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### Exciton-polaritons in transition-metal dichalcogenides and their direct excitation via energy transfer

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Excitons, composite electron-hole quasiparticles, are known to play an important role in optoelectronic phenomena in many semiconducting materials. Recent experiments and theory indicate that the band-gap optics of the newly discovered monolayer transition-metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) is dominated by tightly bound valley excitons. The strong interaction of excitons with long-range electromagnetic fields in these 2D systems can significantly affect their intrinsic properties. Here, we develop a semi-classical framework for intrinsic exciton-polaritons in monolayer TMDs that treats their dispersion and radiative decay on the same footing and can incorporate effects of the dielectric environment. It is demonstrated how both inter- and intra-valley long-range interactions influence the dispersion and decay of the polaritonic eigenstates. We also show that exciton-polaritons can be efficiently excited via resonance energy transfer from quantum emitters such as quantum dots, which may be useful for various applications.

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#### I. INTRODUCTION.

Monolayer molybdenum disulfide  $MoS_2$  and other group-VI transition-metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) are novel two-dimensional (2D) semiconductor systems whose electronic and optical properties attract a great deal of attention.<sup>1–29</sup> One of their prominently discussed features is the opportunity to manipulate the valley degree of freedom, including by optical means due to opposite-handed circular polarizations of the interband transitions in the two valleys.<sup>4</sup> A growing experimen-tal and theoretical evidence<sup>2-8,17-29</sup> indicates that the band-gap optical properties of monolayer TMDs are dominated by relatively tightly bound electron-hole pairs, excitons, with binding energies substantially larger than in the majority of conventional inorganic semiconductor quantum wells.<sup>30,31</sup> The corresponding 2D exciton physics in TMDs may therefore reflect generally stronger interactions of excitons with macroscopic electric fields and light. In fact, experimental evidence of strong coupling between MoS<sub>2</sub> excitons and dielectric microcavity photons has been recently<sup>32</sup> reported.

An important fundamental issue is the nature of intrinsic excitonic eigenstates and their energy-momentum (dispersion) relationships. It is these relationships that are of particular interest to us here. It was emphasized recently<sup>23</sup> that the long-range exchange Coulomb interaction mixes individual valley excitons to establish excitons with the longitudinal (L) and transverse (T) polarizations as normal system modes, similarly to quantum well excitons.<sup>33,34</sup> It was also suggested<sup>23</sup> that the resulting exciton spectrum, as a function of its center-ofmass in-plane wave-vector  $\mathbf{k} = (k_x, k_y) = k (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ , would exhibit a specific Dirac-cone-like behavior at low momenta  $\hbar k$ , in particular within the light cone,  $k < \kappa = \omega/c$ . In this paper<sup>35</sup> we address the issue of the exciton dispersion at small k as affected exclusively by long-range

(or macroscopic) interactions. Consistently with this end, a semi-classical analysis is performed of the interaction of monolayer excitons with long-range electromagnetic fields. Our results will show that (1) the dispersion of L- and T-excitons is affected by both inter- and intravalley interaction processes leading to the overall generic behavior characteristic of the 2D excitons.<sup>33,34,36,37</sup> That behavior does not exhibit a Dirac-cone feature. In the electrostatic limit, this can be seen already from the Coulomb interaction calculations as illustrated below and was recently<sup>29</sup> recognized. While the dispersion of Lexcitons is indeed substantially altered, the effect on the dispersion of T-excitons would be inconsistent with the electrostatics of the transverse polarization waves. (2) Moreover, also in a general fashion, we demonstrate that the *intrinsic* behavior of excitations within and in the vicinity of the light cone would be that of the 2D exciton-polaritons as determined by the full electromagnetic (rather than just  $electrostatic^{23}$ ) coupling of valley excitons taking account of the retardation effects.<sup>31,37</sup> With this approach, both renormalization of the excitonic bands and the exciton radiative decay appear on the same footing as a consequence of the exciton interaction with macroscopic electromagnetic fields. Consequently, general features of the intrinsic exciton-polaritons are particularly clearly accentuated in the macroscopic electrodynamics framework. It allows one, for instance, to straightforwardly generalize the analysis of the polariton dispersion and radiative decay in free-standing monolayer TMDs to monolayers at the interface between different media that we discuss in this paper. Such a framework would also be applicable to more involved photonic structures with TMDs that can be of interest for optoelectronic applications. In another example, we use that framework here to illustrate the possibility of very efficient direct excitation of monolayer polaritons by energy transfer from proximal electric-dipole emitters. Energy transfer from quantum dots to  $MoS_2$  has been observed experimentally,<sup>38,39</sup> this process is also considered of potential importance for practical applications.

#### II. EXCITON-POLARITONS FROM EFFECTIVE DIPOLE-DIPOLE INTERACTIONS.

In a common basic description of optically active lowest energy excitons in monolayer TMDs, they arise as a result of the direct Coulomb attraction between an electron and a hole in the same valley. Due to the strong spin-orbit coupling in TMDs, the electron-hole spin composition is associated with the valley<sup>4</sup> and therefore we will be omitting spin indices. In the valley-based picture there are then two exciton species (index  $\alpha = 1, 2$ ) corresponding to two different valleys, both having the same energy dispersion

$$E_0(\mathbf{k}) = \hbar\omega_0(k) = \hbar\omega_0 + \hbar^2 k^2 / 2M_0,$$
(1)

where  $\hbar\omega_0$  is typically somewhat below 2 eV and the exciton mass  $M_0$  is close to the free electron's  $m_e$ .<sup>8,10,19,23</sup> The parabolic kinetic energy in Eq. (1) with  $M_0$  being the sum of electron and hole effective masses signifies the fact that the exciton propagation in space is enabled by the simultaneous motion of the electron and hole. The inclusion of the standard exchange Coulomb interaction results in another mechanism of the exciton propagation and concomitant modifications of its dispersion, which can be seen as the electric field of the exciton annihilated at one spatial point creating the exciton at another point. Such a long-range process corresponds to the effective electrostatic dipole-dipole coupling, which is a well-known major exciton transport mechanism in molecular systems.<sup>37</sup> To briefly outline this picture for the generic continuum description of excitons as relevant for our application here, consider the electron-electron Coulomb interaction

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \int d\mathbf{r}_1 d\mathbf{r}_2 \psi^{\dagger}(\mathbf{r}_1) \psi^{\dagger}(\mathbf{r}_2) U_C(\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2) \psi(\mathbf{r}_2) \psi(\mathbf{r}_1),$$
(2)

where the electron annihilation operator

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\alpha\mu} \psi_{\alpha\mu}(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\alpha\mu\mathbf{q}} a_{\alpha\mu,\mathbf{q}} \phi^{\alpha}_{\mu\mathbf{q}}(\mathbf{r})$$
(3)

is associated with the sum over valleys ( $\alpha = 1, 2$ ) and bands (conduction,  $\mu = c$ , and valence,  $\mu = v$ ). Further expansion in Eq. (3) is over electron operators  $a_{\alpha\mu,\mathbf{q}}$  with wave-vectors  $\mathbf{q}$  and Bloch wave functions  $\phi^{\alpha}_{\mu\mathbf{q}}(\mathbf{r})$ . For a uniformly screened Coulomb repulsion,  $U_C(\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2) = e^2/\varepsilon |\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2|$ , where e is the electron charge and  $\varepsilon$  the effective dielectric constant, but the screening could also be distance-dependent. The peculiarities of screening effects in (quasi) 2D systems and applications to TMDs have been discussed in Ref. 22.

In accordance with representation (3), the integrand in interaction (2) contains terms like

$$\psi_{\alpha c}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{r}_{1})\psi_{\beta v}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{r}_{2})U_{C}(\mathbf{r}_{1}-\mathbf{r}_{2})\psi_{\beta v}(\mathbf{r}_{2})\psi_{\alpha c}(\mathbf{r}_{1})$$

featuring density operators  $\psi^{\dagger}_{\alpha\mu}(\mathbf{r})\psi_{\alpha\mu}(\mathbf{r})$  and related to the direct Coulomb interaction between an electron and a hole. Valley excitons are bound states that are formed as a result of this direct interaction:

$$|\alpha \mathbf{k}\rangle = \sum_{\mathbf{q}} \Phi_{\mathbf{q}} a^{\dagger}_{\alpha c, \mathbf{q}} a_{\alpha v, \mathbf{q}-\mathbf{k}} |\mathrm{GS}\rangle \tag{4}$$

for excitons with wave-vector  $\mathbf{k}$  and energy (1). Here  $|\text{GS}\rangle$  is the ground state, whereas excitonic state (4) is a linear combination of band electron-hole pair states with the momentum-space wave function  $\Phi_{\mathbf{q}}$ . For the continuum excitonic states in the effective mass approximation (1), the wave vectors  $\mathbf{q}$  in Eq. (4) are assumed to be measured relative to the position of band edges ( $\mathbf{K}_{\alpha}$  points) in the respective valleys and are small. One immediately recognizes the known relationship  $\sum_{\mathbf{q}} \Phi_{\mathbf{q}} = \sqrt{\mathcal{V}}\phi(0)$  that is employed below. Here  $\mathcal{V}$  is the system volume and  $\phi(0)$ the real-space wave function of the relative electron-hole motion for their coinciding position. We note that the precise knowledge of the exciton wave function and the exciton binding energy is not essential for the effects that we focus on in this paper. We refer the reader to Ref. 22, which summarizes and discusses several theoretical calculations of the excitons in MoS<sub>2</sub> with a particular emphasis on the effects the screening.

A different type of contributions to the integrand of Eq. (2) is exemplified by expression

$$\psi^{\dagger}_{\alpha c}(\mathbf{r}_1)\psi^{\dagger}_{\beta v}(\mathbf{r}_2)U_C(\mathbf{r}_1-\mathbf{r}_2)\psi_{\beta c}(\mathbf{r}_2)\psi_{\alpha v}(\mathbf{r}_1),$$

which features interband *transitional* density operators like  $\rho_{cv}^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}) = \psi_{\alpha c}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{r})\psi_{\alpha v}(\mathbf{r})$  and corresponds to the exchange Coulomb interaction  $(U^{\text{exch}})$  for the excitonic states. These types of terms would then lead to corrections to exciton energies (1) via matrix elements

$$U_{\alpha\beta}^{\text{exch}}(\mathbf{k}) = \langle \alpha \mathbf{k} | U^{\text{exch}} | \beta \mathbf{k} \rangle .$$
 (5)

The interband transitional densities can be readily related to the interband electric-dipole polarization  $\mathbf{P}$  in the continuum description we are interested in by using the  $\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{p}$  theory<sup>30,31</sup> expansion of Bloch wave functions in the vicinity of the conduction and valence band edges. Restricting, for clarity, to the two bands in each valley, the valence band functions

$$\phi_{v\mathbf{q}}^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathcal{V}}} e^{i\mathbf{q}\cdot\mathbf{r}} \left[ u_v^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}) - \frac{\mathbf{q}\cdot\mathbf{p}_{cv}^{\alpha}}{m_e E_g} u_c^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}) \right], \quad (6)$$

where  $E_g$  is the energy bandgap and  $\mathbf{p}_{cv}^{\alpha}$  the interband matrix element of the electron momentum operator. The latter determines the admixture of the conductionbandedge periodic Bloch functions  $u_c^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r})$  into the valencebandedge periodic functions  $u_v^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r})$ . Using Eq. (6) and the analogous expression for the conduction band states:

$$\phi_{c\mathbf{q}}^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathcal{V}}} e^{i\mathbf{q}\cdot\mathbf{r}} \left[ u_{c}^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}) + \frac{\mathbf{q}\cdot\mathbf{p}_{vc}^{\alpha}}{m_{e}E_{g}} u_{v}^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}) \right], \quad (7)$$

the macroscopic (over distances substantially larger than the unit cell) averaging eliminates the periodic functions from the consideration and emphasizes the envelope functions. For the transitional charge density operator  $e\rho_{cv}^{\alpha}$ , e.g., this results in

$$e\rho_{cv}^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}) \to -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{P}_{cv}^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}),$$
 (8)

where the macroscopic interband polarization operator

$$\mathbf{P}_{cv}^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{V}} \sum_{\mathbf{q}_1 \mathbf{q}_2} a_{\alpha c, \mathbf{q}_2}^{\dagger} a_{\alpha v, \mathbf{q}_1} \mathrm{e}^{i(\mathbf{q}_1 - \mathbf{q}_2)\mathbf{r}} \mathbf{d}_{cv}^{\alpha} \qquad (9)$$

and the (optical) interband electric-dipole transition matrix element

$$\mathbf{d}_{cv}^{\alpha} = -ie\mathbf{p}_{cv}^{\alpha}/m_e E_g \tag{10}$$

for electron-hole pair creation in valley  $\alpha$  is traditionally<sup>31</sup> related to the momentum matrix element. The described framework applies to systems of different dimensionalities with the proper definition of volume  $\mathcal{V}$  and of Cartesian coordinates in spatial vectors **r** and spatial derivatives of operator  $\nabla$ .

With association (8) in place, it is clear from standard electrostatics<sup>40</sup> that the long-range exchange Coulomb interaction indeed corresponds to the electrostatic dipoledipole coupling. Matrix elements (5) can thus be directly represented by using Eqs. (9) and (4) in terms of interacting "transition dipoles" (10). This physically attractive real-space picture can then be readily extended to the dipole-dipole coupling mediated by the full electromagnetic interactions including the retardation effects. The resulting intrinsic excitations, known as exciton-polaritons, would thus take into account the exciton-light interaction $^{31,36,37}$  that is absent in the picture of Coulomb excitons derived with electrostatic interactions alone. It was demonstrated<sup>41</sup> that the dipoledipole calculations with the retarded fields result in the same exciton-polaritons as arising from the more familiar treatment<sup>31,37</sup> of the interaction of Coulomb excitons with transverse photons (see a schematic picture in Fig. 1(c)). As the full electromagnetic interaction depends also on the frequency (energy), it is more accurate to discuss the results in terms of exciton self-energy corrections  $\Sigma$  that can be used in the self-consistent calculations of the exciton Green's functions in the Dyson equation:  $\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{G}_0 + \mathbf{G}_0 \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{G}$ .

It is convenient to classify the electromagnetic interactions in monolayer TMDs as intra-valley ( $\alpha = \beta$ ) and inter-valley ( $\alpha \neq \beta$ ) couplings, in some analogy with bipartite lattices and molecular systems with two molecules per unit cell.<sup>37</sup> Consequently, the exciton Green's functions **G** and exciton self-energy correction **\Sigma** due to the interactions are  $2 \times 2$  matrices, the non-interacting **G**<sub>0</sub> being just a diagonal matrix corresponding to valley excitons with energies (1). Matrix elements of **\Sigma** are evaluated precisely as we described above for Eq. (5) with the understanding that the electrostatic interaction of transition dipoles can be replaced by the full interaction. We therefore write the result in a general form that emphasizes this interaction:

$$\Sigma_{\alpha\beta}(E,\mathbf{k}) = \int d\mathbf{r} \, v_{\alpha\beta}(\mathbf{r}) \, e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}}.$$
 (11)

It is a function of wave-vector  $\mathbf{k}$  but can also be a function of energy variable  $E = \hbar \omega = \hbar c \kappa$  implicitly present in energy density  $v(\mathbf{r})$  in the integrand. The energy density  $v_{\alpha\beta}(\mathbf{r}) = |\phi(0)|^2 V_{\alpha\beta}(\mathbf{r})$  is determined by the probability  $|\phi(0)|^2$  to find the electron and hole of the exciton at the same spatial point and by the dipole-dipole interaction matrix elements  $V_{\alpha\beta}(\mathbf{r})$ . For the standard 2D Wannier-Mott excitons,<sup>31</sup>  $|\phi(0)|^2 = 8/(\pi a_B^2)$ ; and *ab initio* calculations<sup>8,11,21,25</sup> estimate the exciton Bohr radius in monolayer TMDs as  $a_B \sim 1$  nm. The dipole-dipole interaction is of course dependent on the relative dipole position  $\mathbf{r} = r\hat{\mathbf{r}}$  and their orientations but is also a function of the transition ("dipole oscillation") frequency when the retardation is taken into account. Indeed, for the free-standing monolayers in vacuum the standard longrange part of the interaction would acquire a form of

$$V_{\alpha\beta}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{e^{i\kappa r}}{r} \left\{ \kappa^2 \left[ (\hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \mathbf{d}_{cv}^{\alpha}) (\hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \mathbf{d}_{vc}^{\beta}) - \mathbf{d}_{cv}^{\alpha} \cdot \mathbf{d}_{vc}^{\beta} \right] + \left( \frac{1}{r^2} - \frac{i\kappa}{r} \right) \left[ \mathbf{d}_{cv}^{\alpha} \cdot \mathbf{d}_{vc}^{\beta} - 3(\hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \mathbf{d}_{cv}^{\alpha}) (\hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \mathbf{d}_{vc}^{\beta}) \right] \right\} (12)$$

as arising from the full electromagnetic dipole-dipole coupling (in Gaussian units).<sup>40</sup> The energy dependence of the interaction (12) is manifest via the light vacuum wave number  $\kappa = \omega/c$ , it disappears in the familiar electrostatic limit of  $\kappa \to 0$  (speed of light  $c \to \infty$ ). The interacting  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  species in Eq. (12) are represented by the corresponding interband dipole transition matrix elements (10) for creation,  $\mathbf{d}_{cv}^{\alpha}$ , and annihilation,  $\mathbf{d}_{vc}^{\beta}$ , of electron-hole pairs. Both vectors **r** and transition dipoles are in-plane vectors for the monolayer TMD. In the electrostatic limit, the self-energy corrections (11) would be reduced to (5) and become real-valued and functions of wave vector  $\mathbf{k}$  only. With the retarded electric fields, however,  $\Sigma_{\alpha\beta}$  are functions of both energy and wave-vector variables and generally complex-valued; they would therefore determine both the exciton dispersion and the decay width (decay into photons) in a selfconsistent calculation.

The in-plane interband dipole transition matrix elements  $\mathbf{d}_{cv}^{\alpha} = \left(d_x^{(\alpha)}, id_y^{(\alpha)}\right)$  have a common form for both valleys but with the opposite handedness of their circular polarization:

$$d_x^{(1)} = d_y^{(1)} = d_x^{(2)} = -d_y^{(2)} = \mathcal{D},$$
(13)

where we chose  $\mathcal{D}$  as a real positive quantity. From a twoband monolayer TMD model,<sup>4</sup> for instance, the dipole transition moment would be  $\mathcal{D} = eat/E_g$ , where *a* is the lattice structure constant ( $\simeq 3.19$  Å), *t* the nearest neighbor hopping integral ( $\simeq 1.10$  eV) and  $E_g$  the conduction-valence energy bandgap. A calculation based



FIG. 1. Functional behavior of the (a) real and (b) imaginary parts of the intrinsic exciton-polariton self-energy as per Eqs. (17) and (21) for a fixed value of the vacuum light wave number  $\kappa$ . Red color lines are used for the longitudinal (L) and blue for the transverse (T) polaritons. Shown with dashed lines are the results for a free-standing monolayer in vacuum, and solid lines are for the monolayer on a glass-like substrate, see text. (c) Schematically, not to scale: Dispersion of the longitudinal and transverse Coulomb excitons as renormalized by the electrostatic Coulomb interaction. At the interface between two media with different refraction indices, Coulomb excitons would be interacting with the transverse photons of the media, whose dispersion is shown by dashed lines.

on the three-band model<sup>24</sup> gives the same form, but with a slightly different value of t.

The difference between the transition dipole moments (13) in the two valleys translates into the difference of inter- and intra-valley couplings (12). A direct calculation of integrals in Eq. (11) then leads<sup>42</sup> to the following dependence of the self-energy matrix on wave vector

 $\mathbf{k} = k \left( \cos \theta, \sin \theta \right):$ 

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}(E, \mathbf{k}) = \begin{pmatrix} J_0 & \exp(2i\theta) J_1 \\ \exp(-2i\theta) J_1 & J_0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (14)$$

where the intra-valley component

$$J_0 = -i\eta \left(\sqrt{\kappa^2 - k^2} + \kappa^2 / \sqrt{\kappa^2 - k^2}\right)$$
(15)

and the inter-valley component

$$J_1 = i\eta k^2 / \sqrt{\kappa^2 - k^2} \tag{16}$$

feature the same magnitude scale  $\eta = 2\pi |\phi(0)|^2 \mathcal{D}^2$ . The functional form of these components illustrates the great qualitative distinction resulting from the retarded interactions: the obtained corrections  $J_0$  and  $J_1$  are purely imaginary above the light line,  $k < \kappa$ , but become purely real  $(\sqrt{\kappa^2 - k^2} \to i\sqrt{k^2 - \kappa^2})$  below the light line,  $k > \kappa$ . As is known,<sup>36,37</sup> this signifies the impossibility for the intrinsic 2D exciton-polariton with  $k > \kappa$  to decay into a photon due to the momentum conservation. Excitonpolaritons with  $k < \kappa$ , on the other hand, exhibit the radiative width due to such a decay – it is reflected in the imaginary part of  $\Sigma$  in Fig. 1(b). Moreover this width is greatly enhanced in comparison with localized emitters.<sup>37</sup> Following numerical estimates in Ref. 23, magnitude nwould be assessed as  $\sim 0.75 \text{ eV}\cdot\text{Å}$ , resulting in substantial contributions to the exciton dispersion. With this estimate, the energy unit used in panels (a) and (b) of Fig. 1 becomes  $2\eta\kappa \sim 1.5$  meV for  $\kappa \sim 0.01$  nm<sup>-1</sup>. It is worthwhile to stress that this value agrees well with the intrinsic radiative linewidth of excitons in WSe<sub>2</sub> extrapolated from experiments in Ref. 43.

Because of the inter-valley coupling  $J_1$ , the valley excitations are clearly not the eigenstates of the system. Instead, the eigenstates are their linear combinations  $\Psi_{\pm} = 2^{-1/2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \pm \exp(-2i\theta) \end{pmatrix}$  that diagonalize matrix  $\Sigma$ and yield the corresponding self-energy corrections as

$$\Sigma_{\pm} = J_0 \pm J_1 = -2i\eta \times \begin{cases} \sqrt{\kappa^2 - k^2}, & (L), \\ \kappa^2 / \sqrt{\kappa^2 - k^2}, & (T). \end{cases}$$
(17)

These eigenstates have, respectively, longitudinal, for  $\Psi_+$ , and transverse, for  $\Psi_-$ , polarizations with respect to polariton wave-vector  $\mathbf{k}$ :<sup>23</sup> for the propagation along the *x*-axis, e.g., Eq. (13) shows that  $\Psi_+$  combination corresponds to the transition moment  $\propto (\mathcal{D}, +i\mathcal{D}) + (\mathcal{D}, -i\mathcal{D})$  along *x* while  $\Psi_-$  to the moment  $\propto (\mathcal{D}, +i\mathcal{D}) - (\mathcal{D}, -i\mathcal{D})$  along *y*. The functional forms of self-energy corrections (17) for the free-standing monolayer are shown in panels (a) and (b) of Fig. 1 by dashed lines.

It is instructive to look at the electrostatic limit ( $\kappa \rightarrow 0$ ) of the derived corrections: the inter-valley component (16) then becomes  $J_1 = \eta k$ , precisely the result derived in Ref. 23. Importantly, the intra-valley component  $J_0$  (15) becomes equal to  $J_1$  in this limit. (This equality is also illustrated in direct calculations with the exchange

Coulomb interaction in Sec. IV below.) It is then clear that, in the electrostatic limit, only the *L*-excitons would acquire the additional term  $\Sigma_+ = 2\eta k$  in their dispersion due to long-range exchange interactions, while the dispersion of *T*-excitons would remain unchanged ( $\Sigma_- = 0$ ) as Eq. (1), see a sketch in Fig. 1(c). This of course agrees with the basic electrostatics of transverse polarization waves. One concludes that no Dirac-cone-like behavior takes place even in the electrostatic limit. In the valley-centric basis this conclusion thus follows from the simultaneous account of both inter- and intra-valley processes as opposed to the inter-valley coupling alone that was originally used in Ref. 23 (but see Ref. 29).

#### III. EXCITON-POLARITONS FROM MACROSCOPIC MAXWELL EQUATIONS.

The results obtained in Sec. II for polaritonic eigenstates are in agreement with the picture known for quantum wells<sup>33</sup> and basically reflect the fact that the opposite-handedness in-plane susceptibilities  $\chi_1$  and  $\chi_2$ of the individual valleys just add up in the overall *isotropic* electrodynamic response of the monolayer. The latter is then characterized by the scalar susceptibility  $\chi$ defining the monolayer 2D current density  $\mathbf{j} = -4\pi i \omega \chi \mathbf{E}$ induced by the in-plane electric field  $\mathbf{E}$ . It is this current density that enters the boundary conditions for the macroscopic Maxwell equations determining the effects of long-range fields on the system excitations.<sup>31,37</sup> For well-separated excitonic states (1), e.g., the 2D scalar susceptibility acquires a familiar single-oscillator form

$$\chi(\omega,k) = \chi_0 + A / \left(\omega_0^2(k) - \omega^2 - 2i\gamma\omega\right), \qquad (18)$$

where  $\chi_0$  is the background term due to higher-frequency transitions and  $\gamma$  the phenomenological dissipation parameter. A many-oscillator form could be used instead of (18) to include even more specifics for different TMD monolayers as determined, e.g., from experimental data.

The macroscopic framework is versatile and can be easily applied to various environments. Here we exemplify this by considering the model of an infinitesimally thin planar monolayer between two non-magnetic media with dielectric constants  $\varepsilon_1$  and  $\varepsilon_2$ . One can solve for the eigenfrequencies of the system directly. Alternatively, as is also useful for problem of energy transfer in Sec. V, one looks at the poles of the reflection coefficients for electromagnetic waves in our sandwich configuration. The 3D setup involves not only the in-plane components of the fields and wave vectors but also their z-components perpendicular to the planar interface. With the boundary conditions of the polarizable interface monolayer,<sup>44</sup> one easily derives the reflection coefficient amplitudes for pand s-polarized waves as  $(\omega, k)$ -dependent

$$r^{(p)} = \left(\frac{\varepsilon_2}{k_{z2}} - \frac{\varepsilon_1}{k_{z1}} - 4\pi i\chi\right) \left(\frac{\varepsilon_2}{k_{z2}} + \frac{\varepsilon_1}{k_{z1}} - 4\pi i\chi\right)^{-1}$$
(19)

and

$$r^{(s)} = \left(k_{z1} - k_{z2} + 4\pi i\kappa^2 \chi\right) \left(k_{z1} + k_{z2} - 4\pi i\kappa^2 \chi\right)^{-1}.$$
(20)

The normal components  $k_{zi} = (\varepsilon_i \kappa^2 - k^2)^{1/2}$  of the waves in the respective media appear, as usual,<sup>45</sup> related to the in-plane wave number k for given frequency  $\omega = c\kappa$ . The in-plane component of the electric field in a p-polarized wave is along the in-plane wave vector **k** whereas in an s-polarized wave they are perpendicular to each other. Hence, the poles of Eq. (19) determine the dispersion and decay of the L-polaritons while poles of Eq. (20) those of the T-polaritons. Writing the pole equations in the form of

$$-\frac{1}{\chi} = -4\pi i \times \begin{cases} \left(\varepsilon_1/k_{z1} + \varepsilon_2/k_{z2}\right)^{-1}, & (L), \\ \kappa^2/(k_{z1} + k_{z2}), & (T), \end{cases}$$
(21)

one recognizes that the functional dependence in the r. h. s. of Eq. (21) reduces to that in Eq. (17) for the freestanding monolayer. It is also clear that with the negligible dissipation and screening due to higher-frequency transitions,  $-1/\chi \simeq 2\omega_0(\omega - \omega_0(k))/A$  becomes just proportional to the self-energy corrections in the vicinity of the resonance,  $\omega \simeq \omega_0$ . The derivation with the effective dipole-dipole interactions thus fully agrees with the macroscopic electrodynamics result, and we obtain  $A = 2\omega_0\eta/\pi\hbar$  by comparing Eqs. (17) and (21). Note that the screening by the surrounding media can substantially affect the exciton radius and binding energy thereby reducing "the strength" A of the resonance (18); the corresponding evaluations of exciton binding are outside of our scope in this paper.

Panels (a) and (b) of Fig. 1 illustrate the differences in the behavior of self-energy corrections for two systems: the symmetric sandwich with  $\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_2 = 1$  (a free standing monolayer) and and the asymmetric sandwich with  $\varepsilon_1 = 1$  and  $\varepsilon_2 = 2.25$  (glass-like substrate), as follows from Eq. (21). It is transparent that in the symmetric case, the T-polariton branch exhibits splitting at the light cone,  $k \to \kappa$ , as consistent with the divergence of the radiative decay rate (17) at  $k \to \kappa - 0$ . Qualitatively differently for the asymmetric sandwich, there is no divergence in the decay rate and the dispersion of the T-polariton branch is continuous. Figure 1(b) also shows the extension of the region of the radiative decay: polaritons with  $\kappa < k < \sqrt{\varepsilon_2}\kappa$  can now decay into photons that propagate only in the substrate. Beyond that region, however, the intrinsic (without scattering effects) polaritons become non-radiative and, conversely, cannot be directly excited by plane-wave photons incident on the monolayer from the infinity – the situation similar to the excitation of surface waves like surface plasmons.<sup>36,37,45</sup>

#### IV. INTER- AND INTRAVALLEY EXCHANGE COULOMB INTERACTIONS.

While we already discussed the exchange Coulomb corrections to exciton dispersion in Secs. II and III as the electrostatic limit of the full electromagnetic interactions, it is instructive to compare the inter- and intravalley contributions to the monolayer excitons via the direct evaluation of the exchange Coulomb effects (5). The setup for the calculation was provided in Sec. II. Using Eqs. (4), (6), (7) and (10), the exchange matrix elements are straightforwardly calculated in the macroscopic (long-range part of the interaction) limit as

$$U_{\alpha\beta}^{\text{exch}}(\mathbf{k}) = U_C(\mathbf{k}) |\phi(0)|^2 (\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{d}_{cv}^{\alpha}) (\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{d}_{vc}^{\beta}) / e^2, \quad (22)$$

where the 2D Fourier-transform

$$U_C(\mathbf{k}) = \int d\mathbf{r} \, \mathrm{e}^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}} U_C(\mathbf{r}).$$

For the uniformly screened Coulomb interaction,  $U_C(\mathbf{k})/e^2 = 2\pi/\varepsilon k.$ 

With assignment (13) of the transition dipole matrix elements, one immediately finds that for the intravalley processes,  $\alpha = \beta$ ,

$$(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{d}_{cv}^{\alpha})(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{d}_{vc}^{\beta}) = k^2 \mathcal{D}^2.$$

For the intervalley matrix elements,  $\alpha \neq \beta$ , one derives

$$(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{d}^{\alpha}_{cv})(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{d}^{\beta}_{vc}) = k^2 \mathcal{D}^2 \exp(\pm 2i\theta),$$

depending on  $\alpha$ . Thus, the energy correction matrix (22) acquires the form of Eq. (14), where

$$J_0 = J_1 = \eta k/\varepsilon. \tag{23}$$

As already mentioned above, this is precisely the electrostatic limit of full electromagnetic couplings (15) and (16), where the dielectric constant  $\varepsilon = 1$  (the electrostatic limit of the case considered in Sec. III would lead to (23) for  $\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_2 = \varepsilon$ ).

The direct evaluation of the exchange corrections confirms that the intravalley processes are as important for the resulting dispersion of excitons as the intervalley processes are. The basic electrostatics tells us that there are no macroscopic charge densities associated with transverse polarization waves (polarization **P** perpendicular to wave vector **k**), hence there should be no electrostatic corrections to the *T*-exciton energies. In the valleycentric framework, this necessitates  $J_0 = J_1$  as indeed derived in calculations.

#### V. APPLICATION TO ENERGY TRANSFER.

While photons cannot couple to non-radiative modes, the direct excitation of such modes is possible by the near electromagnetic fields, a particularly well-known example being the excitation of surface plasmons. This may be accomplished, e.g., with special optical geometry setups<sup>36,37,45</sup> or via resonance energy transfer (ET) from proximal quantum emitters such as molecules or



FIG. 2. Acceleration of the decay rate  $\Gamma$  of a randomly oriented electric dipole emitter such as a quantum dot in the vicinity of the monolayer on a glass-like substrate as compared to the spontaneous decay rate  $\Gamma_0$  in vacuum. The data computed with Eq. (24) are shown as a function of the emitter frequency  $\omega$  and for different distances h to the interface: 5 nm (black lines), 10 nm (red) and 20 nm (blue). Solid lines display results for the nearly dissipationless excitons ( $\gamma = 0.1$ meV), dashed lines are for the dissipation parameter  $\gamma = 25$ meV. These illustrative calculations were done with the model parameters  $4\pi\chi_0 = 2$  nm,  $4\pi\hbar^2 A = 0.25$  eV<sup>2</sup>·nm in Eq. (18) and  $\hbar\omega_0 = 1.9$  eV,  $M_0 = m_e$  in Eq. (1).

quantum dots.<sup>45–47</sup> It should be noted that ET from 0D emitters to (quasi) 2D absorbers has been of increasing theoretical and experimental interest, including organic and inorganic semiconductors,<sup>48</sup> graphene<sup>49</sup> and  $MoS_2^{38,39}$  (see also references therein). As ET provides a new decay channel, it is thus manifested experimentally in the acceleration of the observed emitter's photoluminescence decay.

Using the macroscopic electrodynamics formalism developed for such applications,<sup>45,47</sup> the decay rate  $\Gamma$  of the randomly-oriented electric-dipole emitter in the medium with dielectric constant  $\varepsilon_1$  at distance *h* from the planar interface (see the sketch in Fig. 2) is derived<sup>45</sup> as

$$\Gamma/\Gamma_{1} = 1 + (1/2k_{1}^{3}) \operatorname{Re} \int_{0}^{\infty} (k \, dk/k_{z1}) \, e^{2ik_{z1}h} \\ \times \left( (2k^{2} - k_{1}^{2})r^{(p)} + k_{1}^{2}r^{(s)} \right), \qquad (24)$$

where  $\Gamma_1$  is the spontaneous decay rate in the uniform medium and  $k_1^2 = \varepsilon_1 \kappa^2$ . The integration in Eq. (24) over all values of the in-plane wave-vectors k signifies that the near-fields of the emitter are included. Figure 2 illustrates the results computed with Eq. (24), where the reflection coefficients (19) and (20) were used as appropriate for the geometry sketched in the figure. The analysis shows that a very large effect observed in Figure 2 is predominantly due to the excitation of *L*-polaritons (related to poles of  $r^{(p)}$ ), similar to a very efficient excitation of surface plasmons by ET;<sup>46,47</sup> the dispersion of the peak with distance *h* is also clearly seen.

With numerical estimates used in Sec. II one would obtain  $4\pi\hbar^2 A \sim 1.1 \text{ eV}^2$  nm for the resonance strength A

in Eq. (18). Keeping in mind a possible screening by the substrate, the illustration in Fig. 2 was computed with a more moderate value of the parameter A, its larger values would lead to even faster ET into the monolayer. It is worth pointing out that ET via the excitation of exciton-polaritons takes place already with the vanishing dissipation parameter  $\gamma \rightarrow 0$ . Figure 2 however also shows how the narrower polariton peaks are spread by the exciton damping. Excitation of TMD monolayer polaritons via high efficiency ET from neighboring emitters might be attractive for various optoelectronic applications.<sup>38,39,50</sup> The acceleration of decay of quantum dot excitons due to ET into monolayer and multilayer MoS<sub>2</sub> has been recently observed<sup>38,39</sup> experimentally.

#### VI. FINAL REMARKS.

The main discussion in this paper has been focussed on the effects of long-range electromagnetic interactions on the properties of *intrinsic* exciton-polaritons in TMDs. We have shown that these effects result in the generic behavior characteristic of excitons in 2D systems with the isotropic in-plane macroscopic polarizability. While TMDs are specific in the nature of their valley-centric basis for bare excitons with the opposite-handed circular polarization, the proper account of intra- and intervalley long-range interactions "restores" the overall isotropic macroscopic response. Thanks to the substantial exciton binding, TMDs appear attractively positioned to study the dynamics of excitons as enabled by both the electronhole motion and the long-range electromagnetic interactions.

While the choice of the "natural" exciton basis is not consequential for the effects that we discussed here, it may become important for the appropriate treatment of other types of interactions. In particular, it is understood that various scattering and dephasing processes such as due to polariton interactions with phonons and defects can significantly affect the observable optical properties of real TMDs. The important issue of exciton decoherence is recognized<sup>43</sup> and will likely continue to be actively explored. The availability of high-quality TMD samples should assist in the studies of the intrinsic properties at low temperatures.

As we discussed in Sec. II, the long-range spatial co-

herence of 2D exciton-polaritons within the light cone is expected to result in their shortened radiative lifetimes. The observations of picosecond-scale decay of photoluminescence<sup>39</sup> may be already indicative of a high degree of coherence but even subpicosecond intrinsic radiative lifetime was deduced from extrapolation of the experimental data.<sup>43</sup> That extrapolated intrinsic radiative linewidth  $\sim 1 \text{ meV}$  agrees well with our estimates for the radiative linewidth of polaritons in Sec. II. The low-temperature studies of the radiative decay may contribute to assessing the polariton dispersion: Just as with the quantum well polaritons, their thermalization can lead to a specific temperature dependence of the radiative lifetime. With the substantial contribution to polariton dispersion in TMDs from the long-range interactions we discussed, that temperature dependence would deviate from the dependence resulting from the purely parabolic exciton dispersion.<sup>51</sup> A more direct experimental analvsis of the subtleties of the exciton-polariton dispersion and decay exemplified in Fig. 1 should be achievable with experiments involving angle-resolved reflectivity and resonance photoluminescence, similar to experiments employed in Ref. 32 that uncovered the formation of cavity polaritons with  $MoS_2$ .

The dispersion of excitons well beyond the light cone is essentially driven by electrostatic interactions and expected to be less sensitive to the long-range spatial coherence. The experimental techniques developed to study various surface exciton polaritons,<sup>52</sup> such as, e.g., attenuated total reflection, should prove to be useful. The macroscopic electrodynamics framework that we discussed in this paper would provide the connection to such experiments. Finally, detailed studies of energy transfer from neighboring quantum emitters into TMDcontaining structures as a function of different emitter frequencies, distances, and substrates could also be used for quantification of exciton and polariton properties.

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