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Widespread negative longitudinal piezoelectric responses in ferroelectric crystals with layered structures

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Abstract

In this study, we investigate the underlying mechanisms of the universal negative piezoelectricity in low-dimensional layered materials by carrying out first-principles calculations. Two-dimensional layered ferroelectric CuInP_2S_6 is analyzed in detail as a typical example, but the theory can be applied to any other low-dimensional layered piezoelectrics. Consistent with the theory proposed in [Physical Review Letters **119**, 207601 (2017)], the anomalous negative piezoelectricity in CuInP_2S_6 also results from its negative clamped-ion term, which cannot be compensated by the positive internal strain part. Here, we focus on a more general rule by proposing that having a negative clamped-ion term should be universal among piezoelectric materials, which is attributed to the “lag of Wannier center” effect. The internal-strain term, which is the change in polarization due to structural relaxation in response to strain, is mostly determined by the spatial structure and chemical bonding of the material. In a low-dimensional layered piezoelectric material such as CuInP_2S_6 , the internal-strain term is approximately zero. This is because the internal structure of the molecular layers, which are bonded by the weak van der Waals interaction, responds little to the strain. As a result, the magnitude of the dipole, which depends strongly on the dimension and structure of the molecular layer, also has a small response with respect to strain. An equation bridging the internal strain responses in low-dimensional and three-dimensional piezoelectrics is also derived to analytically express this point. This work aims to deepen our understanding about this anomalous piezoelectric effect, especially in low-dimensional layered materials, and provide strategies for discovering materials with novel electromechanical properties.

30 I. INTRODUCTION

31 Piezoelectrics are a family of materials which enable interconversion between electrical
32 energy and mechanical energy, offering a wide range of applications, such as pressure sen-
33 sors, actuators and noise attenuators [1, 2]. The piezoelectric tensor is expressed as the
34 change of the polarization with respect to a strain. The piezoelectric coefficients are usually
35 positive, indicating that the polarization is more likely to increase under a tensile strain [3].
36 However, researchers in recent years have seen some exceptions, such as a variety of *ABC* fer-
37 roelectrics [4] and several III-V zincblende compounds [5]. The piezoelectric coefficient can
38 be decomposed into a clamped-ion term and an internal-strain term [4–9]. A recent theoret-
39 ical work by Liu and Cohen [4] clearly revealed the origin of negative piezoelectricity, which
40 results from the domination of the negative clamped-ion term over the internal strain term.
41 This theory inspires us to investigate a more general question ‘whether negative clamped-ion
42 terms are universal among all piezoelectrics’. And if so, what is the underlying physics of
43 this rule? Moreover, Liu and Cohen’s work also demonstrated that the signs of piezoelectric
44 responses are determined by the competition between the clamped-ion and internal strain
45 terms. Here, we are particularly interested in identifying a family of piezoelectrics tending
46 to have a smaller internal strain term, which cannot overcome the clamped-ion part.

47 In this work, we addressed all these questions by investigating the consistently nega-
48 tive piezoelectric responses in low-dimensional **layered** materials. We note that nearly all
49 the low-dimensional **layered/chain** piezoelectrics reported so far [9], such as polyvinylidene
50 fluoride (PVDF) and its copolymers [3], CuInP_2S_6 (CIPS) [10–12], and bismuth telluro-
51 halides [13], exhibit negative longitudinal piezoelectricity. Here, we select CIPS as an exam-
52 ple and perform density functional theory (DFT) calculations [See Supplementary Materials
53 (SM) section I computational details], but the rules acquired can be applied to any other
54 low-dimensional **layered** materials. Similar to the three-dimensional piezoelectrics with neg-
55 ative piezoelectric responses [4], CIPS also has a small internal-strain term, which can not
56 compensate the negative clamped-ion term. Moreover, Ref. [13] demonstrated that bismuth
57 tellurohalides, another kind of two dimensional piezoelectrics, also exhibit negative piezoelec-
58 tric responses majorly resulting from charge redistribution under stress, providing another
59 strong example of this physical scenario. In this work, we focus on the general aspects of the
60 two competing piezoelectric terms. We demonstrate that most piezoelectrics should have a

61 negative clamped-ion term. This is because as the volume expands with atomic fractional co-
 62 ordinates remaining fixed, chemical bond lengths elongate homogeneously, but the Wannier
 63 centers cannot follow this homogeneous strain. As a result, polarization decreases. We refer
 64 to this phenomenon as the “lag of Wannier center” effect [5]. Moreover, not only in CIPS,
 65 the internal-strain response is expected to be tiny among almost all the low-dimensional
 66 **layered** piezoelectrics. This effect is attributed to the fact that the inter-layer van der Waals
 67 (vdW) bonding is much weaker than the intra-layer chemical bonding. Under stress, the
 68 inter-layer gap will take most of the change, making the dimension of a molecular layer and
 69 the dipole associated with it change very little. To better illustrate this point, we derive
 70 an analytical expression demonstrating the difference and correlation between the internal
 71 strain responses in three-dimensional and low-dimensional piezoelectrics. Our result shows
 72 that the responses of internal coordinates with strain in a low-dimensional **layered** material is
 73 about one decade smaller than that in a conventional three-dimensional piezoelectric. These
 74 analyses successfully explain why negative piezoelectricity is expected to be widespread in
 75 low-dimensional **layered** materials.

76 II. STRUCTURES AND FERROELECTRICITY OF CIPS

77 CIPS is a two-dimensional (2D) ferroelectric material composed of polar molecular layers
 78 held together with weak vdW forces [14–16]. Sulfur octahedra form the framework of a
 79 molecular layer, and each sulfur octahedron is filled with a Cu atom, In atom, or a P-P
 80 dimer [Fig. 1 (a)]. Since Cu and P-P dimer exchange their sites in adjacent molecular layers,
 81 each primitive cell is composed of two molecular layers. In each Cu-filled sulfur octahedron,
 82 the Cu atom has two different possible occupation sites, above and below the center plane,
 83 corresponding to two polar states. At low temperature, CIPS adopts its ferroelectric phase,
 84 with all or most Cu atoms displaced in the same direction, as shown in Fig. 1 (b). Above
 85 its Curie temperature T_C (≈ 315 K) [16], CIPS becomes paraelectric due to the equal up or
 86 down site occupancy by Cu atoms. Here, we should note that even though the In atoms are
 87 also displaced off-center, their displacements are far smaller than those of Cu [$d(\text{In}) = 0.22$ Å
 88 *vs.* $d(\text{Cu}) = 1.28$ Å]. Therefore, the ferroelectricity in CIPS mostly originates from the Cu
 89 displacements. In this study, we focus on the intrinsic electromechanical properties of the
 90 ground-state ferroelectric CIPS. Therefore, temperature-induced cation disorder is beyond

91 the consideration of this work [10, 16].

92 III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

93 The optimized lattice constants obtained from our DFT calculations are $a = 6.09 \text{ \AA}$,
 94 $b = 10.56 \text{ \AA}$, and $c = 13.76 \text{ \AA}$, which match experimental ones ($a = 6.10 \text{ \AA}$, $b = 10.56 \text{ \AA}$,
 95 $c = 13.62 \text{ \AA}$) very well [16], with only 1.0% error. Polarization, calculated via the Berry's
 96 phase method, is $P = 3.04 \text{ \mu C/cm}^2$, which is also consistent with the experimental values
 97 ($2.55 \sim 3.80 \text{ \mu C/cm}^2$ [14, 16]). All of these results demonstrate the reliability of our first-
 98 principles calculations. In this study, we focus on the longitudinal component e_{33} only.
 99 Therefore, for simplicity, all the symbols of vectors or tensors (such as piezoelectric tensor e ,
 100 polarization P , strain S , and lattice axis c) refer to the z or zz components, unless specifically
 101 stated. To evaluate the piezoelectric coefficient $e = (\partial P / \partial S)_E$, where P is the polarization,
 102 S is the strain and E is the electric field, we artificially change the lattice parameter c , which
 103 is also the height of the primitive cell, with the in-plane lattice parameters fixed, relax the
 104 structure, and then calculate the polarization. As shown in Fig. 2 (a), the polarization
 105 decreases with increasing tensile strain, indicating a negative piezoelectric coefficient. The
 106 longitudinal piezoelectric coefficient e is -9.6 \mu C/cm^2 from our DFT calculations.

107 The piezoelectric coefficient can be decomposed into two parts as [5–8],

$$e = \frac{\partial P}{\partial S} = e^{(0)} + e_i, \quad (1)$$

108 where $e^{(0)}$ is the clamped-ion term, and

$$e_i = \sum_n \frac{qc}{\Omega} Z^*(n) \frac{\partial U(n)}{\partial S} \quad (2)$$

109 is the internal-strain part [See SM Section II for schematic illustrations of the two terms]. U
 110 is the fractional atomic coordinates in the supercell and n runs over all atoms in a unit cell.
 111 Here, Ω is the volume of a unit cell, q is the electronic charge, and Z^* is the Born effective
 112 charge. The clamped-ion response is evaluated at zero internal strain, which means that
 113 the internal fractional coordinates are frozen, and reflects the redistribution of electrons
 114 with respect to a homogeneous strain. It features the change of Born effective charges,
 115 since the polarization, which is expressed as dipole over volume, remains the same under a
 116 homogeneous strain and fixed Born effective charges. On the other hand, the internal strain

117 term describes the internal distortion under a macroscopic strain, assuming the Born effective
 118 charges fixed. The values of the clamped-ion and internal strain terms are summarized in
 119 Table I, from which we can see that the negative piezoelectricity in CIPS almost completely
 120 originates from the negative clamped-ion term. Actually, having a negative clamped-ion
 121 piezoelectric response is universal among piezoelectrics (See SM Section III for the previously
 122 reported clamped-ion terms in other piezoelectrics), which means that the Wannier centers
 123 generally fail to follow anions (in fractional coordinates) fully upon a tensile strain [5]. This
 124 “lag of Wannier center” results from the damping of Coulombic repulsion between electrons
 125 as the cation and anion separate, which will be discussed in more details in the following
 126 subsection. It is worth mentioning that, according to our DFT calculations, the in-plane
 127 lattice constants change very little with the c lattice, suggesting a nearly zero Poissons ratio
 128 of CIPS (less than 0.05). Therefore, a longitudinal strain causes little in-plane deformation
 129 or improper piezoelectric effect.

130 **A. lag of Wannier center**

131 To explain this lag of Wannier center effect, we begin by discussing the ionicity of a chem-
 132 ical bond. Ionicity describes the extent of electron gain in the anion and may have different
 133 mathematical expressions. In the Coulson model [17, 18], the bond connecting atoms A and
 134 B is expressed with the linear combination of atomic orbitals (LCAO) approximation as

$$\psi = c_A\phi_A + c_B\phi_B, \quad (3)$$

135 where ϕ_A and ϕ_B are atomic orbitals centered on atoms A and B . The ionicity I_C is expressed
 136 as

$$I_C = \frac{c_A^2 - c_B^2}{c_A^2 + c_B^2}. \quad (4)$$

137 In the model based on the centers of maximally localized Wannier functions [17, 19], The
 138 ionicity I_W is given as

$$I_W = (2\beta - 1)^{N/M}, \quad (5)$$

139 where N is the atomic valency, M is the coordination number, and $\beta = r_w/d_1$. r_w is the
 140 distance between the Wannier center and the position of cation and d_1 is the bond length
 141 (Fig. S2). Therefore, $\beta - 0.5$ describes the deviation of the Wannier center from the bond

142 center. Here, we should emphasize that even though the expressions are different in the two
 143 models, they gauge the same physical quantity and give comparable values [20].

144 Here, we consider a linear $\cdots A-B-A-B \cdots$ atomic chain, with alternative unequal bond
 145 lengths d_1 and d_2 ($d_2 > d_1$). The length of a unit cell is $d = d_1 + d_2$. In a two-atom-basis
 146 scheme [21], the Bloch state of the an electron with the wavenumber k can be expressed as

$$\psi_k(r) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_R e^{ik \cdot R} [c_{A,k} \phi_A(r - R_A - R) + c_{B,k} \phi_B(r - R_B - R)]. \quad (6)$$

147 However, this expression is based on an one-electron model and neglects the electron-electron
 148 interaction, which plays an important role in the ‘‘lag of Wannier center’’ effect. Here, we
 149 assume that each atomic pair $A-B$ contributes two electrons (denoted as i and j) to the
 150 valence band. Considering the electron-electron interaction [22], the Bloch state should be
 151 modified to

$$\Psi_k(r) = \psi_k(i, r) \psi_k(j, r). \quad (7)$$

152 Here, $\psi_k(i)$ is the wavefunction of the electron i whose expression is the same as equation
 153 (6). The Hamiltonian is expressed as [23]

$$\hat{H} = \hat{K}_e - \frac{1}{N} \sum_R \left[\frac{Z_A}{r_{iAR}} + \frac{Z_B}{r_{iBR}} + \frac{Z_A}{r_{jAR}} + \frac{Z_B}{r_{jBR}} \right] + \frac{1}{r_{ij}}, \quad (8)$$

154 where \hat{K}_e is the kinetic energy, A and B represent the atoms, Z_A and Z_B are the effective
 155 nuclear charges, and i and j correspond to the electrons. $\frac{Z_A}{r_{iAR}} \equiv \frac{Z_A}{r_i(r - R_A - R)}$ is the interaction
 156 between the electron i and the nuclear of atom A (whose position is R_A in a unit cell) in
 157 the unit cell locating at R . We neglect the nuclear-nuclear interaction, which should be a
 158 constant regardless of electron distribution. The energy can be approximated as

$$\begin{aligned} E_k = & 2(c_{A,k}^2 K_A + c_{B,k}^2 K_B) - 2c_{A,k}^2 (E_A + \Gamma_{Ba}) - 2c_{B,k}^2 (E_B + \Gamma_{Ab}) \\ & - 4c_{A,k} c_{B,k} (\Gamma_{AB} + \cos k \Gamma_{AB}^*) + c_{A,k}^4 \Gamma_{aa} + c_{B,k}^4 \Gamma_{bb} + 2c_{A,k}^2 c_{B,k}^2 (\Gamma_{ab} + \cos k \Gamma_{ab}^*) \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

159 Here, $K_{A(B)}$ is the kinetic energy of the electron on atomic orbital $\phi_{A(B)}$, $E_{A(B)}$ is an atomic
 160 term describing the core-electron interaction inside an atom, Γ_{Ba} and Γ_{Ab} describe the core-
 161 electron interaction between atoms, Γ_{AB} is the intra-cell resonance term, Γ_{AB}^* in the inter-cell
 162 resonance term, $\Gamma_{aa(bb)}$ is another atomic term describing the electronic Coulomb repulsion,
 163 Γ_{ab} describes the Coulomb repulsion between two electrons belong to the two atomic orbitals
 164 in a unit cell, and Γ_{ab}^* describes the Coulomb repulsion between two electrons belong to

165 the two atomic orbitals in neighboring unit cells [See SM Section IV for the derivation of
 166 the equation (8) and the expression of each term]. The Coulombic terms ($\Gamma_{ab} + \cos k\Gamma_{ab}^*$)
 167 favor a large difference between c_A and c_B , which means a large I_C and Wannier center
 168 far away from the bond center. As the bond elongates, the electronic-wavefunctions overlap
 169 $|\phi_A(i, r)|^2 |\phi_B(j, r - d_1)|^2$ and $|\phi_A(i, r)|^2 |\phi_B(j, r - d_1 + d)|^2$ in the Coulombic terms (See SM
 170 equations S15 and S16) reduce, and the magnitude of ($\Gamma_{ab} + \cos k\Gamma_{ab}^*$) and $|c_A - c_B|$ also
 171 decrease. This means that the Wannier center stays closer to the center of the bond, rather
 172 than following the anion completely [Fig. S2 (b)]. Even though the resonance term works
 173 against the Coulombic term [Fig. S2 (c)], decrease of the electronic-wavefunctions overlap
 174 has a more profound influence on the latter [Fig. S2 (d)], since it involves a near-site
 175 interaction $\frac{1}{r_{ij}}$ (See SM equations S15 and S16) in all space. This “lag of Wannier center”
 176 effect provides two deductions. First, the ionicity tends to decrease with increasing bond
 177 length, which is consistent with previous study [20]. Besides, the absolute values of the
 178 Born effective charges should also decrease with increasing bond lengths (or upon a tensile
 179 strain), which conforms to this CIPS case, as shown in Table I.

180 B. Internal-strain term

181 The internal-strain contribution to piezoelectricity in CIPS is positive, but not big enough
 182 to neutralize the negative clamped-ion term. The small internal-strain term is mainly at-
 183 tributed to the low dimensionality of CIPS. In low-dimensional [layered](#) materials, the inter-
 184 layer vdW interaction is much weaker than the intra-layer chemical bonding. As a result, the
 185 inter-layer gap will take most of the change in the dimension of the cell when it is stressed.
 186 In Fig. 2 (b), we plot the changes of molecular-layer thickness t and inter-layer gap g lengths
 187 under various strains from DFT calculations. As expected, g grows much faster than t under
 188 tensile strain. This also means that the ratio R of a molecular layer thickness t to the lattice
 189 c of the cell decreases with the strain, which is expressed as

$$R_S = \frac{\partial R}{\partial S} < 0. \quad (10)$$

190 This negative R_S leads to a small $U_S \equiv \partial U / \partial S$. To illustrate this point, we begin with
 191 treating each molecular layer as a free-standing crystal and investigate how the atomic
 192 fractional coordinate within the layer u changes with the strain of the molecular layer s . In

193 Table I, we list the values of $u_s \equiv \partial u / \partial s$ for all four atom types in CIPS. The values of
 194 u_s in two typical three-dimensional piezoelectrics (in which $U_S = u_s$) BaTiO₃ and PbTiO₃
 195 are also listed for comparison. We can see that the u_s in CIPS are in the same order of
 196 magnitude with the $U_S = u_s$ in BaTiO₃ and PbTiO₃, indicating that there is little difference
 197 between the piezoelectric property of a single molecular layer and those of conventional
 198 three-dimensional piezoelectrics. To understand the origin of the small cell-scale response
 199 U_S in CIPS, we derive the conversion formula between u_s and U_S [See SM Section VI for
 200 details of this derivation], which is expressed as

$$U_S = (R + R_S) u_s + R_S u. \quad (11)$$

201 The coefficient in the first term ($R + R_S$) is the scaling factor. Since R is less than 1 and
 202 R_S is negative, U_S is expected to be much smaller than u_s . In addition to the layer-scale
 203 fractional coordinate u changes, the change of the ratio between layer thickness and cell
 204 lattice also affects the magnitude of polarization. This effect is described by the second
 205 term, and its contribution is also negative. In Table I, we list the contributions from the
 206 two terms and find that U_S is approximately one order of magnitude less than u_s .

207 Another reason for the small internal strain term in CIPS, which plays a secondary role,
 208 is its small Born effective charges (Table I). In typical ABO₃ ferroelectric perovskites, whose
 209 Born effective charges are large, the ferroelectricity results from the p - d orbital hybridization
 210 induced Jahn-Teller distortion [24]. The charge density distribution in these hybridized
 211 covalent bonds is sensitive to the change of cation displacement, indicating a large Born
 212 effective charge. On the other hand, Cu and In atoms in CIPS make ionic bonds with the S
 213 octahedra. Similar to the materials with geometric ionic size effect induced ferroelectricity,
 214 the Born effective charges in CIPS are small and close to the nominal ionic charges [25–27].

215 IV. CONCLUSION

216 In summary, we investigate the negative piezoelectricity in low-dimensional **layered** ma-
 217 terials by performing first-principles calculations. CuInP₂S₆ is selected as a typical example,
 218 but the theory is general and can be applied to any other low-dimensional **layered** piezo-
 219 electrics. Consistent with the theory about the origin of negative piezoelectricity proposed
 220 by Liu and Cohen, the negative piezoelectricity in CuInP₂S₆ also originates from a negative

221 clamped-ion and an approximately zero internal strain term. Furthermore, we emphasize
222 that a negative clamped-ion piezoelectric response is universal among piezoelectrics, due
223 to the “lag of Wannier center” effect. In addition, the internal strain term is dramatically
224 suppressed in low-dimensional **layered** piezoelectrics, since the thickness of a molecular layer
225 and the dipole associated with it respond little to the strain state of the cell. Based on
226 these facts, we propose that negative piezoelectricity should exist widely in low-dimensional
227 **layered** materials. We hope that this work can provide more insight about the underlying
228 physical mechanism in negative piezoelectricity and inspire the design of practical devices
229 benefitting from materials with this novel electromechanical property.

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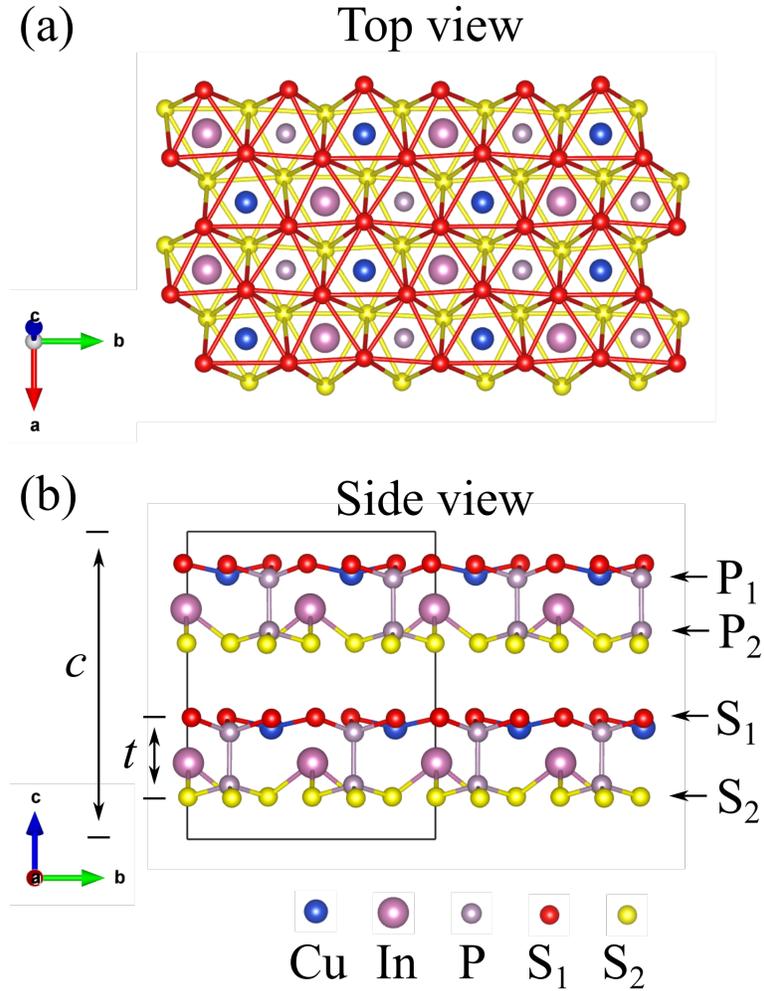


FIG. 1. Structure of CuInP_2S_6 (CIPS). The S atoms in the top and bottom layers are represented with different colors (red and yellow) and labels (S_1 and S_2). (a) Top view of ferroelectric CIPS. Each sulfur octahedron is filled with a Cu, In atom or a P-P dimer; (b) side view of ferroelectric CIPS, with lattice parameters $a = 6.10 \text{ \AA}$, $b = 10.56 \text{ \AA}$, and $c = 13.62 \text{ \AA}$. The upper and lower P atoms are labeled as P_1 and P_2 . t molecular-layer thickness and c is the height of the cell.

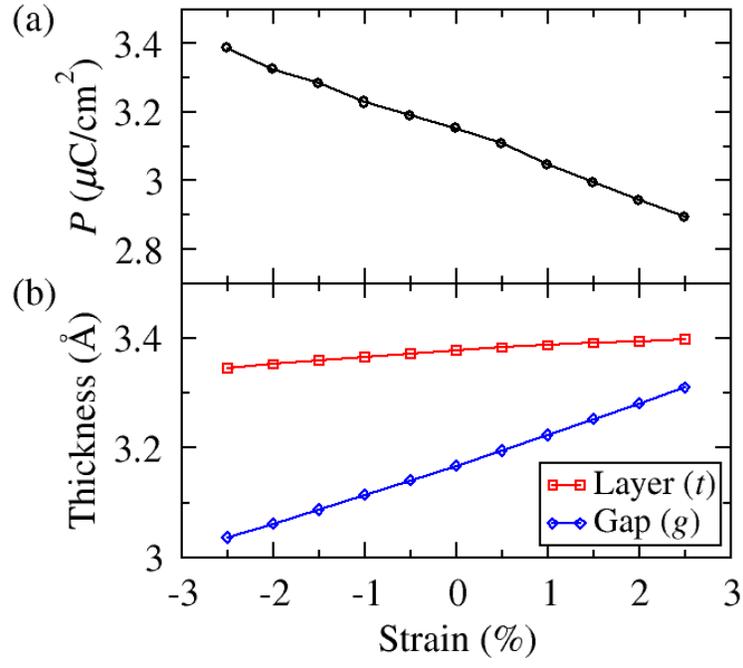


FIG. 2. Changes of (a) polarization, (b) inter-layer gap length and layer thickness with respect to strain.

CuInP ₂ S ₆						
$e = -9.7$	$e_i=0.4$	$e^{(0)} = -10.1$	$R = 0.2579$	$R_S = -0.1766$		
Atom	Cu	In	P ₁	P ₂	S ₁	S ₂
u	0.3777	-0.0671	-0.3463	0.3186	0.5000	-0.5000
u_s	0.5680	0.0697	0.1546	-0.1732	0.0000	0.0000
$u_s R$	0.1465	0.0180	0.0399	-0.0447	0.0000	0.0000
$u_s R_S$	-0.1003	-0.0123	-0.0273	0.0306	0.0000	0.0000
$u_s(R + R_S)$	0.0462	0.0057	0.0126	0.0141	0.0000	0.0000
$u R_S$	-0.0667	0.0119	0.0612	-0.0563	-0.0883	0.0883
U_S	-0.0205	0.0175	0.0737	-0.0704	-0.0883	0.0883
Z^*	0.6204	2.2432	0.9380	0.8416	-0.8350	-0.7156
$\partial Z^* /\partial S$	-2.6634	-2.9360	-0.5171	-2.5774	-1.5968	-1.1126

BaTiO ₃		PbTiO ₃	
$U_S(\text{Ba}) = u_s(\text{Ba})$	$U_S(\text{Ti}) = u_s(\text{Ti})$	$U_S(\text{Pb}) = u_s(\text{Pb})$	$U_S(\text{Ti}) = u_s(\text{Ti})$
0.184	0.198	0.279	0.151

TABLE I. Piezoelectricity and the contributions from different parts (the unit is $\mu\text{C}/\text{cm}^2$). The changes of cation displacements with strain in BaTiO₃ and PbTiO₃ are also listed for comparison.