of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  can be found in Tab. 6.1.1. All

phonon modes have  $\gamma < 1$ . Except for the  $A_{1g}(1)$  phonon mode, all  $\gamma_i$  are around 0.5. The Grüneisen parameter for the  $A_{1g}(1)$  phonon mode is  $\gamma_{A_{1g}(1),1} = 0.84$  for  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},1}(A_{1g}(1)) = 0.2$  and  $\gamma_{A_{1g}(1),2} = 0.88$  for  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},2}(A_{1g}(1)) = 0.015$ . Since the Grüneisen parameters of the  $A_{1g}(1)$  phonon mode of the two different phases do not differ in the same magnitude as the phonon-phonon coupling parameter  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph}}(A_{1g}(1))$ , the first order contribution  $\Delta_i^{(1)}(T)$  presumably dominates the phonon energy  $\omega$ .

$\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  is purely magnetic. It orders at  $T_C \approx 670$  K. Therefore, gaps are not expected in the temperature range below 300 K. As shown in Fig. 5.1.2 the  $E_g$  spectra vary only little with temperature below  $100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . But the increase at low temperature is considered to be real. A peak at  $\approx 47 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  appears at 4.2 K, which doesn't diverge towards zero energy as it would in the case of diffuse scattering of laser light. There could be three origins of this intensity increase: It could either originate from particle-hole excitations which reflects the temperature dependence of the resistivity  $\rho(T)$  [see Fig. 5.1.1 (b)], from a band gap induced by the spin reorientation which were suggested by the optical measurements [104] or from magnetic fluctuations in a geometrically frustrated system similar to FeSe [89]. There are no indications of a flat band in the 200 meV range which would be expected to manifest itself as an enhanced intensity in the range 200 meV or  $1600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

As opposed to the  $E_g$  spectra [Fig. 5.1.2 (a)], the  $A_{1g}$  continuum is essentially temperature-independent [Fig. 5.1.2 (b)]. As already mentioned, different excitations or regions of the Brillouin zone are projected in the two different symmetries. With the knowledge of the correspondence between transport and low-energy  $E_g$  spectra, our observation suggests that the carrier relaxation observed in the  $A_{1g}$  spectra is almost temperature-independent [17].

### 6.1.2. $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$

Just as  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$ , the Weyl semimetal  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  belongs to the space group  $R\bar{3}m$  and the point group  $D_{3d}$ . According to the Wyckoff-positions of the Co (9d), the S (6c) and the S (3a, 3b) atoms, one  $A_{1g}$  and one  $E_g$  phonon mode are Raman-active. The  $A_{1g}$  and the  $E_g$  phonon modes are the allowed representations of the Wyckoff position of the S atoms (6c) and can be projected in the RR- and RL-channel, respectively.

Fig. 6.1.4 shows the phononic excitations in the  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_g$  channels as solid lines at the temperatures indicated along with the theoretical curves as black dashed lines. The spectra are consecutively offset by 1 cts/(s mW) for clarity. A smooth phenomenological curve as a background is subtracted before fitting. Since the phonon line of  $E_g$  [Fig. 6.1.4 (b)] is symmetric, a Voigt function was used to fit the data. The  $A_{1g}$  [Fig. 6.1.4 (a)] phonon line, on the other hand, shows an obvious asymmetric shape. This asymmetry stems from the interference between the electronic continuum and the phonon [106]. Therefore, a Fano function convoluted with a Gauss function is used for fitting the  $A_{1g}$  phonon line [105]:

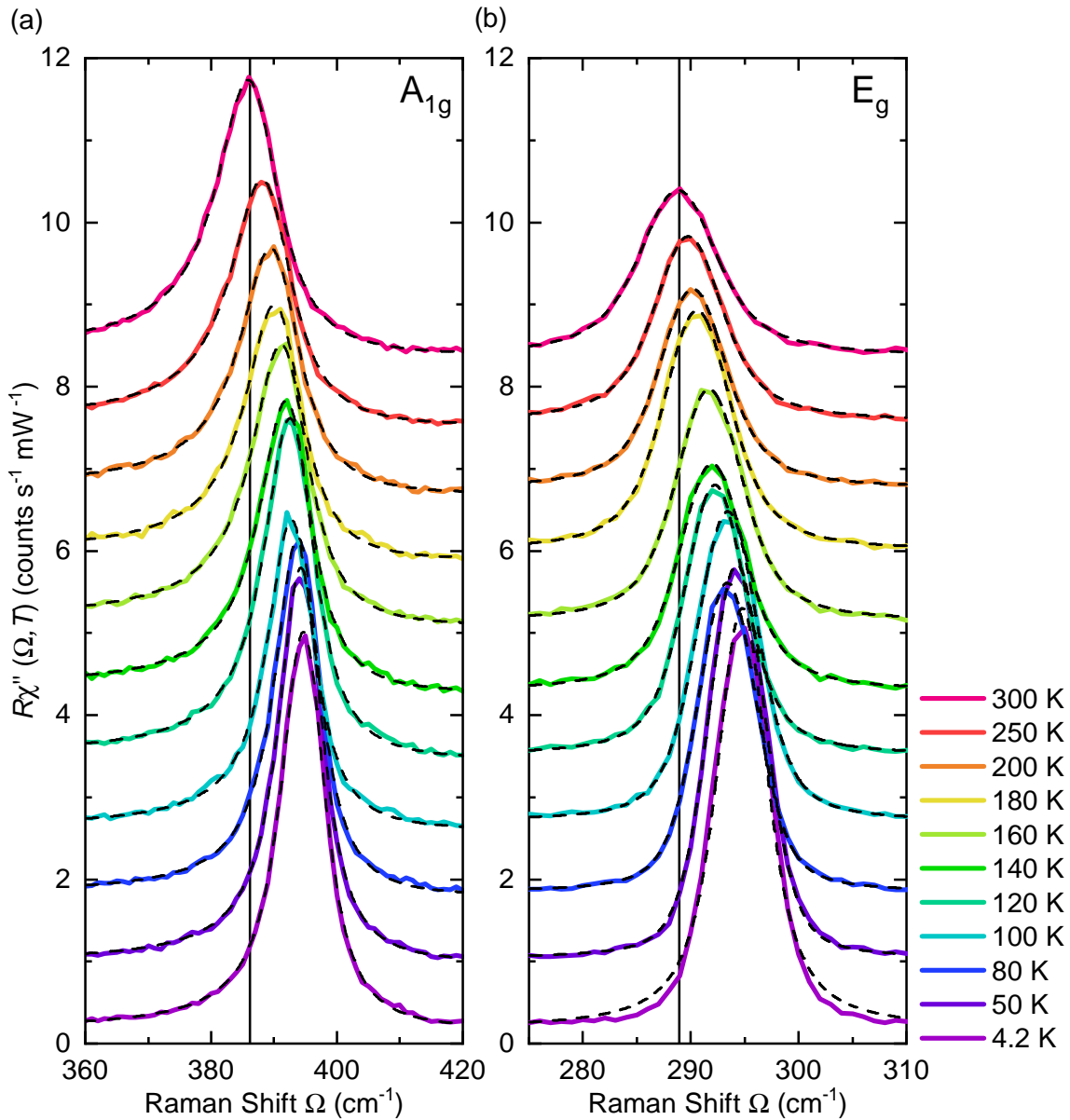
$$\chi''(\omega) = \left| \frac{A}{q^2 - 1} \right| \frac{2\sqrt{\ln(2)}}{\omega_G \sqrt{\pi}} \left\{ (q^2 - 1) \cdot B(\omega) - 2q \cdot C(\omega) \right\}$$

$$B(\omega) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{\ln(2)} \cdot \frac{\omega_L}{\omega_G} \cdot e^{-t^2}}{\left( \sqrt{\ln(2)} \cdot \frac{\omega_L}{\omega_G} \right)^2 + \left( 2\sqrt{\ln(2)} \cdot \frac{\omega - \omega_c}{\omega_G} - t \right)^2} dt \quad (6.5)$$

$$C(\omega) = \frac{-1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\left( 2\sqrt{\ln(2)} \cdot \frac{\omega - \omega_c}{\omega_G} - t \right) \cdot e^{-t^2}}{\left( \sqrt{\ln(2)} \cdot \frac{\omega_L}{\omega_G} \right)^2 + \left( 2\sqrt{\ln(2)} \cdot \frac{\omega - \omega_c}{\omega_G} - t \right)^2} dt$$

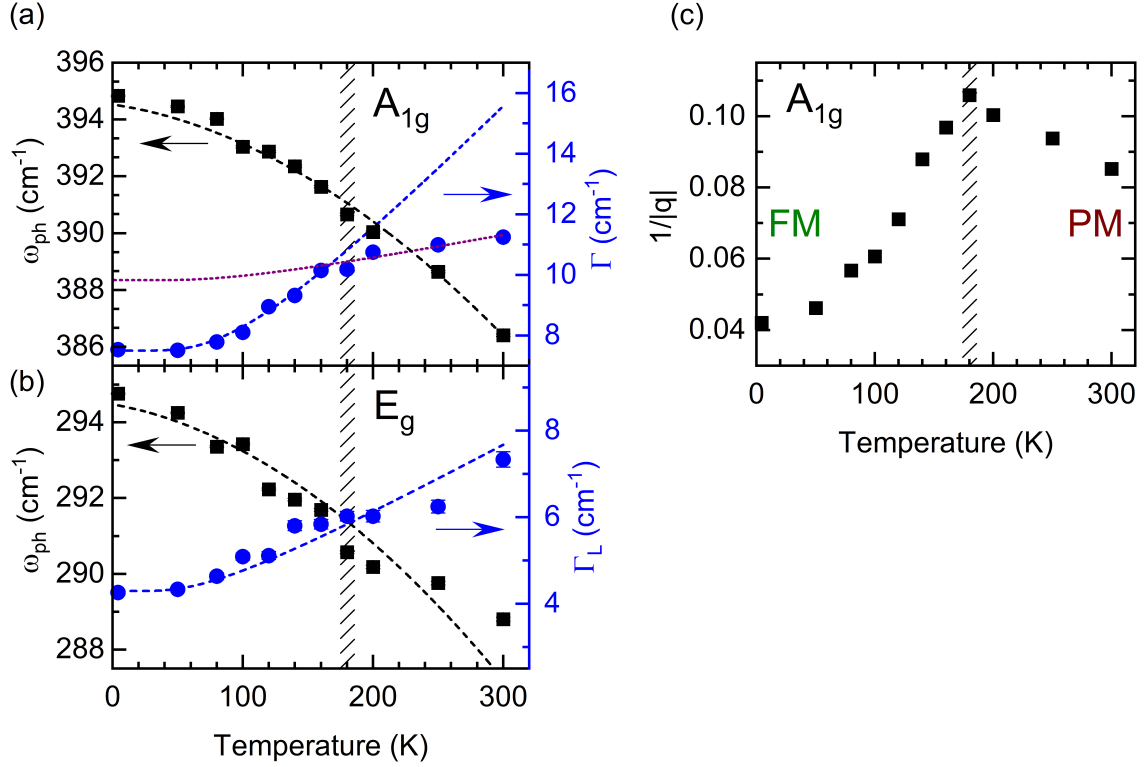
The resulting temperature-dependent fitting parameters of the  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_g$  phonon lines are depicted in Fig. 6.1.5. The hatched area indicates the phase transition temperature  $T_C = 180$  K. The ferromagnetic (FM) and the paramagnetic (PM) phases are indicated. The dashed black lines represent the prediction according to Eq. 6.3. The volume change of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ , which is needed to calculate the phonon energy [107], can be found in Appendix A.2. The dashed blue and purple lines on the other hand represent the change in linewidths of both the Fano and the Voigt function. The temperature dependence is given by Eq. 6.2 and obtained by a least square fit to the experimental data.

Fig. 6.1.5 (a) pictures the  $A_{1g}$  phonon mode parameters. The dashed black line and therefore Eq. 6.3 nicely describes the phonon energy dispersion as a function of temperature. In the phonon linewidth an anomalous behaviour can be found. The whole temperature range cannot be described by a single set of parameters. Therefore, the range below and above the phase transition temperature  $T_C = 180$  K was considered separately. The dashed blue line represents the data below  $T_C$  and the dashed purple line above  $T_C$ . At the transi-



**Figure 6.1.4:** Raman-active phonons of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ . Panel (a) and (b) show the best fit of the theoretical curves to the Raman-active  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_g$  phonon modes, respectively, at temperatures as indicated by the color bar. The solid lines represent the experimental data while the dashed lines indicate the theoretical curves. The data are consecutively offset by 1.0 cts/(s mW). Since the  $A_{1g}$  phonon line shows an asymmetry, a Fano function convoluted with a Gaussian distribution was used for fitting in order to account for the resolution of the spectrometer (Eq. 6.5 [105]). The  $E_g$  phonon line is symmetric, therefore a Voigt function was used, which is a Lorentzian convoluted with a Gaussian.

tion temperature  $T_C = 180$  K  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  undergoes a transition from a paramagnetic material to an out-of-plane ferromagnetic material with ordered Co spins in the Kagome layer. Since the spin-phonon coupling seems to be significant, this transition is reflected in the behaviour of the phonons. This is the reason, why the phonon linewidth cannot be described by a single set of parameters in the whole temperature range. There is no obvious change



**Figure 6.1.5.:** Raman-active phonon modes as a function of temperature in  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ . The dashed area indicates the phase transition temperature  $T_C = 180$  K. (a) and (b) Temperature-dependence of the phonon energies  $\omega_{ph}$  and linewidths  $\Gamma$ . The dashed black curve indicates the fitting of the phonon energy. The dashed purple and blue curves depicts the fit of the phonon linewidths. The dashed blue line in (a) indicates the fitting of the phonon linewidth for temperatures below the phase transition temperature  $T_C = 180$  K, while the dashed purple line was fitted for temperatures above  $T_C$ . (c) Temperature-dependent asymmetry factor  $1/|q|$  of the  $A_{1g}$  phonon line obtained from the fitting with a Fano function. The ferromagnetic (FM) phase and the paramagnetic (PM) phase are indicated in dark green and dark red, respectively.

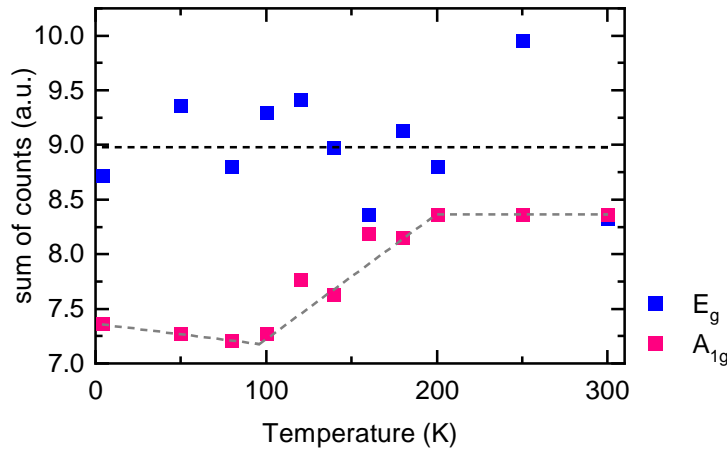
in phonon energy and linewidth near  $T_C$  for the  $E_g$  phonon line as shown in Fig. 6.1.5 (b). The asymmetry factor  $1/|q|$  of the  $A_{1g}$  phonon line [Fig. 6.1.5 (c)] increases slightly above  $T_C$  upon cooling, reaches a peak at  $T_C$  and decreases significantly below  $T_C$ . The fitting parameters of the phonons are listed in Tab. 6.1.2.

Phonon	$A_{1g}$	$E_g$
$\lambda_{ph-ph,i}$	$0.85 \pm 0.03, 0.12 \pm 0.04$	$0.40 \pm 0.03$
$\gamma$	$2.29 \pm 0.05, 2.41 \pm 0.06$	$2.86 \pm 0.20$

**Table 6.1.2.:** Coupling parameters of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ . There are two Raman active phonons in  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  in the  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_g$  channel, respectively. Fitting the phonon linewidth with Eq. 6.2 provides the phonon-phonon coupling parameters  $\lambda_{ph-ph,i}$ . The Grüneisen constants  $\gamma$  are obtained by fitting the temperature-dependent phonon energies with Eq. 6.3. The first values of the  $A_{1g}$  phonon mode correspond to the data below  $T_C = 180$  K and the latter values to the fitted values above  $T_C$ .

The Grüneisen parameters  $\gamma_i$  of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  for the  $A_{1g}$  phonon mode is  $\gamma_{A_{1g},1} = 2.29 \pm 0.05$ , if the phonon energy below the phase transition  $T_C$  is taken into account and  $\gamma_{A_{1g},2} = 2.41 \pm 0.06$  for the data above the transition temperature  $T_C = 180$  K. The Grüneisen parameters  $\gamma_i$  for the  $E_g$  phonon mode is  $\gamma_{E_g} = 2.86 \pm 0.20$ . Although  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$  of the  $A_{1g}$  phonon mode changes significantly at  $T_C$ , the Grüneisen parameters  $\gamma_i$  do not change significantly. The phonon energy and therefore the phonon shift as a function of temperature are dominated by the first order contribution  $\Delta_i^{(1)}(T)$ . For the  $E_g$  phonon mode the first order contribution  $\Delta_i^{(1)}(T)$  dominates the phonon energy as well.

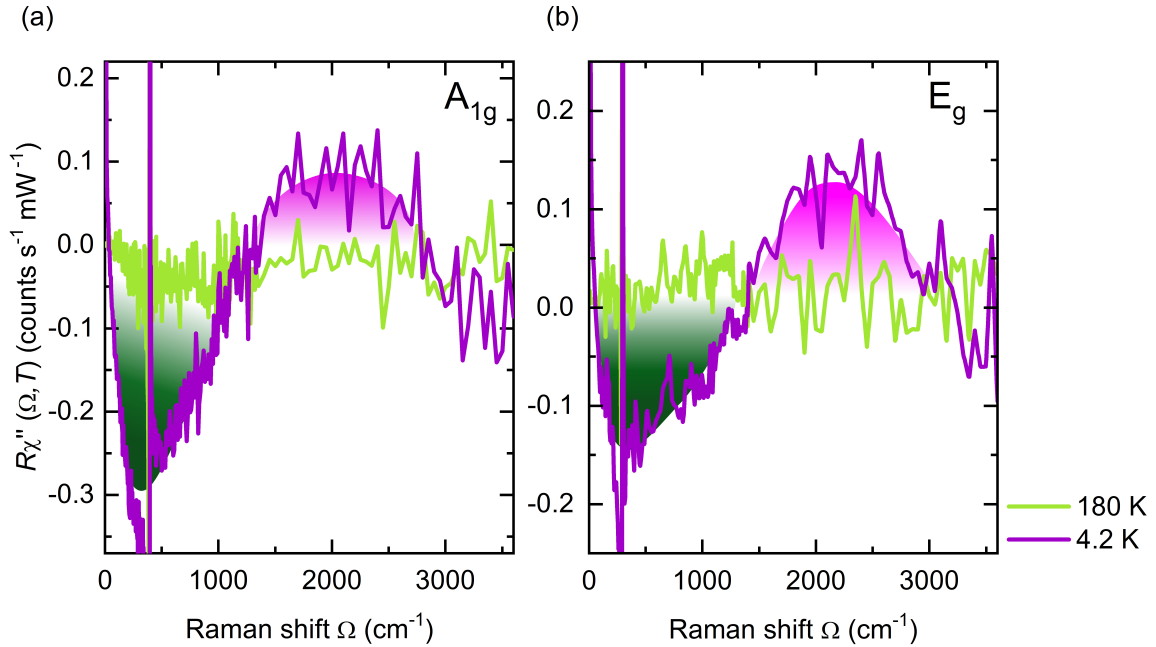
Spectra at very high energies are expected to be temperature independent if for example interband transitions or luminescence are ignored. To check the variation or stability of the spectral weight in the high-energy limit, the sums of the measured intensities at  $3000 - 3600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  were calculated and are plotted in Fig. 6.1.6. The blue points describe the sum of intensities of the  $E_g$  channel as a function of temperature. The data points are distributed around a constant value (represented as the dashed black line), which means that the spectral weight is nearly constant above  $3000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The pink data points on the other hand describe the sum of intensities of the  $A_{1g}$  channel. These data points behave differently compared to the  $E_g$  data. The dashed grey line serves as a guide to the eye. Below 100 K they appear to be nearly constant. Between 100 – 200 K they vary linearly and become constant again above 200 K. Comparing these characteristic temperatures to the transition temperatures in  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ , there might be correlation between the change of the magnetic state and the slope of the sum of intensities in  $A_{1g}$  channel.



**Figure 6.1.6.:** The intensity values at energies between  $3000 - 3600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  were summed up for  $A_{1g}$  (pink data points) and  $E_g$  (blue data points). The dashed black line and the grey dashed line serve as a guide to the eye.

The results of Fig. 6.1.6 allow us to adjust the spectra in a way that they match above  $3000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . Now we determine the differences of the spectra presented in Section 5.1.2. These are computed as  $\Delta\chi''_{\mu}(\Omega, T) = \chi''_{\mu}(\Omega, T) - \chi''_{\mu}(\Omega, 200 \text{ K})$  and can be seen exemplarily for 180 K (light green) and 4.2 K (purple) in Fig. 6.1.7 (a) and (b) in  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_g$  symmetries,

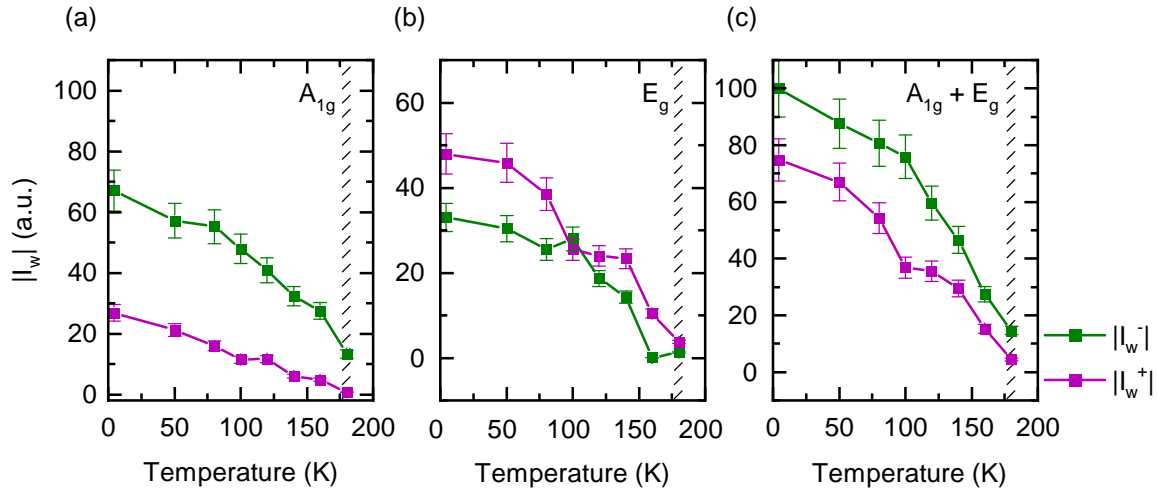
respectively. The difference spectra were integrated in order to be able to compare the temperature-dependent change of the spectral weight, in  $A_{1g}$ ,  $E_g$  and  $A_{1g} + E_g$  symmetries. The positive part  $\int_{\Omega \in \Delta\chi'' > 0} \Delta\chi''_{\mu}(\Omega, T)d\Omega$  (shown in Fig. 6.1.7 as purple area) and negative part  $\int_{\Omega \in \Delta\chi'' < 0} \Delta\chi''_{\mu}(\Omega, T)d\Omega$  (shown in Fig. 6.1.7 as dark green area) parts in the difference spectra are discussed separately.



**Figure 6.1.7.:** Temperature-dependent electronic Raman response of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ . The spectra show the difference between the indicated temperatures and 200 K in the (a)  $A_{1g}$  and the (b)  $E_g$  symmetries. The green regions and the pink regions indicate the negative and positive intensity of the difference spectra respectively.

The magnitudes of the resulting integrals are pictured in Fig. 6.1.8 as dark green squares for the negative intensity regions and purple squares for the positive intensity regions. The decay and the increase of the integrated spectral weight decrease in both  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_g$  symmetries with increasing temperature. Both the loss and the increase of the integrated spectral weight seem to disappear above  $T_C$ , since they are decreasing monotonically. As already mentioned while introducing the Raman spectra of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  in Section 5.1.2, the loss of the spectral weight at the low energy range is larger than the increase at high energy range in  $A_{1g}$  symmetry, and vice versa in  $E_g$  symmetry. There is no sum rule in Raman, so the loss and increase of the spectral weight in one spectrum are not necessarily equal. The sum of the spectra ( $A_{1g} + E_g$ ) in Fig. 6.1.8 (c) describes a linear behaviour in both the loss and increase of the spectral weight. At 100 K the green curve exhibits a hump while the purple curve shows a dip. The difference in spectral weight redistribution in the different channels  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_g$  hints the anisotropic electronic structure in  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ .

The main question in  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  is: Does the magnetism arise from itinerant or from localized electrons? Taking a look at the band structure (c.f. Section 2.1.2) reveals, that due



**Figure 6.1.8.:** Temperature-dependent electronic Raman response of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  in the  $A_{1g}$  and the  $E_g$  symmetries. (a), (b), and (c) Temperature dependence of integrated spectral weight in the  $A_{1g}$ ,  $E_g$ , and  $A_{1g} + E_g$  symmetries. The positive (purple points) and negative (dark green points) intensity regions are integrated separately. The error bars are given by 10% of the integrated area. The hatched ranges indicate the ferromagnetic phase transition.

to the ferromagnetic phase transition the spin up and spin down bands split. The spin-up bands cross the Fermi level and therefore lead to a metallic character of the sample. The spin-down band on the other hand opens a gap of approximately 0.35 eV and shows an insulating character. Since the electrons, which come from the correlated Co  $3d$  orbitals, are itinerant [108] and the band structure shows a metallic behaviour for the spin-up bands, the magnetism seems to have an itinerant origin. To test this thesis, Raman signatures of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  were compared with the following features of the different origins of magnetism. As already introduced in Section 3.2 Raman spectra with local moments show a well-defined peak, which exhibits a weak but continuous temperature dependence. In contrast in Raman spectra of itinerant systems a gap opens at low energies and at the same time intensity accumulates at higher energies [85, 86, 89]. Both symmetries show a redistribution of spectral weight. In  $A_{1g}$  a gap opens below  $1200 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and in  $E_g$  below  $1350 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  while intensity is redistributed to above these values. Comparing this behaviour to the Raman signatures found in  $\text{BaFe}_2\text{As}_2$  [89] and  $\text{La}_2\text{CuO}_4$  [109],  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  shows significant similarities to  $\text{BaFe}_2\text{As}_2$ . Therefore  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  exhibits the Raman signatures of an itinerant magnet. This conclusion agrees with the information obtained from the band structure.

In the following, the aim is to identify if either the spin (spin-phonon (sp-ph) coupling) or the charge (electron-phonon (el-ph) coupling) channels couple to the phonon in  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  leading to an asymmetric phonon line in the  $A_{1g}$  symmetry. Due to the existence of a ferromagnetic phase transition, the sp-ph coupling could originate from the generation of spin channels meaning phonons can directly couple to spins. If sp-ph coupling occurs, a renormalization of the phonon energy and linewidth occurs and the phonon line stays symmetric. The renormalization leads to phonon softening in the ferromagnetic systems



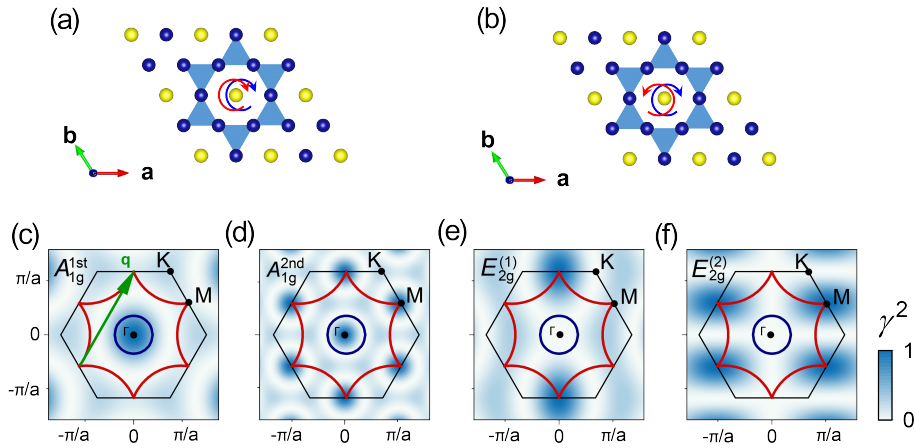
and hardening in the antiferromagnetic ones [110]. Since the phonon line should be symmetric, which is not the case in  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ , and no renormalization of the  $A_{1g}$  phonon was found, the phonon most likely does not couple to the spin channels. The el-ph coupling can originate in the charge channel and therefore, arises from intra- or interband transitions with a phonon, which is expected in some special systems with low-lying excitations. To this end, the energy scale of these low-lying excitations needs to match the phonon energy. The first possibility for low-lying excitations in  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  are the Weyl points, which are located 60 meV [30, 38] above and below the Fermi level, which means the energy scale of the low-lying excitation is larger than 120 meV. This is much higher than the  $A_{1g}$  phonon energy (48.8 meV), but the transition can still be possible in this energy range due to thermal excitations at higher temperatures [111]. The second possible mechanism for the generation of el-ph coupling through charge channels could be the existence of a flat band. In  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  the energy scale of the flat band ( $-8$  meV in scanning tunneling microscopy/spectroscopy [43] and  $\approx 30$  meV in optical conductivity [44]) is smaller than the  $A_{1g}$  phonon energy. But, if the flat band does exist in a reasonable energy range, it is likely to enhance the el-ph coupling.

In  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ , the  $A_{1g}$  phonon mode stems from the vibration of the S atoms. The bands near the Fermi energy  $E_F$  derived from the Co 3d orbitals change considerably, if the S atoms vibrate, since the tetrahedral coordination of the S atoms with the Co atoms contribute to the electronic density of states. This vibration could change the energy scale of one of the mentioned flat bands leading to a high density of states close to  $E_F$  enhancing the coupling of the phonons to the 3d electrons of Co. This el-ph coupling leads to the observed asymmetric nature of the  $A_{1g}$  phonon mode represented by the asymmetry factor  $1/|q|$  in Fig. 6.1.5 (c). Upon cooling the thermal excitation of electrons decreases leading to a higher occupation of the peak in the density of states. Therefore, the el-ph coupling increases for lower temperatures resulting in a higher asymmetry factor  $1/|q|$ , peaking at the transition temperature. As soon as the gap starts opening below  $T_C$ , electrons get bound to lower energy states reducing the amount of electrons participating in the el-ph coupling and hence, also the asymmetry factor  $1/|q|$ . The latter saturates at a value above zero for  $T \rightarrow 0$  due to the residual metallic character of  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ . Thus, the el-ph coupling in  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  could be flat band driven, but suppressed due to magnetic ordering below the transition temperature.

### 6.1.3. $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$

The Kagome metal  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  was recently discovered by Ortiz *et al.* [21].  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  is a quasi-2D material, which belongs to the space group  $P6/mmm$ . The hexagonal crystal structure with V-Sb layers intercalated by Cs atoms consists of a structurally perfect 2D kagome lattice of vanadium. As for all Kagome metals, the  $A_{1g}$  and the  $E_{2g}$  symmetries can be projected in RR- and RL-channel, respectively, which are pictured in Fig. 6.1.9 (a) and (b). The related Raman vertices of both symmetries for scattering from charge excitations

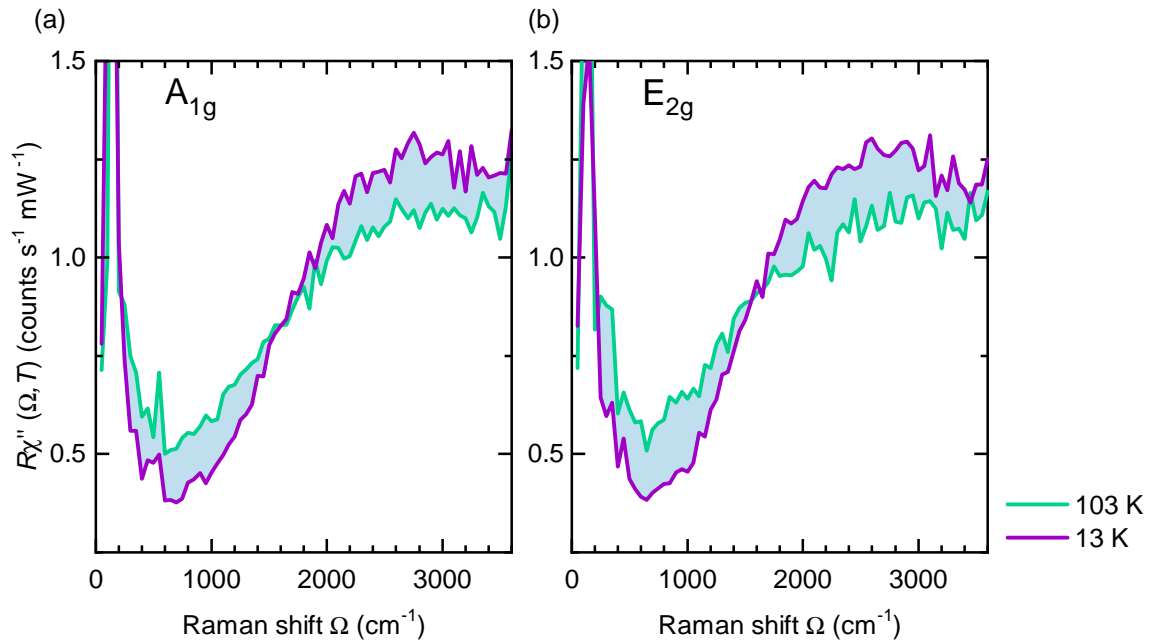
are shown in Fig. 6.1.9 (c), (d), (e), and (f). The first order  $A_{1g}$  symmetry mainly maps the  $\Gamma$  point, while the second order  $A_{1g}$  symmetry also maps the  $M$  points. The first order  $E_{2g}$  symmetry on the other hand mainly projects the  $M$  points.



**Figure 6.1.9.:** Polarization configurations and related Raman vertices for electronic excitations in  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$ . The Kagome lattice of VSb layers with the polarization configurations of (a)  $A_{1g}$  and (b)  $E_{2g}$  symmetries. The color mapping in (c) and (d) shows the Raman vertices for the first- and second-order  $A_{1g}$  symmetry, respectively, while the color mapping in (e) and (f) picture the first order  $E_{2g}$  symmetry. The first Brillouin Zone is displayed by the black hexagon. The red and blue lines indicate the Fermi pockets. The green arrow in (c) highlights the Nesting vector  $q$ , which links two  $M$  points [112].

## Electronic Continuum

Fig. 6.1.10 presents the polarization-dependent Raman spectra above (green line at 103 K) and below (purple line at 13 K)  $T_{\text{CDW}} = 94$  K in the range from  $50 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $3600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in  $A_{1g}$  [Fig. 6.1.10 (a)] and  $E_{2g}$  [Fig. 6.1.10 (b)] symmetry. In both symmetries the opening of a gap is observed. The spectra measured above and below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$  cross each other at  $1600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1550 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_{2g}$ , respectively. The redistribution of spectral weight to higher energies is slightly stronger in the  $A_{1g}$  than in the  $E_g$  symmetry and decreases with warming up the sample. It disappears above the CDW critical temperature  $T_{\text{CDW}} = 94$  K (compare Fig. 5.1.5). The gap energy is identified with the crossing points as  $99.2 \text{ meV}$  in  $A_{1g}$  and  $96.1 \text{ meV}$  in  $E_{2g}$ . This identification is plausible but not supported by theory. Yet, the energies are comparable to the results from optical spectroscopy and ARPES measurements [113–115]. The CDW gap is expected to appear at the  $M$  points as electron pockets are located at this point in  $k$ -space. The Raman vertices in Fig. 6.1.9 show, that only measurements in  $E_g$  map the  $M$  points. A gap-like feature can also be seen in  $A_{1g}$  channel, although the first order  $A_{1g}$  Raman vertex (Fig. 6.1.9 (c)) mainly projects the excitations at  $\Gamma$  point. Probably, one needs to take the second-order  $A_{1g}$  Raman vertex into account as well, which does map the  $M$  points. Therefore, the second-order Raman vertex is not negligible.

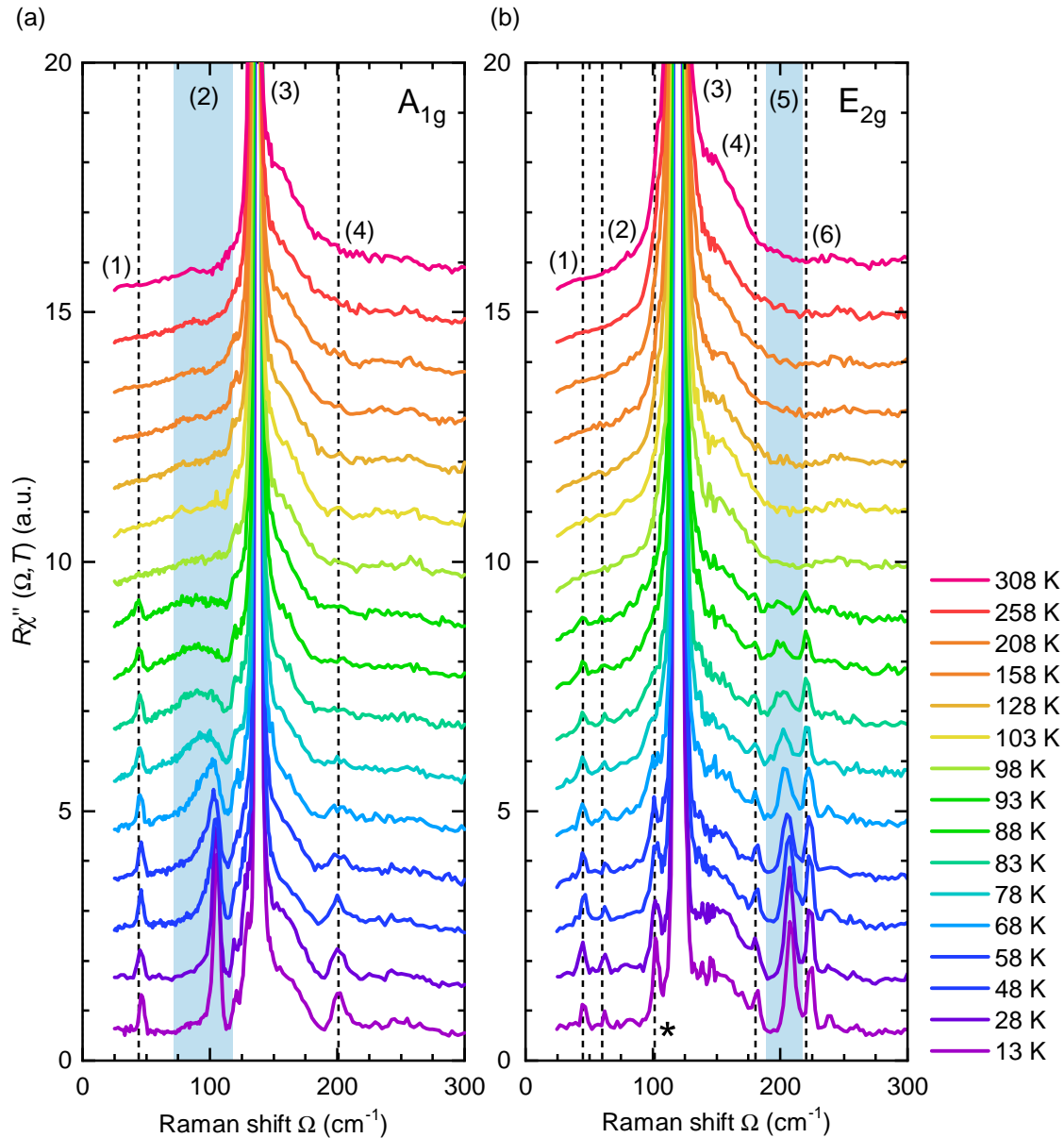


**Figure 6.1.10.:** CDW gap excitation in (a)  $A_{1g}$  and (b)  $E_{2g}$  symmetry of  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  at temperatures as indicated. The redistribution of the spectral weight of the Raman response above (green curve) and below (purple curve)  $T_{\text{CDW}} = 94$  K is highlighted in light blue.

### Lattice Excitations

Chen *et al.* [116] have identified two strong phonon lines, one in  $A_{1g}$  ( $138.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at 13 K) and one in  $E_{2g}$  ( $119.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at 13 K) symmetry. In addition to those lines Fig. 6.1.11 shows the appearance of several new lines below the CDW critical temperature  $T_{\text{CDW}} = 94$  K. The lattice distortion occurring in  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$  folds the phonon band by a vector  $q$ . This vector  $q$  links to the nesting points ( $M$  points in  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$ ). If this happens, phonons at zone boundaries are folded towards the nesting point and therefore become Raman active. The charge density wave transition also leads to the fact, that the ideal kagome structure is energetically unstable at zero temperature. Tan *et al.* [117] found with DFT calculations the favoured structure: the so-called inverse star-of-David (ISD) [118]. Due to the change in structure, the V atoms move from  $3g$  ( $1/2, 0, 1/2$ ) to  $12q$  ( $x, y, 1/2$ ). This structure change and the folding of the phonon band by a vector  $q$  due to the lattice distortion would entail the appearance of eight additional Raman active modes. These phonons are called zone-folded phonons [119, 120]. Two phonons should appear in  $A_{1g}$ , four in  $E_{2g}$  and two in  $E_{1g}$ . If one only takes the phonons exhibiting ordinary phononic behaviour into account, the number of measured phonons in  $A_{1g}$  does not match the expected number of ordinary phonons in both  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_{2g}$  symmetry.

The phonons in the  $A_{1g}$  and the  $E_{2g}$  symmetry were observed at the temperatures indicated and are presented consecutively offset by 1 cts/(s mW) for clarity. In  $A_{1g}$  three additional phonon lines reemerge with energies  $44.3 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $A_{1g}(1)$ ],  $104.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $A_{1g}(2)$ ]



**Figure 6.1.11.:** The temperature-dependent Raman spectra of  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  in the (a)  $A_{1g}$  and (b)  $E_g$  symmetry at temperatures as indicated, respectively. The data are consecutively offset by 1.0 cts/(s mW) each for clarity. The dashed black lines mark the energy of the phonon, for the temperature, where it initially manifests. The light blue areas highlight the evolution and the position of the amplitude modes in  $\Omega$ .

and  $201.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $A_{1g}(4)$ ] at 13 K. In  $E_{2g}$  even six additional phonon lines appear with energies  $45.7 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $E_{2g}(1)$ ],  $62.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $E_{2g}(2)$ ],  $102.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $E_{2g}(\ast)$ ],  $181.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $E_{2g}(4)$ ],  $208.3 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $E_{2g}(5)$ ] and  $223.9 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $E_{2g}(6)$ ] at 13 K. The peak marked with an asterisk in Fig. 6.1.11 (b), which appears on the low-energy side of the  $E_{2g}(3)$  phonon will not be considered further. The third peak in the  $A_{1g}$  symmetry and the sixth peak in  $E_{2g}$  behave differently compared to the other phonons. These peaks and their evolution as a function of temperature are highlighted with the light blue area. First, both peaks appear as a broad

hump, shift towards higher energies, and sharpen drastically with decreasing temperature. The shape of the third peak in the  $A_{1g}$  symmetry is asymmetric, the sixth peak in the  $E_{2g}$  symmetry is symmetric. As already mentioned in Chapter 5, the shoulder of the  $A_{1g}(3)$  and the  $E_{2g}(4)$  phonon lines is probably resulting from contamination of the sample surface. Before fitting all symmetric peak lines with a Voigt function (Eq. 4.1) and the asymmetric peak line with a Fano function resulting from convoluted with a Gauss function (Eq. 6.5), a phenomenological curve, which describes the electronic continuum, was subtracted from the data (c.f. Section 3.2).

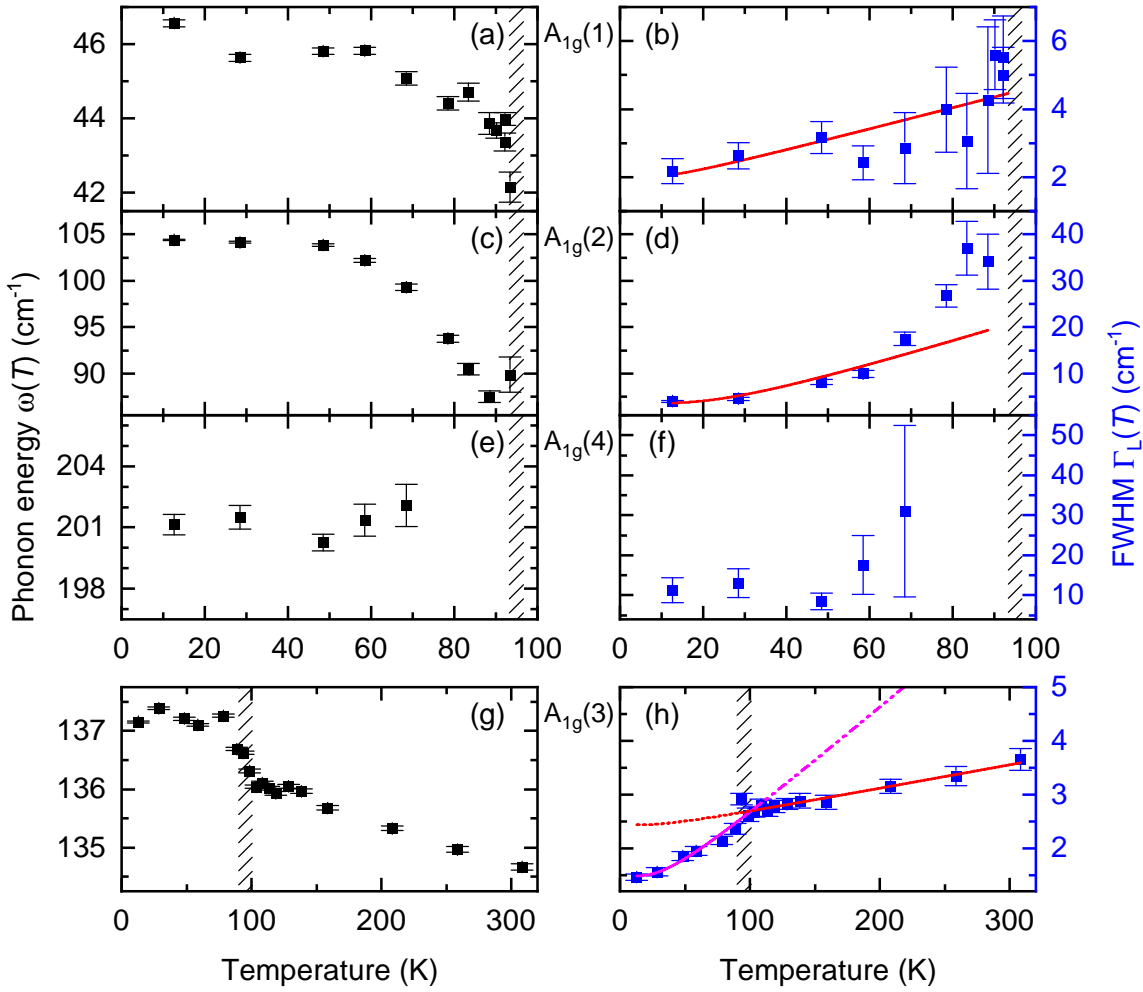
The resulting temperature-dependent peak energies  $\omega(T)$  and the linewidth  $\Gamma_L$  of the  $A_{1g}$  and the  $E_{2g}$  peak lines are illustrated in Fig. 6.1.12 and Fig. 6.1.14, respectively and  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$  is listed in Table 6.1.3. The hatched areas illustrate the CDW critical temperature  $T_{\text{CDW}} = 94$  K.

Phonon	$A_{1g}(1)$	$A_{1g}(2)$	$A_{1g}(3)$
$\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$	$0.26 \pm 0.09$	$2.95 \pm 0.89$	$0.67 \pm 0.09, 0.09 \pm 0.01$
Phonon	$E_{2g}(1)$	$E_{2g}(2)$	$E_{2g}(3)$
$\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$	$0.37 \pm 0.2$	$1.33 \pm 3.55$	$0.24 \pm 0.02$
Phonon	$E_{2g}(4)$	$E_{2g}(5)$	$E_{2g}(6)$
$\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$	$0.67 \pm 1.23$	$1.80 \pm 0.59$	$6.86 \pm 2.73$

**Table 6.1.3.:** Coupling parameters of  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$ . Below the transition, there are four Raman active phonons in the  $A_{1g}$  and seven Raman active phonons in the  $E_{2g}$  channel, respectively. Fitting the phonon linewidth with Eq. 6.2 provides the phonon-phonon coupling parameters  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$ . The first value for the  $A_{1g}(3)$  phonon mode belongs to the data ranging below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$  and the latter value to the data above  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ .

Fig. 6.1.12 shows the  $A_{1g}$  results for phonon energies and widths. Since the peaks (1), (2) and (4) in the  $A_{1g}$  channel exclusively appear below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ , only the parameters for temperatures below 100 K are shown. All phonon lines in the  $A_{1g}$  channel shift to higher energies, as already mentioned, except for the  $A_{1g}(4)$  phonon. This phonon has a constant energy of  $\approx 201 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . While cooling the  $A_{1g}(3)$  phonon shifts linearly to higher energies above  $T_{\text{CDW}}$  and below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ , the slope behaves similar to that of the other lines. In general, the signal of the different peaks is weak, which is problematic for fitting both, the Voigt function and the convoluted Fano function, which are pictured as solid red lines. Therefore, the error bars especially in Fig. 6.1.12 (b), (d) and (f) are substantial compared with the value itself. In (b) a Voigt function and  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph}}(A_{1g}(1)) = 0.26 \pm 0.09$  describe the data satisfactorily.

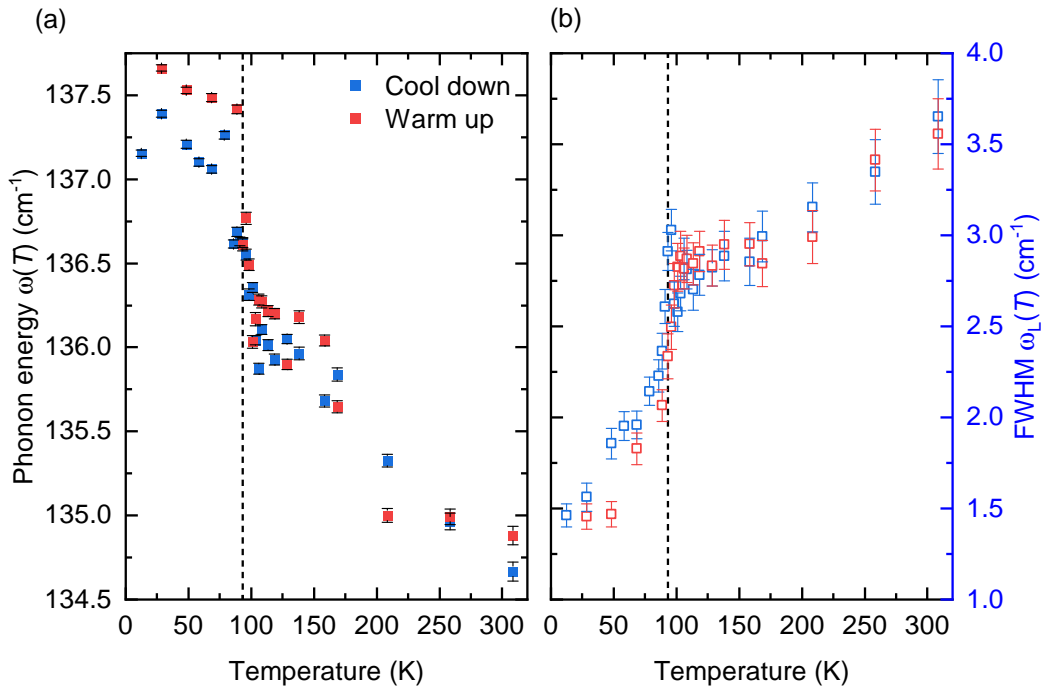
The second peak in Fig. 6.1.11 (a) shows a totally different behaviour than the others and will be described in the next subsection. In the phonon linewidth of  $A_{1g}(3)$  an anomalous behaviour can be found. Since the data below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$  shows a completely different slope than above, the analysis was split at  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ . The dashed pink line represents the data below



**Figure 6.1.12.** Phonon energies  $\omega$  (black) and Lorentzian widths  $\Gamma_L$  (blue) of  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  in  $A_{1g}$  symmetry. The hatched area indicates the CDW critical temperature  $T_{\text{CDW}} = 94$  K. The labels of the phonon lines correspond to the numbering in Fig. 6.1.11 (a). The peaks (1), (2) and (4) only appear below the transition temperature  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ . The dashed pink line in (h) indicates the variation with temperature of the phonon linewidth of the  $A_{1g}(3)$  phonon for temperatures below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ , while the dotted red line was obtained above  $T_{\text{CDW}}$  using Eq. 6.2 in both cases. The signal of the  $A_{1g}(4)$  phonon is too weak compared to the noise, so the fit did not converge. The parameters are derived by fitting procedures as described in the text.

$T_{\text{CDW}}$  and the dotted red line those above  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ . The  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph}}(A_{1g}(3))$  parameter for the high temperature data exhibits a drastically smaller anharmonic decay of phonons compared to the low temperature data. The fourth phonon is barely above background noise, entailing large error bars on the line widths.

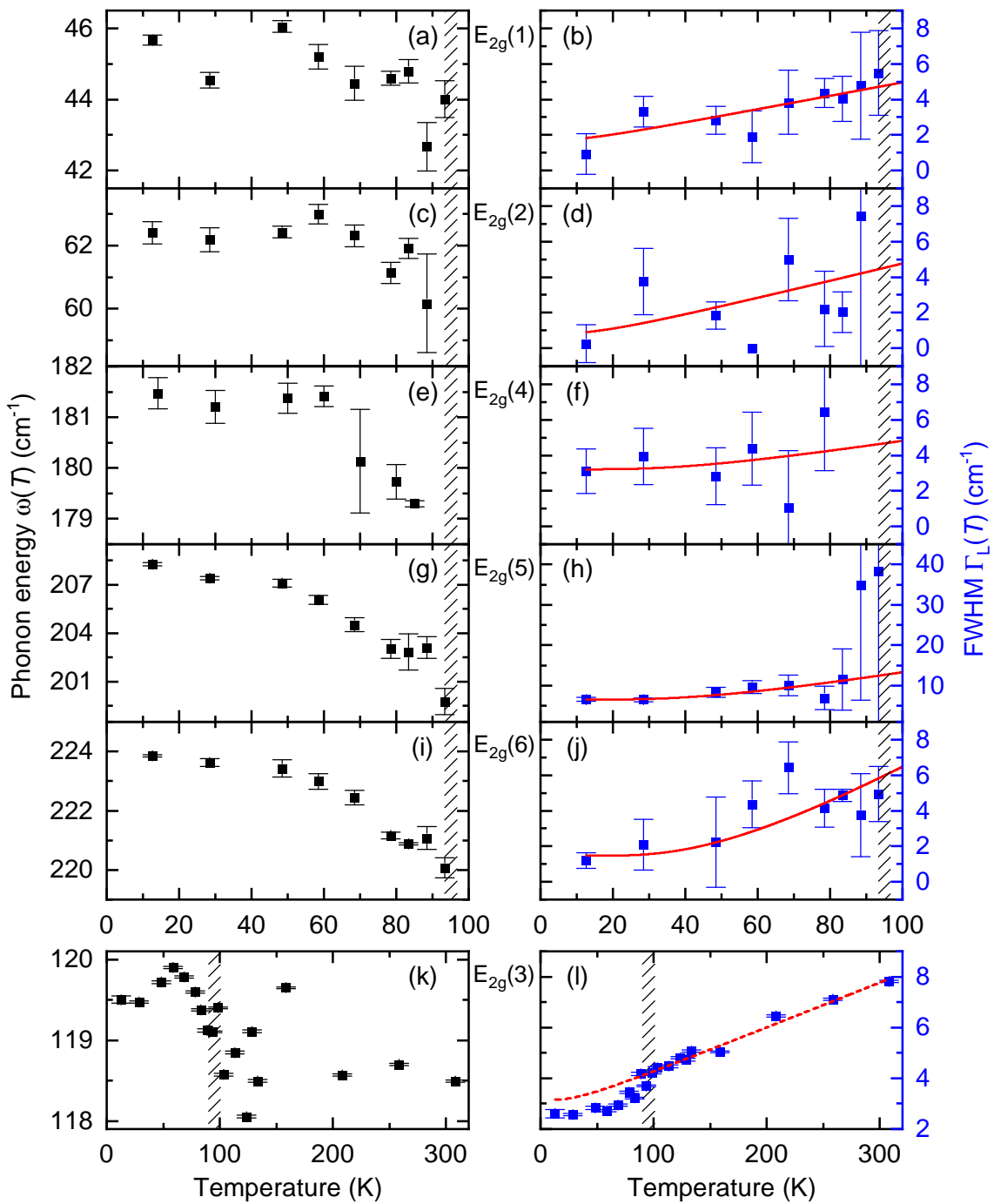
Since the order transition of the CDW is not clear, a hysteresis of the phonon energy and the linewidth at the phase transition temperature might occur in Raman spectra. Therefore data from  $50 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $180 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  were measured with a step width of  $\Delta\Omega = 1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in RR-polarization sequentially warming up and cooling down with a finer temperature resolution around the transition temperature  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ . The data received shows the strong



**Figure 6.1.13.:** (a) Phonon energies  $\omega(T)$  and (b) Lorentzian widths  $\Gamma_L$  of  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  in  $A_{1g}$  symmetry. The data was measured sequentially cooling down from 308 K to 13 K (blue spectra) and warming up from 13 K to 308 K (red spectra). The dashed lines indicate the CDW critical temperature  $T_{\text{CDW}} = 94$  K. No Hysteresis was observed.

symmetric phonon line in  $A_{1g}$  at the energy  $134.7 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at 308 K. The phonon energy  $\omega(T)$  and the linewidth  $\Gamma_L(T)$  are plotted in Fig. 6.1.13. The hatched line indicates  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ . In Fig. 6.1.13 (a), below 100 K the slope of the phonon energy  $\omega(T)$  seems to be linear and almost constant above 100 K. However, the slope around the  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ , is much steeper. In Fig. 6.1.13 (b) the slope of  $\Gamma_L(T)$  shows a similar behaviour. It gets steeper around  $T_{\text{CDW}}$  and flattens afterwards again. Above  $T_{\text{CDW}}$  the linewidth presumably shows the existence of anharmonic coupling. At  $T = 0$  both the slope of the phonon energy and the slope of the linewidth disappear ( $d\omega/dT = 0$ ). Moreover, the phonon energy  $\omega(T)$  and  $\Gamma_L(T)$  behave similarly while warming up and cooling down the sample. No sign of a hysteresis was observed in the Raman spectra obtained. Therefore, an argument can be made for either a second-order or a weak first-order phase transition. This conclusion is also supported by Li *et al.* [121].

Fig. 6.1.14 shows the energies  $\omega$  and the linewidths  $\Gamma$  of the peaks in the  $E_{2g}$  channel. Since the peaks (1), (2), (4) (5) and (6) in the  $E_{2g}$  channel exclusively appear below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ , only the parameters for temperatures below 100 K are shown. In  $E_{2g}$ , all peaks harden and sharpen while cooling down below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ . Since phonon (2), (4) and (6) slowly accumulate spectra weight below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$  and are also rather low in intensity even at low temperature, they are hardly distinguishable from the background noise. This fact makes fitting difficult and leads to huge error bars. The phonon-phonon coupling parameter  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph}}(E_{2g})$



**Figure 6.1.14.:** Phonon energies  $\omega$  (black) and Lorentzian widths  $\Gamma_L$  (blue) of  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  in the  $E_{2g}$  symmetry. The hatched area indicates the CDW critical temperature  $T_{\text{CDW}} = 94$  K. The labels of the phonon lines correspond to the numbering in Fig. 6.1.11 (b). The dashed red line in (l) indicates the variation with temperature of the phonon linewidth of the  $E_{2g}$  (3) phonon for temperatures above  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ . The parameters are derived by fitting procedures as described in the text.

for these three phonons also reflects this problem. Phonon (1) with an energy around  $44 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  couples with a factor of  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph}}(E_{2g}(1)) = 0.37 \pm 0.2$  to the anharmonic decay of

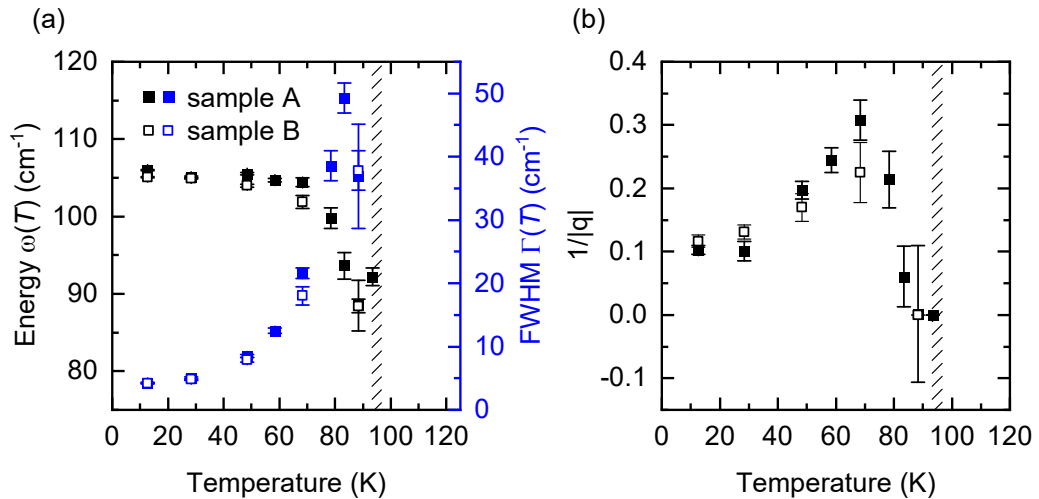


phonons. Phonon (3) in  $E_{2g}$  [Fig. 6.1.14 (l)] shows anharmonicity above  $T_{CDW}$  and hence, can be described by Eq. 6.2. The corresponding phonon-phonon coupling parameter is  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph}}(E_{2g}(3)) = 0.24 \pm 0.02$ . Below  $T_{CDW}$ , the same theoretical description does not suit the data, which leads to the conclusion, that this  $E_{2g}$  couples to the electrons of the gap as well.

Peak (5) in Fig. 6.1.14 (h) shows a similar behaviour as the peak in Fig. 6.1.12 (d). Here, a broad hump also shifts to higher energies and sharpens by a factor of 2 below  $T_{CDW}$  towards lower temperatures. The peak shifts from  $199.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at 93 K to  $208.3 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at 13 K. The change in linewidth describes the evolution from a broad hump at 93 K to a sharp peak at 13 K. For temperatures close to the transition temperature, the hump slowly emerges from the background and making the determination of the width and position difficult. We extract  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph}}(E_{2g}(5)) = 1.80 \pm 0.59$ , which is larger than one and thus physically questionable. Whether or not the magnitude of  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph}}(E_{2g}(5))$  indicates that the mode has an origin other than phononic remains open on the basis of the unstable fitting procedure.

#### 6.1.4. Amplitude modes

The second peak in the  $A_{1g}$  symmetry starting to appear as a broad hump shifts to higher energies and sharpens drastically towards lower temperatures. This fact is reflected in the energies of this excitation. The peak shifts from  $87.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at 88 K to  $104.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at 13 K. Since the peak sharpens, also the linewidth changes by an order of magnitude. The experimental results cannot be described by a lineshape typical for a phonon, and we conclude that the mode is not a simple lattice vibration. This asymmetric peak in Fig. 6.1.11 (a) was investigated in two different samples to check the reproducibility.



**Figure 6.1.15.:** (a) Mode energies  $\omega$  (black) and linewidths  $\Gamma$  (blue) of  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  in the  $A_{1g}$  symmetry. (b) The temperature-dependent asymmetry factor  $1/|q|$  of the  $A_{1g}$  amplitude mode line obtained from the fitting with a Fano function. The hatched area indicates the CDW critical temperature.

The corresponding mode energies  $\omega$  and linewidths  $\Gamma$  of samples A and B are plotted in Fig. 6.1.15 (a). The hatched area indicates the CDW critical temperature. The temperature-dependence of the linewidth and the shift in energy are similar for both samples and much stronger than those of the other modes. Since the peak at temperatures close to  $T_{\text{CDW}}$  appears gradually as a function of decreasing temperature, the precise line shape is difficult to determine as apparent from the huge error in Fig. 6.1.15 (a). The asymmetry factor  $1/|q|$  of the amplitude mode in  $A_{1g}$  symmetry is shown in Fig. 6.1.15 (b). Below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ , the asymmetry factor  $1/|q|$  of the amplitude mode first increases with decreasing temperature, reaches its highest value at 68 K and decreases again for  $T \rightarrow 0$ .

The two lines, which behave differently compared to the other phonon peaks are located at  $104.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in the  $A_{1g}$  channel and  $208.3 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in the  $E_{2g}$  channel at 13 K. These lines disappear and the corresponding linewidths increase drastically while warming up to  $T_{\text{CDW}}$ . This behaviour leads to the conclusion, that these are CDW-coupled amplitude modes (AM) [122], since collective excitations of the electrons can occur in a CDW-driven material. Similarly, two AMs were found in 2H-TaS<sub>2</sub> [123]. Here, the amplitude of the electron density wave is excited, which changes the polarizability and thus is Raman active [27]. In an almost perfect crystal an amplitude starts to rise below the CDW critical temperature at zero energy. Due to impurities this is not the case in CsV<sub>3</sub>Sb<sub>5</sub> and hence, the amplitude mode starts to build up at the finite energy  $87.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in  $A_{1g}$  and  $199.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in  $E_{2g}$ . Interactions between amplitude modes and electrons can change the lineshape from a Lorentz distribution to a Fano distribution analogous to electron-phonon coupling. As it can be seen in Fig. 6.1.15 and Fig. 6.1.14 the  $A_{1g}$  AM is asymmetric and the  $E_{2g}$  AM is symmetric, respectively. More details of the Fano-fit can be found in Appendix C. Since the CDW gap shifts to higher energies for lower temperatures, a higher density of free charge carriers can be found there. This could lead to a higher coupling at the corresponding energies and a larger asymmetry. To my knowledge, it is the first observation of an asymmetric amplitude mode in all of the known CDW materials.

## 6.2. Tetraboride $\text{TmB}_4$

As already introduced in Section 2.2.1 the space group of  $\text{TmB}_4$  is  $P4/mbm$  (No. 127) and is part of the  $D_{4h}$  ( $4/mmm$ ) point group. This leads to the corresponding Raman tensors

$$\begin{aligned}
 A_{1g} &= \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & b \end{pmatrix}, \\
 B_{1g} &= \begin{pmatrix} c & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -c & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ and} \\
 B_{2g} &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & d & 0 \\ d & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.
 \end{aligned} \tag{6.6}$$

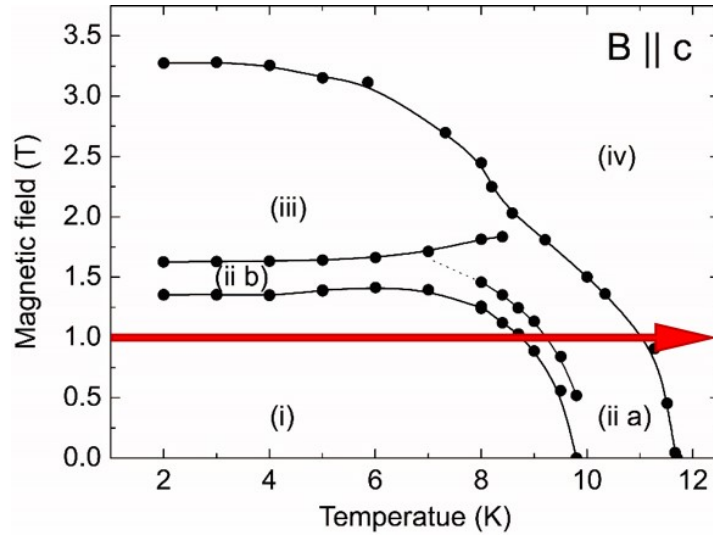
The Wyckoff positions of the Tm-atoms (4g), the B-atoms of the basal plane of the octaeder (8j), the apical B-atoms sitting on top of the pyramids (4e) and the dimer pairs (4h) entail five  $A_{1g}$ , four  $B_{1g}$  and four  $B_{2g}$  Raman-active phonons. According to the Raman tensors shown in Eq. 6.6 the  $A_{1g}$  phonons may be projected in RR- and both the  $B_{1g}$  and the  $B_{2g}$  phonons in RL-channel. A full symmetry analysis of  $\text{TmB}_4$  at 100 K can be found in Appendix B.2.

With this information the peaks in Fig. 5.2.1 (a) can be identified as four of the five expected  $A_{1g}$  Raman-active phonons. In Fig. 5.2.1 (b) six peaks appear. In accordance with the symmetry analysis of  $\text{TmB}_4$  in the energy range below  $650 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , the peak at  $120 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  has been identified as a  $B_{2g}$  phonon. The phonon at  $600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  contributes to the  $B_{1g}$  symmetry. The remaining four phonons at  $660.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $681.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $982.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and  $1001.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  are in either  $B_{1g}$  or  $B_{2g}$  symmetry since the symmetry analysis is limited to the range below  $650 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . Therefore, only six of the eight expected  $B_{1g} + B_{2g}$  Raman-active phonons can be seen. The seventh and eighth absent  $B_{1g} + B_{2g}$  phonons are probably to weak in intensity to be detected with this experimental setup. These phonons are used as probes to investigate the crystal's response to different magnetic phases and their dependence on the orientation of the field.

### 6.2.1. Investigation of the Phase Diagram

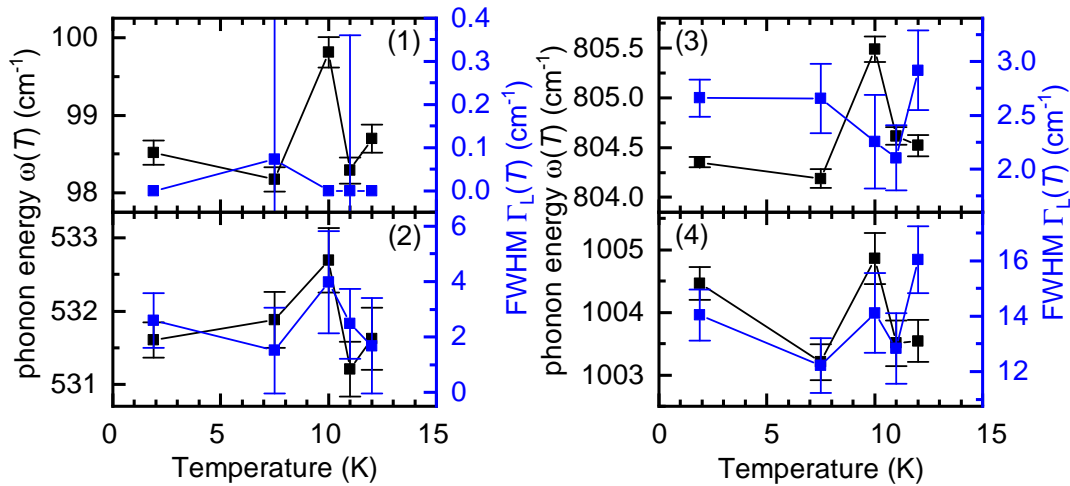
In the following various cuts through phase diagram are studied with either constant magnetic field and changing temperature (c.f. Fig. 6.2.1) or vice versa (c.f. Fig. 6.2.4).

First, to scan horizontally through the phase diagram as pictured in Fig. 6.2.1, an external magnetic field of  $B = 1 \text{ T}$  was applied during measurements at temperatures as indicated in Fig 5.2.1. To quantitatively analyze each phonon of the obtained data, a Voigt function



**Figure 6.2.1.:** Phase diagram of  $\text{TmB}_4$  as a function of the temperature and the magnetic field. The numbering of the phases correspond to that in the phase diagram in Section 2.2.3. The red arrow indicates the parameter varied in the measurement. Here, the temperature was changed and the magnetic field was held constant at  $B = 1$  T [24].

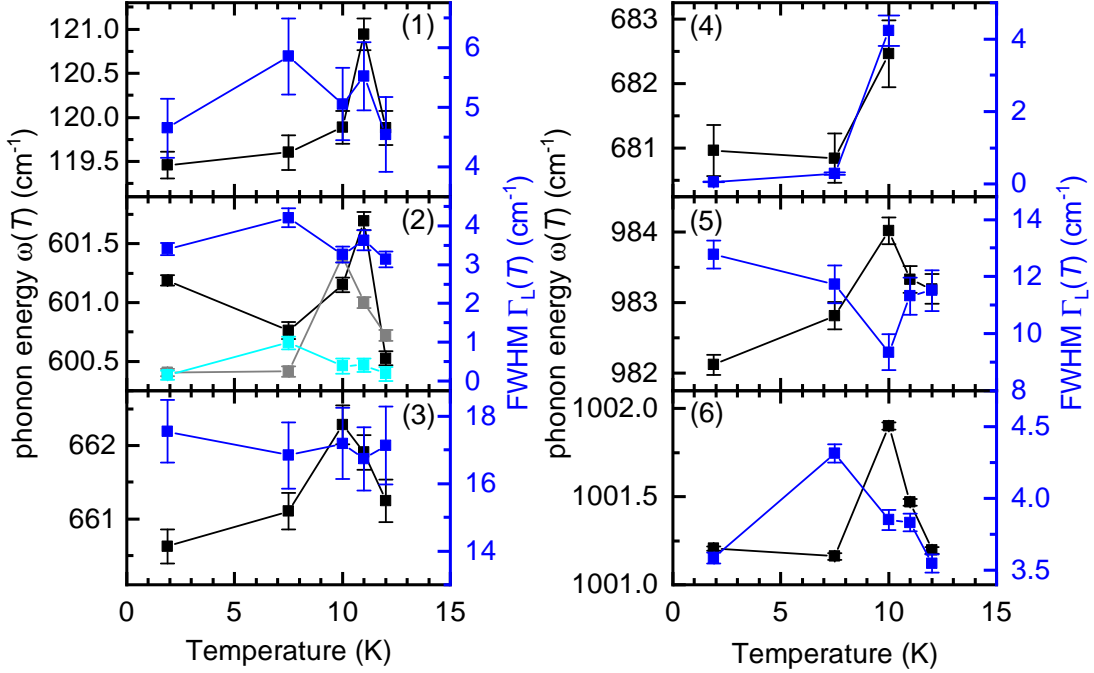
was used to fit the phonons (c.f. Section 4.2.3). The derived peak energies  $\omega(T)$  (black points) and the linewidths  $\Gamma_L(T)$  (FWHM) (blue points) are pictured in Fig. 6.2.2 and 6.2.3 in  $A_{1g}$  and  $B_{1g} + B_{2g}$ , respectively.



**Figure 6.2.2.:** Phonon energies  $\omega$  (black) and Lorentzian widths  $\Gamma_L$  (blue) of  $\text{TmB}_4$  in  $A_{1g}$  symmetry of measurements with an applied magnetic field  $B = 1$  T at 1.8 K, 7.5 K, 10 K, 11 K, and 12 K. The labeling of the panels corresponds to the labeling of the phonon peaks in Fig. 5.2.1 (a).

In  $A_{1g}$  symmetry the four phonon modes are located at  $98.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $A_{1g}(1)$ ],  $531.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $A_{1g}(2)$ ],  $804.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $A_{1g}(3)$ ], and  $1004.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $A_{1g}(4)$ ] at 1.8 K as shown in Fig. 5.2.1 (a). The linewidths of all  $A_{1g}$  phonons ( $A_{1g}(1) - (4)$  in Fig. 6.2.2 (1) - (4), respectively) do only change in the small range  $\Delta\Gamma_L = 1.8 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in the observed temperature range. The energy

of the  $A_{1g}(1) - (4)$  phonons is constant in the temperature range  $T = [1.9, 12]$  K, except at 10 K. At 10 K all  $A_{1g}$  phonons shift by more than  $1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . At this temperature  $\text{TmB}_4$  is in the Intermediate phase, which means that the sample shows short range ferromagnetic order and long range antiferromagnetic order. In all other magnetically ordered phases the phonon energy stays constant.

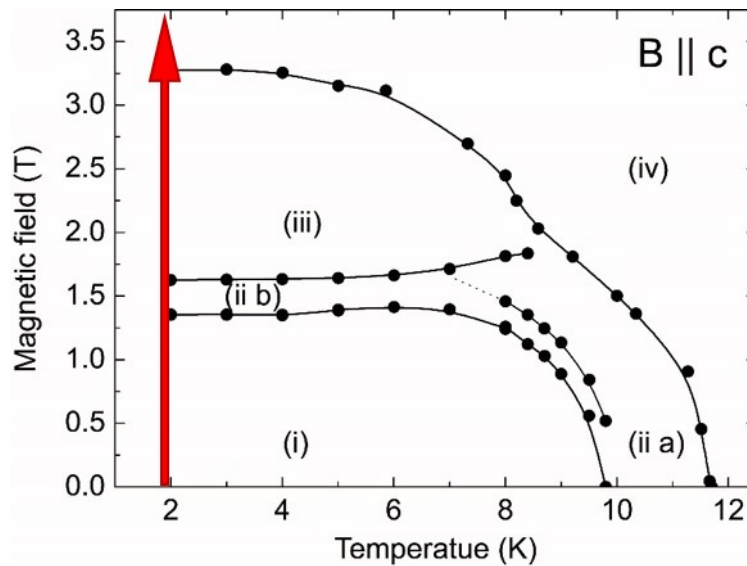


**Figure 6.2.3.:** Phonon energies  $\omega$  (black) and Lorentzian widths  $\Gamma_L$  (blue) of  $\text{TmB}_4$  in  $B_{1g} + B_{2g}$  symmetry of measurements with an applied magnetic field  $B = 1 \text{ T}$  at 1.8 K, 7.5 K, 10 K, 11 K, and 12 K. The labeling of the panels corresponds to the labeling of the phonon peaks in Fig. 5.2.1 (b). (2) The line at  $660.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  was measured with two different spectrometer positions which overlap in the range  $581.25 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $632.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The data points plotted in cyan and grey were measured with the spectrometer in high-energy position.

In  $B_{1g} + B_{2g}$  symmetry the six phonons are located at  $119.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [RL(1)],  $601.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [RL(2)],  $660.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [RL(3)],  $681.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [RL(4)],  $982.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [RL(5)], and  $1001.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [RL(6)] at 1.8 K as shown in Fig. 5.2.1 (b). The phonon excitation RL(4) at  $681.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  is located on the high-energy shoulder of the RL(3) phonon at  $660.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . There are only three values for both the linewidth  $\Gamma_L$  and the phonon energy  $\omega$ , since the intensity of the phonon mode at temperatures larger 10 K was too small for a meaningful fit. The measurements were performed in two steps, first the low energy part between  $30.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $632.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and then the high energy part between  $581.25 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1142.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . This means that the line at  $601.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  is measured twice using different spectrometer positions. In Fig. 6.2.3 (2) the blue and black curves describe the peak at  $601.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  measured with the spectrometer in the low-energy position and the cyan and grey curves the peak at  $601.2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  measured with the spectrometer in the high-energy position. The data points of the two different measurements do not coincide since the phonon is recorded on different

positions on the CCD detector. Since the same Gaussian width was used for the resolution the Lorentzian width of the phonon depends on the configuration, although it should be the way around. This is an artifact which cannot easily be eliminated in a controlled fashion. Various reasons which cannot easily be grasped may contribute including optical aberrations, misalignment of the detector or the resolution which depends on the grating angle.

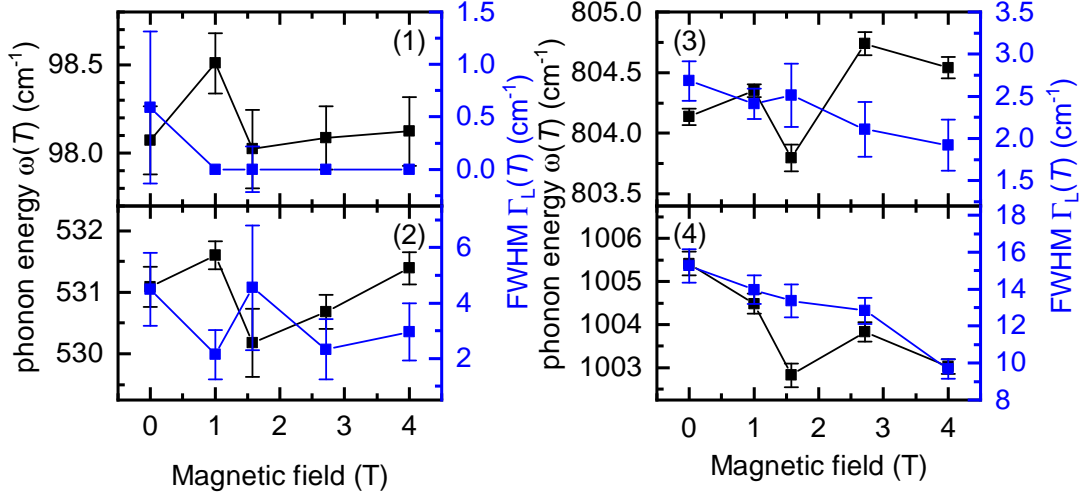
The RL(3)-(6) phonon modes shift to higher energies at 10 K and shift back to lower energies for higher temperatures. The two modes RL(1) at  $120.9 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [Fig. 6.2.3 (1)] and RL(2)  $601.7 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [Fig. 6.2.3 (2)] from the low energy data exhibit the largest shift at 11 K. The linewidths of all phonons appearing in  $B_{1g} + B_{2g}$  symmetry stay at an almost constant value. Only the linewidth of the RL(5) phonon varying between  $982.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $984.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [Fig. 6.2.3 (5)] is smaller by 30% at 10 K.



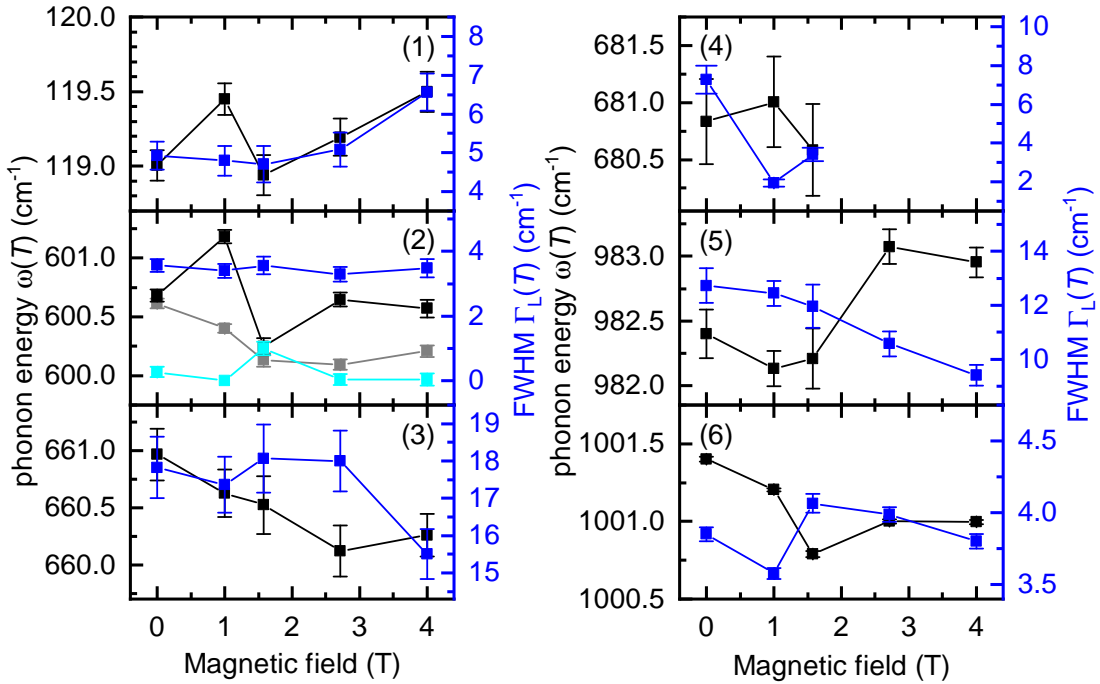
**Figure 6.2.4.:** Phase diagram of  $\text{TmB}_4$  as a function of the temperature and the magnetic field. The numbering of the phases correspond to that in the phase diagram in Section 2.2.3. The red arrow indicates the changed parameter in the measurement. Here, the magnetic field was changed and the temperature was maintained at  $T = 1.8 \text{ K}$  [24].

For the vertical scan as shown in Fig. 6.2.4, measurements were performed at the constant temperature  $T = 1.8 \text{ K}$  and different magnetic fields as plotted in Fig. 5.2.3. For the quantitative analysis of the phonons a Voigt function was used (c.f. Section 4.2.3). The resulting peak energies  $\omega(T)$  (black points) and the linewidths  $\Gamma_L(T)$  (FWHM) (blue points) are plotted in Fig. 6.2.5 and 6.2.6 in  $A_{1g}$  and  $B_{1g} + B_{2g}$ , respectively.

In  $A_{1g}$  symmetry the four phonon modes are located at  $98.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $A_{1g}(1)$ ],  $531.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $A_{1g}(2)$ ],  $804.1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $A_{1g}(3)$ ], and  $1005.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [ $A_{1g}(4)$ ] at 0 T as shown in Fig. 5.2.3 (a). The linewidths of  $A_{1g}(1)$  and (2) phonons in Fig. 6.2.5 (1) and (2), respectively, seem to be constant in the observed magnetic field range. The linewidths of the  $A_{1g}(3)$  and (4) phonons in Fig. 6.2.5 (3) and (4), respectively, decrease with increasing the magnetic field. The energy of all RL phonons has a minimum at 1.58 T.



**Figure 6.2.5.:** Phonon energies  $\omega$  (black) and Lorentzian widths  $\Gamma_L$  (blue) of  $\text{TmB}_4$  in  $A_{1g}$  symmetry in the superfluid phase at 1.8 K for different magnetic fields ranging from 0 – 4 T. The labeling of the panels corresponds to the labeling of the phonon peaks in Fig. 5.2.3 (a).



**Figure 6.2.6.:** Phonon energies  $\omega$  (black) and Lorentzian widths  $\Gamma_L$  (blue) of  $\text{TmB}_4$  in  $B_{1g} + B_{2g}$  symmetry in the superfluid phase at 1.8 K for different magnetic fields ranging from 0 – 4 T. The labeling of the panels corresponds to the labeling of the phonon peaks in Fig. 5.2.3 (b).

The same sequence of measurements as in RR configuration was also performed in RL polarization (see Fig. 6.2.4). The parameters of the  $B_{1g} + B_{2g}$  phonons are plotted in Fig. 6.2.6. The RL(4) phonon (Fig. 6.2.6 (4)) could only be observed for magnetic fields up to 1.5 T and will be disregarded in the following. Although the data are noisy there are a few trends: (i) Minimal phonon energy is observed between 1 and 1.6 T similar as in  $A_{1g}$

symmetry (RR) except for the RL(3) mode [Fig. 6.2.6 (3)]. (ii) RL(1) and RL(5) Phonons [Fig. 6.2.6 (1) and (5)] become harder, RL(3) and RL(6) phonons [Fig. 6.2.6 (3) and (6)] become softer with increasing field. (iii) The line widths are nearly constant (within the statistical noise) except for RL(1) and RL(5) phonons [Fig. 6.2.6 (1) and (5)] where they increase and, respectively, decrease significantly with increasing field. In the field range 1.3 – 1.6 T the sample is in the plateau regime, which means that long range antiferromagnetic order intercalated with small stripes of ferromagnetic order as shown in Fig. 2.2.3 is established. Although the effects occurring upon crossing phase transition lines are small the overall picture of this analysis allows us to conclude that the various reorientations of the spin patterns have a correspondence in the lattice properties. Obviously the eigenvectors of the phonons determine strength and type of the interaction. However, it is too early for a quantitative analysis and certainly beyond the scope of this thesis. An important step are measurements at elevated temperature which would facilitate an analysis of the anharmonic decay and of the phonon-phonon coupling parameters as in the cases discussed in Section 6.1.

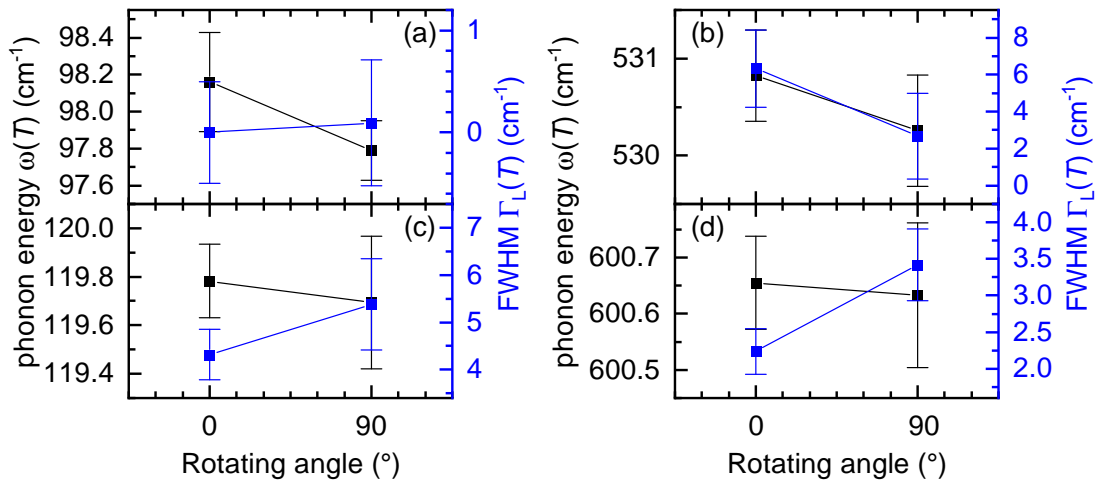
There are two possible reasons for the unexpectedly weak effects. First, all magnetic ordering phenomena are at  $q \neq 0$  [24], and the coupling to Raman-active phonons at  $q = 0$  is correspondingly weak. Second, all measurements were performed on polished surfaces, and it is not known to which depth the polishing procedure damages the surface. Although diamond polishing paste with a minimal grain size of  $1 \mu\text{m}$  was used the influence may be substantial. In a further experiment cleaved samples should be used for cross-checking.

### 6.2.2. Magneto-caloric Effect

The coupling between magnetic order and lattice is a prerequisite of the strong magneto-caloric effect observed in  $\text{TmB}_4$  [25]. The strongest magneto-caloric effect appears in  $\text{TmB}_4$ , if one rotates the sample in the magnetic field from an orientation with the basal plane of the crystal being parallel to being perpendicular with respect to the magnetic field at 20 K [25]. To search for related phonon anomalies, first measurements were performed with the direction of the magnetic field parallel to the  $c$ -axis of the sample. Afterwards, the sample was tilted, which results in an applied magnetic field perpendicular to the  $c$ -axis. With the sample surface parallel ( $c$ -axis perpendicular) to the field an extra mirror oriented at  $45^\circ$  w.r.t. the  $c$ -axis and the field axis in front of the surface is needed to couple in and out the incident and scattered light. This mirror leads to a additional 15% loss of intensity in the stray light path.

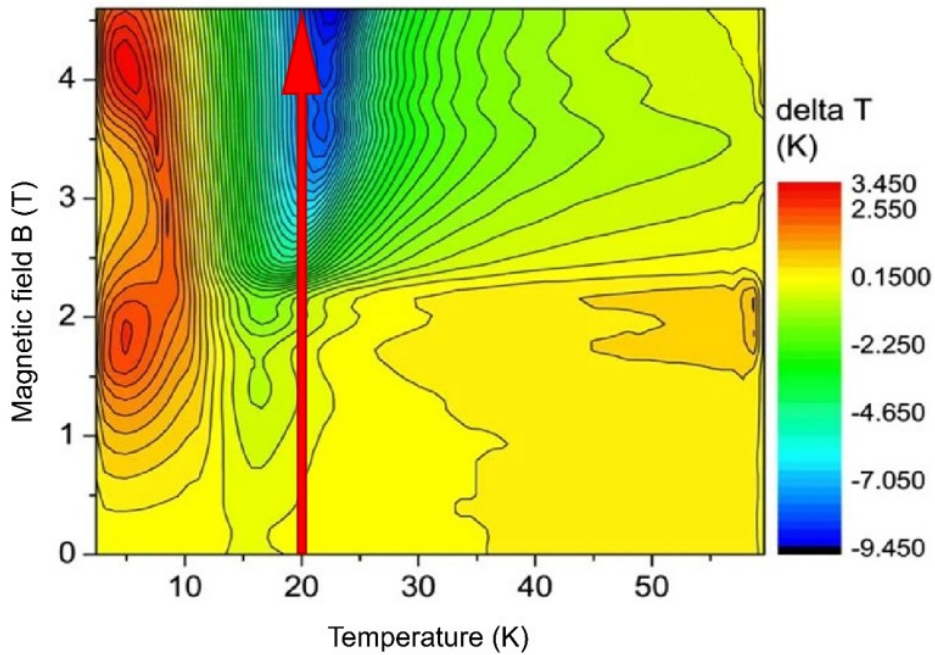
The phonon peaks of the Raman spectra in Fig. 5.2.4 (a) and (b) were quantitatively analyzed with a Voigt function (c.f. Section 4.2.3). The obtained parameters, the peak energy  $\omega(T)$  (black points) and the linewidth  $\Gamma_L(T)$  (FWHM) (blue points) of the phonon peak, are shown in Fig. 6.2.7 (a) and (b) for  $A_{1g}$  symmetry. Phonons at  $120 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [Fig. 6.2.7 (c)] and at  $601 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [Fig. 6.2.7 (d)] have  $B_{2g}$  and  $B_{1g}$  symmetry, respectively. Their dependence on the field orientation are shown on the respective panels. Neither the  $A_{1g}$  nor the  $B_{1g}$  nor





**Figure 6.2.7.:** Phonon energies  $\omega$  (black) and Lorentzian widths  $\Gamma_L$  (blue) of  $\text{TmB}_4$  in (a) and (b)  $A_{1g}$ , (c)  $B_{2g}$ , and (d)  $B_{1g}$  symmetry in an applied magnetic field of  $B = 4.5$  T and a temperature of 20 K parallel ( $0^\circ$ ) and perpendicular ( $90^\circ$ ) to the  $c$ -axis of the sample.

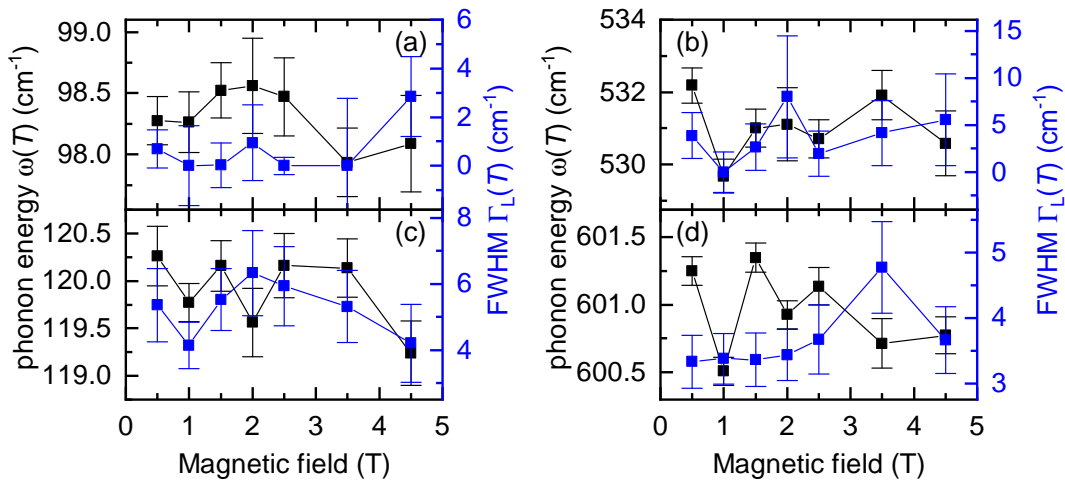
the  $B_{2g}$  phonons depend significantly on the field orientation.



**Figure 6.2.8.:** Magneto-caloric effect phase diagram of  $\text{TmB}_4$  as a function of the temperature and the magnetic field. The red arrow indicates the changed parameter in the measurement. Here, the strength of the magnetic field was changed and the temperature was held constant at  $T = 20$  K [25].

To see whether the phonon modes in the  $A_{1g}$ , the  $B_{1g}$ , and the  $B_{2g}$  symmetry couple to the magneto-caloric effect, measurements were performed in the range of the highest change in temperature, which occurs at 20 K and 4.5 T. Therefore, first measurements were

performed at the constant temperature 20 K and the magnetic field was ramped up in the range 0.5 – 4.5 T as indicated with a red arrow in Fig. 6.2.8.



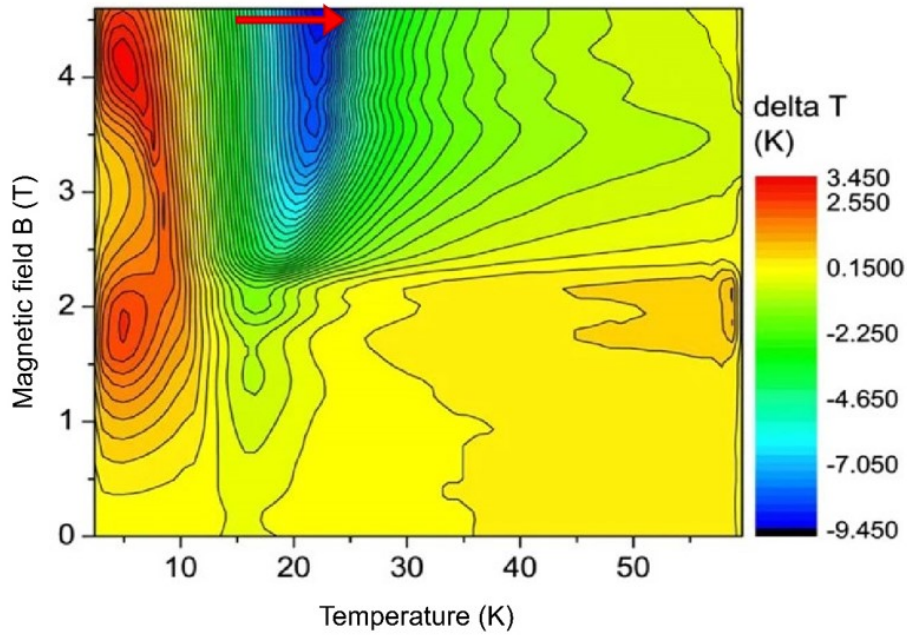
**Figure 6.2.9.:** Phonon energies  $\omega$  (black) and Lorentzian widths  $\Gamma_L$  (blue) of TmB<sub>4</sub> in (a) and (b) A<sub>1g</sub>, (c) B<sub>2g</sub>, and (d) B<sub>1g</sub> symmetry at 20 K for magnetic fields between 0.5 – 4.5 T.

Fig. 6.2.9 illustrates the evolution of both the phonon energy  $\omega$  (black points) and the phonon linewidth  $\Gamma_L$  (blue points) as a function of temperature of the phonon spectra plotted in Fig. 5.2.2. The A<sub>1g</sub> phonons are located at 98.3 cm<sup>-1</sup> [Fig. 6.2.9 (a)] and 532.2 cm<sup>-1</sup> [Fig. 6.2.9 (b)] with an applied magnetic field  $B = 0.5$  T. The B<sub>2g</sub> phonon has an energy of 120.3 cm<sup>-1</sup> [Fig. 6.2.9 (c)] and the B<sub>1g</sub> phonon has an energy of 601.2 cm<sup>-1</sup> [Fig. 6.2.9 (d)] with an applied magnetic field  $B = 0.5$  T. Both the phonon energies and the linewidths of all phonons show no statistically significant magnetic field dependence.

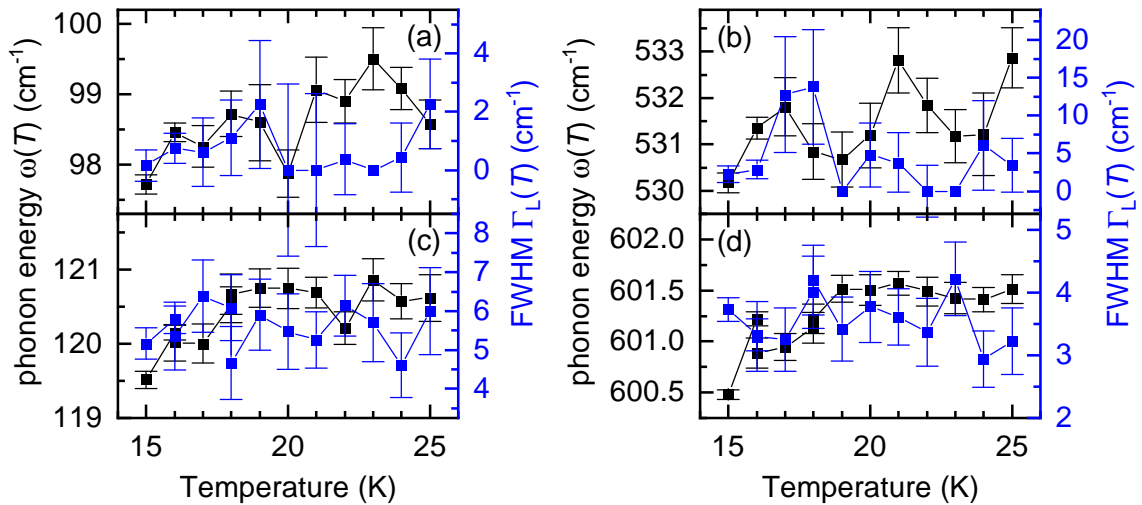
The following measurements investigate the coupling of the phonons to the magneto-caloric effect at a constant magnetic field  $B = 4.5$  T and varying temperatures ranging from 15 – 25 K as indicated with a red arrow in Fig. 6.2.10. The corresponding Raman spectra of these measurements are pictured in Fig. 5.2.5.

Fig. 6.2.11 shows both the change in the phonon energy  $\omega$  (black points) and the phonon linewidth  $\Gamma_L$  (blue points) as a function of temperature of the phonon peaks pictured in Fig. 5.2.5. The phonons in A<sub>1g</sub> are located at 97.7 cm<sup>-1</sup> [Fig. 6.2.11 (a)] and 530.2 cm<sup>-1</sup> [Fig. 6.2.11 (b)] at the temperature  $T = 15$  K. The energy of the phonon in the B<sub>2g</sub> symmetry is 119.5 cm<sup>-1</sup> [Fig. 6.2.11 (c)] and the energy of the phonon in B<sub>1g</sub> symmetry is 600.5 cm<sup>-1</sup> [Fig. 6.2.11 (d)] at the temperature  $T = 15$  K. The phonon energy  $\omega$  of the phonons in all observed symmetries, A<sub>1g</sub>, B<sub>1g</sub>, and B<sub>2g</sub>, is almost constant.

No significant changes of the phonon linewidth  $\Gamma_L$  were observed either. There may be a small tendency of the phonon energy  $\omega(B)$  to increase with the field. This leads to the conclusion, that the magneto-elastic coupling is very weak if observable at all. Yet, also here one has to consider possible effects from the polished surface. In addition, the magneto-caloric effect is transient in nature and may not be observable in an experiment



**Figure 6.2.10:** Magneto-caloric effect phase diagram of  $TmB_4$  as a function of the temperature and the magnetic field. The red arrow indicates the changed parameter in the measurement. Here, the temperature was changed and the magnetic field was held constant at  $B = 1$  T [25].



**Figure 6.2.11:** Phonon energies  $\omega$  (black) and Lorentzian widths  $\Gamma_L$  (blue) of  $TmB_4$  in (a) and (b)  $A_{1g}$ , (c)  $B_{2g}$ , and (d)  $B_{1g}$  symmetry in an applied magnetic field  $B = 4.5$  T at different temperatures.

which requires at least two minutes acquisition time. On the other hand, the stability of these energies and widths makes us confident that the changes observed across the phase boundaries found in Figs. 6.2.2, 6.2.3, 6.2.5, and 6.2.6 are significant.



## 7. Summary

In this thesis, various magnetic materials having Archimedean lattice structures were studied by Raman spectroscopy as a function of temperature and light polarization.  $\text{TmB}_4$  was additionally studied in variable applied magnetic fields.

In the Kagome ferromagnet  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  all phonon lines except for one were identified. Under the assumption that the optical phonons decay symmetrically into two lines at  $\omega_0/2$  and  $\pm\mathbf{k}$  the dimensionless phonon-phonon coupling parameter  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$  could be extracted and was found to be  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$  in the range 0.1 to 1.1. A clear anomaly was observed in the  $A_{1g}$  phonon having the lowest energy [ $A_{1g}(1)$ ] where  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},1}$  increases from 0.015 to 0.2 below the re-orientation temperature of the Fe spins. This means, that  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},1}$  is switched on, as soon as the Fe spins point perpendicular to the motion of the Sn vibrations. To check the contribution of the thermal expansion of the lattice to the phonon energy  $\omega(T)$ , the Grüneisen parameter  $\gamma_i$  for all phonon modes were extracted.  $\gamma_i$  ranges between 0.23 to 0.94. In  $A_{1g}(1)$  the first order contribution  $\Delta_1^{(1)}(T)$  dominates.  $\gamma_1$  stays almost constant although the phonon-phonon coupling parameter  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},(1)}$  changes by more than a factor of 10. Since  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  has a relatively high Curie temperature ( $T_C = 670$  K), strong changes in the electronic properties in the range 4.2 – 300 K are not to be expected. Yet, a substantial variation with temperature at low energies was found in the  $E_g$  continuum. On the one hand this variation is reminiscent of the strong temperature dependence of the resistivity  $\rho(T)$ . On the other hand, the low energy peak may originate from magnetic fluctuations in a geometrically frustrated system [17] or from a band gap induced by the spin reorientation as suggested by optical measurements [104]. However, the rather different energies in the two experiments argue against this possibility [17].

In the Weyl semimetal  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  two Raman active phonon modes with  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_g$  symmetry are observed. The  $E_g$  phonon line is symmetric and no changes in phonon energy and linewidth can be found. The phonon-phonon coupling parameter  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$  and the Grüneisen parameter  $\gamma_i$  were extracted for both phonon lines. Similar to the  $A_{1g}$  phonon modes in  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$ , a significant change in the coupling parameter of the  $A_{1g}$  phonon was observed with values for  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph}}(A_{1g})$  of 0.12 and 0.85 above or below the magnetic transition temperature, respectively. At  $T_C$   $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$  transitions from a paramagnetic material to a ferromagnetic material with an out-of-plane orientation of the Co spins. Since the Co spins sitting on the Kagome layer order ferromagnetically, they couple to the lattice, leading to the change of the temperature dependence of the phonon linewidth. Although the phonon-phonon coupling parameters  $\lambda_{\text{ph-ph},i}$  in  $A_{1g}$  symmetry change by a factor of  $\approx 6$

across  $T_C$ , the Grüneisen parameters  $\gamma_i$  do not change significantly. This indicates that the energy of the  $A_{1g}$  phonon mode is dominated by the first order contribution  $\Delta_i^{(1)}(T)$ , which originates from the thermal lattice expansion. The  $A_{1g}$  phonon line is asymmetric and well described by a Fano function suggesting its strong coupling to the electronic continuum. The Fano asymmetry parameter  $1/|q|$  exhibits a non-monotonic temperature dependence. Upon heating, the asymmetry factor increases towards  $T_C$  and then decreases slowly again. The electronic continua in both  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_g$  symmetry show a redistribution of the spectral weight below  $T_C$ . The redistribution of spectra weight in the ordered phase argues more for itinerant SDW magnetism. Features typical for two-magnon excitations could not be observed.

Similar to  $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$ ,  $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$  shows a spectral weight redistribution in both the  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_g$  symmetry below the charge-density-wave (CDW) critical temperature ( $T_{\text{CDW}} = 94$  K). This indicates, that a gap opens at approximately  $1600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in the  $A_{1g}$  and  $1550 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in the  $E_g$  symmetry. The CDW gap is expected to appear at the  $M$  points. Although only the  $E_g$  symmetry selectively maps the  $M$  points, the gap like features can be found in both symmetries. Suggesting an influence of the second-order Raman vertex several new phonons appear below  $T_{\text{CDW}}$  in addition to the  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_g$  mode present at all temperatures. These new phonons are associated with the lattice distortion due to the CDW transition. No sign of a hysteresis was found in the energy of the  $A_{1g}$  phonon at  $T_C$ . Therefore, an argument can be made for either a second-order or a weak first-order phase transition. Two amplitude modes at  $104.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in  $A_{1g}$  and  $208.3 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in  $E_g$  symmetry were observed at 12.6 K. The amplitude mode in  $A_{1g}$  symmetry couples strongly to the continuum and hence, shows an asymmetric Fano line shape. Theoretical calculations are needed to further investigate this new interesting Kagome-layer material.

The rich temperature-field phase diagram of the tetraboride  $\text{TmB}_4$  [24] was studied in a magnetic field of up to 4.5 T and for two orientations of the sample with respect to the field. To scan both vertically and horizontally through the phase diagram either the temperature was held constant and the externally applied magnetic field was varied or vice versa. Only the energy of the phonons change, when the material enters either the plateau regime or the intermediate phase. These phases show both a long range antiferromagnetic order. While the Plateau regime exhibits short range ferromagnetic order, the ordering in the Intermediate phase is intercalated by small stripes of ferromagnetic order. In the range of the strongest magneto-caloric effect (MCE) measurements at  $B = 4.5$  T and  $T = 20$  K [25] were performed. Either the temperature or the externally applied magnetic field was held constant and the other parameter was varied. The phonons were not affected by neither changes in temperature nor the magnetic field. Since the strongest rotating magnetocaloric effect is detected, when the sample is rotated by either  $90^\circ$  or  $270^\circ$ , measurements were performed before and after the sample was rotated by  $90^\circ$  in an externally applied magnetic field. The Raman spectra did neither show significant changes in the phonon energy  $\omega(T)$  nor linewidth  $\Gamma_L(T)$ . The transient nature of the magneto-caloric effect may be a seri-

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ous challenge. In future studies cleaved samples should be explored to exclude a possible negative influence of the polishing procedure..





# A. Thermal Lattice Expansion

## A.1. Thermal Expansion of $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$

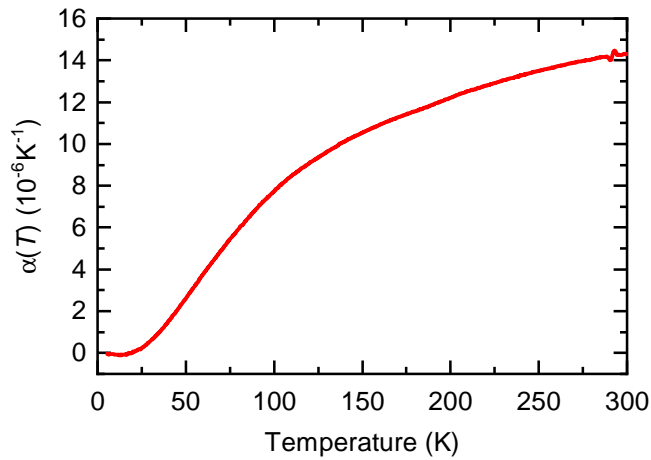


Figure A.1.1.: Thermal expansion coefficient  $\alpha(T)$  of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$

The phonon energy  $\omega(T)$  can be described by Eq. 6.3. The first order contribution  $\Delta_i^{(1)}(T)$  consists of an integral of the thermal expansion coefficient  $\alpha(T)$  of the sample. The thermal expansion coefficient data of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{Sn}_2$  is provided by Dr. Christoph Meingast's group from Karlsruhe Institute of Technology, which is shown in Fig. A.1.1. The integral of the data was fitted with a third order polynomial and then inserted in Eq. 6.3.

## A.2. Volume Change of $\text{Co}_3\text{Sn}_2\text{S}_2$

The phonon energy  $\omega(T)$  can be described by Eq. 6.3. The first order contribution  $\Delta_i^{(1)}(T)$  consists of an integral of the thermal lattice expansion  $\alpha(T)$  of the sample. The integrated thermal expansion describes the volume of the sample. Typical volume values of  $\text{Co}_3\text{S}_2\text{S}_2$  [124] are pictured in Fig. A.2.1 as black dots. The data were fitted with a polynomial00 function of fourth order (blue line) and then inserted in Eq. 6.3.

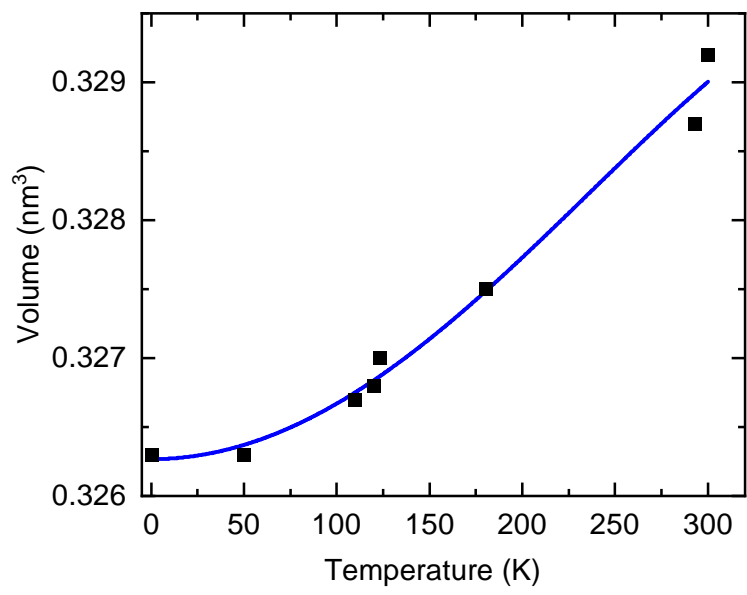
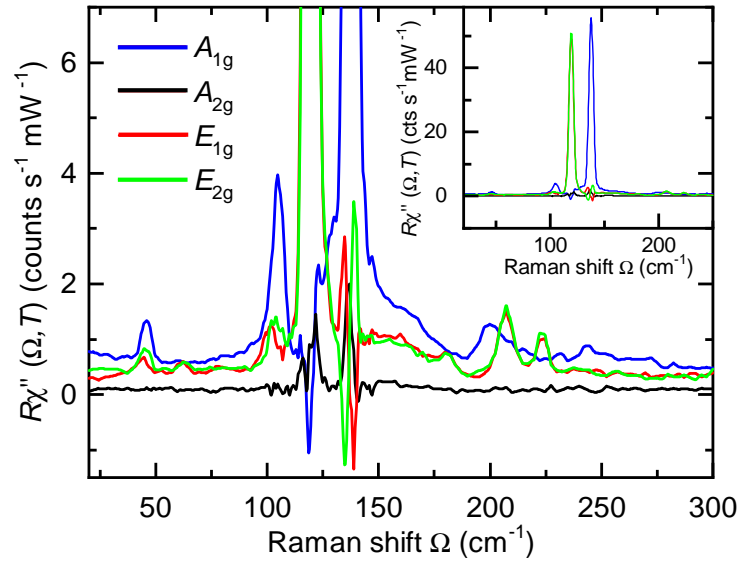


Figure A.2.1.: Volume of  $\text{Co}_3\text{S}_2\text{S}_2$  as a function of temperature

## B. Symmetry Analysis

### B.1. CsV<sub>3</sub>Sb<sub>5</sub>



**Figure B.1.1.:** Symmetry analysis of CsV<sub>3</sub>Sb<sub>5</sub> at 20 K for the four main symmetries as indicated. The spectra in E<sub>1g</sub> and E<sub>2g</sub> show the same seven peaks and therefore, they can't be distinguished. The A<sub>1g</sub> spectrum has four peaks, while the A<sub>2g</sub> symmetry contribution can be neglected.

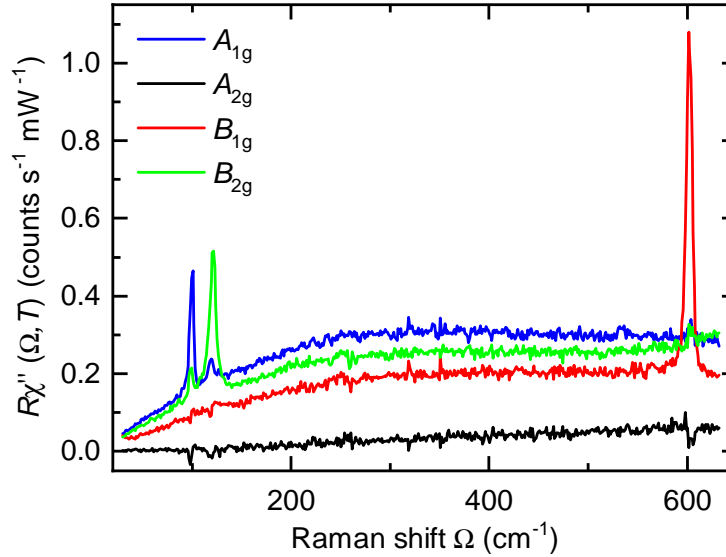
Fig. B.1.1 shows Raman spectra of the four main symmetries of the Kagome lattice material CsV<sub>3</sub>Sb<sub>5</sub> at 20 K. The A<sub>1g</sub> symmetry exhibits four peaks at around 46 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 105 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 137 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 200 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The spectrum in A<sub>2g</sub> symmetry has only small intensity compared to the other symmetries. Therefore, it is negligible and won't be considered in this thesis.

In both E<sub>1g</sub> and E<sub>2g</sub> symmetry, seven peaks appear at around 45 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 62 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 103 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 119 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 180 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 207 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 223 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The Raman spectra in E<sub>1g</sub> and E<sub>2g</sub> symmetry have the same shape and therefore, it isn't possible for the program to distinguish between these two different symmetries.

### B.2. TmB<sub>4</sub>

The symmetry analysis for energies below 650 cm<sup>-1</sup> of the tetraboride TmB<sub>4</sub> at 100 K consists of the four main symmetries in this material. The A<sub>1g</sub> symmetry consists of one peak

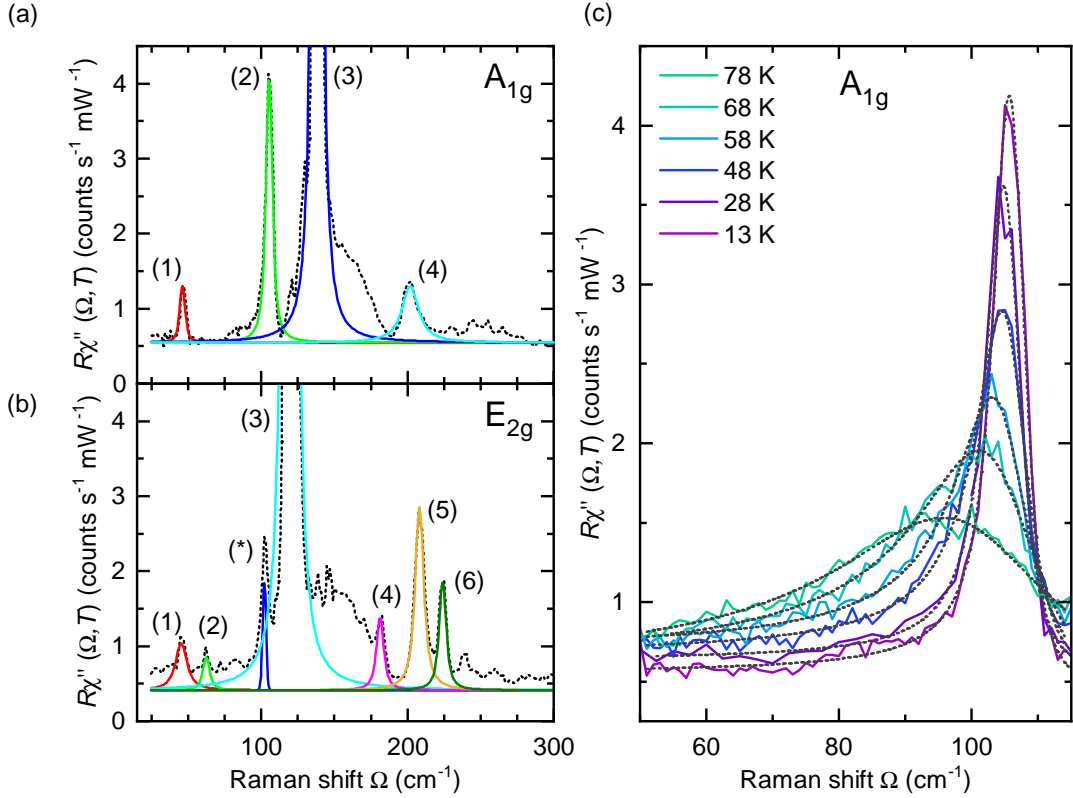
located at  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  superimposed onto a continuum. The spectrum in  $A_{2g}$  symmetry is low in intensity and shows neither a peak nor any other visible contribution. Therefore, the  $A_{2g}$  symmetry of  $\text{TmB}_4$  will be neglected.



**Figure B.2.1.** Symmetry analysis of  $\text{TmB}_4$  at 20 K for the four main symmetries as indicated. The  $A_{2g}$  symmetry contribution can be neglected. The  $A_{1g}$ ,  $B_{1g}$  and  $B_{2g}$  symmetries all show one peak superimposed onto a continuum, respectively.

The  $B_{1g}$  symmetry exhibits a sharp peak at  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Its intensity is comparable to the one in  $A_{1g}$  and is also superimposed onto a continuum. Small leakages can be found in both  $A_{1g}$  and  $B_{1g}$  symmetries of both phonons, respectively. A strong peak at the energy  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  in  $B_{2g}$  symmetry is superimposed onto a continuum, as well as the other two peaks in the energy range pictured. Since the symmetry analysis of  $\text{TmB}_4$  was only performed in the low energy range, the  $B_{1g}$  and the  $B_{2g}$  symmetries will be labeled with  $B_{1g} + B_{2g}$ .

## C. Fano Fits of $\text{CsV}_3\text{Sb}_5$



**Figure C.0.1.:** Fitting results of the Raman active phonon modes and the amplitude modes in  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_{2g}$  symmetry. Panel (a) and (b) present the Voigt fits (coloured lines) of the different peaks in  $A_{1g}$  and  $E_{2g}$  symmetry, respectively. Peak (2) and peak (5) in panel (a) and (b), respectively, were fitted with a Fano function convoluted with a Gaussian distribution. The dashed lines describe the actual Raman spectra at 12.6 K. Panel (c) shows the evolution of the amplitude mode in  $A_{1g}$  (coloured lines), which were fitted with a Fano function convoluted with a Gaussian distribution, at temperatures as indicated.

Fig. C.0.1 presents the fitting results of both the Raman active phonon modes and the amplitude modes in (a)  $A_{1g}$  and (b)  $E_{2g}$  symmetry at 12.6 K. The phonon modes (1), (3), and (4) in  $A_{1g}$  and the phonon modes (1)-(4), (\*), and (6) in  $E_{2g}$  were fitted using a Voigt function (c.f. Eq. 4.1). The amplitude modes (2) in  $A_{1g}$  and (5) in  $E_{2g}$  are described by a Fano fit-function, which is convoluted with a Gaussian distribution, due to its asymmetric shape. The temperature-dependent evolution of the amplitude mode in  $A_{1g}$  and the corresponding Fano-fits are presented in Fig. C.0.1 (c). The asymmetry of the peak decreases for lower temperatures.



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