We calculate the double resonant (DR) Raman spectrum of graphene, and determine the lines associated to both phonon-defect processes (such as in the D line at \( \sim 1350 \text{ cm}^{-1} \), \( D' \) at \( \sim 1600 \text{ cm}^{-1} \) and \( D'' \) at \( \sim 1100 \text{ cm}^{-1} \)), and two-phonons ones (such as in the \( 2D, 2D', \) or \( D+D' \) lines). Phonon and electronic dispersions reproduce calculations based on density functional theory corrected with GW. Electron-light, -phonon, and -defect scattering matrix elements and the electronic linewidth are explicitly calculated. Defect-induced processes are simulated considering different kind of idealized defects. For an excitation energy of \( \epsilon_L = 2.4 \text{ eV} \), the agreement with measurements is very good and calculations reproduce: the relative intensities among phonon-defect or among two-phonon lines; the measured small widths of the \( D, D', \) \( 2D \) and \( 2D' \) lines; the line shapes; the presence of small intensity lines in the 1800, 2000 cm\(^{-1}\) range. We determine how the spectra depend on the excitation energy, on the light polarization, on the electronic linewidth, on the kind of defects and on their concentration. According to the present findings, the intensity ratio between the \( D' \) and \( 2D' \) lines can be used to determine experimentally the electronic linewidth. The intensity ratio between the \( D \) and \( D' \) lines depends on the kind of model defect, suggesting that this ratio could possibly be used to identify the kind of defects present in actual samples. Charged impurities outside the graphene plane provide an almost undetectable contribution to the Raman signal. The present analysis reveals that, for both \( D \) and \( 2D \) lines, the dominant DR processes are those in which electrons and holes are both involved in the scattering, because of a destructive quantum interference that kills processes involving only electrons or only holes. The most important phonons belong to the \( K \rightarrow \Gamma \) direction (inner phonons) and not to the \( K \rightarrow M \) one (outer phonons), as usually assumed. The small \( 2D \) line width at \( \epsilon_L = 2.4 \text{ eV} \) is a consequence of the interplay between the opposite trigonal warping of the electron and phonon dispersions. At higher excitation, e.g. \( \epsilon_L = 3.8 \text{ eV} \), the \( 2D \) line becomes broader and evolves in an asymmetric double peak structure.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Raman spectroscopy is one of the most important experimental techniques for the characterization of graphitic materials. In particular, for graphene, this technique provides information about the number of layers \( 1, 2 \), doping \( 3, 5 \), disorder \( 6, 8 \) and phonon properties \( 9 \).

Lowest-order Raman processes correspond to the scattering with a zero momentum phonon (\( q=0 \)). The Raman \( G \) line in graphene and graphite (\( \sim 1582 \text{ cm}^{-1} \)) is associated with the \( E_{2g} \) phonon at \( \Gamma \) and it is a lowest-order process. Graphene and graphite present other lines, due to higher order processes, which are usually interpreted in terms of the so called double resonance (DR) mechanism \( 10 \). The DR mechanism is used to interpret two distinct kind of phenomena. The first is the excitation of a phonon with momentum \( q\neq0 \) due to the presence of defects in the sample. This process, called defect-induced, is not allowed in a purely crystalline sample (without defects) because of momentum conservation. In graphene and graphite, it gives rise to the well studied \( D \) line at \( \sim 1350 \text{ cm}^{-1} \) and also to less intense lines such as the \( D' (\sim 1600 \text{ cm}^{-1}) \), and the \( D'' (\sim 1100 \text{ cm}^{-1}) \). The second process corresponds to the excitation of two phonons with opposite momenta \( q \) and \(-q\). This process, called two-phonon, can be observed in purely crystalline samples since the momentum is conserved and gives rise to the very intense \( 2D \) line at \( \sim 2700 \text{ cm}^{-1} \) (which is an overtone of the \( D \) line) and, for instance, to the \( D+D'' \) and \( 2D' \) lines at \( \sim 2450 \text{ cm}^{-1} \) and \( \sim 3200 \text{ cm}^{-1} \). The lines related to DR defect-induced and two-phonon processes have a remarkable property: they are dispersive, i.e. their positions change with excitation energy.

It has been shown experimentally \( 1, 2 \) that the \( 2D \) line in graphene changes in shape, width and position with number of layers. Later, the phonon dispersion of graphene, near the Dirac \( K \) points, was probed by measurements \( 4 \) of the \( 2D \) and \( D+D'' \) lines as a function of the excitation energies. Usually, Raman experiments are performed in graphene layers that were deposited or grown over a substrate. However, experimental measurements of the \( G \) and \( 2D \) lines have also been performed for free-standing graphene monolayers \( 12 \). Lucchesi et. al \( 7 \) and Martins Ferreira et. al \( 11 \) have studied the evolution of the Raman spectra for mono and multi-layer graphene with increasing disorder, showing that the intensity of the \( D \) line, which is absent in pristine graphene, increases when disorder is induced in the sample up to a maximum value where it begins to decrease. On the other hand, the \( 2D \) line intensity is maximum for pristine graphene and it decreases with increasing disorder.

Frequencies, intensities and linewidths of all DR Raman bands may be determined by the calculation of the
Raman cross section \( \sigma \). Several excellent theoretical works already appeared on the topic providing an overall good understanding of the situation. However, the many different approximations used by different authors (e.g., constant electron-phonon matrix elements, resonant phonons are assumed to be on some high symmetry line, in some cases the electronic dispersion is conic, the electronic life-time is a parameter, etc.) and the several debates still going on lead the sensation that something is missing. Thomsen and Reich\[10\] and Kurti et al\[14\] studied the \( D \) line for graphite and carbon nanotubes, respectively. Also, Narula and Reich\[15\] studied the \( D \) and \( 2D \) Raman lines in graphene and graphite. In these works\[10,14,15\] the scattering matrix elements (electron-light, electron-phonon and electron-defect) are assumed to be constants and the electronic linewidth is a parameter set to a fixed value. Basko\[16\] has studied the two-phonon and four-phonon Raman bands in graphene under the assumption of conical bands, which is valid only in the limit of small excitation energies, not suitable for most experimental data available in the literature. Also, his work is limited to disorder-free graphene. Park et al\[17\] have studied the two-phonon processes in single, double and triple layer graphene, making the assumption of conical bands and limiting their work to disorder-free graphene.

In this context, some questions are currently debated. For instance, according to previous theoretical works\[10,14,15\], phonons in the \( K \to M \) direction of the Brillouin zone should give the most important contribution to the \( D \) line intensity. However, recent works\[18–22\] have argued that the phonons in the \( K \to \Gamma \) direction should be more important. Other open questions refer to the processes more relevant for the DR Raman spectra. In some Raman processes only the electrons are scattered, while in other processes both electrons and holes are scattered simultaneously. Some authors claim that, at least for the \( 2D \) line, this last kind of processes should be dominant because they are associated to a triple resonance\[22\]. On the other hand, several authors perform their studies considering only electron-electron processes, as in the seminal work by Thomsen and Reich\[10\].

Besides, several fundamental questions are almost untouched. So far, the DR mechanism has been basically used to give an overall description of the physics and to determine which are the excited phonons. Can the DR theory be used to obtain a quantitative description of the intensities of the Raman lines? Can the DR theory be used to obtain a quantitative description of the shape and of the width of the Raman lines? The most studied Raman lines, the \( 2D \) and the \( D \) ones, present a relatively narrow linewidth similar to the one of the \( G \) line (which is not due to DR). This fact is very surprising and, indeed, the theoretical approaches used so far were not able to reproduce the observed small width of these lines. Which are the missing ingredients? Is this a consequence of the approximations used so far, or, on the contrary, is this a limit of the perturbative approach inherent to the DR theory? Finally, the \( D \) line is activated by disorder and is routinely used to probe the quality of the samples of graphitic materials. However, which kind of defects activate the \( D \) line is not known. For instance, do neutral impurities, vacancies and charged defects affect the \( D \) line in the same way? Which kind of defects are probed by measuring different defect-activates lines? Does Raman spectroscopy probe the defects which mostly influence electronic transport?

Here, as a first step to answer these questions, we calculate the double resonant Raman spectrum of graphene, considering both defect-induced and two-phonons processes, trying to provide a computational method overcoming the most common approximations used in literature. Calculations are done using the standard approach based on the golden rule generalized to the perturbative fourth-order\[10\]. The electronic summation is performed all over the two dimensional Brillouin zone and all the possible phonons (with any wavevector) are considered. The phonon dispersion is obtained from fully ab-initio calculations based on density functional theory (DFT) corrected with GW. Electronic structure calculations are based on a tight binding approach in which the parameters are fitted to reproduce DFT+GW calculations. The electronic lifetime is calculated explicitly and the defect-induced processes are simulated by considering three different kind of ideal model defects.

Sec. II describes the computational method; Sec. III describes and discusses the results; Sec. IV resumes the main conclusions of the paper.

II. METHOD

This section describes the method used to compute the DR Raman spectra. Sec. II A gives the general framework and provides the equations to obtain double resonant Raman spectra in graphene within the perturbative approach. The other subsections describe the details to obtain the quantities used in the actual implementation. In particular, Sec. II B describes the electronic and phononic band dispersions; Sects. II C, II D, II E describe the electron-phonon, electron-light and electron-defect scattering matrix elements; Sec. II F describes the calculation of the electronic linewidth.

A. Double resonant Raman intensity

In vibrational Raman, the spectrum usually consists in well defined lines associated with emission (Stokes) or absorption (anti-Stokes) of a phonon. Here, only Stokes processes are considered. Note also that the \( G \) line (lowest-order excitation of the \( E_{2g} \) \( \Gamma \) phonon) is not described by the present formalism and is, thus, not present in the calculated spectra. Within the DR scheme\[10\], the light-electron and electron-phonon interactions, as well as the defect-induced electron-electron scattering are
treated at the first order in perturbation theory. The Raman cross section $I$ of the light scattered by a crystal is obtained from the golden rule generalized to the fourth-order \cite{13}:

$$I \propto \sum_f \left| \sum_{A,B,C} \mathcal{M}_{fC} \mathcal{M}_{CB} \mathcal{M}_{BA} \mathcal{M}_{Ai} \right|^2 \delta(\epsilon_i - \epsilon_f),$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)$$

where $\epsilon_i$ is the energy of the initial state which consists in a quantum of light with energy $\epsilon_L = \hbar \omega_L$ (the laser energy) and in which the crystal is in the ground state. The sum is performed on intermediate virtual states $A, B, C$, with energy $\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_C$, which are described by electronic and phononic excitation of the crystal. $\epsilon_f$ is the energy of the final state $f$, in which the electronic degrees of freedom of the crystal are in the ground state, one or two phonons with total energy $\hbar \omega_p$ have been excited, and a quantum of light with energy $\epsilon_L - \hbar \omega_p$ has been emitted. $\delta$ is the Dirac distribution. $\gamma^A, \gamma^B, \gamma^C$ are the inverse of the lifetimes of the electronic excitations of the virtual states $A, B, C$, respectively. $\mathcal{M}_{fK}$ are first-order scattering matrix elements between the states $J$ and $K$.

So far, no attempts have been reported to go beyond the approximation inherent to Eq. (1) for graphitic materials. In literature this is called double-resonance condition, and can be associated to Raman lines which have an intensity comparable to that of lower-order processes (the $G$ line).

In the DR Raman scattering, the process $\mathcal{M}_{Ai}$ in Eq. (1) corresponds to the absorption of light by creation of an electron-hole pair in the $\pi/\pi^*$ bands. Then, the carriers are scattered twice before recombination ($\mathcal{M}_{BA}$ and $\mathcal{M}_{CB}$ in Eq. (1)). For temperatures typically present in Raman measurements in graphene, only Stoke processes (phonon emission) are relevant. Thus, in one possible case, one scattering event is due to collision with a defect and the other to the creation of a phonon (phonon-defect process). In a second possible case, both scattering events are due to creation of phonons (two-phonon process). Finally, the process $\mathcal{M}_{fC}$ in Eq. (1) corresponds to the recombination of the carriers by light emission. We define $I_{q\nu}^p$ as the probability to excite a phonon $-q, \nu$, with momentum $-q$, branch index $\nu$ and energy $\hbar \omega_{q,\nu}$ through a phonon-defect process. $I_{q\nu}^{pp}$ is the probability to excite the two phonons $-q, \nu$ and $q, \mu$ through a two-phonon process. The Raman intensity as a function of the frequency $\omega$ of the scattered light is proportional to

$$I(\omega) = \frac{1}{N_q} \sum_{q,\nu} I_{q\nu}^p \delta(\omega_L - \omega - \omega_{q,\nu}^\nu)[n(\omega_{q,\nu}^\nu) + 1] + \frac{1}{N_q} \sum_{q,\nu,\mu} I_{q\nu\mu}^{pp} \delta(\omega_L - \omega - \omega_{q,\nu}^\nu - \omega_{q,\mu}^\mu)[n(\omega_{q,\nu}^\nu) + 1][n(\omega_{q,\mu}^\mu) + 1].$$ \hspace{1cm} (2)$$

$$I_{q\nu}^p = N_d \left| \sum_{k,\alpha} K_{q\nu}^{p\alpha} (k, q, \nu) \right|^2 ; \quad I_{q\nu\mu}^{pp} = N_d \left| \sum_{k,\beta} K_{q\nu\mu}^{pp\beta} (k, q, \nu, \mu) \right|^2 .$$ \hspace{1cm} (3)$$

The sum in Eq. (2) is performed on a uniform grid of $N_q$ phonon wavevectors $q$ in the Brillouin zone and on all the branch indexes $\nu$ and $\mu$. In the limit $N_q \to \infty$, $\delta(\omega)$ is the Dirac distribution. $n(\omega)$ is the Bose-Einstein occupation. In Eq. (3) $N_d$ is the average number of defects in the unit cell. $I_{q\nu}^p \propto N_d$, because we assume that the contributions of defects on different sites add up incoherently. The first sum in Eq. (3) is performed on a uniform grid of $N_k$ electronic wavevectors $k$. $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are labels running on the eight different possible processes that we call $ee1, ee2, hh1, hh2, eh1, eh2, he1, he2$, which are represented diagrammatically in Fig. (4). The reader might be familiar with an alternative representation of the processes, reported in Fig. (2). Expressions for the DR scattering amplitudes $K$ are given in the appendix. Here we report, as examples, $K_{ee1}^{p\alpha}$ and $K_{ee1}^{pp\beta}$:
Fig. 1: Goldstone diagrams for the double resonant Raman processes considered in this work. In this manuscript, the term "ab processes" refers to the processes highlighted by the gray area (eh1, eh2, he1, and he2). The other processes are referred to as "aa processes". The largest part of the Raman intensity is due to the ab processes. The reader might be familiar with an alternative representation of the processes, reported in Fig. 2.

Eq. 4 corresponds to the phonon-defect diagram ee1 in Fig. 1. Initially, the excitation laser creates an electron-hole pair with momentum k. Thus, using the notation of Eq. 1, $M_{A1} = \langle \pi^* | D_{1n} \pi k \rangle$, where $| \pi k \rangle$ and $| \pi^* k \rangle$ are the electronic occupied and empty states and $D_{1n}$ is the operator coupling the incident electromagnetic wave with the crystal. $\epsilon_i = \epsilon_L$ and $\epsilon_A = \epsilon_k^\pi - \epsilon_k^\pi$, being $\epsilon_k^\pi$ the energy of $| \pi k \rangle$. Secondely, the excited electron is scattered into a $k + q$ state by emitting a phonon with momentum -q. Thus, $M_{BA} = \langle k + q, \pi^* | \Delta H_{q,\nu} | \pi k \rangle$, being $\Delta H_{q,\nu}$ the electron-phonon coupling operator. Now, $\epsilon_B = \epsilon_{k+q}^\pi - \epsilon_k^\pi + h\omega_q^\nu$. The third step in the process $K_{ee1}^{pd}$ is the scattering of the $k + q$ electron by a defect back to the k state. Thus, $M_{CB} = \langle \pi^* | H_D | k + q, \pi^* \rangle$, being $H_D$ the defect scattering operator and $\epsilon_C = \epsilon_k^\pi - \epsilon_k^\pi + h\omega_q^\nu$. Finally, the electron and hole recombine vertically in the k-state, by emitting light. Thus, $M_{FC} = \langle k | D_{out} | \pi k^* \rangle$, being $D_{out}$ the operator coupling the emitted photon with the crystal. The broadening energies $\gamma_k$ in the denominators of the DR amplitudes $K$ (e.g. in Eqs. 4 5) are the inverse of the corresponding electronic lifetimes (see Sec. 1E).

Eq. 5 corresponds to the phonon-phonon diagram ee1 in Fig. 1. The first two step are the same as in the previous paragraph, while in the third step, the $k + q$ electron is scattered into a k electron, by emitting the phonon with momentum q. Thus, $M_{CB} = \langle k^* | \Delta H_{-q,\nu} | k + q \pi^* \rangle$ and $\epsilon_C = \epsilon_k^\pi - \epsilon_k^\pi + h\omega_q^\nu$. The fourth step is the same as before. Finally, for graphene and graphite, the diagrams of Fig. 1 are sometimes schematized with a different notation. For a comparison see Fig. 2.

The sums in Eq. 2 are performed on a uniform grid of $120 \times 120$ q points (randomly shifted with respect to the origin) and $\delta(\omega)$ is a Lorentzian distribution with $8 \ cm^{-1}$ full width at half maximum. The results will be plotted as a function of the Raman shift $\omega_L - \omega$. The sums in Eq. 6 are performed on grids of k points which are sufficiently large to ensure convergence. Depending on the value of $\gamma_k^L$, uniform grids between 480 and 840 × 840 k points are used. In Eq. 2 we consider $h\omega_q^\nu \gg$
The electronic structure, $\epsilon^e_i$ and $|\mathbf{k}, \alpha\rangle$, is obtained from a tight binding (TB) model with one orthonormalized $p_z$ orbital per site and interactions up to fifth neighbors (details are in App. B). We use $t_1 = -3.40$ eV, $t_2 = 0.33$ eV, $t_3 = -0.24$ eV, $t_4 = 0.12$ eV and $t_5 = 0.09$ eV, where $t_i$ is the i-th neighbor hopping parameter. The resulting electronic dispersion is shown in Fig. 2. These TB parameters were obtained following [24]: first, the $t_i$ are fitted to density-functional theory (DFT) electronic band dispersion to reproduce the $\pi-\pi^*$ bands along the $\Gamma$-K-M line; then, all the $t_i$ are rescaled by $+18\%$ in order to reproduce the $\pi$ band slope near K from GW calculations, which are in excellent agreement with angle-resolved photoemission spectra (ARPES) measurements on graphite [25].

We remark that, in the present context, a good description of the trigonal warping of the $\pi$-bands cone is very relevant, since the actual shape of the trigonal warping determines the $\mathbf{q}$ vectors of the phonons associated to the $D$ line. The present 5-neighbors TB can reproduce very well the trigonal warping as obtained from DFT. On the contrary, by using a 1st-neighbors TB model, the trigonal warping is underestimated. Another relevant characteristic which is badly described by small-neighbors TBs, but which is well described by the present 5-neighbors TB, is the electron/hole asymmetry, $\epsilon^e_{k+} + \epsilon^e_{k-}$. This quantity depends on the $\mathbf{k}$ direction and has values of the order of the electronic broadening (see Sec. III C): e.g. for the states in resonance with a laser of 2.4 eV, the asymmetry is about 40 and 100 meV along the K-$\Gamma$ and the K-M direction, respectively (Fig. 3). On the contrary, in a 1st-neighbors TB model, the e/h asymmetry is $k$ independent and it is equal to zero.

Phonon dispersions, $\omega^e_{\mathbf{q}}$, are obtained from ab-initio DFT calculations [26] corrected with GW as in [27, 28]. In particular, first we computed the DFT phonon dispersion, then we “correct” the dispersion of the highest optical branch near K (the branch which is TO near $\Gamma$ and which is associated with the $A_1^*$ mode at K, see Fig. 4) by rescaling the phonon self-energy contribution to the dynamical matrix consistently with the GW calculated electron-phonon coupling and electronic $\pi$ band dispersion [27]. Calculations are done for graphene with the same computational details of [28]. In [28], the rescaling factor is a constant, $r^{GW} = 1.61$, all over the BZ and the phonons are studied just in the neighborhood of K. Here, in order to obtain a phonon dispersion all over the BZ, the rescaling factor, $r^{GW}_q$, depends on $\mathbf{q}$. $r^{GW}_q = r^{GW}$ near K and smoothly drops to one elsewhere:

$$r^{GW}_q = 1 + (r^{GW} - 1)\frac{1}{2}erfc\left(\frac{(|\mathbf{q} - \mathbf{K}^n|a_0 - 0.2)}{0.05}\right),$$

being $a_0$ the graphene lattice constant and $\mathbf{K}^n$ the nearest vector to $\mathbf{q}$ among those equivalent to K. The GW correction associated to $r^{GW}$ changes the phonon slope of the highest optical branch near K by almost $+60\%$ (with respect to DFT) providing a much better agreement with measurements for graphite (Fig. 4). The precise value of $K_B T$ and, thus, $n(\omega^e_{\mathbf{q}}) \sim 0$. Unless otherwise specified, the intensities are normalized to the maximum value of the 2D peak. In the following four sub-sections (and in App. B), we describe the model to obtain the DR scattering amplitudes $K$. 

B. Electron and phonon dispersion

![FIG. 2: An alternative representation (customary for graphene and graphite) of the processes associated to the diagrams of Fig. 1. The crosses represent the electronic dispersion near the conic region. The vertical arrows represent the electron/hole creation and recombination. The horizontal arrows represent the scattering with a defect or with a phonon. For simplicity we show only the processes involving a phonon with momentum along the K-M line. The gray row refers to the processes highlighted by the gray area (eh1, eh2, he1, and he2). The other processes are referred to as “aa processes”.](image)

![FIG. 3: Graphene electronic dispersion obtained with the 5-neighbors tight-binding described in the text (solid line). For a comparison we also show the dispersion obtained with the 1st-neighbors TB having the same Fermi velocity at K (dashed line). The electron/hole (e/h) asymmetry is defined as $\epsilon^e_{k+} + \epsilon^e_{k-}$ and is constant for the 1st neighbors TB.](image)
the phonon dispersion near \( \mathbf{K} \) is essential in the present context, since it determines the dependence of the \( D \) peak dispersion as a function of the exciting laser energy \[^{29}\].

Finally, notice that the present DFT calculations reproduce very well the experimental phonon dispersion from inelastic x-ray scattering (IXS) of \[^{30}\] of the highest optical branch near \( \Gamma \). We can thus assume that the DFT frequency for the \( E_{2g} \) mode (1561 cm\(^{-1}\)) is a precise fit of the IXS measurements. The 1561 cm\(^{-1}\) value is however 1.3\% smaller than the measured frequency of the \( G \) Raman line of graphite which is 1582 cm\(^{-1}\) (the corresponding infra red mode is 1586 cm\(^{-1}\)). This discrepancy between Raman and IXS measurements in graphite is so far unexplained.

![Graphene phonon dispersion](image)

**FIG. 4**: (Color online) Calculated graphene phonon dispersion from DFT (lines) vs. IXS measurements on graphite from \[^{30}\] (filled dots), \[^{31}\] (triangles), and \[^{28}\] (open dots). The highest optical branch near \( \mathbf{K} \) is “corrected” to include GW effects following \[^{27, 28}\]. As a consequence, a single value for \( \eta \) could be used to describe reasonably well the DFT-electronphonon interaction for phonons in all the Brillouin zone. On the contrary, we need two distinct values for \( \eta \), \( \eta_{\Gamma} = 5.25 \text{ eV/Å} \) and \( \eta_{\mathbf{K}} = 6.55 \text{ eV Å} \), to reproduce the GW value of \( \langle D^2 \rangle_{\Gamma} \) and \( \langle D^2 \rangle_{\mathbf{K}} \), respectively, from Table I of \[^{27}\]. Here we will use \( \eta = \eta_{\Gamma} \) for phonons near \( \Gamma \) (those associated to the \( D' \) and \( 2D' \) lines), and \( \eta = \eta_{\mathbf{K}} \) for phonons near \( \mathbf{K} \) (\( D, 2D, \) and \( D + D' \)). A change of \( \eta_{\Gamma} \) and \( \eta_{\mathbf{K}} \) values will affect the present calculations as an uniform intensity scaling of some peaks with respect to others.

**C. Electron-phonon scattering**

The electron-phonon scattering matrix elements \( \Delta H_{q_{\nu}} \) are obtained from TB (explicit expressions are given in App. B3) and depend on the parameter \( \eta_1 \), defined as the derivative of the nearest-neighbors hopping parameter with respect to the bond length. The present approach neglects the derivative of the hopping parameters (with respect to the atomic positions) for hopping computed for second and more distant neighbors. This approximation reproduces very well the \( \mathbf{k} \) and \( \mathbf{q} \) dependence of the electron-phonon matrix elements for electronic states with \( \mathbf{k} \) near \( \mathbf{K} \) and for optical phonons with \( \mathbf{q} \) near \( \mathbf{\Gamma} \) or near \( \mathbf{K} \). This was already verified in \[^{32}\] by direct comparison with DFT calculations.

We define the average square of \( \sqrt{2M\omega_{q_{\nu}}/\hbar} \Delta H_{q_{\nu}} \) between \( \pi \) and \( \pi^* \) at \( \mathbf{K} \) as \( \langle D^2 \rangle_{\mathbf{K}} \) for the \( E_{2g} \) phonon at \( \Gamma \). \( \langle D^2 \rangle_{\mathbf{K}} \) is the analogous quantity for the \( A'_1 \) phonon at \( \mathbf{K} \). From Eqs. B3 B5 from App. B1 after some algebra, \( \langle D^2 \rangle_{\mathbf{K}} = 9/4(\eta_1)^2 \) and \( \langle D^2 \rangle_{\mathbf{K}} = 9/2(\eta_1)^2 \) (\( \eta_1 \) is defined in the previous paragraph and the notation is consistent with \[^{27}\]). It follows that, within TB, \( \langle D^2 \rangle_{\mathbf{K}}/\langle D^2 \rangle_{\mathbf{K}} = 2 \) (that is, this ratio does not depend on the actual value of the TB parameter \( \eta_1 \)). This last relation is well reproduced by DFT calculations, within LDA or GGA, but not by GW ones (see Table I of \[^{27}\]). As a consequence, a single value for \( \eta_1 \) could be used to describe reasonably well the DFT-electronphonon interaction for phonons in all the Brillouin zone.

**D. Electron-light scattering**

Explicit expressions for the \( D_{in} \) and \( D_{out} \) matrix elements are given in App. B3. We assume that the polarization of the incoming and scattered light are on the graphene \((x, y)\) plane. The computed Raman intensity \( I_{in} \) depends on two indexes determined by the polarization of the incident \((i = x, y)\) and of the scattered light \((o = x, y)\). The polarizations are chosen so as to reproduce different kind of Raman experiments. In the parallel polarization case, the incident and scattered light are parallel polarized and \( I_{||} = I_{xx} + I_{yy} \). In the transverse polarization case, the incident and scattered light are perpendicularly polarized and \( I_{\perp} = I_{xy} + I_{yx} \). If the light is not polarized \( I_{unpol} = I_{xx} + I_{yy} + I_{xy} + I_{yx} \). Unless specified differently calculations are done in the non-polarized case. In Sec. III B3, the effects of parallel and transverse light polarizations are discussed.

**E. Electron-defect scattering**

Defect scattering is treated within the Born approximation. Namely, the defect scattering operator \( H_D \) is the difference between the TB Hamiltonian in presence of the defect and that of the defect free system. \( H_D \) is determined by considering three distinct kind of defects.
i) The on-site defects: defects that change the value of the on-site TB parameter by $\delta V_0$.

ii) The hopping defects: change the value of one of the first-neighbor hopping TB parameters by $\delta t_1$.

iii) The Coulomb defects: charged impurities adsorbed at a distance $h$ from the graphene sheet that interact with graphene with a Coulomb potential. Following [33], we consider an environment dielectric constant $\kappa = 2.5$.

We remark that these are very simplified prototypical models and that a realistic description of a given type of impurity, which is beyond the present scope, will result in a combination of these three kind of perturbations. However, it is reasonable to expect that the present three models describe the most simple description of a hydrogen atom bound to a carbon atom in the graphene sheet. Hopping defects are any defects that lead to deformations of the carbon-carbon bonds in graphene. A Coulomb defect describes any charged atom or molecule adsorbed over the graphene sheet. Explicit expressions of the three defect scattering operators $H_\alpha$ are given in App. [33]. The three models are characterized by the parameters $\delta V_0$, $\delta t_1$, and $h$, whose values will be specified in the discussion. The results will be expressed as a function of the defect concentration $n_d = N_d/A_0$, where $A_0 = \sqrt{3}/2a_0^2$ is the graphene unit-cell area, being $a_0 = 2.46\ \text Å$ the graphene lattice spacing.

Note that the Raman intensity of the defect-induced lines (e.g. $D$, $D'$, and $D''$) is proportional to the average number of defects in the unit cell, $N_d$ (Eq. 3). This is because the scattering from defects on different sites is considered as incoherent, which is reasonable for low defect-concentrations. In particular, for on-site and hopping defects, the defect-induced intensities are proportional to $\alpha_{on} = n_d(\delta V_0)^2$ and to $\alpha_{op} = n_d(\delta t_1)^2$, being $n_d$ the defect concentration. Through the text, we will specify the value of these parameters, in order to make meaningful the comparison of the defect-induced line intensities with those of the phonon-phonon lines (e.g. $2D$, $2D'$, and $D' + D''$).

F. Electronic linewidth

An electronic state $|k\alpha\rangle$ ($\alpha = \pi^\star$ or $\pi$) has a finite lifetime $\tau_k^\alpha$ (which is associated to a line broadening energy $\gamma_k^\alpha = h/\tau_k^\alpha$) because the electronic states interact, e.g., with phonons and with defects. The broadening energies $\gamma_k$ in the denominators of the DR amplitudes $K$ (e.g. in Eqs. [3] [3]) are the sum of the broadening of the corresponding electronic states. As examples, in both Eqs. [3] [3] $\gamma_k^A = \gamma_k^\pi + \gamma_k^\pi^\star$, $\gamma_k^B = \gamma_k^\pi + \gamma_k^\pi^\star$, and $\gamma_k^C = \gamma_k^\pi + \gamma_k^\pi^\star$. For $\alpha = \pi^\star$ or $\pi$, $\gamma_k^\alpha$ is the full-width at half maximum of the electron/hole spectral function as measured, e.g., by ARPES.

We consider $\gamma$ as the sum of two contributions

$$\gamma_k^\alpha = \gamma_k^{\alpha(ep)} + \gamma_k^{\alpha(D)}.$$  (7)

The first is due to electron-phonon scattering. It is an intrinsic broadening (present in perfectly crystalline samples) and, according to the Golden rule, is

$$\gamma_k^{\alpha(ep)} = \frac{2\pi}{N_d} \sum_{q,\nu} |\langle k + q, \alpha | \Delta H_{q,\nu}|k, \alpha \rangle|^2 \times \delta(\varepsilon_k^\alpha - \varepsilon_{k+q}^\alpha - h\omega_{q,\nu}),$$  (8)

where $\alpha$ refers to $\pi$ or $\pi^\star$ bands, the sum is performed on a uniform grid of $N_q$ $\mathbf{q}$ points in the Brillouin zone and on all the phonon branches $\nu$. A good approximation of $\gamma^{\alpha(ep)}$ is obtained by considering conic bands ($|\epsilon| = h\nu_F k$, being $\nu_F$ the Fermi velocity) and only the two phonons $E_{2g}$ at $\Gamma$ and $A_1'$ at $\mathbf{K}$, with energies $h\omega_T$ and $h\omega_K$. By defining $g_{\nu_F}^2 = \sqrt{h/(2M\omega_K)}(D_{K}^2)_{\nu_F}$ and $g_{\nu_F}^2 = \sqrt{h/(2M\omega_K)}(D_{K}^2)_{\nu_F}$ (see Sec. [11]), Eq. [8] becomes:

$$\gamma^{\alpha(ep)} = \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ 2(g_{\nu_F}^2)N_{\alpha}(\epsilon - h\omega_T) + (g_{\nu_F}^2)N_{\alpha}(\epsilon - h\omega_K) \right]$$

$$\times \left\{ \frac{a_0}{\hbar v_F} \right\}^2 |\epsilon| \theta(|\epsilon|),$$  (9)

where $N_{\alpha}$ is the electronic density of states of the $\alpha = \pi$ or $\pi^\star$ bands, being $a_0$ the lattice spacing and $\theta(x)$ the Heaviside step function. Using the parameters of the present work, $N_{\alpha}(\epsilon) = 0.07908 eV^{-2}|\epsilon| \theta(|\epsilon|)$ and for $|\epsilon| > 0.196 eV$

$$\gamma^{\alpha(ep)} = 41.89(|\epsilon| - 0.1645) \text{ meV},$$  (10)

where $\epsilon$ is expressed in eV.

The second contribution in Eq. [7] is due to electron-defect elastic scattering. It is extrinsic (it is induced by the presence of impurities and depends on the sample quality) and is

$$\gamma_k^{\alpha(D)} = N_d \frac{2\pi}{N_k} \sum_{k'} |\langle k', \alpha | H_D | k, \alpha \rangle|^2 \delta(\varepsilon_k^\alpha - \varepsilon_{k'}^\alpha),$$  (11)

where the sum is performed on a uniform grid of $N_k'$ $\mathbf{k}'$ points in the Brillouin zone. The electron-defect scattering operator $H_D$ is defined as in Sec. [11] and App. [33] and depends on the considered kind of defect. $N_d$ is the average number of defects in the unit cell.

Fig. [3] shows $\gamma^{(ep)}$ and $\gamma^{(D)}$ for the three kind of defects we considered ($\gamma^{(D)} = \gamma^{(on)}$, $\gamma^{(D)} = \gamma^{(op)}$, or $\gamma^{(D)} = \gamma^{(Coul)}$). The $\gamma$ in Fig. [3] are calculated with Eqs. [8] [11] and are plotted as a function of the energy of the corresponding electronic state ($\varepsilon_k^\pi$ or $\varepsilon_k^\pi^\star$). $\gamma^{(ep)}$ is compared with the conic-band results of Eq. [10]. As expected, the two results are similar for energies smaller than 1 eV.

$\gamma^{(on)}$ and $\gamma^{(Coul)}$ are univocally determined by the energy and, in Fig. [3] are represented by lines. $\gamma^{(on)}$, in
particular, is proportional to the density of states. On the contrary, $\gamma^{(ep)}$ and $\gamma^{(hop)}$ display a dispersion associated to the fact that different $k$ electronic states with the same energy can have a different life-time. However, the dispersion is relatively small, and for the present purpose they will also be considered a function of the energy. All the contributions ($\gamma^{(ep)}, \gamma^{(on)}, \gamma^{(hop)}$ and $\gamma^{(Coul)}$) increase with energy and display a noticeable asymmetry between positive and negative energies due to the graphene electron/hole asymmetry.

**FIG. 5:** (Color online) Electronic linewidth as a function of energy. (a) Contribution of electron-phonon scattering to the electronic linewidth, $\gamma^{(ep)}$, compared to conical bands results (Eq. 10). (b) Contribution of on-site and hopping impurity scattering to the electronic linewidth. $\gamma^{(on)}$ is proportional to $\alpha_{on} = n_d(\delta V_0)^2$ and $\gamma^{(hop)}$ is proportional to $\alpha_{hop} = n_d(\delta t)^2$ (Sec. III B). We, thus, plot $\gamma^{(i)}/\alpha_i$, where the label "i" refers to "on" (on-site defect) or to "hop" (hopping defect). (c) Contribution of Coulomb impurity scattering to the electronic linewidth. $n_{Coul}$ is the Coulomb impurity concentration. The distance between graphene and the charged impurity $h = 0.27$ nm (see the discussion in Sec. III D).

In actual calculations (e.g., in Eqs. 4 and 5) we neglect the dependence on $k$ and we use

$$\gamma_k^A = \gamma_k^B = \gamma_k^C = \gamma_k^{tot}, \quad (12)$$

where $\gamma^{tot}$ depends only on the excitation energy $\epsilon_L$, on the kind of defect $D$ and on its concentration $n_D$, through

$$\gamma^{tot} = \gamma^{(ep)}(\epsilon_L) + \gamma^{(D)}(\epsilon_L, n_D). \quad (13)$$

$\gamma$ are the sum of the two contributions for $\pi$ and $\pi^*$ bands in a small energy range close to half the excitation energy $\epsilon_L$. As an example, $\gamma^{(ep)} = \gamma^{(ep)}(\epsilon_L/2) + \gamma^{(ep)}(-\epsilon_L/2)$, where $\gamma^{(ep)}(\epsilon)$ is the average of $\gamma^{(ep)}$ from Fig. 5 at that energy, in particular, for $\epsilon_L \gtrsim 1.0$ eV,

$$\gamma^{(ep)}(\epsilon_L) = (18.88 \epsilon_L + 6.802 \epsilon_L^2) \text{ meV,} \quad (14)$$

where $\epsilon_L$ is expressed in eV. While comparing these values with literature, notice that $\gamma^{tot}$ and the $\gamma$’s correspond to the sum of the width of electrons and holes and are, thus, roughly two times bigger that the width of electronic states. To give some examples, for $\epsilon_L = 2.4$ eV, and for the typical defect concentrations of the present work, $\alpha_{on} = 0.04 \times 10^{13}$ eV$^2$cm$^{-2}$, $\gamma^{(on)} = 5$ meV and $\gamma^{(hop)} = 12$ meV, and for $n_{Coul} = 10^{12}$ cm$^{-2}$, $\gamma^{(Coul)} = 0.01$ meV. On the other hand, for $\epsilon_L = 2.4$ eV, $\gamma^{(ep)} = 84$ meV is the dominant contribution, and in several cases, we will just consider $\gamma^{tot} \approx \gamma^{(ep)}$. Similar values of $\gamma^{tot} \approx \gamma^{(ep)}$ have been extracted from measurements in [34] (note that $\gamma_{e-ph}$ of [34] corresponds to $\gamma^{(ep)}/4$ in the present notation).

Finally, in charged graphene a further contribution to the broadening due to electron-electron interaction [34] can be relevant when $0.06|\epsilon_F| \gtrsim \gamma^{(ep)}/4$ where $\epsilon_F$ is the Fermi energy (see e.g. Eq.8 of [34]). For electron/hole concentrations of the order of $10^{12}$ cm$^{-2}$ this contribution is negligible and, here, it is not considered.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the calculation of the double resonant (DR) Raman spectra of graphene and discuss the results. Sec. III A describes the overall agreement with measurements. Sec. III B describes the dependence of the spectra on excitation energy and light polarization. Sec. III C describes the dependence of the Raman intensities on various parameters such as the electronic linewidth, the excitation energy, and the defect concentration. Sec. III D describes the dependence of the spectra on the type of defect. Sec. III E is dedicated to the interpretation of the results. It is focused on some specific issues such as the determination of the most relevant processes and phonons, the role of quantum interference, and on the interpretation of the small width of the main DR Raman lines.

A. Overall agreement with measurements

Figs. 6 and 7 compare the present calculations with Raman spectra of Refs. 11, for an excitation energy $\epsilon_L = 2.4$ eV. In Fig. 6, below 2000 cm$^{-1}$ the processes are due to phonon-defect scattering and calculations are done considering only the hopping defects (this choice is justified in Sec. III D), using the parameter $\alpha_{hop} = 6.4 \times 10^{13}$ eV$^2$cm$^{-2}$ (see Sec. III B), which reproduces the measured ratio of the integrated areas between $D$ and $2D$ lines of [11]. Above 2000 cm$^{-1}$, all the processes are due to two-phonon scattering. We remark that the $G$ line is a single-resonant process which is not included in the present calculations.

The agreement between calculations and measurements is extremely good. In particular, all the lines observed experimentally, even the small intensity ones, are present in the calculated spectra and the relative intensities among phonon-defect lines (such as the $D$ and the $D'$) or among two-phonon lines (such as $2D, 2D'$, or
Measurements correspond to a defect concentration \( n_d = 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2} \). Calculations are done using \( \gamma_{\text{tot}} = 96 \text{ meV} \), and hopping defects with \( \alpha_{\text{hop}} = 6.4 \times 10^{13} \text{ eV}^2 \text{cm}^{-2} \). All the intensities are normalized to the maximum value of the 2D line. As far as the line frequencies are concerned, calculations and measurements display some small deviations of the order of a few meV. We remark that the line frequencies are determined by a subtle interplay between the phononic and electronic energy dispersions, and that the present dispersions are obtained from state of the art ab-initio computational methods which correctly reproduce ARPES and IXS measurements (Sec. III). A correction of the electronic or of the phononic dispersions, to reproduce with more precision the Raman frequencies, would be done at the expense of introducing fitting parameters to the model, which is beyond the present scope.

B. Dependence of the spectra on the laser

This section describes the dependence of the spectra on excitation energy and light polarization. Excitation energies vary from 1.2 to 4.0 eV, which are energies mainly used in actual experiments.

1. Dependence of the main lines on the excitation energy

Fig. 8 displays the calculated spectra of the main double resonant Raman lines for three different excitation energies. In all cases, we use the electronic broadening \( \gamma_{\text{tot}} = \frac{\hbar}{\tau_{\text{ep}}} \), calculated at the corresponding excitation energy (Sec. III). In general, by increasing the excitation energy, the bands become broader and the relative intensities change. The behavior of the 2D line is particularly interesting. At \( \epsilon_L = 2.4 \text{ eV} \), the 2D line presents a Lorentzian lineshape with a relatively small linewidth, while at \( \epsilon_L = 3.8 \text{ eV} \), it is much broader showing two components with smaller, 2D\(^{-} \), and higher, 2D\(^{+} \) Raman shifts, as discussed in detail in Sec. III.E. Here, we just

\[ D + D'' \] are correctly reproduced. The most remarkable agreement relates to the line widths. Indeed, the present model reproduces very well the measured small widths of the \( D, D', 2D \) and \( 2D' \) lines. Moreover, the model reproduces quite well the symmetric Lorentzian shapes of the 2D and 2D' lines and the asymmetric shape of \( D + D'' \) band. We remark that, in the present model, the only parameter used to fit the Raman data is \( \alpha_{\text{hop}} \). This parameter determines the ratio of the \( D \) vs. 2D intensities but does not affect the relative intensities among phonon-defect or among two-phonon lines, the width of the lines, and their shape.

\[ \text{FIG. 6: (Color online) Intensity vs. Raman shift for } \epsilon_L = 2.4 \text{ eV}. \text{Comparison of the present calculations with the measurements from [11]. Notice that our model includes only double-resonant processes and, thus, the } G \text{ line is not present. Measurements correspond to a defect concentration } n_d = 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}. \text{Calculations are done using } \gamma_{\text{tot}} = 96 \text{ meV}, \text{and hopping defects with } \alpha_{\text{hop}} = 6.4 \times 10^{13} \text{ eV}^2 \text{cm}^{-2}. \text{All the intensities are normalized to the maximum value of the 2D line.} \]

\[ \text{FIG. 7: (Color online) Intensity vs. Raman shift for } \epsilon_L = 2.4 \text{ eV}. \text{Comparison of the present calculations with the measurements from Ref. [1]. The figure reports only two-phonon processes. Calculations are done using } \gamma_{\text{tot}} = 84 \text{ meV}. \text{All the intensities are normalized to the maximum value of the 2D line. The inset shows the } D+D'' \text{ band in a different scale.} \]

\[ \text{FIG. 8: Calculated Raman spectra for } \epsilon_L = 1.2 \text{ eV and } \gamma_{\text{tot}} = 32 \text{ meV}, \epsilon_L = 2.4 \text{ eV and } \gamma_{\text{tot}} = 84 \text{ meV}, \epsilon_L = 3.8 \text{ eV and } \gamma_{\text{tot}} = 170 \text{ meV}. \text{Calculations are done using hopping defects with } \alpha_{\text{hop}} = 6.4 \times 10^{13} \text{ eV}^2 \text{cm}^{-2}. \text{All the intensities are normalized to the corresponding 2D line maxima.} \]
The two-phonon bands, such as the \(2D\) bands, are associated with the emission of two phonons which, in the scale of Fig. 9, are almost indistinguishable from those of the \(D\), \(D'\), and \(D''\) lines.

Fig. 10 shows the calculated shift of the main Raman lines as a function of the excitation energy, \(\epsilon_L\). The Raman shift of the \(D\) and \(2D\) lines increases with increasing laser energy. The \(D'\) Raman shift does not show a monotonous behavior but it does not change significantly. The \(D + D''\) Raman shift is almost constant for \(\epsilon_L\) between 1.2 and 1.8 eV, and decreases for \(\epsilon_L \gtrsim 1.8\) eV. Fig. 10 also shows the experimental data from Ref. [3] for the \(2D\) and \(D + D''\) lines and from Ref. [33] for the \(2D\) line. The good agreement with measurements is not surprising since the dispersion of a DR line as a function of \(\epsilon_L\) is determined by the phonon dispersion and in Ref. [27] it was already shown that the present phonon dispersions (obtained from DFT plus GW corrections) reproduce the measured \(D\) line shift as a function of \(\epsilon_L\). The behavior of the shift as a function of \(\epsilon_L\) is easily understood by comparing with the phonon dispersions in Fig. 9. For instance, for the \(D\) line, when the excitation energy increases, the phonons mostly involved in the DR process move away from \(K\), and their frequencies are higher. The same reasoning explains the behavior of the \(D'\) frequency. For the two-phonon lines, one has to consider the frequencies of the two phonon involved. For instance, the \(2D\) line Raman shifts are twice as large as the \(D\) ones. For the \(D + D''\) line, the energy of one phonon branch increases, while the other decreases while moving away from \(K\).

### 2. Small intensity bands

![Diagram](image)

FIG. 11: Calculated Raman spectra for small intensity bands. Calculations are done using \(\epsilon_L = 2.0\) eV and \(\gamma_{tot} = 65\) meV (upper), \(\epsilon_L = 2.4\) eV and \(\gamma_{tot} = 84\) meV (middle), \(\epsilon_L = 2.8\) eV and \(\gamma_{tot} = 106\) meV (lower). We consider hopping defects with \(\alpha_{hopp} = 6.4 \times 10^{-3}\) eV\(\text{cm}^{-2}\). All the intensities are normalized to the corresponding \(2D\) line maxima.

The calculated spectra display some small intensity bands which are shown in Fig. 11. Some of these bands are extremely weak and it is not clear whether they could...
be possibly measured, on the other hand the $D''$ is observed \cite{7,11} and the bands that we label as $D'+D^4$ and $D'+D^3$ have been measured recently \cite{3d,37}. Fig. \ref{fig:12} reports the shift of these small intensity bands as a function of the excitation energy. The agreement with available measurements is good. Fig. \ref{fig:9} reports the high symmetry line maxima \cite{7,11} and the bands that we label as $D_3$, $D_4$, $D_5$, and $D''$. The $D_3$ and $D_4$ bands are associated with phonons near $\Gamma$, that have a momentum very similar to the momentum of the phonons associated to the $D'$ line. The $D_3$ and $D''$ bands are associated with phonons near $\Gamma$, with a momentum very similar to the momentum of the $D$ phonons. The $D_3$, $D_4$, $D_5$, and $D''$ bands are however much weaker than the $D$ and $D'$ ones, because the electron-phonon coupling (between $\pi$ electronic bands) for those branches, is much weaker than the one of the $D$ and $D'$ (see \cite{32}).

3. Dependence on the light polarization

So far, we have shown calculations done with unpolarized light. We now discuss how the results are affected by the use of polarized light. For parallel and transverse polarizations, we calculated $I_\parallel$ and $I_\perp$ as defined in Sec. \ref{sec:parallel}. Fig. \ref{fig:13} compares the results obtained for $\varepsilon_L = 2.4 \text{ eV}$ and $\varepsilon_L = 3.8 \text{ eV}$. The intensity in the parallel polarization case is considerably larger than in the transverse one, as expected. For $\varepsilon_L = 2.4 \text{ eV}$, the spectrum shape almost does not depend on the polarization and the ratio $I_\parallel/I_\perp$ is about 2.7, in reasonable agreement with measurements in graphite \cite{48}, graphene \cite{39} and earlier theoretical predictions \cite{16}. For $\varepsilon_L = 3.8 \text{ eV}$, the $D$ and $2D$ bands split into two components (see Sec. \ref{sec:band_decomposition} for a detailed discussion) and the intensity ratio between the two components depends on the polarization. For example, the intensities of the two components of the $2D$ band, $2D^+$ and $2D^-$, are very similar within transverse polarization, while the $2D^+$ intensity is slightly higher than the $2D^-$ one, within parallel polarization. This finding is very remarkable since it could lead to measurable effects.

C. Dependence of the Raman intensities on the various parameters

In this section we discuss how the intensity of the main DR Raman lines is affected by the various parameters such as the electronic linewidth (Sec. \ref{sec:linewidth}), the excitation energy (Sec. \ref{sec:excitation}), and the defect concentration (Sec. \ref{sec: defects}). In general, the absolute value of the intensities is affected by these parameters, however, we will mainly focus on how the ratio of the intensities of dif-
different lines is affected, since this last quantity can be measured more easily.

1. Dependence on the electronic broadening

![Figure 14: (Color online) Integrated areas under the 2D, 2D', and D + D'' lines for the ratio A(2D)/A(2D'), and A(D + D'') as a function of the electronic linewidth (\(\gamma_{\text{tot}}\)) at fixed defect concentration. The areas are normalized to A(2D). The inset shows the calculation of the ratio A(2D)/A(2D'), and A(D + D'') for A = 41.5, in agreement with experimental works which reported A(2D)/A(2D') as being 27 [1] and 26 ± 3 [11]. In [23] it has been shown that, if the electronic bands can be considered conic, the dependence of A(2D) and A(2D') on \(\gamma_{\text{tot}}\) should be A = A_0/(\(\gamma_{\text{tot}}\))^2, where A_0 is a constant. This functional form, however, cannot be used for a quantitative description of the present results. Indeed, the integrated areas as a function of \(\gamma_{\text{tot}}\) reported in Fig. 14 can be fitted by a similar, but different, law:

\[
\begin{align*}
A(2D) &= 9744/(\gamma_{\text{tot}})^2 + 48.5^2 \\
A(2D') &= 629/(\gamma_{\text{tot}})^2 + 80.0^2 \\
A(D + D'') &= 438/(\gamma_{\text{tot}})^2 + 59.6^2,
\end{align*}
\]

where \(\gamma_{\text{tot}}\) is expressed in meV. An explanation of the discrepancy between Eqs. 15 and the model of [23] is so far unexplained, since in this limit the effect of electron-hole asymmetry should become negligible. We also remark that the model of [23] predicts that the ratio A(2D)/A(2D') does not depend on \(\gamma_{\text{tot}}\). However, using the parameters of the present work, Eq. 16 gives A(2D)/A(2D')=6.8 which is almost twice smaller than A(2D)/A(2D')=14.7 obtained from the limit \(\gamma_{\text{tot}}\) \(\to\) \(\infty\) of Eqs. 15. This second discrepancy with the model of [23] is so far unexplained, since in this limit the effect of electron-hole asymmetry should become negligible. We also remark that the model of [23] predicts that the ratio A(2D)/A(2D') does not depend on the excitation energy \(\epsilon_L\). In the following we will show that, on the contrary, A(2D)/A(2D') strongly depends on \(\epsilon_L\).

2. Dependence on the excitation energy

The intensity of the 2D line decreases by increasing the excitation energy \(\epsilon_L\) (Fig. 15). The most important contribution to the decrease comes from the fact that the electron/hole broadening \(\gamma_{\text{tot}}\) increases by increasing \(\epsilon_L\). This can be deduced from Fig. 15 which also shows the results for a fictitious system in which \(\gamma_{\text{tot}}\) is kept to a fixed value independent from \(\epsilon_L\). Indeed, in this second case, the dependence of A(2D) on \(\epsilon_L\) is much less marked than in the full calculation.

Fig. 16(a) reports the calculated ratio of the integrated areas under the bands, A(2D')/A(2D) and A(D+)
work, one obtains $A(2D')/A(2D)$. Using, for consistency, the parameters of the present important. Using Eq. 16 (which is adapted from [23]) that the ratio $A(2D')/A(2D)$ is zero. The full line is obtained by including the dependence of the broadening on $\epsilon_L$, $\gamma_{\text{tot}} = \gamma_{\text{expt}}(\epsilon_L)$ (see Sec. III F). The dashed line is from an unrealistic simulation in which $\epsilon_L = 0$ has been kept fixed to a constant value $\gamma_{\text{tot}} = \gamma_{\text{expt}}/(2.4 \text{ eV}) = 84 \text{ meV}$, independent from $\epsilon_L$.

FIG. 15: (Color online) Integrated area under the 2D line as a function of the excitation energy $\epsilon_L$. The defect concentration is zero. The full line is obtained by including the dependence of the broadening on $\epsilon_L$, $\gamma_{\text{tot}} = \gamma_{\text{expt}}(\epsilon_L)$ (see Sec. III F). The dashed line is from an unrealistic simulation in which $\epsilon_L$ has been kept fixed to a constant value $\gamma_{\text{tot}} = \gamma_{\text{expt}}/(2.4 \text{ eV}) = 84 \text{ meV}$, independent from $\epsilon_L$.

$A(D'')/A(2D)$, as a function of the excitation energy $\epsilon_L$. These ratios considerably change in the range of excitation energies of the figure. $A(2D')/A(2D)$ decreases and $A(D + D'')/A(2D)$ increases rapidly. The values calculated for $\epsilon_L = 2.4 \text{ eV}$ compare reasonably well with those obtained from the measurements of [1]. In the last paragraph of Sec. III C we discussed the model of [23], which was used to theoretically determine the ratio $A(2D')/A(2D)$. The simplified model of [23] predicts that the ratio $A(2D')/A(2D)$ does not depend on $\epsilon_L$. On the contrary, from Fig. 16(a), this dependence is very important. Using Eq. 16 (which is adapted from [23]) and using, for consistency, the parameters of the present work, one obtains $A(2D')/A(2D) = 0.15$. This value is significantly higher than 0.09, which we obtain for the smallest $\epsilon_L$ of Fig. 16(a).

Fig. 16(b) reports the ratio of the integrated areas under the defect-induced bands, $A(D'')/A(D)$ and $A(D'')/A(2D)$. Here, we consider again only hopping impurities. We also remark that the present approach is expected to be valid in the limit of small defect concentration. For small excitation energies the $D''$ band intensity is very small in comparison to the $D$ one. For larger excitation energies the $D''$ relative intensity increases, reaching $A(D'')/A(D) = 0.09$ when $\epsilon_L = 4.0 \text{ eV}$. On the other hand, the intensity of the $D'$ band compared to the $D$ band decreases by increasing the excitation energy. For $\epsilon_L$ up to about $3.0 \text{ eV}$ the $D'$ band is more intense than the $D''$ band, while for $\epsilon_L \gtrsim 3.2 \text{ eV}$, the $D''$ is slightly more intense than the $D'$.

3. Dependence on the defect concentration

FIG. 16: (Color online) Ratio of the integrated areas under Raman bands as a function of excitation energy (a) Two-phonon bands: our results compared to experimental data from Ref. [1]. (b) Disorder induced bands from hopping impurities, with $\alpha_{\text{hopp}} = 6.4 \times 10^{13} \text{ eV}^2 \text{ cm}^{-2}$.

FIG. 17: (Color online) Intensity of the $D$ and $2D$ Raman lines as a function of the defect concentration for $\epsilon_L = 2.4 \text{ eV}$. Calculations are done using hopping defects and are reported as a function of the parameter $\alpha_{\text{hopp}} = n_d(\delta t_1)^2$ ($n_d$ is the defect concentration and $\delta t_1$ the hopping parameter), in the upper horizontal scale. The lower horizontal scale is obtained by considering $\delta t_1 = 8.0 \text{ eV}$, (a) $I_D$ is the maximum of the intensity of the $D$ line; symbols are experimental data from [6]. The dashed line is a linear fit of the $I_D$ calculated values for $n_d < 5 \times 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. Theoretical and experimental intensities have been normalized by their maximum values. (b) Integrated areas under $D$ and $2D$ bands, $A(D)$ and $A(2D)$. Experimental data are from [11]. Theoretical and experimental areas are normalized by $A(2D)$ at minimum defect concentration. The vertical line indicates the defect concentration of $7 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ ($\alpha_{\text{hopp}} = 4.5 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ eV}^2$) for which the two contributions to the electronic broadening are equal: $\tilde{\gamma}(D) = \gamma_{\text{expt}}$.

We now discuss how the intensities of the Raman bands are affected by defect concentration $n_d$. We recall that...
of defects in the sample (Eq. 12). \( \gamma_{tot} \) is given by the sum of an intrinsic component \( \tilde{\gamma}_{(ep)} \) (due to the electron-phonon interaction) and an extrinsic defect-induced component \( \tilde{\gamma}_{(D)} \) which increases linearly by increasing \( n_d \) (Eq. 13). On the other hand, the defect-induced Raman lines (such as the D line) depend on \( n_d \) through two distinct mechanisms. First, it depends on \( n_d \) through \( \gamma_{tot} \) as for the two-phonon lines. Second, there is a proportionality factor between the Raman intensity and the number of defects in the sample \( (I \propto N_d \text{ in Eq. 3}) \). Basically, for a higher number of defects there are more scattering events that can activate the defect-induced lines, which, in crystalline samples, are not Raman active. In the following discussion, we will consider only hopping defects. As already shown in Sects. II E and II F, the calculated integrated areas under the calculated 2D and D lines, \( \alpha(z,L) \) and \( \alpha(D) \), as a function of the parameter \( \alpha_{hopp} \), for \( \epsilon_L = 2.4 \text{ eV} \). For \( \alpha_{hopp} = 4.5 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{eV}^2 \), the two contributions to the broadening are equal, \( \tilde{\gamma}_{(D)} = \tilde{\gamma}_{(ep)} \). The corresponding \( \alpha_{hopp} \) is indicated in Fig. 17 with a vertical line. The intensity of the 2D line (which corresponds to a two-phonon process) monotonously decreases by increasing the defect concentration. For small defect concentrations \( \alpha_{hopp} \leq 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{eV}^2 \), \( \tilde{\gamma}_{(D)} \ll \tilde{\gamma}_{(ep)} \), \( \gamma_{tot} \sim \tilde{\gamma}_{(ep)} \) slightly depends on the defect concentration, and \( \alpha(D) \) is almost constant. For higher defect concentrations, \( \tilde{\gamma}_{(D)} \) becomes the dominant contribution to \( \gamma_{tot} \), which, as a consequence, becomes more sensitive to the defect concentration. The increase of \( \gamma_{tot} \) by increasing the defect concentration is associated to a decrease of \( \alpha(D) \), because of the mechanism discussed in Sec. III C 1.

The intensity of the D line (which is a defect induced process) has a different behavior. For low defect concentrations, it increases almost linearly, then it reaches a maximum, and finally decreases. This behavior results from the interplay of two competing mechanisms. For small defect concentration \( \tilde{\gamma}_{(D)} \ll \tilde{\gamma}_{(ep)} \) and \( \gamma_{tot} \sim \tilde{\gamma}_{(ep)} \). In this region, the intensity is expected to increase linearly \( (I \propto \tilde{\gamma}_{(ep)} \text{ in Eq. 3}) \). Indeed, the calculated intensity is well reproduced by a linear fit up to \( \alpha_{hopp} \leq 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{eV}^2 \) (compare the continuous line with the dashed one in Fig. 17 upper panel). For \( \alpha_{hopp} > 4.5 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{eV}^2 \), the dependence of the broadening \( \gamma_{tot} \) on the defect concentration becomes the dominant mechanism, leading to a decrease of the intensity as for the 2D line. It is remarkable that the defect concentration for which \( \alpha_{hopp} = 4.5 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{eV}^2 \) (vertical line in Fig. 17) almost coincides with the maximum value reached by the D intensity, \( I_D \).

Fig. 17 compares calculations with the intensities of the D and 2D measured in \( \gamma_{tot} \) as a function of the defect concentration. So far, we have discussed theoretical results as a function of \( \alpha_{hopp} = n_d(\delta t_1)^2 \). \( \alpha_{hopp} \) defines the upper horizontal scale in Fig. 17. To make the comparison with measurements we need to attribute a value to the hopping energy \( \delta t_1 \). The best fit to measurements is obtained for \( \delta t_1 = 8.0 \text{ eV} \). This value is used only to rescale the horizontal axis of Fig. 17 and defines the defect concentration as reported in the lower horizontal axis of Fig. 17. The measured behavior as a function of the defect concentration is well reproduced by calculations. It is remarkable that the same value \( \delta t_1 = 8.0 \text{ eV} \) can be used to fit equally well the D and 2D line data. The value \( \delta t_1 = 8.0 \text{ eV} \) is very high. However, one should notice that in Ref. 11 defects were induced in graphene by means of Ar\(^+\) ion bombardment. This technique leads to the formation of Carbon multi-vacancies in the sample. In Ref. 7, the defect average size is estimated, by means of scanning tunnel microscopy, to be 1.85 nm. On the contrary, the present model considers only point defects (the hopping parameters is changed by \( \delta t_1 \) for a single isolated carbon-carbon bond). The large value \( \delta t_1 = 8.0 \text{ eV} \) is, thus, to be considered as an effective variation of the hopping parameter that mimics the existence of an extended defect (a realistic description of the defect should be done by considering the variation of the hopping parameters associated to many different neighboring sites). For less damaging defects, \( \delta t_1 \) will be smaller and the critical defect concentration, above which the D line intensity begins to decrease, will be larger than that of Fig. 17.

Finally, the behavior of the D line intensity as a function of the defect concentration has been discussed in literature using different models (see also 12). To make a comparison, it can be useful to restate the present finding as follows. According to the DR perturbative model, the intensity of the defect-induced lines decreases by increasing the defect concentration when \( \tilde{\gamma}_{(D)} \) becomes higher than \( \tilde{\gamma}_{(ep)} \), that is when the average length an electron/hole travels in between two scattering events with a defect becomes smaller than the average length an electron/hole travels before scattering with an optical phonon.

D. Dependence of the spectra on the type of defect

Here, we discuss how the results depend on the type of defect. Calculations were done using three different model defects namely, hopping defects, on-site defects, and Coulomb ones (see Sec. III E for a description of the relevant parameters). Fig. 18 compares calculations with the measurements from 11, which correspond to a defect concentration \( n_d = 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2} \) and \( \epsilon_L = 2.4 \text{ eV} \). For the hopping and on-site defects, the calculations are done using \( \alpha_{hopp} = \alpha_{on} = 6.4 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{eV}^2 \), which, for the hopping defect, reproduces the ratio between the integrated areas of the measured D and 2D lines of 11. By choosing \( \delta t_1 = \delta t_{0} = 8.0 \text{ eV} \) (see also the discussion in
Sec. III C 3), the above values of α correspond to a defect concentration \( n_d = 10^{12} \, \text{cm}^{-2} \). For Coulomb impurities, the distance between the impurity and graphene is \( h = 0.27 \, \text{nm} \) and \( n_d = 10^{12} \, \text{cm}^{-2} \).

From Fig. 18, the hopping defect is the best model to study defect-induced Raman processes. Indeed, contrary to the other models, the hopping defect provides a ratio of the intensities of the \( D \) and \( D' \) lines which is in good agreement with measurements. The intensity ratio between \( D \) and \( D' \) strongly depends on the kind of model defect, suggesting that this ratio could possibly be used to experimentally determine the kind of defects present in a graphene sample. From Fig. 18 we also notice that Coulomb defects (charged impurities outside the graphene plane) provide an almost undetectable contribution to the Raman signal. Indeed, for a defect concentration of \( n_d = 10^{12} \, \text{cm}^{-2} \), the \( D \) line is absent and the \( D' \) intensity is almost three orders of magnitude smaller than the experimental one. We recall that Coulomb defects could be an important source of scattering during electronic transport in graphene (see [43] and refs. therein). The fact that they are not detectable by Raman spectroscopy (which is routinely used to characterize experimentally the quality of graphene samples) is, thus, a relevant issue which deserves some more comments.

The present simulations consider a very short graphene/impurity distance \( h \), in order to enhance the Raman signal of the Coulomb impurities. Indeed, \( h = 0.27 \, \text{nm} \) is the distance between K atoms and graphene planes in the KC\(_8\) intercalated graphite. This distance corresponds to the experimental conditions of [43], where K\(^+\) ions are deposited on graphene. In the case, where the impurities are charges trapped in the substrate (e.g. SiO\(_2\)) a longer distance (e.g. 1 nm) is more appropriate.

It is not surprising that the contribution of Coulomb impurities to the \( D \) line is completely negligible. Indeed, the Fourier transform of the Coulomb potential is maximum close to \( \Gamma \) and decays as \( 1/q \) far from it, Eq. B10 and the \( D \) line is due to phonons near to the \( \mathbf{K} \) point and far from \( \Gamma \). This argument, also, suggests that the \( D' \) band, which is due to phonons near \( \Gamma \), should be more sensitive to the presence of Coulomb impurities. According to calculations, this is actually the case, however for \( \epsilon_L = 2.4 \, \text{eV} \) and \( n_d = 10^{12} \, \text{cm}^{-2} \), the ratio of the integrated area \( A(D')/A(2D) = 1.5 \times 10^{-4} \), meaning that the presence of a \( D' \) band due to Coulomb impurities should not be detectable. The use of smaller energy laser increases the intensity of the \( D' \) signal since the excited phonons are nearer to \( \Gamma \). However, for \( \epsilon_L = 1.2 \, \text{eV} \) and \( n_d = 10^{12} \, \text{cm}^{-2} \), \( A(D')/A(2D) = 8.0 \times 10^{-4} \), which is still very small. Within the present model, \( A(D')/A(2D) \) increases linearly by increasing the impurity concentration, \( n_d \). However, \( n_d \) cannot be higher than \( 10^{14} \, \text{cm}^{-2} \), which corresponds to the density of K atoms in KC\(_8\). On the other hand, for Coulomb impurity concentrations higher than \( 10^{12} \, \text{cm}^{-2} \) doping effects should become important. These should be associated to an increase of the electron-electron scattering contribution to the electronic broadening [34], which, in turn, will prevent the \( D' \) intensity to become detectable. Concluding, the presence of charged impurities is not associated to a Raman \( D \) band. A \( D' \) band is present, but should not be easily detectable.

### E. Interpretation of the results

This section is dedicated to the interpretation of the results. Sec. III E 1 describes which are the most important processes associated to the DR. Sec. III E 2 describes which are the phonon wavevectors contributing to each Raman band. Sec. III E 3 analyzes the dominant directions of the phonon wavevectors and Sec. III E 4 is dedicated to the interpretation of the small width of the main DR Raman lines.

#### 1. Dominant Processes and Interference Effects

In this section we analyze which are the dominant processes among those described in Fig. 1. We distinguish between two classes of processes: processes \( \text{aa} \) are those in which the two intermediate scattering processes are associated to both electron states or to both hole states (namely the processes \( \text{ee}1, \text{ee}2, \text{hh}1, \) and \( \text{hh}2 \)), using the notation of Fig. 1; processes \( \text{ab} \) are those in which the two scattering processes are associated one to an electron state and the other to a hole state (\( \text{eh}1, \text{eh}2, \text{he}1, \) and \( \text{he}2 \) in Fig. 1). The distinction between \( \text{aa} \) and \( \text{ab} \) processes holds for both phonon-defect and two-phonon
show a typical Raman spectrum, in which we compare intensities of the same order of magnitude. Indeed, Fig. 19 includes only \( aa \) processes; \( I_{aa} \), or \( ab \) processes, \( I_{ab} \). More precisely, \( I_{tot} \) is the Raman intensity computed including all the processes; \( I_{aa} \) is computed by restricting the sums in \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) in Eqs. (3) only to the \( ee1, ee2, hh1, \) and \( hh2 \) processes; \( I_{ab} \) is computed by restricting the sums in \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) in Eqs. (3) only to the \( eh1, eh2, he1, \) and \( he2 \) processes. In general, \( I_{tot} \neq I_{aa} + I_{ab} \). From Fig. 19, \( I_{ab} \gg I_{aa} \) for both the \( D \) and the \( 2D \) lines.

The dominance of the \( ab \) processes is due to quantum interference effects. In particular, from Eq. (3) the Raman intensity for a given \( \mathbf{q} \) results from a sum over \( \mathbf{k} \) of \( K(\mathbf{k}) \) scattering amplitudes, which are complex numbers. The sum of these complex numbers can interfere in a constructive way, as for the \( ab \) processes, or in a destructive way, as for the \( aa \) processes. In particular, the DR condition determines that for some resonant electronic wavevectors \( \mathbf{k}_r, K(\mathbf{k}_r) \) should have a maximum. This maximum can be enhanced or suppressed by the interference of \( K(\mathbf{k}_r) \) with the \( K(\mathbf{k}) \) at wavevectors \( \mathbf{k} \) which are not exactly at the resonance (this point is further discussed in App. [14]). It is important to remark that, according to the present calculations, the DR scattering amplitudes \( K \) are complex numbers in which the real and imaginary parts are of the same order of magnitude even for the \( k = \mathbf{k}_r \) wavevectors that satisfy the DR condition.

To quantify the importance of quantum interference, we consider a fictitious Raman intensity \( \tilde{I} \), which is obtained by substituting their modulus \( |K| \) to the scattering amplitudes \( K \) in Eqs. (3). As example, in Eqs. (3) we substitute \( I^{pp}_{q} = \left| \sum_{\mathbf{k},\beta} K_{\beta}(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{q}) \right|^2 / N_k \), with \( I^{pp}_{q} = \left| \sum_{\mathbf{k},\beta} |K_{\beta}(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{q})| \right|^2 / N_k \).

Thus, within the intensities \( \tilde{I} \), the presence of possible destructive interference effect is cancelled. Fig. 19 shows a typical \( \tilde{I} \) spectrum, in which we compare \( I_{aa} \) and \( I_{ab} \) obtained by solely including \( aa \) or \( ab \) processes. The ratio \( I_{ab}/I_{aa} \) is very different from \( I_{ab}/I_{aa} \) for both the \( D \) and the \( 2D \) lines. In particular, \( I_{ab} \) is no more dominant and it is always comparable in intensity to \( I_{aa} \). Thus, the fact that \( I_{ab} \gg I_{aa} \) is indeed due to destructive interference effects. Moreover, certain lines of the fictitious \( \tilde{I} \) spectrum, such as the \( D' \) or the \( 2D' \), do not appear as narrow and well defined lines as they are in the actual Raman spectrum, \( I \). Thus, interference effects also play a role in determining the shape of certain lines.

Notice that, often, when discussing the DR processes, it is used a simplified argument which consists in finding the electronic and phonon states which let two (or more) of the denominators in Eq. (1) go to zero. The assumption is that the physics is lead only by those scattering amplitudes \( K \) which satisfy the DR condition. This simplified approach, which we call the “resonance argument”, has been extensively used in literature with success (e.g. to determine the momenta of the phonons associated to certain lines), despite the fact that, within this approach, the possible role of quantum interference is completely neglected. The results of the previous paragraph show that in certain specific situation the “resonance argument” can be very misleading. For example, on the basis of a “resonance argument” one would deduce that the
We remark that several authors describe the DR by simply consider the \( aa \) processes (usually the \( ee \) processes in Fig. 1, 4), as it is done in the seminal work by Thomasen and Reich [10]. However, following the present conclusions, these processes cannot be used alone to describe quantitatively the intensities of the \( D \) and \( 2D \) lines. The importance of interference effects in determining the shape of the DR Raman lines has been already outlined by Maultzch et al. in [20]. However, Ref. [29] just consider \( ee \) processes and completely neglects the \( ab \) ones, which are the most important. The fact the \( ab \) processes should be dominant for the \( 2D \) line has been argued by Basko in Ref. [23]. But, this conclusion is reached on the basis of a “resonance argument”. Indeed, according to Ref. [23], the \( ab \) processes should be dominant because within these process one can reach a condition in which all the transitions are real (non virtual) and the three denominators of Eq. 1 can be nullified simultaneously (triple resonance). As already said, this kind of arguments cannot be applied to describe the intensity of the \( 2D \) line (basically, the conclusion is good but the argument is wrong). The best way to understand this point is to put to zero the phonon energies \( \hbar \omega_{ph} \) in all the denominators of the Raman scattering amplitudes \( K \) (e.g. in Eqs. 4, 5). By doing this, the triple resonance condition of Basko applies also to the \( aa \) processes (not only to the \( ab \)). However, actual calculations show that \( I_{ab} \) remains much larger than \( I_{aa} \) even when \( \hbar \omega_{ph} = 0 \). Actually, the intensity and the shape of the \( 2D \) line are marginally affected by including or not \( \hbar \omega_{ph} \) in the denominators of the \( K \)s (see Fig. 27 in App. C). We also remark that the triple resonance argument does not explain why \( I_{ab} \gg I_{aa} \) also for the \( D \) line. Finally, Ref. [44] argues that quantum interference in real space plays a crucial role in enhancing the role of the \( ab \) processes versus the \( aa \) ones, for the \( D \) line. However, the model of Ref. [44] predicts a behavior which is in contrast with the present calculations [43]. Notice that the model of [44] was developed to describe extended defects such as edges, while here we are considering point defects.

The main conclusion of this section is that the \( ab \) processes (\( ch1, ch2, he1 \) and \( ch2 \) processes of Figs. 1, 4) are responsible for most of the Raman intensity because of quantum interference. We remark that this conclusion is not due to the complex details of the present calculations but can be deduced with a very simplified model in which the scattering matrix elements in the numerator of Eq. 1 are constant, the phonon energies in the denominators (e.g. \( \hbar \omega_{q} \) in Eqs. 3, 5) are neglected, and in which the electronic bands are conic. This simple model can also be used to shed light on the role played by quantum interference, see App. D.

We now discuss which phonons are responsible for the lines presented in Figs. 6 and 7. In Fig. 20 we consider the most important Raman lines and we decompose the Raman intensity of a given band into its components associated to phonons with a given wavevector \( q \). The rhombi are the graphene first Brillouin zone. For each band, we consider the contribution to the Raman intensity in a window of frequencies corresponding to that particular band [46]. The intensities are normalized to the maximum of each band. Calculations are done using \( \epsilon_f = 2.4 \text{ eV}, \gamma^\text{tot} = 84 \text{ meV}, \) and hopping defects with \( \alpha_{hopp} = 6.4 \times 10^{13} \text{ eV}^2\text{cm}^{-2} \).

In literature, the DR condition on the virtual transitions is often used to determine the Raman-dominant phonon-wavevectors (see, e.g., [1, 9, 10, 14, 47, 48]). To verify the validity of such a procedure, we focus on the \( 2D \) line, which is mostly due to \( eh \) processes (Sec. [HE]) and consider an excitation energy \( \epsilon_L = 2.4 \text{ eV} \). The DR consists in three processes of excitation, phonon scattering, and recombination. The \( k \) vectors of the electronic
FIG. 21: (Color online) Electron and phonon states relevant for the 2D line. The rhombi are the graphene Brillouin zone. a) The triangularly distorted contour around $K$ is obtained from $\epsilon_k - \epsilon_k^{\pi} = 2.4$ eV and represents the electronic states near $K$ that are excited by a laser with energy $\epsilon_L = 2.4$ eV. The contour around $K' = 2K$ is obtained from $\epsilon_k - \epsilon_k^{\pi} = 2.06$ eV and represents the electronic states near $K'$ that are deexcited by the emission of a quantum of light with energy $\epsilon_L - 2\hbar \omega_{ph}$ eV, with $\omega_{ph} = 1354$ cm$^{-1}$ (half the energy of the 2D line for $\epsilon_L = 2.4$ eV). b) $q_n$ is one of the vectors such that the contour near $K$ translated by $q_n$ is tangent to the contour near $K'$. c) $I_q$ decomposition of the 2D intensity (same figure as the 2D panel in Fig. 20). The dashed closed line is defined by the ensemble of the $q_n$ vectors. d) The dashed line is the same as in c). The thick grey (red) line is the phonon iso-energy contour obtained from $\omega_{q} = 1354$ cm$^{-1}$. The relevant phonon branch, thick grey line in Fig. 1, is disentangled form the other branches as in Fig. 2 of Ref. 28. Notice that the iso-energy contours of electron states (panels a, b) and phonons (panel c, d) have opposite trigonal warpings. Notice also that phonon iso-energy contours in Fig. 2 of Ref. 28 are plotted with respect to the $K'$ of the present notation.

FIG. 22: (Color online) Scheme of the double resonant process associated to the 2D line. The momenta of the phonons mostly involved are indicated as “inner” and “outer”.

FIG. 23: (Color online) Lower panel: momenta of the inner and outer high symmetry phonons which mostly contribute to the 2D band. The lines are obtained from the vectors connecting the isoenergy electronic contours corresponding to that excitation energy. For example, the values for $\epsilon_L = 2.4$ eV are the moduli of the “inner” and “outer” vectors reported in Fig 21. The symbols are obtained from the maximum intensity in the $I_q$ plots (as those in Fig. 20 or in the left panels of Fig. 24) corresponding to that excitation energy. Upper panel: frequency of the “inner” and “outer” phonons reported in the lower panel.
in Fig. 20). Within the scale of the figure, the nesting vectors reproduce very well the maximum of the $I_q$, meaning that the simple picture of Fig. 21b provides a quantitative prediction of the relevant phonon momenta.

To generalize the analysis to an arbitrary laser excitation-energy, we now consider the isoenergy electronic contours as those of Fig. 21b, for different values of $\epsilon_L$. For each $\epsilon_L$, we determined the phonon $q_n$ vectors that are nesting the corresponding contours. Among these points, we consider only the vectors along high symmetry lines. In this case the nesting vectors, $q_{inner}$ and $q_{outer}$, can be easily extracted from the one-dimensional electronic-band dispersion along the high symmetry line, as schematically shown in Fig. 22. In the lower panel of Fig. 23 we report $q_{inner}$ and $q_{outer}$ obtained by the DR condition of Fig. 22 as a function of $\epsilon_L$. In Fig. 23 we also report the corresponding vectors obtained by finding the maximum intensity in the $I_q$ plots (as those in Fig. 21b) corresponding to that excitation energy. The sets of $q$ vectors obtained with these two different procedures nicely coincide.

We remark that the simplified scheme of Figs. 21b and 22 is used for the $2D'$ line, and that its validity comes “a posteriori” after the comparison with our most precise calculations. The analogous construction for the $2D'$ line works equally well, as can be seen in Fig. 24b, by comparing the nesting vector profile (dashed line) with the $I_q$ decomposition of the $2D'$ intensity.

3. Dominant directions of the Raman phonon-wavevectors

A close look at Fig. 20 reveals that the most intense contributions of $D$, $D''$, $2D$ and $D + D''$ are due to $q$ points along the high symmetry directions $K \rightarrow \Gamma$ and $K' \rightarrow \Gamma$. The $D'$ and $2D'$ bands originate from a closed line around $\Gamma$ and the most intense contributions are due to $q$ points along the high symmetry $\Gamma \rightarrow M$ direction.

To analyze the results we consider the following definitions. The intensities $I_q$ (Fig. 20) form, basically, a closed profile surrounding one high symmetry point ($K$ for the $2D$ and $2D'$ lines, and $\Gamma$ for the $2D'$). Taking the high symmetry point as the reference, we consider how the intensity of a given Raman band varies as a function of the direction $\hat{q}$ of the vector $q$. Thus, in the lower panel of Fig. 25 we plot $I_q = \int_0^\pi q dq I_q$, where the integral is done in a region containing the most intense contribution. It is also interesting to consider the intensity weighted average phonon frequency associated to a given Raman band and to a given $q$ point, $\langle \omega_q \rangle$. As example, for the two-phonon lines $\langle \omega_q \rangle = \langle \sum_{\nu,\mu} I_{pp} \langle \omega_{\nu} + \omega_{\mu} \rangle \rangle / \langle \sum_{\nu,\mu} I_{pp} \rangle$, where the sum is restricted to the corresponding frequency window. This quantity, basically, gives the frequency of the phonons associated to that Raman band. In analogy to $I_q$, we define $\langle \omega_q \rangle$ as the average of $\langle \omega_q \rangle$ along a direction $\hat{q}$ of the vector $q$. Here, also, the origin of $\hat{q}$ is $K$ for the $D$ and $2D$ lines, and $\Gamma$ for the $2D'$. Fig. 25 shows the angular dependence of the averaged phonon frequency $\langle \omega_q \rangle$ for the $D$, $2D$, and $2D'$ lines (actually, the shifts in the upper panel of Fig. 25 are obtained after an average on a small angle interval from $\theta - \Delta \theta$ to $\theta + \Delta \theta$).

Let us consider the $D$ and $2D$ bands. From Fig. 24b the phonons along the $K \rightarrow \Gamma$ directions (in literature these are usually called “inner” phonons, Fig. 22) provide a contribution which is almost four times higher than the one from the $K \rightarrow M$ ones (“outer” phonons). Contrary to the present findings, in literature it is usually assumed $[1, 10, 12]$ that the phonons which mostly contribute to the $D$ and $2D$ lines are outer phonons (along $K \rightarrow M$). Only very recently some authors have outlined the possible importance of the inner phonons ($K \rightarrow \Gamma$) $[18–22]$. The present finding is counter-intuitive and stems from the complex behavior of the scattering matrix elements in the numerators of Eq. 1. To understand this point, in Fig. 25 we show the results of calculations in which the numerators in Eq. 1 are taken as a constant (that is, independent form $k$ and $q$ as, e.g., in Eqs. 4, 5). Within this simplified approach (which completely neglects, for example, the dependence electron-phonon scattering matrix elements on $q$) the outer phonons become dominant (in Fig. 25 lower panel, the intensity has the maximum along the $K \rightarrow M$ direc-
tion for both $D$ and $2D$), in agreement with the simplified models previously used in literature, but in disagreement with our most precise calculations. Concluding, inner processes are dominant for both $D$ and $2D$ lines. A proper description of the electronic scattering matrix elements (in particular of the electron-phonon coupling) is crucial to obtain this result.

4. The width of the Raman bands

One of the most interesting feature of the simulated Raman spectra of Figs. 6 and 7 is the narrow width of the bands, which reproduces the measured spectra. The narrow width of the $D$ and $2D$ lines is indeed surprising since already at $\epsilon_L = 2.4$ eV the electronic states involved in the Raman process display an important trigonal warping (i.e. the electron isoenergy contour are angularly distorted as in Fig. 20a). In the presence of trigonal warping one should expect the excited phonons to have energy distributions in a broad range. Indeed, previous calculations\cite{14,17} did not reproduce narrow lineshape of the DR lines. The present improved description of the electronic scattering matrix elements partially explains such narrow lines. The most important role is played by the phonon energy dispersions. The upper panels of Fig. 23 show that, for the $D$, $2D$ and $2D'$ lines at $\epsilon_L = 2.4$ eV, the excited phonons have almost the same energy (within $\sim$5 cm$^{-1}$), despite the strong electron trigonal warping. This fact explains the small width of the DR Raman lines and it is due to the details of the phonon dispersion we used. Indeed, with a reasonable description of the electronic trigonal warping and using a rough description of the phonon energies, larger dispersions in frequencies (and broader Raman lines) are found\cite{17}. Ref. \cite{28} has clearly demonstrated that the phonon trigonal warping is important and that it is opposite to the electronic one. The present results show that, as already argued in Ref. \cite{28}, the interplay between the electronic and phononic trigonal warping provides a sort of cancellation. This results in the small dispersion of the phonon frequencies of the upper panel of Fig. 23 and, consequently, in the small width of the associated Raman lines.

To illustrate the concept of trigonal warping cancellations, Fig. 24 compares the line of the nesting vectors $\mathbf{q}_n$ (white dashed line, see Fig. 21d and Sec. III E2) with the iso-energy contour of the phonons having half the energy of the $2D$ (thick red lines). The two lines nicely resemble each other, meaning that all the nesting phonons have nearly the same energy and, as a consequence, the $2D$ line width is small. If the phonon isoenergy contour was different, the two lines would not superimpose and the $2D$ line would have a broader shape. The perfect cancellation of electronic and phononic trigonal warping breaks down for laser energy in the UV range. Indeed in the upper panel of Fig. 25 we report, as a function of $\epsilon_L$, the frequency associated with the inner and outer phonons. At $\epsilon_L = 2.4$ eV, the frequencies associated to inner and

![Fig. 25:](image)

*Fig. 25: (Color online) Angular dependence of the intensity (lower panels) and of the weighted average Raman shift (upper panels) for the $D$, $2D$ and $2D'$ bands. The angles are measured taking the horizontal direction in Fig. 20 as reference. Thus, for the $D$ and $2D$ bands, zero degrees is the $K\rightarrow\Gamma$ direction in the BZ, while ±60 degrees are the $K\rightarrow M$ one. For the $2D'$ band, zero degrees is the $\Gamma\rightarrow K$ direction, while, ±30 degrees are the $\Gamma\rightarrow M$ direction. In the lower panels, the solid lines correspond to our most precise calculation. Dashed lines correspond to an approximated simulations in which the electron-light, electron-phonon, and electron-defect scattering matrix elements are kept constant (see the text). Calculations are done using $\epsilon_L = 2.4$ eV, $\gamma^{tot} = 84$ meV, and hopping defects with $\alpha_{hopp} = 6.4 \times 10^{13}$ eV$^2$cm$^{-2}$.*

![Fig. 26:](image)

*Fig. 26: (Color online) Calculated $2D$ line for the excitation $\epsilon_L = 3.8$ eV and $\gamma^{tot} = 170$ meV. Top right panel: intensity vs. Raman shift. The line appears as a broad band with two maxima near 2790 cm$^{-1}$ ($2D^-$) and 2840 cm$^{-1}$ ($2D^+$). Left panels: mapping of the Raman intensity in the Brillouin zone (as in Fig. 20) of the two components $2D^− 2D^+$ obtained by integrating in the corresponding frequency windows\cite{46}. Central panels: angular dependence of the weighted average Raman shift and of the intensity, as in Fig. 25.*
The frequency shift is more dispersive than in the angular dependence of the average frequency components, 2\(q\) at \(\epsilon_L = 3.8\) eV (Fig. 26), the angular dependence of the average frequency shift is more dispersive than in the \(\epsilon_L = 2.4\) eV case. The inner phonons correspond to the highest frequency components, 2\(D^+\) at \(\sim 2840\) cm\(^{-1}\), and the outer phonons to the lowest one, 2\(D^-\) at \(\sim 2790\) cm\(^{-1}\). In Fig. 26 we also show the \(q\) vectors decomposition of the intensities of the 2\(D^+\) and 2\(D^-\) components. For the 2\(D^+\), the shape is triangularly distorted and the maximum corresponds to the inner phonons, while for the 2\(D^-\) the maximum corresponds to the outer phonons.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

We calculated the double resonant Raman spectrum of graphene with a computational method which tries to overcome the most common approximations used in literature. Calculations are done using the standard approach based on the golden rule generalized to the fourth perturbative order [10] (Eq. 11). We determined the Raman lines associated to both phonon-defect processes (defect-induced excitations of \(q\neq 0\) phonons, such as in the \(D, D',\) and \(D''\) Raman lines) and two-phonons processes (excitations in a defect-free sample of a -q and a \(q\) phonons, such as in the \(2D, 2D',\) or \(D + D''\) lines). The lowest-order processes (excitation of a \(q=0\) phonon, such as in the \(D, D',\) and \(D + D''\) lines) are not described by the present approach.

The electronic summation is performed all over the two dimensional Brillouin zone and all the possible phonons (with any wavevector) are considered. Electronic bands are obtained from a 5-neighbors tight binding (TB) approach in which the parameters are fitted to reproduce ab-initio calculations based on density functional theory (DFT) corrected with GW. This procedure provides a Fermi velocity (the slope of the Dirac cone) in good agreement with measurements and a good description of the trigonal warping. The resulting electron/hole asymmetry is not negligible. The phonon dispersion is obtained from fully ab-initio DFT calculations corrected with GW. This procedure is necessary to obtain a good description of the slope of the phonon branch associated with the \(D\) and 2\(D\) lines, near \(K\). The electron-phonon, electron-light, and electron-defect scattering matrix elements are obtained within the TB approach. The defect-induced Raman processes are simulated by considering three different kinds of model defects: i) on-site defects, obtained by changing the on-site TB parameter; ii) hopping defects, obtained by changing one of the first-neighbors hopping TB parameters; iii) Coulomb defects, corresponding to charged impurities adsorbed at a given distance from the graphene sheet, which interact with graphene through a Coulomb potential.

The electronic linewidth (the inverse of the electronic lifetime), which turns out to be a very relevant parameter, is calculated explicitly considering the contributions from electron-phonon and electron-impurity scattering. To give an idea, for \(\epsilon_L = 2.4\) eV, in the absence of defects and for zero doping, the sum of the electron and hole linewidths is \(\gamma_{\text{tot}} = 84\) meV (which is roughly two times the FWHM of the electron spectral function).

By looking at the overall shape of the typical Raman spectra, for an excitation energy of \(\epsilon_L = 2.4\) eV, the agreement between calculations and measurements is very good. In particular, all the Raman lines observed experimentally, even the small intensity ones, are present in the calculated spectra and the relative intensities among two-phonon lines (such as \(2D, 2D',\) or \(D + D''\) lines) or among phonon-defect lines (such as the \(D\) and the \(D'\) lines) are correctly reproduced (being the hopping defect the best model to study defect-induced Raman processes). The most remarkable agreement between theory and measurements relates to the line widths. Indeed, the present calculations reproduce very well the measured small widths of the \(D, D',\) and \(2D\) lines. Moreover, calculations reproduce quite well the symmetric Lorentzian shapes of the \(2D\) and 2\(D'\) lines and the asymmetric shape of \(D + D''\) band. We remark that, in the present model, the only parameter used to fit Raman measurements, \(\alpha_{\text{hopp}},\) determines the ratio of the \(D\) vs. 2\(D\) intensities but does not affect the relative intensities among phonon-defect or among two-phonon lines, the width of the lines, and their shape.

We determined how the Raman spectra change by changing the laser excitation energy \(\epsilon_L\) from 1.2 to 4.0 eV, which are the energies mainly used experimentally. All the visible lines change in position, intensity and shape. In particular, the 2\(D\) line has a small-width Lorentzian shape for \(\epsilon_L \leq 2.4\) eV and it is asymmetric and broader at \(\epsilon_L = 3.8\) eV. The measured shift of the Raman line position as a function of \(\epsilon_L\) is well reproduced for all the available measurements. The calculated spectra also display some small intensity bands associated to acoustic phonons. Some of them, such as the \(D' + D^4\) and the \(D' + D^4\) (in the 1800, 2000 cm\(^{-1}\) range) are actually visible in the measured spectra [31, 37]. Finally, for high energy excitations, e.g. \(\epsilon_L = 3.8\) eV, the most intense Raman lines (2\(D\) and \(D\)) change shape and intensity as a function of the polarization of the light. This finding is remarkable since it could lead to measurable effects.

We determined how the intensity of the main DR Raman lines is affected by various parameters such as the electronic linewidth, the excitation energy, and the defect concentration. The absolute intensity of the double resonant Raman lines is strongly affected by the actual value of the electronic linewidth, \(\gamma_{\text{tot}}\). In general, the
intensity of a DR Raman line decreases when the electronic linewidth increases (at fixed defect concentration) because the electronic broadening tends to kill the double resonance condition. According to the present findings, also the ratio of the intensities of the $2D$ and $2D'$ lines depends on $\gamma^{tot}$. This result is particularly appealing since the measurement of this ratio (followed by the comparison with the present calculations) could be used to determine experimentally the electron/hole linewidth $\gamma^{tot}$ and, in particular, its components due to defects and/or to electron-electron scattering in doped samples. We determined how the intensity ratio among various Raman lines change as a function of the excitation energy of the laser. In particular, we determined the evolution of $A(2D')/A(2D)$, $A(D + D'')/A(2D)$, $A(D'')/A(D)$, and $A(D')/A(D)$ [where $A(X)$ is the integrated area under the $X$ Raman line] as a function of the excitation energy. All these ratios considerably change in the range of excitation energies available experimentally, however measurements to compare with are not presently available.

We studied the dependence of the $D$ and $2D$ lines intensity on the defect concentration, comparing to recent measurements [7,11]. We first remind that the electronic linewidth $\gamma^{tot}$ is given by the sum of an intrinsic component $\gamma^{(ep)}$ (due to the electron-phonon interaction) and an extrinsic defect-induced component $\gamma^{(D)}$ which increases linearly by increasing the defect concentration. The intensity of the $2D$ line monotonously decreases by increasing the defect concentration $n_d$. Indeed, the $2D$ line (which is a two-phonon process) depends on $n_d$ only through the electronic linewidth $\gamma^{tot}$, which, in turn, increases by increasing $n_d$. The intensity of the $D$ line has a non-monotonic behavior. The $D$ line (which is a defect induced process) depends on $n_d$ through two distinct mechanisms: first there is a proportionality factor between the Raman intensity and $n_d$, second, the linewidth $\gamma^{tot}$ depends on $n_d$ as for the $2D$ line. For small $n_d$, $\gamma^{tot} \sim \gamma^{(ep)}$ and the $D$ intensity increases linearly with $n_d$. For high $n_d$, the dependence of $\gamma^{tot}$ on $n_d$ becomes the dominant mechanism, leading to a decrease of the intensity, as for the $2D$ line. The maximum of the $D$ intensity is reached for the defect concentration corresponding to the condition $\gamma^{(D)} \sim \gamma^{(ep)}$.

We have compared Raman spectra calculated with the three different model defects. The intensity ratio between the defect-induced $D$ and $D'$ lines strongly depends on the kind of model defect, suggesting that this ratio could possibly be tuned in actual experiments by selecting special kind of impurities on the sample. Charged impurities outside the graphene plane (Coulomb defects) could be an important source of scattering during electronic transport. However, according to the present calculations, they should provide an almost undetectable contribution to the Raman signal, the $D$ line being completely absent and the $D'$ having an intensity orders of magnitude smaller than the $2D$ line.

Finally, the analysis of the results has focused on certain specific issues currently debated.

Among the different possible DR processes, the electron-hole ones (processes in which both electronic and hole states are involved in the scattering, $ab$ in the text) are responsible for most of the Raman intensity of both the $D$ and the $2D$ lines. Several authors (e.g. [10]) describe the DR by simply considering electron-electron or hole-hole processes (processes in which only electrons or only holes are involved in the scattering, $aa$ in the text) which, according to the present findings, give a negligible contribution to the Raman intensity. The dominance of the electron-hole processes stems from the presence of a destructive quantum interference that kills the contribution of the electron-electron and hole-hole ones. This conclusion is not due to the complex details of the present calculations but can be deduced with a very simplified model, easy to implement.

The most intense contribution to both the $D$ and $2D$ lines is due to phonons along the high symmetry directions $K \rightarrow \Gamma$ (inner phonons). This is contrary to the common assumption [1,10,14] that the phonons which mostly contribute to the $D$ and $2D$ lines belong to the $K \rightarrow M$ direction (outer phonons). The present result (the dominance of the inner phonons) is counterintuitive and stems from the complex behavior of the electronic scattering matrix elements in the numerator of the double resonance scattering amplitude.

The observed small width of the $2D$ line at $\epsilon_L = 2.4$ eV is explained as a consequence of the interplay between the opposite trigonal warpings of the electron and phonon dispersions: the excited electronic states form a triangularly distorted profile having vertex along the $K \rightarrow M$ direction, while the phonon isoenergy contour is a triangularly distorted profile having vertex along the $K \rightarrow \Gamma$ direction. Because of this, the excited phonons (both the inner and the outer ones) have almost the same energy and, as a consequence, the $2D$ line-width is small. At higher excitation energies this condition is no more verified and the $2D$ line becomes broader and asymmetric. For instance at $\epsilon_L = 3.8$ eV the calculated spectrum displays two maxima corresponding to a main component at $\sim 2840$ cm$^{-1}$ (due to inner phonons) and to a less intense one at $\sim 2790$ cm$^{-1}$ (due to outer phonons).

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Appendix A: Raman double-resonant scattering amplitudes

Explicit expressions are now given for all the double resonant scattering amplitudes $K^{pd}(k,q,\nu)$ and $K^{pp}(k,q,\nu,\mu)$, which have been included in the sums of Eq. 3. The following processes are described diagrammatically in Fig. They The arguments $k, q, \nu$, and $\mu$ are dropped for simplicity. The sign $\pm$ before each $K$ is determined by the fermionic statistics of the carriers. The broadening energies $\gamma_\nu$ in the denominators of the DR scattering amplitudes $K$ are the sum of the broadenings of the corresponding electronic states (see Sec. IIF). As examples, in $K^{pd}_{ee} = K^{pd}_{hh} = \gamma_k^\pi + \gamma_k^\pi, \gamma_k = \gamma_k^\pi + \gamma_k^\pi, \gamma_k = \gamma_k^\pi + \gamma_k^\pi,$ \[\gamma_k = \gamma_k^\pi + \gamma_k^\pi.\] In $K^{pd}_{eh}$, \[\gamma_k = \gamma_k^\pi + \gamma_k^\pi, \gamma_k = \gamma_k^\pi + \gamma_k^\pi, \gamma_k = \gamma_k^\pi + \gamma_k^\pi, \gamma_k = \gamma_k^\pi + \gamma_k^\pi.\]

There are eight phonon-defect (pd) processes.

Process $ee1$: the electron is first scattered by a phonon and then by a defect,

$$K^{pd}_{ee1} = \frac{\langle k\pi|D_{out}|k\pi^\ast\rangle\langle k\pi^\ast|H_D|k + q, \pi^\ast\rangle\langle k + q, \pi^\ast|\Delta H_{q,\nu}|k\pi^\ast\rangle\langle k\pi^\ast|D_{in}|k\pi\rangle}{(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2}).}$$

Process $ee2$: the electron is first scattered by a defect and then by a phonon,

$$K^{pd}_{ee2} = \frac{\langle k\pi|D_{out}|k\pi^\ast\rangle\langle k\pi|\Delta H_{q,\nu}|k - q, \pi^\ast\rangle\langle k - q, \pi^\ast|H_D|k\pi^\ast\rangle\langle k\pi^\ast|D_{in}|k\pi\rangle}{(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2}).}$$

Process $hh1$: the hole is first scattered by a phonon and then by a defect,

$$K^{pd}_{hh1} = \frac{\langle k\pi|D_{out}|k\pi^\ast\rangle\langle k - q, \pi|H_D|k|\pi|\Delta H_{q,\nu}|k - q, \pi\rangle\langle k - q, \pi|D_{in}|k\pi\rangle}{(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2}).}$$

Process $hh2$: the hole is first scattered by a defect and then by a phonon,

$$K^{pd}_{hh2} = \frac{\langle k\pi|D_{out}|k\pi^\ast\rangle\langle k + q, \pi|H_D|k + q, \pi\rangle\langle k + q, \pi|\Delta H_{q,\nu}|k\pi^\ast\rangle\langle k\pi^\ast|D_{in}|k\pi\rangle}{(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2}).}$$

Process $eh1$: first the electron is scattered by a phonon and then the hole by a defect,

$$K^{pd}_{eh1} = \frac{\langle k + q, \pi|D_{out}|k + q, \pi^\ast\rangle\langle k + q, \pi^\ast|H_D|k + q, \pi\rangle\langle k + q, \pi^\ast|\Delta H_{q,\nu}|k\pi^\ast\rangle\langle k\pi^\ast|D_{in}|k\pi\rangle}{(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2}).}$$

Process $eh2$: first the electron is scattered by a defect and then the hole by a phonon,

$$K^{pd}_{eh2} = \frac{\langle k - q, \pi|D_{out}|k - q, \pi^\ast\rangle\langle k - q, \pi^\ast|H_D|k - q, \pi\rangle\langle k - q, \pi^\ast|\Delta H_{q,\nu}|k\pi^\ast\rangle\langle k\pi^\ast|D_{in}|k\pi\rangle}{(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2}).}$$

Process $he1$: first the hole is scattered by a phonon and then the electron by a defect,

$$K^{pd}_{he1} = \frac{\langle k - q, \pi|D_{out}|k - q, \pi^\ast\rangle\langle k - q, \pi^\ast|H_D|k - q, \pi\rangle\langle k - q, \pi^\ast|\Delta H_{q,\nu}|k\pi^\ast\rangle\langle k\pi^\ast|D_{in}|k\pi\rangle}{(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2}).}$$

Process $he2$: first the hole is scattered by a defect and then the electron by a phonon,

$$K^{pd}_{he2} = \frac{\langle k + q, \pi|D_{out}|k + q, \pi^\ast\rangle\langle k + q, \pi^\ast|H_D|k + q, \pi\rangle\langle k + q, \pi^\ast|\Delta H_{q,\nu}|k\pi^\ast\rangle\langle k\pi^\ast|D_{in}|k\pi\rangle}{(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega^\nu_q - i\frac{\gamma_k^\nu}{2}).}$$
Process $ee$: the electron is first scattered by the $\mathbf{q}\mu$ phonon and then by the $-\mathbf{q}\nu$ one,
\[
K_{ee}^{pp} = \frac{\langle k\pi|D_{out}|k\pi^*\rangle\langle k\pi^*|\Delta H_{a,u}|k - q, \pi^*\rangle\langle k - q, \pi^*|\Delta H_{-a,u}|k\pi\rangle\langle k\pi|D_{in}|k\pi \rangle}{(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega_{\nu} - \hbar\omega_{\mu} - i\frac{\rho_L}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_{k-q}^\pi - \hbar\omega_{\nu} - i\frac{\rho_L}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_{k+q}^\pi - \hbar\omega_{\mu} - i\frac{\rho_L}{2})}.
\]

Process $hh$: the hole is first scattered by the $-\mathbf{q}\nu$ phonon and then by the $\mathbf{q}\mu$ one,
\[
K_{hh}^{pp} = \frac{\langle k\pi|D_{out}|k\pi^*\rangle\langle k - q, \pi|\Delta H_{a,u}|k\pi\rangle\langle k\pi|\Delta H_{-a,u}|k - q, \pi\rangle\langle k - q, \pi^*|D_{in}|k\pi \rangle}{(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega_{\nu} - \hbar\omega_{\mu} - i\frac{\rho_L}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_{k-q}^\pi - \hbar\omega_{\nu} - i\frac{\rho_L}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_{k+q}^\pi - \hbar\omega_{\mu} - i\frac{\rho_L}{2})}.
\]

Process $hh$: the hole is first scattered by the $\mathbf{q}\mu$ phonon and then by the $-\mathbf{q}\nu$ one,
\[
K_{hh}^{pp} = \frac{\langle k\pi|D_{out}|k\pi^*\rangle\langle k + q, \pi|\Delta H_{a,u}|k\pi\rangle\langle k\pi|\Delta H_{-a,u}|k + q, \pi\rangle\langle k + q, \pi^*|D_{in}|k\pi \rangle}{(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_k^\pi - \hbar\omega_{\nu} - \hbar\omega_{\mu} - i\frac{\rho_L}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_{k-q}^\pi + \epsilon_{k+q}^\pi - \hbar\omega_{\nu} - i\frac{\rho_L}{2})(\epsilon_L - \epsilon_k^\pi + \epsilon_{k-q}^\pi - \hbar\omega_{\mu} - i\frac{\rho_L}{2})}.
\]

Appendix B: The Tight-Binding Model

Here we describe the tight-binding model which is used to calculate the electronic structure, the electron-phonon, the electron-light and the electron-defect scattering matrix elements.

1. Electronic structure

Let us call $|l, s\rangle$ the orthonormalized $p_z$ orbital of the $s$ atom (in graphene $s = 1, 2$), in the position $\tau_s$, in the cell identified by the lattice vectors $\mathbf{R}_l$ ($l = 1, \infty$). Let us consider the wavefunction (normalized in the unit cell)
\[
|k, s\rangle = \sum_l e^{ik\cdot(R_l + \tau_s)}|l, s\rangle.
\]

Given the tight-binding Hamiltonian $H$, $H_{k, s, s'} = \langle k, s|H|k, s'\rangle/N$ ($N$ is the number of cells in the crystal) is the $2 \times 2$ matrix:
\[
H_k = \begin{pmatrix} g(k) & f(k) \\ f^*(k) & g(k) \end{pmatrix},
\]
where
\[
f(k) = -t_1 \sum_{i=1,3} e^{ik\cdot\mathbf{C}_i^1} - t_3 \sum_{i=1,3} e^{ik\cdot\mathbf{C}_i^3} - t_4 \sum_{i=1,6} e^{ik\cdot\mathbf{C}_i^4}
\]
\[
g(k) = -t_2 \sum_{i=1,6} e^{ik\cdot\mathbf{C}_i^2} - t_5 \sum_{i=1,6} e^{ik\cdot\mathbf{C}_i^5} = g^*(k).
\]

Here, $t_i$ is the i-th neighbor hopping parameter. $\mathbf{C}_i^1$ are the three vectors connecting the $s = 1$ atom with its three nearest neighbors ($i = 1, 3$). More in general, $\mathbf{C}_i^1$ are the vectors connecting the $s = 1$ atom with the i-th atom in the j-th neighborhood.

By diagonalizing $H_{k, s, s'}$, \[\sum_{s'=1,2} H_{k, s, s'} a_{ks'} = c_k a_{ks},\]
one obtains the eigenvalues $\epsilon^*_{k\alpha} (\alpha = \pi, \pi^*)$ and the eigen wavefunctions $|k, \alpha\rangle = \sum_s a^s_{k\alpha} |k, s\rangle$:

$$
\epsilon^*_{k\alpha} = g(k) + |f(k)|, \quad a^*_{k\alpha} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{1}{\phi(k)} \right)
$$

where $\phi(k) = f^*(k)/|f(k)|$.

Finally, here the overlap matrix is the identity because of the use of orthonormal $p_z$ orbitals. In alternative, a precise description of the bands can also be obtained by using pristine (non-orthonormal) $p_z$ orbital with only three neighbors interaction parameters at the expense of using a non-diagonal overlap matrix (see e.g. [49, 50]).

2. Electron-phonon scattering

Given a phonon mode $\mathbf{q}\nu$, with pulsation $\omega_{\mathbf{q}\nu}$ and polarization $\epsilon^{s,c}_{\mathbf{q}\nu}$ ($s = 1, 2$ is an atomic index and $c = 1, 3$ is a Cartesian coordinate index, $\epsilon^{s,c}_{\mathbf{q}\nu}$ is normalized to 1 in the unit cell, corresponding to a displacement $\epsilon^{s,c}_{\mathbf{q}\nu}(\mathbf{R}_i+\mathbf{r}_s)$ of the $s$ atom in the $l$ unit-cell), the electron-phonon scattering matrix element is

$$
\langle k+\mathbf{q}, \alpha| \Delta H_{\mathbf{q}\nu}|k, \beta\rangle = \sqrt\frac{\hbar}{2M\omega_{\mathbf{q}\nu}} \sum_{s,c} \epsilon^{s,c}_{\mathbf{q}\nu} \times (a^s_{k+\mathbf{q}+\mathbf{r}})^\dagger \Delta H^{s,c}_{k+\mathbf{q}+\mathbf{r}k} a^c_k, \quad \text{(B4)}
$$

where $M$ is the carbon mass. All the unit cells give the same contribution and the bra-ket integration is done on the unit cell (with this choice the numerators of the scattering amplitudes are independent from the number of cells of the crystal). The $2 \times 2$ matrix $\Delta H^{s,c}_{k+\mathbf{q}+\mathbf{r}k}$ is the derivative of the TB Hamiltonian with respect to a periodic displacement (with periodicity $\mathbf{q}$) of the atom $s$ along the $c$ Cartesian coordinate. By defining $\eta_1$ as the derivative of the nearest-neighbor hopping parameter $t_1$ with respect to the bond length,

$$
\Delta H^{1,c}_{k+\mathbf{q}+\mathbf{r}k} = \sqrt{3} \eta_1 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & h_c(k) \\ h^*_c(k+q) & 0 \end{pmatrix}
$$

$$
\Delta H^{2,c}_{k+\mathbf{q}+\mathbf{r}k} = -\sqrt{3} \eta_1 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & h_c(k+q) \\ h^*_c(k) & 0 \end{pmatrix}
$$

$$
h_c(k) = \sum_{i=1,3} \epsilon \epsilon^i e^{ik \cdot C^i_c / a_0}, \quad \text{(B5)}
$$

where $C^i_c$ is the Cartesian component along the $c$ direction of $C^i_{C_1}$, and $a_0$ is the graphene lattice spacing.

3. Electron-light scattering

The electron-light interaction is calculated as

$$
\langle k\pi^+|D_{in}|k\pi\rangle = \frac{e}{\epsilon_L} F^-*_{in} (a_{k\pi}^-)^\dagger\nabla H(k)a^-_{k\pi}, \quad \epsilon_L \quad \text{(B6)}
$$

$$
\langle k\pi|D_{out}|k\pi^+\rangle = \frac{e}{\epsilon_L} F^+_{out} (a_{k\pi}^+)^\dagger\nabla H(a_{k\pi}^-),
$$

where $F^\pm_{in}$ and $F^\pm_{out}$ are the polarizations of the incident and scattered radiation, $\nabla H(k)$ is the gradient of the TB Hamiltonian and is a $2 \times 2$ matrix. $\epsilon_L$ is the incident laser energy and $\epsilon_L^\pm$ is the scattered radiation energy ($\epsilon^\pm_{in} = \epsilon_L - \hbar \omega_{\nu\mathbf{q}}^\pm$ for a $K^\pm(t_{q\nu})$ process and $\epsilon^\pm_{out} = \epsilon_L - \hbar \omega_{\nu\mathbf{q}}^\pm - \hbar \omega_{\nu\mathbf{q}}^\pm$ for a $K^\pm(t_{q\nu}, \nu, \mu)$ process).

4. Electron-defect scattering

We consider three distinct kind of defects. The electron-defect scattering operator is defined accordingly.

i) The on-site defect changes the on-site TB parameter of the atom $\tau_1$ by $\delta V_0$, in this case we will use the notation $H_D = V_{on}$ and

$$
\langle k\alpha|V_{on}|k\alpha\rangle = \frac{\delta V_0}{2}, \quad \text{(B7)}
$$

$\alpha = \pi$ or $\pi^*$. Here we have considered $\tau_1$ in the origin and here the bra-ket integration is done all over the space.

ii) The hopping defect changes the hopping parameter of two nearest-neighbor atoms connected by the vector $C^1_i$ by $\delta t_1$. $H_D = V_{hopp}$ and

$$
\langle k\alpha|V_{hopp}|k\alpha\rangle = \frac{\delta t_1}{2} \left[ \phi^*(k) e^{-ik\cdot C^1_i} + \phi(k') e^{ik'\cdot C^1_i} \right], \quad \text{(B8)}
$$

where $\phi$ is defined as in Eq. [B3]. In the calculations of the Raman scattering probability averages among the three different $C^1_i$ vectors are taken.

iii) The Coulomb defect is a Coulomb impurity with charge $e$, placed at a distance $h$ from the graphene sheet. In this case, $H_D = V_{Coul}$. The Coulomb potential in the position $r$ in the graphene’s plane is

$$
V_{Coul}(r) = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0\kappa r} \frac{1}{r^2 + h^2} = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0\kappa} \int d^2k \frac{e^{-ih\cdot r}}{k} e^{ik\cdot r}, \quad \text{(B9)}
$$

where $\epsilon_0$ the vacuum permittivity, $\kappa$ an environment dielectric constant, and the integral is performed on all the reciprocal space. By assuming that the $p_z$ orbitals are localized with respect to $a_0$ and $h$ (this is done to avoid the introduction of new parameters in the model),

$$
\langle k\alpha|V_{Coul}|k\alpha\rangle = \frac{e^2}{2\epsilon_0 a_0} \sum_G e^{-|k-k'+G|/h} \times \left[ 1 + e^{i(k-k')\cdot C^1_i h C^1_i \phi^*(k)\phi(k')} \right], \quad \text{(B10)}
$$
where the sum is done on the reciprocal lattice vectors $\mathbf{G}$ and $A_0$ is the unit-cell area.

Note that in the three cases the Raman intensity is calculated by Eqs. 3 and 4. As a consequence, for the cases of on-site and hopping defects the intensity is proportional to $\alpha_{on} = n_d \delta V_0^2$ and $\alpha_{hopp} = n_d \delta t_1^2$, respectively, being $n_d$ the impurity concentration. On the other hand, for the Coulomb impurities, the intensity is proportional to $n_d$, but it also depends on the impurity-graphene distance, $h$, as in Eq.(B10) above.

**Appendix C: Role of the phonon energies in the DR**

![Phonon Energy Diagram](image)

**FIG. 27:** (Color online) Comparison of a typical Raman spectrum (full calculation) with a test calculation in which the phonon energies in the denominators of the DR scattering amplitudes $K$ are considered zero. Calculations are done using $\epsilon_L = 2.4$ eV, $\gamma_{tot} = 96$ meV, and hopping defects with $\alpha_{hopp} = 6.4 \times 10^{13}$ eV$^2$cm$^{-2}$. All the intensities are normalized to the 2D line maximum value of the full calculation.

The Raman spectra depend on the phonon frequencies $\omega_{\mathbf{q}}^\nu$ through the energy conservation between the initial and the final states (expressed in the $\delta$ functions in Eq. 4 and through the denominators of the DR scattering amplitudes $K$ (e.g. in Eqs. 4, 5)). We performed a series of test calculations in which we consider the phonon energies $\omega_{\mathbf{q}}^\nu = 0$ in all the denominators of the amplitudes $K$ (e.g. $\omega_{\mathbf{q}}^\nu = \omega_{\mathbf{q}}^\mu = 0$ in Eqs. 4, 5). It turns out that, qualitatively, the Raman spectra are not affected. For example, the 2D line intensity is basically unchanged, while the D one remains of the same orders of magnitude (Fig. 27). We also checked that the results of Sec. III E 1 are not affected by the actual value of $\omega_{\mathbf{q}}^\nu$ in the denominators. Using the notation of Sec. III E 1, by letting $\omega_{\mathbf{q}}^\nu = 0$ in the $K$ denominators, $I_{ab} \gg I_{aa}$ and $I_{aa} \sim I_{ab}$ for both the 2D and the D lines. That is, the $ab$ processes are still, by far, the dominant ones.

**Appendix D: A Simple model**

In Sec. III E 1 we have shown that the largest part of the DR Raman spectrum is due to the processes involving the scattering of both one electron and one hole ($ab$ processes). We now show that the same conclusions are reached by considering a simple model in which the scattering matrix elements in the numerator of Eq. 1 are constant, the phonon energies in the denominators (e.g. $\hbar \omega_{\mathbf{q}}^\nu$ in Eqs. 4, 5) are neglected (see discussion in App. C), and in which the electronic bands are conic: $\epsilon_{\mathbf{k}} = \epsilon_{\mathbf{k}^\prime}$, where $\epsilon$ refers to the $\epsilon_{e1}$, $\epsilon_{e2}$, $\epsilon_{h1}$, and $\epsilon_{h2}$ processes, and $ab$ to the $\epsilon_{h1}$, $\epsilon_{h2}$, $\epsilon_{e1}$, and $\epsilon_{e2}$ ones. By using the equations of App. A one obtains,

\[
I_{aa}(q, \epsilon_L) = \left| \int \frac{d^2k}{(2\pi)^2} K_{aa}(k, \epsilon_L) \right|^2, \quad I_{ab}(q, \epsilon_L) = \left| \int \frac{d^2k}{(2\pi)^2} K_{ab}(k, \epsilon_L) \right|^2, \\
K_{aa}(k, \epsilon_L) = \frac{1}{(\epsilon_L - \hbar v_F k - i\frac{\pi}{2}) (\epsilon_L - \hbar v_F |k + q| - \hbar v_F k - i\frac{\pi}{2}) (\epsilon_L - \hbar v_F k - i\frac{\pi}{2})}, \\
K_{ab}(k, \epsilon_L) = \frac{1}{(\epsilon_L - \hbar v_F |k + q| - i\frac{\pi}{2}) (\epsilon_L - \hbar v_F |k + q| - \hbar v_F k - i\frac{\pi}{2}) (\epsilon_L - \hbar v_F k - i\frac{\pi}{2})}. 
\]

(D1)

In analogy to Sec. III E 1 $I_{aa}$ and $I_{ab}$ are obtained by considering only the modulus of the integrand, e.g. $I_{aa} = \left| \int d^2k/(2\pi)^2 |K_{aa}|^2 \right|^2$. Fig. 28 reports the intensities $I$ thus obtained for a fixed value of $\epsilon_L$, as a function of $q$ (the results do not depend on the direction of $q$). As expected from the DR picture, $I(q)$ has a maximum at $q = \epsilon_L/\hbar v_F$. Even with this simplified model, one recover the result that $ab$ processes are by far dominant: $I_{ab} \gg I_{aa}$ from Fig. 28. The importance of quantum interference effects is understood by considering that the intensities $I_{ab}$ and $I_{aa}$ (in which quantum interference effects are artificially canceled, Sec. III E 1) are very different from $I_{ab}$ and $I_{aa}$. In particular, $I_{ab}$ and $I_{aa}$ have the same order of magnitude. As already noticed in 29.
the shapes of $I(q)$ and $\tilde{I}(q)$ are very different, thus the fact that $I(q)$ is associated to a well defined narrow line is a direct consequence of quantum interference. Notice that, however, the authors of [29] consider only the $aa$ processes.

To further explain the concept of quantum interference we consider that for a fixed value of $\epsilon_L$ the resonance condition $q_r = \epsilon_L/(h v_F)$ ($\overline{q} = 2$ in Fig. 28), implies that the maximum of the intensities are

$$I_\alpha(q_r, \epsilon_L) = \int_0^\infty \frac{k dk}{2\pi} |K_\alpha(k)|^2,$$  \hspace{1cm} (D2)

where the label $\alpha = aa$ or $ab$, and $K_\alpha(k)$ are the $K$ scattering amplitudes of Eqs. (D1) calculated at $\epsilon_L$ and $q_r$, averaged over the angular dependence of $k$.

Fig. 29 shows $K_{aa}(k)$ and $K_{ab}(k)$ for realistic values of the parameters $\epsilon_L$, $\gamma$ and $v_F$. Both $K_{aa}(k)$ and $K_{ab}(k)$ have a maximum near $k = \epsilon_L/(2 h v_F)$ which corresponds to the DR condition ($\overline{K} = 1$ in Fig. 29). First we remark that, for realistic values of $\gamma$, the real, Re, and imaginary parts, Im, of the $K$ amplitudes are of the same order of magnitude. Thus, the $K$ cannot be approximated as purely real or purely imaginary numbers. Second we notice that $\text{Re}(K_{ab})$ and $\text{Im}(K_{ab})$ do not change their sign when plotted as a function of $k$. On the contrary, $\text{Re}(K_{aa})$ and $\text{Im}(K_{aa})$ change their sign (Fig. 29). Because of this, the $K_{ab}(k)$ inside the integral of Eq. (D2) add coherently, while the $K_{aa}(k)$ interfere in a destructive way. As a consequence, $I_{ab} \gg I_{aa}$, despite the fact that $K_{ab}^\dagger$ and $K_{aa}^\dagger$ are of the same order of magnitude.

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[32] Ref. [44] predicts (last sentence of Sec. II B) that for the D line, the αα processes should be weaker by a factor $\omega_{ph}/\omega_{K}$, where $\omega_{ph}$ is the K phonon pulsation. We verified by direct calculations that this relation does not apply to the present results. Indeed, by considering $\omega_{ph} = 0$ in the denominators of the Raman scattering matrix elements K (e.g. in Eqs. 4, 5) the ratio $I_{2\omega_1}/I_{\omega_1}$ increases by 25% instead of decreasing to zero as predicted by [44].
[33] In Fig. 20, the mapping of the Raman intensity in the first BZ, is done by integrating in the following frequency windows: [1040 cm$^{-1}$, 1180 cm$^{-1}$] for the D' line; [1200 cm$^{-1}$, 1520 cm$^{-1}$] for D'; [1520 cm$^{-1}$, 1720 cm$^{-1}$] for D$'$; [2380 cm$^{-1}$, 2550 cm$^{-1}$] for D + D$'$; [2550 cm$^{-1}$, 3000 cm$^{-1}$] for 2D'; [3120 cm$^{-1}$, 3300 cm$^{-1}$] for 2D'. In Fig. 26, the mapping is done by integrating in the windows: [2560 cm$^{-1}$, 2793 cm$^{-1}$] for 2D$'$; [2793 cm$^{-1}$, 3060 cm$^{-1}$] for 2D$'^*$. In Fig. 20, the mapping of the Raman intensity in the first BZ, is done by integrating in the following frequency windows: [1040 cm$^{-1}$, 1180 cm$^{-1}$] for the D$'$ line; [1200 cm$^{-1}$, 1520 cm$^{-1}$] for D$'$; [1520 cm$^{-1}$, 1720 cm$^{-1}$] for D$'$; [2380 cm$^{-1}$, 2550 cm$^{-1}$] for D + D$'$; [2550 cm$^{-1}$, 3000 cm$^{-1}$] for 2D'; [3120 cm$^{-1}$, 3300 cm$^{-1}$] for 2D'.
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