Set the initial conditions $\mathbf{r}_i(t_0)$, $\mathbf{v}_i(t_0)$

Update neighborlist

Get new forces $\mathbf{F}_i(\mathbf{r}_i)$

Potential models for diamond and zincblende structures

Solve the equations of motion numerically over time step Δt:
$$\mathbf{r}_i(t_n) \to \mathbf{r}_i(t_{n+1}) \qquad \mathbf{v}_i(t_n) \to \mathbf{v}_i(t_{n+1})$$

Perform T, P scaling (ensembles)

$t \to t + \Delta t$

Get desired physical quantities

$t > t_{max}$?

Calculate results and finish

Diamond and zincblende structure potentials

- Only three elements have the diamond (DIA) structure: C, Si, Ge
- However, since almost the whole semiconductor industry and micromechanical engineering industry is based on Si technology, the interest in studying diamond-structured semiconductors is immense.
- In addition, the most common compound semiconductors (GaAs, AlAs, InAs, etc.) have the zincblende structure, which is essentially the same as diamond except that there are 2 atom types. This further increases the interest in describing this crystal structure.

Diamond and zincblende structure potentials

• The diamond structure is (2 ways of looking at the same thing)

DIAMOND, CONVENTIONAL UNIT CELL

DIAMOND

110

110

a
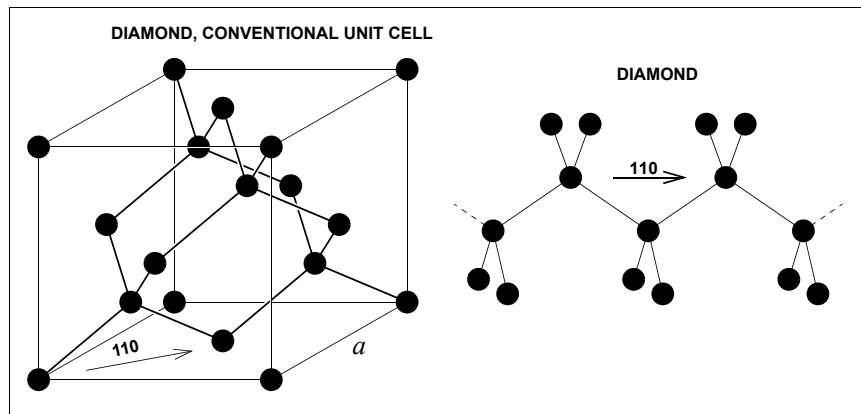
• Essentially two FCC structures inside each other which have been displaced by $\left(\frac{a}{4}, \frac{a}{4}, \frac{a}{4}\right)$ from each other.

• The unit cell has 8 atoms

• **In terms of bonding the crucial feature is that every atom has exactly 4 neighbours.** The bonds are covalent or predominantly covalent, and the nearest neighbours are distributed such that one atom is in the middle of a regular tetrahedron

• The angle between any two bonds of the same atom becomes $\cos(-1/3) = 109.47°$. Chemically this corresponds to the **sp^3** hybridization of electrons.
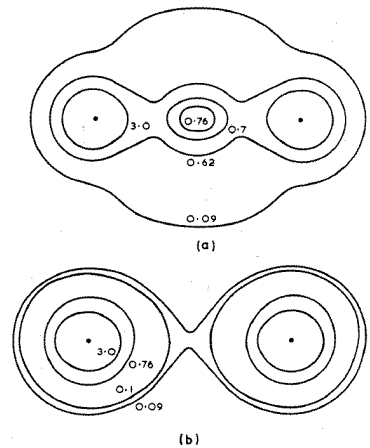
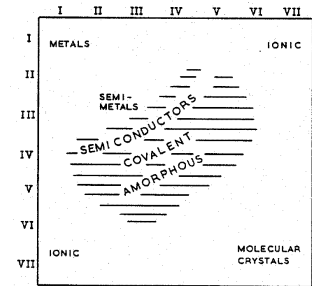## Diamond and zincblende structure potentials

• The **zincblende** structure is the same except that one FCC sublattice has atoms of one type, the other of the other type. One unit cell thus has 4 atoms of type A and 4 of type B.

ZINCBLENDE, SUCH AS:

Ga
As
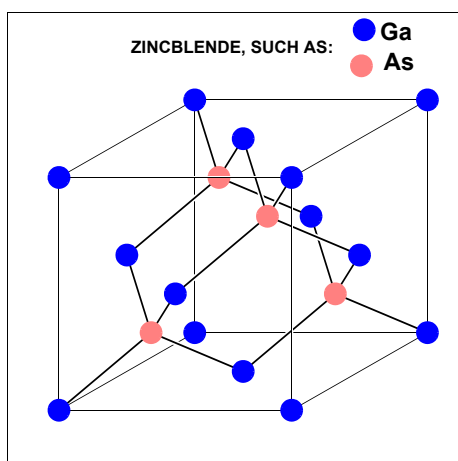
• If the (111) stacking is ...ABAB... instead of ..ABCABC... we have wurtzite

• Note the analogy: fcc ↔ hcp
   zincblende↔wurtzite

Diamond and zincblende structure potentials

- Covalent bonds
- In a covalent bonds atoms share electrons and thus in some sense achieve a filled electron shell.
- In solids covalent bonds typically form between elements which have a similar outer electron structure.
  - Some elements: C, Si, Ge, S, Se, Te
  - III-V-componds (GaAs, InP, ...)
  - II-VI-compounds (ZnSe, CdTe, ...)
  - various compounds such as SiC
  - molecular crystals (e.g. oxygen where the basic element is the O_2 molecule, H_2O etc. etc.)

- The electrons extend to the space between the atoms.
  - The electron structure of the Si_2 dimer is compared to the superposition of the density of two Si atoms:

Diamond and zincblende structure potentials

- Because of the nature of the hybridization of the electron orbitals, the covalent bonds typically have a strong directional dependence, with some preferred angles between the bonds. For instance, the energy of three atoms will depend not only on the distances $\mathbf{r}_{ij}$, $\mathbf{r}_{ik}$ and $\mathbf{r}_{jk}$ but also on the angles between them θ_{kij}, θ_{ijk} and θ_{ikj}:
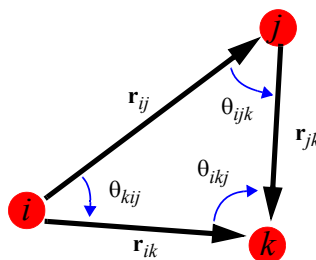
- Si has 4 outer electrons, and these can form 4 bonds with sp^3 hybridization, i.e. the angle of 109.47°.

- From this directional dependence, it also follows that the crystal (or amorphous) structure of covalent solids is often fairly open:
  - Number of nearest neighbours only 2-4, (12 in close-packed structures!).
  - Packing fraction in diamond is only 0.34, whereas it in FCC is 0.74.

Diamond and zincblende structure potentials

- **Dealing with covalent bonding: explicit angles vs. bond order**

- Before we proceed with semiconductors, let us think quite generally about the angular properties of covalent bonds.
- Since we know for any given covalently bonded material that there is one or a few angles between the bonds which give a minimum in the energy, one can immediately see a **purely geometrically motivated** way of constructing a potential: simply put in an explicit angular term which gives a minimum at the equilibrium angle θ_0.

  - For instance, consider a single water molecule H_2O. We know that the angle between the two O-H bonds is about 105°. Thus if one wants to construct an interatomic potential to describe water, one could get the structure right simply by including an explicit angular energy term of the form

$$E_{\mathrm{angular}} = K_\theta \, (\theta - 105°)^2$$

  into the potential. (Let's call these potentials "**explicit angular**".)

  - There is a problem: The minimum always at only one angle, and nowhere else.

  - However, for instance, consider the carbon allotropes graphite and diamond. In one the angle between bonds is 120°, in the other 109.47^O. The energy difference between the two phases is vanishingly small. An explicit angular potential can not possibly describe carbon in both allotropes correctly.

  - Thus although it is easy to construct explicit angular potentials for a known geometry, they do not have a fundamental physical motivation.

Diamond and zincblende structure potentials

- The Keating potential

$$E_{\mathrm{p}} = V_{\mathrm{bs}} + V_{\mathrm{bb}} \tag{2}$$

where V_{bs} and V_{bb} are the bond-stretching and bond-bending contributions, respectively:

$$V_{\mathrm{bs}} = \sum_{i \in \mathrm{bonds}} \frac{1}{2} k_i^b [b_i^2 - b_{i0}^2]^2$$

$$V_{\mathrm{bb}} = \sum_{ij \in \mathrm{angles}} \frac{1}{2} k_{ij}^\theta [b_i b_j \cos \theta_{ij} - b_{i0} b_{j0} \cos \theta_{ij0}]^2. \tag{3}$$

Here b_{i0} is the equilibrium distance of bond i and θ_{ij0} is the equilibrium angle between bonds i and j. k_i^b and k_{ij}^θ are parameters of the potential model and obtained by fitting to elastic properties of the material.
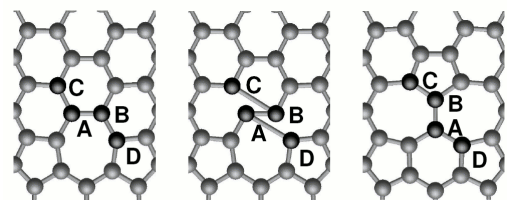

FIG. 1: The bond-switch move in a 2D example. *On the left:* The situation before the switch. *Center:* The bonds have been switched. *On the right:* The atoms have been moved to their minimum energy position.

  - Can be used when near to the equilibrium configuration and no bond breaking occurs.

  - Example of application: build amorphous Si and SiO_2 using bond-switching MC

Diamond and zincblende structure potentials

- An alternative, physically motivated approach to construct potentials for covalent systems is through the concept of "bond order".

  - By bond order one means is that the strength of a single chemical bond is affected by the chemical neighbourhood: the more neighbours an atom has, the weaker are the bonds which are formed to these atoms. This can be described in potentials of the form

    $$V = V_{\text{repulsive}}(r_{ij}) + b_{ij}V_{\text{attractive}}(r_{ij})$$

    by constructing an environment-dependent term b_{ij} which weakens the pair interaction when the number of neighbours (**coordination number**) Z of an atom is increased.
    -
      - For simplicity we here deal with cases where only bonds to nearest-neighbour atoms are considered.

  - This idea is well motivated qualitatively from basic chemistry: if an atom has N outer electrons, these can form (with other atoms of the same type in a symmetric configuration):
    - a single (dimer) bond with N pairs of electrons
    - two bonds with $N/2$ pairs of electrons
    - three bonds with $N/3$ pairs of electrons
      and so forth

  - Since for every larger number of bonds one bond has less pairs of electrons, it is quite natural that the strength of a single bond tends to decrease.

  - However, the strength of the bond is not directly proportional to the number of electron pairs in it, and the behaviour of the energy/bond may vary quite a lot from one material to another.

Diamond and zincblende structure potentials

- If the energy/bond decreases very rapidly with the coordination number, the most stable form of the atom is a dimer. If, on the other hand, the dependence is weak, the material wants to maximize its coordination number and will end up in a close-packed configuration.

  - In the limiting case of b_{ij} = constant we get a pure pair potential.

- We can thus think that the strength of bond is a monotonously decreasing function of the coordination number. The equilibrium structure is determined by the balance between the number of bonds and the single bond strength, since the total energy is the product of the two.

  - This formalism allows us to adjust how many numbers of neighbours an atom "wants to have". This now gives a physical motivation to the preferred angles between bonds: if e.g. the ideal coordination is 4, and the bonds are arranged symmetrically about an atom, one automatically gets the tetrahedral bonding configuration with an angle of 109.47$^{\text{o}}$ between the bonds.

- The great advantage here is that now the angle needs not be fixed, because it is perfectly possible to construct potentials which give the same energy for 2 different configurations. Thus one can (and as we shall se people have) constructed potentials which e.g. give local energy minima of equal depth for both the graphite and diamond configurations, thus solving the carbon problem!

Diamond and zincblende structure potentials

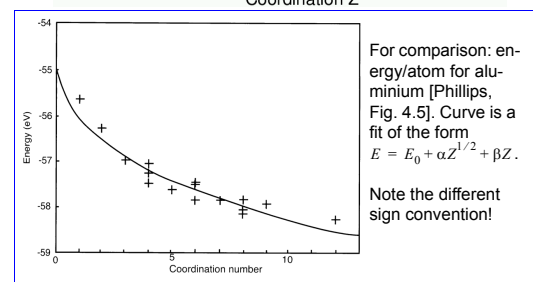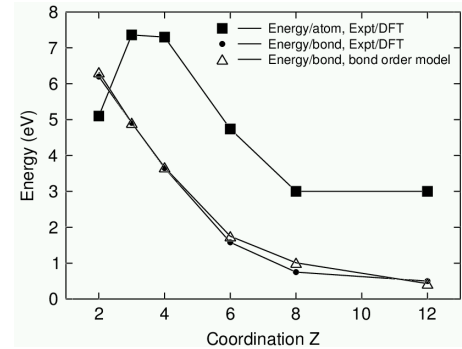- Based on pseudopotential theory Abell [*Phys. Rev. B* **31** (1985) 6184.] has argued that the term b_{ij} should be of the form $b_{ij} \propto Z^{-\delta}$ where Z is the coordination number and δ some number. More specifically, in the so called second-moment approximation of tight binding one obtains $b_{ij} \propto Z^{-1/2}$.

- Let us make all this concrete with an example: carbon. The table below shows the energy/bond and energy/atom for a number of different coordinations of carbon. The values for $Z = 2, 3, 4$ are from experiment and the values for the hypothetical phases $Z > 4$ from a DFT calculation which also reproduces the experimental values well [Furthmüller *et al*, *Phys. Rev. B* **50** (1994) 15606; data compiled in Albe *et al*, *Phys. Rev. B* **65**, 195124].

Z	Phase	Energy/atom (eV)	Energy/bond (eV)	Energy/bond bond order model
2	dimer	3.10	6.20	6.32
3	graphite	7.36	4.91	4.91
4	diamond	7.30	3.65	3.67
6	simple cubic	4.74	1.58	1.75
8	BCC	3.00	0.75	1.01
12	FCC	3.00	0.50	0.43

For comparison: energy/atom for aluminium [Phillips, Fig. 4.5]. Curve is a fit of the form $E = E_0 + \alpha Z^{1/2} + \beta Z$.

Note the different sign convention!

Diamond and zincblende structure potentials

- The last column shows a fit to the data obtained with a bond order model of the $1/\sqrt{Z}$ form. As you can see, a quite good fit is obtained for all phases, and especially the most important ones are described very well.

- Note also that the bond order model correctly predicts that graphite and diamond are almost equal in energy.

Diamond and zincblende structure potentials

- The generality of this approach was shown by Brenner [*Phys. Rev. Lett.* **63** (1989) 1022.], who proved that this form is mathematically equivalent with the EAM formalism (after suitable transformations), and specifically that if $\delta = -1/2$ one can obtain exactly the Finnis-Sinclair / Cleri-Rosato-like metal potentials:

$$E = \sum_i E_i \ , \ E_i = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j \neq i} [V_i^{\text{pair}}(r_{ij}) + V_i^{\text{mb}}]$$

- Tersoff: $V_i^{\text{mb}} = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j \neq i} B b_{ij} e^{-\lambda_2 r_{ij}} \ , \quad b_{ij} = \left[1 + \sum_{k, j \neq i} G(\theta_{ijk}) e^{-\lambda_3(r_{ij} - r_{ik})} \right]^{-\eta}$

$$\left(\text{or } b_{ij} = \left[1 + \left(\sum_{k, j \neq i} G(\theta_{ijk}) e^{-\lambda_3^3 (r_{ij} - r_{ik})^3} \right)^n \right]^{-1/(2n)} \right)$$

- EAM: $V_i^{\text{mb}} = -F \left(\sum_{j \neq i} \rho(r_{ij}) \right).$

Diamond and zincblende structure potentials

- Assuming Finnis-Sinclair form $F(\rho) = -A\rho^{1/2}$, $\rho(r) = e^{-ar}$ we get

$$V_i^{\text{mb}} = -A \left[\sum_{j \neq i} e^{-ar_{ij}} \right]^{1/2} = -A \left[\sum_{j \neq i} e^{-ar_{ij}} \right] \left[\sum_{k \neq i} e^{-ar_{ik}} \right]^{-1/2}$$

$$= -A \left\{ \sum_{j \neq i} e^{-ar_{ij}} \left[\sum_{k \neq i} e^{-ar_{ik}} \right]^{-1/2} \right\}$$

$$= -A \left\{ \sum_{j \neq i} e^{-ar_{ij}} \left[e^{-ar_{ij}} + \sum_{k \neq i, j} e^{-ar_{ik}} \right]^{-1/2} \right\}$$

$$= -\sum_{j \neq i} A e^{-ar_{ij}/2} \left[1 + \sum_{k \neq i, j} e^{a(r_{ij} - r_{ik})} \right]^{-1/2}$$

Thus if $B = 2A$, $\lambda_3 = a = 2\lambda_2$, $\eta = 1/2$, $G(\theta) = 1$ we get the Tersoff potential!

Classical Si potentials

[One important source: Balamane, *Phys. Rev. B* **46** (1992) 2250]

- Because of the directional dependence of the bonds, all decent Si potentials have some sort of an angular dependence, and hence they are at least 3-body potentials.
- Some potentials have an explicit 3-body form, i.e. the potential has the shape:

$$V = \sum_{i,j} V_2(r_i, r_j) + \sum_{i,j,k} V_3(r_i, r_j, r_k)$$

  - These potentials are called by Balamane *cluster-potentials.* They typically also are *explicit angular* potentials.
  - In other potentials the angular dependence is hidden in the 2-body part so that there is no explicit V_3 part. These are called by Balamane *cluster functionals.*
- The philosophy of the cluster functionals is similar to the EMT/EAM potentials: calculate a pair potential, but let its strength be affected by the environment. A common formulation is

$$V = V_{\text{repulsive}}(r_{ij}) + b_{ij} V_{\text{attractive}}(r_{ij})$$

  which is the same as for *bond-order* potentials.

  - Here the attractive and repulsive parts themselves are pure pair potentials, but there is a coefficient b_{ij} which has an environment-dependence. The main difference to EAM is that although they can be cast in the form above, in them b_{ij} has no angular dependence, whereas in the Si potential there must be one.

  - Hence in the Si potentials there also has to be a three-body loop $\sum_{i,j,k} (r_{ij}, r_{ik})$ which gives the angles.

Efficiency of semiconductor vs. metal potentials

- Assume the number of atoms is N and the average number of neighbours per atom is M
- A pair potential and an EAM potential is then $O(NM)$
- A three-body potential is $O(NM^2)$
- So it would appear like the Si potentials are a factor of M slower than EAM potentials.

- But this is most of the time not true in reality. This is because for covalent bonding, long-range interactions are weak compared to the nearest neighbour-ones, so it is often enough to only include nearest-neighbour interactions. So for Si $M = 4$. But in metals long-range interactions are important (e.g. for surface properties and to get the difference between the FCC and HCP phases right), so often $M \sim 50$ in metals.

- Because $4^2 < 50$ the Si potentials with three-body terms may in fact be faster than EAM potentials without one!

- But there are additional funny effects. For some Si potentials the cutoff is set so that in the crystalline phase $M = 4$, but it increases strongly in a disordered (amorphous or liquid) phase. So the speed of the potential may be strongly affected by what phase of a material is simulated!

The Stillinger-Weber-potential

- Stillinger and Weber [*Phys. Rev. B*, **31** (1985) 5262] (**SW**) developed a potential, which describes fairly well both crystalline and liquid silicon - they in fact constructed it to give the melting temperature right. The potential has become quite popular over the years because it turned out to describe well several properties which it was not really designed to describe originally (such as point defect energies and surface properties).
- The potential is an explicit angular potential, and has the form

$$V = \sum_{i,j} V_2(\boldsymbol{r}_i, \boldsymbol{r}_j) + \sum_{i,j,k} V_3(\boldsymbol{r}_i, \boldsymbol{r}_j, \boldsymbol{r}_k)$$

$$V_2(r_{ij}) = \varepsilon f_2(r_{ij}/\sigma)$$

$$V_3(\mathbf{r}_i, \mathbf{r}_j, \mathbf{r}_k) = \varepsilon f_3(\mathbf{r}_i/\sigma, \mathbf{r}_j/\sigma, \mathbf{r}_k/\sigma) \ .$$

where V_2 is the pair potential and V_3 the three-body part. The f_i are

$$f_2(r) = \begin{cases} A(Br^{-p} - 1)\exp[(r-a)^{-1}], & r < a \\ 0, & r \ge a \end{cases}$$

$$f_3(\mathbf{r}_i, \mathbf{r}_j, \mathbf{r}_k) = h(r_{ij}, r_{ik}, \theta_{jik}) + h(r_{ji}, r_{jk}, \theta_{ijk}) + h(r_{ki}, r_{kj}, \theta_{ikj}) \ ,$$

where θ_{jik} is the angle, which the vectors $\mathbf{r}_{ij}$ and $\mathbf{r}_{ik}$ make at the atom i and the function h is

$$h(r_{ij}, r_{ik}, \theta_{jik}) = \begin{cases} \lambda\exp[\gamma(r_{ij}-a)^{-1} + \gamma(r_{ik}-a)^{-1}]\left(\cos\theta_{jik} + \frac{1}{3}\right)^2, & r_{ij} < a \ \text{and} \ r_{ik} < a \\ 0, & r_{ij} \ge a \ \text{or} \ r_{ik} \ge a \end{cases} \ .$$

The Stillinger-Weber-potential

- So, in practical calculation all atom triplets being within the cut-off radius from each other must be handled.
- As a hypothetical example take the triangular lattice:
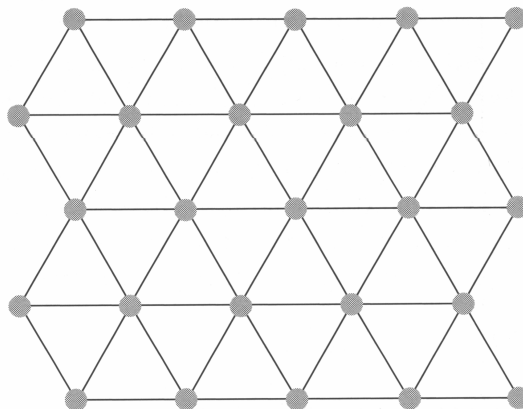
- Here the potential energy for one atom term takes the form:

$$V = 3V_2(r_{nn}) + 6h(r_{nn}, r_{nn}, 60^o) + 6h(r_{nn}, r_{nn}, 120^o) + 3h(r_{nn}, r_{nn}, 180^o).$$

- Note that in this case the Stillinger-Weber would not work!
- However, in the diamond lattice all the bond pairs of a single atom have the same angle.

The Stillinger-Weber-potential

- The constants A, B, p, a, λ and γ are all positive and were determined by demanding that the diamond structure is the most stable one and that the melting point, cohesive energy and lattice parameter are about right.

- According to rumours the potential was also fit to the elastic constants (which are reproduced fairly well), although the authors never stated this in the paper!

- The actual parameter values are

$$\sigma = 2.0951\,\text{Å}, \varepsilon = 2.1672\,\text{eV},$$
$$A = 7.0496, B = 0.60222,$$
$$p = 4, \ a = 1.80,$$
$$\lambda = 21.0 \text{ and } \gamma = 1.20 \ .$$

- The melting point was fit to be almost exactly right with a rather dirty trick: the authors modified the cohesive energy to get the melting point close to the right value of 1685 K. The cohesive energy of the potential is 4.334 eV, when the right value is 4.63 eV. So this is a 7% mismatch. If this is corrected by direct scaling, the melting point will go wrong.

The Stillinger-Weber-potential

- The authors examined the structure of molten Si by comparing the maxima and minima of the structure factor $S(k)$ to measured values:

	MD	measured
1. maximum	2.53	2.80
1. minimum	3.25	3.25
2. maximum	5.35	5.75
3. maximum	8.16	8.50
4. maximum	10.60	11.20

- The potential describes fairly well melting and liquid Si. However, it is important to realize that the angle between bonds is 'forced' to the ideal tetrahedral angle with the cosine term $(\cos\theta_{jik} + (1/3))^2$. This is not a good feature, because of the reasons given above for "explicit angular" potentials.

The Stillinger-Weber-potential

- However, SW describes the Si (001) surface better than the Tersoff potentials [Nurminen *et al.*, *Phys. Rev. B* **67** (2003) 035405.]
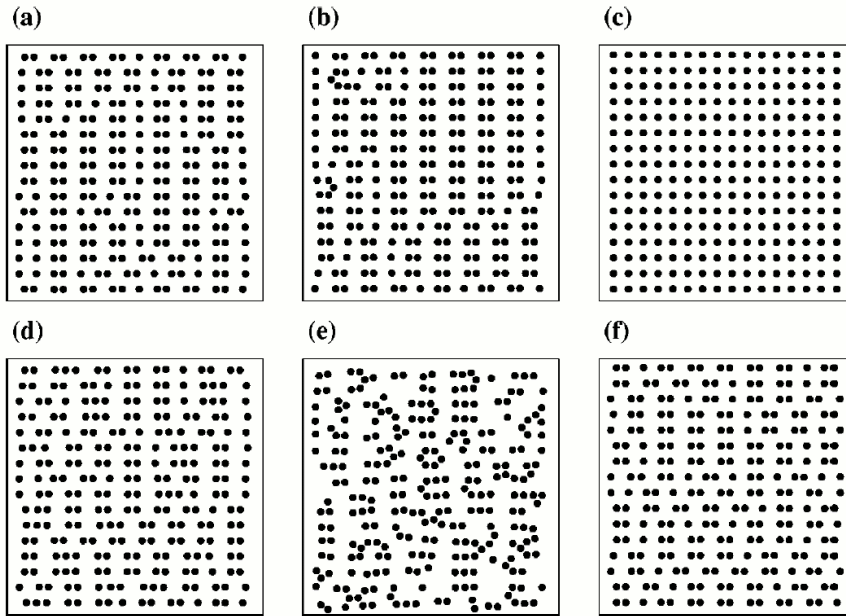

FIG. 2. Typical *metastable* surface configurations obtained from a regular MC run at $T = 116$ K (upper row) and at $T = 812$ K (lower row) using the SW potential (a) and (d), the $T2$ potential (b) and (e), and the $T3$ potential (c) and (f). The configurations are averages over 20 000 MC steps after initial run of 20 000 MC steps. All atoms were initially placed in diamond lattice positions.

The EDIP potential

- The EDIP-potential is fairly similar to the SW one, but it has been derived from an *ab initio*-calculated database of the cohesive properties of Si both in the diamond and graphite phases.

- The potential is:

$$E_i = \sum_{j \neq i} V_2(R_{ij}, Z_i) + \sum_{j \neq i} \sum_{k \neq i, k > j} V_3(\vec{R}_{ij}, \vec{R}_{ik}, Z_i), \quad (1)$$

$$Z_i = \sum_{m \neq i} f(R_{im}) \quad (2)$$

$$f(r) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } r < c, \\ \exp\left(\dfrac{\alpha}{1 - x^{-3}}\right) & \text{if } c < r < a, \\ 0 & \text{if } r > a, \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

$$V_2(r, Z) = A\left[\left(\frac{B}{r}\right)^\rho - p(Z)\right] \exp\left(\frac{\sigma}{r - a}\right), \quad (4)$$

$$p(Z) = e^{-\beta Z^2}. \quad (5)$$

$$V_3(\vec{R}_{ij}, \vec{R}_{ik}, Z_i) = g(R_{ij}) g(R_{ik}) h(l_{ijk}, Z_i), \quad (6)$$

$$g(r) = \exp\left(\frac{\gamma}{r - a}\right), \quad (7)$$

$$h(l, Z) = H\left(\frac{l + \tau(Z)}{w(Z)}\right), \quad (8)$$

$$h(l, Z) = \lambda\left[(1 - e^{-Q(Z)(l + \tau(Z))^2}) + \eta Q(Z)(l + \tau(Z))^2\right]. \quad (9)$$

$$\tau(Z) = u_1 + u_2(u_3 e^{-u_4 Z} - e^{-2u_4 Z}), \quad (10)$$

with the choice $w(Z)^{-2} = Q(Z) = Q_0 e^{-\mu Z}$

The EDIP potential

- So the main difference to SW is the environment-dependence in the form of the effective coordination number Z, which modifies the terms.

- The potential is available in the web
  http://www-math.mit.edu/~bazant/EDIP/
  including Fortran and C codes by which it can be evaluated efficiently.

- The parameter-values are:

TABLE I. Values of the parameters that define the potential, obtained from a simulated annealing fit to the database described in the text.

$A = 7.9821730$ eV	$B = 1.5075463$ Å	$\rho = 1.2085196$
$a = 3.1213820$ Å	$c = 2.5609104$ Å	$\sigma = 0.5774108$ Å
$\lambda = 1.4533108$ eV	$\gamma = 1.1247945$ Å	$\eta = 0.2523244$
$Q_0 = 312.1341346$	$\mu = 0.6966326$	$\beta = 0.0070975$
$\alpha = 3.1083847$		

The EDIP potential

- As required in a good fit, a large number of other properties have also been tested in the potential, the most important of which is that the diamond structure is the minimum of several common crystal structures:

- But note that EDIP does overestimate the energy of many other phases fairly much compared to DFT.

- Among the best properties of the EDIP potential is that it reproduces the elastic constants very well, gives both good point defect, stacking fault and dislocation properties, and describes amorphous Si well. Also the melting point is described well, the potential predicts 1550 ± 50 K [Nord *et al, PRB* **65** (2002) 165329], quite close to the experimental value of 1685 K.

- The thermodynamical properties of EDIP-Si have been studied by P. Keblinski *et al.*,[*Phys. Rev. B* **66** (2002) 064104.]

TABLE II. Energy and lattice parameters for high-symmetry structures. Here we consider the ground-state diamond cubic (dc), face-centered-cubic (fcc), body-centered-cubic (bcc), simple cubic (sc), and hexagonal-close-packed (hcp) crystals. For dc, the cohesive energy per atom E_c^{dc} is given in eV, while for the other crystals the difference of the cohesive energy E_c from the ground state dc crystal, $\Delta E = E_c - E_c^{dc}$, is given. All lattice constants a_o are for the conventional unit cells in Å. For the hexagonal crystals we also give the c/a ratios. We also compute the lattice constant and binding energy of an isolated hexagonal plane (hex). For this comparison we use the SW potential with the rescaled cohesive energy for the ground state, as described in Ref. 2.

		DFT/LDA	EDIP	SW	T2	T3
dc	E	-4.65	-4.650	-4.63	-4.63	-4.63
	a_o	5.43	5.430	5.431	5.431	5.432
sc	ΔE	0.348	0.532	0.293	0.343	0.318
	a_o	2.528	2.503	2.612	2.501	2.544
bcc	ΔE	0.525	1.594	0.300	0.644	0.432
	a_o	3.088	3.243	3.245	3.126	3.084
fcc	ΔE	0.566	1.840	0.423	0.548	0.761
	a_o	3.885	4.081	4.147	3.861	3.897
hcp	ΔE	0.552	0.933	0.321	0.551	0.761
	a_o	2.735	2.564	3.647	2.730	2.756
	c/a	1.633	2.130	0.884	1.633	1.633
hex	ΔE	0.774	0.640	1.268		
	a_o	3.861	4.018	4.104		

The EDIP potential

- For example the radial distribution function of amorphous Si compared to experiments is reproduced fairly well:

- The EDIP potential clearly is one of the best Si potentials available now, most tests of its properties have been quite favourable to it.
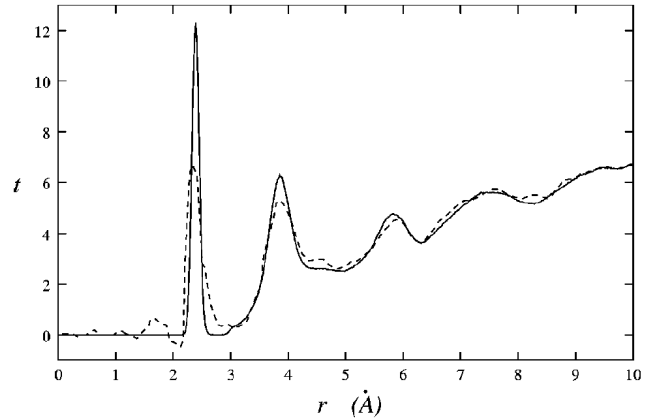
FIG. 11. Radial distribution function $t(r) = 4\pi\rho r g(r)$ for the amorphous phase at room temperature and zero pressure using our model, compared with the results of neutron-scattering experiments on pure evaporated-beam-deposited a-Si thin films by Kugler *et al.* (Ref. 68).

- Another new Si potential is [Lenosky *et al.*, *Modelling and Simulation in Materials Science and Engineering* **8** (2000) 825]. This is a combination of EAM and SW models, which gives truly excellent fits to a large number of elastic constants, different structures and defect properties. However, it contains some questionable features (such as a negative electron density for some distances r) so its transferability outside the parameter database to which it has been originally fit is questionable.

Tersoff potential

- The Tersoff potential [first good Si fit in *Phys. Rev. B* **38** (1988) 9902] is a cluster-functional and bond order potential which has an environment dependence and no absolute minimum at the tetrahedral angle. Tersoff based his potential on the ideas presented by Abell a few years earlier. The Tersoff or more appropriately **Tersoff-Abell formalism** is probably the most widely used bond order potential formalism and has become the basis or inspiration for a huge number of potentials developed since then.

Tersoff-like potentials are pure bond order potential motivated by the approach presented a few pages back in these notes, i.e. of the form:

$$V = V_{\text{repulsive}}(r_{ij}) + b_{ijk}V_{\text{attractive}}(r_{ij})$$

- The original Tersoff potential has the following form. The total energy is

$$E = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i \neq j} V_{ij} \quad ,$$

where

$$V_{ij} = f_{\text{C}}(r_{ij})[a_{ij}f_{\text{R}}(r_{ij}) + b_{ij}f_{\text{A}}(r_{ij})] \ .$$

Tersoff potential

- The various terms have the following forms:

  repulsive part $\quad f_R(r) = A e^{-\lambda_1 r}$,

  attractive part $\quad f_A(r) = -B e^{-\lambda_2 r}$,

  potential cutoff function

  $$f_C(r) = \begin{cases} 1, & r \le R - D \\ \dfrac{1}{2} - \dfrac{1}{2}\sin\left(\dfrac{\pi}{2}\dfrac{(r-R)}{D}\right), & R - D < r < R + D \\ 0, & r \ge R + D \end{cases} ,$$

  and

  $$b_{ij} = (1 + \beta^n \zeta_{ij}^n)^{-1/2n} ,$$

  $$\zeta_{ij} = \sum_{k \ne i,j} f_C(r_{ik}) g(\theta_{jik}) \exp[\lambda_3^3 (r_{ij} - r_{ik})^3] ,$$

  $$g(\theta) = 1 + \frac{c^2}{d^2} - \frac{c^2}{d^2 + (h - \cos\theta)^2} ,$$

  $$a_{ij} = (1 + \alpha^n \eta_{ij}^n)^{-1/2n} \text{ and } \eta_{ij} = \sum_{k \ne i,j} f_C(r_{ik}) \exp[\lambda_3^3 (r_{ij} - r_{ik})^3] .$$

Tersoff potential

- Here, as above, the distance between atoms i and j is r_{ij} and the angle between bonds ij and ik is θ_{jik}.
- Inspection of the terms shows that there is an angular dependence, but because is embedded inside the b_{ij} term, it does not give a fixed minimum angle between bonds.
- The relation to the bond order potential basic formalism is as follows: if $n = 1$, $c = 0$, $\beta = 1$, and $\lambda_3 = 0$ we get the "pure" bond order potential with

  $$b_{ij} = \left[1 + \sum_{k \ne i,j} f_C(r_{ik}) \right]^{-1/2} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{Z_i}} .$$

  Note that the sum excludes atom j that is taken into account by adding one.

- Tersoff could not find a parameter set $\{A, B, \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \alpha, \beta, n, c, d, h, \lambda_3, R, D\}$ which would describe well both the reconstructed Si surfaces and its elastic properties. Because of this he gave two parametrizations: Si C, which describes well elastic properties, and Si B, which gives good surface properties. Tersoff's Si A is the original potential which proved to be unstable. Si(B) is also known as Tersoff 2 and Si(C) as Tersoff 3.

|	Si(B)/T2	Si(C)/T3
A (eV)	3264.7	1830.8
B (eV)	95.373	471.18
λ_1 (Å^{-1})	3.2394	2.4799
λ_2 (Å^{-1})	1.3258	1.3722
α	0.0	0.0
β	0.33675	1.0999×10^{-6}
n	22.956	0.78734
c	4.8381	1.0039×10^{5}
d	2.0417	16.218
h	0.0	-0.59826
λ_3 (Å^{-1})	1.3258	1.7322
R (Å)	3.0	2.85

	Si(B)/T2	Si(C)/T3
D (Å)	0.2	0.15

Tersoff potential

- The parameter λ_3 is an interesting case: it does not affect the equilibrium properties at all, only properties far from equilibrium. Tersoff himself said it can be set to 0, and this is often done. However, in far-from-equilibrium studies it has proven to be best to include λ_3.

- Note also that since $\alpha = 0$, the two last equations in the potential form are meaningless (give exactly 1). Although Tersoff have these two equations, I am not aware of any case where they would actually have been used.

Tersoff potential

- Below is a comparison of the energies and bond lengths obtained with Tersoff for different coordination numbers compared to experimental and *ab initio*-calculations.
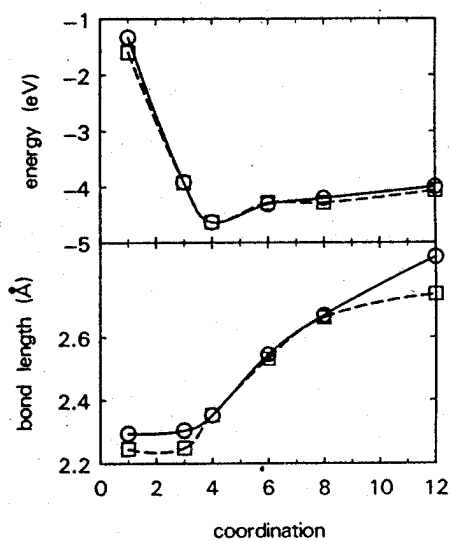
Why should anyone care about e.g. 12-fold coordinated Si?
Although some coordination numbers may not exist in the ground state, they may still be present e.g. in defects, surfaces and metastable molecules.

Comparison of Si potentials

- Balamane & co have done an extensive comparison of Si potentials, looking e.g. at bulk, surface, defect and small molecule properties. [H. Balamane, T. Halicioglu, W. A. Tiller, *Phys. Rev. B* **46** (1992) 2250.]. Unfortunately EDIP was not part of this comparison.

- Included were the SW, and Tersoff potentials Si(B) [T2] and Si(C) [T3]. Also included were the Biswas-Hamann potential (BH) [PRL 55 (1985) 2001, PRB 34 (1986) 895.], the Tersoff-like Dodson potential [DOD; *Phys. Rev. B* **35** (1987) 2795.] and the potential by Pearson *et al.* (PTHT; *Cryst. Growth.* **70** (1984) 33.].
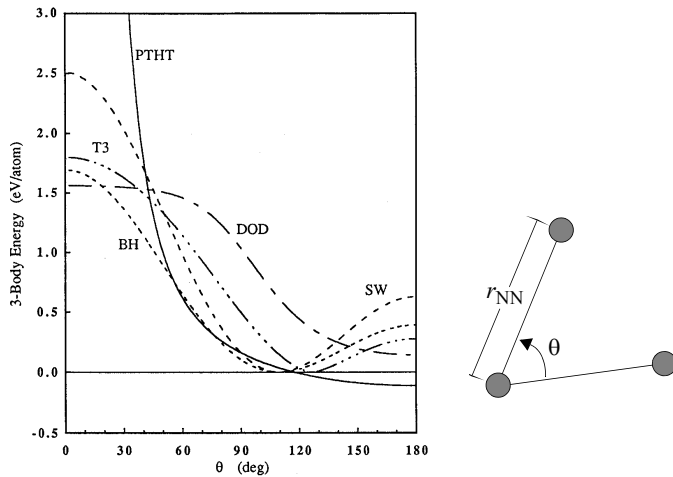
Comparison of Si potentials

- Below is the pair term of the potentials $V_2(r)$. The spheres are *ab initio* results.
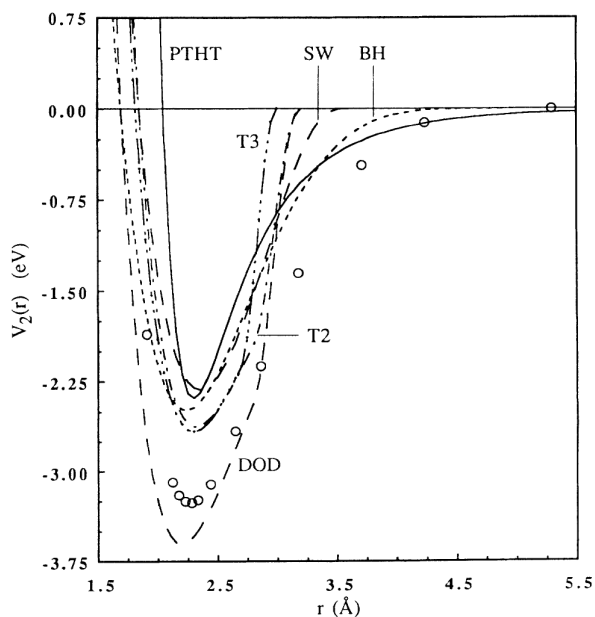
- We see that except for DOD the potentials are fairly similar. BH and PTPH have a long range compared to the others.

Comparison of Si potentials
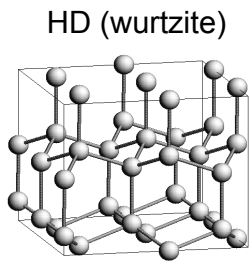
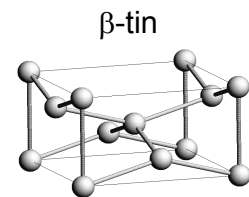• Here is the energy of three Si atoms/atom:

• Note that the energy becomes fairly large for small angles for all the potentials.
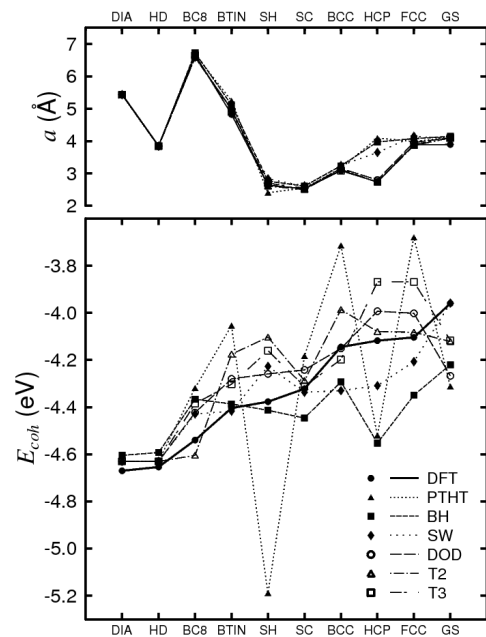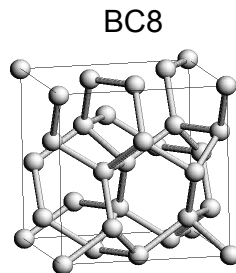
Comparison of Si potentials

• In the adjacent picture the cohesive energies of different structures are shown, compared to DFT calculations.

  • Note that PTHT predicts that the simple hexagonal struc-
    ture is the most stable one.

β-tin

DIA	= diamond
HD	= hexagonal diamond
BC8	= bc-8
BTIN	= β–tin
SH	= hexagonal
SC	= cubic
BCC	= body-centered cubic
HCP	= hexagonal close-packed
FCC	= face-centered cubic
GS	= graphite

HD (wurtzite)   BC8

Good source of crystal structures:
http://cst-www.nrl.navy.mil/lattice/index.html

Comparison of Si potentials

- And below are the elastic properties of the potentials

	experiment	PTHT	BH	SW	DOD	T2	T3
B	0.99	2.788	1.692	1.083	0.884	0.98	0.98
B'	4.2	7.82	5.66	2.93	4.27	4.58	4.30
c_{11}	1.67	2.969	2.042	1.616	1.206	1.217	1.425
c_{12}	0.65	2.697	1.517	0.816	0.722	0.858	0.754
c_{44}	0.81	0.446	0.451	0.603	0.659	0.103	0.690
c_{44}^0	1.11	2.190	1.049	1.172	3.475	0.923	1.188
ζ	0.74	1.03	0.74	0.63	1.06	0.83	0.67
$\nu_{TA}(X)$	4.4	4.5	5.6	6.7		2.7	9
$\nu_{TO}(X)$	13.9	19.3	14.5	15.9		15.3	16
$\nu_{LOA}(X)$	12.3	13.8	12.2	13.1		11.7	12
$\nu_{LTO}(\Gamma)$	15.3	18.3	16	18.1		16.5	16

$$[B], [c_{ij}] = \text{Mbar}, [\nu] = \text{THz}, B' = \frac{dB}{dP}$$

- We see that T3 and SW give good elastic properties. Lattice vibrations are described well by the BH potential.

Comparison of Si potentials

- And here are a bunch of energies for lattice defects.

	DFT	PTHT	BH	SW	DOD	T2	T3
V	3-4	0.77	2.12	2.82	2.57	2.81	3.70
	4.5	2.50	3.83	4.63	3.23	2.83	4.10
		38.5	-25.7	-24	14.7	1	10.5
V_S	4.19	2.83	2.30	3.36	4.17	1.40	3.50
	5.01	4.53	4.72	6.00	8.12	4.15	10.5
	-9.5	-15.9	-12.5	-11.8	-14.5	-14.9	-8.8
I_T	5-6	0.63	1.56	5.25	3.03	5.03	3.45
		1.91	4.57	12.21	5.00	5.85	6.92
		3.8	8	9	9.1	7.3	10.5
I_H	4-5	0.84	2.89	6.95	2.61	3.67	4.61
		5.32	9.31	17.10	5.1 1	5.39	8.22
		7.4	11.5	14.7	7.3	7.6	10.2
I_B	4-5	1.92	2.54	5.99	4.39	2.84	5.86
I_S		1.47	3.30	3.66*	3.49	2.32	4.70

V = vacancy

V_S = split vacancy

I_T = tetrahedral interstitial

I_H = hexagonal interstitial

I_B = bond-centered interstitial

I_S = split interstitial.

The first number is the energy of the ground state, the second the energy of the ideal (non-relaxed) structure, and the third gives the radial relaxation of the nearest neighbours in percent (negative value inwards, positive outwards).

* Note that Balamane had an error here, this is determined by K. Nordlund.

- The table tells predominantly that the short-range potentials (SW, DOD, T2, T3) describe defects best. SW is good in that it predicts that the simple vacancy and split interstitial are the ground state defects, which agrees with ab initio results for uncharged defects.
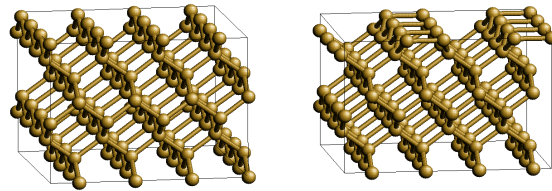
Comparison of Si potentials

• Finally a table of the properties of the Si (100) surface:

	DFT	PTHT	BH	SW	DOD	T2	T3
1×1							
γ	2.5	1.805	2.080	2.315	1.779	2.015	2.126
σ_{xx}	2.535	1.176	1.421	0	0	0	0
σ_{yy}	0.855	2.363	1.683	0	0.145	0.625	-0.236
1×1 relaxed							
$\Delta\gamma$	-0.03	-0.077	-0.027	0	-0.085	-0.004	-0.037
σ_{xx}		-0.427	0.848	0	0.515	0.023	0.076
σ_{yy}		-2.176	0.273	0	-2.775	0.080	-1.693
Δ	-5.1	-7.0	-5.5	0	-10.2	-2.3	-7.2
2×1							
$\Delta\gamma$	-0.93	-0.690	-0.709	-0.899	-0.714	-1.258	-0.759
σ_{xx}	0.693	-0.808	0.669	1.167	-0.094	0.703	0.367
σ_{yy}	-1.945	-1.731	0.008	-0.051	-1.709	0.190	-1.236
Δ	-24.4	-23.3	-13.3	-8.3	-22.9	-14.6	-15.6

	DFT	PTHT	BH	DOD	T2	T3
c2×2						
$\Delta\gamma$	-0.839	-0.703	-0.824	-0.720	-1.143	-0.753
σ_{xx}	-1.356	0.898	1.691	0.274	1.517	0.865
σ_{yy}	-1.419	0.851	0.574	-0.866	0.567	-0.344

Si 1×1   Si 2×1

Si c(2×2): buckling of dimers

γ =surface energy (eV)
$\Delta\gamma$ =change in surface energy from 1x1
σ_{ii} =surface tension tensor (x in the direction of the dimer bond and y in the direction of the dimer row)
Δ = distance change between 1. and 2. layer (%).

Comparison of Si potentials

• The conclusions of the authors are that no potential is clearly superior. Different potentials describe different properties well.

SW, **T3** and to some extent **DOD** are good for elastic properties

T3, SW, DOD, T2 and **BH** give fairly good values for the point defects, to the extent this is possible to judge considering that the experimental values are not known very well either!

The (100) surface is described best by **BH, SW** and **T3**. No potential describes the complicated reconstructions of the (111) surface.

• **EDIP** was not part of this comparison, but it is clear it would be among the best at least for the elastic and defect properties.

MEAM models

- There also exist so called MEAM (modified EAM) models for Si. This is basically EAM to which an angular term has been added:

$$E_{\text{tot}} = \sum_i F_i(\rho_i) + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{ij} V_{ij}(r_{ij})$$

$$\rho_i = \sum_{j \neq i} \rho^a(r_{ij}) + \sum_{k,\, j \neq i} \rho^a(r_{ij})\rho^a(r_{ik})g(\cos\theta_{ijk})$$

- Baskes has developed some models, but is apparently not quite satisfied with them.

- Applied (in addition to metals) to e.g. silicides (TaSi, MoSi; electronic components!)

Potentials for semiconductor alloys

- The alloys of Si are something of a hot topic.

- Silicon carbide is interesting both for its mechanical hardness as well as its possibilities in high-voltage or high-current electronics.

- Silicon-germanium compounds ($Si_{1-x}Ge_x$) again are very interesting because by adding some 20 % Ge to Si one can get the electron mobility (and hence integrated circuit speed) about as high as in GaAs, about twice the value in Si. But because the device is still based on Si, one does not have to change to the more complicated GaAs manufacturing technology.
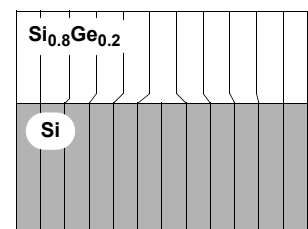
- In $Si_{1-x}Ge_x$-compounds there is, however, the problem that their lattice constant does not match that of Si (on top of which the SiGe is grown). The latest promising word is then $Si_{1-x-y}Ge_xC_y$ where x ~ 0.2 and y ~ x/10. That is, only a few years ago someone realized that by adding a little bit of carbon one can get a perfect lattice match to Si.
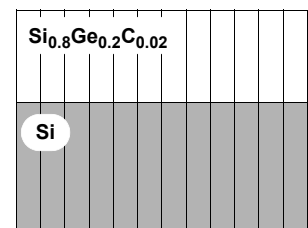
- For instance because of this it is interesting to have models for SiGe-, SiGeC and SiC-compounds.

Potentials for semiconductor alloys

- The Stillinger-Weber potential has two Ge-parametrizations [Ding and Andersen, *Phys. Rev. B* **34** (1986) 6987 and Wang and Stroud, *Phys. Rev. B* **38** (1988) 1384]. Out of these, the Ding and Andersen potential has: $\sigma = 2.181$ Å and $\varepsilon = 1.93$ eV; the other parameters are identical to Si. Wang-Stroud is like Ding-Andersen except that $\lambda = 31$.

  - One can construct a SiGe compound potential simply by taking the geometric average of the Si and Ge parameters:

$$\sigma_{SiGe} = \sqrt{\sigma_{Si}\sigma_{Ge}}$$
$$\varepsilon_{SiGe} = \sqrt{\varepsilon_{Si}\varepsilon_{Ge}}$$
$$\lambda_{SiGe} = \sqrt{\lambda_{Si}\lambda_{Ge}}$$

- There is also actually a SW-parametrization for C [Pailthorpe and Mahon, Thin Solid Films **192/193** (1990) 34], but this should normally not be used - since SW has a minimum for sp^3 bonding, but carbon also can be favourably in the triply bonded graphite sp^2 configuration, with bond angles of $120^{o\circ}$, the SW parametrization is of very limited usability.

- But in describing the lattice compensation of $Si_{1-x-y}Ge_xC_y$ for y ~ 0.01 the combination of the three SW potentials actually does correctly reproduce the good lattice match to Si.

Potentials for semiconductor alloys

- Tersoff has also developed potentials for SiC and SiGe [*PRB* **39** (1989) 5566.]. The formalism is almost the same as for his Si potential:

$$E = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i \neq j} V_{ij} \quad, \quad V_{ij} = f_C(r_{ij})[f_R(r_{ij}) + b_{ij}f_A(r_{ij})] \quad,$$

$$f_R(r_{ij}) = A_{ij}e^{-\lambda_{ij}r_{ij}} \quad, \quad f_A(r_{ij}) = -B_{ij}e^{-\mu_{ij}r_{ij}} \quad,$$

$$f_C(r_{ij}) = \begin{cases} 1, & r_{ij} \leq R_{ij} \\ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\cos\pi\left(\dfrac{r_{ij} - R_{ij}}{S_{ij} - R_{ij}}\right), & R_{ij} < r_{ij} < S_{ij} \quad, \\ 0, & r \geq S_{ij} \end{cases}$$

$$b_{ij} = \chi_{ij}(1 + \beta_i^{n_i}\zeta_{ij}^{n_i})^{-1/2n_i} \quad, \quad \zeta_{ij} = \sum_{k \neq i,j} f_C(r_{ik})\omega_{ik}g(\theta_{ijk}) \quad,$$

$$g(\theta_{ijk}) = 1 + \left(\frac{c_i}{d_i}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{c_i}{d_i^2 + (h_i - \cos\theta_{ijk})}\right)^2$$

Potentials for semiconductor alloys

- Here the indices i and j on the parameters denote the atom types. The mixed parameters $\lambda_{ij}, \mu_{ij}, A_{ij}, B_{ij}, R_{ij}, S_{ij}$ are obtained by interpolation from the elemental parameters:

$$\lambda_{ij} = \frac{\lambda_i + \lambda_j}{2} \;,\;\; \mu_{ij} = \frac{\mu_i + \mu_j}{2} \;,\;\; A_{ij} = \sqrt{A_i A_j} \;,\;\; B_{ij} = \sqrt{B_i B_j} \;,\;\; R_{ij} = \sqrt{R_i R_j} \;,\;\; S_{ij} = \sqrt{S_i S_j} \;.$$

- A new parameter is χ by which the mixed potential can be finetuned. Tersoff set $\chi_{ii} = 1$ and $\chi_{ij} = \chi_{ji}$, so there is only one free parameter for the mixed interactions, all the others are determined from the elemental parameters. Moreover, ω_{ik} could be used to finetune the mixed interactions but Tersoff set $\omega_{ik} = 1$

Potentials for semiconductor alloys

- The parameter values for C, Si and Ge were obtained from a fit to the properties of different structures, and the finetuning parameters χ were obtained from the cohesive energies of SiC and (hypothetical) zinc-blende SiGe. The Si parameters are just Si(C) without λ_3 .

	C	Si	Ge
A (eV)	1393.6	1830.8	1769
B (eV)	346.7	471.18	419.23
λ (Å)	3.4879	2.4799	2.4451
μ (Å)	2.2119	1.7322	1.7047
β	1.5724×10^{-7}	1.1000×10^{-6}	9.0166×10^{-7}
n	0.72751	0.7873	0.75627
c	3.8049×10^{4}	1.0039×10^{5}	1.0643×10^{5}
d	4.384	16.217	15.652
h	-0.57058	-0.59825	-0.43884
R (Å)	1.8	2.7	2.8
S (Å)	2.1	3.0	3.1

$$\chi_{\text{C-Si}} = 0.9776 \quad \chi_{\text{Si-Ge}} = 1.00061$$

Potentials for semiconductor alloys

- The potential gives the following properties for SiC:

	Tersoff	Expt.
a (Å)	4.32	4.36
B (Mbar)	2.2	2.2
c_{11} (Mbar)	4.2	3.6
c_{12} (Mbar)	1.2	1.5
c_{44} (Mbar)	2.6	1.5

- Tersoff also calculated the energies for a few stoichiometric defects (eV):

	Tersoff	DFT
$V_{Si} + V_C$	7.4	12.7
$C_{Si} + Si_C$	7.2	8.4
$Si_{TC} + C_{TSi}$	22.6	23.3
$Si_{TSi} + C_{TC}$	23.2	26.0
$C_{TC} - C_{TSi}$	3.0	2.4

Here

V_{Si} is the Si vacancy,

C_{Si} is a carbon atom on an Si site, and

C_{TSi} a C atom on a tetrahedral site, surrounded by C atoms.

Potentials for semiconductor alloys

- The potential predicts the properties of SiC fairly well, especially considering that the potentials has only one parameter which is really fit to the properties of the compound (χ). And even this parameter is fairly close to 1. Only the shear modulus c_{44} and the formation energies of vacancies are pretty bad.

- One problem here is that in reality SiC is partly ionic in its bonding, which is not accounted for at all in the Tersoff potentials. One potential where this is taken into account is [Shimojo, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **84** (2000) 3338] but this potential uses explicit angles so it is also problematic

- Nowadays also a wealth of reparametrizations exist for the Tersoff formalism SiC potential - it seems almost every group working on SiC has made their own parametrization...

C potentials

- Constructing a potential for elemental C is complicated (as noted above) because it has two structures which are practically identical in energy: diamond and graphite. Both have a cohesive energy of about 7.4 eV. The structure of graphite is:
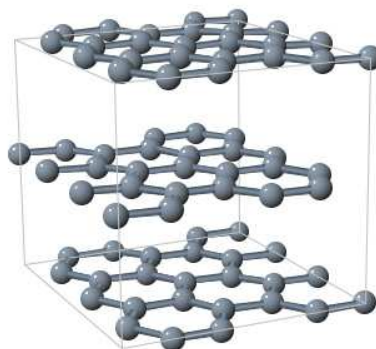
- As noted above, this situation clearly can not be described with an explicit angle potential, but a bond order potential like Tersoff can handle this.

C potentials

- The Tersoff parametrization for C does, however, describe both bonding types well [Tersoff, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **61** (1988) 2879], and is clearly the most used C potential in the materials physics community.
- But it describes the graphite-to-diamond potential poorly. But simply by increasing the parameter S in the potential to 2.46 Å [Nordlund *et al.*, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **77** (1996) 699] one can make this transition much better described:
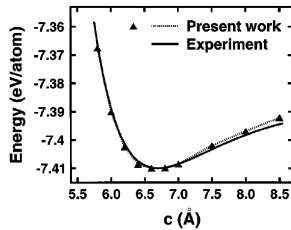
FIG. 1. Total energy per atom of graphite as a function of the graphite lattice c parameter. The solid line shows the experimental curve, the triangles and dotted line result from our potential.
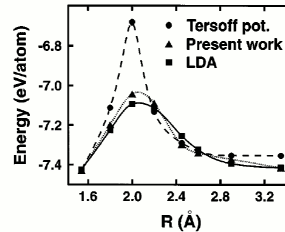
FIG. 2. Total energy per atom of the diamond to rhombohedral graphite transformation as a function of the interlayer distance R parameter. The squares show the energy given by *ab initio* calculations in Ref. [22], the circles the result of the original Tersoff potential, and the triangles the result of our potential. The lines are drawn to guide the eye.
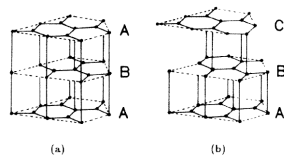
C potentials

FIG. 1. The crystal structure of (a) hexagonal and (b) rhombohedral graphite showing the different stacking of the layers.
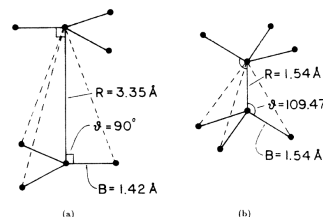
Fahy *et al. Phys. Rev. B* **34** (1986) 1191.

FIG. 2. The local structure of (a) rhombohedral graphite (b) diamond. The dashed lines indicate the basis vectors of the rhombohedral lattice. The [111] direction of the usual cubic description of the diamond lattice is vertical.

C potentials

- But there is a significant problem with the Tersoff C potential: because of its short cutoff, it does not describe the interaction between graphite layers at all.

- There are two good solutions to this.

  - Nordlund *et al.* have made an extension to the Tersoff potential which does describe the interaction between graphite layers well [*Phys. Rev. Lett.* **77** (1996) 699]. However, the additional terms are very weak except precisely for configurations very close to the flat graphite layers, and do not have a deep physical motivation

  - A more general formulation which includes Lennard-Jones-like long-range potentials for many carbon bonding types (including polymers) by Stuart *et al.* [*J. Chem. Phys.* **112** (2000) 6472].

Ge-potentials

- As we saw above, pure Ge has two almost identical SW-parametrizations, and the Tersoff parametrization, which are all fairly good in the crystalline phase.

- But they all severely overestimate the melting point of Ge, giving about 2500 - 3000 K when the experimental value is 1210 K.

- Nordlund *et al.* tried to solve this in the same way as Stillinger and Weber obtained the right melting point for Si, i.e. decreasing the cohesive energy [*Phys. Rev. B* **57** (1998) 7556]. By decreasing the cohesive energy in the SW potential by 18 % (i.e. setting ε = 1.56 eV) they obtained a melting point 1230 $\pm$ 50 K, and at the same time the threshold displacement energy and mixing coefficient (important in ion irradiation physics) obtained reasonable values.

  - But it is clear that this kind of solution is problematic.

Potentials for compound semiconductors

- Compound semiconductors are an interesting alternative to Si in some applications, especially opto-electronics.

- A Keating-type potential [Schabel and Martins, *Phys. Rev. B* **43** (1991) 11873] has been designed which can describe a large variety of semiconductors when the atoms are close to the ideal sites, but the model is absolutely terrible when the atoms are farther because it has a a harmonic ("r^2")-potential well.

- For GaAs there is the Smith potential, based on the Tersoff formalism [*Nucl. Instr. Meth. Phys. Res.* B **67** (1992) 335], which uses all the normal Tersoff parameters for Ga-Ga, Ga-As and As-As separately, except that $\lambda_3 = 0$. But this potential has a vanishingly small angular term, and hence all shear moduli are almost exactly 0.

- Sayed started from the Smith parametrizations, but fitted anew the Ga-As-interactions, and constructed an AlAs-potential. The GaAs potential is terrible because the zincblende-structure is not its ground state! However, by setting $\lambda_3 = 0$ it becomes fairly decent.

- Ashu made a potential for InAs following Sayed's approach, but this potential even has the wrong lattice spacing! However, Janne Nord has later made a reparametrization which describes InAs stably [Nordlund *et al., Comput. Mater. Sci.* **18** (2000) 283].

Potentials for compound semiconductors

- There also exist a tight-binding-based Tersoff-like parametrization by Conrad *et al,* [*Phys. Rev. B* **58** (1998) 4538] but this potential is terrible far from the ground state, it collapses into a state with at least a factor of 2 lower energy than the correct zincblende structure.

- The most recent approach is a modified Tersoff-like parametrization which gives the correct ground states for Ga, As and GaAs, as well as good melting properties for all three [Albe *et al.*, *Phys. Rev. B* **66**, 035205 (2002)]. The only major problem is As-rich surfaces and defects.

- There is also a potential for GaN in this formalism.
- Modeling also like-ion interactions: e.g. Ga and As has many complex structures

Potentials for compound semiconductors

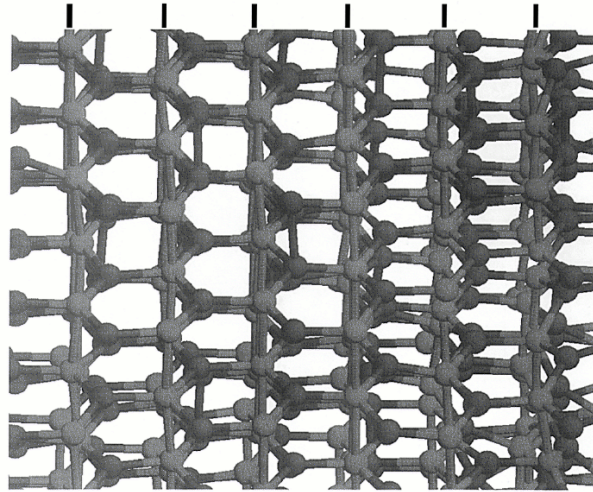- Ground state of the Sayed potential for GaAs:

Fig. 2. Structure of crystalline GaAs described by the Sayed potential after a 4 ns simulation at 600 K. The Ga and As atoms are still in the same planes; for clarity the Ga planes are marked by thick black lines in the upper part of the figure. The bonding information is calculated using a distance cutoff of 3.5 Å, corresponding to the Sayed potential cutoff parameter R for Ga–As interaction [8]. Note that Ga–Ga and As–As bonds (which would not be present in the correct zincblende structure) have formed between the atoms. The potential energy of this phase is about -3.30 eV, less than the zincblende value of -3.25 eV.

Bond order potentials for metals and compounds

- As noted in the description of bond-order potentials above, they are actually equivalent to the basic EAM form. Hence nothing actually prevents from constructing metals potentials from a bond order, e.g. Tersoff-like form.

- People in the Accelerator Laboratory and Karsten Albe have done this, so far for Pt, Ni and W, obtaining potentials which are at least as good as the common EAM-like potentials for the same metals.

- The Pt and Ni potentials were constructed together with a fit to the metal-carbon compound. Again a quite decent potential was obtained, showing that the bond order concept carries further even to complex compounds. The PtC part is published in [Albe *et al.*, *Phys. Rev. B* **65**, 195124 (2002)].