Extended Si \{311\} defects

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We perform total-energy calculations based on the tight-binding Hamiltonian scheme (i) to study the structural properties and energetics of the extended \{311\} defects depending upon their dimensions and interstitial concentrations and (ii) to find possible mechanisms of interstitial capture by and release from the \{311\} defects. The generalized orbital-based linear-scaling method implemented on the Cray T3D is used for supercell calculations of large-scale systems containing more than 1000 Si atoms. We investigate the \{311\} defects systematically from few-interstitial clusters to planar defects. For a given defect configuration, constant-temperature molecular-dynamics simulations are performed at 300–600 K for about 1 psec to avoid trapping in the local minima of the atomic structures with small energy barriers. We find that interstitial chain structures along the (011) direction are stable interstitial defects with respect to isolated interstitials. The interstitial chains provide basic building blocks of the extended \{311\} defects, i.e., the extended \{311\} defects are formed by condensation of the interstitial chains side by side in the (233) direction. We find that successive rotations of pairs of atoms in the [011] plane are mechanisms with a relatively small energy barrier for propagation of interstitial chains. These mechanisms, together with the interstitial chain structure, can explain the growth of the \{311\} defects and related structures such as V-shape bend structures and atomic steps observed in transmission electron microscopy images. [S0163-1829(97)03123-8]

I. INTRODUCTION

The decreasing size of semiconductor devices requires precise control of device structures, particularly dopant distributions. Ion implantation introduces energetic charged atomic particles in a substrate for the purpose of changing electrical, metallurgical, and chemical properties of the substrate. The wide use of ion implantation is due to its precise control over total dopant doses, depth profiles, and the area uniformity. However, ion implantation induces transient enhanced diffusion (TED) of dopants: The diffusivity of the dopants is abnormally enhanced for a transient period of time after ion implantation. Many studies have suggested that lattice damages, introduced during ion implantation, are responsible for fast diffusion of dopants.

In particular, the diffusivity of boron during annealing in ion-implanted samples is enhanced by many orders of magnitude greater than B diffusivity in a thermal equilibrium. This transient enhanced diffusion of B places limitations of the use of B⁺ implantation in fabricating submicron devices. Boron TED occurs due to excessive Si interstitials, which are created by B⁺ implantation and contribute to the fast diffusion of B. The boron diffusion via pairing of B and Si interstitials has been supported by experiments and theories. Experiments observe enhancement of the B diffusivity when Si interstitials are selectively injected by surface oxidation and by Si⁺ implantation. First-principle calculations reported that the activation energy of B diffusion associated with Si interstitials is the lowest among possible diffusion mechanisms. Therefore, the concentration of Si interstitials after the ion implantation and during the thermal annealing process is an important parameter to determine the final depth profile of B in the ion-implanted samples.

The concentration of Si interstitials depends on (i) the ion implantation conditions, i.e., the incident energy and the dose, and (ii) the temperature at which thermal annealing is performed. Implantation at a higher incident energy or with a higher dose of the ions generates more Si interstitials. As the name transient enhanced diffusion indicates, the enhancement factor of the B diffusivity decays as the thermal annealing proceeds, and eventually the diffusivity of the B converges to that in a thermal equilibrium. The temporal extent of the enhanced diffusion of B decrease at higher annealing temperatures since the excessive Si interstitials migrate to the regular lattice sites in a shorter period of time. It is observed that the temporal extent (duration of the boron TED) is exponentially activated. The activation energy, depending on the ion implantation conditions, shows a large variance: 1–5 eV.

This activation energy summarizes complex processes for B diffusion in ion-implanted samples: generation, diffusion, and annihilation of the Si interstitials as well as the interactions of B with the B and Si interstitials. Recently, Eaglesham et al. and Stolk et al. suggested that emission of Si interstitials from particular extended defects, namely, \{311\} defects, causes the boron TED. They observed that the dissolution of the \{311\} defects occurs at the same time and the temperature conditions as boron TED. The extended \{311\}
defects are detected under B$^+$ implantation at an incident energy of few tens of keV (Refs. 3 and 10) and the corresponding activation energy of the boron TED was obtained at 3–5 eV.$^5$ The high value of the activation energy can be related to the stability of the \{311\} defects with respect to isolated interstitials. However, boron TED has been also observed without detecting any macroscopic defect, when the energy of the B$^+$ implantation decreases below 10 keV.$^6$ A lower activation energy (about 1 eV) was estimated for this low-energy ion implantation. This low-energy B$^+$-implantation experiment suggests that the formation of stable \{311\} defects depends on the interstitial concentrations. Furthermore, the observation of boron TED in the absence of the observable \{311\} defects suggests that microscopic interstitial clusters may exist and contribute to the B diffusion by releasing interstitials at a lower energy cost. It is possible that the microscopic interstitial clusters are related to the \{311\} defects and the formation and dissolution of the defects, from the interstitial clusters to the extended \{311\} defects, can be explained by common mechanisms.

The proposition that the \{311\} defects are formed by condensation of interstitials and provide interstitial sources during boron TED has been supported by experiments using a variety of procedures to inject Si interstitials into bulk systems: The \{311\} defects are observed to be formed by surface oxidation,$^4$ by GeV-electron irradiation,$^{11}$ and by ion implantations.$^{10}$

The \{311\} defects are often called rodlike because they are typically elongated along the \{011\} direction as much as 1 μm.$^{11,12}$ The width of the \{311\} defects ranges 1–100 nm along the \{233\} direction, perpendicular to the elongation direction. The name \{311\} defects indicates the observed habit plane$^3$ on which the rodlike defects lie, namely, the \{311\} plane formed by the \{011\} and \{233\} directions.

Here we present total-energy calculations based on the tight-binding Hamiltonian scheme (i) to study the structural properties and energetics of the \{311\} defects as a function of their dimensions and interstitial concentrations and (ii) to find possible mechanisms of interstitial capture by and release from the \{311\} defects. We investigate the \{311\} defects systematically from few-interstitial clusters to planar defects. Our results can be summarized as follows.

(i) \textit{Interstitial chain: The basic building block of the \{311\} defects.} We show that an interstitial chain along the \{011\} direction is stable with respect to isolated interstitials. The formation energy of the interstitial chains, $E^\text{form}_i = 2$ eV per interstitial, is smaller than the formation energies of isolated interstitials, 3–5 eV. Interstitial chains constitute basic building blocks of the \{311\} defects, i.e., extended defects on the \{311\} habit plane can be constructed by arranging the interstitial chains along the \{233\} direction (Secs. III and IV A).

(ii) \textit{Stability of the \{311\} defects.} Interstitial chains along the \{011\} direction are stable against the isolated interstitials if they contain more than two interstitials. The formation energy per interstitial decreases linearly with the length of the interstitial chains along the \{011\} directions. More stable extended \{311\} defects than isolated interstitial chains are formed by condensation of interstitial chains along the \{233\} direction. The interstitial concentration of the most stable \{311\} defect, a planar defect, is $5 \times 10^{14}$/cm$^2$ (Secs. III, IV B, and VII).

(iii) \textit{Growth mechanism.} The stability dependence of the \{311\} defects on the interstitial concentration indicates that finite-size interstitial clusters capture interstitials to grow into the interstitials chains along the \{011\} direction. The elongated interstitial chains are then further stabilized by capturing interstitials or interstitial chains side by side along the \{233\} direction. This growth mechanism based on the stability study is in good agreement with the experimental claims that the elongation of the rodlike \{311\} defects along the \{011\} direction precedes the growth in the width along the \{233\} direction (Sec. IV B).

(iv) \textit{Propagation of the interstitial chains.} We propose a mechanism that can account for the motion of interstitial chains in the direction perpendicular to the chain direction with a relatively small energy barrier. Successive rotations of pair atoms on the \{011\} plane displace the interstitial chains. The growth of the \{311\} defects along the \{233\} direction can be explained by propagations of interstitial chains that are attracted to and captured by the already existing \{311\} defects. We show that V-shaped bend structure and atomic steps found in the transmission electron microscopy (TED) images can be formed by combinations of the interstitial chains and the planar rotations (Secs. V and VI).

\section*{II. \textbf{Calculation Details}}

We perform total-energy calculations based on a linear-scaling method in a tight-binding representation,$^{14}$ using supercell methods at the Γ point. A tight-binding (TB) Hamiltonian developed by Kwon \textit{et al.} is used to study the defect structures. This TB Hamiltonian gives a good description of the relative energies and equilibrium volumes of the diamond structure and the metallic phases. One flaw of this Hamiltonian is that its ground-state structure of the crystalline silicon is the c lattice structure, which has the same coordination of the diamond structure and consists of five- and six-member rings.$^{15}$ We find the calculated cohesive energy of the c lattice structure is indeed 0.07 eV lower than that of the diamond structure. In addition, the optical phonon frequencies of the diamond structure are overestimated by 30% compared to the experimental values. However, this TB Hamiltonian describes the elastic properties of the diamond structure with an error less than 5% compared to experiments and gives the formation energies of the point defects such as vacancies and interstitials, which are in good agreement with those by the local-density approximation (LDA) calculations.$^{17–21}$ The validity and accuracy of this TB Hamiltonian to describe the diamond structure has been addressed by several calculations which show good agreement with the LDA calculations: reconstructions of the Si(100) surface$^{22}$ and the 90° partial dislocations in Si (Ref. 24) and hydrogenated amorphous Si.$^{25}$

The total-energy calculations of defects requires large supercells to obtain converged formation energies, mainly due to the long-range structural relaxation. We use the orbital-based linear-scaling method implemented on the Cray T3D.$^{25}$ We choose a spherical localization of 6 Å for less than 1% error in the total energy (about 30 meV per atom) compared to those obtained by exact calculations by
structures are given properly and constant-temperature molecular-dynamics (MD) simulations are performed at 300–600 K for about 1 psec to avoid trapping in the local minima of the atomic structures with small energy barriers. Then atomic positions are fully relaxed by using the steepest-descent method until the atomic force on each atom is less than 0.01 eV/Å. The effective temperature of the relaxed ionic configuration is less than 0.1 K.

We define the formation energy of a defect structure that contains \( N_{\text{int}} \) interstitials and \( N_{\text{bulk}} \) Si atoms in a computational cell as

\[
E_f = E_{\text{tot}}[N_{\text{int}} + N_{\text{bulk}}] - \frac{N_{\text{int}} + N_{\text{bulk}}}{N_{\text{bulk}}} E_{\text{tot}}[N_{\text{bulk}}]. \tag{1}
\]

The formation energy per interstitial \( E_{\text{int}}^f = E_f/N_{\text{int}} \) is used to compare defects at a wide range of interstitial concentrations. A smaller \( E_{\text{int}}^f \) corresponds to a more stable interstitial defect. Calculations using the LDA (Refs. 17–20) and using the TB Hamiltonian\(^{15} \) found that the \( \langle 110 \rangle \) interstitialcy is the most stable point defect with a formation energy of 3.2–3.9 eV. Our total-energy calculation using a 1000-Si supercell gives \( E_{\text{f}}^{\langle 110 \rangle} = 3.9 \) eV.

A binding energy of interstitials with respect to isolated interstitials is defined as

\[
-E_b = E_f - E_{\text{int}}^f \tag{2}
\]

for \( E_{\text{int}}^f \), the formation energy of an isolated \( \langle 110 \rangle \) interstitialcy. A positive binding energy of a defect containing interstitials indicates that the interstitial defect is stable with respect to isolated interstitials.

### III. INTERSTITIAL CHAINS ALONG THE \( \langle 011 \rangle \) DIRECTION

Here we discuss an interstitial chain structure that is stable against isolated interstitials and constitutes a building block of the \{311\} defects. The interstitial chain structure in Fig. 2 shows that interstitial chains along the \( \langle 011 \rangle \) direction can be inserted into bulk Si without introducing any dangling bond by stacking pair interstitials with a periodicity of \( L_{\alpha} \). This arrangement of interstitials along the \( \langle 011 \rangle \) direction is favorable since only two dangling bonds would be required for any finite-length interstitial chain.\(^{4,26} \) Since the number of dangling bonds per interstitial is inversely proportional to the length of the chain, the interstitial chain becomes more stable as it grows along the \( \langle 011 \rangle \) direction. The interstitial chain structures have also been used for an atomic model of planar \{311\} defects by Takeda et al.\(^{27–30} \)

The most simple defect configuration containing interstitial chains, the structure in Fig. 2(a), is obtained by inserting an interstitial chain into bulk Si. By adding two interstitials per plane, two bonds (dotted line) are broken and two seven-member rings are introduced along the \( \pm \{311\} \) directions.

The six-member ring at the center turns into two adjacent five-member rings. The bond-angle distortion ranges from \(-23^\circ\) to \(20^\circ\) and the bond-length distortion from \(-0.13\) to \(0.03\) Å. This chain configuration is a stable interstitial complex with a relatively small formation energy per interstitial, \( E_{\text{int}}^f = 2.2 \) eV, compared to that of isolated interstitials (3–5 eV).
TABLE I. Formation energy per interstitial, $E_{\text{int}}^f$, in Eq. (1), and the binding energy, $E^b$ in Eq. (2), of few-interstitial clusters. The interstitial clusters are constructed by inserting interstitial chains between bulk layers whose length is at least 6$L_{\text{c0}}$ along the [011] direction. The length of an $N_{\text{int}}$-interstitial cluster along the [011] direction is $N_{\text{int}} L_{\text{c0}} / 2$. The orientation of the computational cells is chosen according to the symmetry of the interstitial chains. The bottom row shows $E_{\text{int}}^f$ and $E^b / N_{\text{int}}$ for the line defect–infinite interstitial chains along the [110] direction (Fig. 2). The size dependence of $E_{\text{int}}^f$'s shows that the interstitial clusters can trap interstitials to form more stable elongated structures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$N_{\text{int}}$ (eV)</th>
<th>$E^f / N_{\text{int}}$</th>
<th>$E^b$</th>
<th>$E^b / N_{\text{int}}$</th>
<th>$E^f / N_{\text{int}}$</th>
<th>$E^b$</th>
<th>$E^b / N_{\text{int}}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>-1.6</td>
<td>-0.8</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>-2.0</td>
<td>-1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\infty$</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$a$Orientations of the computational cells: [011]×[322]×[311].

$b$Orientations of the computational cells: [011]×[011]×[100].

1.7 eV per interstitial and the corresponding bond-angle and bond-length distortions are $-15^\circ$–$20^\circ$ and $-0.1$–$0.03$ Å. We label the structure in Fig. 2(b) as an I chain on the {100} plane and that in Fig. 2(c) as an I chain on the {311} plane, based on the symmetry of the interstitial chains. These stable interstitial chains constitute basic building blocks of the {311} defects. Arranging interstitial chains side by side in the (233) direction results in the formation of even more stable extended defects lying on the {311} plane.

The small formation energy per interstitial (<2 eV) of the interstitial chain structures in Figs. 2(b) and 2(c) suggests that microscopic defects containing only a few interstitials may exist as stable structures as well. Interstitial clusters containing 2–6 interstitials are constructed by inserting finite-length interstitial chains into bulk Si. Table I gives the formation energies per interstitial ($E_{\text{int}}^f$) of finite-size interstitial clusters. Generally, $E_{\text{int}}^f$ decreases as the size of interstitial defects increases, while the binding energy increases. This $E_{\text{int}}^f$ dependence on the number of interstitials, i.e., the length of the interstitial chain, is consistent with experimental observation that the rodlike defects are extended along the ⟨011⟩ direction as long as 1 μm.11,12,28 The elongation of the ⟨311⟩ defects in the ⟨011⟩ direction is the consequence of the formation of the energetically favorable interstitial chain structures. This observation agrees with the energetic argument based on the minimum dangling-bond ratio of the ⟨011⟩ chain structures.

Table I shows that microscopic defects containing more than two interstitials are stable with respect to isolated interstitials.32 A binding energy per interstitial can be interpreted as an average energy required to release interstitials from the interstitial clusters and the interstitial chains. The energy cost to evaporate interstitials increases as the size of the interstitial cluster grows: A smaller interstitial cluster would be dissolved at a lower annealing temperature or in a shorter period of time. Recent experiments reported boron...
macroscopic defects are detected. The lack of extended defects is believed to grow by adding interstitial chains along the [233] direction. It has been observed that the rodlike defects elongated along the [011] direction grow thicker along the [233] direction, when there is a constant supply of interstitials. Possible configurations consisting of two interstitial chains are shown in Fig. 3. Extended [311] defects can be constructed by adding more interstitial chains along the [233] direction. As seen in Fig. 3, the {311} habit plane of the defects is made of two orthogonal directions, the ⟨011⟩ and ⟨233⟩ directions. In forming defects extended along the [233] direction, the arrangement of interstitial chains should satisfy following conditions: when two interstitial chains are separated by $L_{y0}/2$ as in Fig. 3(a), the pair include an $I^7$ and an $I^7$; when separated by $L_{y0}$, the pair consist of two identical interstitial chains, two $I^7$’s as in Fig. 3(b) or two $I^7$’s. Otherwise, dangling bonds are introduced and the corresponding distortions in bond angles become much larger than typical bond-angle distortions of ±20° of the stable {311} defects. Indeed, molecular-dynamics simulations at 600 K about 1 psce remove such configurations.

A different structure, an eight-member ring, is shown in Fig. 3(b). When two interstitial chains are separated by $L_{y0}$ in the [233] direction, there are three possible configurations: an eight-member ring ($O_8$), a seven-member ring ($O_7$), and a six-member ring ($O_6$). The three structures between two interstitial chains are related to each other by the same kind of planar rotations in Fig. 2. The eight-member ring in Fig. 3(b) can be converted into an $O_7$ or an $O_6$ unit by rotations of the solid bonds (heavy lines) on the [011] plane. An atomic model proposed by Takeda uses the eight-member ring as a basic unit in constructing the planar defects. However, we consider three possibilities, the $O_8$, $O_7$, and $O_6$ units between two interstitial chains separated by $L_{y0}$. For all the structures we have studied, the six-member rings ($O_6$) between interstitial chains are found to be unstable with respect to the $O_8$ or $O_7$ units. A structure that forms a boundary between the defects and the bulk Si is denoted as $E_7$ according to the notation introduced by Kohyama and Takeda. Similarly to the eight-member rings, the seven-member rings ($E_7$) can be converted into six-member rings ($E_6$) by planar rotations of the solid bonds in Fig. 3.

**B. Energetics**

The formation energies of rodlike {311} defects containing few interstitial chains are listed in Table II. For example, the $E_7\overline{I}O_8\overline{I}E_7$ model structure has the following elements: $I$, interstitial chains; $O_8$, eight-member rings between the interstitial chains; and $E_7$, seven-member rings at the defect boundaries. Among possible combinations of the $O$ and $E$ units for the given arrangement of interstitial chains, configurations with a lower formation energy are listed in Table II. The rodlike defects become more stable with increasing number of interstitial chains ($I$ units) in the [233] direction as seen from the $E_{in}$’s of Table II: the formation energy decreases (i) when interstitial chains are added side by side in the [233] direction with a distance $L_{y0}/2$ [Table II, (a) → (e)] and (ii) when interstitial chains are added in the [233] direction in the presence of an $O$ unit [Table II, (f) → (i)].

As seen in Table II, the eight-member rings ($O_8$) are stable when they are separated by a distance equal to or larger than $L_{y0}$. The formation energy of the $E_7\overline{I}O_8\overline{I}E_7$ model structure is lowered by 0.1 eV by transformation of the $O_6$ unit to a seven-member ring ($O_7$). On the other hand, the eight-member ring of $E_7\overline{I}O_8\overline{I}E_7$ model is stable with respect to the $E_7\overline{I}O_6\overline{I}E_7$ structure. Similarly, we observe that the seven-member ring at a defect boundary is stable if there are more than two $I$ units inserted between $E_7$ and the...
TABLE II. Formation energy of extended \{311\} defects consisting of interstitial chains. The computational cell is $3L_{\alpha0}\times 6L_{\alpha0}\times 2L_{\alpha0}$ containing three unit cells in the [011] direction for all listed model structures. The ratio of the $I$ unit to the extent of defects is given in percentage, e.g. 3/6=50$%$ for the $E_{\gamma}IIO_3IE_{\gamma}$ structure. The energy release $\Delta E_I$ is defined in Eq. (3) upon adding an interstitial chain ($I$) to the rodlike defect $X$. $Y$ denotes a defect structure constructed by adding an $I$ with a distance of either $L_{\alpha0}/2$ or $L_{\alpha0}$ from the boundary interstitial chain of the defect $X$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model structure</th>
<th>$N_{int}$ (% of $I$ units) (per unit cell)</th>
<th>$E_I^{int}$ (eV)</th>
<th>$\Delta E_I : X + I \rightarrow Y$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) $E_{\gamma}IE_{\gamma}^b$</td>
<td>2 (67)</td>
<td>1.8$^c$</td>
<td>1.2: (a) + $I \rightarrow$ (b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) $E_{\gamma}IIIE_{\gamma}$</td>
<td>4 (50)</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.9: (a) + $I \rightarrow$ (f)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) $E_{\gamma}IIIIE_{\gamma}$</td>
<td>6 (60)</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.0: (b) + $I \rightarrow$ (g)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) $E_{\gamma}IIIE_{\gamma}$</td>
<td>8 (67)</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.2: (c) + $I \rightarrow$ (d)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) $E_{\gamma}IIIIE_{\gamma}$</td>
<td>10 (71)</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>0.6: (c) + $I \rightarrow$ (h)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f) $E_{\gamma}IIO_3IE_{\gamma}$ or $E_{\gamma}IIIIIE_{\gamma}$</td>
<td>4 (40)</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.0: (d) + $I \rightarrow$ (e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g) $E_{\gamma}IIIIIE_{\gamma}$</td>
<td>6 (50)</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.3: (f) + $I \rightarrow$ (g)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(h) $E_{\gamma}IIO_3IE_{\gamma}$ or $E_{\gamma}IIIIIE_{\gamma}$</td>
<td>8 (57)</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.1: (g) + $I \rightarrow$ (h)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) $E_{\gamma}IIIIIE_{\gamma}$</td>
<td>8 (57)</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.3: (g) + $I \rightarrow$ (i)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$Unit cell: $L_{\alpha0}\times 6L_{\alpha0}\times 2L_{\alpha0}$.

$^b$Identical to the $I$ chain on the \{311\} plane in Fig. 2(c).

$^c$Energy release $E_I^{int}$ is defined in Eq. (3) for the unit cell $L_{\alpha0}\times 3L_{\alpha0}\times 2L_{\alpha0}$.

The formation energy $E_I^{int}(E_{\gamma}IE_{\gamma}) = 1.8$ per interstitial is used as the formation energy of an isolated interstitial chain, which contains two interstitials per unit length $L_{\alpha0}$. The energy release $\Delta E_I$ for the $E_{\gamma}IIO_3IE_{\gamma}$ structure to capture an interstitial chain and become the $E_{\gamma}IIO_3IE_{\gamma}$ structure is 1.6 eV per unit length ($L_{\alpha0}$). On the other hand, $\Delta E_I = 1.0$ eV for the $E_{\gamma}IIIIE_{\gamma}$ structure to become the $E_{\gamma}IIIIE_{\gamma}$ structure. The larger $\Delta E_I$ for the $E_{\gamma}IIO_3IE_{\gamma}$ structure indicates that the $E_{\gamma}IIO_3IE_{\gamma}$ structure provides a more efficient sink of interstitials than the $E_{\gamma}IIIIE_{\gamma}$ structure, which contains the same number of interstitials per unit cell. The $\Delta E_I$'s for the $E_{\gamma}IIIIE_{\gamma}$ structure suggest that the interstitials can be evaporated with a smaller energy cost from the $E_{\gamma}IIO_3IE_{\gamma}$ structure than from the $E_{\gamma}IIIIE_{\gamma}$ structure.

Growth mechanisms of the \{311\} defects are suggested by both the $E_I^{int}$ at different interstitial concentrations and the energy release $\Delta E_I$, when an interstitial chain is added to an existing \{311\} defect. Previously we showed that an interstitial chain can exist as a stable structure against isolated interstitials with $E_I^{int} < 2.2$ eV, which is smaller than that of isolated interstitials. The interstitial chain can provide a sink of interstitials to capture interstitial chains along the [233] direction. Reactions that release a larger energy to capture an interstitial chain are more likely to happen during the growth process.

We express the capturing of an interstitial chain by a rodlike \{311\} defect symbolically, as

$$\cdots IE + I \rightarrow \cdots IIIE_{\gamma} \quad \text{for} \quad d=L_{\alpha0}/2,$$

$$\cdots IE + I \rightarrow \cdots IOIE \quad \text{for} \quad d=L_{\alpha0}. \quad (4)$$

Here $d$ is the distance of the additional interstitial chain from the boundary interstitial chain. Table II shows that the energy release by the addition of an interstitial chain is similar for either $d=L_{\alpha0}/2$ or $d=L_{\alpha0}$, which suggests that the interstitial-chain capturing mechanisms in Eq. (4) are equally likely to happen. In other words, an interstitial chain can be added next to the boundary interstitial chain with a distance either $L_{\alpha0}/2$ or $L_{\alpha0}$. Consequently, the $O$ units would be randomly introduced and the \{311\} defects would have no particular periodic arrangement of the interstitial chains. In fact, experiments observe no particular periodicity of the \{311\} defects in the $\{233\}$ direction,\(^{28}\) while the periodicity in the $\{011\}$ direction is identified to be $L_{\alpha0}$, which results from the interstitial chain structure.

We denote the “interstitial density” $D_{int}$ to be a ratio of the number of interstitial chains to the total number of units in the defects:

$$D_{int} = \frac{N[I]}{N[I] + N[O] + N[E]} \quad (5).$$

We obtain the optimal ratio of the interstitial chains of 67% for the \{311\} defects based on the following results. (i) The formation energy for the extended defects (3)–(5) in Table II...
is same with differences less than 0.1 eV. This formation energy $E_f^{\text{int}} = 1.3$ eV is smaller than $E_{e}^{\text{int}} = 1.4$ eV of a planar defect, i.e., an infinite sequence of the interstitial chains in the [233] direction ($\cdots I I I \cdots = \text{II}$). (ii) The planar defect consisting of sequences of the $\text{HIO}_8$ structure, the $\cdots \text{HIO}_8 \text{HIO}_8 \cdots = \text{HIO}_8 /$ model, is found to be very stable with the smallest $E_f^{\text{int}} = 1.2$ eV among the model structures we have investigated. This interstitial density (67%) is in good agreement with the observed ratio of $I$ units, 62% from high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images.27

V. PROPAGATION OF INTERSTITIAL CHAINS

So far we have discussed the energetics of classes of defects, from the interstitial clusters to the extended {311} defects, solely in terms of the formation energies. It has been shown that the interstitial clusters can bind interstitials and become elongated interstitial chains along the [011] direction. The interstitial chains in turn grow to the extended {311} defects by capturing interstitials along the (233) direction. We propose that successive planar rotations, which introduce eight-member rings between interstitial chains separated by $L_{311}$, can also displace interstitial chains. By successive rotations of atoms connected by solid bonds in Fig. 4, an interstitial chain characterized by the {311} habit plane is displaced by $\Delta = 2a/\sqrt{2}$ along the arrow (the {011} direction), perpendicular to the {011} chain direction. The planar rotations connect two interstitial chain structures with the same $E_f^{\text{int}} = 1.7$ eV: the $I$ chain on the {311} plane, [Figs. 4(a)–4(d)] and the $I$ chain on the {100} plane [Figs. 4(b) and 4(e)].

This kind of coordinated atomic motion was introduced by Pandey as a diffusion mechanism of Si atoms in a thermal equilibrium without introducing point defects.33 He suggested that successive rotations of nearest-neighboring atoms in the {011} plane and the {011} plane result in exchanges of atoms and eventually displacements of Si atoms. The interstitial chain configurations shown in Fig. 4 are related to each other by $\phi \sim 70^\circ$ rotation of the pair atoms (solid circles) in the {011} plane.

For $E_f$, a formation energy of the interstitial chain, $E_f$, an energy barrier for the propagation, and $S$, an entropy involved with the propagation, the probability for an interstitial chain to propagate is proportional to $\exp(-E_f + E_b - TS/k_B T)$. The propagation mechanism of the interstitial chains via planar rotations has such desirable features: (i) no dangling bond is introduced during the transformation due to atomic relaxations and thus a small energy barrier is expected and (ii) the entropy involved with the rotation may be high because of the large extent of atomic relaxations and many possible paths.

An energy barrier for the transformation from the structure of Figs. 4(a) and 4(b) is estimated in two ways. First, an energy barrier for the rotation is estimated by calculating total energies of saddle points and comparing the total energies with those of the interstitial chain structures. The calculations are performed at a fixed computation cell of $4L_{311} \times 3L_{10} \times 2L_{00}$. This computational cell contains four solid bonds in the {011} plane, which are not shown in Fig. 4(a). The saddle-point configurations are initially given by simultaneously rotating the atoms connected by the solid bonds by $\phi = 15^\circ$, 30°, and 45° on the {011} plane. The bond length of the two atoms is chosen at the average value of the bond lengths of two structures in Figs. 4(a) and 4(b). Then structural relaxations of the initial configurations are performed by allowing all atoms to move, except for the two rotated atoms. The rotated atoms are fixed at the intermediate positions. The calculated energy barrier is 1.7 eV per bond. When the similar rotation of two atoms is performed in the bulk Si without any interstitial, the energy barrier is about 2.7 eV per bond.

Alternatively, the energy barrier is estimated by rotating one bond at a time among four solid bonds in a computational cell, which are underneath the solid bond in Fig. 4(a) in the [011] direction. For rotations of one to three bonds, the total energy increases by $1.2 \pm 0.1$ eV in comparison to those of the interstitial chains in Figs. 4(a) and 4(b). The corresponding increase in the formation energies is less than 0.2 eV per interstitial. No dangling bond is introduced by these planar rotations and the intermediate structures have bond-angle distortions of $\pm 22^\circ$, slightly larger than the $-15^\circ -20^\circ$ bond-angle distortions of the interstitial chain configurations in Figs. 4(a) and 4(b).

The energy barriers estimated by two different paths sug-
VI. STEP STRUCTURES AND V-SHAPED BENDS

We now show that step structures and V-shaped bends found in the extended \{311\} defects can be constructed by combination of rotations of nearest-neighboring atoms on the \{011\} plane together with the interstitial chain structures. Rotations of three solid bonds in Fig. 5(a) result in a displacement of the right interstitial chain. The formation energy of the structures before and after the transformation is the same at \(E_{\text{int}}^{\text{f}} = 1.5\) eV. The structure in Fig. 5(b) is similar to the core model of the atomic steps observed in HRTEM images. The addition of interstitial chains to this defect structure along the \( \pm z \) direction (the [233] direction) leads to the formation of a defect structure containing an atomic step. The two \{311\} habit planes shown as dashed lines are separated by a step height of \( \Delta = a/\sqrt{3} \) along the \{311\} direction, which agrees with that predicted in Ref. 24.

It has been observed that the \{311\} defects change habit planes, for example, between the \{311\} and \{311\} planes. The atomic configuration around the bend where the habit planes change can be identified as the I chain in the \{100\} plane in Fig. 2(b). We show in Fig. 6 that the interstitial chains can be added to an I-chain \{100\} plane to form a V-shaped defect. The initial configuration, when two interstitial chains are added, is chosen so as to avoid the generation of adjacent five-member rings by bond rotations on the [011] plane.

V. PLANAR \{311\} DEFECTS

Extended \{311\} defects as wide as 100 nm along the (233) direction are studied by approximating them as planar defects that are periodic in both the \{011\} and the \{233\} directions. Formation energies of planar defects, constructed by combinations of interstitial chains (I) and eight-member rings (O8) along the [233] direction, are listed in Table III. As introduced by Kohyama and Takeda,29 the periodicity of a planar defect along the [233] direction is specified by an arrangement of I’s and O’s within a unit cell, which is denoted by /\(I\). For example, the /IIO8/ model contains two I units separated by a distance of \(L_{0}/2\) in the [233] direction and one O8 unit within a unit cell. The periodicity of the /IIO8/ model along the [233] direction is \(3(L_{0}/2)\), where \(L_{0}/2\) is the average width of each unit and the factor 3 is the total number of units within a unit cell.

The formation energy per interstitial of the planar \{311\} defects is significantly smaller than that of isolated interstitials and comparable to that of the extended \{311\} defects with finite widths along the [233] direction (Table II). The stability of the planar defects against isolated interstitials indicates that the \{311\} defects can grow indefinitely as long as the interstitials are supplied, e.g., during the ion implantation process. Among the model structures we have investigated, the /IIO8/ model is the lowest in the formation energy per interstitial \(E_{\text{int}}^{\text{f}} = 1.2\) eV. The density of the I units of the /IIO8/ planar defect is 67%, corresponding to the interstitial concentration of \(5 \times 10^{14} \text{cm}^{-2} = 4[L_{x0} \times 3(L_{y0}/2)]\).

The model structure with adjacent O8 units along the [233] direction is energetically least favorable at the same interstitial concentration in comparing the /IIO8/, /IIO8/O8/, and /IIO8/O8/ models. In fact, segments including two adjacent eight-member rings, \cdots O8O8 \cdots , have not been identified as local structures of the extended \{311\} defects.27,28 When a planar rotation is applied on the common bond shared by the neighboring eight-member rings.
The formation energy of the planar defects listed in Table III, we expect those without them at the same interstitial concentration. The formation energy increase linearly to the length of the supercell in the [311] direction. We obtain the formation energies of the planar defects at $L_{z} = 3L_{z0}$ and the formation energies are also listed in Table III. The formation energy is lowered by 0.08 eV on average for all the planar defects. The relative stability of the planar defects is the same for $L_{z} = 2L_{z0}$ and $3L_{z0}$.

In Fig. 7 we show the formation energy of the defects that are infinite along the [233] direction and finite ($L_{z} = n_{z}L_{z0}$) along the [011] direction. The elongation direction of the {311} defects is always along the [011] direction. However, we study the hypothetical defect structures with lengths ($L_{D}$) shorter than the width in the [233] direction to compare with the planar defects. Since the infinite limits of these defects ($L_{D} \rightarrow \infty$) are planar defects, we can compare the formation energy of the planar defects in Table III with $E_{int}^{f}[\infty]$, which can be extracted from the finite-length-defect calculations.

The defect structures in Fig. 7 are constructed by inserting a finite-length planar defect between bulk layers. The defects become either the /1/ or /O8/ model structure at the infinite limits. The formation energy increase linearly to the length along the [011] direction:

$$E^{f} = E_{edge}^{f} + N_{int}E_{int}^{f}[\infty].$$

Then the $E_{int}^{f}$ of the defects with respect to the length is written as

$$E_{int}^{f} = E_{int}^{f}[\infty] + E_{edge}^{f}N_{int}[\infty]/L_{D}. \quad (7)$$

The slopes $E_{int}^{f}[\infty]$ of two kinds of defects is the formation energy per interstitial at the infinite limits, i.e., $N_{int} \propto L_{D} \rightarrow \infty$. The slopes obtained from linear fittings are in good agreement with the $E_{int}^{f}$’s in Table III: 1.4 eV and 1.7 eV.
eV for the \(I\) model and \(IO_8\) model, respectively. This result confirms that the \(I\) model is more stable than the \(IO_8\) model.

Finally, the ability of the \(311\%\) defects to capture or release interstitials is studied by calculating an energy required to add an interstitial to the bulk Si in the presence of the planar defects (Fig. 8). An interstitial is added at the hexagonal site at a distance of \(h\) from the \(311\%\) habit plane. The eight-member rings of the \(IO_8\) planar defect can provide efficient sinks of interstitials; the extra energy to add an interstitial to the \(IO_8\) planar defect decreases with decreasing \(h\): 3.2 eV at 16.5 Å and 1.5 eV at 10.1 Å. When the interstitial is added right above the eight-member ring (3.8 Å from the habit plane), about 0.1 eV energy is released. On the other hand, an additional interstitial is not bounded by the \(IO_8\) planar defect. The energy required to add an interstitial is 4.7–5.1 eV. This energy is comparable to the formation energy of an isolated interstitial at the hexagonal sites and larger than that of the \(110\) interstitialcy. These results support the calculations showing that the saturation of interstitials is achieved at the \(I\) density about 67% in the \(IO_8\) structure (Table III).

### VIII. CONCLUSION

We have shown that interstitial chain structures elongated along the \(01\bar{1}\) direction constitute the basic building blocks of the extended \(311\) defects. This interstitial chain configuration is favored due to the minimum ratio of dangling bonds per interstitial and small distortions in bond angles and bond

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**FIG. 7.** Formation energy \(E_f\) per unit width \((L_y)\) with respect to the number of interstitials per unit width (left); a schematic diagram to show how the computational cell is constructed (right). A slab with a finite length of \(n_D L_x\), for an integer \(n_D=1–4\), contains defect structures based on the \(IO_8\) and \(II\) models. The slab is sandwiched between Si bulk layers along the [011] direction with a fixed total length of 6\(L_x\). A common width along the [233] direction is chosen at \(L_y\). The number of interstitials per unit width \((L_y)\) is proportional to the length of the defects: \(N_{int}=4n_D\) for the defects based on the \(II\) model and \(N_{int}=2n_D\) for those based on the \(IO_8\) model. The formation energy is fitted by Eq. (6). For the defects based on the \(II\) model, the values of \(E_{int}^{II}\) and \(E_{int}^{II}[\infty]\) are 8.4 and 1.4 eV, respectively; \(E_{edge}^{II}=6.1\) eV and \(E_{int}^{II}[\infty]=1.7\) eV for the defects derived from the \(IO_8\) model. The formation energy per interstitial decreases as the length increases as in Eq. (7). At \(N_{int}[\infty]\), the \(E_{int}^{II}\)'s converge to those of the planar defects: 1.4 eV for the \(II\) model and 1.7 eV for the \(IO_8\) model.

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**FIG. 8.** Initial configurations to obtain the extra energy required to add one interstitial to the bulk system in the presence of a planar defect. The additional interstitial is located at a hexagonal site with a distance \(h\) measured from the \(311\) plane on which the center of interstitial chains lie (the dashed line). Two cases with \(h_1=16.5\) Å and \(h_2=3.8\) Å are illustrated at the same time. The computational cell is \(6L_x\times3L_y\times2L_z\). The distance of interstitials in the neighboring cells, i.e., the distances between images related by periodic boundary conditions, is larger than the distance of the additional interstitial to the habit plane of the planar defect. The interstitials associated with the interstitial chains of the \(IO_8\) model structure are indicated by arrows.
lengths. Even finite-size interstitial chains, as small as two-interstitial clusters, are found to be stable against isolated interstitials. A growth mechanism of the \{311\} defects can be speculated from the dependence of the $E_{\text{int}}$'s on the dimensions of the defects and the interstitial concentrations. The growth of the \{311\} defects would occur first by (i) elongation of interstitial chains along the \{011\} direction and (ii) the widening of the defects follows by capturing interstitial chains alongside the \{233\} direction. We present an efficient mechanism, rotations of atoms on the \{011\} plane, which can lead to propagation of interstitial chains. The planar rotation, together with the interstitial chain structures, can be applied to explain growth process of the \{311\} defects and related structures such as the V-shape bend structure and atomic steps. We observed that the most stable arrangement of interstitial chains of the extended \{311\} defects is $\cdots \text{II}O_{8}\text{II}O_{8}\cdots$ and the optimal density of interstitial chains is 67%, which is in good agreement with the experimental value of 62%.

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22. We considered $p(2\times1)$ symmetric, $p(2\times1)$ asymmetric, and $c(4\times2)$ dimerization of Si(100) surfaces. The surface energy is lowest for the $c(4\times2)$ reconstruction and highest for the $p(2\times1)$ symmetric reconstruction. These results are consistent with the recent converged LDA calculations by Ramstad et al. [Phys. Rev. B **51**, 14 504 (1995)].
31. The same $E_{\text{int},i}$ $= 1.7$ eV is obtained from a calculation using a computational cell oriented as $[011]\times[011]\times[000]$. We note that the initial atomic configuration of the finite-size interstitial clusters is constructed based on the infinite interstitial chains in Fig. 2 and the local energy minima of the atomic configurations are obtained by the steepest-decent methods. For the two-interstitial clusters with a negative binding energy, we perform high-temperature MD simulations at 600–900 K for 1–2 ps and then search for low-energy atomic configurations by simulated annealing procedure, while slowly lowering the temperature of the systems. For the given simulation time and temperatures, we do not observe any breakup of the interstitial clusters and, furthermore, we find a low-energy configuration of the two-interstitial clusters, with a formation energy, 3.5 eV per interstitial.
33. The orientation and size of the computational cell is $3a/\sqrt{2}[011]\times 12a/\sqrt{2}[011]\times 7a[100]$ for the lattice constant...
a. The cell contains 1008 bulk Si atoms. Experimentally, a displacement vector of the perfect crystals around the core of the \( \{311\} \) defects was identified as 0.14\( a/\sqrt{3} \) along the \([233]\) direction and 0.64\( a/\sqrt{3} \) along the \([311] \) direction. Our structural optimizations are performed by fixed cell calculations without a rigid body translation. All the atoms in the computational cells are allowed to relax.