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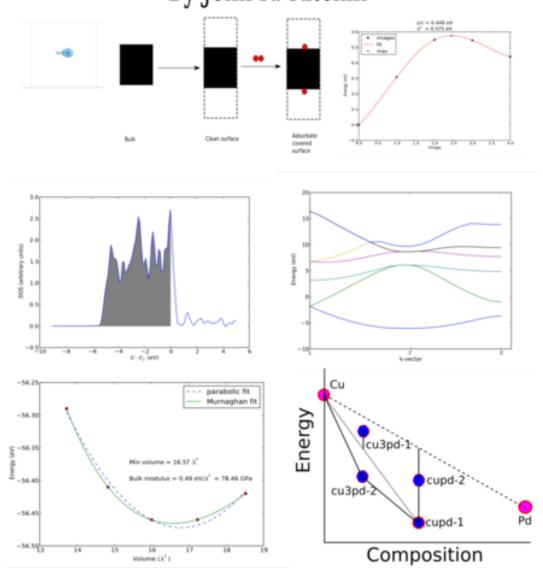
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Modeling materials using density functional theory $$\operatorname{\mathsf{John}}$$ Kitchin $$\operatorname{\mathsf{2012-07-11}}$$ Wed

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1 Introduction to this book

This book serves two purposes: 1) to provide worked examples of using DFT to model materials properties, and 2) to provide references to more advanced treatments of these topics in the literature. It is not a definitive reference on density functional theory. Along the way to learning how to perform the calculations, you will learn how to analyze the data, make plots, and how to interpret the results. This book is very much "recipe" oriented, with the intention of giving you enough information and knowledge to start your research. In that sense, many of the computations are not publication quality with respect to convergence of calculation parameters.

You will read a lot of python code in this book, as the comprehension of code is an integral part of its design. I believe that computational work should always be scripted. As a result, a written record of everything you have done will be available, allowing you to reproduce your code or report the method of its execution exactly at a later time.

This book makes heavy use of many computational tools including:

- Python
 - Module index
- Atomic Simulation Environment (ase)
- numpy
- scipy
- matplotlib
- emacs
 - org-mode This book is written in org-mode, and is best read in emacs in org-mode. This format provides clickable links, easy navigation, syntax highlighting, as well as the ability to interact with the tables and code. The book is also available in PDF.
- git This book is available at https://github.com/jkitchin/dft-book
- jasp

jasp is a sophisticated wrapper to the ase.calculators.vasp python interface to the VASP calculator. It was written by me to facilitate writing this book and to develop the best possible way to run DFT calculations. The best way to learn to use jasp is from this book. It probably requires the latest svn version of ase to work since I have been adding new functionality to ase.calculators.vasp as jasp is developed. jasp is available at https://github.com/jkitchin/jasp.

The goal in writing <code>jasp</code> was to create a computational environment where you write one script to create, run and analyze your calculations. The code is smart, and submits jobs to a queue system when required, does not submit jobs more than once, allows many jobs to run in parallel, and gives you answers when available. <code>jasp</code> takes care of changing into VASP calculation directories, and then changing back to where you started from. <code>jasp</code> has an interface to sqlite, and to version control (git) software. <code>jasp</code> has some features that <code>ase.calculators.vasp</code> does not have yet. They may get incorporated into ase one day.

jaspsum is a utility program provided in jasp which prints a pretty representation of the state of a calculation, plots the relaxation trajectory, or prints a code representation of a VASP directory.

It is not critical that you use jasp. You should be able to copy the actual VASP input files (which were generated by jasp) from a directory and simply run vasp. jasp is mostly compatible with ase. calculators.vasp, so you can replace this kind of code:

with jasp('directory', lotsofkeywords, atoms=atoms) as calc:
#do stuff

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-1.py). with code similar to this:

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-2.py). The DFT code used primarily in this book is VASP.

- VASP wiki
- VASP Manual

Similar code would be used for other calculators, e.g. GPAW, Jacapo, etc... you would just have to import the python modules for those codes, and replace the code that defines the calculator.

```
Exercise 1.1
Review all the hyperlinks in this chapter.
```

2 Introduction to DFT

A comprehensive overview of DFT is beyond the scope of this book, as excellent reviews on these subjects are readily found in the literature, and are suggested reading in the following paragraph. Instead, this chapter is intended to provide a useful starting point for a non-expert to begin learning about and using DFT in the manner used in this book. Much of the information presented here is standard knowledge among experts, but a consequence of this is that it is rarely discussed in current papers in the literature. A secondary goal of this chapter is to provide new users with a path through the extensive literature available and to point out potential difficulties and pitfalls in these calculations.

A modern and practical introduction to density functional theory can be found in Sholl and Steckel. ¹ A fairly standard textbook on DFT is the one written by Parr and Yang. ² The Chemist's Guide to DFT³ is more readable and contains more practical information for running calculations, but both of these books focus on molecular systems. The standard texts in solid state physics are by Kittel ⁴ and Ashcroft and Mermin. ⁵ Both have their fine points, the former being more mathematically rigorous and the latter more readable. However, neither of these books is particularly easy to relate to chemistry. For this, one should consult the exceptionally clear writings of Roald Hoffman, ^{6,7} and follow these with the work of Nørskov and coworkers. ^{8,9}

In this chapter, only the elements of DFT that are relevant to this work will be discussed. An excellent review on other implementations of DFT can be found in Reference ¹⁰, and details on the various algorithms used in DFT codes can be found in Refs. ^{11,12}.

One of the most useful sources of information has been the dissertations of other students, perhaps because the difficulties they faced in learning the material are still fresh in their minds. Thomas Bligaard, a coauthor of Dacapo, wrote a particularly relevant thesis on exchange/correlation functionals ¹³ and a dissertation illustrating the use of DFT to design new alloys with desirable thermal and mechanical properties. ¹⁴ The Ph.D. thesis of Ari Seitsonen contains several useful appendices on k-point setups, and convergence tests of calculations, in addition to a thorough description of DFT and analysis of calculation output. ¹⁵ Finally, another excellent overview of DFT and its applications to bimetallic alloy phase diagrams and surface reactivity is presented in the PhD thesis of Robin Hirschl. ¹⁶

2.1 Background

In 1926, Erwin Schrödinger published the first accounts of his now famous wave equation. ¹⁷ He later shared the Nobel prize with Paul A. M. Dirac in 1933 for this discovery. Schrödinger's wave function seemed extremely promising, as it contains all of the information available about a system. Unfortunately, most practical systems of interest consist of many interacting electrons, and the effort required to find solutions to Schrödinger's equation increases exponentially with the number of electrons, limiting this approach to systems with a small number of relevant electrons, $N \lesssim O(10)$. ¹⁸ Even if this rough estimate is off by an order of magnitude, a system with 100 electrons is still very small, for example, two Ru atoms if all the electrons are counted, or perhaps ten Pt atoms if only the valence electrons are counted. Thus, the wave function method, which has been extremely successful in studying the properties of small molecules, is unsuitable for studies of large, extended solids. Interestingly, this difficulty was recognized by Dirac as early as 1929, when he wrote "The underlying physical laws necessary for the mathematical theory of a large part of physics and the whole of chemistry are thus completely known, and the difficulty is only that the application of these laws leads to equations much too complicated to be soluble.". ¹⁹

In 1964, Hohenberg and Kohn showed that the ground state total energy of a system of interacting electrons is a unique functional of the electron density. ²⁰ By definition, a function returns a number when given a number. For example, in $f(x) = x^2$, f(x) is the function, and it equals four when x = 2. A functional returns a number when given a function. Thus, in $g(f(x)) = \int_0^{\pi} f(x) dx$, g(f(x)) is the functional, and it is equal to two when $f(x) = \sin(x)$. Hohenberg and Kohn further identified a variational principle that appeared to reduce the problem of finding the ground state energy of an electron gas in an external potential (i.e., in the presence of ion cores) to that of the minimization of a functional of the three-dimensional density function. Unfortunately, the definition of the functional involved a set of 3N-dimensional trial wave functions.

In 1965, Kohn and Sham made a significant breakthrough when they showed that the problem of many interacting electrons in an external potential can be mapped exactly to a set of noninteracting electrons in an effective external potential. ²¹ This led to a set of self-consistent, single particle equations known as the Kohn-Sham (KS) equations:

$$\left(-\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 + v_{eff}(\mathbf{r}) - \epsilon_j\right)\varphi_j(\mathbf{r}) = 0,$$
(1)

with

$$v_{eff}(\mathbf{r}) = v(\mathbf{r}) + \int \frac{n(\mathbf{r}')}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} d\mathbf{r}' + v_{xc}(\mathbf{r}),$$
 (2)

where $v(\mathbf{r})$ is the external potential and $v_{xc}(\mathbf{r})$ is the exchange-correlation potential, which depends on the entire density function. Thus, the density needs to be known in order to define the effective potential so that Eq. (1) can be solved. $\varphi_j(\mathbf{r})$ corresponds to the j^{th} KS orbital of energy ϵ_j .

The ground state density is given by:

$$n(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} |\varphi_j(\mathbf{r})|^2 \tag{3}$$

To solve Eq. (1) then, an initial guess is used for $\varphi_j(\mathbf{r})$ which is used to generate Eq. (3), which is subsequently used in Eq. (2). This equation is then solved for $\varphi_j(\mathbf{r})$ iteratively until the $\varphi_j(\mathbf{r})$ that result from the solution are the same as the $\varphi_j(\mathbf{r})$ that are used to define the equations, that is, the solutions are self-consistent. Finally, the ground state energy is given by:

$$E = \sum_{i} \epsilon_{j} + E_{xc}[n(\mathbf{r})] - \int v_{xc}(\mathbf{r})n(\mathbf{r})d\mathbf{r} - \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{n(\mathbf{r})n(\mathbf{r}')}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|}d\mathbf{r}'\mathbf{r},$$
(4)

where $E_{xc}[n(\mathbf{r})]$ is the exchange-correlation energy functional. Walter Kohn shared the Nobel prize in Chemistry in 1998 for this work. ¹⁸ The other half of the prize went to John Pople for his efforts in wave

function based quantum mechanical methods.²² Provided the exchange-correlation energy functional is known, Eq. (4) is exact. However, the exact form of the exchange-correlation energy functional is not known, thus approximations for this functional must be used.

2.2 Exchange correlation functionals

The two main types of exchange/correlation functionals used in DFT are the local density approximation (LDA) and the generalized gradient approximation (GGA). In the LDA, the exchange-correlation functional is defined for an electron in a uniform electron gas of density n. ²¹ It is exact for a uniform electron gas, and is anticipated to be a reasonable approximation for slowly varying densities. In molecules and solids, however, the density tends to vary substantially in space. Despite this, the LDA has been very successfully used in many systems. It tends to predict overbonding in both molecular and solid systems, ²³ and it tends to make semiconductor systems too metallic (the band gap problem). ²⁴

The generalized gradient approximation includes corrections for gradients in the electron density, and is often implemented as a corrective function of the LDA. The form of this corrective function, or "exchange enhancement" function determines which functional it is, e.g. PBE, RPBE, revPBE, etc. ²⁵ In this book the PBE GGA functional is used the most. Nørskov and coworkers have found that the RPBE functional gives superior chemisorption energies for atomic and molecular bonding to surfaces, but that it gives worse bulk properties, such as lattice constants compared to experimental data. ²⁵

Finally, there are increasingly new types of functionals in the literature. The so-called hybrid functionals, such as B3LYP, are more popular with gaussian basis sets (e.g. in Gaussian), but they are presently inefficient with planewave basis sets. None of these other types of functionals were used in this work. For more details see Chapter 6 in Ref. ³ and Thomas Bligaard's thesis on exchange and correlation functionals. ¹³

2.3 Basis sets

Briefly, VASP utilizes planewaves as the basis set to expand the Kohn-Sham orbitals. In a periodic solid, one can use Bloch's theorem to show that the wave function for an electron can be expressed as the product of a planewave and a function with the periodicity of the lattice: ⁵

$$\psi_{n\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}) = \exp(i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}) u_{n\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}) \tag{5}$$

where \mathbf{r} is a position vector, and \mathbf{k} is a so-called wave vector that will only have certain allowed values defined by the size of the unit cell. Bloch's theorem sets the stage for using planewaves as a basis set, because it suggests a planewave character of the wave function. If the periodic function $u_{n\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r})$ is also expanded in terms of planewaves determined by wave vectors of the reciprocal lattice vectors, \mathbf{G} , then the wave function can be expressed completely in terms of a sum of planewaves: ¹¹

$$\psi_i(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\mathbf{G}} c_{i,\mathbf{k}+\mathbf{G}} \exp(i(\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{G}) \cdot \mathbf{r}).$$
 (6)

where $c_{i,\mathbf{k}+\mathbf{G}}$ are now coefficients that can be varied to determine the lowest energy solution. This also converts Eq. (1) from an integral equation to a set of algebraic equations that can readily be solved using matrix algebra.

In aperiodic systems, such as systems with even one defect, or randomly ordered alloys, there is no periodic unit cell. Instead one must represent the portion of the system of interest in a supercell, which is then subjected to the periodic boundary conditions so that a planewave basis set can be used. It then becomes necessary to ensure the supercell is large enough to avoid interactions between the defects in neighboring supercells. The case of the randomly ordered alloy is virtually hopeless as the energy of different configurations will fluctuate statistically about an average value. These systems were not considered in this work, and for more detailed discussions the reader is referred to Ref. ²⁶. Once a supercell is chosen, however, Bloch's theorem can be applied to the new artificially periodic system.

To get a perfect expansion, one needs an infinite number of planewaves. Luckily, the coefficients of the planewaves must go to zero for high energy planewaves, otherwise the energy of the wave function would go to infinity. This provides justification for truncating the planewave basis set above a cutoff energy. Careful testing of the effect of the cutoff energy on the total energy can be done to determine a suitable cutoff energy. The cutoff energy required to obtain a particular convergence precision is also element dependent, shown in Table 1. It can also vary with the "softness" of the pseudopotential. Thus, careful testing should be done to ensure the desired level of convergence of properties in different systems. Table 1 refers to convergence of total energies. These energies are rarely considered directly, it is usually differences in energy that are important. These tend to converge with the planewave cutoff energy much more quickly than total energies, due to cancellations of convergence errors. In this work, 350 eV was found to be suitable for the H adsorption calculations, but a cutoff energy of 450 eV was required for O adsorption calculations.

Table 1: Planewave cutoff energies (in eV) required for different convergence precisions for two different elements with different pseudopotential setups.

Precision	Low	High
Mo	168	293
O	300	520
O sv	1066	1847

Bloch's theorem eliminates the need to calculate an infinite number of wave functions, because there are only a finite number of electrons in the unit (super) cell. However, there are still an infinite number of discrete \mathbf{k} points that must be considered, and the energy of the unit cell is calculated as an integral over these points. It turns out that wave functions at \mathbf{k} points that are close together are similar, thus an interpolation scheme can be used with a finite number of \mathbf{k} points. This also converts the integral used to determine the energy into a sum over the \mathbf{k} points, which are suitably weighted to account for the finite number of them. There will be errors in the total energy associated with the finite number of \mathbf{k} , but these can be reduced and tested for convergence by using higher \mathbf{k} -point densities. An excellent discussion of this for aperiodic systems can be found in Ref. 26 .

The most common schemes for generating \mathbf{k} points are the Chadi-Cohen scheme, 27 and the Monkhorst-Pack scheme. 28 The use of these \mathbf{k} point setups amounts to an expansion of the periodic function in reciprocal space, which allows a straight-forward interpolation of the function between the points that is more accurate than with other \mathbf{k} point generation schemes. 28

2.4 Pseudopotentials

The core electrons of an atom are computationally expensive with planewave basis sets because they are highly localized. This means that a very large number of planewaves are required to expand their wave functions. Furthermore, the contributions of the core electrons to bonding compared to those of the valence electrons is usually negligible. In fact, the primary role of the core electron wave functions is to ensure proper orthogonality between the valence electrons and core states. Consequently, it is desirable to replace the atomic potential due to the core electrons with a pseudopotential that has the same effect on the valence electrons. ²⁹ There are essentially two kinds of pseudopotentials, norm-conserving soft pseudopotentials ²⁹ and Vanderbilt ultrasoft pseudopotentials. ³⁰ In either case, the pseudopotential function is generated from an all-electron calculation of an atom in some reference state. In norm-conserving pseudopotentials, the charge enclosed in the pseudopotential region is the same as that enclosed by the same space in an all-electron calculation. In ultrasoft pseudopotentials, this requirement is relaxed and charge augmentation functions are used to make up the difference. As its name implies, this allows a "softer" pseudopotential to be generated, which means fewer planewaves are required to expand it.

The pseudopotentials are not unique, and calculated properties depend on them. However, there are standard methods for ensuring the quality and transferability (to different chemical environments) of the pseudopotentials. 31

TODO PAW description

VASP provides a database of PAW potentials. 32,33

2.5 Fermi Temperature and band occupation numbers

At absolute zero, the occupancies of the bands of a system are well-defined step functions; all bands up to the Fermi level are occupied, and all bands above the Fermi level are unoccupied. There is a particular difficulty in the calculation of the electronic structures of metals compared to semiconductors and molecules. In molecules and semiconductors, there is a clear energy gap between the occupied states and unoccupied states. Thus, the occupancies are insensitive to changes in the energy that occur during the self-consistency cycles. In metals, however, the density of states is continuous at the Fermi level, and there are typically a substantial number of states that are close in energy to the Fermi level. Consequently, small changes in the energy can dramatically change the occupation numbers, resulting in instabilities that make it difficult to converge to the occupation step function. A related problem is that the Brillouin zone integral (which in practice is performed as a sum over a finite number of k points) that defines the band energy converges very slowly with the number of k points due to the discontinuity in occupancies in a continuous distribution of states for metals. 12,34 The difficulty arises because the temperature in most DFT calculations is at absolute zero. At higher temperatures, the DOS is smeared across the Fermi level, resulting in a continuous occupation function over the distribution of states. A finite-temperature version of DFT was developed, ³⁵ which is the foundation on which one solution to this problem is based. In this solution, the step function is replaced by a smoothly varying function such as the Fermi-Dirac function at a small, but non-zero temperature. 12 The total energy is then extrapolated back to absolute zero.

2.6 Spin polarization and magnetism

There are two final points that need to be discussed about these calculations, spin polarization and dipole corrections. Spin polarization is important for systems that contain net spin. For example, iron, cobalt and nickel are magnetic because they have more electrons with spin "up" than spin "down" (or vice versa). Spin polarization must also be considered in atoms and molecules with unpaired electrons, such as hydrogen and oxygen atoms, oxygen molecules and radicals. For example, there are two spin configurations for an oxygen molecule, the singlet state with no unpaired electrons, and the triplet state with two unpaired electrons. The oxygen triplet state is lower in energy than the oxygen singlet state, and thus it corresponds to the ground state for an oxygen atom. A classically known problem involving spin polarization is the dissociation of a hydrogen molecule. In this case, the molecule starts with no net spin, but it dissociates into two atoms, each of which has an unpaired electron. See section 5.3.5 in Reference³ for more details on this.

In VASP, spin polarization is not considered by default; it must be turned on, and an initial guess for the magnetic moment of each atom in the unit cell must be provided (typically about one Bohrmagneton per unpaired electron). For Fe, Co, and Ni, the experimental values are 2.22, 1.72, and 0.61 Bohr-magnetons, respectively ⁴ and are usually good initial guesses. See Reference ³¹ for a very thorough discussion of the determination of the magnetic properties of these metals with DFT. For a hydrogen atom, an initial guess of 1.0 Bohr-magnetons (corresponding to one unpaired electron) is usually good. An oxygen atom has two unpaired electrons, thus an initial guess of 2.0 Bohr-magnetons should be used. The spin-polarized solution is sensitive to the initial guess, and typically converges to the closest solution. Thus, a magnetic initial guess usually must be provided to get a magnetic solution. Finally, unless an adsorbate is on a magnetic metal surface, spin polarization typically does not need to be considered, although the gas-phase reference state calculation may need to be done with spin-polarization.

The downside of including spin polarization is that it essentially doubles the calculation time.

2.7 TODO Recommended reading

```
This section needs cleaning up. Original papers on DFT ^{20,21} Kohn's Nobel Lecture, ^{18} Pople's Nobel Lecture ^{22} 7 Hoffman PAW in GPAW ^{36} All calculations were performed using VASP ^{12,37-39} with the projector augmented wave (PAW) potentials provided in VASP. Monkhorst-Pack k-points ^{28}
```

3 Molecules

In this chapter we consider how to construct models of molecules, how to manipulate them, and how to calculate many properties of molecules. For a nice comparison of VASP and Gaussian see 40 .

3.1 Defining and visualizing molecules

We start by learning how to define a molecule and visualize it. We will begin with defining molecules from scratch, then reading molecules from data files, and finally using some built-in databases in ase.

3.1.1 From scratch

When there is no data file for the molecule you want, or no database to get it from, you have to define your atoms geometry by hand. Here is how that is done for a CO molecule (Figure 1). We must define the type and position of each atom, and the unit cell the atoms are in.

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-3.py).

 $V = 1000 Angstrom^3$

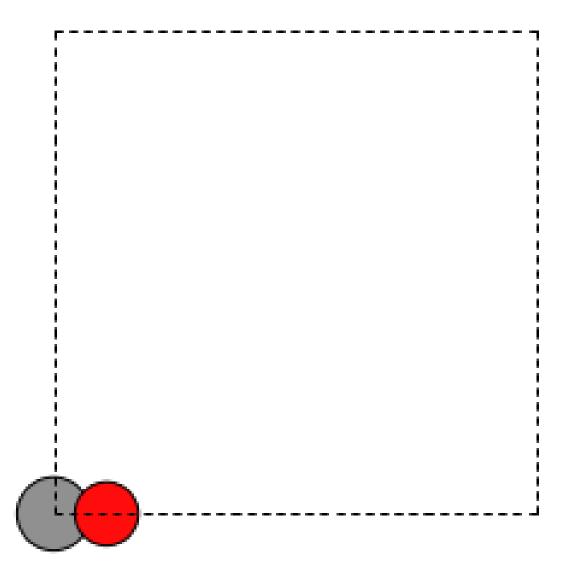


Figure 1: Image of a CO molecule with the C at the origin.

There are two inconvenient features of the simple cubic cell:

- 1. Since the CO molecule is at the corner, its electron density is spread over the 8 corners of the box, which is not convenient for visualization later (see Visualizing electron density).
- 2. Due to the geometry of the cube, you need fairly large cubes to make sure the electron density of the molecule does not overlap with that of its images. Electron-electron interactions are repulsive, and the overlap makes the energy increase significantly. Here, the CO molecule has 6 images due to periodic boundary conditions that are 10 Å away. The volume of the unit cell is 1000 Å^3 .

The first problem is easily solved by centering the atoms in the unit cell. The second problem can be solved by using a face-centered cubic lattice, which is the lattice with the closest packing. We show the results of the centering in Figure 2, where we have guessed values for b until the CO molecules are on average 10 Å apart. Note the final volume is only about 715 Å³, which is smaller than the cube. This will result in less computational time to compute properties.

```
from ase import Atoms, Atom
from ase.io import write

b = 7.1
table atoms = Atoms([Atom('C', [0., 0., 0.]),
Atom('0', [1.1, 0., 0.])],
cell=[[b, b, 0.],
[b, 0., b],
[co., b, b]])

print('V = {0:1.0f} Ang^3'.format(atoms.get_volume()))

atoms.center() # translate atoms to center of unit cell
write('images/fcc-cell.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-4.py).

V = 716 Ang^3

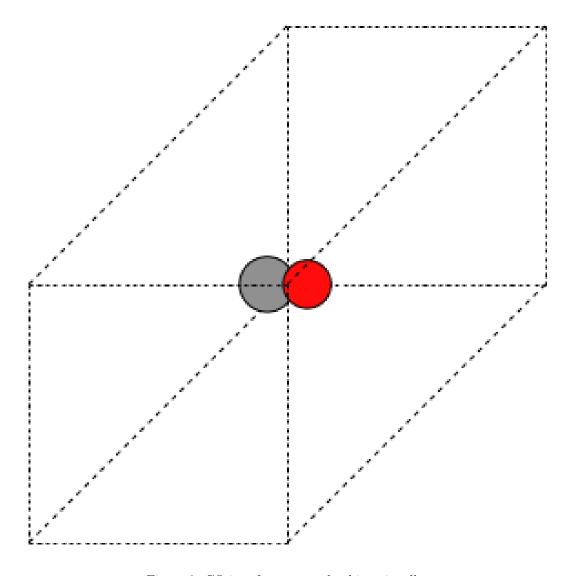


Figure 2: CO in a face-centered cubic unit cell.

At this point you might ask, "How do you know the distance to the neighboring image?" The ag viewer lets you compute this graphically, but we can use code to determine this too. All we have to do is figure out the length of each lattice vector, because these are what separate the atoms in the images. We use the numpy module to compute the distance of a vector as the square root of the sum of squared elements.

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-5.py).

```
|a1| = 10.04 Ang
|a2| = 10.04 Ang
|a3| = 10.04 Ang
```

3.1.2 Reading other data formats into a calculation

ase.io.read supports many different file formats:

Known formats:

	========
format	short name
	========
GPAW restart-file	gpw
Dacapo netCDF output file	dacapo
Old ASE netCDF trajectory	nc
Virtual Nano Lab file	vnl
ASE pickle trajectory	traj
ASE bundle trajectory	bundle
GPAW text output	gpaw-text
CUBE file	cube
XCrySDen Structure File	xsf
Dacapo text output	dacapo-text
XYZ-file	xyz
VASP POSCAR/CONTCAR file	vasp
VASP OUTCAR file	vasp_out
SIESTA STRUCT file	struct_out
ABINIT input file	abinit
V_Sim ascii file	v_sim
Protein Data Bank	pdb
CIF-file	cif
FHI-aims geometry file	aims
FHI-aims output file	aims_out
VTK XML Image Data	vti

```
VTK XML Structured Grid
                           vts
VTK XML Unstructured Grid vtu
TURBOMOLE coord file
                           tmol
TURBOMOLE gradient file
                           tmol-gradient
exciting input
                           exi
AtomEye configuration
                           cfg
WIEN2k structure file
                           struct
DftbPlus input file
                           dftb
CASTEP geom file
                           cell
CASTEP output file
                           castep
CASTEP trajectory file
                           geom
ETSF format
                           etsf.nc
DFTBPlus GEN format
                           gen
CMR db/cmr-file
                           db
CMR db/cmr-file
                           cmr
LAMMPS dump file
                           lammps
Gromacs coordinates
                           gro
```

You can read XYZ file format to create ase. Atoms objects. Here is what an XYZ file format might look like:

#+include: molecules/isobutane.xyz

The first line is the number of atoms in the file. The second line is often a comment. What follows is one line per atom with the symbol and Cartesian coordinates in Å. Note that the XYZ format does not have unit cell information in it, so you will have to figure out a way to provide it. In this example, we center the atoms in a box with vacuum on all sides (Figure 3).

```
from ase.io import read, write

atoms = read('molecules/isobutane.xyz')
atoms.center(vacuum=5)
write('images/isobutane-xyz.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-6.py).

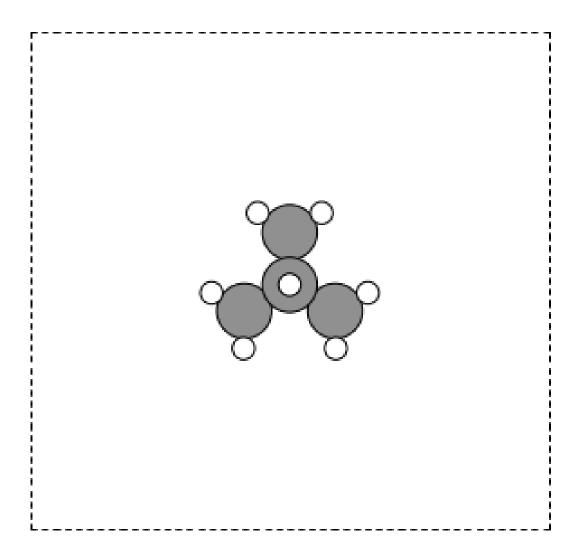


Figure 3: An isobutane molecule read in from an XYZ formatted data file.

3.1.3 Predefined molecules

ase defines a number of molecular geometries in the ase.data.molecules database. For example, the database includes the molecules in the G2/97 database. ⁴¹ This database contains a broad set of atoms and molecules for which good experimental data exists, making them useful for benchmarking studies. See this site for the original files.

The coordinates for the atoms in the database are MP2(full)/6-31G(d) optimized geometries. Here is a list of all the species available in ase.data.g2. You may be interested in reading about some of the other databases in ase.data too.

```
from ase.data import g2
keys = g2.data.keys()
# print in 3 columns
for i in range(len(keys) / 3):
print('{0:25s}{1:25s}{2:25s}'.format(*tuple(keys[i * 3: i * 3 + 3])))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-7.py).

isobutene CH3CH2OH CH3COOH

 COF2
 CH3N02
 CF3CN

 CH3OH
 CCH
 CH3CH2NH2

PH3 Si2H6 03

02 BC13 CH2_s1A1d H2CC12 СЗН9С Ве C3H9N CH3CH2OCH3 BF3 СНЗ S2 CH4 С2Н6СНОН $SiH2_s1A1d$ H3CNH2 CH30 ВеН

Р C3H4_C3v C2F4 OH methylenecyclopropane F20 SiC14 HCF3 HCC13 СЗН7 CH3CH20 AlF3 CH2NHCH2 SiH2_s3B1d H2CF2 H2CCO SiF4 PH2 OCS HFNO2 C3H4_C2v SH2 H202 CH3CH2C1 CH3COF isobutane CH3ONO HCOOH C5H8 2-butyne SH NF3 HOCl CS2 P2 CH3S С 0 C4H4S S C3H7C1 H2CCHC1 C2H6 СНЗСНО C2H4 HCN C2H2

 C2C14
 bicyclobutane
 H2

 C6H6
 N2H4
 C4H4NH

 H2CCHCN
 H2CCHF
 cyclobutane

 HC1
 CH30CH3
 Li2

CH3SiH3 NaCl Na CH3CH2SH OCHCHO SiH4 C2H5 SiH3 NH C10 A1C13 CC14 C2H3 ClF NO CH2SCH2 HCO CH3CONH2 СНЗСОСНЗ C3H4_D2d СН CN F CO CH3COC1 N CH3C1 Si **C3H8** CS NCCN N2 C12 F2 C02 C1CH20CH2 H20 CH3CO

C1F3 Li PF3
B CH3SH CF4
C3H6_Cs C2H6NH N20

НСООСНЗ

LiF H2COH cyclobutene

LiH SiO Si2

SO

C2H6SO C5H5N trans-butane

Na2 C4H4O S02 NH3 NH2 CH2_s3B1d

C1NO C3H6_D3h A1

butadiene

CH3SCH3 H2CO CH3CN

CH3CH2OH СНЗСООН isobutene COF2 CH3NO2 CF3CN CH30H CCH CH3CH2NH2 РНЗ Si2H6 03 02 BC13 CH2_s1A1d СЗН9С H2CC12

Ве C3H9N CH3CH2OCH3 BF3 СНЗ CH4 S2 С2Н6СНОН $SiH2_s1A1d$ H3CNH2 CH30 ВеН Ρ $C3H4_C3v$ C2F4 OH methylenecyclopropane F20 SiC14 HCF3 HCC13

C3H7 CH3CH20 A1F3 CH2NHCH2 $SiH2_s3B1d$ H2CF2 SiF4 H2CCO PH2 OCS HFNO2 SH2 C3H4_C2v H202 CH3CH2C1 isobutane CH3COF HCOOH CH30N0 C5H8 2-butyne SHNF3 HOCl CS2 P2 С CH3S 0 S

C2H6

C4H4S

H2CCHC1

C2H4 HCN C2H2 C2C14 Н2 bicyclobutane C6H6 N2H4 C4H4NH **H2CCHF H2CCHCN** cyclobutane

HCl CH30CH3 Li2 CH3SiH3 NaCl Na CH3CH2SH OCHCHO SiH4 C2H5 SiH3 NHC10 AlC13 CC14 NO C2H3 ClF CH2SCH2 HCO CH3CONH2 C3H4_D2d CH3COCH3 CH CO CNF CH3COC1 N CH3C1 Si C3H8 CS N2 C12 NCCN F2 C02 Cl CH20CH2 H20 CH3CO HCOOCH3 butadiene SOC1F3 Li PF3 CH3SH CF4 C3H6_Cs C2H6NH N20

LiF H2COH cyclobutene

LiH SiO Si2

C2H6SO C5H5N trans-butane

C3H7C1

CH3CH0

Na2	C4H4O	S02
NH3	NH2	CH2_s3B1d
ClNO	C3H6_D3h	Al
CH3SCH3	H2CO	CH3CN

Some other databases include the ase.data.s22 for weakly interacting dimers and complexes, and ase.data.extra_molecules which has a few extras like biphenyl and C60.

Here is an example of getting the geometry of an acetonitrile molecule and writing an image to a file. Note that the default unit cell is a $1\text{Å} \times 1\text{Å} \times 1\text{Å}$ cubic cell. That is too small to use if your calculator uses periodic boundary conditions. We center the atoms in the unit cell and add vacuum on each side. We will add 6 Å of vacuum on each side. In the write command we use the option $\texttt{show_unit_cell} = 2$ to draw the unit cell boundaries. See Figure 4.

```
from ase.structure import molecule
from ase.io import write

atoms = molecule('CH3CN')

atoms.center(vacuum=6)
print('unit cell')
print('-----')
print(atoms.get_cell())

write('images/ch3cn.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-8.py).

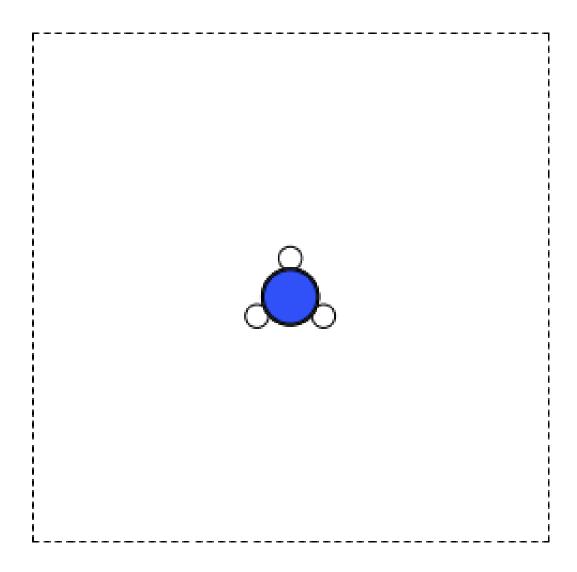


Figure 4: A CH_3CN molecule in a box.

It is possible to rotate the atoms with ase.io.write if you wanted to see pictures from another angle. In the next example we rotate 45 degrees about the x-axis, then 45 degrees about the y-axis. Note that this only affects the image, not the actual coordinates. See Figure 5.

```
from ase.structure import molecule
from ase.io import write

atoms = molecule('CH3CN')

atoms.center(vacuum=6)
print('unit cell')
print('-----')
print(atoms.get_cell())

write('images/ch3cn-rotated.png', atoms,
show_unit_cell=2, rotation='45x,45y,0z')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-9.py).

unit cell

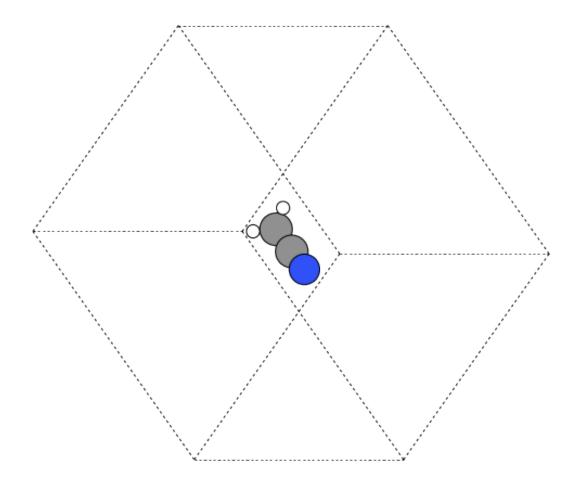


Figure 5: The rotated version of CH₃CN.

If you actually want to rotate the coordinates, there is a nice way to do that too, with the <code>ase.Atoms.rotate</code> method. Actually there are some subtleties in rotation. One rotates the molecule an angle (in radians) around a vector, but you have to choose whether the center of mass should be fixed or not. You also must decide whether or not the unit cell should be rotated. In the next example you can see the coordinates have changed due to the rotations. Note that the write function uses the rotation angle in degrees, while the rotate function uses radians.

```
from ase.structure import molecule
from ase.io import write
from numpy import pi

atoms = molecule('CH3CN')
atoms.center(vacuum=6)
pl = atoms.get_positions()

atoms.rotate('x', pi/4, center='COM', rotate_cell=False)
atoms.rotate('y', pi/4, center='COM', rotate_cell=False)
write('images/ch3cn-rotated-2.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
```

```
13  print('difference in positions after rotating')
14  print('atom difference vector')
15  print('-----')
16  p2 = atoms.get_positions()
17
18  diff = p2 - p1
19  for i, d in enumerate(diff):
20  print('{0} {1}'.format(i, d))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-10.py).

```
difference in positions after rotating atom difference vector

0 [-0.65009456 0.91937255 0.65009456]
1 [ 0.08030744 -0.11357187 -0.08030744]
2 [ 0.66947344 -0.94677841 -0.66947344]
3 [-0.32532156 0.88463727 1.35030756]
4 [-1.35405183 1.33495444 -0.04610517]
5 [-0.8340703 1.33495444 1.2092413]
```



Figure 6: Rotated CH₃CN molecule

Note in this last case the unit cell is oriented differently than the previous example, since we chose not to rotate the unit cell.

3.1.4 Combining Atoms objects

It is frequently useful to combine two Atoms objects, e.g. for computing reaction barriers, or other types of interactions. In ase, we simply add two Atoms objects together. Here is an example of getting an ammonia and oxygen molecule in the same unit cell. See Figure 7. We set the Atoms about three Å apart using the ase.Atoms.translate function.

```
from ase.structure import molecule
from ase.io import write

atoms1 = molecule('NH3')

atoms2 = molecule('02')
atoms2.translate([3, 0, 0])

bothatoms = atoms1 + atoms2
bothatoms.center(5)

write('images/bothatoms.png', bothatoms, show_unit_cell=2, rotation='90x')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-11.py).

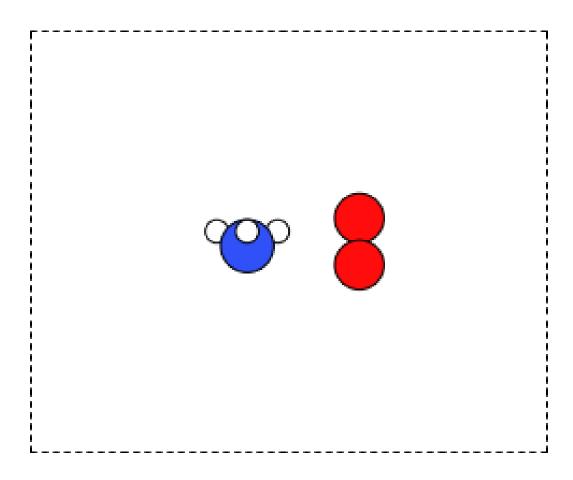


Figure 7: Image featuring ammonia and oxygen molecule in one unit cell.

3.2 Simple properties

Simple properties do not require a DFT calculation. They are typically only functions of the atom types and geometries.

3.2.1 Getting cartesian positions

If you want the (x, y, z) coordinates of the atoms, use the ase.Atoms.get_positions. If you are interested in the fractional coordinates, use ase.Atoms.get_scaled_positions.

```
from ase.structure import molecule
     atoms = molecule('C6H6') # benzene
     for i, atom in enumerate(atoms):
        print('{0:3d}{1:^4s}{2:-8.2f}{3:-8.2f}{4:-8.2f}'.format(i,
10
                                                                      atom.symbol,
11
                                                                      atom.x,
12
                                                                      atom.y,
                                                                      atom.z))
13
     \# get all properties in arrays
    sym = atoms.get_chemical_symbols()
pos = atoms.get_positions()
num = atoms.get_atomic_numbers()
17
```

```
atom_indices = range(len(atoms))
20
21
     print()
22
23
     print(' # sym
                               p_x
                                        р_у
^{24}
     for i, s, n, p in zip(atom_indices, sym, num, pos):
         px, py, pz = p
print('{0:3d}{1:>3s}{2:8d}{3:-8.2f}{4:-8.2f}{5:-8.2f}'.format(i, s, n,
26
27
                                                                            px, py, pz))
28
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-12.py).

#	sym	p_x	р_у	p_z	
0	С	0.00	1.40	0.00	
1	C	1.21	0.70	0.00	
2	C	1.21	-0.70	0.00	
3	C	0.00	-1.40	0.00	
4	C	-1.21	-0.70	0.00	
5	C	-1.21	0.70	0.00	
6	H	0.00	2.48	0.00	
7	H	2.15	1.24	0.00	
8	H	2.15	-1.24	0.00	
9	H	0.00	-2.48	0.00	
10	Н	-2.15	-1.24	0.00	
11	Н	-2.15	1.24	0.00	
#	sym	at#	p_x	p_y	p_z
0		6	0.00	1 40	0.00
				1.40	0.00
1	C	6	1.21	1.40 0.70	0.00
2					
	С	6	1.21	0.70	0.00
2	C C	6 6	1.21 1.21	0.70 -0.70	0.00
2 3	C C	6 6 6	1.21 1.21 0.00	0.70 -0.70 -1.40	0.00 0.00 0.00
2 3 4	C C C	6 6 6	1.21 1.21 0.00 -1.21	0.70 -0.70 -1.40 -0.70	0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00
2 3 4 5	C C C	6 6 6 6	1.21 1.21 0.00 -1.21 -1.21	0.70 -0.70 -1.40 -0.70 0.70	0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00
2 3 4 5 6	C C C C H	6 6 6 6 1	1.21 1.21 0.00 -1.21 -1.21 0.00	0.70 -0.70 -1.40 -0.70 0.70 2.48	0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00
2 3 4 5 6 7	C C C C H	6 6 6 6 1	1.21 1.21 0.00 -1.21 -1.21 0.00 2.15	0.70 -0.70 -1.40 -0.70 0.70 2.48 1.24	0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00
2 3 4 5 6 7 8	С С С С Н Н	6 6 6 6 1 1	1.21 1.21 0.00 -1.21 -1.21 0.00 2.15 2.15	0.70 -0.70 -1.40 -0.70 0.70 2.48 1.24 -1.24	0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00

3.2.2 Molecular weight and molecular formula

We can quickly compute the molecular weight of a molecule with this recipe. We use ase.Atoms.get_masses to get an array of the atomic masses of each atom in the Atoms object, and then just sum them up.

```
from ass.structure import molecule

atoms = molecule('C6H6')

masses = atoms.get_masses()

molecular_weight = masses.sum()

molecular_formula = atoms.get_chemical_formula(mode='reduce')

# note use of two lines to keep length of line reasonable
```

```
s = 'The molecular weight of {0} is {1:1.2f} gm/mol'
10
11
    print(s.format(molecular_formula, molecular_weight))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-13.py).

The molecular weight of C6H6 is 78.11 gm/mol

Note that the argument reduce=True for ase.Atoms.get_chemical_formula collects all the symbols to provide a molecular formula.

3.2.3Center of mass

The center of mass (COM) is defined as:

$$COM = \frac{\sum m_i \cdot r_i}{\sum m_i}$$

 $COM = \frac{\sum_{m_i \cdot r_i}{\sum_{m_i}}}{\sum_{m_i}{m_i}}$ The center of mass is essentially the average position of the atoms, weighted by the mass of each atom. Here is an example of getting the center of mass from an Atoms object using ase. Atoms.get_ center_of_mass.

```
from ase.structure import molecule
     import numpy as np
3
4
     # ammonia
     atoms = molecule('NH3')
5
       # cartesian coordinates
     print('COM1 = {0}'.format(atoms.get_center_of_mass()))
10
     # compute the center of mass by hand
     pos = atoms.positions
11
     masses = atoms.get_masses()
12
13
     COM = np.array([0., 0., 0.])
14
     for m, p in zip(masses, pos):

COM += m*p
16
     COM /= masses.sum()
17
18
     print('COM2 = {0}'.format(COM))
19
     # one-line linear algebra definition of COM
     print('COM3 = {0}'.format(np.dot(masses, pos) / np.sum(masses)))
22
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-14.py).

```
COM1 = [ 0.00000000e+00
                           5.91843349e-08
                                            4.75457009e-02]
COM2 = [
         0.00000000e+00
                           5.91843349e-08
                                            4.75457009e-02]
COM3 = [ 0.00000000e+00
                           5.91843349e-08
                                            4.75457009e-02]
```

You can see see that these centers of mass, which are calculated by different methods, are the same.

3.2.4 Moments of inertia

The moment of inertia is a measure of resistance to changes in rotation. It is defined by $I = \sum_{i=1}^{N} m_i r_i^2$ where r_i is the distance to an axis of rotation. There are typically three moments of inertia, although some may be zero depending on symmetry, and others may be degenerate. There is a convenient function to get the moments of inertia: ase. Atoms.get_moments_of_inertia. Here are several examples of molecules with different types of symmetry.:

```
from ase.structure import molecule
    print('linear rotors: I = [0 Ia Ia]')
3
    atoms = molecule('CO2')
```

```
print(' CO2 moments of inertia: ', atoms.get_moments_of_inertia())
     print()
 6
     print('symmetric rotors (Ia = Ib) < Ic')</pre>
     atoms = molecule('NH3')
10
    print(' NH3 moments of inertia: ', atoms.get_moments_of_inertia())
     atoms = molecule('C6H6')
12
     print(' C6H6 moments of inertia:', atoms.get_moments_of_inertia())
13
14
     print()
15
     print('symmetric rotors Ia < (Ib = Ic)')</pre>
17
     atoms = molecule('CH3C1')
     print('CH3Cl moments of inertia: ', atoms.get_moments_of_inertia())
18
     print()
19
20
     print('spherical rotors Ia = Ib = Ic')
21
     atoms = molecule('CH4')
     print(' CH4 moments of inertia: ', atoms.get_moments_of_inertia())
23
24
     print()
25
     print('unsymmetric rotors Ia != Ib != Ic')
26
     atoms = molecule('C3H7Cl')
27
     print(' C3H7Cl moments of inertia: ', atoms.get_moments_of_inertia())
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-15.py).

If you want to know the principle axes of rotation, we simply pass vectors=True to the function, and it returns the moments of inertia and the principle axes.

```
from ase.structure import molecule

atoms = molecule('CH3Cl')
moments, axes = atoms.get_moments_of_inertia(vectors=True)
print('Moments = {0}'.format(moments))
print('axes = {0}'.format(axes))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-16.py).

```
Moments = [ 3.20372189 37.97009644 37.97009837]

axes = [[ 0.  0.  1.]

  [ 0.  1.  0.]

  [ 1.  0.  0.]]
```

This shows the first moment is about the z-axis, the second moment is about the y-axis, and the third moment is about the x-axis.

3.2.5 Computing bond lengths and angles

A typical question we might ask is, "What is the structure of a molecule?" In other words, what are the bond lengths, angles between bonds, and similar properties. The Atoms object contains an ase.Atoms. get_distance method to make this easy. To calculate the distance between two atoms, you have to specify their indices, remembering that the index starts at 0.

```
from ass.structure import molecule

# ammonia
atoms = molecule('NH3')

print('atom symbol')
print('=======')
for i, atom in enumerate(atoms):
    print('{0:2d} {1:3s}' .format(i, atom.symbol))

# N-H bond length
s = 'The N-H distance is {0:1.3f} angstroms'
print(s.format(atoms.get_distance(0, 1)))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-17.py).

```
atom symbol
========

0 N
1 H
2 H
3 H
The N-H distance is 1.017 angstroms
```

Bond angles are a little trickier. If we had vectors describing the directions between two atoms, we could use some simple trigonometry to compute the angle between the vectors: $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = |\vec{a}| |\vec{b}| \cos(\theta)$. So we can calculate the angle as $\theta = \arccos\left(\frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{|\vec{a}||\vec{b}|}\right)$, we just have to define our two vectors \vec{a} and \vec{b} . We compute these vectors as the difference in positions of two atoms. For example, here we compute the angle H-N-H in an ammonia molecule. This is the angle between N-H₁ and N-H₂. In the next example, we utilize functions in numpy to perform the calculations, specifically the numpy.arccos function, the numpy.dot function, and numpy.linalg.norm functions.

```
from ase.structure import molecule
2
3
     atoms = molecule('NH3')
     print('atom symbol')
     print('=====;')
     for i, atom in enumerate(atoms):
         print('{0:2d} {1:3s}'.format(i, atom.symbol))
10
     a = atoms.positions[0] - atoms.positions[1]
b = atoms.positions[0] - atoms.positions[2]
12
13
     from numpy import arccos, dot, pi
14
     from numpy.linalg import norm
15
     theta_rad = arccos(dot(a, b) / (norm(a) * norm(b))) # in radians
17
18
     print('theta = {0:1.1f} degrees'.format(theta_rad * 180./pi))
19
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-18.py).

```
atom symbol
```

```
0 N
1 H
2 H
3 H
theta = 106.3 degrees
```

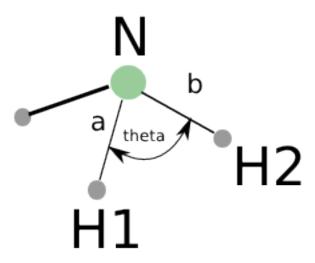


Figure 8: Schematic of the vectors defining the H-N-H angle.

Alternatively you could use $ase.Atoms.get_angle$. Note we want the angle between atoms with indices [1, 0, 2] to get the H-N-H angle.

```
from ase.structure import molecule
from numpy import pi
# ammonia
atoms = molecule('NH3')

print('theta = {0} degrees'.format(atoms.get_angle([1, 0, 2]) * 180. / pi))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-19.py).

```
theta = 106.334624232 degrees
```

Dihedral angles There is support in ase for computing dihedral angles. Let us illustrate that for ethane. We will compute the dihedral angle between atoms 5, 1, 0, and 4. That is a H-C-C-H dihedral angle, and one can visually see (although not here) that these atoms have a dihedral angle of 60° (Figure 9).

```
1 # calculate an ethane dihedral angle
2 from ase.structure import molecule
3 import numpy as np
```

```
atoms = molecule('C2H6')

print('atom symbol')
print('==========')
for i, atom in enumerate(atoms):
    print('{0:2d} {1:3s}'.format(i, atom.symbol))

da = atoms.get_dihedral([5, 1, 0, 4]) * 180. / np.pi
print('dihedral angle = {0:1.2f} degrees'.format(da))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-20.py).



Figure 9: Schematic of the calculated ethane dihedral angle.

In this section we covered properties that require simple calculations, but not DFT calculations, to compute.

3.3 Simple properties that require single computations

There are many properties that only require a single DFT calculation to obtain the energy, forces, density of states, electron density and electrostatic potential. This section describes some of these calculations and their analysis.

3.3.1 Energy and forces

Two of the most important quantities we are interested in are the total energy and the forces on the atoms. To get these quantities, we have to define a calculator and attach it to an ase. Atoms object so that ase knows how to get the data. After defining the calculator a DFT calculation must be run.

Here is an example of getting the energy and forces from a CO molecule. The forces in this case are very high, indicating that this geometry is not close to the ground state geometry. Note that the forces are only along the x-axis, which is along the molecular axis. We will see how to minimize this force in Manual determination and Automatic geometry optimization with VASP.

Note:

This is your first DFT calculation in the book! See ISMEAR, SIGMA, NBANDS, and ENCUT to learn more about these VASP keywords.

```
from ase import Atoms, Atom
     from jasp import *
     import numpy as np
4
    {\tt np.set\_printoptions(precision=3, suppress=True)}
    10
    with jasp('molecules/simple-co', \# output dir
              xc='PBE', # the exchange-correlation functional
11
                          # number of bands
              nbands=6,
12
               encut=350,
                           # planewave cutoff
13
                           # Methfessel-Paxton smearing
               sigma=0.01, # very small smearing factor for a molecule
        atoms=co) as calc:
print('energy = {0} eV'.format(co.get_potential_energy()))
17
        print(co.get_forces())
18
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-21.py).

```
energy = -14.687906 eV
[[ 5.095 0. 0. ]
[-5.095 0. 0. ]]
```

Convergence with unit cell size There are a number of parameters that affect the energy and forces including the calculation parameters and the unit cell. We will first consider the effect of the unit cell on the total energy and forces. The reason that the unit cell affects the total energy is that it can change the distribution of electrons in the molecule.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase import Atoms, Atom
     import numpy as np
 3
     np.set_printoptions(precision=3, suppress=True)
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('C', [0, 0, 0]),
Atom('O', [1.2, 0, 0])])
    L = [4, 5, 6, 8, 10]
9
10
     energies = []
13
     for a in L:
         atoms.set_cell([a, a, a], scale_atoms=False)
14
         atoms.center()
15
         with jasp('molecules/co-L-{0}'.format(a),
16
                    encut=350,
17
                    xc='PBE'.
19
                    atoms=atoms) as calc:
20
             try:
                  energies.append(atoms.get potential energy())
21
              except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
22
23
                  ready = False
25
     if not ready:
26
         import sys; sys.exit()
27
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
28
     plt.plot(L, energies, 'bo-')
     plt.xlabel('Unit cell length ($\AA$)')
     plt.ylabel('Total energy (eV)')
32
     plt.savefig('images/co-e-v.png')
     plt.show()
33
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-22.py).

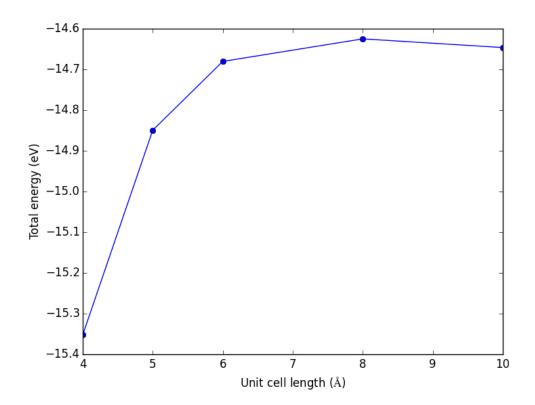


Figure 10: Total energy of a CO molecule as a function of the unit cell length.

Here there are evidently attractive interactions between the CO molecules which lower the total energy for small box sizes. We have to decide what an appropriate volume for our calculation is, and the choice depends on the goal. We may wish to know the total energy of a molecule that is not interacting with any other molecules, e.g. in the ideal gas limit. In that case we need a large unit cell so the electron density from the molecule does not go outside the unit cell where it would overlap with neighboring images.

It pays to check for convergence. The cost of running the calculation goes up steeply with increasing cell size. Doubling a lattice vector here leads to a 20-fold increase in computational time! Note that doubling a lattice vector length increases the volume by a factor of 8 for a cube. The cost goes up because the number of planewaves that fit in the cube grows as the cube gets larger.

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-23.py).

```
4 1.601 seconds
5 3.932 seconds
6 6.543 seconds
8 19.678 seconds
10 36.013 seconds
```

Let us consider what the pressure in the unit cell is. In the ideal gas limit we have PV = nRT, which gives a pressure of zero at absolute zero. At non-zero temperatures, we have P = n/VRT. Let us consider some examples. In atomic units we use k_B instead of R.

```
from ase.units import kB, Pascal
    import numpy as np
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
    atm = 101325 * Pascal
    L = np.linspace(4, 10)
    n = 1 # one atom/molecule per unit cell
10
11
    for T in [298, 600, 1000]:
12
           = n / V * kB * T / atm # convert to atmospheres
13
14
        plt.plot(V, P, label='{0}K'.format(T))
16
    plt.xlabel('Unit cell volume ($\AA^3$)')
17
    plt.ylabel('Pressure (atm)')
18
    plt.legend(loc='best')
19
    plt.savefig('images/ideal-gas-pressure.png')
    plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-24.py).

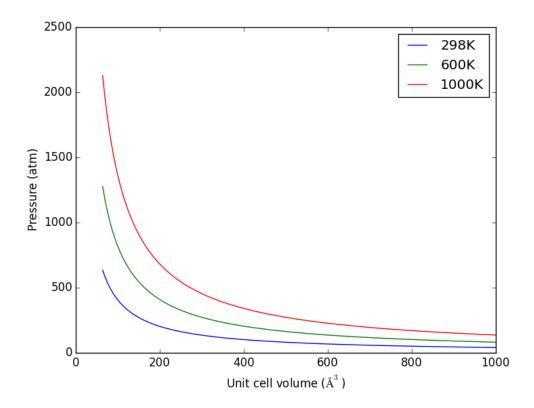


Figure 11: Ideal gas pressure dependence on temperature and unit cell volume.

Convergence of ENCUT The total energy and forces also depend on the computational parameters, notably ENCUT.

```
from ase import Atoms, Atom
 1
      from jasp import *
 3
      import numpy as np
      \label{local_print} \verb"np.set_printoptions" (precision=3, suppress=True)
 4
 5
      atoms.center()
10
      ENCUTS = [250, 300, 350, 400, 450, 500]
11
12
      energies = []
13
14
      ready = True
15
      for en in ENCUTS:
           with jasp('molecules/co-en-{0}'.format(en),
                       encut=en,
xc='PBE',
17
18
                       atoms=atoms) as calc:
19
20
21
                     energies.append(atoms.get_potential_energy())
22
                except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
23
                     ready = False
24
      if not ready:
25
           import sys; sys.exit()
26
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.plot(ENCUTS, energies, 'bo-')
plt.xlabel('ENCUT (eV)')
plt.ylabel('Total energy (eV)')
plt.savefig('images/co-encut-v.png')
29
30
31
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-25.py).

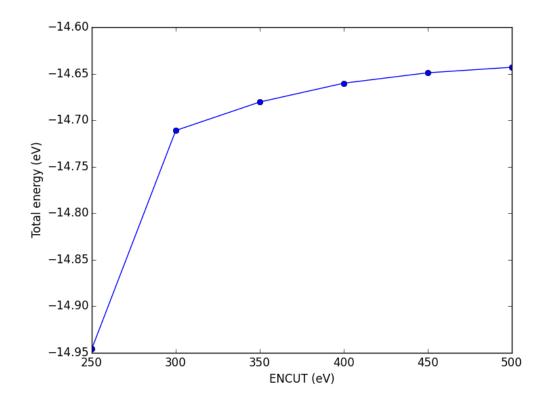


Figure 12: Dependence of the total energy of CO molecule on ENCUT.

You can see in this figure that it takes a cutoff energy of about 400 eV to achieve a convergence level around 10 meV, and that even at 500 meV the energy is still changing slightly. Keep in mind that we are generally interested in differences in total energy, and the differences tend to converge faster than a single total energy. Also it is important to note that it is usually a single element that determines the rate of convergence. The reason we do not just use very high ENCUT all the time is it is expensive.

```
grep "Elapsed time (sec):" molecules/co-en-*/OUTCAR
   Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-26.py).
molecules/co-en-250/OUTCAR:
                                                                                      3.590
                                                         Elapsed time (sec):
molecules/co-en-300/OUTCAR:
                                                         Elapsed time (sec):
                                                                                      6.016
molecules/co-en-350/OUTCAR:
                                                         Elapsed time (sec):
                                                                                      6.014
molecules/co-en-400/OUTCAR:
                                                         Elapsed time (sec):
                                                                                      7.883
molecules/co-en-450/OUTCAR:
                                                         Elapsed time (sec):
                                                                                      12.421
molecules/co-en-500/OUTCAR:
                                                         Elapsed time (sec):
                                                                                      15.167
```

Although here the times do not seem that unreasonable, note we increased the time by a factor of three by simply doubling ENCUT. If the first time was a week, this is a significant increase in time!

3.3.2 Visualizing electron density

The electron density is a 3d quantity: for every (x,y,z) point, there is a charge density. That means we need 4 numbers for each point: (x,y,z) and $\rho(x,y,z)$. Below we show an example (Figure 13) of plotting the charge density, and we consider some issues we have to consider when visualizing volumetric data in unit cells with periodic boundary conditions. We will use the results from a previous calculation.

```
from jasp import *
     from enthought.mayavi import mlab
     from ase.data import vdw_radii
     from ase.data.colors import cpk_colors
 5
     with jasp('molecules/simple-co') as calc:
 6
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
         x, y, z, cd = calc.get_charge_density()
     # make a white figure
10
11
     mlab.figure(1, bgcolor=(1, 1, 1))
12
     # plot the atoms as spheres
13
14
     for atom in atoms:
         mlab.points3d(atom.x)
16
                        atom. v.
17
                        atom.z.
                        #this determines the size of the atom
18
                        scale_factor=vdw_radii[atom.number] / 5.,
19
                        # a tuple is required for the color
                        color=tuple(cpk_colors[atom.number]),
23
                        scale_mode='none')
24
     # draw the unit cell - there are 8 corners, and 12 connections
25
     a1, a2, a3 = atoms.get_cell()
26
     origin = [0, 0, 0]
     cell_matrix = [[origin,
28
29
                     [origin,
30
                     [origin,
                               a31.
                               a1 + a2],
31
                     [a1,
                               a1 + a3],
                     [a1,
32
                     [a2,
                               a2 + a1],
33
                     [a2,
                               a2 + a3],
35
                               a1 + a3],
                     [a3,
                               a2 + a31.
36
                     ГаЗ.
                     [a1 + a2, a1 + a2 + a3],
37
                     [a2 + a3, a1 + a2 + a3]
38
```

```
for p1, p2 in cell_matrix:

mlab.plot3d([p1[0], p2[0]], # x-positions

[p1[1], p2[1]], # y-positions

[p1[2], p2[2]], # z-positions

tube_radius=0.02)

# Now plot the charge density

mlab.contour3d(x, y, z, cd)

mlab.view(azimuth=-90, elevation=90, distance='auto')

mlab.savefig('images/co-cd.png')

mlab.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-27.py).

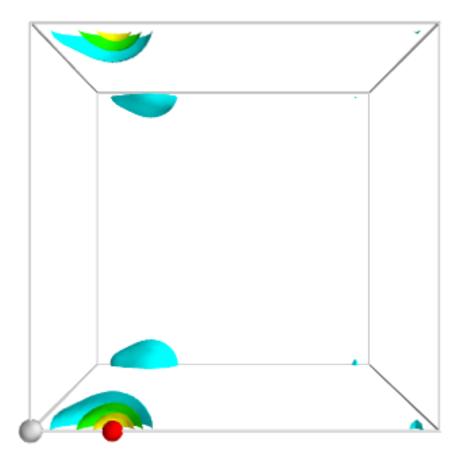


Figure 13: Charge density of a CO molecule that is located at the origin. The electron density that is outside the cell is wrapped around to the other corners.

If we take care to center the CO molecule in the unit cell, we get a nicer looking result.

```
from jasp import *
from enthought.mayavi import mlab
from ase.data import vdw_radii
from ase.data.colors import cpk_colors
from ase import Atom, Atoms

atoms = Atoms([Atom('C', [2.422, 0.0, 0.0]),
Atom('0', [3.578, 0.0, 0.0])],
cell=(10,10,10))
```

```
11
      atoms.center()
12
      with jasp('molecules/co-centered',
13
                  encut=350,
14
                  xc='PBE',
15
16
                  atoms=atoms) as calc:
17
          atoms = calc.get_atoms()
x, y, z, cd = calc.get_charge_density()
18
19
20
      mlab.figure(bgcolor=(1, 1, 1))
21
      \# plot the atoms as spheres
23
24
      for atom in atoms:
          mlab.points3d(atom.x,
25
26
                           atom.y,
27
                            scale_factor=vdw_radii[atom.number]/5.,
29
                            resolution=20,
                           # a tuple is required for the color
color=tuple(cpk_colors[atom.number]),
30
31
                           scale_mode='none')
32
33
      \mbox{\it\#} draw the unit cell - there are 8 corners, and 12 connections
35
      a1, a2, a3 = atoms.get_cell()
      origin = [0, 0, 0]
36
      cell_matrix = [[origin, a1],
37
38
                        [origin, a2],
                        [origin,
39
                                    a3],
40
                        [a1,
                                    a1 + a2],
                        [a1,
                                     a1 + a3],
42
                        [a2,
                                    a2 + a1],
                                    a2 + a3],
43
                        [a2,
                                    a1 + a3],
                        [a3,
44
                                    a2 + a3],
                        [a3,
45
                        [a1 + a2, a1 + a2 + a3],
[a2 + a3, a1 + a2 + a3],
46
47
48
                        [a1 + a3, a1 + a3 + a2]]
49
     for p1, p2 in cell_matrix:
50
          mlab.plot3d([p1[0], p2[0]], # x-positions
[p1[1], p2[1]], # y-positions
[p1[2], p2[2]], # z-positions
51
52
54
                         tube_radius=0.02)
55
56
      # Now plot the charge density
57
     mlab.contour3d(x, y, z, cd, transparent=True)
58
     # this view was empirically found by iteration
mlab.view(azimuth=-90, elevation=90, distance='auto')
61
62
      mlab.savefig('images/co-centered-cd.png')
63
      mlab.show()
64
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-28.py).

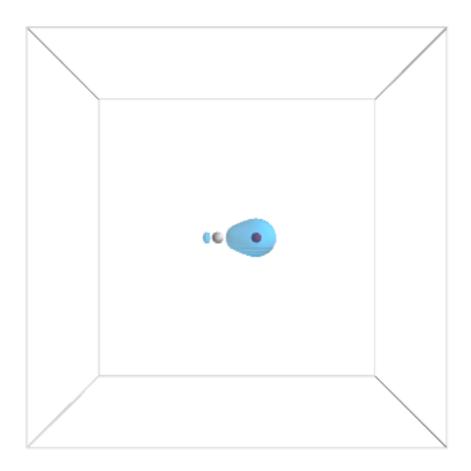


Figure 14: Charge density of a CO molecule centered in the unit cell. Now the electron density is centered in the unit cell.

TODO: how to make this figure http://www.zid.tuwien.ac.at/fileadmin/files_zid/zidline/images/zl22/vasp--fig1.jpg

3.3.3 Visualizing electron density differences

Here, we visualize how charge moves in a benzene ring when you substitute an H atom with an electronegative Cl atom.

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
      from ase import *
from ase.structure import molecule
 2
 3
      from jasp import *
      ### Setup calculators
benzene = molecule('C6H6')
      benzene.set_cell([10, 10, 10])
 9
      benzene.center()
10
11
      with jasp('molecules/benzene',
                  xc='PBE',
                  nbands=18,
13
                  encut=350.
14
                  atoms=benzene) as calc:
15
16
           print(benzene.get_potential_energy())
x1, y1, z1, cd1 = calc.get_charge_density()
17
      chlorobenzene = molecule('C6H6')
20
```

```
chlorobenzene.set_cell([10, 10, 10])
     chlorobenzene.center()
chlorobenzene[11].symbol ='Cl'
22
23
24
      with jasp('molecules/chlorobenzene',
26
                 xc='PBE',
                 nbands=18,
encut=350,
^{27}
28
                 atoms=chlorobenzene) as calc:
29
          chlorobenzene.get_potential_energy()
x2, y2, cd2 = calc.get_charge_density()
30
31
     cdiff = cd2 - cd1
33
34
      35
36
37
39
      ##### set up visualization of charge difference
     from enthought mayavi import mlab mlab.contour3d(x1, y1, z1, cdiff, contours=[-0.02, 0.02])
40
41
42
43
     mlab.savefig('images/cdiff.png')
45
      mlab.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-29.py).

-75.99995466 (-2.082144999999988, 2.968899999999999)

```
./images/cdiff.png
```

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
       from ase import *
from jasp import *
import bisect
 2
 3
 4
       def vinterp3d(x, y, z, u, xi, yi, zi):
    "Interpolate the point (xi, yi, zi) from the values at u(x, y, z)"
    p = np.array([xi, yi, zi])
 8
 9
10
11
               #1D arrays of coordinates
              xv = x[:, 0, 0]
yv = y[0, :, 0]
zv = z[0, 0, :]
12
13
14
15
              # we subtract 1 because bisect tells us where to insert the # element to maintain an ordered list, so we want the index to the
16
17
               # left of that point
             i = bisect.bisect_right(xv, xi) - 1
j = bisect.bisect_right(yv, yi) - 1
k = bisect.bisect_right(zv, zi) - 1
20
21
22
              if i == len(x) - 1:
    i = len(x) - 2
23
               elif i < 0:
i = 0
26
```

```
27
            if j == len(y) - 1:
 28
                  j = len(y) - 2
 29
             elif j < 0:
 30
                j = 0
 32
             if k == len(z) - 1:
    k = len(z) - 2
 33
 34
             elif k < 0:
 35
                 k = 0
 36
 37
             # points at edge of cell. We only need P1, P2, P3, and P5
 39
             P1 = np.array([x[i, j, k],
 40
                                 y[i, j, k],
            y[i, j, k],
z[i, j, k]])

P2 = np.array([x[i + 1, j, k],
y[i + 1, j, k],
z[i + 1, j, k]])

P3 = np.array([x[i, j + 1, k],
y[i, j + 1, k],
z[i, j + 1, k]])

P5 = np.array([x[i, j, k + 1],
y[i, j, k + 1],
z[i, j, k + 1])
 41
 42
 43
 45
 46
 47
 48
 49
                                 z[i, j, k + 1]])
 51
 52
             \# values of u at edge of cell
             u1 = u[i, j, k]

u2 = u[i+1, j, k]

u3 = u[i, j+1, k]
 53
 54
 55
 56
             u4 = u[i+1, j+1, k]
             u5 = u[i, j, k+1]
            u6 = u[i+1, j, k+1]

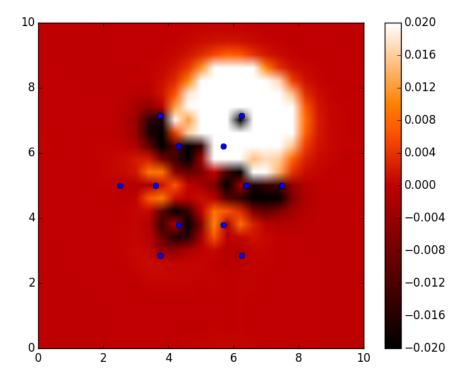
u7 = u[i, j+1, k+1]

u8 = u[i+1, j+1, k+1]
 58
 59
 60
 61
             # cell basis vectors, not the unit cell, but the voxel cell containing the point
 62
 63
             cbasis = np.array([P2 - P1,
 64
                                      P3 - P1.
                                      P5 - P11)
 65
 66
             # now get interpolated point in terms of the cell basis
 67
             s = np.dot(np.linalg.inv(cbasis.T), np.array([xi, yi, zi]) - P1)
 68
             \# now s = (sa, sb, sc) which are fractional coordinates in the vector space
 70
            # next we do the interpolations
ui1 = u1 + s[0] * (u2 - u1)
 71
 72
             ui2 = u3 + s[0] * (u4 - u3)
 73
 74
             ui3 = u5 + s[0] * (u6 - u5)

ui4 = u7 + s[0] * (u8 - u7)
 76
 77
            ui5 = ui1 + s[1] * (ui2 - ui1)
ui6 = ui3 + s[1] * (ui4 - ui3)
 78
 79
 80
             ui7 = ui5 + s[2] * (ui6 - ui5)
 81
 82
 83
             return ui7
 84
        ### Setup calculators
 85
        with jasp('molecules/benzene') as calc:
 86
             benzene = calc.get_atoms()
 87
             x1, y1, z1, cd1 = calc.get_charge_density()
 89
       with jasp('molecules/chlorobenzene') as calc:
    x2, y2, z2, cd2 = calc.get_charge_density()
 90
 91
 92
       cdiff = cd2 - cd1
 93
 94
       #we need the x-y plane at z=5 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
 95
 96
       from scipy import mgrid
 97
 98
       X, Y = mgrid[0: 10: 25j, 0: 10: 25j]
 99
       cdiff_plane = np.zeros(X.shape)
101
102
       ni, nj = X.shape
103
       for i in range(ni):
104
```

```
105
           for j in range(nj):
                cdiff_plane[i, j] = vinterp3d(x1, y1, z1, cdiff, X[i, j], Y[i, j], 5.0)
106
107
      plt.imshow(cdiff_plane,
108
                   vmin=-0.02, # min charge diff to plot
vmax=0.02, # max charge diff to plot
109
110
111
                    cmap=plt.cm.gist_heat, # colormap
                   extent=(0., 10., 0., 10.)) # axes limits
112
113
       # plot atom positions. It is a little tricky to see why we reverse the x and y coordinates. That is because imshow does that.
114
      x = [a.y for a in benzene]
y = [a.x for a in benzene]
115
116
117
      plt.plot(x, y, 'bo')
118
      plt.colorbar() #add colorbar
119
      plt.savefig('images/cdiff-imshow.png')
120
121
      plt.figure()
      plt.contourf(X, Y, cdiff_plane)
plt.plot(y, x, 'ko')
123
124
      plt.axis('equal')
125
      plt.show()
126
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-30.py).



3.3.4 Dipole moments

The dipole moment is a vector describing the separation of electrical (negative) and nuclear (positive) charge. The magnitude of this vector is the dipole moment, which has units of Coulomb-meter, or more commonly Debye. The symmetry of a molecule determines if a molecule has a dipole moment or not. Below we compute the dipole moment of CO. We must integrate the electron density to find the center of electrical charge, and compute a sum over the nuclei to find the center of positive charge.

```
from jasp import *
from ase.units import Debye
```

```
with jasp('molecules/co-centered') as calc:
4
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
5
         atoms.get_potential_energy()
 6
         vcd = VaspChargeDensity()
 9
         cd = np.array(vcd.chg[0])
10
         n0, n1, n2 = cd.shape
11
12
         s0 = 1.0 / n0
13
          s1 = 1.0 / n1
         s2 = 1.0 / n2
15
16
         X, Y, Z = np.mgrid[0.0:1.0:s0,
17
                              0.0:1.0:s1,
18
                              0.0:1.0:s2]
19
21
         C = np.column_stack([X.ravel(),
22
                                Y.ravel()
23
                                Z.ravel()1)
24
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
25
         uc = atoms.get_cell()
27
         real = np.dot(C, uc)
28
          # now convert arrays back to unitcell shape
29
         x = np.reshape(real[:, 0], (n0, n1, n2))
y = np.reshape(real[:, 1], (n0, n1, n2))
30
31
         z = np.reshape(real[:, 2], (n0, n1, n2))
34
         nelements = n0 * n1 * n2
         voxel_volume = atoms.get_volume() / nelements
total_electron_charge = -cd.sum() * voxel_volume
35
36
37
38
          electron_density_center = np.array([(cd * x).sum(),
39
                                                 (cd * y).sum()
40
                                                 (cd * z).sum()])
41
          electron_density_center *= voxel_volume
         electron_density_center /= total_electron_charge
42
43
         electron_dipole_moment = -electron_density_center * total_electron_charge
44
46
          # now the ion charge center. We only need the Zval listed in the potcar
47
         from jasp.POTCAR import get_ZVAL
48
         LOP = calc.get_pseudopotentials()
49
         ppp = os.environ['VASP_PP_PATH']
50
         zval = {}
53
         for sym, ppath, hash in LOP:
54
              fullpath = os.path.join(ppp, ppath)
              z = get_ZVAL(fullpath)
55
              zval[sym] = z
56
          ion_charge_center = np.array([0.0, 0.0, 0.0])
57
          total_ion_charge = 0.0
59
         for atom in atoms:
60
              Z = zval[atom.symbol]
              total_ion_charge += Z
pos = atom.position
61
62
63
              ion_charge_center += Z*pos
65
          ion_charge_center /= total_ion_charge
66
          ion_dipole_moment = ion_charge_center * total_ion_charge
67
          dipole_vector = (ion_dipole_moment + electron_dipole_moment)
68
          dipole_moment = ((dipole_vector**2).sum())**0.5 / Debye
         print('The dipole moment is {0:1.2f} Debye'.format(dipole_moment))
72
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-31.py).

The dipole moment is 0.10 Debye

Note that a function using the code above exists in <code>jasp</code> which makes it trivial to compute the dipole moment. Here is an example of its usage.

```
from jasp import *
from ase.units import Debye

with jasp('molecules/co-centered') as calc:
dipole_vector = calc.get_dipole_moment()
dipole_moment = ((dipole_vector**2).sum())**0.5/Debye
print('The dipole moment is {0:1.2f} Debye'.format(dipole_moment))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-32.py).

The dipole moment is 0.10 Debye

3.3.5 The density of states (DOS)

The density of states (DOS) gives you the number of electronic states (i.e., the orbitals) that have a particular energy. We can get this information from the last calculation we just ran without having to run another DFT calculation.

Warning:

One way that jasp is unintuitive is that whenever you are "inside" (indented) a with statement, the current working directory may be different than where your script started. In this example that can lead to your figure not being saved where you expect it to be saved!

```
from jasp import \ast
2
    from ase.dft.dos import DOS
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
3
     with jasp('molecules/simple-co') as calc: # we already ran this!
         dos = DOS(calc)
         {\tt plt.plot(dos.get\_energies(),\ dos.get\_dos())}
         plt.xlabel('Energy - $E_f$ (eV)')
         plt.ylabel('DOS')
9
10
11
    # make sure you save the figure outside the with statement, or provide
12
    # the correct relative or absolute path to where you want it.
13
    plt.savefig('images/co-dos.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-33.py).

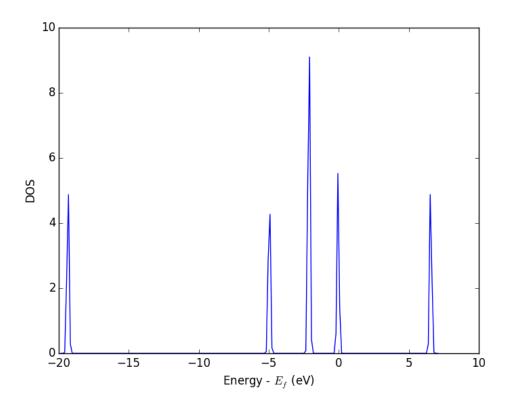


Figure 15: Density of states for a ${\it CO}$ molecule.

3.3.6 Atom-projected density of states on molecules

Let us consider which states in the density of states belong to which atoms in a molecule. This can only be a qualitative consideration because the orbitals on the atoms often hybridize to form molecular orbitals, e.g. in methane the s and p orbitals can form what we call sp^3 orbitals. We can compute atom-projected density of states in VASP, which is done by projecting the wave function onto localized atomic orbitals. Here is an example. We will consider the CO molecule. To get atom-projected density of states, we must set RWIGS for each atom. This parameter defines the radius of the sphere around the atom which cuts off the projection. The total density of states and projected density of states information comes from the DOSCAR file.

Note that unlike the DOS, here we must run another calculation because we did not specify the atom-projected keywords above. Our strategy is to get the atoms from the previous calculation, and use them in a new calculation. You could redo the calculation in the same directory, but you risk losing the results of the first step. That can make it difficult to reproduce a result. We advocate our approach of using multiple directories for the subsequent calculations, because it leaves a clear trail of how the work was done.

Note:

The RWIGS is not uniquely determined for an element. There are various natural choices, e.g. the ionic radius of an atom, or a value that minimizes overlap of neighboring spheres, but these values can change slightly in different environments.

You can also get spin-polarized atom-projected DOS, and magnetization projected DOS. See http://cms.mpi.univie.ac.at/vasp/vasp/DOSCAR_file.html#doscar for more details.

```
from jasp import *
from ase.dft.dos import DOS
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
2
3
      # get the geometry from another calculation
      with jasp('molecules/simple-co') as calc:
          atoms = calc.get_atoms()
     with jasp('molecules/co-ados',
9
                 encut=300,
10
11
                 rwigs=[1.0, 1.0],
                                           # these are the cutoff radii for projected states
13
                 atoms=atoms) as calc:
          calc.calculate()
14
15
          # now get results
16
17
          dos = DOS(calc)
18
          plt.plot(dos.get_energies(), dos.get_dos() + 10)
19
          ados = VaspDos(efermi=calc.get_fermi_level())
20
21
          energies = ados.energy
22
          plt.plot(energies, ados.dos + 8, label='ADOS') # these are the total DOS
23
25
          c_s = ados.site_dos(0, 's')
          c_p = ados.site_dos(0, 'p')
o_s = ados.site_dos(1, 's')
26
27
          o_p = ados.site_dos(1, 'p')
28
29
30
          c_d = ados.site_dos(0, 'd')
          o_d = ados.site_dos(1, 'd')
32
          plt.plot(energies, c_s + 6, energies, o_s + 5)
plt.plot(energies, c_p + 4, energies, o_p + 3)
plt.plot(energies, c_d, energies, o_d + 2)
plt.xlabel('Energy - $E_f$ (eV)')
33
34
35
36
37
          plt.ylabel('DOS')
          38
39
40
41
42
      plt.savefig('images/co-ados.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-34.py).

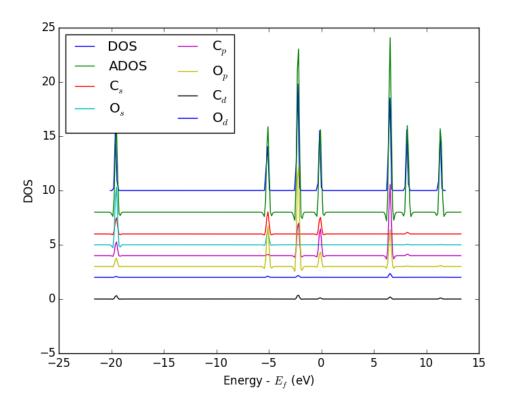


Figure 16: Atom-projected DOS for a CO molecule. The total density of states and the s, p and d states on the C and O are shown.

3.3.7 Electrostatic potential

This is an example of the so-called σ hole in a halogen bond. The coordinates for the CF₃Br molecule were found at http://cccbdb.nist.gov/exp2.asp?casno=75638.

```
from jasp import \ast
      from ase import Atom, Atoms from ase.io import write
 3
      from enthought.mayavi import mlab
      from ase.data import vdw_radii
      {\tt from} \ {\tt ase.data.colors} \ {\tt import} \ {\tt cpk\_colors}
      atoms = Atoms([Atom('C', [ 0.0000, Atom('Br', [ 0.0000,
                                                               0.0000,
                                                                                              -0.8088]),
 9
                                                               0.0000,
                                                                                      1.1146]),
10
                          Atom('F', [ 0.0000, Atom('F', [ 1.0787, Atom('F', [-1.0787, cell=(10, 10, 10))
11
                                                               1.2455,
                                                                                              -1.2651]),
                                                          -0.6228,
                                                                                          -1.2651]),
                                                                                          -1.2651])],
13
                                                          -0.6228,
14
15
      atoms.center()
16
17
      with jasp('molecules/CF3Br',
18
                    encut=350,
                    xc='PBE',
20
                    ibrion=1,
                    nsw=50,
21
                    lvtot=True,
22
                    lvhar=True,
23
                    atoms=atoms) as calc:
            calc.set_nbands(f=2)
26
            calc.calculate()
```

```
x, y, z, lp = calc.get_local_potential()
x, y, z, cd = calc.get_charge_density()
28
29
30
       mlab.figure(1, bgcolor=(1, 1, 1)) # make a white figure
31
33
       \# plot the atoms as spheres
34
       for atom in atoms:
             mlab.points3d(atom.x,
35
36
                                 atom.y,
                                 atom.z,
37
                                 scale_factor=vdw_radii[atom.number]/5.,
38
                                 resolution=20,
       # a tuple is required for the color
color=tuple(cpk_colors[atom.number]),
scale_mode='none')

# plot the bonds. We want a line from C-Br, C-F, etc...
# We create a bond matrix showing which atoms are connected.
40
41
42
43
44
       bond_matrix = [[0, 1],
46
                             [0, 2],
                             [0, 3],
[0, 4]]
47
48
49
50
       for a1, a2 in bond_matrix:
            mlab.plot3d(atoms.positions[[a1,a2], 0], # x-positions atoms.positions[[a1,a2], 1], # y-positions atoms.positions[[a1,a2], 2], # z-positions
51
52
53
                               [2, 2],
54
                               tube_radius=0.02,
55
                               colormap='Reds')
56
       mlab.contour3d(x, y, z, lp)
59
       mlab.savefig('images/halogen-ep.png')
       mlab.show()
60
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-35.py).

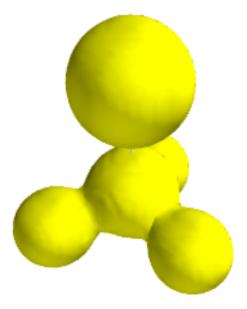


Figure 17: Plot of the electrostatic potential of CF_3Br . TODO: figure out how to do an isosurface of charge, colormapped by the local potential.

See http://www.uni-due.de/~hp0058/?file=manual03.html&dir=vmdplugins for examples of using VMD for visualization.

3.3.8 Bader analysis

Bader analysis is a charge partitioning scheme where charge is divided by surfaces of zero flux that define atomic basins of charge. The most modern way of calculating the Bader charges is using the bader program from Graeme Henkelmen's group. 42,43 Let us consider a water molecule, centered in a box. The strategy is first to run the calculation, then run the bader program on the results.

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-36.py).

GRID BASED BADER ANALYSIS (Version 0.27e 05/09/11)

OPEN ... CHG

VASP-STYLE INPUT FILE

VASP5 format

FFT-grid: 112 x 128 x 120

CLOSE ... CHG

RUN TIME: 0.74 SECONDS

CALCULATING BADER CHARGE DISTRIBUTION

0 10 25 50 75 100

PERCENT DONE: **************

REFINING AUTOMATICALLY

ITERATION: 1

EDGE POINTS: 1400048 REASSIGNED POINTS: 111247

ITERATION: 2

CHECKED POINTS: 913174 REASSIGNED POINTS: 1424

ITERATION: 3

CHECKED POINTS: 15784 REASSIGNED POINTS: 362

ITERATION: 4

3190 CHECKED POINTS: REASSIGNED POINTS: 176

ITERATION: 5

1228 CHECKED POINTS: REASSIGNED POINTS: 99

ITERATION: 6

CHECKED POINTS: 688 REASSIGNED POINTS: 21 ITERATION: 7

CHECKED POINTS: 267 REASSIGNED POINTS: 1

ITERATION: 8

CHECKED POINTS: 26 REASSIGNED POINTS:

RUN TIME: 26.40 SECONDS

CALCULATING MINIMUM DISTANCES TO ATOMS

0 10 25 50 75 100

PERCENT DONE: **************

RUN TIME: 1.29 SECONDS

WRITING BADER ATOMIC CHARGES TO ACF.dat WRITING BADER VOLUME CHARGES TO BCF.dat

NUMBER OF BADER MAXIMA FOUND: 5407 SIGNIFICANT MAXIMA FOUND: 10

NUMBER OF ELECTRONS: 7.99999

WRITING ATOMIC VOLUMES

RUN TIME: 3.96 SECONDS

WRITING BADER ATOMIC INDEX TO AtIndex.dat

cat ACF.dat

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-37.py).

#	Х	Y	Z	CHARGE	MIN DIST	ATOMIC VOL
1	6.0000	6.7632	6.5963	7.9990	2.2193	644.5831
2	6.0000	7.5265	6.0000	0.0007	1.6422	759.8654
3	6.0000	6.0000	6.0000	0.0003	1.6422	640.1559

VACUUM CHARGE: 0.0000 VACUUM VOLUME: 0.0000 NUMBER OF ELECTRONS: 8.0000

This script should work, but only if displacement is set to None or we convert the positions to Bohr. Otherwise, the positions do not match because of a Bohr/Angstrom units problem in the code. Note the sorting that has to be done, because the order of atoms in the Atoms object is not the same as in the POSCAR file.

```
from jasp import *
    from ase.io.bader import attach_charges
2
    from ase.units import Bohr
3
    with jasp('molecules/h2o-bader') as calc:
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
        symbols = np.array(atoms.get_chemical_symbols())[calc.sort]
        pos = atoms.positions[calc.sort] * Bohr
9
        newatoms = Atoms(symbols, positions=pos, cell=atoms.get_cell())
10
        attach_charges(newatoms, 'ACF.dat')
13
        print('#+tblname: bader')
14
        print('#+caption: Bader charges for a water molecule')
15
        print('| atom | Bader charge|')
16
17
         for atom in newatoms:
             print('|{0} | {1} |'.format(atom.symbol, atom.charge))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-38.py).

Table 2: Bader charges for a water molecule

atom	Bader charge
О	0.001
Η	0.9993
Η	0.9997

It looks like not much has been transferred. This may be an artifact of using the valence electron density, or a lack of convergence. See https://wiki.fysik.dtu.dk/ase/ase/dft/bader.html#example-the-water-molecule for a comparison.

3.4 Geometry optimization

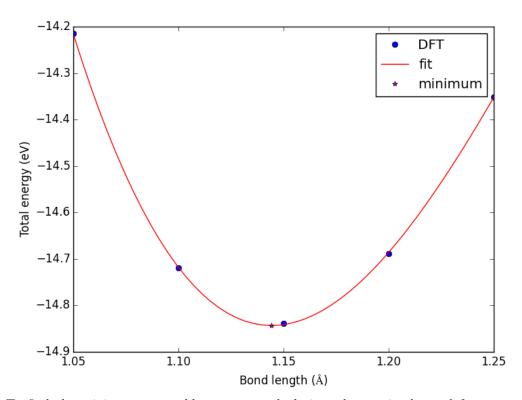
3.4.1 Manual determination of a bond length

The equilibrium bond length of a CO molecule is approximately the bond length that minimizes the total energy. We can find that by computing the total energy as a function of bond length, and noting where the minimum is. Here is an example in VASP. There are a few features to point out here. We want to compute 5 bond lengths, and each calculation is independent of all the others. <code>jasp</code> is set up to automatically handle jobs for you by submitting them to the queue. It raises a variety of exceptions to let you know what has happened, and you must handle these to control the workflow. We will illustrate this by the following examples.

```
from jasp import *
 2
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
 3
     bond_lengths = [1.05, 1.1, 1.15, 1.2, 1.25]
     energies = []
 6
     for d in bond_lengths: # possible bond lengths
9
         10
11
13
         with jasp('molecules/co-{0}'.format(d), # output dir
14
                    xc='PBE'
15
                    nbands=6,
16
                    encut=350,
17
18
                    ismear=1,
                    sigma=0.01
20
                    atoms=co):
21
             try:
                  e = co.get_potential_energy()
22
                  energies.append(e)
23
                  print('d = {0:1.2f} ang'.format(d))
                  print('energy = {0:1.3f} eV'.format(e))
print('forces = (eV/ang)\n {0}'.format(co.get_forces()))
                  print('') # blank line
27
              except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
28
                  energies.append(None)
29
32
     if None {\tt not} in energies:
33
         {\tt import\ matplotlib.pyplot\ as\ plt}
         plt.plot(bond_lengths, energies,
34
         plt.xlabel(r'Bond length ($\AA$)')
35
         plt.ylabel('Total energy (eV)')
36
         plt.savefig('images/co-bondlengths.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-39.py).

```
[[-5.8 0.
              0.]
             0.]]
 [5.8 0.
d = 1.15 ang
energy = -14.838 eV
forces = (eV/ang)
 [[ 0.645 0.
                       ]
                  0.
 [-0.645 0.
                 0.
                      ]]
d = 1.20 ang
energy = -14.688 eV
forces = (eV/ang)
 [[ 5.095 0.
                  0.
                       ]
 [-5.095 0.
                      ]]
                 0.
d = 1.25 ang
energy = -14.352 eV
forces = (eV/ang)
                       ]
 [[ 8.141 0.
 [-8.141 0.
                 0.
                      ]]
```



To find the minimum we could run more calculations, but a simpler and faster way is to fit a polynomial to the data, and find the analytical minimum. The results are shown in Figure 18.

```
from jasp import *
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
np.set_printoptions(precision=3, suppress=True)
```

```
bond_lengths = [1.05, 1.1, 1.15, 1.2, 1.25]
     energies = []
     for d in bond_lengths: # possible bond lengths
11
          with jasp('molecules/co-{0}'.format(d)) as calc:
12
               atoms = calc.get_atoms()
               energies.append(atoms.get_potential_energy())
13
14
     # Now we fit an equation - cubic polynomial
15
     pp = np.polyfit(bond_lengths, energies, 3)
dp = np.polyder(pp) # first derivative - quadratic
16
18
     \mbox{\#} we expect two roots from the quadratic eqn. These are where the
19
     # first derivative is equal to zero.
20
     roots = np.roots(dp)
21
22
     \mbox{\it \#} The minimum is where the second derivative is positive.
24
     dpp = np.polyder(dp) # second derivative - line
     secd = np.polyval(dpp, roots)
25
26
     minV = roots[secd > 0]
27
     minE = np.polyval(pp, minV)
28
     print('The minimum energy is {0} eV at V = {1} Ang^3'.format(minE, minV))
30
31
     # plot the fit
32
     x = np.linspace(1.05, 1.25)
fit = np.polyval(pp, x)
33
34
     plt.plot(bond_lengths, energies, 'bo ')
     plt.plot(x, fit, 'r-')
plt.plot(minV, minE, 'm*')
plt.legend(['DFT', 'fit', 'minimum'], numpoints=1)
plt.xlabel(r'Bond length ($\AA$)')
37
38
39
40
     plt.ylabel('Total energy (eV)')
     plt.savefig('images/co-bondlengths.png')
     plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-40.py).

The minimum energy is [-14.843] eV at V = [1.144] Ang³

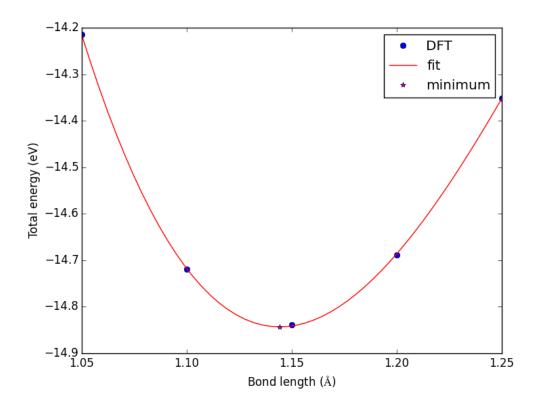


Figure 18: Energy vs CO bond length.

3.4.2 Automatic geometry optimization with VASP

It is generally the case that the equilibrium geometry of a system is the one that minimizes the total energy and forces. Since each atom has three degrees of freedom, you can quickly get a high dimensional optimization problem. Luckily, VASP has built-in geometry optimization using the IBRION and NSW tags. Here we compute the bond length for a CO molecule, letting VASP do the geometry optimization for us.

Here are the most common choices for IBRION.

IBRION value	algorithm
1	quasi-Newton (use if initial guess is good)
2	conjugate gradient

Note:

VASP applies a criteria for stopping a geometry optimization. When the change in energy between two steps is less than 0.001 eV (or 10*EDIFF), the relaxation is stopped. This criteria is controlled by the EDIFFG tag. If you prefer to stop based on forces, set EDIFFG=-0.05, i.e. to a negative number. The units of force is eV/Å. For most work, a force tolerance of 0.05~eV/Å is usually sufficient.

```
with jasp('molecules/co-cg',
8
                xc='PBE',
9
                nbands=6,
10
                encut=350,
11
                ismear=1,
                sigma=0.01, # this is small for a molecule
14
                ibrion=2, # conjugate gradient optimizer
                            # do at least 5 steps to relax
                nsw=5,
15
                atoms=co) as calc:
16
17
         print('Forces')
         print('=====')
19
         print(co.get_forces())
20
21
         pos = co.get_positions()
d = ((pos[0] - pos[1])**2).sum()**0.5
22
23
         print('Bondlength = {0:1.2f} angstroms'.format(d))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-41.py).

3.4.3 Relaxation of a water molecule

It is not more complicated to relax more atoms, it just may take longer because there are more electrons and degrees of freedom. Here we relax a water molecule which has three atoms.

```
from ase import Atoms, Atom
 2
     from jasp import *
     JASPRC['queue.ppn'] = 4
 3
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('H', [0.5960812, -0.7677068, 0.0000000]),
                      Atom('0', [0.000000, 0.000000, 0.000000]),
Atom('H', [0.5960812, 0.7677068, 0.000000]],
                     cell=(8, 8, 8))
9
     atoms.center()
10
11
     with jasp('molecules/h2o-relax-centered',
13
                 xc='PBE', debug=logging.DEBUG,
14
                 encut=400,
                 ismear=0. # Gaussian smearing
15
                ibrion=2,
16
                ediff=1e-8,
17
                nsw=10,
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
20
          print("forces")
21
          print('=====')
22
          print(atoms.get_forces())
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-42.py).

3.5 Vibrational frequencies

3.5.1 Manual calculation of vibrational frequency

The principle idea in calculating vibrational frequencies is that we consider a molecular system as masses connected by springs. If the springs are Hookean, e.g. the force is proportional to the displacement, then we can readily solve the equations of motion and find that the vibrational frequencies are related to the force constants and the masses of the atoms. For example, in a simple molecule like CO where there is only one spring, the frequency is:

 $\nu = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{k/\mu}$ where $\frac{1}{\mu} = \frac{1}{m_C} + \frac{1}{m_O}$ and k is the spring constant. We will compute the value of k from DFT calculations as follows:

 $k = \frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial x^2}$ at the equilibrium bond length. We actually already have the data to do this from Manual determination. We only need to fit an equation to the energy vs. bond-length data, find the minimum energy bond-length, and then evaluate the second derivative of the fitted function at the minimum. We will use a cubic polynomial for demonstration here. Polynomials are numerically convenient because they are easy to fit, and it is trivial to get the roots and derivatives of the polynomials, as well as to evaluate them at other points using numpy.polyfit, numpy.polyder, and numpy.polyval.

```
from jasp import *
 2
     from ase.units import
 3
     bond_lengths = [1.05, 1.1, 1.15, 1.2, 1.25]
      energies = []
     for d in bond lengths:
          with jasp('molecules/co-{0}'.format(d)) as calc:
              atoms = calc.get_atoms()
9
10
               energies.append(atoms.get_potential_energy())
     # fit the data
12
     pars = np.polyfit(bond_lengths, energies, 3)
xfit = np.linspace(1.05, 1.25)
13
14
     efit = np.polyval(pars, xfit)
15
16
17
      # first derivative
     dpars = np.polyder(pars)
      # find where the minimum is. chose the second one because it is the
19
20
     # minimum we need.
     droots = np.roots(dpars)
21
22
     # second derivative
     ddpars = np.polyder(dpars)
25
26
     d_min = droots[np.polyval(ddpars, droots) > 0]
27
      # curvature at minimum = force constant in SI units
28
     k = np.polyval(ddpars, d_min) / (J / m**2)
31
     # mu. reduced mass
32
     from ase.data import atomic_masses
33
     C mass = atomic masses[6] /
     O_mass = atomic_masses[8] / kg
34
35
     mu = 1.0 / (1.0 / C_mass + 1.0 / O_mass)
37
     frequency = 1. / (2. * np.pi) * np.sqrt(k / mu)
print('The CO vibrational frequency is {0} Hz'.format(*frequency))
38
39
     print('The CO vibrational frequency is {0} cm^{{-1}}'.format(frequency / 3e10))
40
41
      import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
     plt.plot(bond_lengths, energies, 'bo ')
     plt.plot(xfit, efit, 'b-')
     plt.xlabel('Bond length ($\AA$)')
plt.ylabel('Total energy (eV)')
45
46
     plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-43.py).

```
The CO vibrational frequency is 6.43082289837e+13 Hz The CO vibrational frequency is [ 2143.608] cm^{-1}
```

This result is in good agreement with experiment. The procedure described above is basically how many vibrational calculations are performed. With more atoms, you have to determine a force constant matrix and diagonalize it. For more details, see. ⁴⁴ In practice, we usually allow a packaged code to automate this, which we cover in Automated vibrational calculations.

We now consider how much energy is in this vibration. This is commonly called zero-point energy (ZPE) and it is defined as $E_{ZPE} = \frac{1}{2}h\nu$ for a single mode, and h is Planck's constant (4.135667516e-15 eV/s).

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-44.py).

```
E_ZPE = 0.133 \text{ eV}
```

This is a reasonable amount of energy! Zero-point energy increases with increasing vibrational frequency, and tends to be very important for small atoms.

A final note is that this analysis is in the "harmonic approximation". The frequency equation is the solution to a harmonic oscillator. If the spring is non-linear, then there are anharmonic effects that may become important, especially at higher temperatures.

3.5.2 Automated vibrational calculations

VASP has built-in capability for performing vibrational calculations. We access the capability by using a new value for IBRION. The values of 5 and 6 calculated the Hessian matrix using finite differences. For IBRION=5, all atoms that are not constrained are displaced. For IBRION=6, only symmetry inequivalent displacements are considered, which makes the calculations slightly cheaper. You can specify the number of displacements with NFREE. The default number of displacements is 2. You can also specify the size of the displacement with POTIM (the default is 0.015 Å).

```
# <<water-vib>>
      # adapted from http://cms.mpi.univie.ac.at/wiki/index.php/H20 vibration
 2
      from ase import Atoms, Atom
 3
      from jasp import
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('H', [0.5960812, -0.7677068, Atom('O', [0.000000, 0.0000000, Atom('H', [0.5960812, 0.7677068,
                                                                  0.0000000]),
                                                                  0.00000001)
                                                                  0.0000000])],
 9
                       cell=(8, 8, 8))
10
11
13
     with jasp('molecules/h2o_vib',
                 xc='PBE'.
14
                 encut=400,
15
                 ismear=0,
                                  # Gaussian smearing
16
                                  # finite differences with symmetry
                                  # central differences (default)
                 potim=0.015,
19
                                 # default as well
                                 # for vibrations you need precise energies
# Set to 1 for vibrational calculation
                 ediff=1e-8,
20
21
                 nsw=1,
                 atoms=atoms) as calc:
22
23
          print('Forces')
          print('=====')
25
26
          print(atoms.get_forces())
27
          print()
           # vibrational energies are in eV
28
29
          energies, modes = calc.get_vibrational_modes()
          print('energies\n=====
31
           for i, e in enumerate(energies):
               print('{0:02d}: {1} eV'.format(i, e))
32
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-45.py).

Forces

Note we get 9 frequencies here. Water has 3 atoms, with three degrees of freedom each, leading to 9 possible combinations of collective motions. Three of those collective motions are translations, i.e. where all atoms move in the same direction (either x, y or z) and there is no change in the total energy of the molecule. Another three of those motions are rotations, which also do not change the total energy of the molecule. That leaves 3N-6=3 degrees of vibrational freedom where some or all of the bonds are stretched, resulting in a change in the total energy. The modes of water vibration are (with our calculated values in parentheses):

```
1. a symmetric stretch at 3657 \text{ cm}^{-1} (3723)
```

- 2. an asymmetric stretch at 3756 cm⁻¹ (3836)
- 3. and a bending mode at 1595 cm⁻¹ (1583)

http://webbook.nist.gov/cgi/cbook.cgi?ID=C7732185&Mask=800#Electronic-Spec

The results are not too far off, and more accurate frequencies may be possible using tighter tolerance on POTIM, or by using IBRION=7 or 8.

Let us briefly discuss how to determine which vectors are vibrations and which are rotations or translations. One way is to visualize the modes. The vibrations are easy to spot. The rotations/translations are not always cleanly separable. This is an issue of accuracy and convergence. We usually do not worry about this because these modes are usually not important.

- 1. mode 0 is an asymmetric stretch
- 2. mode 1 is a symmetric stretch
- 3. mode 2 is a bending mode
- 4. mode 3 is a mixed translation/rotation
- 5. mode 4 is a rotation
- 6. mode 5 is a translation
- 7. mode 6 is a rotation
- 8. mode 7 is a partial translation
- 9. mode 8 is a rotation

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-46.py).

See http://www.gaussian.com/g_whitepap/vib.htm for a more quantitative discussion of these modes, identifying them, and a method to project the rotations and translations out of the Hessian matrix.

Zero-point energy for multiple modes For a molecule with lots of vibrational modes the zero-point energy is defined as the sum over all the vibrational modes:

$$E_{ZPE} = \sum_{i} \frac{1}{2} h \nu_i$$

Here is an example for water. Note we do not sum over the imaginary modes. We should also ignore the rotational and translational modes (some of those are imaginary, but some are just small).

```
from jasp import *
     import numpy as np
     c = 3e10 # speed of light cm/s
     h = 4.135667516e-15 \# eV/s
     # first, get the frequencies.
 6
     with jasp('molecules/h2o_vib') as calc:
         freq = calc.get_vibrational_frequencies()
     ZPE = 0.0
10
11
     for f in freq:
12
         if not isinstance(f, float):
            continue # skip complex numbers
13
         nu = f * c # convert to frequency
14
         ZPE += 0.5 * h * nu
    print('The ZPE of water is {0:1.3f} eV'.format(ZPE))
17
18
19
     # one liner
     ZPE = np.sum([0.5 * h * f * c for f in freq if isinstance(f, float)])
20
     print('The ZPE of water is {0:1.3f} eV'.format(ZPE))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-47.py).

```
The ZPE of water is 0.572 eV
```

Note the zero-point energy of water is also fairly high (more than 0.5 eV). That is because of the high frequency O-H stretches.

3.6 Simulated infrared spectra

At http://homepage.univie.ac.at/david.karhanek/downloads.html#Entry02 there is a recipe for computing the Infrared vibrational spectroscopy intensities in VASP. We are going to do that for water here. First, we will relax a water molecule.

```
from ase import Atoms, Atom
2
     from jasp import *
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('H', [0.5960812, -0.7677068,
                                                              0.0000000]),
                     Atom('0', [0.0000000, Atom('H', [0.5960812,
                                                0.0000000,
                                                              0.0000000])
                                               0.7677068.
                                                              0.00000001)1.
                    cell=(8, 8, 8))
     with jasp('molecules/h2o_relax',
9
                xc='PBE',
10
                encut=400,
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-48.py).

Forces

[-0.001 0. 0.] [0. 0. 0.]]

Next, we instruct VASP to compute the vibrational modes using density functional perturbation theory with IBRION=7. Note, this is different than in 3.5 where finite differences were used.

```
from jasp import *
 2
 3
     # read in relaxed geometry
     with jasp('molecules/h2o_relax') as calc:
 4
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
     # now define a new calculator
     with jasp('molecules/h2o_vib_dfpt',
               xc='PBE',
9
                encut=400,
10
                \verb|ismear=0|, & \# \textit{ Gaussian smearing}|\\
11
12
                ibrion=7, # switches on the DFPT vibrational analysis (with
13
                           \# no symmetry constraints)
                nfree=2,
14
                potim=0.015,
15
                lepsilon=True, # enables to calculate and to print the BEC
16
                                 # tensors
18
                lreal=False.
19
                nsw=1.
                           # affects OUTCAR verbosity: explicitly forces
                nwrite=3,
20
                            # SQRT(mass)-divided eigenvectors to be printed
21
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
22
         calc.calculate(atoms)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-49.py).

To analyze the results, this shell script was provided to extract the results.

```
#!/bin/bash
      # A utility for calculating the vibrational intensities from VASP output (OUTCAR)
 2
      # (C) David Karhanek, 2011-03-25, ICIQ Tarragona, Spain (www.iciq.es)
 3
      # extract Born effective charges tensors
      printf "..reading OUTCAR"
      BORN_NROWS='grep NIONS OUTCAR | awk '{print $12*4+1}''

if [ 'grep 'BORN' OUTCAR | wc -1' = 0 ] ; then \

printf " .. FAILED! Born effective charges missing! Bye! \n\n" ; exit 1 ; fi
 9
      grep "in e, cummulative" -A $BORN_NROWS OUTCAR > born.txt
10
12
      \# extract Eigenvectors and eigenvalues
      if [ 'grep 'SQRT(mass)' OUTCAR | wc -1' != 1 ]; then \
   printf " .. FAILED! Restart VASP with NWRITE=3! Bye! \n\n"; exit 1; fi
EIG_NVIBS='grep -A 2000 'SQRT(mass)' OUTCAR | grep 'cm-1' | wc -1'
13
14
15
      EIG_NIONS='grep NIONS OUTCAR | awk '{print $12}
16
      EIG_NROWS='echo "($EIG_NIONS+3)*$EIG_NVIBS+3" | bc'
17
      grep -A $(($EIG_NROWS+2)) 'SQRT(mass)' OUTCAR | tail -n $(($EIG_NROWS+1)) | sed 's/f\/i/fi /g' > eigenvectors.txt
      printf " ..done\n"
19
20
      # set up a new directory, split files - prepare for parsing
printf "..splitting files"
21
22
      mkdir intensities; mv born.txt eigenvectors.txt intensities/
```

```
cd intensities/
      let NBORN_NROWS=BORN_NROWS-1
25
      let NEIG_NROWS=EIG_NROWS-3
26
      let NBORN_STEP=4
27
      let NEIG_STEP=EIG_NIONS+3
      tail -n $NBORN_NROWS born.txt > temp.born.txt
      tail -n $NEIG_NROWS eigenvectors.txt > temp.eige.txt
31
      mkdir inputs; mv born.txt eigenvectors.txt inputs/
      split -a 3 -d -l $NEIG_STEP temp.eige.txt temp.ei.
32
      split -a 3 -d -1 $NBORN_STEP temp.born.txt temp.bo.
33
      mkdir temps01; mv temp.born.txt temp.eige.txt temps01/
34
      for nu in 'seq 1 $EIG_NVIBS'; do

let nud=nu-1; ei='printf "%03u" $nuú; eid='printf "%03u" $nuú; mv temp.ei.$eid eigens.vib.$ei
36
37
      done
      for s in 'seq 1 $EIG_NIONS'; do
let sd=s-1; bo='printf "%03u" $s'; bod='printf "%03u" $sd'; mv temp.bo.$bod borncs.$bo
38
39
40
      printf " ..done\n"
 41
42
      # parse deviation vectors (eig)
printf "..parsing eigenvectors"
43
44
      let sad=$EIG_NIONS+1
45
      for nu in 'seq 1 $EIG_NVIBS'; do nuu='printf "%03u" $nu'
46
       tail -n $sad eigens.vib.$nuu | head -n $EIG_NIONS | awk '{print $4,$5,$6}' > e.vib.$nuu.allions
 48
       split -a 3 -d -l 1 e.vib.$nuu.allions temp.e.vib.$nuu.ion.
for s in 'seq 1 $EIG_NIONS'; do
 10
50
        let sd=s-1; bo='printf "%03u" $s'; bod='printf "%03u" $sd'; mv temp.e.vib.$nuu.ion.$bod e.vib.$nuu.ion.$bo
51
52
53
      done
     printf " ..done\n"
55
56
      # parse born effective charge matrices (born)
      printf "..parsing eff.charges"
for s in 'seq 1 $EIG_NIONS'; do
ss='printf "%03u" $s'
57
58
59
       awk '{print $2,$3,$4}' borncs.$ss | tail -3 > bornch.$ss
60
61
      done
62
      {\tt mkdir\ temps02} ; {\tt mv\ eigens.*\ borncs.*\ temps02/}
      printf "
63
                ..done\n'
64
      # parse matrices, multiply them and collect squares (giving intensities)
65
      printf "..multiplying matrices, summing "
67
      for nu in 'seq 1 $EIG_NVIBS'; do
68
       nuu='printf "%03u" $nu'
       int=0.0
69
       for alpha in 1 2 3; do
                                                # summing over alpha coordinates
70
        sumpol=0.0
 71
        for s in 'seq 1 $EIG_NIONS'; do # summing over atoms
         ss='printf "%03u" $s'
awk -v a="$alpha" '(NR==a){print}' bornch.$ss > z.ion.$ss.alpha.$alpha
 73
74
         # summing over beta coordinates and multiplying Z(s, alpha)*e(s) done by the following awk script paste z.ion.ss.alpha.alpha e.vib.nu.ion.ss | \
 75
76
         awk '{pol=$1*$4+$2*$5+$3*$6; print $0,"
                                                        ",pol}' > matr-vib-${nuu}-alpha-${alpha}-ion-${ss}
 77
79
        sumpol='cat matr-vib-${nuu}-alpha-${alpha}-ion-* | awk '{sum+=$7} END {print sum}''
80
        int='echo "$int+($sumpol)^2" | sed 's/[eE]/*10^/g' | bc -l'
81
       done
       freq='awk' (NR==1) {print $8}' temps02/eigens.vib.$nuu'
82
       echo "$nuu $freq $int">> exact.res.txt
83
84
       printf "."
      printf " ..done\n"
86
87
      # format results, normalize intensities
88
      printf "..normalizing intensities"
89
      max='awk' (NR==1){max=$3} $3>=max {max=$3} END {print max}' exact.res.txt'
     awk -v max="$max" '{printf "%03u %6.1f %5.3f\n",$1,$2,$3/max}' exact.res.txt > results.txt
printf " ..done\n"
92
93
      # clean up, display results
printf "..finalizing:\n"
94
95
      mkdir temps03; mv bornch.* e.vib.*.allions temps03/
96
      mkdir temps04; mv z.ion* e.vib.*.ion.* temps04/
98
      mkdir temps05; mv matr-* temps05/
99
      mkdir results; mv *res*txt results/
      let NMATRIX=$EIG NVIBS**2
100
      printf "%5u atoms found\n%5u vibrations found\n%5u matrices evaluated" \
101
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-50.py).

```
..reading OUTCAR ..done
..splitting files ..done
..parsing eigenvectors ..done
..parsing eff.charges ..done
..multiplying matrices, summing .........done
..normalizing intensities ..done
..finalizing:
001 3827.3 0.227
002 3713.0 0.006
003 1587.2 0.312
004
    235.5 1.000
005
      19.1 0.006
006
      2.3 0.000
007
      16.6 0.005
800
      45.0 0.000
009
     136.1 0.345
```

Note that the results above include the rotational and translational modes (modes 4-9). The following shell script removes those, and recalculates the intensities. Note that it appears to just remove the last 6 modes and req compute the intensities. It is not obvious that will always be the right way to do it as the order of the eigenvectors is not guaranteed.

```
#!/bin/bash
# reformat intensities, just normal modes: 3N -> (3N-6)
printf "..reformatting and normalizing intensities"

d cd intensities/results/
nlns='wc-l exact.res.txt | awk '{print $1}' '; let bodylns=nlns=6
head -n $bodylns exact.res.txt > temp.reform.res.txt
max='awk '(NR==1){max=$3} $3>=max {max=$3} END {print max}' temp.reform.res.txt'
awk -v max="$max" '{print $1,$2,$3/max}' temp.reform.res.txt > exact.reform.res.txt
awk -v max="$max" '{printf "%03u %6.1f %5.3f\n",$1,$2,$3/max}' temp.reform.res.txt > reform.res.txt
printf "..done\n..normal modes:\n"
rm temp.reform.res.txt
cat reform.res.txt
cat reform.res.txt

d ../..
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-51.py).

```
..reformatting and normalizing intensities ..done ..normal modes: 001 3827.3 0.726 002 3713.0 0.019 003 1587.2 1.000
```

The interpretation of these results is that the mode at 3713 cm⁻¹ would be nearly invisible in the IR spectrum. Earlier we interpreted that as the symmetric stretch. In this mode, there is only a small change in the molecule dipole moment, so there is a small IR intensity.

See also. 45 For HREELS simulations see. 46

The shell script above has been translated to a convenient python function in jasp.

```
from jasp import *
with jasp('molecules/h2o_vib_dfpt') as calc:
```

```
print('mode Relative intensity')
for i, intensity in enumerate(calc.get_infrared_intensities()):
    print('{0:02d} {1:1.3f}'.format(i, intensity))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-52.py).

```
mode
      Relative intensity
00
       0.227
       0.006
01
02
       0.312
03
       1.000
       0.006
04
05
       0.000
       0.005
06
07
       0.000
80
       0.345
```

3.7 Thermochemical properties of molecules

ase.thermochemistry can be used to estimate thermodynamic properties of gases in the ideal gas limit. The module needs as input the geometry, the total energy, the vibrational energies, and some information about the molecular symmetry. We first consider an N_2 molecule.

The symmetry numbers are determined by the molecular point group. 47 Here is a table of the most common ones.

Table 3: Symmetry numbers for common point groups

point group	σ	$_{ m examples}$
C_1	1	
C_{s}	1	
C_2	2	
C_{2v}	2	H_2O
C_{3v}	3	NH_3
$C_{\infty v}$	1	CO
D_{2h}	4	
D_{3h}	6	
D_{5h}	10	
$D_{\infty h}$	2	CO_2, H_2
D_{3d}	6	
$\mathrm{T_d}$	12	CH_4
$\mathrm{O_{h}}$	24	

```
from ase.structure import molecule
     \begin{tabular}{ll} from & ase. the {\tt rmochemistry} & import & Ideal Gas Thermo \\ \end{tabular}
3
     from jasp import *
     atoms = molecule('N2')
     atoms.set_cell((10,10,10), scale_atoms=False)
     # first we relax a molecule
     with jasp('molecules/n2-relax',
10
                 encut=300
12
                 ibrion=2,
13
                 nsw=5,
                 atoms=atoms) as calc:
14
          electronicenergy = atoms.get_potential_energy()
15
```

```
# next, we get vibrational modes
with jasp('molecules/n2-vib',
18
                 xc='PBE',
19
                  encut=300,
20
                 ibrion=6,
                 nfree=2,
23
                 potim=0.15,
24
                 nsw=1.
                 atoms=atoms) as calc:
25
         calc.calculate()
26
          vib_freq = calc.get_vibrational_frequencies() # in cm^1
29
          #convert wavenumbers to energy
          h = 4.1356675e-15 # eV*s
30
          c = 3.0e10 \# cm/s
31
          vib_energies = [h*c*nu for nu in vib_freq]
32
          33
          for i,e in enumerate(vib_energies):
35
               print('{0:02d}: {1} eV'.format(i,e))
36
     # # now we can get some properties. Note we only need one vibrational # energy since there is only one mode. This example does not work if # you give all the energies because one energy is zero.
37
38
39
      thermo = IdealGasThermo(vib_energies=vib_energies[0:0],
                                  electronicenergy=electronicenergy, atoms=atoms,
                                  geometry='linear', symmetrynumber=2, spin=0)
42
43
     # temperature in K, pressure in Pa, G in eV
G = thermo.get_free_energy(temperature=298.15, pressure=101325.)
44
            Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-53.py).
```

```
vibrational energies
```

```
00: 0.29159234324 eV
01: 0.0169775241059 eV
02: 0.0169775241059 eV
03: 2.853610575e-09 eV
04: 8.68490175e-10 eV
```

05: 0.0 eV

Enthalpy components at T = 298.15 K:

Entropy components at T = 298.15 K and P = 101325.0 Pa:

	S	T*S			
S_trans (1 atm)	0.0015579 eV/K	0.464 eV			
S_rot	0.0007870 eV/K	0.235 eV			
S_elec	0.0000000 eV/K	0.000 eV			
S_vib	0.0000000 eV/K	0.000 eV			
S (1 atm -> P)	-0.0000000 eV/K	-0.000 eV			
S	0.0023449 eV/K	0.699 eV			

```
Free energy components at T = 298.15 K and P = 101325.0 Pa:
```

Let us compare this to what is in the Nist webbook via the Shomate equations.

```
import numpy as np
A = 28.98641
B = 1.853978
C = -9.647459
D = 16.63537
E = 0.000117
F = -8.671914
G G = 226.4168
H = 0.0
T T = 298.15
t t = T/1000.
S = A*np.log(t) + B*t + C*t**2/2 + D*t**3/3 - E/(2*t**2) + G
print('-T*S = {0:1.3f} eV'.format(-T*S/1000/96.4853))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-54.py).

```
-T*S = -0.592 \text{ eV}
```

This is reasonable agreement for the entropy. You will get different results if you use different exchange correlation functionals.

3.8 Molecular reaction energies

3.8.1 O_2 dissociation

The first reaction we consider is a simple dissociation of oxygen molecule into two oxygen atoms: $O_2 \rightarrow 2O$. The dissociation energy is pretty straightforward to define: it is the energy of the products minus the energy of the reactant. $D = 2 * E_O - E_{O_2}$. It would appear that we simply calculate the energy of an oxygen atom, and the energy of an oxygen molecule and evaluate the formula. Let us do that.

Simple estimate of O_2 dissociation energy

```
from jasp import *
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
    atoms = Atoms([Atom('0', [5, 5, 5])],
                   cell=(10, 10, 10))
    with jasp('molecules/0',
               xc='PBE'
9
               encut=400.
               ismear=0,
10
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
11
            E_0 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
        except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
             E 0 = None
15
16
     # now relaxed 02 dimer
17
    atoms = Atoms([Atom('0', [5, 5, 5]),
```

```
Atom('0', [6.22, 5, 5])],
19
20
                    cell=(10, 10, 10))
21
     with jasp('molecules/02',
22
                xc='PBE'
                encut=400,
                ismear=0,
26
                ibrion=2.
27
                nsw=10,
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
28
29
         try:
              E_02 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
31
          except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
              E 02 = None
32
33
     if None not in (E_0, E_02):
34
         print('02 \rightarrow 20 D = \{0:1.3f\} eV'.format(2 * E_0 - E_02))
35
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-55.py).

```
02 \rightarrow 20 D = 8.521 eV
```

The answer we have obtained is way too high! Experimentally the dissociation energy is about 5.2 eV (need reference), which is **very** different than what we calculated! Let us consider some factors that contribute to this error.

We implicitly neglected spin-polarization in the example above. That could be a problem, since the O_2 molecule can be in one of two spin states, a singlet or a triplet, and these should have different energies. Furthermore, the oxygen atom can be a singlet or a triplet, and these would have different energies. To account for spin polarization, we have to tell VASP to use spin-polarization, and give initial guesses for the magnetic moments of the atoms. Let us try again with spin polarization.

Estimating O_2 dissociation energy with spin polarization in triplet ground states To tell VASP to use spin-polarization we use ISPIN=2, and we set initial guesses for magnetic moments on the atoms with the magmom keyword. In a triplet state there are two electrons with spins of the same sign.

```
from jasp import *
2
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
    atoms = Atoms([Atom('0', [5, 5, 5], magmom=2)],
                  cell=(10, 10, 10))
5
     with jasp('molecules/0-sp-triplet',
              xc='PBE',
9
              encut=400.
              ismear=0,
10
              ispin=2, # turn spin-polarization on
11
              atoms=atoms) as calc:
12
13
        try:
            E_0 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
15
         except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued)
16
            E 0 = None
17
    print('Magnetic moment on 0 = {0} Bohr'
18
           ' magnetons'.format(atoms.get_magnetic_moment()))
19
21
     # now relaxed 02 dimer
    22
23
24
     with jasp('molecules/02-sp-triplet',
              xc='PBE'
              encut=400.
28
              ismear=0,
29
              ispin=2,
                         # turn spin-polarization on
30
                         # make sure we relax the geometry
31
              atoms=atoms) as calc:
```

```
try:
    E_02 = atoms.get_potential_energy()

except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
    E_02 = None

# verify magnetic moment
print('Magnetic moment on 02 = {0} Bohr'
    ' magnetons'.format(atoms.get_magnetic_moment()))

if None not in (E_0, E_02):
    print('02 -> 20 D = {0:1.3f} eV'.format(2 * E_0 - E_02))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-56.py).

```
Magnetic moment on 0 = 2.0000072 Bohr magnetons Magnetic moment on 02 = 2.0000084 Bohr magnetons 02 \rightarrow 20 D = 6.668 eV
```

This is much closer to accepted literature values for the DFT-GGA O_2 dissociation energy. It is still more than 1 eV above an experimental value, but most of that error is due to the GGA exchange correlation functional. Some additional parameters that might need to be checked for convergence are the SIGMA value (it is probably too high for a molecule), as well as the cutoff energy. Oxygen is a "hard" atom that requires a high cutoff energy to achieve high levels of convergence.

TODO: show what "hard or soft" is in the pseudopotential.

Looking at the two spin densities In a spin-polarized calculation there are actually two electron densities: one for spin-up and one for spin-down. We will look at the differences in these two through the density of states.

```
from jasp import *
      from ase.dft.dos import *
 2
      with jasp('molecules/02-sp-triplet') as calc:
           dos = DOS(calc, width=0.2)
           d_up = dos.get_dos(spin=0)
 6
           d_down = dos.get_dos(spin=1)
           e = dos.get_energies()
      ind = e \le 0.0
      # integrate up to OeV
      print('number of up states = {0}'.format(np.trapz(d_up[ind], e[ind])))
print('number of down states = {0}'.format(np.trapz(d_down[ind], e[ind])))
12
13
14
      import pylab as plt
15
     plt.plot(e, d_up,
      e, -d_down)
plt.xlabel('energy [eV]')
18
      plt.ylabel('DOS')
19
      plt.legend(['up', 'down'])
20
      plt.savefig('images/02-sp-dos.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-57.py).

```
number of up states = 5.95489738902
number of down states = 5.00001754136
```

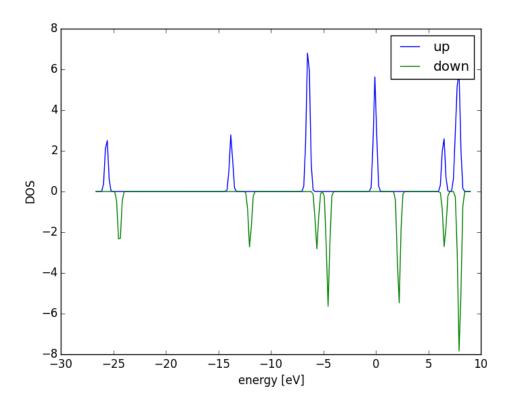


Figure 19: Spin-polarized DOS for the \mathcal{O}_2 molecule.

You can see in Figure 19 that there are two different densities of states for the two spins. One has 7 electrons in it (the blue lines), and the other has 5 electrons in it (the green line). The difference of two electrons leads to the magnetic moment of 2 which we calculated earlier. Remember that only peaks in the DOS below the Fermi level are occupied. It is customary to set the Fermi level to 0 eV in DOS plots. The peaks roughly correspond to electrons. For example, the blue peak between -25 and -30 eV corresponds to one electron, in a 1s orbital, where as the blue peak between -5 and -10 eV corresponds to three electrons.

Convergence study of the O₂ dissociation energy

```
from jasp import *
      from ase import Atom, Atoms
 3
      encuts = [250, 300, 350, 400, 450, 500, 550]
      D = \Gamma 
 5
      for encut in encuts:
 6
          atoms = Atoms([Atom('0', [5, 5, 5], magmom=2)],
cell=(10, 10, 10))
          with jasp('molecules/0-sp-triplet-\{0\}', format(encut),
10
11
                       xc='PBE',
                       encut=encut.
12
                       ismear=0,
13
                       ispin=2,
14
                       atoms=atoms) as calc:
15
               E_0 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
17
18
                    E_0 = None
19
20
           # now relaxed 02 dimer
```

```
atoms = Atoms([Atom('0', [5, 5, 5], magmom=1), Atom('0', [6.22, 5, 5], magmom=1)], cell=(10, 10, 10))
22
23
24
25
          with jasp('molecules/02-sp-triplet-{0}'.format(encut),
                      xc='PBE',
28
                      encut=encut,
29
                      ismear=0,
                      ispin=2,
                                  # turn spin-polarization on
30
                      ibrion=2, # this turns relaxation on
31
32
                      atoms=atoms) as calc:
34
               try:
                   E_02 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
35
               except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
E_02 = None
36
37
38
          if None not in (E_0, E_02):
    d = 2*E_0 - E_02
    D.append(d)
40
41
               print('02 -> 20 encut = {0} D = {1:1.3f} eV'.format(encut, d))
42
43
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
44
     plt.plot(encuts, D)
     plt.xlabel('ENCUT (eV)')
     plt.ylabel('0$_2$ dissociation energy (eV)')
47
     plt.savefig('images/02-dissociation-convergence.png')
48
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-58.py).

```
02 -> 20 encut = 250 D = 6.696 eV

02 -> 20 encut = 300 D = 6.727 eV

02 -> 20 encut = 350 D = 6.708 eV

02 -> 20 encut = 400 D = 6.668 eV

02 -> 20 encut = 450 D = 6.650 eV

02 -> 20 encut = 500 D = 6.648 eV

02 -> 20 encut = 550 D = 6.650 eV
```

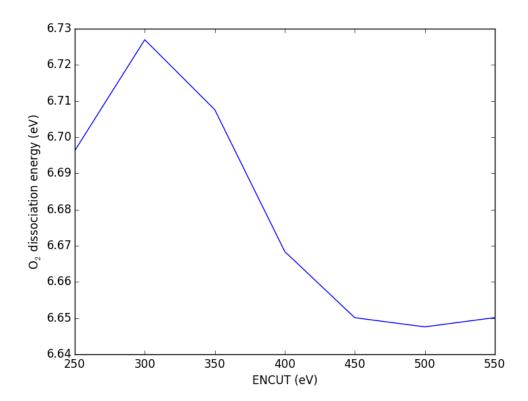


Figure 20: Convergence study of the O_2 dissociation energy as a function of ENCUT.

Based on these results (Figure 20), you could argue the dissociation energy is converged to about 2 meV at a planewave cutoff of 450 eV, and within 50 meV at 350 eV cutoff. You have to decide what an appropriate level of convergence is. Note that increasing the planewave cutoff significantly increases the computational time, so you are balancing level of convergence with computational speed. It would appear that planewave cutoff is not the cause for the discrepancy between our calculations and literature values.

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-59.py).

encut (eV)	Total CPU time	
250 eV:	Total CPU time used (sec):	67.926
300 eV:	Total CPU time used (sec):	121.296
350 eV:	Total CPU time used (sec):	150.808

```
      400 eV:
      Total CPU time used (sec):
      307.465

      450 eV:
      Total CPU time used (sec):
      199.381

      500 eV:
      Total CPU time used (sec):
      240.705

      550 eV:
      Total CPU time used (sec):
      266.318
```

Illustration of the effect of SIGMA The methodology for extrapolation of the total energy to absolute zero is only valid for a continuous density of states at the Fermi level. ¹² Consequently, it should not be used for semiconductors, molecules or atoms. In VASP, this means a very small Fermi temperature (SIGMA) should be used. The O_2 dissociation energy as a function of SIGMA is shown in Figure 21. A variation of nearly 0.2 eV is seen from the default Fermi temperature of $k_bT=0.2$ eV and the value of $k_bT=0.0001$ eV. However, virtually no change was observed for a hydrogen atom or molecule or for an oxygen molecule as a function of the Fermi temperature. It is recommended that the total energy be calculated at several values of the Fermi temperature to make sure the total energy is converged with respect to the Fermi temperature.

We were not careful in selecting a good value for SIGMA in the calculations above. The default value of SIGMA is 0.2, which may be fine for metals, but it is not correct for molecules. SIGMA is the broadening factor used to smear the electronic density of states at the Fermi level. For a metal with a continuous density of states this is appropriate, but for molecules with discrete energy states it does not make sense. We are somewhat forced to use the machinery designed for metals on molecules. The solution is to use a very small SIGMA. Ideally you would use SIGMA=0, but that is not practical for convergence reasons, so we try to find what is small enough. Let us examine the effect of SIGMA on the dissociation energy here.

```
from jasp import *
 2
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
 3
     sigmas = [0.2, 0.1, 0.05, 0.02, 0.01, 0.001]
 4
 5
     D = \Gamma
     for sigma in sigmas:
          atoms = Atoms([Atom('0', [5, 5, 5], magmom=2)],
                         cell=(10, 10, 10))
9
10
          with jasp('molecules/0-sp-triplet-sigma-{0}'.format(sigma),
11
                     xc='PBE'
13
                     encut=400
                     ismear=0,
15
                     sigma=sigma,
16
                     ispin=2,
                     atoms=atoms) as calc:
17
18
                   E_0 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
              except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
E_0 = None
20
21
22
          # now relaxed 02 dimer
23
          atoms = Atoms([Atom('0',[5, 5,5],magmom=1),
Atom('0',[6.22, 5, 5],magmom=1)],
24
                         cell=(10, 10, 10))
26
27
          with jasp('molecules/02-sp-triplet-sigma-{0}'.format(sigma),
28
                     xc='PBE',
29
                     encut=400,
30
                     {\tt sigma=sigma,}
                     ispin=2,
                                 # turn spin-polarization on
33
34
                     ibrion=2.
                                 # make sure we relax the geometry
35
                     nsw=10,
                     atoms=atoms) as calc:
36
                   E_02 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
```

```
except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
39
                    E_02 = None
40
41
          if None not in (E_0, E_02):
    d = 2 * E_0 - E_02
42
               D.append(d)
               print('02 -> 20 sigma = {0} D = {1:1.3f} eV'.format(sigma, d))
46
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.plot(sigmas, D, 'bo-')
47
48
     plt.xlabel('SIGMA (eV)')
49
     plt.ylabel('0$_2$ dissociation energy (eV)')
     plt.savefig('images/02-dissociation-sigma-convergence.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-60.py).

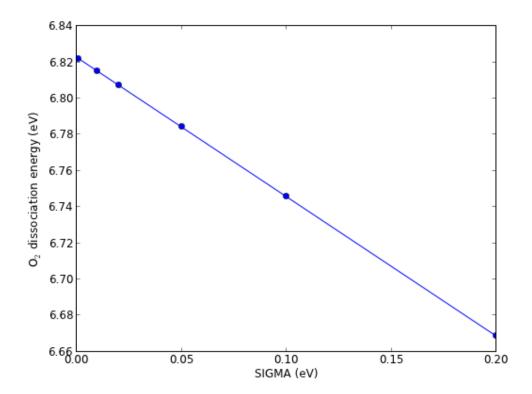


Figure 21: Effect of SIGMA on the oxygen dissociation energy.

Clearly SIGMA has an effect, but it does not move the dissociation energy closer to the literature values!

Estimating singlet oxygen dissociation energy Finally, let us consider the case where each species is in the singlet state.

```
encut=400,
10
              ismear=0.
11
              ispin=2.
              atoms=atoms) as calc:
12
            E_O = atoms.get_potential_energy()
         except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
16
            E 0 = None
17
    print('Magnetic moment on 0 = {0} Bohr'
18
19
           magnetons'.format(atoms.get_magnetic_moment()))
21
     # now relaxed 02 dimer
    22
23
24
25
     with jasp('molecules/02-sp-singlet',
              xc='PBE'
27
28
              encut=400,
29
              ismear=0.
              ispin=2. # turn spin-polarization on
30
              ibrion=2, # make sure we relax the geometry
31
              atoms=atoms) as calc:
34
            E_02 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
35
        except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
36
            E 02 = None
37
38
    # verify magnetic moment
40
    print('02 molecule magnetic moment = ', atoms.get_magnetic_moment())
41
    if None not in (E O, E O2):
42
        print('02 -> 20 D = {0:1.3f} eV'.format(2*E_0 - E_02))
43
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-61.py).

```
Magnetic moment on 0 = 1.9998232 Bohr magnetons ('02 molecule magnetic moment = ', 0.0) 02 \rightarrow 20 D = 5.650 eV
```

Interestingly, VASP still found a triplet spin state on the oxygen atom, even though we guessed an initial magnetic moment of 0. This highlights a difficulty in computing magnetic moments: you provide an initial guess and a solution is found. The magnetic moment of a singlet state is zero, so the molecule is correct. Also interesting is that the dissociation energy is almost equal to the experimental value. This is probably a coincidence, and may reflect the fact that the singlet oxygen state is less stable than the triplet state. Let us directly compare their total energies:

```
from jasp import *

with jasp('molecules/02-sp-singlet') as calc:
print('singlet: {0} eV'.format(calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy()))

with jasp('molecules/02-sp-triplet') as calc:
print('triplet: {0} eV'.format(calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy()))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-62.py).

singlet: -8.830101 eV triplet: -9.848238 eV

You can see here the triplet state has an energy that is 1 eV more stable than the singlet state.

Estimating triplet oxygen dissociation energy with low symmetry It has been suggested that breaking spherical symmetry of the atom can result in lower energy of the atom. The symmetry is broken by putting the atom off-center in a box. We will examine the total energy of an oxygen atom in a few geometries. First, let us consider variations of a square box.

```
1
     from jasp import *
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
4
     # square box origin
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('0', [0, 0, 0], magmom=2)],
cell=(10, 10, 10))
 5
     with jasp('molecules/0-square-box-origin',
               xc='PBE',
10
                encut=400,
11
                ismear=0.
               sigma=0.01,
12
               ispin=2,
13
14
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
             print('Square box (origin): E = {0} eV'.format(atoms.get_potential_energy()))
17
         except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
18
             pass
19
     # square box center
20
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('0', [5, 5, 5], magmom=2)],
cell=(10, 10, 10))
21
22
23
     with jasp('molecules/O-square-box-center',
24
               xc='PBE',
25
                encut=400,
26
                ismear=0,
                sigma=0.01,
29
               ispin=2,
30
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
31
             print('Square box (center): E = {0} eV'.format(atoms.get_potential_energy()))
32
         except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
             pass
34
36
     # square box random
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('0', [2.13, 7.32, 1.11], magmom=2)],
37
                    cell=(10, 10, 10))
38
39
     with jasp('molecules/0-square-box-random',
41
               xc='PBE'
42
                encut=400,
43
               ismear=0.
               sigma=0.01,
44
               ispin=2,
45
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
47
             print('Square box (random): E = {0} eV'.format(atoms.get_potential_energy()))
48
         except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
49
             pass
50
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-63.py).

```
Square box (origin): E = -1.516623 eV
Square box (center): E = -1.516623 eV
Square box (random): E = -1.515359 eV
```

There is no significant difference in these energies. The origin and center calculations are identical in energy. The meV variation in the random calculation is negligible. Now, let us consider some non-square boxes.

```
12
               ismear=0,
               sigma=0.01.
13
                ispin=2.
14
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
15
             print('Orthorhombic box (origin): E = {0} eV'.format(atoms.get_potential_energy()))
         except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
19
             pass
20
     # orthrhombic box center
21
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('0', [4, 4.5, 5], magmom=2)],
                    cell=(8, 9, 10))
24
     with jasp('molecules/O-orthorhombic-box-center',
25
               xc='PBE'
26
               encut=400,
27
               ismear=0,
28
               sigma=0.01,
30
               ispin=2,
31
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
32
             print('Orthorhombic box (center): E = {0} eV'.format(atoms.get_potential_energy()))
33
         except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
34
37
     # orthorhombic box random
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('0', [2.13, 7.32, 1.11], magmom=2)],
38
                    cell=(8, 9, 10))
39
40
41
     with jasp('molecules/O-orthorhombic-box-random',
               xc='PBE',
43
               encut=400,
44
               ismear=0.
               sigma=0.01,
45
               ispin=2,
46
47
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
49
             print('Orthorhombic box (random): E = {0} eV'.format(atoms.get_potential_energy()))
50
         {\tt except} \ ({\tt VaspSubmitted}, \ {\tt VaspQueued}):
51
             pass
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-64.py).

```
Orthorhombic box (origin): E = -1.8941 eV Orthorhombic box (center): E = -1.894124 eV Orthorhombic box (random): E = -1.494285 eV
```

This is a surprisingly large difference in energy! Nearly 0.4 eV. This is precisely the amount of energy we were in disagreement with the literature values. Surprisingly, the "random" position is higher in energy, similar to the cubic boxes. Finally, we put this all together. We use a non-symmetric box for the O-atom.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('0', [5.1, 4.2, 6.1], magmom=2)], cell=(8, 9, 10))
4
5
     with jasp('molecules/0-sp-triplet-lowsym',
                 encut=400,
10
                 ismear=0.
                sigma=0.01.
11
                ispin=2,
12
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
13
14
              E_0 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
              print('Magnetic moment on 0 = {0} Bohr magnetons'.format(atoms.get_magnetic_moment()))
17
          {\tt except} \ ({\tt VaspSubmitted}, \ {\tt VaspQueued}):
              E O = None
18
19
     # now relaxed 02 dimer
```

```
atoms = Atoms([Atom('0', [5, 5, 5], magmom=1), Atom('0', [6.22, 5, 5], magmom=1)], cell=(10, 10, 10))
21
22
23
24
     with jasp('molecules/02-sp-triplet',
                xc='PBE',
                 encut=400
27
28
                ismear=0.
                sigma=0.01,
29
                ispin=2,
                            # turn spin-polarization on
30
                 ibrion=2, # make sure we relax the geometry
31
                nsw=10,
33
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
34
              E_02 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
35
               # verify magnetic moment
36
              print('Magnetic moment on 02 = {0} Bohr magnetons'.format(atoms.get_magnetic_moment()))
37
          except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
39
40
              E_02 = None
41
     if None not in (E_0, E_02):
42
          print('E_0: ', E_0)
43
          print('02 \rightarrow 20 D = \{0:1.3f\} eV'.format(2 * E_0 - E_02))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-65.py).

```
Magnetic moment on 0 = 2.0000016 Bohr magnetons Magnetic moment on 02 = 2.0000084 Bohr magnetons E_0: -1.893571 02 -> 20 D = 6.061 eV
```

This actually agrees within 30-50 meV of reported literature values, although still nearly an eV greater than the experimental dissociation energy. Note that with a different "random" position, we get the lower energy for the O atom. All the disagreement we had been seeing was apparently in the O atom energy. So, if you do not need the dissociation energy in your analysis, you will not see the error. Also note that this error is specific to there being a spherical atom in a symmetric cell. This is not a problem for most molecules, which are generally non-spherical.

Verifying the magnetic moments on each atom It is one thing to see the total magnetic moment of a singlet state, and another to ask what are the magnetic moments on each atom. In VASP you must use LORBIT = 11 to get the magnetic moments of the atoms written out.

```
from jasp import *
     with jasp('molecules/02-sp-singlet') as calc:
 4
         calc.clone('molecules/02-sp-singlet-magmoms')
     with jasp('molecules/02-sp-singlet-magmoms') as calc:
 6
         calc.set(lorbit=11)
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
         magmoms = atoms.get_magnetic_moments()
10
         print('singlet ground state')
11
12
         for i, atom in enumerate(atoms):
             print('atom {0}: magmom = {1}'.format(i, magmoms[i]))
13
         print(atoms.get_magnetic_moment())
14
     with jasp('molecules/02-sp-triplet') as calc:
17
         calc.clone('molecules/02-sp-triplet-magmoms')
18
     with jasp('molecules/02-sp-triplet-magmoms') as calc:
19
         calc.set(lorbit=11)
20
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
21
         magmoms = atoms.get_magnetic_moments()
22
         print()
23
24
         print('triplet ground state')
         for i, atom in enumerate(atoms):
25
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-66.py).

Note the atomic magnetic moments do not add up to the total magnetic moment. The atomic magnetic moments are not really true observable properties. The moments are determined by a projection method that probably involves a spherical orbital, so the moments may be over or underestimated.

Using a different potential It is possible we need a higher quality potential to get the 6.02 eV value quoted by many in the literature. Here we try the O_sv potential, which treats the 1s electrons as valence electrons. Note however, the ENMIN in the POTCAR is very high!

```
grep ENMIN $VASP_PP_PATH/potpaw_PBE/O_sv/POTCAR
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-67.py).

```
ENMAX = 1421.493; ENMIN = 1066.119 eV
```

In the following calculation, we let VASP select an appropriate ENCUT value.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
     atoms = Atoms([Atom(^{\circ}0^{\circ}, [4, 4.5, 5], magmom=2)],
                     cell=(8, 9, 10))
     with jasp('molecules/0-sp-triplet-lowsym-sv',
                xc='PBE',
                 ismear=0,
10
                ispin=2,
11
                sigma=0.01,
                setups={'0': '_sv'},
12
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
13
          try:
              E_O = atoms.get_potential_energy()
          except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
17
              E O = None
18
     print('Magnetic moment on 0 = {0} Bohr'
19
              magnetons'.format(atoms.get_magnetic_moment()))
20
     # now relaxed 02 dimer
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('0', [5, 5, 5], magmom=1), Atom('0', [6.22, 5, 5], magmom=1)], cell=(10, 10, 10))
23
24
25
26
27
     with jasp('molecules/02-sp-triplet-sv',
                xc='PBE',
29
                ismear=0.
                sigma=0.01,
30
                            # turn spin-polarization on
31
                ispin=2.
                ibrion=2, # make sure we relax the geometry
32
33
                setups={'0': '_sv'},
                 atoms=atoms) as calc:
36
              E_02 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
37
          except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
38
              E_02 = None
39
     \# verify magnetic moment
42
     print('Magnetic moment on 02 = {0} Bohr'
43
             ' magnetons'.format(atoms.get_magnetic_moment()))
44
     if None not in (E_0, E_02):
45
          print('02 \rightarrow 20 D = \{0:1.3f\} eV'.format(2*E_0 - E_02))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-68.py).

```
Magnetic moment on 0 = 2.0000001 Bohr magnetons Magnetic moment on 02 = 1.9999996 Bohr magnetons 02 \rightarrow 20 D = 6.299 eV
```

This result is close to other reported values. It is possibly not converged, since we let VASP choose the ENCUT value, and that value is the ENMIN value in the POTCAR. Nevertheless, the point is that a harder potential does not fix the problem of overbinding in the O_2 molecule. That is a fundamental flaw in the GGA exchange-correlation functional.

3.8.2 Water gas shift example

We consider calculating the reaction energy of the water-gas shift reaction in this example.

```
CO + H_2O \leftrightharpoons CO_2 + H_2
```

We define the reaction energy as the difference in energy between the products and reactants.

$$\Delta E = E_{CO_2} + E_{H_2} - E_{CO} - E_{H_2O}$$

For now, we compute this energy simply as the difference in DFT energies. In the next section we will add zero-point energies and compute the energy difference as a function of temperature. For now, we simply need to compute the total energy of each molecule in its equilibrium geometry.

```
from ase.structure import molecule
     from jasp import >
 3
     # first we define our molecules. These will automatically be at the coordinates from the G2 database.
 4
     CO.set_cell([8, 8, 8], scale_atoms=False)
     H20 = molecule('H20')
     H2O.set_cell([8, 8, 8], scale_atoms=False)
10
11
     CO2 = molecule('CO2')
12
     CO2.set_cell([8, 8, 8], scale_atoms=False)
     H2 = molecule('H2')
16
     H2.set_cell([8, 8, 8], scale_atoms=False)
17
     # now the calculators to get the energies
18
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/CO',
19
               xc='PBE',
21
                encut=350
22
               ismear=0,
23
               ibrion=2,
24
               nsw=10.
               atoms=CO) as calc:
25
              eCO = CO.get_potential_energy()
         except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
    eCO = None
28
29
30
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/CO2',
31
                encut=350,
                ismear=0,
35
               ibrion=2
36
               nsw=10,
               atoms=CO2) as calc:
37
38
         try:
              eC02 = C02.get_potential_energy()
         except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued)
eCO2 = None
40
41
42
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/H2',
43
               xc='PBE',
44
                encut=350,
                ismear=0
47
               ibrion=2,
48
               nsw=10.
               atoms=H2) as calc:
49
50
              eH2 = H2.get_potential_energy()
```

```
52
          except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
               eH2 = None
53
54
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/H20',
55
                xc='PBE',
56
                 encut=350,
                 ismear=0,
59
                ibrion=2.
60
                nsw=10,
                atoms=H2O) as calc:
61
62
          try:
              eH20 = H20.get_potential_energy()
64
          except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
              eH20 = None
65
66
     if None in (eCO2, eH2, eCO, eH2O):
67
68
          pass
     else:
70
          dE = eC02 + eH2 - eC0 - eH20
          print('Delta E = {0:1.3f} eV'.format(dE))
print('Delta E = {0:1.3f} kcal/mol'.format(dE * 23.06035))
71
72
          print('Delta E = {0:1.3f} kJ/mol'.format(dE * 96.485))
73
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-69.py).

```
Delta E = -0.720 eV
Delta E = -16.614 kcal/mol
Delta E = -69.514 kJ/mol
```

We estimated the enthalpy of this reaction at standard conditions to be $-41~\mathrm{kJ/mol}$ using data from the NIST webbook, which is a fair bit lower than we calculated here. In the next section we will examine whether additional corrections are needed, such as zero-point and temperature corrections.

It is a good idea to verify your calculations and structures are what you expected. Let us print them here. Inspection of these results shows the geometries were all relaxed, i.e., the forces on each atom are less than 0.05 eV/Å.

```
from jasp import *
 2
     print('**** Calculation summaries')
 3
     print('***** CO')
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/CO') as calc:
         print('#+begin_example')
         print(calc)
         print('#+end_example')
 9
     print('***** CO2')
10
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/CO2') as calc:
12
         print('#+begin_example')
         print(calc)
13
14
         print('#+end_example')
15
     print('***** H2')
16
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/H2') as calc:
17
         print('#+begin_example')
         print(calc)
19
20
         print('#+end_example')
21
     print '***** H20'
22
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/H2O') as calc:
         print('#+begin_example')
24
25
         print(calc)
         print('#+end_example')
26
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-70.py).

Calculation summaries

```
CO
```

```
VASP calculation from /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/molecules/wgs/CO
 converged: True
 Energy = -14.789536 eV
 Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
       x y z length
 a0 [ 8.000 0.000 0.000] 8.000
 a1 [ 0.000 8.000 0.000] 8.000
 a2 [ 0.000 0.000 8.000] 8.000
 a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):8.000 8.000 8.000 90.0 90.0 90.0
 Unit cell volume = 512.000 Ang^3
 Stress (GPa):xx, yy, zz, yz,
           0.005 0.005 0.005-0.000 -0.000 -0.000
Atom# sym
            position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
  0
     O [0.000 0.000 0.490] O 0.01 T T T
  1
                    0.000
                                7.346] 0 0.01
                                                   ттт
     C [0.000
INCAR Parameters:
       nbands: 9
       ismear: 0
          nsw: 10
       ibrion: 2
        encut: 350.0
       magmom: None
         prec: Normal
         kpts: [1, 1, 1]
   reciprocal: False
          xc: PBE
          txt: -
        gamma: False
Pseudopotentials used:
C: potpaw_PBE/C/POTCAR (git-hash: 2272d6745da89a3d872983542cef1d18750fc952)
O: potpaw_PBE/O/POTCAR (git-hash: 9a0489b46120b0cad515d935f44b5fbe3a3b1dfa)
  CO2
 VASP\ calculation\ from\ /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/molecules/wgs/CO2
 converged: True
 Energy = -22.959572 eV
 Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
      X
           У
                   z length
 a0 [ 8.000 0.000 0.000] 8.000
 a1 [ 0.000 8.000 0.000] 8.000
 a2 [ 0.000 0.000 8.000] 8.000
```

```
a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):8.000 8.000 8.000 90.0 90.0 90.0
 Unit cell volume = 512.000 Ang^3
 Stress (GPa):xx, yy, zz, yz, xz, xy 0.009 0.009 0.008-0.000 -0.000 -0.000
           position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
Atom# sym
  0 C [0.000 0.000 0.000] 0 0.00
                                                ТТТ
                    0.000
                                                  ТТТ
  1
      0.000
                              1.177] 0
                                         0.01
     0.000
                   0.000
                              6.823] 0 0.01
INCAR Parameters:
_____
       nbands: 12
       ismear: 0
         nsw: 10
       ibrion: 2
       encut: 350.0
       magmom: None
        prec: Normal
        kpts: [1, 1, 1]
   reciprocal: False
          xc: PBE
         txt: -
        gamma: False
Pseudopotentials used:
-----
C: potpaw_PBE/C/POTCAR (git-hash: 2272d6745da89a3d872983542cef1d18750fc952)
O: potpaw_PBE/O/POTCAR (git-hash: 9a0489b46120b0cad515d935f44b5fbe3a3b1dfa)
  H2
: ------
 VASP calculation from /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/molecules/wgs/H2
 converged: True
 Energy = -6.744001 \text{ eV}
 Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
       {\tt x} {\tt y} {\tt z} {\tt length}
 a0 [ 8.000 0.000 0.000] 8.000
 a1 [ 0.000 8.000 0.000] 8.000
 a2 [ 0.000 0.000 8.000] 8.000
 a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):8.000 8.000 8.000 90.0 90.0 90.0
 Unit cell volume = 512.000 Ang^3
 Stress (GPa):xx, yy, zz, yz,
                                    ΧZ,
           0.000 0.000 0.000-0.000 -0.000 -0.000
Atom# sym
           position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
  0
      H [0.000 0.000 0.376] 0 0.00 T T T
                   0.000
                              7.624] 0 0.00
      Н [0.000
```

INCAR Parameters:

```
nbands: 5
       ismear: 0
         nsw: 10
       ibrion: 2
        encut: 350.0
       magmom: None
        prec: Normal
        kpts: [1, 1, 1]
   reciprocal: False
          xc: PBE
         txt: -
        gamma: False
Pseudopotentials used:
_____
H: potpaw_PBE/H/POTCAR (git-hash: fbc0773b08b32f553234b0b50cc6ad6f5085c816)
  H<sub>2</sub>O
· -----
 VASP calculation from /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/molecules/wgs/H20
 converged: True
 Energy = -14.193569 eV
 Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
            У
                  z
                          length
 a0 [ 8.000 0.000 0.000] 8.000
 a1 [ 0.000 8.000 0.000] 8.000
 a2 [ 0.000 0.000 8.000] 8.000
 a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):8.000 8.000 8.000 90.0 90.0 90.0
 Unit cell volume = 512.000 Ang^3
 Stress (GPa):xx, yy, zz, yz,
                                     ΧZ,
           0.005 0.004 0.005-0.000 -0.000 -0.000
             position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
Atom# sym
  0
      0 [0.000 0.000 0.122] 0 0.06 T T T
      Н [0.000
                               7.522] 0
                                                   ттт
                    0.766
                                         0.04
  1
                   7.234
                             7.522] 0
      Н [0.000
                                         0.04
INCAR Parameters:
       nbands: 8
       ismear: 0
         nsw: 10
       ibrion: 2
        encut: 350.0
       magmom: None
        prec: Normal
        kpts: [1, 1, 1]
   reciprocal: False
          xc: PBE
         txt: -
```

gamma: False

Pseudopotentials used:

```
H: potpaw_PBE/H/POTCAR (git-hash: fbc0773b08b32f553234b0b50cc6ad6f5085c816)O: potpaw_PBE/O/POTCAR (git-hash: 9a0489b46120b0cad515d935f44b5fbe3a3b1dfa)
```

3.8.3 Temperature dependent water gas shift equilibrium constant

To correct the reaction energy for temperature effects, we must compute the vibrational frequencies of each species, and estimate the temperature dependent contributions to vibrational energy and entropy. We will break these calculations into several pieces. First we do each vibrational calculation. After those are done, we can get the data and construct the thermochemistry objects we need to estimate the reaction energy as a function of temperature (at constant pressure).

CO vibrations

```
from jasp import *
     # get relaxed geometry
with jasp('molecules/wgs/CO') as calc:
3
4
         CO = calc.get atoms()
5
     # now do the vibrations
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/CO-vib',
9
                xc='PBE'.
                encut=350.
10
                ismear=0,
11
                ibrion=6,
12
                nfree=2,
                potim=0.02,
                nsw=1,
                atoms=CO) as calc:
16
17
         calc.calculate()
18
         vib_freq = calc.get_vibrational_frequencies()
19
         for i, f in enumerate(vib_freq):
             print('{0:02d}: {1} cm^(-1)'.format(i, f))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-71.py).

```
00: 2115.528894 cm<sup>(-1)</sup>
01: 60.594878 cm<sup>(-1)</sup>
02: 60.594878 cm<sup>(-1)</sup>
03: (0.987178+0j) cm<sup>(-1)</sup>
04: (17.958586+0j) cm<sup>(-1)</sup>
05: (17.958586+0j) cm<sup>(-1)</sup>
```

CO has only one vibrational mode (3N-5 = 6 - 5 = 1). The other 5 modes are 3 translations and 2 rotations.

CO₂ vibrations

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-72.py).

```
00: 2352.901285 cm^(-1)
01: 1316.689504 cm^(-1)
02: 635.015913 cm^(-1)
03: 635.015913 cm^(-1)
04: (0.344306+0j) cm^(-1)
05: (1.763867+0j) cm^(-1)
06: (1.763867+0j) cm^(-1)
07: (62.700411+0j) cm^(-1)
08: (62.700411+0j) cm^(-1)
```

 CO_2 is a linear molecule with 3N-5 = 4 vibrational modes. They are the first four frequencies in the output above.

H₂ vibrations

```
from jasp import *
     # get relaxed geometry
with jasp('molecules/wgs/H2') as calc:
3
4
         H2 = calc.get_atoms()
     # now do the vibrations
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/H2-vib',
                xc='PBE',
                encut=350.
10
                ismear=0,
11
                ibrion=6,
12
                nfree=2,
13
                potim=0.02,
                nsw=1,
                atoms=H2) as calc:
16
17
         calc.calculate()
         vib_freq = calc.get_vibrational_frequencies()
18
19
         for i, f in enumerate(vib_freq):
             print('{0:02d}: {1} cm^(-1)'.format(i, f))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-73.py).

```
00: 4281.917749 cm^(-1)
01: 129.146855 cm^(-1)
02: 129.146855 cm^(-1)
03: 0.0 cm^(-1)
04: 0.0 cm^(-1)
05: (1e-05+0j) cm^(-1)
```

There is only one frequency of importance (the one at 4281 cm^{-1}) for the linear H_2 molecule.

H₂O vibrations

```
1 from jasp import *
2 
3 # get relaxed geometry
```

```
with jasp('molecules/wgs/H2O') as calc:
5
         H20 = calc.get_atoms()
6
     # now do the vibrations
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/H2O-vib',
9
               xc='PBE',
10
               encut=350,
11
               ismear=0.
               ibrion=6,
12
13
               nfree=2,
               potim=0.02,
14
               nsw=1,
16
               atoms=H2O) as calc:
17
         calc.calculate()
         vib_freq = calc.get_vibrational_frequencies()
18
         for i, f in enumerate(vib_freq):
19
             print('{0:02d}: {1} cm^(-1)'.format(i, f))
20
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-74.py).

```
00: 3782.062213 cm^(-1)
01: 3672.1246 cm^(-1)
02: 1586.23055 cm^(-1)
03: 135.82763 cm^(-1)
04: 16.280411 cm^(-1)
05: (0.208582+0j) cm^(-1)
06: (26.297061+0j) cm^(-1)
07: (106.869518+0j) cm^(-1)
08: (131.286732+0j) cm^(-1)
```

Water has 3N-6 = 3 vibrational modes.

Thermochemistry Now we are ready. We have the electronic energies and vibrational frequencies of each species in the reaction. ase.thermochemistry.IdealGasThermo

```
from ase.thermochemistry import IdealGasThermo
     from jasp import *
 2
 3
     import numpy as np
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
     # first we get the electronic energies
with jasp('molecules/wgs/CO') as calc:
    CO = calc.get_atoms()
          E_CO = CO.get_potential_energy()
 9
10
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/CO2') as calc:
          CO2 = calc.get_atoms()
E_CO2 = CO2.get_potential_energy()
12
13
14
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/H2') as calc:
15
          H2 = calc.get_atoms()
16
17
          E_H2 = H2.get_potential_energy()
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/H2O') as calc:
19
          H20 = calc.get_atoms()
20
          E_H20 = H20.get_potential_energy()
21
     # now we get the vibrational energies
24
     h = 4.1356675e-15 # eV * s
     c = 3.0e10 \# cm / s
25
26
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/CO-vib') as calc:
27
          vib_freq = calc.get_vibrational_frequencies()
28
          CO_vib_energies = [h * c * nu for nu in vib_freq]
29
30
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/CO2-vib') as calc:
31
          vib_freq = calc.get_vibrational_frequencies()
32
          CO2_vib_energies = [h * c * nu for nu in vib_freq]
33
34
     with jasp('molecules/wgs/H2-vib') as calc:
```

```
36
                     vib_freq = calc.get_vibrational_frequencies()
37
                     H2_vib_energies = [h * c * nu for nu in vib_freq]
38
            with jasp('molecules/wgs/H2O-vib') as calc:
39
                     vib_freq = calc.get_vibrational_frequencies()
41
                     H20\_vib\_energies = [h * c * nu for nu in vib\_freq]
42
            # now we make a thermo object for each molecule
43
           CO_t = IdealGasThermo(vib_energies=CO_vib_energies[0:0],
44
                                                              electronicenergy=E_CO, atoms=CO,
45
                                                               geometry='linear', symmetrynumber=1,
46
                                                              spin=0)
48
           CO2_t = IdealGasThermo(vib_energies=CO2_vib_energies[0:4],
49
                                                               {\tt electronicenergy=E\_CO2}, \ {\tt atoms=CO2},
50
                                                               geometry='linear', symmetrynumber=2,
51
                                                              spin=0)
52
54
           H2_t = IdealGasThermo(vib_energies=H2_vib_energies[0:0],
55
                                                              \verb|electronice| electronice| e
                                                               geometry='linear', symmetrynumber=2,
56
                                                               spin=0)
57
58
           H20_t = IdealGasThermo(vib_energies=H20_vib_energies[0:3],
60
                                                               {\tt electronicenergy=E\_H20,\ atoms=H20,}
61
                                                               geometry='nonlinear', symmetrynumber=2,
62
                                                               spin=0)
63
            # now we can compute G_rn for a range of temperatures from 298 to 1000 K
64
65
            Trange = np.linspace(298, 1000, 20) # K
            P = 101325. \# Pa
67
           Grxn = np.array([(CO2_t.get_free_energy(temperature=T, pressure=P)
                                                     + H2_t.get_free_energy(temperature=T, pressure=P)
- H2O_t.get_free_energy(temperature=T, pressure=P)
68
69
                                                      - CO_t.get_free_energy(temperature=T, pressure=P)) * 96.485 for T in Trange])
70
71
           Hrxn = np.array([(CO2_t.get_enthalpy(temperature=T)
                                                    + H2_t.get_enthalpy(temperature=T)
- H20_t.get_enthalpy(temperature=T)
73
74
                                                      - CO_t.get_enthalpy(temperature=T)) * 96.485
75
76
                                                  for T in Trangel)
           plt.plot(Trange, Grxn, 'bo-', label='$\Delta G_{rxn}$')
plt.plot(Trange, Hrxn, 'ro:', label='$\Delta H_{rxn}$')
plt.xlabel('Temperature (K)')
plt.ylabel(r'$\Delta G_{rxn}$ (kJ/mol)')
79
80
81
           plt.legend(loc='best')
82
           plt.savefig('images/wgs-dG-T.png')
83
           plt.figure()
86
           R = 8.314e-3 # gas constant in kJ/mol/K
87
           Keq = np.exp(-Grxn/R/Trange)
88
           plt plot(Trange, Keq)
89
           plt.ylim([0, 100])
           plt.xlabel('Temperature (K)')
92
           plt.ylabel('$K_{eq}$')
93
           plt.savefig('images/wgs-Keq.png')
           plt.show()
94
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-75.py).

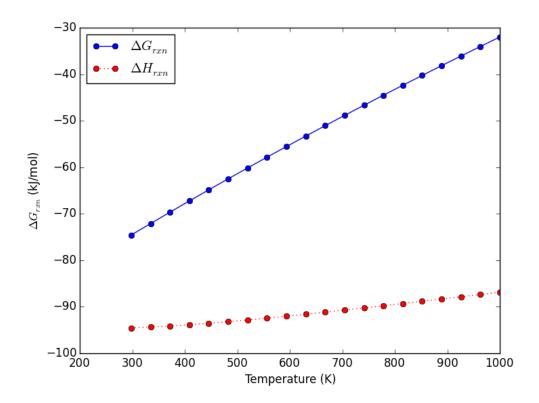


Figure 22: Thermodynamic energies of the water gas shift reaction as a function of temperature.

You can see a few things here. One is that at near 298K, the Gibbs free energy is about -75 kJ/mol. This is too negative compared to the experimental standard free energy, which we estimated to be about -29 kJ/mol from the NIST webbook. There could be several reasons for this disagreement, but the most likely one is errors in the exchange-correlation functional. The error in energy has a significant effect on the calculated equilibrium constant, significantly overestimating it.

3.9 Molecular reaction barriers

We will consider a simple example of the barrier for NH_3 inversion. We have to create an NH_3 molecule in the initial and inverted state (these have exactly the same energy), and then interpolate a band of images. Then, we use the NEB method ⁴⁸ to compute the barrier to inversion. The NEB class of methods are pretty standard, but other algorithms for finding barriers (saddle-points) exist that may be relevant. ⁴⁹

3.9.1 Get initial and final states

```
# compute initial and final states
from ase import Atoms
from ase.structure import molecule
import numpy as np
from jasp import *
from ase.constraints import FixAtoms

atoms = molecule('NH3')
constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.symbol == 'N' for atom in atoms])
atoms.set_constraint(constraint)

Npos = atoms.positions[0]
```

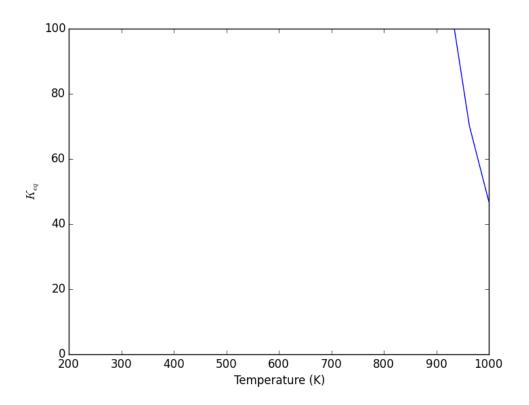


Figure 23: Temperature dependence of the equilibrium constant.

```
\# move N to origin
      \verb|atoms.translate(-Npos)|
15
      atoms.set_cell((10, 10, 10), scale_atoms=False)
16
17
      atoms2 = atoms.copy()
18
19
      pos2 = atoms2.positions
20
      for i,atom in enumerate(atoms2):
21
          if atom.symbol == 'H':
    # reflect through z
    pos2[i] *= np.array([1, 1, -1])
22
23
24
      atoms2.positions = pos2
      #now move N to center of box
atoms.translate([5, 5, 5])
atoms2.translate([5, 5, 5])
^{27}
28
29
30
31
      with jasp('molecules/nh3-initial',
                  xc='PBE',
33
                  encut=350,
34
                  {\tt ibrion=1,}
                  nsw=10,
35
36
                  atoms=atoms) as calc:
37
           try:
38
                calc.calculate()
           except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
39
40
               pass
41
      with jasp('molecules/nh3-final',
42
                  xc='PBE',
43
                  encut=350,
45
                  ibrion=1,
46
                  nsw=10,
                  atoms=atoms2) as calc:
47
48
           try:
```

```
calc.calculate()

except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):

pass
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-76.py).

3.9.2 Run band calculation

Now we do the band calculation.

```
# Run NH3 NEB calculations
     from jasp import *
     from ase.neb import NEB
     with jasp('molecules/nh3-initial') as calc:
          atoms = calc.get_atoms()
 6
     with jasp('molecules/nh3-final') as calc:
          atoms2 = calc.get_atoms()
10
11
     {\it \# 5 images including endpoints}
     images = [atoms] # initial state
images += [atoms.copy() for i in range(3)]
12
13
     images += [atoms2] # final state
14
15
16
     neb = NEB(images)
17
     neb.interpolate()
18
     with jasp('molecules/nh3-neb',
19
                xc='PBE',
20
                 ibrion=1,
                 nsw=90,
23
                 {\tt spring} {\tt =-5} \, , \,\, {\tt debug=logging.DEBUG} \, ,
24
                 atoms=images) as calc:
          images, energies = calc.get_neb()
25
26
          calc.plot_neb(show=False)
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
29
     plt.savefig('images/nh3-neb.png')
30
     plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-77.py).

```
Optimization terminated successfully.

Current function value: -0.223946

Iterations: 15

Function evaluations: 30
```

3.9.3 Make a movie of the animation

It is helpful sometimes to animate the Nudged elastic band path. Here is a script to do that. I have not figured out how to embed the movie in this document

```
# make neb movie
    from ase.io import write
    from ase.visualize import view
4
    from jasp import *
    with jasp('molecules/nh3-neb') as calc:
         images,energies = calc.get_neb()
     # this rotates the atoms 90 degrees about the y-axis
10
    [atoms.rotate('y', np.pi/2.) for atoms in images]
11
    for i.atoms in enumerate(images):
12
         write('images/00{0}-nh3.png'.format(i), atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
13
14
```

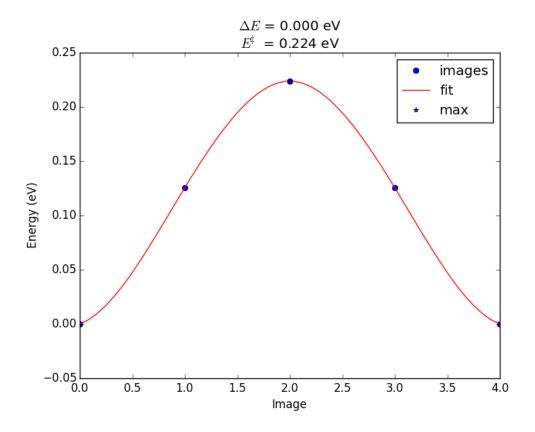


Figure 24: Nudged elastic band results for ammonia flipping.

```
# animated gif

os.system('convert -delay 50 -loop 0 images/00*-nh3.png images/nh3-neb.gif')

# Shockwave flash
os.system('png2swf -o images/nh3-neb.swf images/00*-nh3.png ')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-78.py).

- ./images/nh3-neb.gif
- ./images/nh3-neb.swf

4 Bulk systems

See http://arxiv.org/pdf/1204.2733.pdf for a very informative comparison of DFT codes for computing different bulk properties.

4.1 Defining and visualizing bulk systems

4.1.1 Built-in functions in ase

As with molecules, <code>ase</code> provides several helper functions to create bulk structures. We highlight a few of them here. Particularly common ones are:

- ase.lattice.cubic.FaceCenteredCubic
- ase.lattice.cubic.BodyCenteredCubic

- ase.lattice.hexagonal.Graphite
- ase.lattice.compounds.NaCl

For others, see https://wiki.fysik.dtu.dk/ase/ase/lattice.html

We start with a simple example, fcc Ag. By default, ase knows Ag is an fcc metal, and knows the experimental lattice constant. We have to specify the directions (vectors along each axis) to get something other than the default output. Here, the default fcc cell contains four atoms.

```
from ase.io import write
from ase.lattice.cubic import FaceCenteredCubic

atoms = FaceCenteredCubic('Ag')

write('images/Ag-fcc.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)

print(atoms)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-79.py).

Lattice(symbols='Ag4', positions=..., cell=[4.09, 4.09, 4.09], pbc=[True, True, True])

Note:

A ase.lattice.bravais.Lattice object is returned! This is practically the same as an ase.atoms.Atoms object.

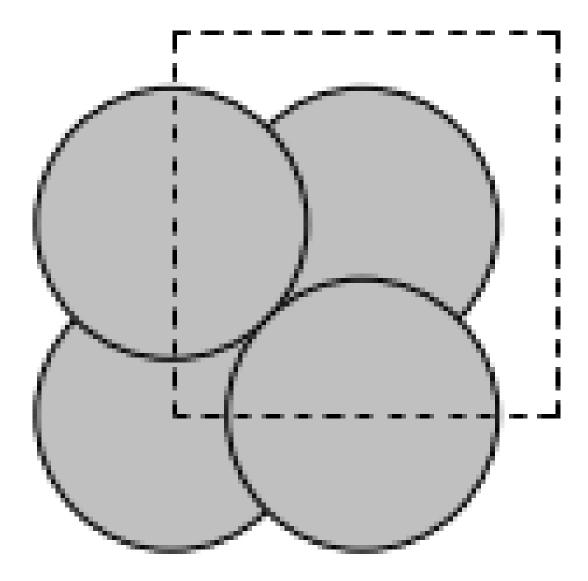


Figure 25: A simple fcc Ag bulk structure in the primitive unit cell.

Here we specify the primitive unit cell, which only has one atom in it.

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-80.py).

Lattice(symbols='Ag', positions=..., cell=[[2.892066735052979, 0.0, 0.0], [1.4460333675264898, 2.504

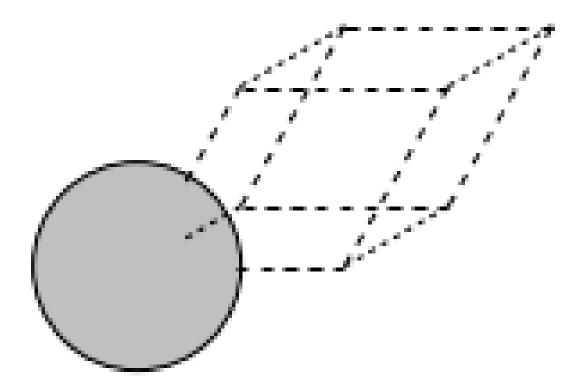


Figure 26: A simple fcc Ag bulk structure in the primitive unit cell.

We can use these modules to build alloy unit cells. The basic strategy is to create the base unit cell in one element and then selectively change some atoms to different chemical symbols. Here we examine an Ag_3Pd alloy structure.

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-81.py).

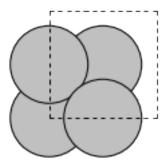


Figure 27: A simple fcc Ag bulk structure in the traditional unit cell.

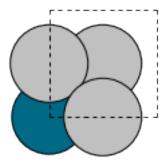


Figure 28: A simple Ag₃Pd bulk structure.

To create a graphite structure we use the following code. Note that we have to specify the lattice constants (taken from http://www.phy.ohiou.edu/~asmith/NewATOMS/HOPG.pdf) because ase has C in the diamond structure by default. We show two views, because the top view does not show the spacing between the layers.

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-82.py).

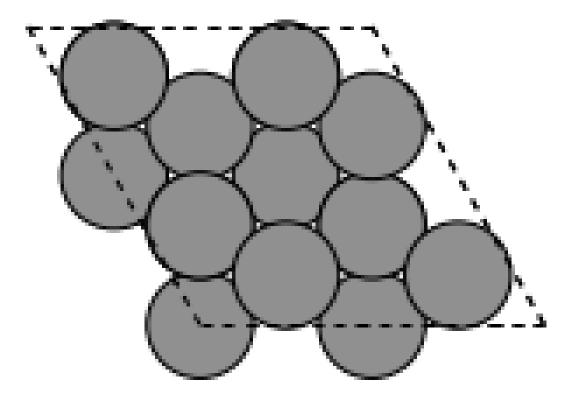


Figure 29: A top view of graphite.

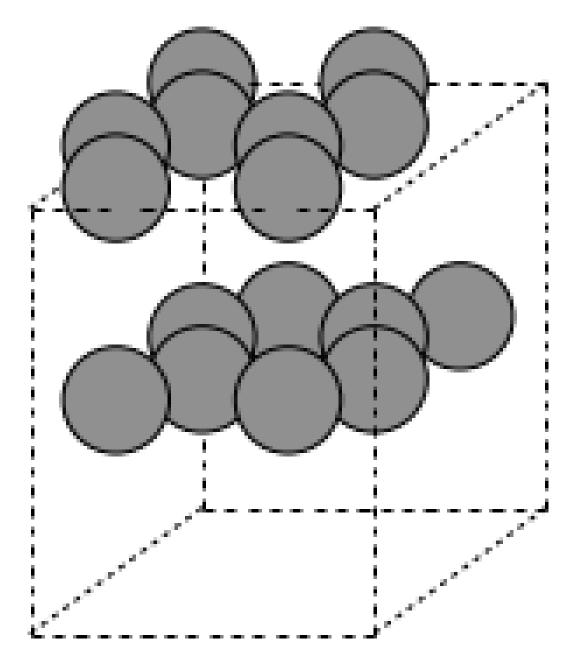


Figure 30: A side view of graphite.

To get a compound, we use the following code. We have to specify the basis atoms to the function generating the compound, and the lattice constant. For NaCl we use the lattice constant at (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sodium_chloride).

```
from ase.lattice.compounds import NaCl
from ase.io import write

atoms = NaCl(['Na', 'Cl'], latticeconstant=5.65)
write('images/NaCl.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2, rotation='45x,45y,45z')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-83.py).

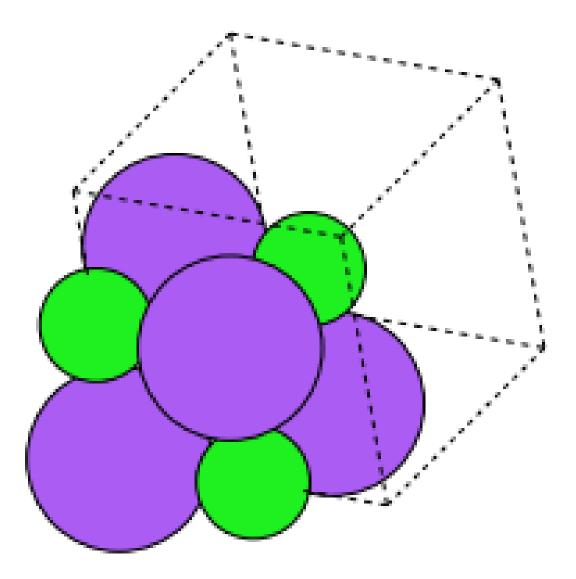


Figure 31: A view of a NaCl crystal structure.

ase.spacegroup A final alternative to setting up bulk structures is ase.spacegroup. This is a concise way to setup structures if you know the following properties of the crystal structure:

- 1. Chemical symbols
- 2. Coordinates of the non-equivalent sites in the unit cell
- 3. the spacegroup
- 4. the cell parameters (a, b, c, alpha, beta, gamma)

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-84.py).

Atoms(symbols='Al4', positions=..., cell=[[4.05, 0.0, 0.0], [2.4799097682733903e-16, 4.05, 0.0], [2. Here is rutile TiO_2 .

```
from ase.lattice.spacegroup import crystal

a = 4.6
c = 2.95
rutile = crystal(['Ti', '0'], basis=[(0, 0, 0), (0.3, 0.3, 0.0)],
spacegroup=136, cellpar=[a, a, c, 90, 90, 90])
print rutile
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-85.py).

```
Atoms(symbols='Ti204', positions=..., cell=[[4.6, 0.0, 0.0], [2.816687638038912e-16, 4.6, 0.0], [1.8
```

4.1.2 Using http://materialsproject.org

The Materials Project offers web access to a pretty large number of materials (over 21,000 at the time of this writing), including structure and other computed properties. You must sign up for an account at the website, and then you can access the information. You can search for materials with lots of different criteria including formula, unit cell formula, by elements, by structure, etc... The website allows you to download the VASP files used to create the calculations. They also develop the pymatgen project (which requires python 2.7+).

For example, I downloaded this cif file for a RuO₂ structure (Material ID 825).

```
#\#CIF1.1
    3
                   Crystallographic Information Format file
4
                  Produced by PyCifRW module
5
       This is a CIF file. CIF has been adopted by the International
6
       Union of Crystallography as the standard for data archiving and
       transmission.
10
       For information on this file format, follow the CIF links at
      http://www.iucr.org
11
    12
13
    \verb|_symmetry_space_group_name_H-M|
                                        'P 1'
15
16
    _cell_length_a
                                        3.13970109
17
    _cell_length_b
                                        4.5436378
                                        4.5436378
    _cell_length_c
18
19
    _cell_angle_alpha
                                        90.0
    _cell_angle_beta
20
    _cell_angle_gamma
                                        90.0
22
    _chemical_name_systematic
                                         'Generated by pymatgen'
    _symmetry_Int_Tables_number
23
                                        Ru02
24
     chemical formula structural
    _chemical_formula_sum
                                         'Ru2 04'
25
                                        64.8180127062
    _cell_volume
     _cell_formula_units_Z
28
      _symmetry_equiv_pos_site_id
29
      _symmetry_equiv_pos_as_xyz
30
         'x, y, z'
31
32
    loop_
34
      _atom_site_type_symbol
      _atom_site_label
35
      _atom_site_symmetry_multiplicity
36
      _atom_site_fract_x
37
      _atom_site_fract_y
38
      _atom_site_fract_z
      _atom_site_attached_hydrogens
      _atom_site_B_iso_or_equiv
```

```
_atom_site_occupancy
       0 01 1 0.000000 0.694330
                                   0.694330
43
                          0.805670
             1 0.500000
                                   0.194330
44
       0 02
                0.000000
                          0.305670
                                   0.305670
45
             1
               0.500000
                          0.194330
                                   0.805670
47
       Ru
          Ru5 1
                  0.500000 0.500000
                                     0.500000 0
           Ru6
               1
                  0.000000
                           0.000000
                                     0.000000
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-86.py).

We can read this file in with ase.io.read. That function automatically recognizes the file type by the extension.

```
from ase.io import read, write

atoms = read('bulk/Ru204_1.cif')

write('images/Ru204.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-87.py).

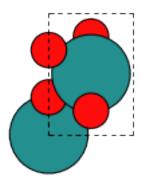


Figure 32: An RuO₂ unit cell prepared from a cif file.

You can also download the VASP files. I have copied these files (INCAR, POSCAR, KPOINTS) to a directory (bulk/Ru2O4), and now we can run a calculation like this:

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-88.py).

```
VASP calculation from /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/bulk/Ru204
converged: True
Energy = -44.302690 \text{ eV}
Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
                    z
                            length
              У
a0 [ 3.137
           0.000
                   0.000] 3.137
a1 [ 0.000
            4.541
                   0.000] 4.541
                   4.541] 4.541
a2 [ 0.000 0.000
a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):3.137 4.541 4.541 90.0 90.0 90.0
```

```
Unit cell volume = 64.694 Ang^3
              yy, zz,
Stress (GPa):xx,
                          yz,
        -0.002 -0.000 -0.000-0.000 -0.000 -0.000
Atom#
            position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
     sym
     Ru
        [1.569
              2.270
 0
                          2.270] 0
                                    0.00
                                            TTT
     Ru [0.000
                 0.000
                          0.000] 0
                                    0.00
                                            TTT
 1
                3.153
                                   0.00
 2
     [0.000]
                          3.153] 0
                                            TTT
 3
     0 [1.569
                3.659
                         0.882] 0
                                    0.00
                                            TTT
 4
        [0.000
                1.388
                          1.388] 0
                                    0.00
                                            TTT
     Ω
                          3.659] 0
                                            TTT
 5
     0 [1.569
                 0.882
                                    0.00
_____
```

INCAR Parameters:

nbands: 31 ismear: 1 nelmin: 3 icharg: 1 nelm: 100 nsw: 99 ibrion: 2 npar: 1 isif: 3 encut: 520.0 sigma: 0.2 ediff: 0.0003 lwave: True magmom: [0.6, 0.6, 0.6, 0.6, 0.6] prec: Normal algo: Fast lreal: Auto kpts: [8, 6, 6] reciprocal: False setups: {'Ru': '_pv'} xc: PBE txt: gamma: False

Pseudopotentials used:

Ru: potpaw_PBE/Ru_pv/POTCAR (git-hash: c29610ef9b7bfa353e710b09dfadcd2b0fb0d274)
0: potpaw_PBE/0/POTCAR (git-hash: 9a0489b46120b0cad515d935f44b5fbe3a3b1dfa)

Some notes: we had to specify the PBE functional. That is good habit, since the default may be something else. We also had to specify the special setups used, since those were not defaults either.

We get exactly the same result as the website! Why is this helpful then? Well, we could use this as a starting point to look at an equation of state, or to plot some interesting electronic structure, etc... Or we can gain a little confidence that our version of VASP is working like the one they used.

4.2 Computational parameters that are important for bulk structures

4.2.1 k-point convergence

In the section on molecules, we learned that the total energy is a function of the planewave cutoff energy (ENCUT) used. In bulk systems that is true also. There is also another calculation parameter you must consider, the k-point grid. The k-point grid is a computational tool used to approximate integrals of some property, e.g. the electron density, over the entire unit cell. The integration is performed in reciprocal space (i.e. in the Brillouin zone) for convenience and efficiency, and the k-point grid is where the property is sampled for the integration. The higher the number of sampled points, the more accurately the integrals are approximated.

We will typically use a Monkhorst-Pack 28 k-point grid, which is essentially a uniformly spaced grid in the Brillouin zone. Another less commonly used scheme is the Chadi-Cohen k-point grid. 27 The Monkhorst-Pack grids are specified as $n1 \times n2 \times n3$ grids, and the total number of k-points is $n1 \cdot n2 \cdot n3$. The computational cost is linear in the total number of k-points, so a calculation on a $4 \times 4 \times 4$ grid will be roughly 8 times more expensive than on a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ grid. Hence, one seeks again to balance convergence with computational tractability. Below we consider the k-point convergence of fcc Ag.

```
{\tt from} \ {\tt ase.lattice.cubic} \ {\tt import} \ {\tt FaceCenteredCubic}
 2
     from jasp import *
 3
     atoms = FaceCenteredCubic('Ag')
 5
     KPTS = [2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10]
 6
     TE = []
9
     readv = True
10
     for k in KPTS:
11
          with jasp('bulk/Ag-kpts-{0}'.format(k),
                     xc='PBE'.
13
14
                    kpts=(k, k, k), # specifies the Monkhorst-Pack grid
15
                    encut=300.
                    atoms=atoms) as calc:
16
17
                  TE.append(atoms.get_potential_energy())
18
              except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
20
                  ready = False
21
22
     if not ready:
         import sys; sys.exit()
23
24
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
27
     # consider the change in energy from lowest energy state
     TE = np.array(TE)
28
     TE -= TE.min()
29
30
     plt.plot(KPTS, TE)
     plt.xlabel('number of k-points in each dimension')
33
     plt.ylabel('Total Energy (eV)')
34
     plt.savefig('images/Ag-kpt-convergence.png')
35
     plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-89.py).

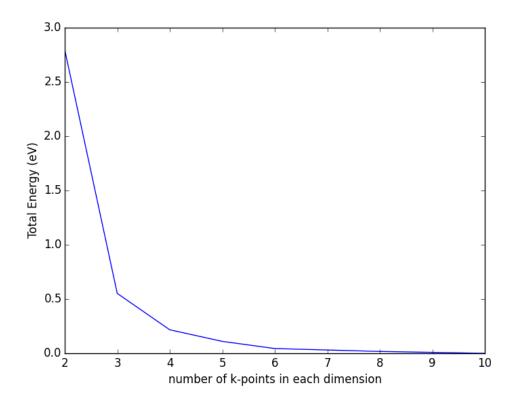


Figure 33: k-point convergence of the total energy of fcc Ag.

Based on this figure, we need at least a $6 \times 6 \times 6$ k-point grid to achieve a convergence level of at least 50 meV. Note: the k-point convergence is not always monotonic like it is in this example, and sometimes very dense grids (e.g. up to $20 \times 20 \times 20$) are needed for highly converged properties such as the density of states in smaller unit cells. Oscillations in the total energy are typical, and it can be difficult to get high levels of convergence. The best practices are to use the same k-point sampling grid in energy differences where possible, and dense (high numbers of k-points) otherwise. It is important to check for convergence in these cases.

As unit cells get larger, the number of k-points required becomes smaller. For example, if a $1 \times 1 \times 1$ fcc unit cell shows converged energies in a $12 \times 12 \times 12$ k-point grid, then a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ fcc unit cell would show the same level of convergence with a $6 \times 6 \times 6$ k-point grid. In other words, doubling the unit cell vectors results in a halving of the number of k-points.

Sometimes you may see k-points described as k-points per reciprocal atom. For example, a $12 \times 12 \times 12$ k-point grid for a primitive fcc unit cell would be 1728 k-points per reciprocal atom. A $2 \times 2 \times 2$ fcc unit cell has eight atoms in it, or 0.125 reciprocal atoms, so a $6 \times 6 \times 6$ k-point grid has 216 k-points in it, or 216/0.125 = 1728 k-points per reciprocal atom, the same as we discussed before.

In the k-point convergence example above, we used a $6\times6\times6$ k-point grid on a unit cell with four atoms in it, leading to 864 k-points per reciprocal atom. If we had instead used the primitive unit cell, we would need either a $9\times9\times9$ or $10\times10\times10$ k-point grid to get a similar level of accuracy. In this case, there is no exact matching of k-point grids due to the difference in shape of the cells.

4.2.2 Effect of SIGMA

In the self-consistent cycle of a DFT calculation, the total energy is minimized with respect to occupation of the Kohn-Sham orbitals. At absolute zero, a band is either occupied or empty. This discrete

occupation results in discontinuous changes in energy with changes in occupation, which makes it difficult to converge. One solution is to artificially broaden the band occupancies, as if they were occupied at a higher temperature where partial occupation is possible. This results in a continuous dependence of energy on the partial occupancy, and dramatically increases the rate of convergence. SIGMA and ISMEAR affect how the partial occupancies of the bands are determined.

Some rules to keep in mind:

- 1. The smearing methods were designed for metals. For molecules, semiconductors and insulators you should use a very small SIGMA (e.g. 0.01).
- 2. Standard values for metallic systems is SIGMA=0.1, but the best SIGMA may be material specific.

The consequence of this finite temperature is that additional bands must be included in the calculation to allow for the partially occupied states above the Fermi level; the number of extra bands depends on the temperature used. An example of the maximum occupancies of the bands for an Cu bulk as a function of SIGMA is shown in Figure 34. Obviously, as SIGMA approaches 0, the occupancy approaches a step function. It is preferable that the occupancy of several of the highest bands be zero (or at least of order 1×10^{-8}) to ensure enough variational freedom was available in the calculation. Consequently, it is suggested that fifteen to twenty extra bands be used for a SIGMA of 0.20. In any case, it should be determined that enough bands were used by examination of the occupancies. It is undesirable to have too many extra bands, as this will add computational time.

Below we show the effect of SIGMA on the band occupancies.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
 3
 4
 5
     a = 3.61
 6
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu', (0, 0, 0))],
                    cell=0.5 * a * np.array([[1.0, 1.0, 0.0],
                                              [0.0, 1.0, 1.0]
                                              [1.0, 0.0, 1.0]])).repeat((2, 2, 2))
10
     SIGMA = [0.001, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5]
11
12
     for sigma in SIGMA:
13
         with jasp('bulk/Cu-sigma-{0}'.format(sigma),
15
                    xc='PBE'
16
                    encut=350.
17
                    kpts=(4, 4, 4),
18
                    ismear=-1,
19
                    sigma=sigma,
                    nbands=9 * 8,
                    atoms=atoms) as calc:
22
23
             e = atoms.get_potential_energy()
24
             nbands = calc.nbands
25
             nkpts = len(calc.get_ibz_k_points())
             occ = np.zeros((nkpts, nbands))
28
29
             for i in range(nkpts):
30
                 occ[i,:] = calc.get occupation numbers(kpt=i)
31
             max_occ = np.max(occ,axis=0) #axis 0 is columns
32
             plt.plot(range(nbands), max_occ, label='$\sigma = {0}$'.format(sigma))
34
35
     plt.xlabel('band number')
36
     plt.ylabel('maximum occupancy (electrons)')
37
     plt.ylim([-0.1, 2.1])
38
     plt.legend(loc='best')
     plt.savefig('images/occ-sigma.png')
     plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-90.py).

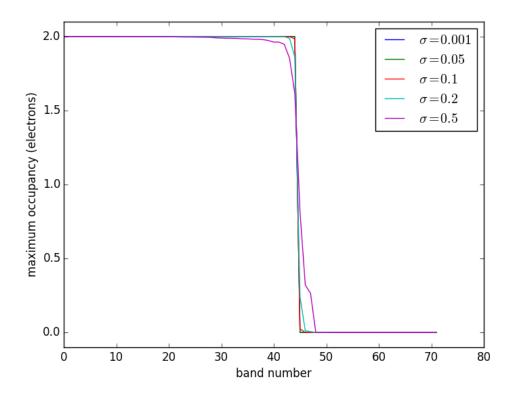


Figure 34: Effects of SIGMA on the occupancies of the Cu system.

4.2.3 The number of bands

In the last figure, it is evident that due to the smearing of the electronic states you need to have extra bands to accommodate the electrons above the Fermi level, and the higher the SIGMA value is, the more bands you need. You need enough bands so that the highest energy bands are unoccupied, and VASP will give you a warning that looks like this:

ADVICE TO THIS USER RUNNING 'VASP/VAMP' (HEAR YOUR MASTER'S VOICE ...): Your highest band is occupied at some k-points! Unless you are performing a calculation for an insulator or semiconductor, without unoccupied bands, you have included TOO FEW BANDS!! Please increase the parameter NBANDS in file 'INCAR' to ensure that the highest band is unoccupied at all k-points. It is always recommended to include a few unoccupied bands to accelerate the convergence of molecular dynamics runs (even for insulators or semiconductors). Because the presence of unoccupied bands improves wavefunction prediction, and helps to suppress 'band-crossings.' Following all k-points will be listed (with the Fermi weights of the highest band given in paranthesis) ...: (-0.01472)6 8 (-0.01413)

```
| 13 (-0.01733)
| 14 (-0.01838)
| The total occupancy of band no. 49 is -0.00932 electrons ...
```

We tell VASP the number of bands to use with the NBANDS keyword. VASP will set the NBANDS automatically if you do not provide a value, but this is in general bad practice (even though it is often done in this book!). There are a few general guidelines for setting NBANDS. First we recognize that a band can only have two electrons in it (one spin up, and one spin down) in an calculation without spin-polarization, or one electron per band for a spin-polarized calculation (note that spin-polarization doubles the number of bands). There absolutely must be enough bands to accommodate all the electrons, so the minimum number of bands is int(ceil(nelectrons/2)).

Here is an example of what this equation does.

```
import numpy as np

print int(np.ceil(50 / 2.))
print int(np.ceil(51 / 2.))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-91.py).

25 26

However, due to the smearing, the minimum number of bands is almost never enough, and we always add more bands. The default behavior in VASP is:

```
non-spin polarized \frac{\text{NELECT}}{2} + \frac{\text{NIONS}}{2}
spin-polarized \frac{0.6*\text{NELECT}}{1.6*\text{NELECT}} + \frac{1.000}{1.000}
```

These do not always work, especially for small molecular systems where NIONS/2 may be only 1, or transition metals where it may be necessary to add up to 2*NIONS extra bands.

To figure out how many bands you need, it is necessary to know how many electrons are in your calculation. The <code>jasp.get_valence_electrons</code> provides this for you. Alternatively, you can look in the <code>Appendix</code> for a table listing the number of valence electrons for each POTCAR file. Armed with this information you can set NBANDS the way you want.

```
from jasp import *
2
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
3
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu', [0.000, 0.000, 0.000])],
                   cell= [[1.818, 0.000, 1.818],
                           [1.818, 1.818, 0.000]
                           [0.000, 1.818, 1.818]])
     with jasp('bulk/alloy/cu',
9
               xc='PBE'.
10
               encut=350,
11
               kpts=(13, 13, 13),
               nbands=9,
               ibrion=2,
1.5
               isif=4.
16
               nsw=10,
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
17
         print calc.get_valence_electrons()
18
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-92.py).

11.0

For this calculation we need at least 6 bands (11/2=5.5 which is rounded up to 6) and we need to include some extra bands. The default rule would only add half a band, which is not enough. We add three additional bands. This system is so small it does not substantially increase the computational cost.

If you are too trifling to do that much work, you can use the <code>jasp.set_nbands</code> to automatically set the number of bands. This function takes an argument N to set the number of bands to N, **or** an argument f to set the NBANDS according to the formula nbands = int(nelectrons/2 + len(atoms) * f). The default value of f is 1.5. If you want the default VASP behavior, set f=0.5. For transition metals, it may be required that f=2. This function does not consider whether the calculation is spin-polarized or not. Here is an example of using <code>jasp.set_nbands</code>.

```
from jasp import *
    from ase import Atom, Atoms
3
    atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu', [0.000, 0.000, 0.000])],
                   cell=[[1.818, 0.000, 1.818],
                          [1.818, 1.818, 0.000]
                          [0.000, 1.818, 1.818]])
    with jasp('bulk/alloy/cu',
               xc='PBE'
10
               encut=350,
11
               kpts=(13, 13, 13),
               ibrion=2,
13
14
               isif=4.
               nsw=10.
15
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
16
         calc.set_nbands(9)
17
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-93.py).

```
: -----
```

```
VASP calculation from /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/bulk/alloy/cu
 converged: True
Energy = -3.723306 eV
Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
      Х
              У
                    Z
                            length
 a0 [ 1.818  0.000  1.818] 2.571
 a1 [ 1.818  1.818  0.000] 2.571
a2 [ 0.000 1.818 1.818] 2.571
a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):2.571 2.571 2.571 60.0 60.0 60.0
Unit cell volume = 12.017 Ang^3
Stress (GPa):xx,
                           zz,
                   уу,
                                  yz,
                                         XZ,
            0.006 0.006 0.006-0.000 -0.000 -0.000
Atom#
                position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
```

0 Cu [0.000 0.000 0.000] 0 0.00

INCAR Parameters:

nbands: 9
nsw: 10
ibrion: 2
isif: 4
encut: 350.0
magmom: None
prec: Normal

```
kpts: (13, 13, 13)
       reciprocal: False
                xc: PBE
               txt: -
             gamma: False
   Pseudopotentials used:
   -----
   Cu: potpaw_PBE/Cu/POTCAR (git-hash: a44c591415026f53deb16a99ca3f06b1e69be10b)
   from jasp import *
   from ase import Atom, Atoms
   atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu', [0.000, 0.000, 0.000])],
             cell=[[1.818, 0.000, 1.818],
                [1.818, 1.818, 0.000]
                  [0.000, 1.818, 1.818]])
   with jasp('bulk/alloy/cu-setnbands',
          xc='PBE',
10
           encut=350,
11
          kpts=(13, 13, 13),
          ibrion=2,
14
          isif=4,
          nsw=10.
15
          atoms=atoms) as calc:
16
17
      calc.set_nbands(f=3)
       Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-94.py).
   False
   : ------
     VASP calculation from /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/bulk/alloy/cu-setnbands
     converged: None
     Energy = nan eV
     Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
           х у
                        z length
     a0 [ 1.818  0.000  1.818] 2.571
     a1 [ 1.818  1.818  0.000] 2.571
     a2 [ 0.000 1.818 1.818] 2.571
     a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):2.571 2.571 2.571 60.0 60.0 60.0
     Unit cell volume = 12.017 Ang^3
     Stress was not computed
    Atom# sym position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
           Cu [0.000 0.000 0.000] 0 nan
   INCAR Parameters:
           nbands: 9
              nsw: 10
            ibrion: 2
              isif: 4
             encut: 350
            magmom: None
             prec: Normal
```

You are, of course, free to use any formula you want to set the number of bands. Some formulas I have used in the past include:

```
    NBANDS = 0.65*NELECT + 10
    NBANDS = 0.5*NELECT + 15
    etc...
```

4.3 Determining bulk structures

What we typically mean by determining bulk structures includes the following:

- What is the most stable crystal structure for a material?
- What is the lattice constant of fcc Cu?
- What are the lattice parameters and internal atom parameters for TiO₂?

All of these questions can often be addressed by finding the volume, shape and atomic positions that minimize the total energy of a bulk system. This is true at 0K. At higher temperatures, one must consider minimizing the free energy, rather than the internal energy.

4.3.1 fcc/bcc crystal structures

The fcc and bcc structures are simple. They only have one degree of freedom: the lattice constant. In this section we show how to calculate the equilibrium volume of each structure, and determine which one is more stable. We start with the fcc crystal structure of Cu. We will manually define the crystal structure based on the definitions in Kittel⁴ (Chapter 1).

```
from jasp import *
 1
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
 2
 3
     LC = [3.5, 3.55, 3.6, 3.65, 3.7, 3.75]
     fcc_energies = []
     readv = True
     for a in LC:
 8
         atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu', (0, 0, 0))],
9
10
                   cell=0.5 * a * np.array([[1.0, 1.0, 0.0],
                                              [0.0, 1.0, 1.0],
12
                                              [1.0, 0.0, 1.0]]))
13
         with jasp('bulk/Cu-{0}'.format(a),
14
                   xc='PBE',
15
                    encut=350,
16
                    kpts=(8, 8, 8),
17
                    atoms=atoms) as calc:
19
20
                 e = atoms.get_potential_energy()
21
                 fcc_energies.append(e)
22
             except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
```

```
ready = False

if not ready:
    import sys; sys.exit()

import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

plt.plot(LC, fcc_energies)

plt.xlabel('Lattice constant ($\AA$)')

plt.xlabel('Total energy (eV)')

plt.savefig('images/Cu-fcc.png')

print '#+tblname: cu-fcc-energies'

print r'| lattice constant ($\AA$) | Total Energy (eV) |'

for lc, e in zip(LC, fcc_energies):

print '| {0} | {1} | '.format(lc, e)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-95.py).

Total Energy (eV)
-3.649238
-3.696204
-3.719946
-3.723951
-3.711284
-3.68426

Exercise 4.2

Use the data in the table above to plot the total energy as a function of the lattice constant. Fit a cubic polynomial to the data, and find the volume that minimizes the total energy.

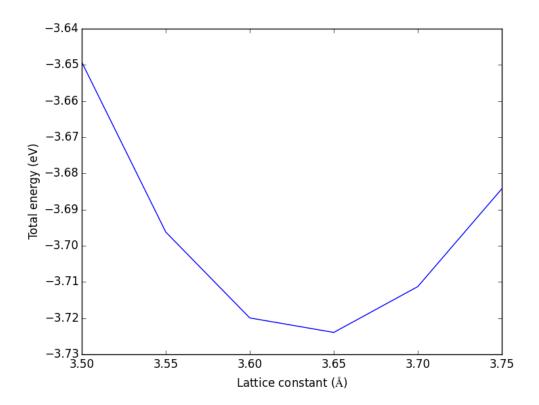


Figure 35: Total energy vs. fcc lattice contant for Cu. It appears the minimum is near 3.65 Å.

If you want to know the lattice constant that gives the lowest energy, you would fit an equation of state to the data. Here is an example using ase.utils.eos. See also the appendix equations of state.

```
from jasp import *
      from ase.utils.eos import EquationOfState
LC = [3.5, 3.55, 3.6, 3.65, 3.7, 3.75]
energies = []
2
3
4
 5
      volumes = []
           with jasp('bulk/Cu-{0}'.format(a)) as calc:
                atoms = calc.get_atoms()
                volumes.append(atoms.get_volume())
9
                energies.append(atoms.get_potential_energy())
10
11
      eos = EquationOfState(volumes, energies)
12
      v0, e0, B = eos.fit()
14
      print '''
15
      v0 = {0} A^3
E0 = {1} eV
16
17
      B = \{2\} \text{ eV/A}^3, \dots, \text{format}(v0, e0, B)
      eos.plot('images/Cu-fcc-eos.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-96.py).

```
v0 = 12.0167118546 A^3

E0 = -3.7246811445 eV

B = 0.859009528171 eV/A^3
```

3.63585568663

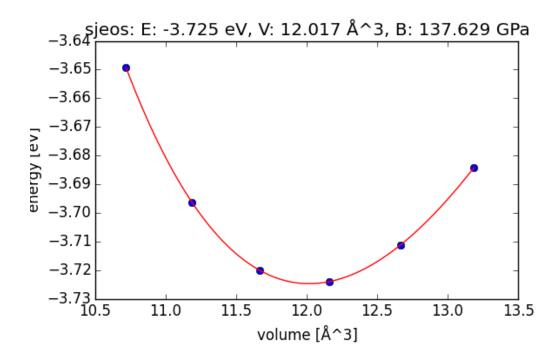


Figure 36: Total energy vs. volume for fcc Cu with fitted cubic polynomial equation of state.

Before we jump into the bcc calculations, let us consider what range of lattice constants we should choose. The fcc lattice is close-packed, and the volume of the primitive cell is $V=1/4a^3$ or about 11.8 Å³/atom. The volume of the equilibrium bcc primitive cell will probably be similar to that. The question is: what bcc lattice constant gives that volume? The simplest way to answer this is to compute the answer. We will make a bcc crystal at the fcc lattice constant, and then compute the scaling factor needed to make it the right volume.

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-97.py).

BCC lattice constant = 2.86838428403 Ang

Now we run the equation of state calculations.

```
from jasp import *
from ase import Atom, Atoms

LC = [2.75, 2.8, 2.85, 2.9, 2.95, 3.0]

for a in LC:
    atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu', [0, 0, 0])],
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-98.py). Finally, we will compare the two crystal structures.

```
from jasp import *
 3
     \# bcc energies and volumes
     bcc_LC = [2.75, 2.8, 2.85, 2.9, 2.95, 3.0]
bcc_volumes = []
 4
     bcc_energies = []
 6
     for a in bcc_LC:
         with jasp('bulk/Cu-bcc-{0}'.format(a)) as calc:
              atoms = calc.get_atoms()
10
              bcc_volumes.append(atoms.get_volume())
              bcc_energies.append(atoms.get_potential_energy())
11
12
     # fcc energies and volumes
13
     fcc_LC = [3.5, 3.55, 3.6, 3.65, 3.7, 3.75]
fcc_volumes = []
14
16
     fcc_energies =[]
17
     for a in fcc_LC:
         with jasp('bulk/Cu-\{0\}'.format(a)) as calc:
18
             atoms = calc.get_atoms()
19
              fcc_volumes.append(atoms.get_volume())
20
              fcc_energies.append(atoms.get_potential_energy())
22
23
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
     plt.plot(fcc_volumes, fcc_energies, label='fcc')
24
     plt.plot(bcc_volumes, bcc_energies, label='bcc')
25
     plt.xlabel('Atomic volume ($\AA^3$/atom)')
     plt.ylabel('Total energy (eV)')
29
     plt.legend()
30
     plt.savefig('images/Cu-bcc-fcc.png')
31
     # print table of data
32
     print '#+tblname: bcc-data'
     print '#+caption: Total energy vs. lattice constant for BCC Cu.'
35
     print '| Lattice constant (\AA$^3$) | Total energy (eV) |'
     print '|-'
36
     for lc, e in zip(bcc_LC, bcc_energies):
    print '| {0} | {1} |'.format(lc, e)
37
38
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-99.py).

Table 4: Total energy vs. lattice constant for BCC Cu.

Lattice constant (A^3)	Total energy (eV)
2.75	-3.587523
2.8	-3.668112
2.85	-3.708699
2.9	-3.716496
2.95	-3.697781
3.0	-3.657913

Exercise 4.3

Use the data for FCC and BCC Cu to plot the total energy as a function of the lattice constant.

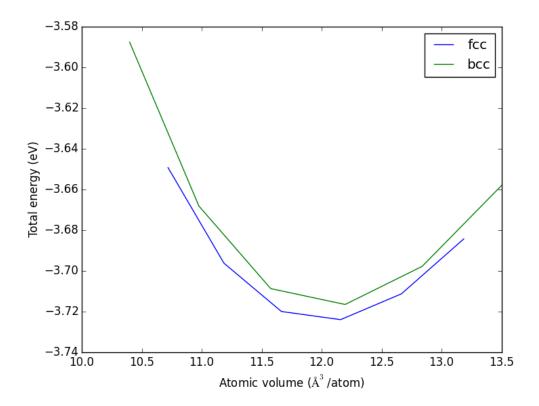


Figure 37: Comparison of energies between fcc and bcc Cu. The fcc structure is lower in energy.

Note we plot the energy vs. atomic volume. That is because the lattice constants of the two crystal structures are very different. It also shows that the atomic volumes in the two structures are similar.

What can we say here? The fcc structure has a lower energy than the bcc structure, so we can conclude the fcc structure is more favorable. In fact, the fcc structure is the experimentally found structure for Cu. Some caution is in order; if you run these calculations at a $4 \times 4 \times 4$ k-point grid, the bcc structure is more stable because the results are not converged!

Exercise 4.4

Compute the energy vs. volume for fcc and bcc Cu for different k-point grids. Determine when each result has converged, and which structure is more stable.

What can we say about the relative stability of fcc to hcp? Nothing, until we calculate the hcp equation of state.

4.3.2 Optimizing the hcp lattice constant

The hcp lattice is more complicated than the fcc/bcc lattices because there are two lattice parameters: a and c or equivalently: a and c/a. We will start by making a grid of values and find the set of parameters that minimizes the energy. See Figure 38.

```
a_list = [2.5, 2.6, 2.7, 2.8, 2.9]
covera_list = [1.4, 1.5, 1.6, 1.7, 1.8]
9
10
11
12
     for a in a_list:
         energies = []
for covera in covera_list:
13
14
15
              atoms = HexagonalClosedPacked(symbol='Ru',
16
                                      latticeconstant={'a': a,
17
18
                                                        'c/a': covera})
              wd = 'bulk/Ru/{0:1.2f}-{1:1.2f}'.format(a, covera)
20
21
              22
23
24
                         # the c-axis is longer than the a-axis, so we use
                         # fewer kpoints.
26
                         kpts=(6, 6, 4),
27
                         encut=350,
                         atoms=atoms) as calc:
28
29
                  try:
                      energies.append(atoms.get_potential_energy())
30
                  except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
32
                      pass
         {\tt plt.plot(covera\_list,\ energies,\ label=r'a=\{0\}\ \$\AA\$'.format(a))}
33
34
     plt.xlabel('$c/a$')
35
     plt.ylabel('Energy (eV)')
36
37
     plt.legend()
     plt.savefig('images/Ru-covera-scan.png')
39
     plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-100.py).

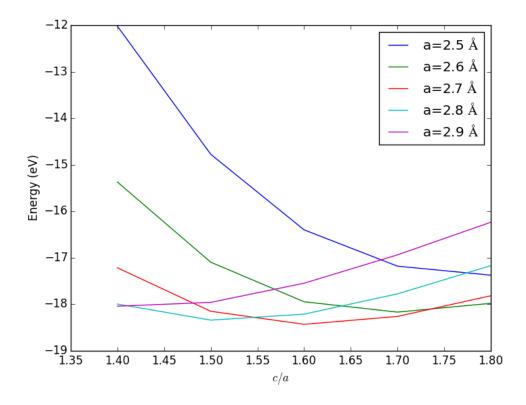


Figure 38: Total energy vs. c/a for different values of a.

It looks like there is a minimum in the a=2.7 Å curve, at a c/a ratio of about 1.6. We can look at the same data in a contour plot which shows more clearly there is minimum in all directions near that point (Figure 39).

```
from jasp import *
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
     x = [2.5, 2.6, 2.7, 2.8, 2.9]

y = [1.4, 1.5, 1.6, 1.7, 1.8]
     X,Y = np.meshgrid(x, y)
     Z = np.zeros(X.shape)
     for i,a in enumerate(x):
10
          for j,covera in enumerate(y):
11
12
               wd = 'bulk/Ru/{0:1.2f}-{1:1.2f}'.format(a,covera)
13
               with jasp(wd) as calc:
16
                    atoms = calc.get_atoms()
17
                   Z[i][j] = atoms.get_potential_energy()
except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
18
19
22
     cf = plt.contourf(X, Y, Z, 20,
                          cmap=plt.cm.jet)
23
24
     cbar = plt.colorbar(cf)
25
26
     cbar.ax.set_ylabel('Energy (eV)')
     plt.xlabel('$a$ ($\AA$)')
29
     plt.ylabel('$c/a$')
30
     plt.legend()
31
     plt.savefig('images/ru-contourf.png')
     plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-101.py).

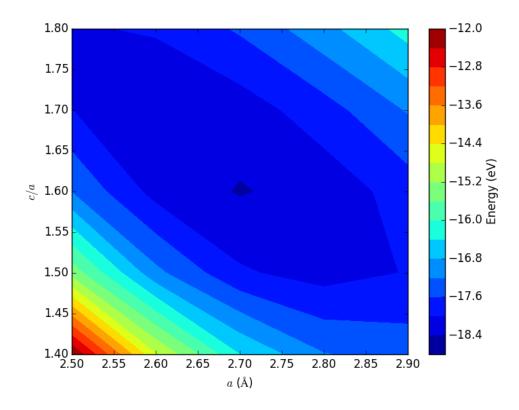


Figure 39: Contour plot of the total energy of hcp Ru for different values of a and c/a.

4.3.3 Complex structures with internal degrees of freedom

A unit cell has six degrees of freedom: the lengths of each unit cell vector, and the angle between each vector. There may additionally be internal degrees of freedom for the atoms. It is impractical to try the approach used for the hcp Ru on anything complicated. Instead, we rely again on algorithms to optimize the unit cell shape, volume and internal degrees of freedom. It is usually not efficient to make a wild guess of the geometry and then turn VASP loose on to optimize it. Instead, the following algorithm works pretty well.

- 1. Find the volume (at constant shape, with relaxed ions) that minimizes the total energy (ISIF=2). The goal here is to just get an idea of where the right volume is.
- 2. Using the results from step 1 as a starting point, perform a set of calculations at constant volume around the minimum from step 1, but the shape and internal atom positions are allowed to change (ISIF=4).
- 3. Finally, do a final calculation near the minimum energy allowing the volume to also change. (ISIF=3).

This multistep process is pretty reasonable to get a converged structure pretty quickly. It is not foolproof, however, and if you have materials such as graphite it may not work well. The problem with graphite is that it is a layered compound that is held together by weak van der waal type forces which are not modeled well by typical GGA functionals. Thus the change in energy due to a volume change is larger in the plane of the graphite sheet than in the direction normal to the sheet. With a typical GGA, the sheets may just move apart until they do not interact any more.

We will illustrate the process on a well-behaved system (rutile TiO_2) which has two lattice parameters and one internal degree of freedom. There are a few subtle points to mention in doing these calculations. The VASP manual recommends that you set PREC to 'high', and that ENCUT be set to 1.3*max(ENMAX) of the pseudopotentials. This is necessary to avoid problems caused by small basis sets when the volume changes, and Pulay stress. It is important to ensure that the energies are reasonably converged with respect to k-point grids. Hence, it can be a significant amount of work to do this right! Let us start with determining the ENCUT value that is appropriate for TiO_2 .

```
grep ENMAX $VASP_PP_PATH/POTPAW_PBE/Ti/POTCAR
grep ENMAX $VASP_PP_PATH/POTPAW_PBE/O/POTCAR
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-102.py).

```
ENMAX = 178.330; ENMIN = 133.747 eV
ENMAX = 400.000; ENMIN = 300.000 eV
```

According to the manual, we should use ENCUT = 1.3*400 = 520 eV for good results.

Now we consider the k-point convergence. The lattice vectors of the rutile TiO_2 structure are not all the same length, which means it is not essential that we use the same number of k-points in each direction. For simplicity, however, we do that here.

```
# step 1 frozen atoms and shape at different volumes
 2
     from ase import Atom. Atoms
     import numpy as np
 3
     from jasp import
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
     create a TiO2 structure from the lattice vectors at
     http://cst-www.nrl.navy.mil/lattice/struk/c4.html
     This site does not exist anymore.
     a = 4.59 # experimental degrees of freedom.
     c = 2.96
13
     u = 0.3 # internal degree of freedom!
14
15
      #primitive vectors
16
     a1 = a * np.array([1.0, 0.0, 0.0])
17
     a2 = a * np.array([0.0, 1.0, 0.0])
     a3 = c * np.array([0.0, 0.0, 1.0])
19
20
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('Ti', [0., 0., 0.]),
21
                      Atom('Ti', 0.5 * a1 + 0.5 * a2 + 0.5 * a3),
22
23
                      Atom('0', u * a1 + u * a2),
                     Atom('0', -u * a1 - u * a2),

Atom('0', (0.5 + u) * a1 + (0.5 - u) * a2 + 0.5 * a3),

Atom('0', (0.5 - u) * a1 + (0.5 + u) * a2 + 0.5 * a3)],

cell=[a1, a2, a3])
25
26
27
28
     KPOINTS = [2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8]
     energies = []
31
     ready = True
32
     for k in KPOINTS:
33
          with jasp('bulk/tio2/kpts-{0}'.format(k),
34
                     encut=520,
35
                     kpts=(k, k, k),
                     xc='PBE'
37
38
                     sigma=0.05
39
                     atoms=atoms) as calc:
40
               try:
                   energies.append(atoms.get_potential_energy())
41
               except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
                   ready = False
44
45
     if not ready:
46
          import sys; sys.exit()
47
     plt.plot(KPOINTS, energies)
```

```
49 plt.xlabel('number of k-points in each vector')
50 plt.ylabel('Total energy (eV)')
51 plt.savefig('images/tio2-kpt-convergence.png')
52 plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-103.py).

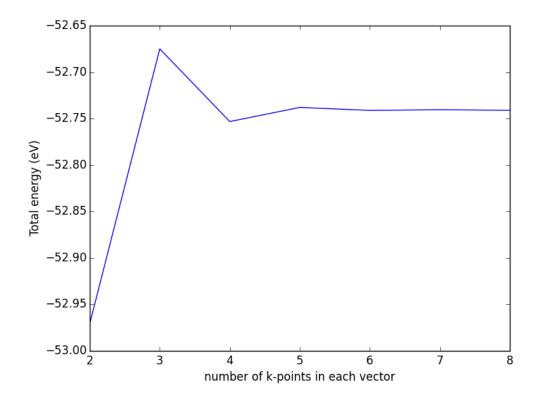


Figure 40: k-point convergence of rutile TiO₂.

A k-point grid of $5 \times 5 \times 5$ appears suitable for reasonably converged results. Now we proceed with step 1: Compute the total energy of the unit cell allowing internal degrees of freedom to relax, but keeping a constant cell shape.

```
{\it \# step 1 frozen atoms and shape at different volumes}
2
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
     import numpy as np
3
     from jasp import *
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
     create a TiO2 structure from the lattice vectors at
     http://cst-\textit{www.nrl.navy.mil/lattice/struk/c4.html}
9
10
     a = 4.59 # experimental degrees of freedom.
11
     c = 2.96
12
     u = 0.3 # internal degree of freedom!
13
14
     #primitive vectors
15
     a1 = a * np.array([1.0, 0.0, 0.0])
16
     a2 = a * np.array([0.0, 1.0, 0.0])
a3 = c * np.array([0.0, 0.0, 1.0])
17
19
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('Ti', [0., 0., 0.]),
```

```
\begin{split} &\text{Atom('Ti', 0.5*a1+0.5*a2+0.5*a3),} \\ &\text{Atom('0', u*a1+u*a2),} \\ &\text{Atom('0', -u*a1-u*a2),} \\ &\text{Atom('0', (0.5+u)*a1+(0.5-u)*a2+0.5*a3),} \\ &\text{Atom('0', (0.5-u)*a1+(0.5+u)*a2+0.5*a3)],} \\ &\text{Atom('0', (0.5-u)*a1+(0.5+u)*a2+0.5*a3)],} \\ \end{aligned}
22
23
24
                          cell=[a1, a2, a3])
      v0 = atoms.get_volume()
28
      cell0 = atoms.get_cell()
29
30
      factors = [0.9, 0.95, 1.0, 1.05, 1.1] #to change volume by
31
      energies, volumes = [], []
33
34
      ready = True
35
      for f in factors:
36
37
38
            cell_factor = (v1 / v0)**(1. / 3.)
39
            atoms.set_cell(cell0 * cell_factor, scale_atoms=True)
40
41
            with jasp('bulk/tio2/step1-{0:1.2f}'.format(f),
42
                          encut=520,
43
                          kpts=(5,5,5),
45
                          isif=2, # relax internal degrees of freedom
46
                         ibrion=1,
47
                         nsw=50,
                         xc='PBE'
48
                         sigma=0.05,
49
50
                         atoms=atoms) as calc:
52
                       {\tt energies.append(atoms.get\_potential\_energy())}
                       volumes.append(atoms.get_volume())
53
                 except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
54
                       ready = False
55
      if not ready:
           import sys; sys.exit()
59
      plt.plot(volumes, energies)
plt.xlabel('Vol. ($\AA^3)$')
60
61
      plt.ylabel('Total energy (eV)')
62
      plt.savefig('images/tio2-step1.png')
64
      print '#+tblname: tio2-vol-ene'
print '#+caption: Total energy of TiO_{2} vs. volume.'
65
66
      print '| Volume ($\AA^3$) | Energy (eV) |'
67
68
      for v, e in zip(volumes, energies):
print '| {0} | {1} |'.format(v, e)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-104.py).

Table 5: Total energy of TiO₂ vs. volume.

Volume $(Å^3)$	Energy (eV)
56.1254184	-51.820427
59.2434972	-52.462241
62.361576	-52.761097
65.4796548	-52.801329
68.5977336	-52.64715

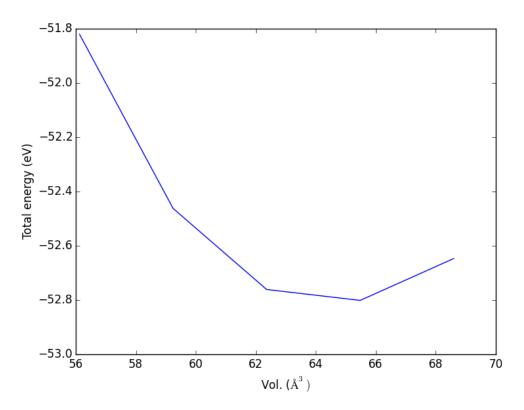


Figure 41: Total energy vs. volume for rutile TiO_2 in step 1 of the optimization.

Now, we know the minimum energy volume is near 64 Å^3. You could at this point fit an equation of state to find that minimum. However, we now want to use these initial starting points for a second round of optimization where we allow the unit cell shape to change, at constant volume: ISIF=4.

```
from jasp import *
      factors = [0.9, 0.95, 1.0, 1.05, 1.1] # to change volume by
3
 4
      energies1, volumes1 = [], [] # from step 1
energies, volumes = [], [] # for step 2
      ready = True
      for f in factors:
           with jasp('bulk/tio2/step1-{0:1.2f}'.format(f)) as calc:
9
                atoms = calc.get_atoms()
10
11
                energies1.append(atoms.get_potential_energy())
                volumes1.append(atoms.get_volume())
                {\tt calc.clone('bulk/tio2/step2-\{0:1.2f\}'.format(f))}
14
           # now set ISIF=4 and run
15
           with jasp('bulk/tio2/step2-{0:1.2f}'.format(f),
16
                       isif=4) as calc:
17
                atoms = calc.get_atoms()
19
20
                     {\tt energies.append(atoms.get\_potential\_energy())}
                volumes.append(atoms.get_volume())
except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
21
22
                    ready = False
23
      if not ready:
26
           import sys; sys.exit()
27
      import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.plot(volumes1, energies1, volumes, energies)
plt.xlabel('Vol. ($\AA^3)$')
28
29
```

```
31 plt.ylabel('Total energy (eV)')
32 plt.legend(['step 1', 'step 2'], loc='best')
33 plt.savefig('images/tio2-step2.png')
34 plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-105.py).

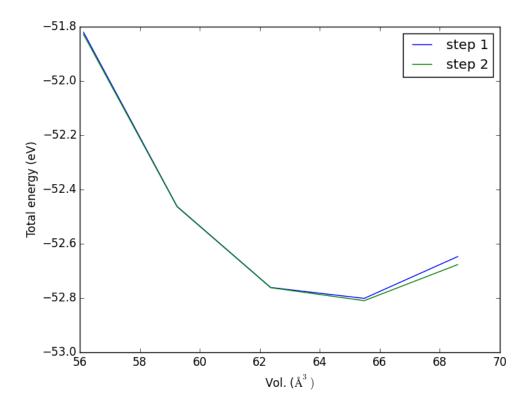


Figure 42: Total energy vs. volume for step 2 of the unit cell optimization.

The take away message here is that the total energy slightly decreases when we allow the unit cell shape to change, especially for the larger unit cell deformation. This has little effect on the minimum volume, but would have an effect on the bulk modulus, which is related to the curvature of the equation of state. At this point, you could fit an equation of state to the step 2 data, and estimate the volume at the minimum volume, and recalculate the total energy at that volume.

An alternative is a final calculation with ISIF=3, which optimizes the unit cell volume, shape and internal coordinates. It looks like the calculation at bulk/tio2/step2-1.05 is close to the minimum, so we will use that as a starting point for the final calculation.

```
from jasp import \ast
2
     with jasp('bulk/tio2/step2-1.05') as calc:
3
         calc.clone('bulk/tio2/step3')
4
5
     with jasp('bulk/tio2/step3',
               isif=3) as calc:
         calc.calculate()
9
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
         print calc
10
11
     from pyspglib import spglib
12
     print '\nThe spacegroup is {0}'.format(spglib.get_spacegroup(atoms))
```

```
Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-106.py).
```

```
_____
VASP calculation from /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/bulk/tio2/step3
converged: True
Energy = -52.818610 eV
Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
      x
                  7.
                         length
             V
a0 [ 4.661 0.000 0.000] 4.661
a1 [ 0.000 4.661 0.000] 4.661
a2 [ 0.000 0.000 2.970] 2.970
a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):4.661 4.661 2.970 90.0 90.0 90.0
Unit cell volume = 64.515 Ang^3
Stress (GPa):xx,
                  уу,
                               yz,
                                     XZ,
                                            хy
          -0.000 -0.000 -0.000-0.000 -0.000 -0.000
Atom#
               position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
      sym
      Ti [0.000
                     0.000
 0
                               0.000] 0
                                          0.00
      Ti [2.331
                               1.485] 0
                                                    TTT
                     2.331
 1
                                          0.00
 2
      0
          [1.420
                    1.420
                               0.000] 0
                                          0.00
                                                    TTT
 3
      0
         Γ3.241
                    3.241
                               0.000] 0
                                          0.00
                                                    TTT
 4
      0
        [3.751
                    0.910
                               1.485] 0
                                          0.00
                                                    TTT
      Ω
        [0.910
                    3.751
                               1.485] 0
                                          0.00
                                                    ттт
```

INCAR Parameters:

```
nbands: 20
nsw: 50
ibrion: 1
isif: 3
encut: 520.0
sigma: 0.05
magmom: None
prec: Normal
kpts: [5, 5, 5]
reciprocal: False
xc: PBE
txt: -
gamma: False
```

Pseudopotentials used:

```
0: potpaw_PBE/O/POTCAR (git-hash: 9a0489b46120b0cad515d935f44b5fbe3a3b1dfa)
Ti: potpaw_PBE/Ti/POTCAR (git-hash: a29a4f0f14083cf90544a3cf1ae7fc220b31829c)
```

```
The spacegroup is P4_2/mnm (136)
```

This is the final result. You can see that the forces on all the atoms are less than 0.01 eV/Å, and the stress is also very small. The final volume is close to where we expect it to be based on steps 1 and 2. The space group is still correct. The lattice vectors are close in length to the experimentally known values, and the angles between the vectors has not changed much. Looks good!

As a final note, the VASP manual recommends you do not use the final energy directly from the calculation, but rather run a final calculation with ISMEAR set to -5. Here we examine the effect.

```
from jasp import *
1
3
     with jasp('bulk/tio2/step3') as calc:
4
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
        print 'default ismear: ', atoms.get_potential_energy()
5
        calc.clone('bulk/tio2/step4')
6
    with jasp('bulk/tio2/step4',
              ismear=-5,
10
               nsw=0) as calc:
11
        atoms = calc.get_atoms()
        print 'ismear=-5:
                                 ', atoms.get_potential_energy()
12
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-107.py).

```
default ismear: -52.81861
ismear=-5: -52.817345
```

The difference here is on the order of a meV. That does not seem significant here. I suspect the recommended practice stems from early days when much smaller ENCUT values were used and changes in the number of basis functions were more significant.

4.3.4 Effect of XC on bulk properties

The exchange correlation functional can significantly affect computed bulk properties. Here, we examine the effect on the bulk lattice constant of Pd (exp. 3.881). An excellent review of this can be found in. ⁵⁰ We examine several functionals. The xc keyword in jasp is used to select the POTCARs. The value of xc can be 'LDA', 'PW91' or 'PBE'. Let us consider the LDA functional first.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
     from ase.utils.eos import EquationOfState
 4
     LC = [3.75, 3.80, 3.85, 3.90, 3.95, 4.0, 4.05, 4.1]
     volumes, energies = [], []
     for a in LC:
         atoms = Atoms([Atom('Pd', (0, 0, 0))]
10
                       cell=0.5 * a * np.array([[1.0, 1.0, 0.0],
11
                                                  [0.0, 1.0, 1.0],
12
                                                  [1.0, 0.0, 1.0]]))
         with jasp('bulk/Pd-LDA-{0}'.format(a),
13
                   encut=350,
14
                   kpts=(12, 12, 12),
                   xc='LDA'
16
17
                   atoms=atoms):
18
             try:
                  e = atoms.get_potential_energy()
19
                  energies.append(e)
20
                  volumes.append(atoms.get_volume())
             except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
23
                 pass
24
     if len(energies) == len(LC):
25
         eos = EquationOfState(volumes, energies)
26
         v0, e0, B = eos.fit()
         print 'LDA lattice constant is {0:1.3f} Ang^3'.format((4*v0)**(1./3.))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-108.py).

```
LDA lattice constant is 3.855 Ang<sup>3</sup>
```

For a GGA calculation, it is possible to specify which functional you want via the GGA tag. This tag was designed to use the LDA POTCAR files, but with a GGA functional. We will consider four different functionals here.

```
from jasp import
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
 3
     from ase.utils.eos import EquationOfState
4
     LC = [3.75, 3.80, 3.85, 3.90, 3.95, 4.0, 4.05, 4.1]
     GGA = {'AM': 'AMO5',}
             'PE': 'PBE',
             'PS': 'PBEsol'
10
             'RP': 'RPBE'}
11
     for key in GGA:
12
         volumes, energies = [], [] for a in LC:
13
14
15
              atoms = Atoms([Atom('Pd', (0, 0, 0))],
                            cell=0.5 * a * np.array([[1.0, 1.0, 0.0],
17
                                                        [0.0, 1.0, 1.0]
                                                        [1.0, 0.0, 1.0]]))
18
              with jasp('bulk/Pd-GGA-{1}-{0}'.format(a, key),
19
                         encut=350,
20
                         kpts=(12, 12, 12),
21
22
                         xc='LDA'
23
                         gga=key,
24
                         atoms=atoms):
25
                  trv:
                      e = atoms.get_potential_energy()
26
                      energies.append(e)
                      volumes.append(atoms.get_volume())
29
                  except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
30
                      pass
31
         if len(energies) == len(LC):
32
              eos = EquationOfState(volumes, energies)
33
              v0, e0, B = eos.fit()
34
              print '\{1:6s\} lattice constant is \{0:1.3f\} Ang<sup>3</sup>'.format(\{4*v0\}**(1./3.\}),
36
                                                                       GGA[kev])
37
         else:
             print energies, LC
38
              print '{0} is not ready'.format(GGA[key])
39
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-109.py).

```
PBEsol lattice constant is 3.885 Ang^3
AMO5 lattice constant is 3.882 Ang^3
RPBE lattice constant is 3.990 Ang^3
PBE lattice constant is 3.952 Ang^3
```

These results compare very favorably to those in. ⁵⁰ It is typical that LDA functionals underestimate the lattice constants, and that GGAs tend to overestimate the lattice constants. PBEsol and AM05 were designed specifically for solids, and for Pd, these functionals do an exceptional job of reproducing the lattice constants. RPBE is particularly bad at the lattice constant, but it has been reported to be a superior functional for reactivity. ²⁵

4.4 Using built-in ase optimization with jasp

ASE has some nice optimization tools built into it. We can use them in jasp too. This example is adapted from this test: https://trac.fysik.dtu.dk/projects/ase/browser/trunk/ase/test/vasp/vasp_Al_volrelax.py

First the VASP way.

```
calc.calculate(A1)
   print calc
   Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-110.py).
  VASP calculation from /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/bulk/Al-lda-vasp
  converged: True
  Energy = -10.128461 \text{ eV}
  Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
                      Z
                У
  a0 [ 4.186 0.000 0.000] 4.186
  a1 [ 0.000 4.186 0.000] 4.186
  a2 [ 0.000 0.000 4.186] 4.186
  a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):4.186 4.186 4.186 90.0 90.0 90.0
  Unit cell volume = 73.351 Ang^3
  Stress (GPa):xx, yy,
                            zz,
                                    yz,
                                            ΧZ,
             0.000 0.000 0.000-0.000 -0.000 -0.000
 Atom# sym
                  position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
                        0.000
   0
        Al [0.000
                                    0.000] 0
                                                 0.00
        Al [0.000
                                     2.093] 0
                                                            ТТТ
                        2.093
   1
                                                 0.00
   2
        Al [2.093
                        0.000
                                     2.093] 0
                                                 0.00
                                                            TTT
   3
        Al [2.093
                         2.093
                                    0.000] 0
                                                 0.00
                                                            TTT
INCAR Parameters:
        nbands: 10
           nsw: 5
        ibrion: 1
          isif: 7
        ediffg: -0.001
        lcharg: False
         lwave: False
        magmom: None
          kpts: [1, 1, 1]
    reciprocal: False
            xc: LDA
           txt: -
         gamma: False
Pseudopotentials used:
Al: potpaw/Al/POTCAR (git-hash: 654467a983b98bde034bc5918ee7817209863fe4)
from jasp import *
from ase.lattice import bulk
from ase.optimize import BFGS as QuasiNewton
Al = bulk('Al', 'fcc', a=4.5, cubic=True)
with jasp('bulk/Al-lda-ase',
       xc='LDA',
```

8

10

11

lwave=False, lcharg=False,
atoms=Al) as calc:

```
atoms=Al) as calc:

from ase.constraints import StrainFilter
sf = StrainFilter(Al)
qn = QuasiNewton(sf, logfile='relaxation.log')
qn.run(fmax=0.1, steps=5)
print 'Stress:'n', calc.read_stress()
print 'Al post ASE volume relaxation\n', calc.get_atoms().get_cell()
print calc

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-111.py).

Stress:
[ 0. 0. 0. -0. -0. -0. ]
```

```
Al post ASE volume relaxation [[4.187 0. 0.]
```

[0. 4.187 0.] [0. 4.187 0.] [0. 0. 4.187]]

: -----

 $\label{lem:VASP} VASP\ calculation\ from\ /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/bulk/Al-lda-ase\ converged:\ True$

Energy = -10.111043 eV

```
Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
```

x y z length a0 [4.187 0.000 0.000] 4.187 a1 [0.000 4.187 0.000] 4.187 a2 [0.000 0.000 4.187] 4.187

a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):4.187 4.187 4.187 90.0 90.0 90.0

Unit cell volume = 73.417 Ang^3

Stress (GPa):xx, yy, zz, yz, xz, xy 0.000 0.000 0.000-0.000 -0.000 -0.000

Atom#	$\operatorname{\mathtt{sym}}$			[x,y,z]tag	rmsFo	orce	constrain	ts		
0	Al	[0.000	0.0	00 0.	000] () C	0.00	T	T	Т
1	Al	[0.000			094] () C	0.00	Т	Т	T
2	Al	[2.094	0.0	00 2.	094] () C	0.00	Т	Т	T
3	Al	[2.094	2.0	94 0.	000] () C	0.00	Т	Т	Т

INCAR Parameters:

nbands: 10
magmom: None
 kpts: [1, 1, 1]
reciprocal: False
 xc: LDA
 txt: gamma: False

Pseudopotentials used:

Al: potpaw/Al/POTCAR (git-hash: 654467a983b98bde034bc5918ee7817209863fe4)

Now for a detailed comparison:

```
from jasp import *
2
    with jasp('bulk/Al-lda-vasp') as calc:
3
4
         atoms = calc.get atoms()
    with jasp('bulk/Al-lda-ase') as calc:
         atoms2 = calc.get_atoms()
    import numpy as np
9
10
11
     cellA = atoms.get_cell()
     cellB = atoms2.get_cell()
13
    print (np.abs(cellA - cellB) < 0.01).all()</pre>
14
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-112.py).

True

This could be handy if you want to use any of the optimizers in ase.optimize in conjunction with ase.constraints, which are more advanced than what is in VASP.

4.5 Cohesive energy

The cohesive energy is defined as the energy to separate neutral atoms in their ground electronic state from the solid at 0K at 1 atm. We will compute this for rhodium. Rh is normally an fcc metal, so we will use that structure and let VASP find the equilibrium volume for us.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase.lattice.cubic import FaceCenteredCubic
 2
 3
     from ase import Atoms, Atom
     atoms = FaceCenteredCubic(directions=[[0, 1, 1],
                                            [1, 0, 1],
                                            [1, 1, 0]],
10
                                            symbol='Rh')
     with jasp('bulk/bulk-rh',
12
13
               xc='PBE',
               encut=350,
14
               kpts=(4, 4, 4),
15
               isif=3,
17
               ibrion=2
18
               nsw=10,
19
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
         bulk_energy = atoms.get_potential_energy()
20
^{21}
22
     # atomic system
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('Rh',[5, 5, 5])],
24
                   cell=(7, 8, 9))
25
     with jasp('bulk/atomic-rh',
26
               xc='PBE',
27
               encut=350,
               kpts=(1, 1, 1),
30
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
31
         atomic_energy = atoms.get_potential_energy()
32
     cohesive_energy = atomic_energy - bulk_energy
33
     print 'The cohesive energy is {0:1.3f} eV'.format(cohesive_energy)
34
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-113.py).

The cohesive energy is 6.187 eV

According to Kittel,⁴ the cohesive energy of Rh is 5.75 eV. There are a few reasons we may have discrepancy here:

- 1. The k-point grid used in the bulk state is not very dense. However, you can see below that the total energy is pretty converged by a $6 \times 6 \times 6$ k-point grid.
- 2. We did not check for convergence with the planewave cutoff.
- 3. We neglected spin on the atomic state. Rh in the atomic state has this electronic structure: [Kr] 4d8 5s1 and is a doublet.

First we consider the k-point convergence.

```
from jasp import *
2
     with jasp('bulk/atomic-rh') as calc:
3
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
4
          atomic_energy = atoms.get_potential_energy()
5
     with jasp('bulk/bulk-rh') as calc:
          atoms = calc.get_atoms()
9
     kpts = [3, 4, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18]
10
11
     for k in kpts:
         with jasp('bulk/bulk-rh-kpts-{0}'.format(k),
13
14
                xc='PBE'
15
                encut=350.
                kpts=(k, k, k),
16
17
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
              e = atoms.get_potential_energy()
         \label{eq:cohesive_energy} \mbox{print $'(\{0:2d\},\ \{0:2d\}):$ cohesive energy = \{1\} eV'.format(k,e-atomic\_energy)$}
20
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-114.py).

```
(3, 3, 3): cohesive energy = -4.837472 eV

(4, 4, 4): cohesive energy = -6.189573 eV

(6, 6, 6): cohesive energy = -6.210668 eV

(9, 9, 9): cohesive energy = -6.208576 eV

(12, 12, 12): cohesive energy = -6.215367 eV

(15, 15, 15): cohesive energy = -6.215319 eV

(18, 18, 18): cohesive energy = -6.216032 eV
```

Using only 1 k-point for the bulk energy is a terrible approximation! It takes at least a $6 \times 6 \times 6$ grid to get the total energy converged to less than 10 meV. Note we do not need to check the k-point convergence of the atomic state because it is surrounded by vacuum on all sides, and so there should not be any dispersion in the bands.

We will examine the magnetic state next.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase.lattice.cubic import FaceCenteredCubic
     from ase import Atoms, Atom
     # bulk sustem
     atoms = FaceCenteredCubic(directions=[[0, 1, 1],
                                            [1, 0, 1],
                                             [1, 1, 0]],
                                           size=(1, 1, 1),
                                           symbol='Rh')
10
     with jasp('bulk/bulk-rh',
11
               xc='PBE',
12
               encut=350,
13
               kpts=(4, 4, 4),
14
               isif=3,
16
               ibrion=2
17
               nsw=10.
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
18
         bulk_energy = atoms.get_potential_energy()
19
```

```
21
     # atomic system
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('Rh',[5, 5, 5], magmom=1)],
22
23
                    cell=(7, 8, 9))
24
     with jasp('bulk/atomic-rh-sp',
               xc='PBE',
                encut=350
27
28
               kpts=(1, 1, 1),
29
                ispin=2,
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
30
         atomic_energy = atoms.get_potential_energy()
31
33
     {\tt cohesive\_energy = atomic\_energy - bulk\_energy}
     print 'The cohesive energy is {0:1.3f} eV'.format(cohesive_energy)
34
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-115.py).

The cohesive energy is 5.887 eV

Again, the value in Kittel⁴ is 5.75 eV which is very close to this value. Finally, it is also possible there is a lower energy non-spherical atom energy; we did not check that at all (see Estimating triplet oxygen dissociation energy with low symmetry).

4.6 Elastic properties

See this reference. 51

We seek the elastic constant tensor that relates stress (σ) and strain (ϵ) via $\sigma = c\epsilon$. The stress and strain are six component vectors, so c will be a 6×6 symmetric matrix.

4.6.1 Fe elastic properties

As with molecular vibrations, we need a groundstate geometry. Let us get one for BCC Fe.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase.lattice.cubic import BodyCenteredCubic
     atoms = BodyCenteredCubic(symbol='Fe')
     for atom in atoms:
         atom.magmom = 3.0
     with jasp('bulk/Fe-bulk',
               xc='PBE',
               kpts=(6, 6, 6),
10
11
               encut=350.
               ispin=2,
12
               isif=3,
13
               nsw=30,
               ibrion=1
16
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
17
         print atoms.get_potential_energy()
         print atoms.get stress()
18
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-116.py).

```
-16.604623
[-0.001 -0.001 -0.001 -0. -0. -0. ]
```

Ok, now with a relaxed geometry at hand, we proceed with the elastic constants. This is accomplished with IBRION=6 and ISIF \geq 3 in VASP. See this reference (from the VASP page) Y. Le Page and P. Saxe, Phys. Rev. B 65, 104104 (2002)

```
from jasp import *

with jasp('bulk/Fe-bulk') as calc:
```

```
4 calc.clone('bulk/Fe-elastic')
5
6 with jasp('bulk/Fe-elastic',
7 ibrion=6, #
8 isif=3, # gets elastic constants
9 potim=0.05, # displacements
10 nsw=1,
11 nfree=2) as calc:
12 atoms = calc.get_atoms()
13 print atoms.get_potential_energy()
```

0.0000

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-117.py).

-16.592189

Now, the results are written out to the OUTCAR file. Actually, three sets of moduli are written out 1) the elastic tensor for rigid ions, 2) the contribution from allowing the atoms to relax, and 3) the total elastic modulus, all in kBar.

Direction	XX	YY	ZZ	XY	YZ	ZX
XX	2803.5081	1622.6085	1622.6085	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
YY	1622.6085	2803.5081	1622.6085	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
ZZ	1622.6085	1622.6085	2803.5081	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
XY	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	866.8792	0.0000	0.0000

ZX 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 866.8792

0.0000

0.0000

866.8792

0.0000

and

ΥZ

ELASTIC MODU	ILI CONTR	FROM	IONIC	RELAXATION	(kBar)

0.0000

Direction	XX	YY	ZZ	XY	YZ	ZX
XX	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
YY	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
ZZ	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
XY	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
YZ	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
ZX	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

TOTAL ELASTIC Direction X		ZZ	XY	YZ	ZX
YY 1622 ZZ 1622 XY 0 YZ 0	.5081 1622.6085 .6085 2803.5081 .6085 1622.6085 .0000 0.0000 .0000 0.0000	1622.6085 1622.6085 2803.5081 0.0000 0.0000	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 866.8792 0.0000 0.0000	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 866.8792 0.0000	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 866.8792

Let us write a small code here to extract the Total elastic moduli from the OUTCAR file. First we get the line where the total elastic moduli start, then take the six lines that start three lines after that. Finally we parse out the matrix elements and cast them as floats.

```
import numpy as np
1
2
3
     with open('bulk/Fe-elastic/OUTCAR') as f:
4
5
         lines = f.readlines()
         for i. line in enumerate(lines):
6
             if line.startswith(' TOTAL ELASTIC MODULI (kBar)'):
                 data = lines[j:j+6]
10
                 break
11
    for line in data:
12
         EM += [[float(x) for x in line.split()[1:]]]
13
14
    print np.array(EM)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-118.py).

```
[[ 2803.5081
              1622.6085
                           1622.6085
                                                        0.
                                                                           ]
                                                                     0.
[ 1622.6085
               2803.5081
                            1622.6085
                                                        0.
                                                                           ]
[ 1622.6085
               1622.6085
                            2803.5081
                                           0.
                                                        0.
                                                                     0.
                                                                           ]
                                         866.8792
                                                                           ]
Γ
      0.
                   0.
                               0.
                                                        0.
                                                                     0.
 0.
                   0.
                               0.
                                           0.
                                                      866.8792
                                                                     0.
                                                                           ]
 0.
                                           0.
                                                        0.
                                                                  866.8792]]
```

Fe is in a BCC crystal structure, which is high in symmetry. Consequently, many of the elements in the matrix are equal to zero.

see http://www.nist.gov/data/PDFfiles/jpcrd34.pdf for a lot of detail about Fe-Ni alloys and general theory about elastic constants. In the next section, we show how the code above is integrated into jasp.

4.6.2 Al elastic properties

First, the relaxed geometry.

```
from jasp import *
     {\tt from \ ase.lattice.cubic \ import \ FaceCenteredCubic}
2
3
     atoms = FaceCenteredCubic(symbol='Al')
     with jasp('bulk/Al-bulk',
                xc='PBE',
               kpts=(12, 12, 12),
                encut=350,
9
               prec='High',
10
                isif=3,
11
                nsw=30,
                ibrion=1,
14
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
15
         print atoms.get_potential_energy()
         print atoms.get_stress()
16
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-119.py).

```
-14.96989
[-0.127 -0.127 -0.127 0. 0. 0. ]
```

Ok, now with a relaxed geometry at hand, we proceed with the elastic constants. This is accomplished with IBRION=6 and ISIF \geq 3 in VASP.

```
from jasp import *
from jasp.elastic_moduli import *

with jasp('bulk/Al-bulk') as calc:
```

```
calc.clone('bulk/Al-elastic')
6
     with jasp('bulk/Al-elastic',
7
               ibrion=6, #
                            # gets elastic constants
10
               potim=0.015, # displacements
11
               nsw=1,
               nfree=2) as calc:
12
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
13
         print atoms.get_potential_energy()
14
15
         EM = calc.get_elastic_moduli()
         print EM
17
     c11 = EM[0.0]
18
     c12 = EM[0,1]
19
     B = (c11 + 2 * c12) / 3.0
20
     print B
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-120.py).

```
-14.969509
[[ 98.944
            66.153
                                         0.
                                                  0.
                                                        ]
                     66.153
                                0.
            98.944
                                                        ]
 [ 66.153
                     66.153
                                0.
                                         0.
                                                  0.
 [ 66.153
            66.153
                     98.944
                                0.
                                         0.
                                                  0.
                                                        ]
                                                        ]
 0.
             0.
                      0.
                                1.687
                                         0.
                                                  0.
 0.
             0.
                      0.
                                0.
                                         1.687
                                                        ]
                                                  0.
 0.
                                                  1.687]]
    0.
             0.
                      0.
                                0.
77.08309
```

This example shows the basic mechanics of getting the elastic constants. The C_{44} constant above is too low, and probably we need to check these constants for convergence with respect to kpoints, planewave cutoff, and maybe the value of POTIM.

4.7 Bulk thermodynamics

We can predict temperature dependent thermodynamic properties of bulk materials without too much effort. As with the thermochemical properties of ideal gases, we must use some simple models that we parameterize by DFT. Here we follow the example in Reference 52 for computing the thermal coefficient of expansion, heat capacity, enthalpy and entropy for Ni as a function of temperature.

We start by computing the equation of state for fcc Ni.

```
from jasp import *
 2
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
 3
 4
     LC = [3.5, 3.55, 3.6, 3.65, 3.7, 3.75]
 5
     volumes, energies = [], [] for a in LC:
 6
          atoms = Atoms([Atom('Ni', (0, 0, 0), magmom=2.5)],
                     cell=0.5 * a * np.array([[1.0, 1.0, 0.0], [0.0, 1.0, 1.0],
10
                                                 [1.0, 0.0, 1.0]]))
11
12
          with jasp('bulk/Ni-{0}'.format(a),
13
                     xc='PBE'
15
                     encut=350,
                     kpts=(12,12,12),
17
                     ispin=2,
                     atoms=atoms) as calc:
18
19
                   e = atoms.get_potential_energy()
20
                   energies.append(e)
22
                   volumes.append(atoms.get_volume())
23
              except:
24
                  pass
25
     if len(energies) != len(LC):
```

```
import sys; sys.exit()

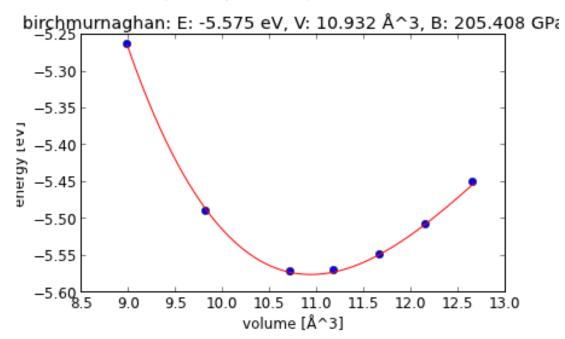
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.plot(LC, fcc_energies)

plt.xlabel('Lattice constant ($\AA$)')

plt.ylabel('Total energy (eV)')

plt.savefig('images/Ni-fcc.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-121.py).



4.8 Effect of pressure on phase stability

So far we have only considered relative stability at a pressure of 0 Pa. We now consider the relative stability of two phases under pressure. We will consider TiO_2 in the rutile and anatase phases.

The pressure is defined by: $P=-\left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V}\right)_T$. So if we have an equation of state E(V) we can calculate the pressure at any volume, or alternatively, given a pressure, compute the volume. Pressure can affect the energy of two phases differently, so that one may become stable under pressure. The condition where a phase transition occurs is when the pressure in the two phases is the same, which occurs at a common tangent.

To show this, we need $E_{rutile}(V)$ and $E_{anatase}(V)$.

```
# run the rutile calculations
2
     from jasp import *
3
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
4
         'Ti'; X = '0'; a = 4.59; c = 2.958; u = 0.305;
5
     create a rutile structure from the lattice vectors at
     http://cst-www.nrl.navy.mil/lattice/struk/c4.html\\
     spacegroup: 136 P4_2/mnm
10
11
     a1 = a * np.array([1.0, 0.0, 0.0])
12
     a2 = a * np.array([0.0, 1.0, 0.0])
13
     a3 = c * np.array([0.0, 0.0, 1.0])
15
     atoms = Atoms([Atom(B, [0., 0., 0.]),
Atom(B, 0.5*a1 + 0.5*a2 + 0.5*a3),
16
17
```

```
Atom(X, u*a1 + u*a2),
                    Atom(X, -u*a1 - u*a2),
19
                    Atom(X, (0.5+u)*a1 + (0.5-u)*a2 + 0.5*a3),
20
                    Atom(X, (0.5-u)*a1 + (0.5+u)*a2 + 0.5*a3)],
21
                    cell=[a1, a2, a3])
23
24
     nTiO2 = len(atoms) / 3
25
     v0 = atoms.get_volume()
     cell0 = atoms.get_cell()
26
27
     volumes = [28., 30., 32., 34., 36.] #vol of one TiO2
28
30
     for v in volumes:
         atoms.set_cell(cell0 * ((nTi02 * v / v0)**(1. / 3.)),
31
32
                        scale atoms=True)
33
         with jasp('bulk/Ti02/rutile/rutile-{0}'.format(v),
34
35
                   encut=350,
36
                   kpts=(6, 6, 6),
37
                   xc='PBE',
38
                   ismear=0.
                   sigma=0.001,
39
                   isif=2,
40
                   ibrion=2,
42
                   nsw=20,
43
                   atoms=atoms) as calc:
44
             try:
                 calc.calculate()
45
             except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
46
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-122.py).

```
# run the anatase calculations
      from jasp import *
from ase import Atom, Atoms
 2
 3
       # http://cst-www.nrl.navy.mil/lattice/struk/c5.html
      B = 'Ti'; X = '0'; a = 3.7842; c = 2*4.7573; z = 0.0831;
      a1 = a * np.array([1.0, 0.0, 0.0])
      a2 = a * np.array([0.0, 1.0, 0.0])
a3 = np.array([0.5 * a, 0.5 * a, 0.5 * c])
 9
10
       atoms = Atoms([Atom(B, -0.125 * a1 + 0.625 * a2 + 0.25 * a3),
                          Atom(K, 0.125 * a1 + 0.375 * a2 + 0.75 * a3),

Atom(K, -z*a1 + (0.25-z)*a2 + 2.*z*a3),

Atom(X, -(0.25+z)*a1 + (0.5-z)*a2 + (0.5+2*z)*a3),

Atom(X, z*a1 - (0.25 - z)*a2 + (1-2*z)*a3),

Atom(X, (0.25 + z)*a1 + (0.5 + z)*a2 + (0.5-2*z)*a3)],
13
14
15
16
17
                           cell=[a1,a2,a3])
19
      nTiO2 = len(atoms) / 3
20
      v0 = atoms.get_volume()
cell0 = atoms.get_cell()
21
22
23
       volumes = [30., 33., 35., 37., 39.] #vol of one TiO2
25
26
      for v in volumes:
           atoms.set_cell(cell0 * ((nTiO2*v/v0)**(1./3.)),
27
                                scale atoms=True)
28
29
            with jasp('bulk/TiO2/anatase/anatase-{0}'.format(v),
30
31
                         encut=350,
                         kpts=(6, 6, 6),
xc='PBE',
32
33
                         ismear=0,
34
                         sigma=0.001,
35
                         isif=2,
36
                         ibrion=2,
38
                         nsw=20,
                         atoms=atoms) as calc:
39
40
                 try:
                      calc.calculate()
41
                 except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
42
                      pass
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-123.py). Now we will fit cubic polynomials to the data.

```
\# fit cubic polynomials to E(V) for rutile and anatase
     from jasp import *
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
 3
     import numpy as np
 4
     np.set_printoptions(precision=2)
     \# anatase equation of state
     volumes = [30., 33., 35., 37., 39.] # vol of one TiO2 formula unit a_volumes, a_energies = [], []
9
     for v in volumes:
10
         with jasp('bulk/TiO2/anatase/anatase-{0}'.format(v)) as calc:
11
             atoms = calc.get_atoms()
nTiO2 = len(atoms) / 3.0
12
14
             a_volumes.append(atoms.get_volume() / nTiO2)
             {\tt a\_energies.append(atoms.get\_potential\_energy() \ / \ nTiO2)}
15
16
     # rutile equation of state
17
     volumes = [28., 30., 32., 34., 36.] # vol of one TiO2
18
     r_volumes, r_energies = [], []
20
     for v in volumes:
         with jasp('bulk/Ti02/rutile/rutile={0}'.format(v)) as calc:
21
22
             atoms = calc.get_atoms()
nTiO2 = len(atoms) / 3.0
23
             r_volumes.append(atoms.get_volume() / nTiO2)
             r_energies.append(atoms.get_potential_energy() / nTiO2)
     # cubic polynomial fit to equation of state E(V) = pars*[V^3 V^2 V^1 V^0] apars = np.polyfit(a_volumes, a_energies, 3)
27
28
     rpars = np.polyfit(r_volumes, r_energies, 3)
29
30
    32
     print 'anatase epars: {0!r}'.format(apars)
print 'rutile epars: {0!r}'.format(rpars)
33
34
      # qet pressure parameters P(V) = -dE/dV
35
     dapars = -np.polyder(apars)
36
     drpars = -np.polyder(rpars)
37
39
     print 'anatase ppars: {0!r}'.format(dapars)
     print 'rutile ppars: {0!r}'.format(drpars)
40
41
42
     print 'P_anatase(V) = {0:1.2f}*V^2 + {1:1.2f}*V + {2:1.2f}'.format(*dapars)
     print 'P_rutile(V) = {0:1.2f}*V^2 + {1:1.2f}*V + {2:1.2f}'.format(*drpars)
45
46
     vfit = np.linspace(28, 40)
47
     # plot the equations of state
48
    plt.plot(a_volumes, a_energies,'bo', label='Anatase')
49
    plt.plot(vfit, np.polyval(apars, vfit), 'b-')
51
52
    plt.plot(r_volumes, r_energies,'gs ', label='Rutile')
53
     plt.plot(vfit, np.polyval(rpars, vfit), 'g-')
54
    plt.xlabel('Volume ($\AA^3$/f.u.)')
55
    plt.ylabel('Total energy (eV/f.u.)')
     plt.legend()
     plt.xlim([25, 40])
59
     plt.ylim([-27, -26])
     plt.savefig('images/rutile-anatase-eos.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-124.py).

```
\begin{split} & \texttt{E\_anatase(V)} = -0.00*V^3 + 0.13*V^2 + -5.23*V + 42.47 \\ & \texttt{E\_rutile(V)} = -0.00*V^3 + 0.14*V^2 + -5.33*V + 38.59 \\ & \texttt{anatase\ epars:\ array([\ -0.\ ,\ 0.13,\ -5.23,\ 42.47])} \\ & \texttt{rutile\ epars:\ array([\ -0.\ ,\ 0.14,\ -5.33,\ 38.59])} \\ & \texttt{anatase\ ppars:\ array([\ 0.\ ,\ -0.26,\ 5.23])} \\ & \texttt{rutile\ ppars:\ array([\ 0.\ ,\ -0.29,\ 5.33])} \end{split}
```

```
P_{anatase}(V) = 0.00*V^2 + -0.26*V + 5.23

P_{anatase}(V) = 0.00*V^2 + -0.29*V + 5.33
```

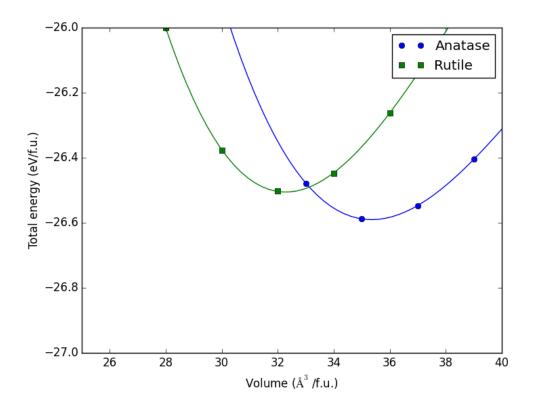


Figure 43: Equations of state (E(V)) for anatase and rutile TiO_2 .

To find the conditions where a phase transition occurs, we have to find the common tangent line between the rutile and anatase phases. In other words we have to solve these two equations:

```
\begin{split} &(E_{anatase}(V1)-E_{rutile}(V2))/(V1-V2) = P_{anatase}(V1) \\ &(E_{anatase}(V1)-E_{rutile}(V2))/(V1-V2) = P_{rutile}(V2) \end{split}
```

This is a nonlinear algebra problem. We use the scipy.optimize.fsolve to solve this problem.

```
from ase.units import GPa from numpy import array, linspace, polyval
2
3
      # copied from polynomial fit above
      anatase_epars = array([-1.06049246e-03,
                                                             1.30279404e-01, -5.23520055e+00,
                  4.25202869e+01])
      rutile_epars = array([-1.24680208e-03,
                                                           1.42966536e-01, -5.33239733e+00,
                 3.85903670e+01])
9
10
      # polynomial fits for pressures
      anatase_ppars = array([3.18147737e-03, -2.60558808e-01,
rutile_ppars = array([3.74040625e-03, -2.85933071e-01,
11
12
                                                                                 5.33239733e+00])
13
14
      def func(V):
    V1 = V[0] # rutile volume
    V2 = V[1] # anatase volume
15
16
17
19
           E_rutile = polyval(rutile_epars, V1)
```

```
20
          E_anatase = polyval(anatase_epars, V2)
21
          P_rutile = polyval(rutile_ppars, V1)
22
          P_anatase = polyval(anatase_ppars, V2)
23
          return [(E_anatase - E_rutile) / (V1 - V2) - P_anatase, (E_anatase - E_rutile) / (V1 - V2) - P_rutile]
26
27
     from scipy.optimize import fsolve
28
     x0 = fsolve(func, [28, 34])
29
     print 'The solutions are at V = {0}'.format(x0)
30
     print 'Anatase pressure: {0} GPa'.format(polyval(anatase_ppars, x0[1]) / GPa)
print 'Rutile pressure: {0} GPa'.format(polyval(rutile_ppars, x0[0]) / GPa)
32
33
     # illustrate the common tangent
34
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
35
36
     vfit = linspace(28, 40)
     plt.plot(vfit, polyval(anatase_epars,vfit), label='anatase')
39
     plt.plot(vfit, polyval(rutile_epars,vfit), label='rutile')
     plt.plot(x0, [polyval(rutile_epars,x0[0])
40
                     polyval(anatase_epars,x0[1])], 'ko-', label='common tangent')
41
     plt.legend()
42
     plt.xlabel('Volume ($\AA^3$/f.u.)')
     plt.ylabel('Total energy (eV/f.u.)')
     plt.savefig('images/eos-common-tangent.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-125.py).

```
The solutions are at V = [31.67490656 34.60893508]
Anatase pressure: 4.52495142656 GPa
Rutile pressure: 4.5249514267 GPa
```

At a pressure of 4.5 GPa, we expect that anatase will start converting into rutile. Along this common tangent, a mixture of the two phases will be more stable than either pure phase.

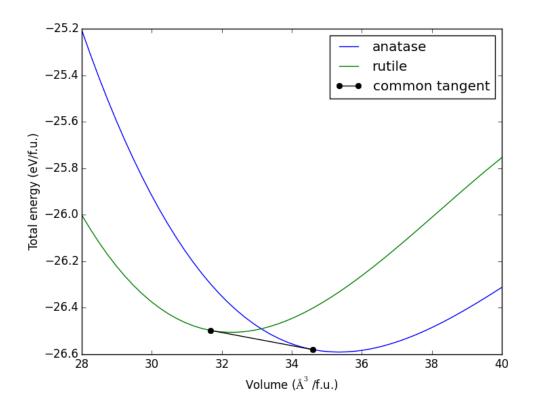


Figure 44: Illustration of the common tangent that shows the pressure where anatase and rutile coexist before anatase converts to rutile.

TODO add literature discussion

there is some controversy about the most stable phase. add discussion here.

4.9 Bulk reaction energies

4.9.1 Alloy formation energies

In this section we will consider how to calculate the formation energy of an fcc Cu-Pd alloy and how to use that information to discuss relative stabilities. The kinds of questions we can easily answer are:

- 1. Is the formation of an alloy at a particular composition and structure energetically favorable?
- 2. Given two alloy structures at the same composition, which one is more stable?
- 3. Given a set of alloy structures at different compositions, which ones are stable with respect to phase separation?

Each of these questions is answered by calculating the formation energy of the alloy from the parent metals. Thus, we will need the total energies of fcc Cu and fcc Pd. To get started. We get those first. Rather than compute a full equation of state for these, we will rely on the built in unit cell optimization algorithm in VASP (ISIF=3).

Basic alloy formation energy

```
# get bulk Cu and Pd energies. <<pre>energies.
 2
      from jasp import *
 3
      from ase import Atom, Atoms
      atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu', [0.000, 0.000, cell= [[1.818, 0.000, 1.818],
                                                                      0.000])],
                                 [ 1.818, 1.818, 0.000],
                                 [ 0.000, 1.818, 1.818]])
 9
      with jasp('bulk/alloy/cu',
10
                  xc='PBE',
11
                  encut=350,
12
13
                  kpts=(13, 13, 13),
                  nbands=9,
15
                  ibrion=2
16
                  isif=3,
                  nsw=10,
17
                  atoms=atoms) as calc:
18
19
           cu = atoms.get_potential_energy()
20
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('Pd', [0.000, 0.000 cell=[[ 1.978, 0.000, 1.978], [ 1.978, 1.978, 0.000], [ 0.000, 1.978, 1.978]])
21
                                                       0.000.
                                                                      0.0001)1.
22
23
24
      with jasp('bulk/alloy/pd',
27
                  xc='PBE'
                  encut=350.
28
                  kpts=(13, 13, 13),
29
                  nbands=9,
30
                  ibrion=2,
31
                  isif=3,
32
                  nsw=10,
33
34
                  atoms=atoms) as calc:
35
           pd = atoms.get_potential_energy()
36
      print 'Cu energy = {0} eV'.format(cu)
print 'Pd energy = {0} eV'.format(pd)
37
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-126.py).

```
Cu energy = -3.723352 eV
Pd energy = -5.18438 eV
```

Note that the Pd energy is more negative than the Cu energy. This does not mean anything significant. We cannot say Pd is more stable than Cu; it is not like Cu could transmutate into Pd!

Next, we will consider a question like which of two structures with composition of CuPd is more stable. These coordinates for these structures came from research of the author. The approach is pretty general, you must identify the coordinates and unit cell of the candidate structure, and then run a calculation to find the optimized geometry and unit cell. This may take some work, as previously described in the multistep process for optimizing a bulk system. Here the geometry is pretty close to optimized, so we can use the VASP optimization routines. We consider two structures with composition CuPd.

```
from jasp import *
2
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
3
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu', [0.000,
                                                               0.000]),
                      Atom('Pd', [-1.652,
                                                 0.000,
                                                               2.039])],
                    cell= [[0.000, -2.039, 2.039], [0.000, 2.039, 2.039],
                             [-3.303, 0.000, 0.000]])
     with jasp('bulk/alloy/cupd-1',
10
                xc='PBE',
11
                encut=350,
                kpts=(12, 12, 8),
14
                nbands=17,
15
                ibrion=2.
```

```
isif=3,
17
               nsw=10.
18
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
         cupd1 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
19
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu', [-0.049,
                                              0.049,
                                                          0.049]),
                    Atom('Cu',
                                [-11.170,
                                             11.170,
                                                         11.170]),
22
                    Atom('Pd', [-7.415,
23
                                              7.415.
                                                          7.415]).
                    Atom('Pd',
                                [-3.804,
                                              3.804.
                                                          3.804])],
24
                   cell=[[-5.629, 3.701, 5.629],
25
                          [-3.701, 5.629, 5.629]
26
                          [-5.629, 5.629, 3.701]])
28
     with jasp('bulk/alloy/cupd-2',
29
               xc='PBE'
30
               encut=350,
31
               kpts=(8,8,8),
32
               nbands=34,
               ibrion=2.
34
35
               isif=3,
36
               nsw=10.
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
37
         cupd2 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
38
     print 'cupd-1 = {0} eV'.format(cupd1)
40
     print 'cupd-2 = {0} eV'.format(cupd2)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-127.py).

```
cupd-1 = -9.148409 \text{ eV}

cupd-2 = -17.979436 \text{ eV}
```

Looking at these energies, you could be tempted to say cupd-2 is more stable than cupd-1 because its energy is much lower. This is wrong, however, because cupd-2 has twice as many atoms as cupd-1. We should compare the normalized total energies, that is the energy normalized per CuPd formula unit, or as an alternative the number of atoms in the unit cell. It does not matter which, as long as we normalize consistently. It is conventional in alloy calculation to normalize by the number of atoms in the unit cell.

```
from jasp import *

with jasp('bulk/alloy/cupd-1') as calc:
    atoms = calc.get_atoms()
    e1 = atoms.get_potential_energy()/len(atoms)

with jasp('bulk/alloy/cupd-2') as calc:
    atoms = calc.get_atoms()
    e2 = atoms.get_potential_energy()/len(atoms)

print 'cupd-1: {0} eV/atom'.format(e1)
print 'cupd-2: {0} eV/atom'.format(e2)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-128.py).

```
cupd-1: -4.5742045 eV/atom
cupd-2: -4.494859 eV/atom
```

After normalizing by number of atoms, we can see that cupd-1 is a more stable structure. However, we are looking at total energies, and we might ask: is cupd-1 more stable than an unreacted mixture of the parent compounds, fcc Cu and Pd? In other words, is the following reaction exothermic:

 $Cu + Pd \rightarrow CuPd$ for the two configurations we examined? Below, we show some pretty general code that computes these formation energies, and normalizes them by the number of atoms in the unit cell.

```
1 from jasp import *
2 
3 # bulk energy 1
```

```
with jasp('bulk/alloy/cu') as calc:
5
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
         cu = atoms.get_potential_energy()/len(atoms)
6
     # bulk energy 2
     with jasp('bulk/alloy/pd') as calc:
10
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
         pd = atoms.get_potential_energy()/len(atoms)
11
12
     with jasp('bulk/alloy/cupd-1') as calc:
13
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
14
         e1 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
16
          # subtract bulk energies off of each atom in cell
         for atom in atoms:
17
              if atom.symbol == 'Cu':
18
                  e1 -= cu
19
20
                 e1 -= pd
22
         e1 /= len(atoms)
                            # normalize by number of atoms in cell
23
     with jasp('bulk/alloy/cupd-2') as calc:
24
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
25
         e2 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
26
         for atom in atoms:
              if atom.symbol == 'Cu':
29
                  e2 -= cu
              else:
30
                 e2 -= pd
31
         e2 /= len(atoms)
32
33
     print 'Delta Hf cupd-1 = {0:1.2f} eV/atom'.format(e1)
print 'Delta Hf cupd-2 = {0:1.2f} eV/atom'.format(e2)
35
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-129.py).

```
Delta Hf cupd-1 = -0.12 eV/atom
Delta Hf cupd-2 = -0.04 eV/atom
```

The answer is yes. Both structures are energetically more favorable than an equal composition mixture of the parent metals. The heat of formation for both structures is exothermic, but the cupd-1 structure is more stable than the cupd-2 structure. This is shown conceptually in Figure 45.

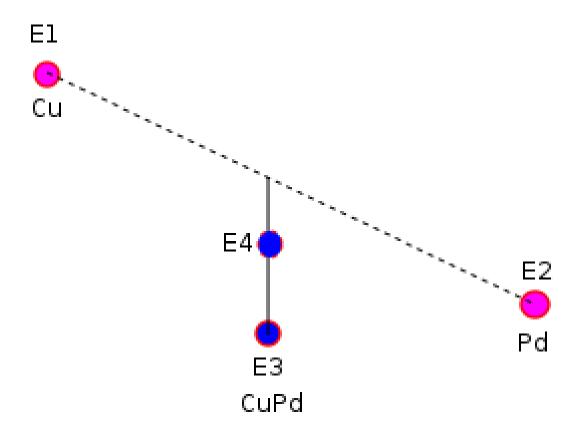


Figure 45: Conceptual picture of two alloys with exothermic formation energies. The dashed line represents a composition weighted average energy of the parent metals. E4 and E3 are energies associated with two different alloy structures at the same composition. Both structures are more stable than a mixture of pure metals with the same composition, but E3 is more stable than E4.

We will now examine another structure at another composition and its stability.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
2
3
     # parent metals
5
     with jasp('bulk/alloy/cu') as calc:
6
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
         cu = atoms.get_potential_energy()/len(atoms)
     with jasp('bulk/alloy/pd') as calc:
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
10
11
         pd = atoms.get_potential_energy()/len(atoms)
12
                                                            3.672]),
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu', [-3.672,
                                               3.672,
13
                     Atom('Cu', [0.000, Atom('Cu', [-10.82
                                              0.000,
                                                           0.000]),
14
                                 [-10.821,
                                              10.821,
                                                           10.821])
15
                     Atom('Pd', [-7.246,
                                               7.246,
                                                            7.246])],
```

```
cell=[[-5.464, 3.565, 5.464],
[-3.565, 5.464, 5.464],
[-5.464, 5.464, 3.565]])
17
18
19
20
      with jasp('bulk/alloy/cu3pd-1',
                 xc='PBE',
23
                  encut=350
                 kpts=(8, 8, 8).
24
                 nbands=34,
25
                 ibrion=2,
26
                  isif=3,
                 nsw=10,
29
                 atoms=atoms) as calc:
30
           e3 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
31
          for atom in atoms:
               if atom.symbol == 'Cu':
32
                    e3 -= cu
33
35
                    e3 -= pd
36
          e3 /= len(atoms)
     print 'Delta Hf cu3pd-1 = {0:1.2f} eV/atom'.format(e3)
37
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-130.py).

```
Delta Hf cu3pd-1 = -0.02 eV/atom
```

The formation energy is slightly exothermic, which means the structure is more stable than a mixture of the parent metals. However, let us consider whether the structure is stable with respect to phase separation into pure Cu and the cupd-1 structure. We define the following quantities:

```
H_{f,Cu}=0.0 eV/atom, x_0=0,\,H_{f,cupd-1}= -0.12 eV/atom, x_3=0.5. The composition weighted average at x_{Pd}=0.25 is: H_f=H_{f,Cu}+\frac{x^0-x}{x_0-x_3}(H_{f,cupd-1}-H_{f,Cu})
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-131.py).

```
Composition weighted average = -0.06 eV
```

We find the weighted composition formation energy of pure Cu and cupd-1 is more favorable than the formation energy of cu3pd-1. Therefore, we could expect that structure to phase separate into a mixture of pure Cu and cupd-1. Schematically what we are seeing is shown in Figure ??fig:alloy-phase-separation.

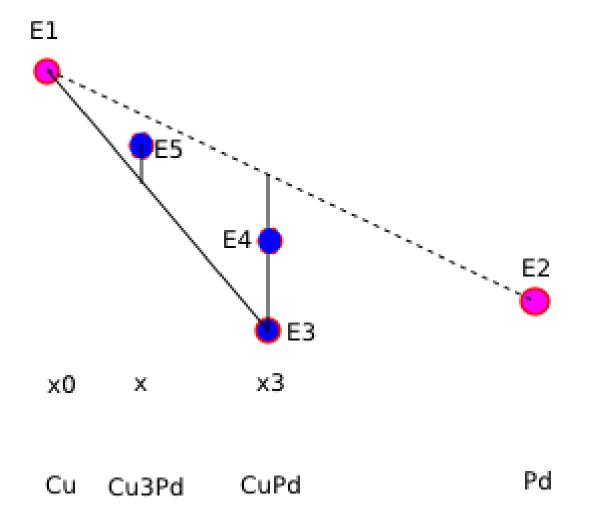


Figure 46: Illustration of of an alloy structure with an exothermic formation energy that is not stable with respect to phase separation. The solid line shows the composition weighted average energy of a mixture of Cu and cupd-2. Since the energy of cu3pd-1 is above the solid line, it is less favorable than a mixture of Cu and cupd-2 with the same composition.

Finally, let us consider one more structure with the Cu₃Pd stoichiometry.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
2
3
     # parent metals
     with jasp('bulk/alloy/cu') as calc:
5
6
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
         cu = atoms.get_potential_energy()/len(atoms)
     with jasp('bulk/alloy/pd') as calc:
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
10
11
         pd = atoms.get_potential_energy()/len(atoms)
12
                                                            0.000]),
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu', [-1.867,
                                                1.867,
13
                     Atom('Cu', [0.000, Atom('Pd', [-1.867,
                                               0.000,
                                                            0.000]),
14
                                                1.867,
                                                             1.867]),
15
                                                0.000,
                                                             1.86])],
```

```
cell=[[-3.735, 0.000, 0.000], [0.000, 0.000], 3.735], [0.000, 3.735, 0.000]])
17
18
19
20
      with jasp('bulk/alloy/cu3pd-2',
22
                 xc='PBE',
23
                  encut=350.
                 kpts=(8, 8, 8).
24
                 nbands=34,
25
                 ibrion=2,
26
                 nsw=10,
29
                 atoms=atoms) as calc:
30
           e4 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
31
          for atom in atoms:
               if atom.symbol == 'Cu':
32
                    e4 -= cu
33
               else:
35
                    e4 -= pd
           e4 /= len(atoms)
36
     print 'Delta Hf cu3pd-2 = {0:1.2f} eV/atom'.format(e4)
37
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-132.py).

Delta Hf cu3pd-2 = -0.10 eV/atom

This looks promising: the formation energy is much more favorable than cu3pd-1, and it is below the composition weighted formation energy of -0.06 eV/atom. Consequently, we conclude that this structure will not phase separate into a mixture of Cu and CuPd. We cannot say, however, if there is a more stable phase not yet considered, or if it might phase separate into two other phases. We also note here that we have ignored a few other contributions to alloy stability. We have only considered the electronic energy contributions to the formation energy. At temperatures above absolute zero there are additional contributions including configurational and vibrational entropy, which may stabilize some structures more than others. Finally, our analysis is limited to comparisons of the structures computed on the fcc lattice. In fact, it is known that the CuPd alloy forms a bcc structure. We did not calculate that structure, so we can not say if it is more or less stable than the obvious fcc structure we found.

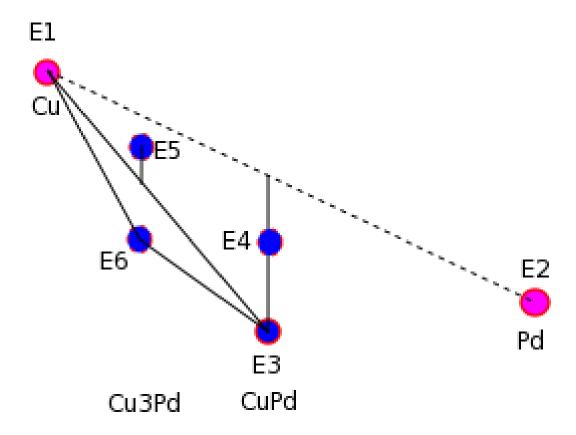


Figure 47: Illustration that cu3pd-2 is more stable than cu3pd-1 and that is it is more stable than a composition weighted mixture of Cu and cupd-1. The dotted line shows the energy of a composition weighted average energy of a mixture of Cu and cupd-1. Since cu3pd-2 is below the dotted line, it is more stable than the phase-separated mixture.

The construction of alloy phase diagrams is difficult. You are always faced with the possibility that there is a phase that you have not calculated that is more stable than the ones you did calculate. One approach is to use a tool that automates the discovery of relevant structures such as the Alloy Theoretic Automated Toolkit $(ATAT)^{53,54}$ which uses a cluster expansion methodology.

4.9.2 Metal oxide oxidation energies

We will consider here the reaction 2 Cu₂O + O₂ \rightleftharpoons 4 CuO. The reaction energy is: $\Delta E = 4E_{CuO} - 2E_{Cu_2O} - E_{O_2}$. We need to compute the energy of each species.

Cu₂O calculation

```
# run Cu20 calculation
    from jasp import *
    from ase import Atom, Atoms
    {\it \# http://phycomp.technion.ac.il/~ira/types.html\#Cu20}
    9
10
                  Atom('Cu', [0.0, 0.5, 0.5]),
Atom('0', [0.25, 0.25, 0.25]),
Atom('0', [0.75, 0.75, 0.75])])
11
13
14
    atoms.set_cell((a, a, a), scale_atoms=True)
15
16
    with jasp('bulk/Cu20',
17
              encut=400,
              kpts=(8, 8, 8),
20
              ibrion=2,
21
              isif=3.
             nsw=30,
22
              xc='PBE',
23
             atoms=atoms) as calc:
25
        calc.set_nbands()
26
        calc.calculate()
27
        print calc
         Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-133.py).
     : -----
       VASP calculation from /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/bulk/Cu20
       converged: True
       Energy = -27.204590 \text{ eV}
```

```
Unit call wasters (angstroms)
```

```
Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
                  Z
                          length
             У
a0 [ 4.270 0.000 0.000] 4.270
a1 [ 0.000 4.270 0.000] 4.270
a2 [ 0.000 0.000 4.270] 4.270
a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):4.270 4.270 4.270 90.0 90.0
Unit cell volume = 77.854 Ang^3
Stress (GPa):xx,
                  уу,
                        zz,
                               yz,
                                      ΧZ,
           0.000 0.000 0.000-0.000 -0.000 -0.000
Atom#
               position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
     sym
 0
      Cu [0.000
                   0.000
                               0.000] 0
                                           0.00
                                                    TTT
 1
      Cu [2.135
                    2.135
                               0.000] 0
                                           0.00
                                                    TTT
 2
      Cu [2.135
                    0.000
                               2.135] 0
                                           0.00
 3
      Cu [0.000
                     2.135
                               2.135] 0
                                           0.00
                                                    TTT
                                                    TTT
 4
          [1.067
                     1.067
                               1.067] 0
                                           0.00
      0
                               3.202] 0
 5
      0
          [3.202
                     3.202
                                           0.00
                                                    TTT
```

INCAR Parameters:

nbands: 37
nsw: 30
ibrion: 2
isif: 3
encut: 400.0
magmom: None
prec: Normal

CuO calculation

```
# run CuO calculation
     from jasp import
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
     # CnO
     # http://cst-www.nrl.navy.mil/lattice/struk/b26.html
     {\it \# http://www.springermaterials.com/docs/info/10681727\_51.html}
     b = 3.4226
10
     c = 5.1288
11
     beta = 99.54/180*np.pi
     y = 0.5819
12
13
     a1 = np.array([0.5*a, -0.5*b, 0.0])
14
     a2 = np.array([0.5*a, 0.5*b, 0.0])
15
     a3 = np.array([c*np.cos(beta), 0.0, c*np.sin(beta)])
17
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu', 0.5*a2),

Atom('Cu', 0.5*a1 + 0.5*a3),

Atom('0', -y*a1 + y*a2 + 0.25*a3),

Atom('0', y*a1 - y*a2 - 0.25*a3)],
18
19
20
                       cell=(a1, a2, a3))
     with jasp('bulk/CuO'.
24
                  encut=400,
25
                 kpts=(8, 8, 8),
26
                  ibrion=2,
27
                 isif=3,
29
                 nsw=30,
                 xc='PBE',
30
                 atoms=atoms) as calc:
31
          calc.set_nbands()
32
33
          calc.calculate()
          print calc
34
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-134.py).

```
VASP calculation from /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/bulk/CuO
converged: True
Energy = -19.509498 \text{ eV}
Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
                   z
                           length
      Х
              У
a0 [ 2.302 -1.776  0.046] 2.908
a1 [ 2.302 1.776 0.046] 2.908
a2 [-0.762 0.000 5.087] 5.144
a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):2.908 2.908 5.144 95.8 95.8 95.8
Unit cell volume = 41.730 Ang^3
Stress (GPa):xx,
                         zz,
                   уу,
                                 yz,
                                        ΧZ,
                                               ху
           0.008 0.013 0.009-0.000 0.000 -0.000
```

```
Atom#
                position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
      sym
 0
      Cu
          [1.151]
                      0.888
                                  0.023] 0
                                              0.00
                                                        TTT
 1
      Cu
          [0.770
                      -0.888
                                  2.566]
                                          0
                                              0.00
                                                        TTT
                      -0.168
                                              0.03
                                                        TTT
 2
      0
           [2.111
                                  1.318]
                                          0
                                                        TTT
 3
                      0.168
                                  3.861] 0
                                              0.03
      n
           [1.730
```

INCAR Parameters:

```
nbands: 23
nsw: 30
ibrion: 2
isif: 3
encut: 400.0
magmom: None
prec: Normal
kpts: (8, 8, 8)
reciprocal: False
xc: PBE
txt: -
gamma: False
```

Pseudopotentials used:

O: potpaw_PBE/O/POTCAR (git-hash: 9a0489b46120b0cad515d935f44b5fbe3a3b1dfa)
Cu: potpaw_PBE/Cu/POTCAR (git-hash: a44c591415026f53deb16a99ca3f06b1e69be10b)

Reaction energy calculation

```
from jasp import *
2
      # don't forget to normalize your total energy to a formula unit. Cu20
      # has 3 atoms, so the number of formula units in an atoms is
      # len(atoms)/3.
      with jasp('bulk/Cu20') as calc:
          atoms = calc.get_atoms()
          cu2o_energy = atoms.get_potential_energy()/(len(atoms)/3)
9
     with jasp('bulk/Cu0') as calc:
10
          atoms = calc.get_atoms()
11
12
          cuo_energy = atoms.get_potential_energy()/(len(atoms)/2)
13
     # make sure to use the same cutoff energy for the O2 molecule!
with jasp('molecules/O2-sp-triplet-400') as calc:
14
15
          atoms = calc.get_atoms()
16
          o2_energy = atoms.get_potential_energy()
17
     rxn_energy = 4.0*cuo_energy - o2_energy - 2.0*cu2o_energy
print 'Reaction energy = {0} eV'.format(rxn_energy)
19
20
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-135.py).

Reaction energy = -1.966119 eV

This is the reaction energy for 2 Cu₂O \rightarrow 4 CuO. In, ⁵⁵ the experimental reaction is estimated to be about -3.14 eV.

There are a few reasons why our number does not agree with the experimental reaction energy. One reason is related to errors in the O_2 dissociation energy, and another reason is related to localization of electrons in the $Cu\ 3d$ orbitals.⁵⁵ The first error of incorrect O_2 dissociation error is a systematic error

that can be corrected empirically.⁵⁵ Fixing the second error requires the application of DFT+U (see DFT+U).

The heat of reaction is reported to be 1000 J/g product at http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/er.4440130107/pdf for the reaction $2CuO \rightleftharpoons Cu_2O + 1/2 O_2$.

```
from ase import Atoms
atoms = Atoms('Cu20')
WW = atoms.get_masses().sum()

H = 1. # kJ/g
print 'rrn energy = {0:1.1f} eV'.format(-2 * H * MW / 96.4) # convert to eV
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-136.py).

```
rxn energy = -3.0 eV
```

This is pretty close to the value in 55 and might need a temperature correction to get agreement at 298K.

4.10 Bulk density of states

The density of states refers to the number of electronic states in a particular energy range.

The solution to Eq. (1) yields a set of Kohn-Sham (K-S) orbitals and an associated set of eigenvalues that correspond to the energies of these orbitals, neither of which have any known directly observable meaning. The sum of the squared K-S orbitals, however, is equal to the electron density (Eq. (3)), and the sum of the eigenvalues is a significant part of the total energy (Eq. (4)). Thus, it seems reasonable to suppose these quantities have other significant relationships to physical observables. Perdew et al. showed that the highest occupied eigenvalue is equal to the ionization energy of a system within an exact density functional theory, ²⁴ but their interpretation has been vigorously debated in the literature, ^{56–58} and is only true for the exact exchange/correlation functional, not the approximate ones used in practice. Stowasser and Hoffmann discussed an approach to using the K-S orbitals in more traditional molecular orbital interpretations, but the results were primarily qualitative. ⁵⁹ More recently, a DFT analog of Koopmans' theorem has been developed that formally identifies the eigenvalues with vertical ionization potentials, which can be measured with photoelectron spectroscopy. ⁶⁰

Despite the arguments against ascribing physical meaning to the K-S orbitals and eigenvalues, it has become fairly standard, especially for solids, to use them to calculate the density of states (DOS) ⁶¹ [Sec. VI. B]. This has been found to yield reasonable results for the valence bands in metals, but poor results for tightly bound orbitals and band gaps. ²⁴ A highly technical discussion of this issue can be found in Ref. ⁶². The density of states can be calculated by a sum over the k-points: ¹⁵

```
P(\epsilon) = \sum_{\mathrm{k}} \mathrm{mathbf}(k) \omega_{\mathrm{k}} \sum_{\mathrm{i}} \beta(\epsilon - \epsilon_{\mathrm{i}}(k)) (7)
```

where ω_k is the weight associated with the k-point, and β is a broadening function, typically a gaussian function, to account for the finite number of k-points used in the calculations. The amount of broadening is arbitrary, and should tend to zero as the number of k-points approaches infinity.

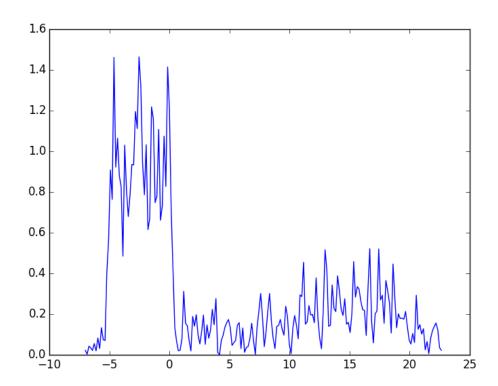
```
from jasp import *

npoints = 200
width = 0.5

def gaussian(energies, eik):
    x = ((energies - eik) / width)
return np.exp(-x**2) / np.sqrt(np.pi) / width
```

```
with jasp('bulk/pd-dos') as calc:
10
11
           # kpt weights
12
13
           wk = calc.get_k_point_weights()
14
15
           \# for each k-point there are a series of eigenvalues
          # here we get all the eigenvalues for each k-point \mathbf{e_k}\mathbf{n} = []
16
17
          for i, k in enumerate(wk):
18
19
               e_kn.append(calc.get_eigenvalues(kpt=i))
          e_kn = np.array(e_kn) - calc.get_fermi_level()
21
22
           # these are the energies we want to evaluate the dos at
23
          energies = np.linspace(e_kn.min(), e_kn.max(), npoints)
24
25
26
           # this is where we build up the dos
27
          dos = np.zeros(npoints)
28
29
          for j in range(npoints):
               for k in range(len(wk)): # loop over all kpoints
for i in range(len(e_kn[k])): # loop over eigenvalues in each k
30
31
                         dos[j] += wk[k] * gaussian(energies[j], e_kn[k][i])
33
      import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.plot(energies, dos)
plt.savefig('images/manual-dos.png')
34
35
36
      plt.show()
37
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-137.py).



Here is a more convenient way to compute the DOS using ase.dft.

```
from jasp import *
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from ase.dft import DOS
```

```
with jasp('bulk/pd-dos') as calc:
    dos = DOS(calc, width=0.2)
    d = dos.get_dos()
    e = dos.get_energies()

import pylab as plt
plt.plot(e, d)
plt.xlabel('energy (eV)')
plt.ylabel('bOS')
plt.savefig('images/pd-dos.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-138.py).

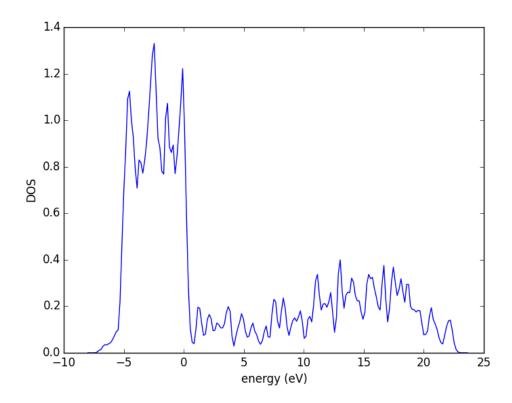


Figure 48: Total DOS for bulk Pd.

This DOS looks roughly like you would expect. The peak between -5 to 0 eV is the Pd d-band. The VASP manual recommends a final run be made with ISMEAR=-5, which uses the tetrahedron method with Bl\"ochl corrections.

```
from jasp import * from ase.dft import DOS
2
      with jasp('bulk/pd-dos') as calc:
calc.clone('bulk/pd-dos-ismear-5')
3
6
      with jasp('bulk/pd-dos-ismear-5') as calc:
            bulk = calc.get_atoms()
calc.set(ismear=-5)
8
            bulk.get_potential_energy()
10
            dos = DOS(calc, width=0.2)
d = dos.get_dos()
11
12
            e = dos.get_energies()
13
14
```

```
import pylab as plt
plt.plot(e, d)
plt.xlabel('energy [eV]')
plt.ylabel('DOS')
plt.savefig('images/pd-dos-ismear-5.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-139.py). This not notably different to me.

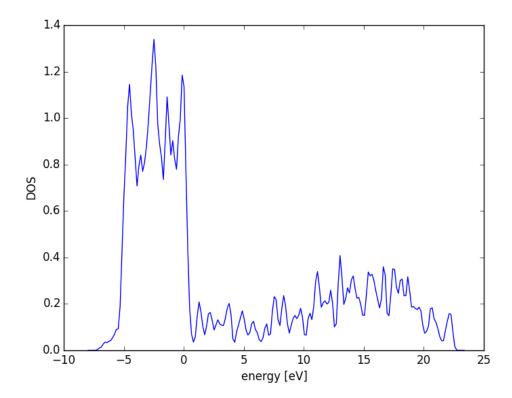


Figure 49: Total DOS for Pd computed with ISMEAR=-5

We can test for convergence of the DOS. The k-points are most important.

```
from ase import Atoms, Atom
      from jasp import *
 3
      import sys
      import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
from ase.dft import DOS
import pylab as plt
 5
 6
10
      a = 3.9 # approximate lattice constant
      b = a / 2.
11
      bulk = Atoms([Atom('Pd', (0.0, 0.0, 0.0))],
cell=[(0, b, b),
12
13
14
                              (b, 0, b),
15
                              (b, b, 0)])
      kpts = [8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20]
17
18
      for k in kpts:
19
           with jasp('bulk/pd-dos-k{0}-ismear-5'.format(k),
20
                       encut=300,
```

```
xc='PBE',
kpts=(k, k, k),
22
23
24
                      atoms=bulk) as calc:
25
               # this runs the calculation
                    bulk.get_potential_energy()
                   dos = DOS(calc, width=0.2)
d = dos.get_dos() + k / 4.0
29
30
                   e = dos.get_energies()
31
32
                   plt.plot(e,d, label='k={0}'.format(k))
34
35
                   pass
     plt.xlabel('energy (eV)')
36
      plt.ylabel('DOS')
37
     plt.legend()
38
     plt.savefig('images/pd-dos-k-convergence-ismear-5.png')
      plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-140.py).

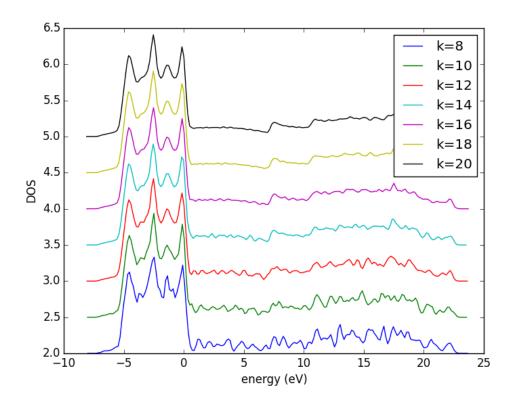


Figure 50: Convergence of the total DOS with k-points

4.11 Atom projected density of states

One major disadvantage of a planewave basis set is that it is difficult to relate the completely delocalized planewaves to localized phenomena such as bonding. Much insight into bonding has been gained by atomic/molecular orbital theory, which has carried over to the solid-state arena. ⁷ Consequently, several schemes have been developed to project the one-electron Kohn-Sham wave functions onto atomic wave functions. ^{63–65} In VASP, the one electron wave functions can be projected onto spherical harmonic orbitals. The radial component of the atomic orbitals extends to infinity. In a solid, this means that

the projection on one atom may overlap with the projection on a neighboring atom, resulting in double counting of electrons. Consequently, a cutoff radius was introduced, beyond which no contributions are included. It is not obvious what the best cutoff radius is. If the radius is too small, it might not capture all of the electrons associated with the atom. However, if it is too large, it may include electrons from neighboring atoms. One might want to use different cutoff radii for different atoms, which have different sizes. Furthermore, the ideal cutoff radius for an atom may change in different environments, thus it would require an iterative procedure to determine it. This difficulty arises because the orbital-band occupations are not observable, thus how the electrons are divided up between atoms is arbitrary and, as will be seen later, is sensitive to the cutoff radius (and in other DFT implementations, the basis set). However, Mulliken orbital populations have been used successfully for many years to examine the qualitative differences between similar systems, and that is precisely what these quantities are used for here. Thus, a discussion of the analysis and results is warranted.

The s and p states in a metal are typically delocalized in space and more like free-electrons, whereas the d-orbitals are fairly localized in space and have been treated successfully with tight-binding theories such as extended H"u ckel theory, ⁷ and linear muffin tin orbital theory. ⁶⁶ Consequently, the remaining discussion will be focused on the properties of the projected d-states.

In this example, we consider how to get the atom-projected density of states (ADOS). We are interested in properties of the d-band on Pd, such as the d-band center and d-band width. You must set the RWIGS tag to get ADOS, and these are the Wigner-Seitz radii for each atom. By integrating the projected d-band up to the Fermi level, the d-band filling can be determined. It is not obvious what the electron count in the d-band should be for an atom in a metal. For a gas-phase, neutral metal atom in the ground state, however, the d-orbital electron count is well defined, so it will be used as an initial reference point for comparison. d

A powerful method for characterizing distributions is to examine various moments of the distribution (see Chapter 4 in Ref. ⁶⁷ and Chapter 6 in Refs. ⁶⁸ and ⁶⁹). The n^{th} order moment, μ_n , of a distribution of states $\rho(\epsilon)$ with respect to a reference ϵ_o is defined by

$$\mu_n = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \epsilon^n \rho(\epsilon - \epsilon_o) d\epsilon}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho(\epsilon - \epsilon_o) d\epsilon}$$
 (8)

In this work, the reference energy is always the Fermi level. The zeroth moment is just the total number of states, in this case it will be normalized to unity. The first moment is the average energy of distribution, analogous to the center of mass for a mass density distribution. The second moment is the mean squared width of the distribution. The third moment is a measure of skewness and the fourth moment is related to kurtosis, but these moments are rarely used, and only the first and second moments are considered in this work.

It is important to note that these projected density of states are not physical observables. They are the wavefunctions projected onto atomic orbitals. For some situations this makes sense, e.g. the d orbitals are fairly localized and reasonably approximated by atomic orbitals. The s valence orbitals in a metal, in contrast, are almost totally delocalized. Depending on the cutoff radius (RWIGS) you choose, you can see very different ADOS.

```
xc='PBE'.
17
                  lreal=False.
18
                  rwigs=[1.5], # wigner-seitz radii for ados
kpts=(8, 8, 8),
19
20
                  atoms=bulk) as calc:
22
23
           # this runs the calculation
24
          bulk.get_potential_energy()
25
           # now get results
26
           ados = VaspDos(efermi=calc.get_fermi_level())
          energies = ados.energy # energy is an attribute, not a function
dos = ados.site_dos(0, 'd') # this is a function, get d-orbitals on atom 0
29
30
31
           # we will select energies in the range of -10, 5
32
33
           ind = (energies < 5) & (energies > -10)
35
           energies = energies[ind]
           dos = dos[ind]
36
37
          Nstates = np.trapz(dos, energies)
occupied = energies <= 0.0</pre>
38
39
           N_occupied_states = np.trapz(dos[occupied], energies[occupied])
41
           # first moment
42
           ed = np.trapz(energies * dos, energies) / Nstates
43
           # second moment
44
          wd2 = np.trapz(energies**2 * dos, energies) / Nstates
45
46
           print 'Total # states = {0:1.2f}'.format(Nstates)
          print 'number of occupied states = {0:1.2f}'.format(N_occupied_states)
print 'd-band center = {0:1.2f} eV'.format(ed)
print 'd-band width = {0:1.2f} eV'.format(np.sqrt(wd2))
48
49
50
51
           # plot the d-band
52
          plt.plot(energies, dos, label='$d$-orbitals')
54
           {\it \# plot the occupied states in shaded \_gray}
55
          plt.fill_between(x=energies[occupied],
56
                               y1=dos[occupied],
57
                                y2=np.zeros(dos[occupied].shape),
58
                                color='gray', alpha=0.25)
60
          plt.xlabel('$E - E_f$ (eV)')
plt.ylabel('DOS (arbitrary units)')
61
62
63
     plt.savefig('images/pd-ados.png')
64
      plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-141.py).

```
Total # states = 9.29
number of occupied states = 8.18
d-band center = -2.00 eV
d-band width = 2.72 eV
```

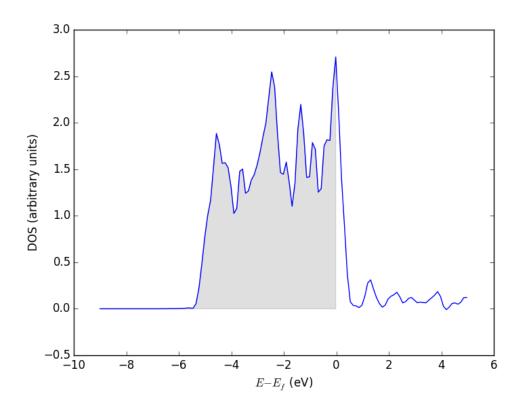


Figure 51: Atom projected d-band for bulk Pd. The shaded area corresponds to the occupied states below the Fermi level.

4.11.1 Effect of RWIGS on ADOS

Here we examine the effect of changing RWIGS on the number of counted electrons, and properties of the d-band moments.

```
from {\tt ase} import Atoms, Atom
     from jasp import *
from ase.calculators.vasp import VaspDos
3
     import sys
      import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
     import numpy as np
     a = 3.9 # approximate lattice constant b = a / 2.
9
10
     bulk = Atoms([Atom('Pd', (0.0, 0.0, 0.0))],
11
12
                    cell=[(0, b, b),
13
                            (b, 0, b)
                           (b, b, 0)])
14
15
     RWIGS = [1.0, 1.1, 1.25, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0]
16
17
18
     ED, WD, N = [], [], []
      for rwigs in RWIGS:
20
          with jasp('bulk/pd-ados') as calc:
calc.clone('bulk/pd-ados-rwigs-{0}'.format(rwigs))
21
22
23
          with jasp('bulk/pd-ados-rwigs-{0}'.format(rwigs)) as calc:
25
               calc.set(rwigs=[rwigs])
26
               try:
27
```

```
28
                    calc.calculate()
               \verb|except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued)|:
29
30
                    continue
31
                # now get results
33
               ados = VaspDos(efermi=calc.get_fermi_level())
34
               energies = ados.energy
dos = ados.site_dos(0, 'd')
35
36
37
                #we will select energies in the range of -10, 5
38
               ind = (energies < 5) & (energies > -10)
40
               energies = energies[ind]
41
               dos = dos[ind]
42
43
               Nstates = np.trapz(dos, energies)
44
                occupied = energies <= 0.0
               N_occupied_states = np.trapz(dos[occupied], energies[occupied])
46
               wd = np.trapz(energies * dos, energies) / np.trapz(dos, energies)
wd2 = np.trapz(energies**2 * dos, energies) / np.trapz(dos, energies)
47
48
49
               {\tt N.append(N\_occupied\_states)}
50
                ED append(ed)
               \mathtt{WD.append(wd2**0.5)}
53
      plt.plot(RWIGS, N, 'bo', label='N. occupied states')
54
      plt.legend(loc='best')
55
     plt.xlabel('RWIGS ($\AA$)')
56
     plt.ylabel('# occupied states')
     plt.savefig('images/ados-rwigs-occupation.png')
59
60
     fig, ax1 = plt.subplots()
ax1.plot(RWIGS, ED, 'bo', label='d-band center (eV)')
ax1.set_xlabel('RWIGS ($\AA$)')
61
62
63
      ax1.set_ylabel('d-band center (eV)', color='b')
65
     for tl in ax1.get_yticklabels():
66
          tl.set_color('b')
67
     ax2 = ax1.twinx()
68
     ax2.plot(RWIGS, WD, 'gs', label='d-band width (eV)')
ax2.set_ylabel('d-band width (eV)', color='g')
69
      for tl in ax2.get_yticklabels():
72
          tl.set_color('g')
73
     plt.savefig('images/ados-rwigs-moments.png')
74
     plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-142.py).

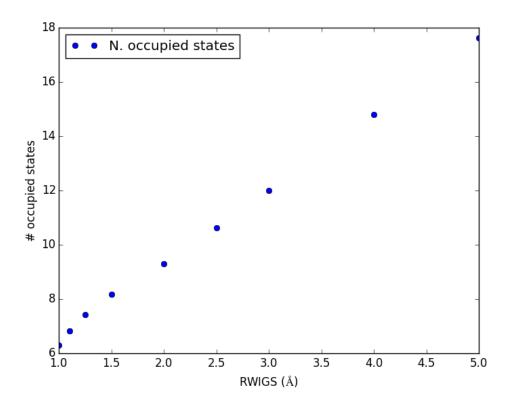


Figure 52: Effect of the RWIGS on the number of occupied d-states.

You can see the number of occupied states increases approximately linearly here with RWIGS. This is due to overcounting of neighboring electrons.

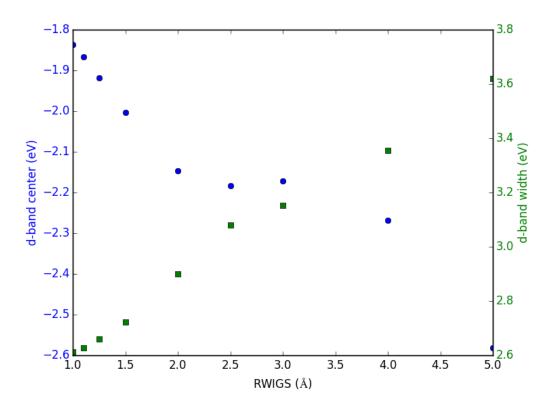


Figure 53: Effect of the RWIGS on the d-band center and width.

The d-band center and width also change.

4.12 Band structures

To compute a band structure we do two things. First, we compute the self-consistent band structure. Then we compute the band structure at the desired k-points. We will use Si as an example (adapted from http://bbs.sciencenet.cn/bbs/upload/20083418325986.pdf).

First, we get the self-consistent electron density in a calculation.

```
from jasp import *
2
    from ase import Atom, Atoms
3
    from ase.visualize import view
4
    a = 5.38936
5
    atoms = Atoms([Atom('Si', [0, 0, 0]),
6
                  Atom('Si', [0.25, 0.25, 0.25])])
    9
10
11
12
    with jasp('bulk/Si-selfconsistent',
13
14
             xc='PBE',
15
             prec='Medium',
             istart=0,
             icharg=2,
ediff=0.1e-03,
17
18
             kpts=(4, 4, 4), debug=logging.DEBUG,
19
             atoms=atoms) as calc:
```

```
atoms.get_potential_energy()
print calc
```

21 22

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-143.py).

```
VASP calculation from /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/bulk/Si-selfconsistent
 converged: True
Energy = -10.799983 eV
Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
                            length
                    z
               У
a0 [ 2.695  2.695  0.000] 3.811
 a1 [ 0.000 2.695 2.695] 3.811
 a2 [ 2.695  0.000  2.695] 3.811
a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):3.811 3.811 3.811 60.0 60.0 60.0
Unit cell volume = 39.134 Ang^3
Stress (GPa):xx,
                          zz,
                   уу,
                                 yz,
                                         ΧZ,
           -0.026 -0.026 -0.026-0.000 -0.000 -0.000
At.om#
                position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
      sym
  0
      Si
          [0.000
                                                        T T T
                      0.000
                                  0.000] 0
                                              0.00
                                                        TTT
  1
       Si [1.347
                      1.347
                                  1.347] 0
                                              0.00
```

INCAR Parameters:

```
nbands: 8
istart: 0
icharg: 2
ediff: 0.0001
magmom: None
prec: Medium
kpts: (4, 4, 4)
reciprocal: False
xc: PBE
txt: -
gamma: False
```

Pseudopotentials used:

Si: potpaw_PBE/Si/POTCAR (git-hash: ae2291fdf186a34272463039fb5a87cde0e50174)

Now, we run a new calculation along the k-point path desired. The standard VASP way of doing this is to modify the INCAR and KPOINTS file and rerun VASP. We will not do that. Doing that results in some lost information if you overwrite the old files. We will copy the old directory to a new directory, using code to ensure this only happens one time.

```
[0, 0, 0],
10
         [0.5, 0.5, 0.5]] # X
11
12
   with jasp(wd,
13
           kpts=kpts,
           reciprocal=True,
           {\tt kpts\_nintersections=}10\,{\tt ,}
17
          icharg=11) as calc:
      calc.calculate()
18
      print(calc)
19
       Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-144.py).
    : -----
     VASP calculation from /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/bulk/Si-bandstructure
     converged: True
     Energy = -3.620909 \text{ eV}
     Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
                          Z
                                 length
            х
                    У
     a0 [ 2.695  2.695  0.000] 3.811
     a1 [ 0.000 2.695 2.695] 3.811
     a2 [ 2.695  0.000  2.695] 3.811
     a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):3.811 3.811 3.811 60.0 60.0 60.0
     Unit cell volume = 39.134 Ang^3
     Stress (GPa):xx,
                         уу,
                               zz,
                                        yz,
                                               ΧZ,
                -0.205 -0.205 -0.205-0.000 -0.000 -0.000
                   position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
    At.om#
           svm
      0
            Si [0.000 0.000
                                        0.000] 0
                                                    0.00
                                                           ТТТ
      1
            Si [1.347
                            1.347
                                        1.347] 0
                                                     0.00
                                                               TTT
   INCAR Parameters:
   -----
            nbands: 8
            istart: 0
            icharg: 11
             ediff: 0.0001
            magmom: None
              prec: Medium
```

kpts: [[0.5, 0.5, 0.0], [0, 0, 0], [0, 0, 0], [0.5, 0.5, 0.5]]

kpts_nintersections: 10 reciprocal: True xc: PBE txt: gamma: False

Pseudopotentials used:

Si: potpaw_PBE/Si/POTCAR (git-hash: ae2291fdf186a34272463039fb5a87cde0e50174)

We will learn how to manually parse the EIGENVAL file here to generate the band structure. The structure of the EIGENVAL file looks like this:

head -n 20 bulk/Si-bandstructure/EIGENVAL

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-145.py).

```
0.1956688E+02 0.3810853E-09 0.3810853E-09 0.3810853E-09 0.5000000E-15
1.0000000000000E-004
unknown system
     20
  8
0.5000000E+00 0.5000000E+00 0.0000000E+00 0.5000000E-01
 1
         -1.826311
 2
         -1.826306
 3
          3.153690
 4
          3.153716
 5
          6.744294
 6
          6.744321
 7
         16.392989
 8
         16.405965
0.444444E+00 0.444444E+00 0.0000000E+00 0.5000000E-01
 1
         -2.669062
 2
         -0.918013
```

We can ignore the first five lines.

```
f = open('bulk/Si-bandstructure/EIGENVAL', 'r')
     line1 = f.readline()
line2 = f.readline()
     line3 = f.readline()
     line4 = f.readline()
     comment = f.readline()
     unknown, nkpoints, nbands = [int(x) for x in f.readline().split()]
10
     blankline = f.readline()
11
     band_energies = [[] for i in range(nbands)]
12
13
     for i in range(nkpoints):
14
         x, y, z, weight = [float(x) for x in f.readline().split()]
16
17
          for j in range(nbands):
              fields = f.readline().split()
id, energy = int(fields[0]), float(fields[1])
18
19
              band_energies[id - 1].append(energy)
          blankline = f.readline()
     f.close()
23
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
24
25
     for i in range(nbands):
         plt.plot(range(nkpoints), band_energies[i])
29
     ax = plt.gca()
     ax.set_xticks([]) # no tick marks
30
     plt.xlabel('k-vector')
31
     plt.ylabel('Energy (eV)')
ax.set_xticks([0, 10, 19])
32
     ax.set_xticklabels(['$L$', '$\Gamma$', '$X$'])
     plt.savefig('images/Si-bandstructure.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-146.py).

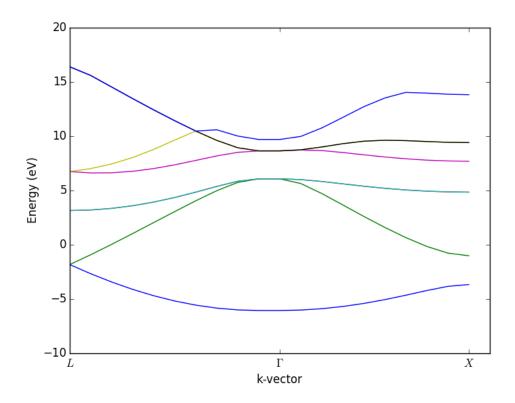


Figure 54: Calculated band-structure for Si.

Next we will examine the connection between band structures and density of states. In this example, we will compute the band structure of TiO_2 using a function built into jasp to do the analysis described above.

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-147.py).

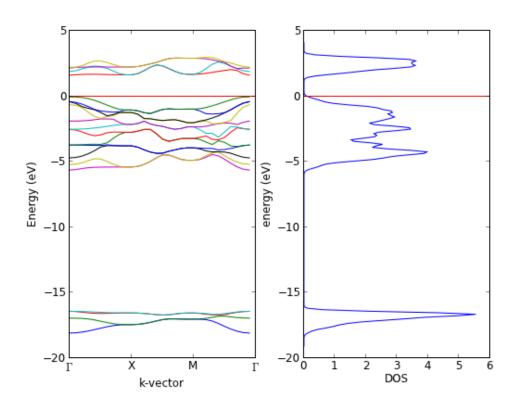


Figure 55: Band structure and total density of states for TiO₂.

4.12.1 create example showing band dispersion with change in lattice constant

In this section, we examine the effect of the lattice constant on the band structure. Since the lattice constant affects the overlap of neighboring atoms, we expect that smaller lattice constants will show more dispersion, i.e. broader bands. Larger lattice constants, in contrast, should show narrower bands. We examine this in silicon.

```
from jasp import *
     from jasp.jasp_bandstructure import *
3
4
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
     ready = True
5
     for i,a in enumerate([4.7, 5.38936, 6.0]):
 6
         atoms = Atoms([Atom('Si', [0, 0, 0]),
Atom('Si', [0.25, 0.25, 0.25])])
10
         11
12
13
14
         with jasp('bulk/Si-bs-{0}'.format(i),
15
                    xc='PBE',
prec='Medium',
16
17
                    istart=0,
18
                    icharg=2,
19
                    ediff=0.1e-03,
20
                    kpts=(4, 4, 4),
                    atoms=atoms) as calc:
23
                 n, bands, p = calc.get\_bandstructure(kpts\_path=[('L', [0.5,0.5,0.0]), [0.5,0.5]), [0.5,0.5]), \\
24
                                                               ('$\Gamma$', [0, 0, 0]),
25
```

```
('$\Gamma$', [0, 0, 0]),
('X', [0.5, 0.5, 0.5])],
26
27
                                                        kpts_nintersections=10)
28
               except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
29
                   print 'not ready {0}'.format(i)
30
31
                    ready = False
32
          if not ready:
33
               import sys; sys.exit()
34
35
36
          p.savefig('images/Si-bs-{0}.png'.format(i))
38
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-148.py).

not ready 0

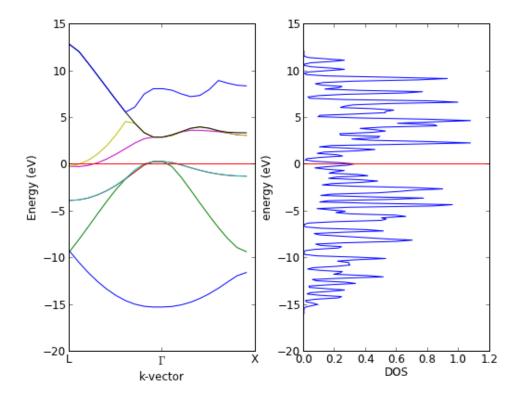


Figure 56: Si band structure for a=4.7

You can see the band structure for a=6.0 is notably sharper than the band structure for a=4.0.

4.13 Magnetism

4.13.1 Determining if a magnetic solution is energetically favorable

We can force a total magnetic moment onto a unit cell and compute the total energy as function of the total magnetic moment. If there is a minimum in the energy, then we know there is a lower energy magnetic solution than a non-magnetic solution. We use NUPDOWN to enforce the magnetic moment in the cell. Note that NUPDOWN can only be an integer. You cannot set it to be an arbitrary float.

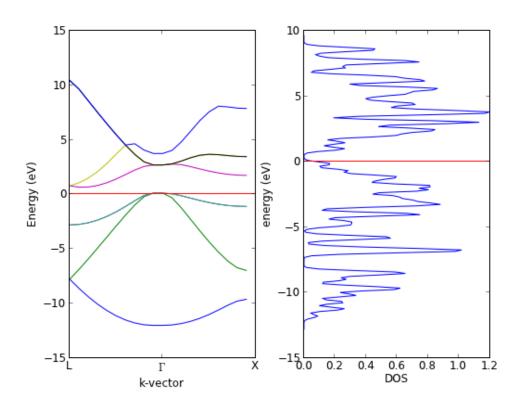


Figure 57: Si band structure for a=5.38936

```
from jasp import * from ase.lattice.cubic import BodyCenteredCubic
 2
 3
      atoms = BodyCenteredCubic(directions=[[1, 0, 0],
                                                       [0, 1, 0],

[0, 0, 1]],

size=(1, 1, 1),

symbol='Fe')
 9
      NUPPDOWNS = [0.0, 2.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 8.0] energies = []
10
11
      for B in NUPDOWNS:
^{12}
           with jasp('bulk/Fe-bcc-fixedmagmom-{0:1.2f}'.format(B), xc='PBE',
13
14
                   encut=300,
15
                   kpts=(4, 4, 4),
16
17
                   ispin=2,
                   nupdown=B,
18
                   atoms=atoms) as calc:
19
20
                try:
                      e = atoms.get_potential_energy()
21
                      energies.append(e)
22
                 except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
24
                     pass
25
      import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.plot(NUPDOWNS, energies)
plt.xlabel('Total Magnetic Moment')
26
27
      plt.ylabel('Energy (eV)')
      plt.savefig('images/Fe-fixedmagmom.png')
31
      plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-149.py).

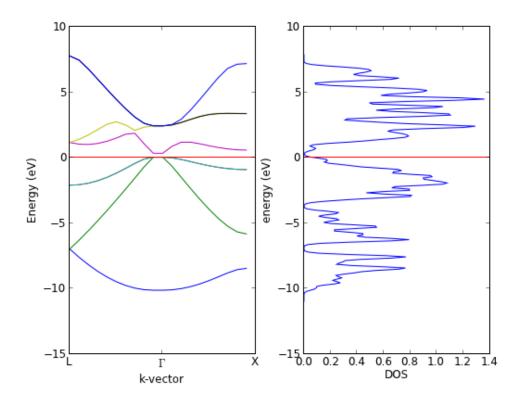
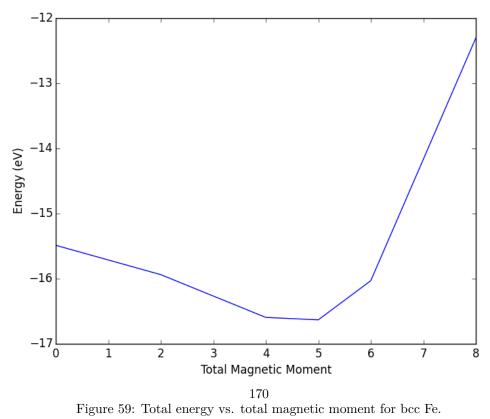


Figure 58: Si band structure for a=6.0



You can see here there is a minimum in energy at a total magnetic moment somewhere between 4 and 5. There are two Fe atoms in the unit cell, which means the magnetic moment on each atom must be about 2.5 Bohr-magnetons. This is a good guess for a real calculation. Note that VASP recommends you overestimate the magnetic moment guesses if you are looking for ferromagnetic solutions.

To run a spin-polarized calculation with initial guesses on each atom, we must set the magnetic moment on the atoms. Here we set it through the magmom attribute on the atom. In the example after this, we set it in the Atoms object.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase.lattice.cubic import BodyCenteredCubic
 4
     atoms = BodyCenteredCubic(directions=[[1, 0, 0],
 5
                                            [0, 1, 0],
                                            [0, 0, 1]],
                                            size=(1, 1, 1),
                                            symbol='Fe')
10
     # set magnetic moments on each atom
11
     for atom in atoms:
         atom.magmom = 2.5
12
13
     with jasp('bulk/Fe-bcc-sp-1',
14
               xc='PBE'
15
               encut=300
16
17
               kpts=(4, 4, 4),
18
               ispin=2.
               lorbit=11, # you need this for individual magnetic moments
19
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
20
22
                 e = atoms.get_potential_energy()
23
                 B = atoms.get_magnetic_moment()
                 magmoms = atoms.get_magnetic_moments()
24
             except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
25
     print 'Total magnetic moment is {0:1.2f} Bohr-magnetons'.format(B)
29
     print 'Individual moments are {0} Bohr-magnetons'.format(magmoms)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-150.py).

Total magnetic moment is 4.25 Bohr-magnetons
Individual moments are [2.134 2.134] Bohr-magnetons

4.13.2 Antiferromagnetic spin states

In an antiferromagnetic material, there are equal numbers of spin up and down electrons that align in a regular pattern, but pointing in opposite directions so that there is no net magnetism. It is possible to model this by setting the magnetic moments on each <code>ase.Atom</code> object. <code>lreal</code>

```
from jasp import *
2
     from ase import Atom. Atoms
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('Fe', [0.00, 0.00, 0.00], magmom=5),
                        Atom('Fe', [4.3, 4.3, 4.3], magmom=-5
Atom('0', [2.15, 2.15, 2.15], magmom=0),
Atom('0', [6.45, 6.45, 6.45], magmom=0)]
                                                       4.3], magmom=-5),
                                      6.45, 6.45, 6.45], magmom=0)],
2.15, 2.15],
                        cell=[[4.3,
                               Γ2.15.
                                                     2.15]
9
                                          4.3.
                               [2.15,
                                           2.15,
                                                      4.3]])
10
11
     with jasp('bulk/afm-feo',
                 encut=350,
                  prec='Normal',
15
                  ispin=2,
                 nupdown=0, # this forces a non-magnetic solution
16
                 lorbit=11, # to get individual moments
17
                 lreal=False,
18
                  atoms=atoms) as calc:
```

```
print 'Magnetic moments = ', atoms.get_magnetic_moments()
print 'Total magnetic moment = ', atoms.get_magnetic_moment()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-151.py).

```
Magnetic moments = \begin{bmatrix} 2.652 - 2.652 & 0. & 0. \end{bmatrix}
Total magnetic moment = 0.0
```

You can see that even though the total magnetic moment is 0, there is a spin on both Fe atoms, and they are pointing in opposite directions. Hence, the sum of spins is zero, and this arrangement is called anti-ferromagnetic.

4.13.3 TODO NiO-FeO formation energies with magnetism

4.14 TODO phonons

70 phonopy

4.15 **TODO** solid state NEB

```
<sup>71</sup> Carter paper <sup>72</sup> recent Henkelman paper
http://scitation.aip.org/content/aip/journal/jcp/137/10/10.1063/1.4752249
```

5 Surfaces

5.1 Surface structures

As with molecules and bulk systems ase provides several convenience functions for making surfaces.

5.1.1 Simple surfaces

ase provides many utility functions to setup surfaces. Here is a simple example of an fcc111 Al surface. There are built in functions for fcc111, bcc110, bcc111, hcp001 and diamond111.

```
from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111
from ase.io import write
from ase.visualize import view

slab = fcc111('Al', size=(2, 2, 3), vacuum=10.0)
from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.tag >= 2 for atom in slab])
slab.set_constraint(constraint)

view(slab)
view(slab)
write('images/Al-slab.png', slab, rotation='90x', show_unit_cell=2)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-152.py).

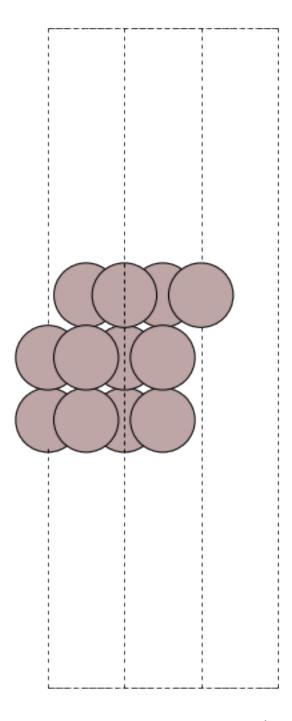


Figure 60: An Al(111) slab with three layers and 20 $\hbox{Å}$ of vacuum.

5.1.2 Vicinal surfaces

The vast majority of surface calculations are performed on flat surfaces. This is partially because these surfaces tend to have the lowest surface energies, and thus are likely to be experimentally observed. The flat surfaces, also known as low Miller index surfaces, also have small unit cells, which tends to make them computationally affordable. There are, however, many reasons to model the properties of surfaces

that are not flat. You may be interested in the reactivity of a step edge, for example, or you may use the lower cooridnation of steps as a proxy for nanoparticle reactivity. Many stepped surfaces are not that difficult to make now. The main idea in generating them is described here. ase provides a general function for making vicinal surfaces. Here is an example of a (211) surface.

```
from ase.lattice.surface import surface
from ase.io import write

# Au(211) with 9 layers
s1 = surface('Au', (2, 1, 1), 9)
s1.center(vacuum=10, axis=2)

write('images/Au-211.png',
s1.repeat((3, 3, 1)),
rotation='-30z,90x', # change the orientation for viewing
show_unit_cell=2)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-153.py).

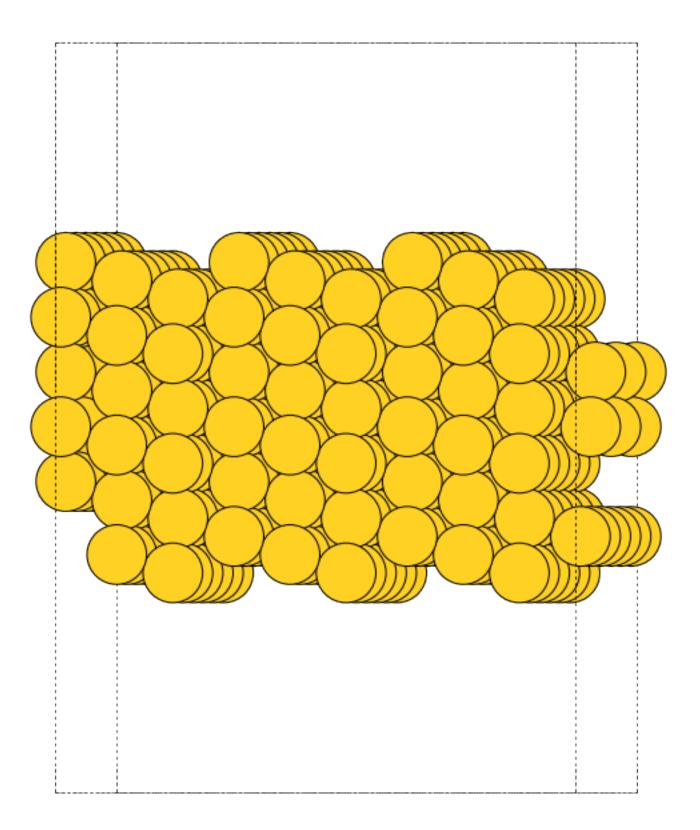


Figure 61: An Au(211) surface constructed with ase.

5.2 Surface calculation parameters

There is one important parameter that is different for surfaces than for bulk calculations, the k-point grid. Assuming you have followed the convention that the z-axis is normal to the surface, the k-point grids for slab calculations always have the form of $M \times N \times 1$. To illustrate why, consider this example:

```
from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111
     from ase.io import write
2
     from jasp import *
from jasp.jasp_bandstructure import *
3
     slab = fcc111('Al', size=(1, 1, 4), vacuum=10.0)
     9
                 encut=300,
                 kpts=(6, 6, 6),
10
                 atoms=slab) as calc:
11
          n, bands, p = calc.get_bandstructure(kpts_path=[(r'$\Gamma$', [0, 0, 0]),
12
                                                                 ('$K1$', [0.5, 0.0, 0.0]),
13
                                                                 ('$K1$', [0.5, 0.0, 0.0]),
('$K2$', [0.5, 0.5, 0.0]),
('$K2$', [0.5, 0.5, 0.0]),
14
15
16
                                                                 (r'$\Gamma$', [0, 0, 0]),
(r'$\Gamma$', [0, 0, 0]),
17
                                                                 ('$K3$', [0.0, 0.0, 1.0])],
                                                     kpts_nintersections=10)
20
21
     p.savefig('images/Al-slab-bandstructure.png')
22
     p.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-154.py).

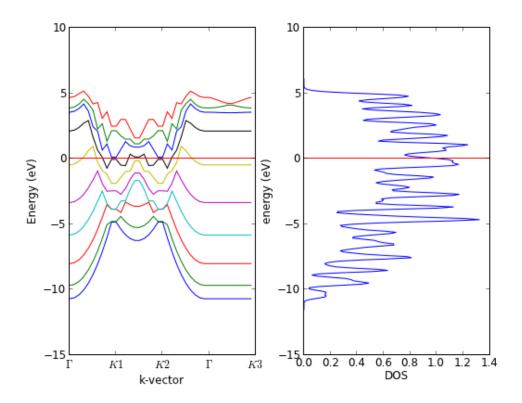


Figure 62: Band structure of an Al slab in the plane (path from Gamma to K1 to K2 to Gamma) and normal to the surface (Gamma to K3). Note the bands are flat in the direction normal to the surface, hence only one k-point is needed in this direction.

5.3 Surface relaxation

When a surface is created, the bulk symmetry is broken and consequently there will be forces on the surface atoms. We will examine some consequences of this with a simple Al slab. First, we show there are forces on the slab atoms.

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-155.py).

VASP calculation from /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/surfaces/Al-slab-unrelaxed converged: True Energy = -14.177069 eV

^{: -----}

```
Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
       х
                     z
                            length
               V
a0 [ 2.864
             0.000
                    0.000] 2.864
             2.480
                    0.000] 2.864
a1 [ 1.432
a2 [ 0.000 0.000 27.015] 27.015
a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):2.864 2.864 27.015 90.0 90.0 90.0
Unit cell volume = 191.872 Ang^3
Stress (GPa):xx,
                    уу,
                           zz,
                                  yz,
                                         XZ.
                   0.007 0.002-0.000 -0.000 -0.000
            0.007
Atom#
       sym
                 position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
 0
       Al
           [0.000
                       0.000
                                 10.000]
                                           0
                                               0.01
 1
       Al
           [1.432
                       0.827
                                  12.338]
                                           0
                                               0.18
                                                         TTT
 2
          Γ2.864
                       1.653
                                           0
                                               0.18
                                                         TTT
       Al
                                  14.677]
                                                         TTT
 3
       Al
           [0.000
                       0.000
                                  17.015]
                                           0
                                               0.01
```

INCAR Parameters:

```
nbands: 10
encut: 350.0
magmom: None
prec: Normal
kpts: (6, 6, 1)
reciprocal: False
xc: PBE
txt: -
gamma: False
```

Pseudopotentials used:

Al: potpaw_PBE/Al/POTCAR (git-hash: c8d9ecb0b6ebec0256c5f5072cee4de6a046dac2)

Some points to note. The forces on the atoms have symmetry to them. That is because the slab is centered. Had the slab had an odd number of atoms, it is likely the center atom would have no forces on it. Next we consider the spacing between each layer in the slab. We do this for comparison later.

```
from jasp import *

with jasp('surfaces/Al-slab-unrelaxed') as calc:

atoms = calc.get_atoms()

print 'Total energy: {0:1.3f} eV'.format(atoms.get_potential_energy())

for i in range(1, len(atoms)):

print '{0} deltaz = {1:1.3f} angstroms'.format(i, atoms[i].z - atoms[i-1].z)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-156.py).

```
Total energy: -14.177 eV

1 deltaz = 2.338 angstroms

2 deltaz = 2.338 angstroms

3 deltaz = 2.338 angstroms
```

To reduce the forces, we can let VASP relax the geometry. We have to make some decisions about how to relax the slab. One choice would be to relax all the atoms in the slab. If we do that, then there will be no atoms with bulk like spacing unless we increase the slab thickness pretty dramatically. It is

pretty common to freeze some atoms at the bulk coordinates, and let the others relax. We will freeze the bottom two layers (defined by tags 3 and 4) and let the first two layers relax. To do that we add constraints to the slab.

Note: the ase constraints are only partially used by jasp. The ase.constraints.FixAtoms constraint gets written to the POSCAR file, and is then used internally in VASP. The only other constraint that VASP can use internally is ase.constraints.FixScaled. The other constraints are not written to the POSCAR and are not used by VASP.

```
from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111
total atoms = fcc111('Al', size=(2, 2, 4), vacuum=10.0)
print([atom.z for atom in atoms])
print [atom.z <= 13 for atom in atoms]
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-157.py).

```
from jasp import *
     from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111
     from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
    atoms = fcc111('Al', size=(1, 1, 4), vacuum=10.0)
     constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.tag >= 3 for atom in atoms])
     atoms.set_constraint(constraint)
    with jasp('surfaces/Al-slab-relaxed'.
10
11
               xc='PBE',
kpts=(6, 6, 1),
12
               encut=350,
13
               ibrion=2,
               isif=2.
16
               nsw=10,
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
17
         calc.calculate()
18
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-158.py).

```
VASP calculation from /home-research/jkitchin/dft-book2/surfaces/Al-slab-relaxed
converged: True
Energy = -14.181417 eV
Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
                     z
                             length
a0 [ 2.864
            0.000
                    0.000] 2.864
a1 [ 1.432  2.480  0.000]  2.864
a2 [ 0.000 0.000 27.015] 27.015
a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg):2.864 2.864 27.015 90.0 90.0 90.0
Unit cell volume = 191.872 Ang^3
Stress (GPa):xx,
                            zz,
                                   yz,
                                          ΧZ,
                                                  хy
                    уу,
            0.006 0.006 0.001-0.000 -0.000 -0.000
Atom#
                 position [x,y,z]tag rmsForce constraints
       \operatorname{\mathtt{sym}}
                                                          F F F
 0
       Al
           [0.000
                        0.000
                                  10.000]
                                           4
                                                0.00
       Al
           [1.432
                        0.827
                                  12.338]
                                            3
                                                0.00
                                                          F F F
 1
                                                          TTT
 2
       Al
           [2.864
                       1.653
                                  14.637]
                                            2
                                                0.05
                       0.000
                                                0.02
                                                          TTT
 3
       Al [0.000
                                  16.982] 1
```

INCAR Parameters:

```
nbands: 10
nsw: 10
ibrion: 2
isif: 2
encut: 350.0
magmom: None
kpts: (6, 6, 1)
reciprocal: False
xc: PBE
txt: -
gamma: False
```

Pseudopotentials used:

```
Al: potpaw_PBE/Al/POTCAR (git-hash: c8d9ecb0b6ebec0256c5f5072cee4de6a046dac2)
```

You can see that atoms 2 and 3 (the ones we relaxed, because the have tags of 1 and 2, which are less than 3) now have very low forces on them and it appears that atoms 0 and 1 have no forces on them. That is because the FixAtoms constraint works by setting the forces on those atoms to zero. We can see in the next example that the z-positions of the relaxed atoms have indeed relaxed and changed, while the position of the frozen atoms did not change.

Note there are two versions of the forces. The true forces, and the forces when constraints are applied. ase.atoms.Atoms.get_forces

```
from jasp import *
with jasp('surfaces/Al-slab-relaxed') as calc:
    atoms = calc.get_atoms()
   print 'Constraints = True: ', atoms.get_forces(apply_constraint=True)
   print 'Constraints = False: ', atoms.get_forces(apply_constraint=False)
    Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-159.py).
Constraints = True: [[ 0.
 ΓО.
             0.
                       0.
                             1
 [ 0.
             0.
                     -0.049
 [ 0.
             0.
                     -0.019]]
Constraints = False: [[ 0.
                                                   -0.002]
                                           0.
 [ 0.
             0.
                       0.069]
 [ 0.
                     -0.049
             0.
 [ 0.
             0.
                     -0.019]]
from jasp import *
from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111
with jasp('surfaces/Al-slab-relaxed') as calc:
   atoms = calc.get_atoms()
   print 'Total energy: {0:1.3f}'.format(atoms.get_potential_energy())
   for i in range(1, len(atoms)):
       print 'd_{(0),\{1\}} = \{2:1.3f\} angstroms'.format(i, i-1,
                                                 atoms[i].z - atoms[i-1].z)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-160.py).

10

```
Total energy: -14.181

d_{-}(1,0) = 2.338 angstroms

d_{-}(2,1) = 2.299 angstroms

d_{-}(3,2) = 2.345 angstroms
```

Depending on the layer there is either slight contraction or expansion. These quantities are small, and careful convergence studies should be performed. Note the total energy change from unrelaxed to relaxed is not that large in this case (e.g., it is about 5 meV). This is usually the case for metals, where the relaxation effects are relatively small. In oxides and semiconductors, the effects can be large, and when there are adsorbates, the effects can be large also.

5.4 Surface reconstruction

We previously considered how relaxation can lower the surface energy. For some surfaces, a more extreme effect can reduce the surface energy: reconstruction. In a simple surface relaxation, the basic structure of a surface is preserved. However, sometimes there is a different surface structure that may have a lower surface energy. Some famous reconstructions include: $\text{Si-}\sqrt{7}\times\sqrt{7}$, Pt(100) hex reconstruction, 73,74 and the Au(111) herringbone reconstruction.

We will consider the (110) missing row reconstruction.⁷⁵ For some metals, especially Pt and Au, it is energetically favorable to form the so-called missing row reconstruction where every other row in the surface is "missing". It is favorable because it lowers the surface energy. Let us consider how we might calculate and predict that. It is straightforward to compute the energy of a (110) slab, and of a (110) slab with one row missing. However, these slabs contain different numbers of atoms, so we cannot directly compare the total energies to determine which energy is lower.

We have to consider where the missing row atoms have gone, so we can account for their energy. We will consider that they have gone into the bulk, and so we to consider the energy associated with the following transformation:

```
slab_{110} \rightarrow slab_{missing row} + bulk
```

Thus, if this change in energy: $E_{bulk} + E_{slab_{missingrow}} - E_{slab_{110}}$ is negative, then the formation of the missing row is expected to be favorable.

5.4.1 Au(110) missing row reconstruction

We first consider the Au(110) case, where the reconstruction is known to be favorable.

Clean Au(110) slab

```
from jasp import *
from ase.lattice.surface import fcc110
from ase.io import write
from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
from ase.visualize import view

atoms = fcc110('Au', size=(2, 1, 6), vacuum=10.0)
constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.tag > 2 for atom in atoms])
atoms.set_constraint(constraint)
view(atoms)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-161.py).

```
from jasp import *
from ase.lattice.surface import fcc110
from ase.io import write
from ase.constraints import FixAtoms

atoms = fcc110('Au', size=(2, 1, 6), vacuum=10.0)
constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.tag > 2 for atom in atoms])
atoms.set_constraint(constraint)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-162.py).

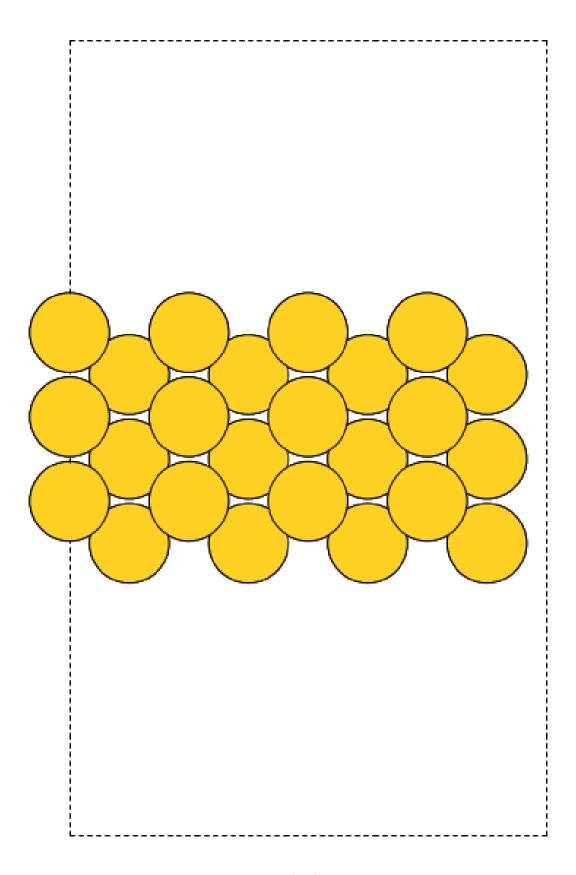


Figure 63: The unreconstructed Au(110) surface viewed from the side.

Missing row in Au(110)

```
from jasp import *
     from ase.lattice.surface import fcc110
2
     from ase.io import write from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
3
     atoms = fcc110('Au', size=(2, 1, 6), vacuum=10.0)
     del atoms[11] # delete surface row
     constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.tag > 2 for atom in atoms])
9
     atoms.set_constraint(constraint)
10
11
12
     write('images/Au-110-missing-row.png',
13
           atoms.repeat((2, 2, 1)),
           rotation='-90x'
           show_unit_cell=2)
15
16
     with jasp('surfaces/Au-110-missing-row',
17
               xc='PBE',
kpts=(6, 6, 1),
18
19
20
                encut=350,
^{21}
                ibrion=2,
               isif=2,
22
               nsw=10,
23
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
24
         calc.calculate()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-163.py).

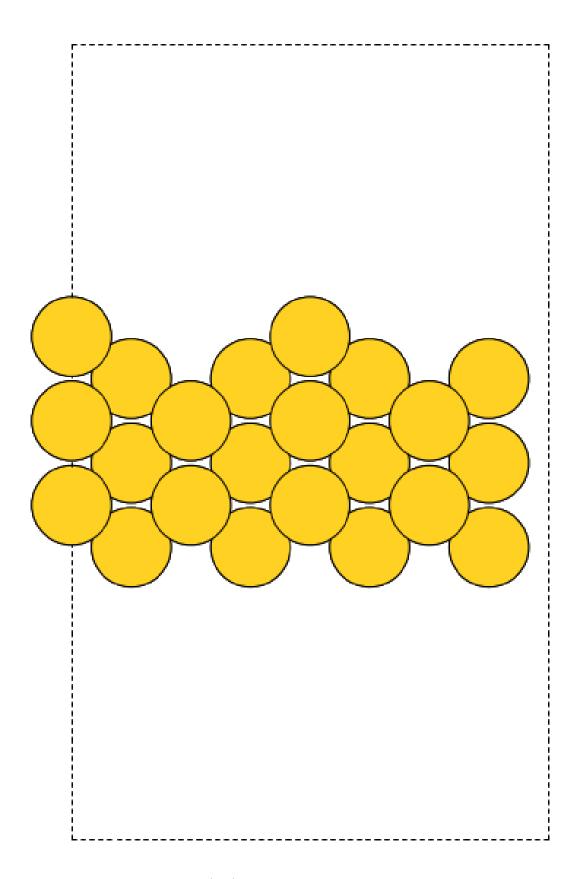


Figure 64: $\operatorname{Au}(110)$ with the missing row reconstruction.

Bulk Au

```
from jasp import *
     from ase.visualize import view
2
     {\tt from \ ase.lattice.cubic \ import \ FaceCenteredCubic}
3
     atoms = FaceCenteredCubic(directions=[[0, 1, 1],
                                                [1, 0, 1],
                                               [1, 1, 0]],
                                              size=(1, 1, 1),
symbol='Au')
9
10
     with jasp('bulk/Au-fcc',
11
                xc='PBE',
13
                encut=350,
14
                kpts=(12, 12, 12),
15
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
         calc.calculate()
16
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-164.py).

Analysis of energies

```
from jasp import *
    with jasp('surfaces/Au-110') as calc:
4
        slab = calc.get_atoms()
5
         eslab = slab.get_potential_energy()
6
    with jasp('surfaces/Au-110-missing-row') as calc:
        missingrow = calc.get_atoms()
         emissingrow = missingrow.get_potential_energy()
10
11
    with jasp('bulk/Au-fcc') as calc:
12
        bulk = calc.get_atoms()
        ebulk = bulk.get_potential_energy()
13
14
    print 'natoms slab
                               = {0}'.format(len(slab))
    print 'natoms missing row = {0}'.format(len(missingrow))
17
    print 'natoms bulk
                               = {0}'.format(len(bulk))
18
    print 'dE = \{0:1.3f\} eV'.format(emissingrow + ebulk - eslab)
19
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-165.py).

```
natoms slab = 12
natoms missing row = 11
natoms bulk = 1
dE = -0.070 \text{ eV}
```

The missing row formation energy is slightly negative. The magnitude of the formation energy is pretty small, but just slightly bigger than the typical convergence errors observed, so we should cautiously conclude that the reconstruction if favorable for Au(110). We made a lot of shortcuts in computing this quantity, including using the experimental lattice constant of Au, not checking for convergence in k-points or planewave cutoff, and not checking for convergence with respect to slab thickness or number of relaxed layers.

5.4.2 Ag(110) missing row reconstruction

Clean Ag(110) slab

```
from jasp import *
from ase.lattice.surface import fcc110
from ase.io import write
from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
```

```
atoms = fcc110('Ag', size=(2, 1, 6), vacuum=10.0)
    constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.tag > 2 for atom in atoms])
    atoms.set_constraint(constraint)
    with jasp('surfaces/Ag-110',
10
11
               xc='PBE',
12
               kpts=(6, 6, 1),
13
               encut=350,
               ibrion=2,
14
               isif=2,
15
               nsw=10,
16
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
18
         calc.calculate()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-166.py).

Missing row in Ag(110)

```
from jasp import *
     from ase.lattice.surface import fcc110
3
     from ase.io import write
4
     {\tt from} \ {\tt ase.constraints} \ {\tt import} \ {\tt FixAtoms}
     atoms = fcc110('Ag', size=(2, 1, 6), vacuum=10.0)
     del atoms[11] # delete surface row
     constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.tag > 2 for atom in atoms])
10
     atoms.set_constraint(constraint)
11
     with jasp('surfaces/Ag-110-missing-row',
12
13
                kpts=(6, 6, 1),
15
                encut=350,
16
                ibrion=2,
                isif=2.
17
                nsw=10,
18
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
19
          calc.calculate()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-167.py).

Bulk Ag

```
from jasp import *
    from ase.visualize import view
    from ase.lattice.cubic import FaceCenteredCubic
    atoms = FaceCenteredCubic(directions=[[0, 1, 1],
                                          [1, 0, 1],
[1, 1, 0]],
                                          size=(1, 1, 1),
                                          symbol='Ag')
    11
12
              encut=350,
13
              kpts=(12, 12, 12),
14
              atoms=atoms) as calc:
15
        calc.calculate()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-168.py).

Analysis of energies

```
from jasp import *

with jasp('surfaces/Ag-110') as calc:
    slab = calc.get_atoms()
    eslab = slab.get_potential_energy()
```

```
with jasp('surfaces/Ag-110-missing-row') as calc:
7
         missingrow = calc.get_atoms()
8
         emissingrow = missingrow.get_potential_energy()
9
10
11
     with jasp('bulk/Ag-fcc') as calc:
         bulk = calc.get_atoms()
ebulk = bulk.get_potential_energy()
12
13
14
     print 'natoms slab
                                = {0}'.format(len(slab))
15
     print 'natoms missing row = {0}'.format(len(missingrow))
16
                                = {0}'.format(len(bulk))
18
     print 'dE = {0:1.3f} eV'.format(emissingrow + ebulk - eslab)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-169.py).

```
natoms slab = 12
natoms missing row = 11
natoms bulk = 1
dE = -0.008 \text{ eV}
```

For Ag(110), the missing row formation energy is practically thermoneutral, i.e. not that favorable. This energy is so close to 0eV, that we cannot confidently say whether the reconstruction is favorable or not. Experimentally, the reconstruction is not seen on very clean Ag(110) although it is reported that some adsorbates may induce the reconstruction. 76

5.4.3 Cu(110) missing row reconstruction

Clean Cu(110) slab

```
from jasp import *
2
    from ase.lattice.surface import fcc110
3
    {\tt from~ase.constraints~import~FixAtoms}
     atoms = fcc110('Cu', size=(2, 1, 6), vacuum=10.0)
     constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.tag > 2 for atom in atoms])
6
    atoms.set_constraint(constraint)
    with jasp('surfaces/Cu-110',
               xc='PBE',
10
               kpts=(6, 6, 1).
11
               encut=350,
12
13
               ibrion=2,
               isif=2,
15
               nsw=10,
16
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
         calc.calculate()
17
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-170.py).

Missing row in Cu(110)

```
from jasp import *
    from ase.lattice.surface import fcc110
    from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
4
    atoms = fcc110('Cu', size=(2, 1, 6), vacuum=10.0)
6
    del atoms[11] # delete surface row
    constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.tag > 2 for atom in atoms])
    atoms.set_constraint(constraint)
     with jasp('surfaces/Cu-110-missing-row',
10
11
              xc='PBE',
               kpts=(6, 6, 1).
12
               encut=350.
13
               ibrion=2,
14
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-171.py).

Bulk Cu

```
from jasp import *
     from ase.visualize import view
2
     {\tt from \ ase.lattice.cubic \ import \ FaceCenteredCubic}
3
     atoms = FaceCenteredCubic(directions=[[0, 1, 1],
                                                [1, 0, 1],
                                               [1, 1, 0]],
                                              size=(1, 1, 1),
symbol='Cu')
9
10
     with jasp('bulk/Cu-fcc',
11
12
                xc='PBE'
13
                encut=350,
14
                kpts=(12, 12, 12),
                atoms=atoms) as calc:
15
         calc.calculate()
16
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-172.py).

Analysis

```
from jasp import *
    with jasp('surfaces/Cu-110') as calc:
3
         slab = calc.get_atoms()
         eslab = slab.get_potential_energy()
    with jasp('surfaces/Cu-110-missing-row') as calc:
        missingrow = calc.get_atoms()
         emissingrow = missingrow.get_potential_energy()
9
10
    with jasp('bulk/Cu-fcc') as calc:
12
        bulk = calc.get_atoms()
        ebulk = bulk.get_potential_energy()
13
14
    print 'natoms slab
                               = {0}'.format(len(slab))
15
    print 'natoms missing row = {0}'.format(len(missingrow))
16
    print 'natoms bulk
                               = {0}'.format(len(bulk))
    print 'dE = {0:1.3f} eV'.format(emissingrow + ebulk - eslab)
19
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-173.py).

```
natoms slab = 12
natoms missing row = 11
natoms bulk = 1
dE = -0.011 \text{ eV}
```

It is questionable whether we should consider this evidence of a missing row reconstruction because the number is small. That does not mean the reconstruction will not happen, but it could mean it is very easy to lift.

5.5 Surface energy

The easiest way to calculate surface energies is from this equation:

```
\sigma = \frac{1}{2} (E_{slab} - \frac{N_{slab}}{N_{bulk}} E_{bulk})
```

where E_{slab} is the total energy of a symmetric slab (i.e. one with inversion symmetry, and where both sides of the slab have been relaxed), E_{bulk} is the total energy of a bulk unit cell, N_{slab} is the number of atoms in the slab, and N_{bulk} is the number of atoms in the bulk unit cell. One should be sure that the bulk energy is fully converged with respect to k-points, and that the slab energy is also converged with respect to k-points. The energies should be compared at the same cutoff energies. The idea is then to increase the thickness of the slab until the surface energy σ converges.

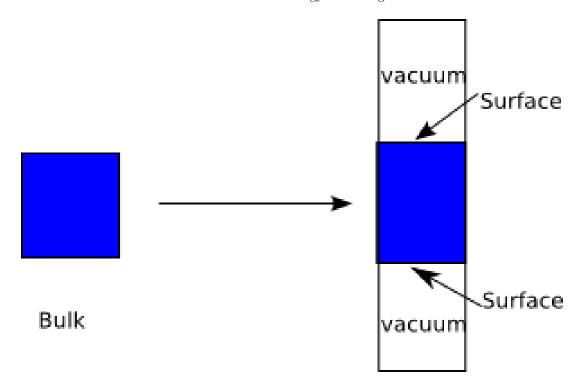


Figure 65: Schematic figure illustrating the calculation of a surface energy.

Unfortunately, this approach does not always work. The bulk system is treated subtly different than the slab system, particularly in the z-direction where the vacuum is (where typically only one k-point is used in slabs). Consequently, the k-point sampling is not equivalent in the two systems, and one can in general expect some errors due to this, with the best case being cancellation of the errors due to total k-point convergence. In the worst case, one can get a linear divergence in the surface energy with slab thickness. ⁷⁷

A variation of this method that usually results in better k-point error cancellation is to calculate the bulk unit cell energy using the slab unit cell with no vacuum space, with the same k-point mesh in the x and y directions, but with increased k-points in the z-direction. Thus, the bulk system and slab system have the same Brillouin zone in at least two dimensions. This maximizes the cancellation of k-point errors, but still does not guarantee convergence of the surface energy, as discussed in. 77,78

For quick estimates of the surface energy, one of the methods described above is likely sufficient. The advantage of these methods is the small number of calculations required to obtain the estimate, one needs only a bulk calculation (which must be done anyhow to get the bulk lattice constant to create the slab), and a slab calculation that is sufficiently thick to get the estimate. Additional calculations are only required to test the convergence of the surface energy.

An alternative method for calculating surface energies that does not involve an explicit bulk calculation follows Ref. ⁷⁸ The method follows from equation (ref{eq:se}) where for a N-atom slab, in the limit of $N \to \infty$,

$$E_{slab} \approx 2\sigma + \frac{N_{slab}}{N_{bulk}} E_{bulk}$$

Then, we can estimate E_{bulk} by plotting the total energy of the slab as a function of the slab thickness. $\sigma = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{2} (E_{slab}^N - N\Delta E_N)$ where $\Delta E_N = E_{slab}^N - E_{slab}^{N-1}$.

We will examine this approach here. We will use unrelaxed slabs for computational efficiency.

```
from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111
 2
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
 3
     Nlayers = [3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11]
     energies = []
sigmas = []
     for n in Nlayers:
10
          slab = fcc111('Cu', size=(1, 1, n), vacuum=10.0)
11
          slab.center()
12
          with jasp('bulk/Cu-layers/{0}'.format(n),
15
                     xc='PBE'.
                     encut=350,
16
                     kpts=(8, 8, 1),
17
                     atoms=slab) as calc:
18
               {\tt calc.set\_nbands(f=2)} \quad \textit{\# the default nbands in VASP is too low for Cu}
                  energies.append(slab.get_potential_energy())
21
              except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
22
23
                   pass
24
     for i in range(len(Nlayers) - 1):
          N = Nlayers[i]
          DeltaE_N = energies[i + 1] - energies[i]
sigma = 0.5 * (-N * energies[i + 1] + (N + 1) * energies[i])
sigmas.append(sigma)
27
28
29
          print 'nlayers = {1:2d} sigma = {0:1.3f} eV/atom'.format(sigma, N)
30
     plt.plot(Nlayers[0:-1], sigmas, 'bo-')
     plt.xlabel('Number of layers')
     plt.ylabel('Surface energy (eV/atom)')
34
     plt.savefig('images/Cu-unrelaxed-surface-energy.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-174.py).

```
nlayers = 3 sigma = 0.551 eV/atom

nlayers = 4 sigma = 0.399 eV/atom

nlayers = 5 sigma = 0.590 eV/atom

nlayers = 6 sigma = 0.319 eV/atom

nlayers = 7 sigma = 0.578 eV/atom

nlayers = 8 sigma = 0.322 eV/atom

nlayers = 9 sigma = 0.592 eV/atom

nlayers = 10 sigma = 0.403 eV/atom
```

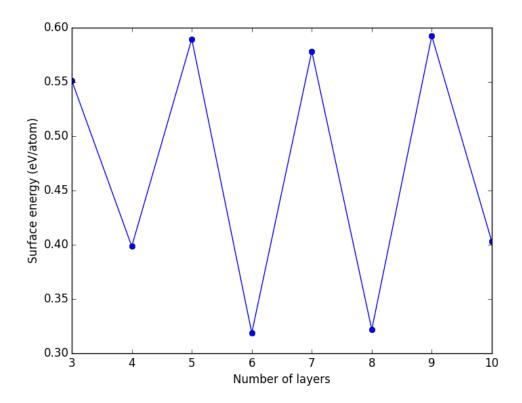


Figure 66: Surface energy of a Cu(111) slab as a function of thickness.

One reason for the oscillations may be quantum size effects. 79 In 80 the surface energy of Cu(111) is reported as 0.48 eV/atom, or 1.36 J/m². Here is an example showing a conversion between these two units. We use ase to compute the area of the unit cell from the norm of the cross-product of the vectors defining the surface unit cell.

```
from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111
from ase.units import J, m
import numpy as np

slab = fcc111('Cu', size=(1, 1, 3), vacuum=10.0)
cell = slab.get_cell()

area = np.linalg.norm(np.cross(cell[0], cell[1])) # area per atom

sigma = 0.48 # eV/atom

print 'sigma = {0} J/m^2'.format(sigma / area / (J / m**2))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-175.py).

 $sigma = 1.3628146074 J/m^2$

5.5.1 Advanced topics in surface energy

The surface energies can be used to estimate the shapes of nanoparticles using a Wulff construction. See 81 for an example of computing Mo₂C surface energies and particle shapes, and 82 for an example of the influence of adsorbates on surface energies and particle shapes of Cu.

For a classic paper on trends in surface energies see. 83

5.6 Work function

To get the work function, we need to have the local potential. This is not written by default in VASP, and we have to tell it to do that with the LVTOT and LVHAR keywords.

```
from jasp import *
      import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
2
      with jasp('surfaces/Al-slab-relaxed') as calc:
          atoms = calc.get_atoms()
      with jasp('surfaces/Al-slab-locpot',
                 xc='PBE',
9
                 kpts=(6, 6, 1),
                 encut=350,
10
11
                 lvtot=True, # write out local potential
                 lvhar=True, # write out only electrostatic potential, not xc pot
12
                 atoms=atoms) as calc:
13
14
          calc.calculate()
15
          ef = calc.get_fermi_level()
18
          atoms = calc.get_atoms()
19
          x, y, z, lp = calc.get_local_potential()
20
21
     nx, ny, nz = lp.shape
22
^{24}
     \verb"axy = np.array([np.average(lp[:, :, z]) for z in range(nz)])"
25
      \# setup the x-axis in realspace
     uc = atoms.get_cell()
xaxis = np.linspace(0, uc[2][2], nz)
26
27
     plt.plot(xaxis, axy)
     plt.plot([min(xaxis), max(xaxis)], [ef, ef], 'k:')
plt.xlabel('Position along z-axis')
plt.ylabel('x-y averaged electrostatic potential')
31
32
     plt.savefig('images/Al-wf.png')
33
34
      ind = (xaxis > 0) & (xaxis < 5)
     wf = np.average(axy[ind]) - ef
print ' The workfunction is {0:1.2f} eV'.format(wf)
37
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-176.py).

The workfunction is 4.04 eV

The workfunction of Al is listed as 4.08 at http://hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/hbase/tables/photoelec.html.

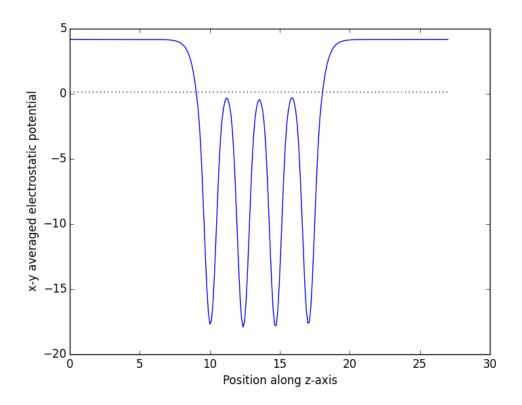


Figure 67: xy averaged local electrostatic potential of an Al(111) slab.

5.7 Dipole correction

A subtle problem can arise when an adsorbate is placed on one side of a slab with periodic boundary conditions, which is currently the common practice. The problem is that this gives the slab a dipole moment. The array of dipole moments created by the periodic boundary conditions generates an electric field that can distort the electron density of the slab and change the energy. The existence of this field in the vacuum also makes the zero-potential in the vacuum ill-defined, thus the work function is not well-defined. One solution to this problem is to use slabs with adsorbates on both sides, but then very thick (eight to ten layers) slabs must be used to ensure the adsorbates do not interact through the slab. An alternative solution, the dipole correction scheme, was developed by Neugebauer and Scheffler ⁸⁴ and later corrected by Bengtsson. ⁸⁵ In this technique, an external field is imposed in the vacuum region that exactly cancels the artificial field caused by the slab dipole moment. The advantage of this approach is that thinner slabs with adsorbates on only one side can be used.

There are also literature reports that the correction is small.⁸⁶ Nevertheless, in the literature the use of this correction is fairly standard, and it is typical to at least consider the correction.

Here we will just illustrate the effect.

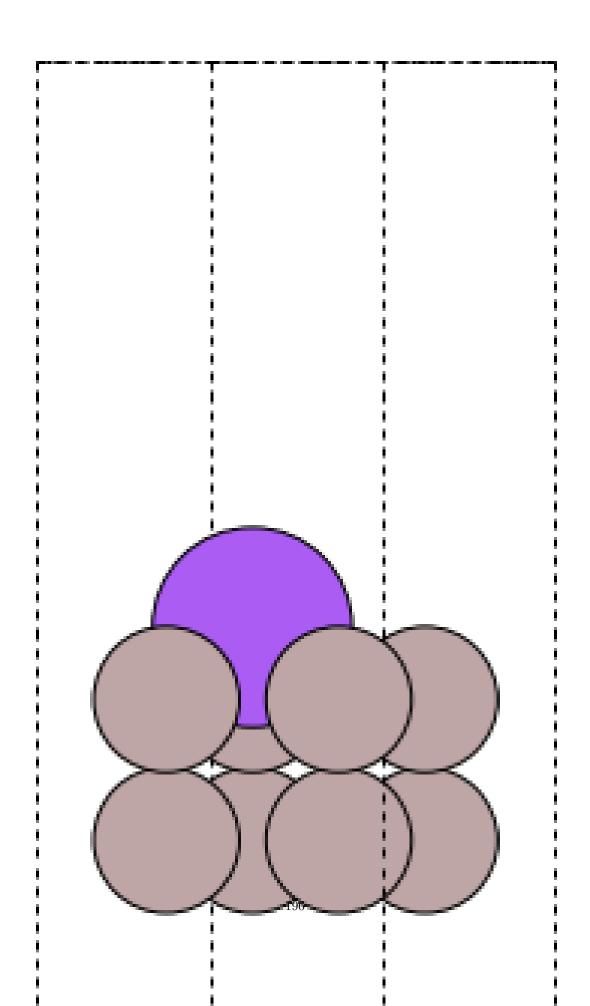
5.7.1 Slab with no dipole correction

We simply run the calculation here, and compare the results later.

 $\#+BEGIN_SRC$ python from a se.lattice.surface import fcc111, add_adsorbate from jasp import *import matplotlib.pyplot as plt from a se.io import write

 $slab = fcc111('Al', size=(2, 2, 2), vacuum=10.0) \ add_adsorbate(slab, 'Na', height=1.2, position='fcc') slab.center() \ write('images/Na-Al-slab.png', slab, rotation='-90x', show_unit_cell=2)$

with jasp ('surfaces/Al-Na-nodip', xc='PBE', encut=340, kpts=(2, 2, 1), lvtot=True, # write out local potential lvhar=True, # write out only electrostatic potential, not xc pot atoms=slab) as calc: calc.calculate () $\#+{\rm END_SRCb}$



5.7.2 Slab with a dipole correction

Note this takes a considerably longer time to run than without a dipole correction! In VASP there are several levels of dipole correction to apply. You can use the $\overline{\text{IDIPOL}}$ tag to turn it on, and specify which direction to apply it in (1=x, 2=y, 3=z, 4=(x,y,z)). This simply corrects the total energy and forces. It does not change the contents of LOCPOT. For that, you have to also set the $\overline{\text{LDIPOL}}$ and $\overline{\text{DIPOL}}$ tags. It is not efficient to set all three at the same time for some reason. The VASP manual recommends you first set $\overline{\text{IDIPOL}}$ to get a converged electronic structure, and then set $\overline{\text{LDIPOL}}$ to $\overline{\text{True}}$, and set the center of electron density in $\overline{\text{DIPOL}}$. That makes these calculations a multistep process, because we must run a calculation, analyze the charge density to get the center of charge, and then run a second calculation.

```
# compute local potential with dipole calculation on
     from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111, add_adsorbate
 3
     from jasp import *
 4
     slab = fcc111('Al', size=(2, 2, 2), vacuum=10.0)
add_adsorbate(slab, 'Na', height=1.2, position='fcc')
 6
     with jasp('surfaces/Al-Na-dip',
10
                xc='PBE'.
11
12
                encut=340.
               kpts=(2, 2, 1), idipol=3, # only along z-axis
13
                lvtot=True, # write out local potential
                lvhar=True, # write out only electrostatic potential, not xc pot
17
                atoms=slab) as calc:
18
         calc.calculate()
19
20
         x, y, z, cd = calc.get_charge_density()
         n0, n1, n2 = cd.shape
22
23
         nelements = n0 * n1 * n2
         voxel_volume = slab.get_volume() / nelements
24
         total_electron_charge = cd.sum() * voxel_volume
25
26
         electron_density_center = np.array([(cd * x).sum(),
                                                (cd * y).sum()
29
                                                (cd * z).sum()])
30
         electron_density_center *= voxel_volume
         electron_density_center /= total_electron_charge
31
32
         print 'electron-density center = {0}'.format(electron_density_center)
33
         uc = slab.get_cell()
         # get scaled electron charge density center
36
         sedc = np.dot(np.linalg.inv(uc.T), electron_density_center.T).T
37
38
          # we only write 4 decimal places out to the INCAR file, so we round here.
39
         sedc = np.round(sedc, 4)
41
42
         calc.clone('surfaces/Al-Na-dip-step2')
43
     # now run step 2 with dipole set at scaled electron charge density center
44
     with jasp('surfaces/Al-Na-dip-step2',
45
                ldipol=True, dipol=sedc) as calc:
          calc.calculate()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-177.py).

```
electron-density center = [ 4.212 2.419 10.657]
```

5.7.3 Comparing no dipole correction with a dipole correction

To see the difference in what the dipole correction does, we now plot the potentials from each calculation.

```
from jasp import *
2
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
3
     with jasp('surfaces/Al-Na-nodip') as calc:
           atoms = calc.get_atoms()
          x, y, z, lp = calc.get_local_potential()
nx, ny, nz = lp.shape
9
          axy_1 = [np.average(lp[:, :, z]) for z in range(nz)]
10
            setup the x-axis in realspace
11
          uc = atoms.get_cell()
13
          xaxis_1 = np.linspace(0, uc[2][2], nz)
14
           e1 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
15
16
17
      with jasp('surfaces/Al-Na-dip-step2') as calc:
          atoms = calc.get_atoms()
19
         x, y, z, lp = calc.get_local_potential()
nx, ny, nz = lp.shape
20
21
22
          axy_2 = [np.average(lp[:, :, z]) for z in range(nz)]
23
          # setup the x-axis in realspace
uc = atoms.get_cell()
26
          xaxis_2 = np.linspace(0, uc[2][2], nz)
27
           ef2 = calc.get_fermi_level()
28
29
           e2 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
30
     print 'The difference in energy is {0} eV.'.format(e2-e1)
32
     plt.plot(xaxis_1, axy_1, label='no dipole correction')
plt.plot(xaxis_2, axy_2, label='dipole correction')
plt.plot([min(xaxis_2), max(xaxis_2)], [ef2, ef2], 'k:', label='Fermi level')
plt.xlabel('z ($\AA$)')
33
34
35
     plt.ylabel('xy-averaged electrostatic potential')
     plt.legend(loc='best')
      plt.savefig('images/dip-vs-nodip-esp.png')
39
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-178.py).

The difference in energy is 3.867888 eV.

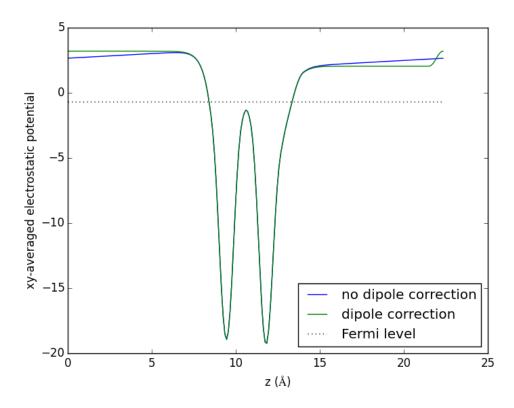


Figure 69: Comparison of the electrostatic potentials with a dipole correction and without it.

The key points to notice in this figure are:

- 1. The two deep dips are where the atoms are.
- 2. Without a dipole correction, the electrostatic potential never flattens out. there is near constant slope in the vacuum region, which means there is an electric field there.
- 3. With a dipole correction the potential is flat in the vacuum region, except for the step jump near 23~Å.
- 4. The difference between the Fermi level and the flat vacuum potential is the work function.
- 5. The difference in energy with and without the dipole correction here is small.

5.8 Adsorption energies

5.8.1 Simple estimate of the adsorption energy

Calculating an adsorption energy amounts to computing the energy of the following kind of reaction: slab + gas-phase molecule \rightarrow slab_adsorbate + products

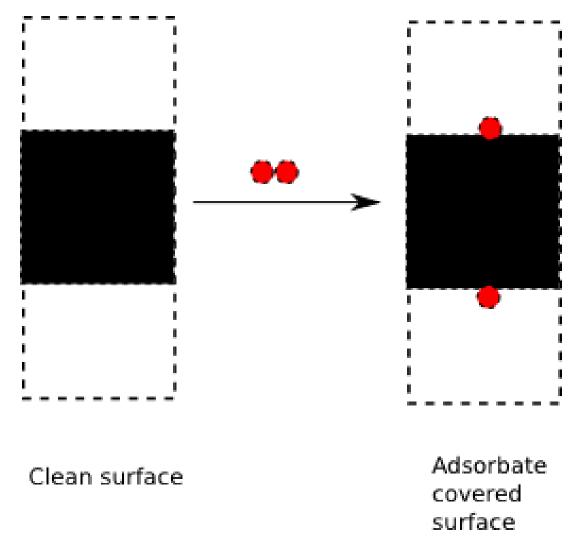


Figure 70: Schematic of an adsorption process.

There are many variations of this idea. The slab may already have some adsorbates on it, the slab may reconstruct on adsorption, the gas-phase molecule may or may not dissociate, and the products may or may not stick to the surface. We have to decide where to put the adsorbates, i.e. what site to put them on, and some sites will be more stable than others. We will consider the dissociative adsorption of O_2 on three sites of a Pt(111) slab. We will assume the oxygen molecule has split in half, and that the atoms have moved far apart. We will model the oxygen coverage at 0.25 ML, which means we need to use a 2×2 surface unit cell. For computational speed, we will freeze the slab, but allow the adsorbate to relax.

$$\Delta H_{ads}(eV/O) = E_{slab+O} - E_{slab} - 0.5 * E_{O_2}$$

Calculations

clean slab calculation

```
from jasp import *
from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111
from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
```

```
atoms = fcc111('Pt', size=(2, 2, 3), vacuum=10.0)
constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[True for atom in atoms])
6
     atoms.set_constraint(constraint)
     from ase.io import write
10
     write('images/Pt-fcc-ori.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
11
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab',
12
                  xc='PBE',
kpts=(4, 4, 1),
13
14
15
                  encut=350,
                  atoms=atoms) as calc:
          print atoms.get_potential_energy()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-179.py).

-67.711178

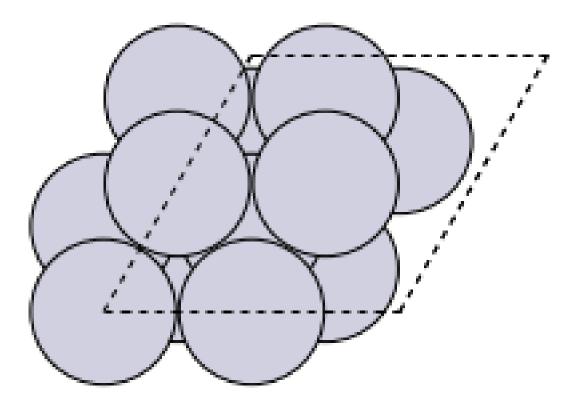


Figure 71: Pt(111) fcc surface

fcc site

```
from jasp import *

from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111, add_adsorbate

from ase.constraints import FixAtoms

atoms = fcc111('Pt', size=(2, 2, 3), vacuum=10.0)

# note this function only works when atoms are created by the surface module.

add_adsorbate(atoms, '0', height=1.2, position='fcc')

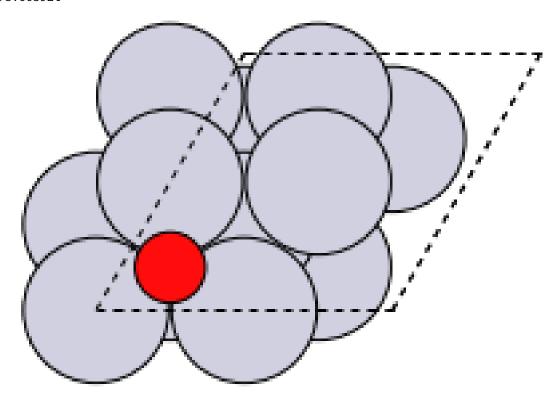
constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.symbol != '0' for atom in atoms])

atoms.set_constraint(constraint)
```

```
from ase.io import write
14
     write('images/Pt-fcc-site.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
15
16
17
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-fcc',
               xc='PBE',
kpts=[4, 4, 1],
18
19
               encut=350,
20
               ibrion=2,
21
               nsw=25,
22
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
23
25
         print atoms.get_potential_energy()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-180.py).

-73.663924



O atom on the bridge site

```
from jasp import *
from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111, add_adsorbate
2
      from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
3
4
      atoms = fcc111('Pt', size=(2, 2, 3), vacuum=10.0)
      # note this function only works when atoms are created by the surface module. add_adsorbate(atoms, ^{\prime}0^{\prime}, height=1.2, position=^{\prime}bridge^{\prime})
8
9
      constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.symbol != '0' for atom in atoms])
10
11
      {\tt atoms.set\_constraint(constraint)}
12
      13
14
15
                  encut=350,
16
                  nsw=25,
```

```
19 atoms=atoms) as calc:
20
21 calc.calculate()
22 print atoms.get_potential_energy()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-181.py).

-73.663615

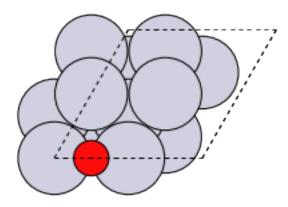
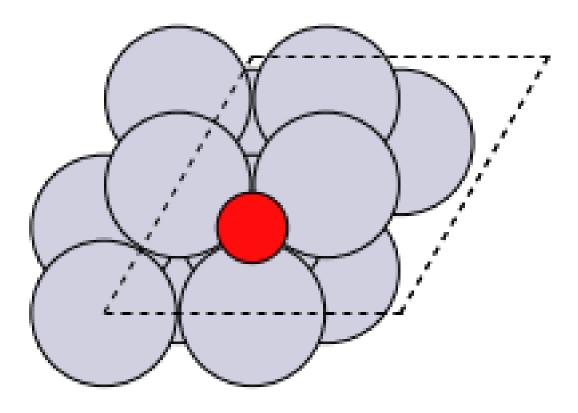


Figure 72: Initial geometry of the bridge site. It is definitely on the bridge.

hcp site

```
from jasp import *
      from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111, add_adsorbate from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
 2
 3
      atoms = fcc111('Pt', size=(2, 2, 3), vacuum=10.0)
      # note this function only works when atoms are created by the surface module. add_adsorbate(atoms, '0', height=1.2, position='hcp')
 9
      constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.symbol != '0' for atom in atoms])
10
11
      {\tt atoms.set\_constraint}({\tt constraint})
^{12}
13
      from ase.io import write
      write('images/Pt-hcp-o-site.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
14
15
16
      with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-hcp',
                  xc='PBE',
kpts=(4, 4, 1),
17
18
19
                   encut=350,
                  ibrion=2,
20
                  nsw=25,
21
                  atoms=atoms) as calc:
22
           calc.calculate()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-182.py).



Analysis of adsorption energies

```
from jasp import *
2
      from ase.io import write
      with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab') as calc:
           atoms = calc.get_atoms()
           e_slab = atoms.get_potential_energy()
      write('images/pt-slab.png', atoms,show_unit_cell=2)
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-fcc') as calc:
9
           atoms = calc.get_atoms()
e_slab_o_fcc = atoms.get_potential_energy()
10
11
12
      write('images/pt-slab-fcc-o.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
      with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-hcp') as calc:
14
           atoms = calc.get_atoms()
e_slab_o_hcp = atoms.get_potential_energy()
15
16
17
      write('images/pt-slab-hcp-o.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
18
19
      with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-bridge') as calc:
20
           atoms = calc.get_atoms()
     e_slab_o_bridge = atoms.get_potential_energy()
write('images/pt-slab-bridge-o.png', atoms,show_unit_cell=2)
21
22
23
      with jasp('molecules/02-sp-triplet-350') as calc:
           atoms = calc.get_atoms()
           e_02 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
26
27
     {\tt Hads\_fcc = e\_slab\_o\_fcc - e\_slab - 0.5 * e\_02}
28
      Hads_hcp = e_slab_o_hcp - e_slab - 0.5 * e_02
29
      Hads_bridge = e_slab_o_bridge - e_slab - 0.5 * e_02
30
      print 'Hads (fcc) = {0} eV/0'.format(Hads_fcc)
print 'Hads (hcp) = {0} eV/0'.format(Hads_hcp)
print 'Hads (bridge) = {0} eV/0'.format(Hads_bridge)
33
34
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-183.py).

```
Hads (fcc) = -1.0384925 \text{ eV/O}
```

```
Hads (hcp) = -0.5986145 \text{ eV/O}
Hads (bridge) = -1.0381835 \text{ eV/O}
```

You can see the hcp site is not as energetically favorable as the fcc site. Interestingly, the bridge site seems to be as favorable as the fcc site. This is not correct, and to see why, we have to look at the final geometries of each calculation. First the fcc (Figure 73 and hcp (Figure 74 sites, which look like we expect.

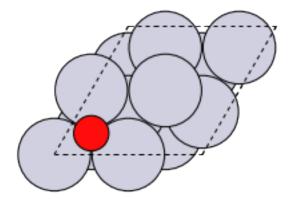


Figure 73: Final geometry of the fcc site.

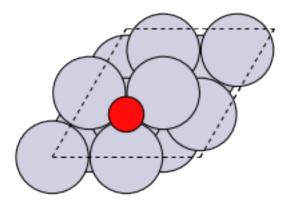


Figure 74: Final geometry of the hcp site.

The bridge site (Figure 75, however, is clearly not at a bridge site!

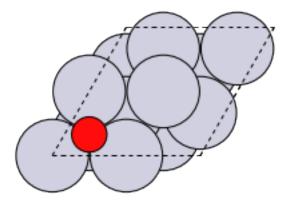


Figure 75: Final geometry of the bridge site. You can see that the oxygen atom ended up in the fcc site.

Let us see what the original geometry and final geometry for the bridge site were. The POSCAR contains the initial geometry (as long as you haven't copied CONTCAR to POSCAR), and the CONTCAR contains the final geometry.

```
from ase.io import read, write

atoms = read('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-bridge/POSCAR')
write('images/Pt-o-brige-ori.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)

atoms = read('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-bridge/CONTCAR')
write('images/Pt-o-brige-final.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-184.py).

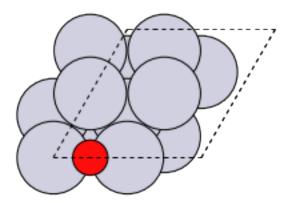


Figure 76: Initial geometry of the bridge site. It is definitely on the bridge.

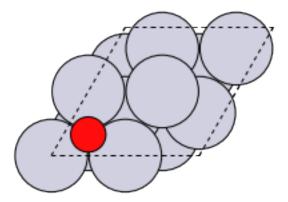


Figure 77: Final geometry of the bridge site. It has fallen into the fcc site.

You can see the problem. We should not call the adsorption energy from this calculation a bridge site adsorption energy because the O atom is actually in an fcc site! This kind of result can happen with relaxation, and you should always check that the result you get makes sense. Next, we consider how to get a bridge site adsorption energy by using constraints.

Some final notes:

- 1. We did not let the slabs relax in these examples, and allowing them to relax is likely to have a big effect on the adsorption energies. You have to decide how many layers to relax, and check for convergence with respect to the number of layers.
- 2. The slabs were pretty thin. It is typical these days to see slabs that are 4-5 or more layers thick.
- 3. We did not consider how well converged the calculations were with respect to k-points or ENCUT.
- 4. We did not consider the effect of the error in O_2 dissociation energy on the adsorption energies.
- 5. We did not consider coverage effects (see Coverage dependence).

Adsorption on bridge site with constraints To prevent the oxygen atom from sliding down into the fcc site, we have to constrain it so that it only moves in the z-direction. This is an artificial constraint; the bridge site is only metastable. But there are lots of reasons you might want to do this anyway. One is the bridge site is a transition state for diffusion between the fcc and hcp sites. Another is to understand the role of coordination in the adsorption energies. We use a ase.constraints.FixScaled constraint in ase to constrain the O atom so it can only move in the z-direction (actually so it can only move in the direction of the third unit cell vector, which only has a z-component).

```
from jasp import *
2
     from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111, add_adsorbate
4
     from ase.constraints import FixAtoms, FixScaled
5
     from ase.io import write
6
     atoms = fcc111('Pt', size=(2, 2, 3), vacuum=10.0)
9
     \# note this function only works when atoms are created by the surface module.
10
     add_adsorbate(atoms, '0', height=1.2, position='bridge')
     constraint1 = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.symbol != '0' for atom in atoms])
11
     # fix in xy-direction, free in z. actually, freeze movement in surface # unit cell, and free along 3rd lattice vector
12
13
     constraint2 = FixScaled(atoms.get_cell(), 12, [True, True, False])
14
     atoms.set_constraint([constraint1, constraint2])
16
     write('images/Pt-0-bridge-constrained-initial.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
17
     print 'Initial O position: {0}'.format(atoms.positions[-1])
18
19
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-bridge-xy-constrained',
```

```
xc='PBE',
kpts=(4, 4, 1),
22
                 encut=350,
23
                 ibrion=2,
24
                 atoms=atoms) as calc:
          e_bridge = atoms.get_potential_energy()
28
     write('images/Pt-0-bridge-constrained-final.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
print 'Final 0 position : {0}'.format(atoms.positions[-1])
29
30
31
      # now compute Hads
      with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab') as calc:
33
          atoms = calc.get_atoms()
34
          e_slab = atoms.get_potential_energy()
35
36
37
     with jasp('molecules/02-sp-triplet-350') as calc:
39
          atoms = calc.get_atoms()
          e_02 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
40
41
     Hads_bridge = e_bridge - e_slab - 0.5*e_02
42
43
     print 'Hads (bridge) = {0:1.3f} eV/O'.format(Hads_bridge)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-185.py).

```
Initial O position: [ 1.386 0. 15.726]
Final O position : [ 1.386 0. 15.977]
Hads (bridge) = -0.488 \text{ eV/O}
```

You can see that only the z-position of the O atom changed. Also, the adsorption energy of O on the bridge site is **much** less favorable than on the fcc or hcp sites.

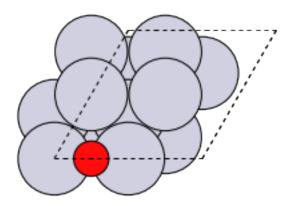


Figure 78: Initial state of the O atom on the bridge site.

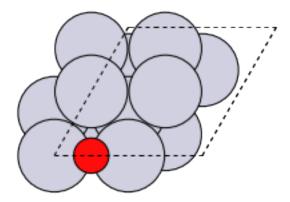


Figure 79: Final state of the constrained O atom, still on the bridge site.

5.8.2 Coverage dependence

The adsorbates on the surface can interact with each other which results in coverage dependent adsorption energies. ⁸⁷ Coverage dependence is not difficult to model; we simply compute adsorption energies in different size unit cells, and/or with different adsorbate configurations. Here we consider dissociative oxygen adsorption at 1ML on Pt(111) in an fcc site, which is one oxygen atom in a 1×1 unit cell.

For additional reading, see these references from our work:

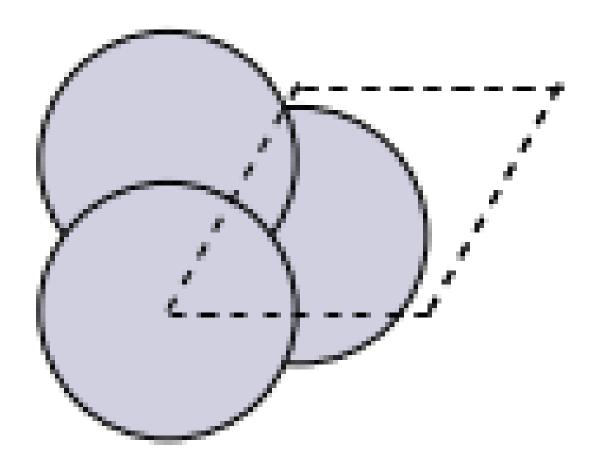
- \bullet Correlations of coverage dependence of oxygen adsorption on different metals 88,89
- Coverage effects of atomic adsorbates on $Pd(111)^{90}$
- Simple model for estimating coverage dependence 87
- Coverage effects on alloys 91

clean slab calculation

```
from jasp import *
    from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111
2
3
    from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
     atoms = fcc111('Pt', size=(1, 1, 3), vacuum=10.0)
     constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[True for atom in atoms])
     atoms.set_constraint(constraint)
    write('images/Pt-fcc-1ML.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
10
11
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-1x1',
               xc='PBE',
kpts=(8, 8, 1),
12
13
               encut=350,
14
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
15
16
         slab_e = atoms.get_potential_energy()
         print slab_e
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-186.py).

-16.927696

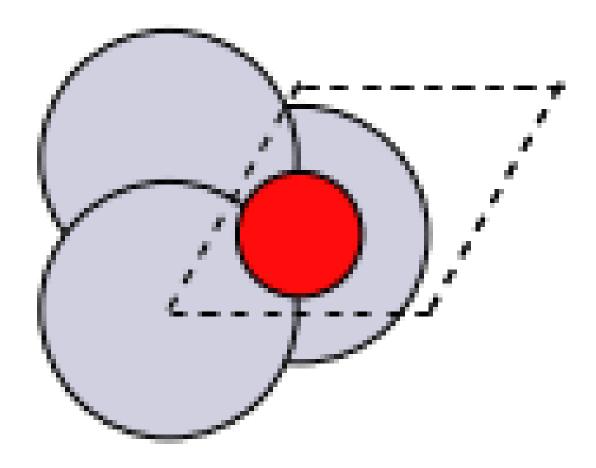


fcc site at 1 ML coverage

```
from jasp import \ast
     from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111, add_adsorbate from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
4
     from ase.io import write
      atoms = fcc111('Pt', size=(1, 1, 3), vacuum=10.0)
     # note this function only works when atoms are created by the surface module. add_adsorbate(atoms, '0', height=1.2, position='fcc')
10
11
12
      constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.symbol != '0' for atom in atoms])
      {\tt atoms.set\_constraint(constraint)}
14
15
      write('images/Pt-o-fcc-1ML.png', atoms, show_unit_cell=2)
16
17
18
19
      with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-1x1-0-fcc',
                  xc='PBE',
kpts=(8, 8, 1),
encut=350,
20
21
22
                  ibrion=2,
23
                  nsw=25,
24
                  atoms=atoms) as calc:
           print atoms.get_potential_energy()
26
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-187.py).

-21.941003



Adsorption energy at 1ML

```
from jasp import \ast
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-1x1-0-fcc') as calc:
3
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
4
         e_slab_o = atoms.get_potential_energy()
     # clean slab
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-1x1') as calc:
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
9
         e_slab = atoms.get_potential_energy()
10
11
     with jasp('molecules/02-sp-triplet-350') as calc:
13
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
         e_02 = atoms.get_potential_energy()
14
15
    hads = e_slab_o - e_slab - 0.5 * e_02
print 'Hads (1ML) = \{0:1.3f\} eV'.format(hads)
16
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-188.py).

```
Hads (1ML) = -0.099 \text{ eV}
```

The adsorption energy is **much** less favorable at 1ML coverage than at 0.25 ML coverage! We will return what this means in Atomistic thermodynamics effect on adsorption.

5.8.3 Effect of adsorption on the surface energy

There is a small point to make here about what adsorption does to surface energies. Let us define a general surface formation energy scheme like this:

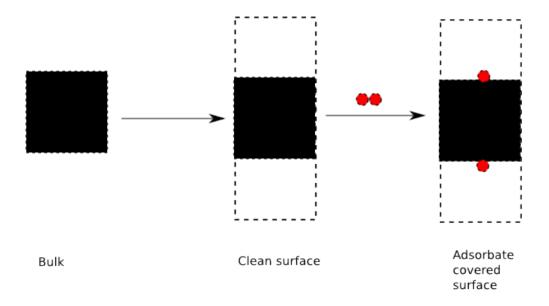


Figure 80: Schematic of forming a surface with adsorbates. First we form two clean surfaces by cleaving the bulk, then allow adsorption to occur on the surfaces.

Let us presume the surfaces are symmetric, and that each surface contributes half of the energy change. The overall change in energy:

$$\Delta E = E_{slab,ads} - E_{ads} - E_{bulk}$$

where the energies are appropriately normalized for the stoichiometry. Let us rearrange the terms, and add and subtract a constant term E_{slab} .

$$\Delta E = E_{slab,ads} - E_{slab} - E_{ads} - E_{bulk} + E_{slab}$$

We defined $\gamma_{clean} = \frac{1}{2A}(E_{slab} - E_{bulk})$, and we defined $H_{ads} = E_{slab,ads} - E_{slab} - E_{ads}$ for adsorption on a single side of a slab. In this case, there are adsorbates on both sides of the slab, so $E_{slab,ads} - E_{slab} - E_{ads} = 2\Delta H_{ads}$. If we normalize by 2A, the area for both sides of the slab, we get $\frac{\Delta E}{2A} = \gamma = \gamma_{clean} + \frac{H_{ads}}{A}$

You can see here that the adsorption energy serves to stabilize, or reduce the surface energy, provided that the adsorption energy is negative.

Some final notes about the equations above:

- We were not careful about stoichiometry. As written, it is assumed there are the same number of atoms (not including the adsorbates) in the slabs and bulk, and the same number of adsorbate atoms in the slab and E_{ads} . Appropriate normalization factors must be included if that is not true.
- It is not necessary to perform a symmetric slab calculation to determine the effect of adsorption on the surface energy! You can examine $\gamma \gamma_{clean}$ with knowledge of only the adsorption energies!

5.9 Adsorbate vibrations

Adsorbates also have vibrational modes. Unlike a free molecule, the translational and rotational modes of an adsorbate may actually have real frequencies. Sometimes they are called frustrated translations or rotations. For metal surfaces with adsorbates, it is common to only compute vibrational modes of the adsorbate on a frozen metal slab. The rationale is that the metal atoms are so much heavier than the

adsorbate that there will be little coupling between the surface and adsorbates. You can limit the number of modes calculated with constraints (ase.constraints.FixAtoms or ase.constraints.FixScaled) if you use IBRION=5. The other IBRION settings (6, 7, 8) do not respect the selective dynamics constraints. Below we consider the vibrational modes of an oxygen atom in an fcc site on Pt(111).

```
from jasp import *
 3
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-fcc') as calc:
 4
          calc.clone('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-fcc-vib')
 5
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-fcc-vib') as calc:
 6
         calc.set(ibrion=5,  # finite differences with selective dynamics
                                  # central differences (default)
                   nfree=2,
 9
                   potim=0.015, \# default as well
10
                    ediff=1e-8,
11
                   nsw=1)
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
12
         f, v = calc.get_vibrational_modes(0)
13
         print 'Elapsed time = {0} seconds'.format(calc.get_elapsed_time())
         allfreq = calc.get_vibrational_modes()[0]
17
     from ase.units import meV
     c = 3e10 \# cm/s
18
     h = 4.135667516e-15 # eV*s
19
20
     print 'vibrational energy = {0} eV'.format(f)
     print 'vibrational energy = {0} meV'.format(f/meV)
print 'vibrational freq = {0} 1/s'.format(f/h)
22
23
     print 'vibrational freq
                                = \{0\} cm<sup>2</sup>\{\{-1\}\}, format(f/(h*c))
24
25
     print
     print 'All energies = ', allfreq
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-189.py).

```
Elapsed time = 14269.345 seconds
vibrational energy = 0.061606647 eV
vibrational energy = 61.606647 meV
vibrational freq = 1.48964216204e+13 1/s
vibrational freq = 496.547387346 cm^{-1}
All energies = [0.061606647, 0.044346362, 0.044344470000000004]
```

There are three modes for the free oxygen atom. One of them is a mode normal to the surface (the one with highest frequency. The other two are called frustrated translations. Note that we did not include the surface Pt atoms in the calculation, and this will have an effect on the result because the O atom could be coupled to the surface modes. It is typical to neglect this coupling because of the large difference in mass between O and Pt. Next we look at the difference in results when we calculate all the modes.

```
from jasp import *
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-0-fcc') as calc:
3
         calc.clone('Pt-slab-O-fcc-vib-ibrion=6')
4
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-fcc-vib-ibrion=6') as calc:
         calc.set(ibrion=6, # finite differences with symmetry
                   nfree=2, # central differences (default)
potim=0.015, # default as well
9
                   ediff=1e-8,
10
                   nsw=1)
11
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
12
         print 'Elapsed time = {0} seconds'.format(calc.get_elapsed_time())
14
         f, m = calc.get_vibrational modes(0)
15
         allfreq = calc.get_vibrational_modes()[0]
16
17
     from ase.units import meV
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-190.py).

```
Elapsed time = 77121.015 seconds
For mode 0:
vibrational energy = 0.063537929 eV
vibrational energy = 63.537929 meV
vibrational freq = 1.53634035507e+13 1/s
vibrational freq = 512.113451691 cm^{-1}
```

All energies = [0.0635379289999999, 0.045628623, 0.045628623, 0.023701702, 0.023701702, 0.02322374

Note that now there are 39 modes, which is 3*N where N=13 atoms in the unit cell. Many of the modes are low in frequency, which correspond to slab modes that are essentially phonons. The O frequencies are not that different from the previous calculation (497 vs 512 cm⁻¹. This is why it is common to keep the slab atoms frozen.

Calculating these results took 39*2 finite differences. It took about a day to get these results on a single CPU. It pays to use constraints to minimize the number of these calculations.

```
print 77000 / 3600.0
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-191.py).

21.388888889

5.9.1 Vibrations of the bridge site

Here we consider the vibrations of an O atom in a bridge site, which we saw earlier is a metastable saddle point.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
 2
 3
     # clone calculation so we do not overwrite previous results
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-bridge-xy-constrained') as calc:
         calc.clone('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-bridge-vib')
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-bridge-vib') as calc:
         calc.set(ibrion=5, # finite differences with selective dynamics
9
                             # central differences (default)
                  nfree=2,
10
                  potim=0.015, # default as well
11
                  ediff=1e-8,
                  nsw=1)
13
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
14
15
         del atoms.constraints
         constraint = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.symbol != '0' for atom in atoms])
16
         atoms.set_constraint([constraint])
17
18
         f, v = calc.get_vibrational_modes(2)
20
         print calc.get_vibrational_modes()[0]
21
    from ase.units import meV
22
     c = 3e10
23
     h = 4.135667516e-15 # eV*s
```

```
25
26 print 'vibrational energy = {0} eV'.format(f)
27 print 'vibrational energy = {0} meV'.format(f/meV)
28 print 'vibrational freq = {0} 1/s'.format(f/h)
29 print 'vibrational freq = {0} cm^(-1)'.format(f/(h*c))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-192.py).

```
[0.06691932, 0.047345270999999994, (0.020649715000000003+0j)] vibrational energy = (0.020649715+0j) eV vibrational energy = (20.649715+0j) meV vibrational freq = (4.99307909065e+12+0j) 1/s vibrational freq = (166.435969688+0j) cm^(-1)
```

Note that we have one imaginary mode. This corresponds to the motion of the O atom falling into one of the neighboring 3-fold sites. It also indicates this position is not a stable minimum, but rather a saddle point. This position is a transition state for hopping between the fcc and hcp sites.

5.10 Surface Diffusion barrier

See this review⁹² of diffusion on transition metal surfaces.

5.10.1 Standard nudged elastic band method

Here we illustrate a standard NEB method. You need an initial and final state to start with. We will use the results from previous calculations of oxygen atoms in an fcc and hcp site. then we will construct a band of images connecting these two sites. Finally, we let VASP optimize the band and analyze the results to get the barrier.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase.neb import NEB
 3
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
 4
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-0-fcc') as calc:
 5
         initial_atoms = calc.get_atoms()
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-slab-O-hcp') as calc:
 9
         final_atoms = calc.get_atoms()
10
     # here is our estimated transition state. we use vector geometry to
11
     # define the bridge position, and add 1.451 Ang to z based on our
12
     \# previous bridge calculation. The bridge position is half way between
13
     # atoms 9 and 10.
15
     ts = initial_atoms.copy()
     ts.positions[-1] = 0.5 * (ts.positions[9] + ts.positions[10]) + [0, 0, 1.451]
16
17
     # construct the band
18
     images = [initial_atoms]
     images += [initial_atoms.copy()]
     images += [ts.copy()] # this is the TS
22
     neb = NEB(images)
23
     # Interpolate linearly the positions of these images:
24
     neb.interpolate()
25
     # now add the second half
     images2 = [ts.copy()]
images2 += [ts.copy()]
28
29
     images2 += [final_atoms]
30
31
     neb2 = NEB(images2)
32
     neb2.interpolate()
34
     # collect final band. Note we do not repeat the TS in the second half
35
     final images = images + images2[1:]
36
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-O-fcc-hcp-neb',
```

```
ibrion=1,
40
               nsw=90.
                spring=-5,
41
                atoms=final_images) as calc:
42
45
             images, energies = calc.get_neb()
                = calc.plot_neb(show=False)
46
47
                remember you are in surfaces/Pt-O-fcc-hcp-neb, so to save in
48
                the images directory you need ../../ in the path to get you
49
             plt.savefig('../../images/pt-o-fcc-hcp-neb.png')
         except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
52
53
             pass
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-193.py).

Optimization terminated successfully.

Current function value: -0.575224

Iterations: 12

Function evaluations: 24

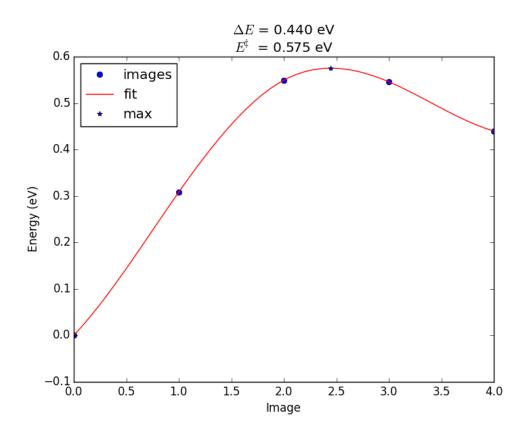


Figure 81: Energy pathway for O diffusion from an fcc to hcp site with a spline fit to determine the barrier.

We should compare this barrier to what we could estimate from the simple adsorption energies in the fcc and bridge sites. The adsorption energy in the fcc site was -1.04 eV, and in the bridge site was -0.49 eV. The difference between these two is 0.55 eV, which is very close to the calculated barrier from the NEB calculation. In cases where you can determine what the transition state is, e.g. by symmetry,

or other means, it is much faster to directly compute the energy of the initial and transition states for barrier determinations. This is not usually possible though.

5.10.2 Climbing image NEB

One issue with the standard NEB method is there is no image that is exactly at the transition state. That means there is some uncertainty of the true energy of the transition state, and there is no way to verify the transition state by vibrational analysis. The climbing image NEB method ⁹³ solves that problem by making one image climb to the top. You set LCLIMB==True= in jasp to turn on the climbing image method. Here we use the previous calculation as a starting point and turn on the climbing image method.

```
# perform a climbing image NEB calculation
2
    from jasp import *
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-O-fcc-hcp-neb') as calc:
3
         calc.clone('surfaces/Pt-O-fcc-hcp-cineb')
     with jasp('surfaces/Pt-O-fcc-hcp-cineb',
               debug=logging.DEBUG) as calc:
         calc.set(ichain=0, lclimb=True)
        images, energies = calc.get neb()
10
        calc.plot neb(show=False)
11
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
12
    plt.savefig('images/pt-o-cineb.svg')
     plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-194.py).

```
Optimization terminated successfully.

Current function value: -46.519590
Iterations: 12
Function evaluations: 24

Climbing image NEB.
[width=.9]./images/pt-o-cineb
```

5.10.3 Using vibrations to confirm a transition state

A transition state should have exactly one imaginary degree of freedom which corresponds to the mode that takes reactants to products. See Vibrations of the bridge site for an example.

5.11 **TODO** Diffusion rates with transition state theory

5.12 **TODO** Effects of electric fields on adsorbates

Electric fields can polarize adsorbates, i.e. shift their electron density around, which changes their stability. We can model this to some extent in VASP. We have to set the EFIELD parameter to specify the field strength (in V/Å), and LDIPOL to True, and finally specify which lattice vector the field should be applied to with IDIPOL. Usually, IDIPOL will be set to 3 for surfaces so it points in the direction of the third lattice vector, which is conventionally in the z-direction and normal to the surface.

We will illustrate the effect using an example from 94 for the effect of electric field on the adsorption energy of a CO molecule on Pt(111) at 0.25 ML. For simplicity, we will use a frozen slab, with the CO molecule in the geometry reported in that reference.

```
from jasp import *
from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111

atoms = fcc111('Pt', size=(2, 2, 4), vacuum=10.0, a=3.986)
```

```
{\tt atoms.append(Atom('C'), [atoms[12].x, atoms[12].y, atoms[12].z + 1.851]))}
     atoms.append(Atom('0', [atoms[-1].x, atoms[-1].y, atoms[-1].z + 1.157]))
6
     for field in [-0.5, 0.0, 0.5]:
          with jasp('surfaces/Pt-co-field-{0}'.format(field),
                      xc='PBE'
10
                      encut=350.
11
12
                      kpts=(6, 6, 1),
                      dipol=3, # set the field

tipol=True, # turn dipole correction on

idipol=3, # set field in z-direction
13
14
15
                      atoms=atoms) as calc:
17
                   print '{0}: {1:1.3f}'.format(field, atoms.get_potential_energy())
18
19
               except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
20
                   pass
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-195.py).

```
0.0: -108.077
```

These energies are crazy different, and the forces on the atoms with the field on are insanely high. This section is on hold until I figure that out.

5.13 **TODO** Simulating STM images

this link seems to be nonexistent now: http://cst-www.nrl.navy.mil/users/sullivan/stm_backup/stm2.html

```
see http://vaspnotes.blogspot.com/2013/09/simulated-stm.html adapted from https://wiki.fysik.dtu.dk/gpaw/tutorials/stm/stm.html jasp needs this function for STM to work: get_pseudo_wave_function
```

```
from jasp import *
     from ase.dft.stm import STM
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
     with jasp('surfaces/Al-slab-relaxed') as calc:
         atoms = calc.get_atoms()
         stm = STM(atoms)
9
10
         bias = 1.0
12
         c = stm.get_averaged_current(bias, z)
13
         x, y, h = stm.scan(bias, c, repeat=(3, 5))
14
15
         plt.gca(aspect='equal')
         plt.contourf(x, y, h, 40)
         plt.hot()
18
         plt.colorbar()
19
20
         plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-196.py).

6 Atomistic thermodynamics

Let us consider how much the Gibbs free energy of an O_2 molecule changes as a function of temperature, at 1 atm. We use the Shomate polynomials to approximate the temperature dependent entropy and enthalpy, and use the parameters from the NIST Webbook for O_2 .

```
1 from ase.units import *
2 K = 1.0
```

```
print J, mol, K
5
    print 0.100 * kJ / mol / K
6
    print 1 * eV / (kJ / mol)
         Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-197.py).
    6.24150636309e+18 6.0221367e+23 1.0
    0.00103642721413
    96.485308989
    import numpy as np
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
3
    from ase.units import \ast
4
   K = 1. # Kelvin not defined in ase.units!
5
   # Shomate parameters
6
   A = 31.32234; B = -20.23531; C = 57.86644
D = -36.50624; E = -0.007374; F = -8.903471
    G = 246.7945; H = 0.0
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-198.py).

10 11

12

 $\frac{13}{14}$

23 24

25 26

29 30

31 32

35 36 def entropy(T):

def enthalpy(T):

plt.plot(T, G)

return h * kJ / mol
T = np.linspace(10, 700)

G = enthalpy(T) - T * entropy(T)

plt.xlabel('Temperature (K)')
plt.ylabel(r'\$\Delta G^\circ\$ (eV)')

plt.savefig('images/02-mu.png')

'''entropy returned as eV/K

t = T / 1000. s = (A * np.log(t) + B * t + C * (t**2) / 2. + D * (t**3) / 3. - E / (2. * t**2) + G) return s * J / mol / K

''' H - H(298.15) returned as eV/molecule'''
t = T / 1000.

h = (A * t + B * (t**2) / 2. + C * (t**3) / 3. + D * (t**4) / 4. - E / t + F - H)

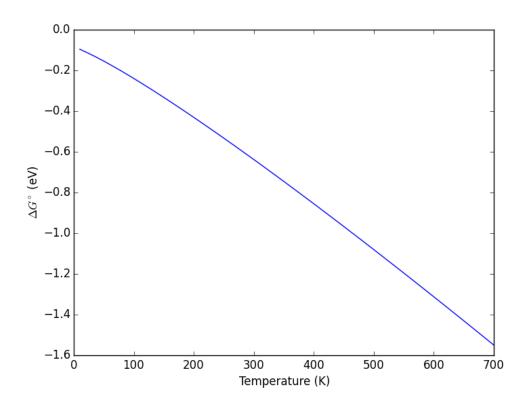


Figure 82: Effect of temperature on the Gibbs free energy of an O_2 molecule at standard state (1 atm).

This is clearly a big effect! Between 500-600K, the energy has dropped by nearly 1 eV.

Pressure also affects the free energy. In the ideal gas limit, the pressure changes the free energy by $kT \ln P/P_0$ where P_0 is the standard state pressure (1 atm or 1 bar depending on the convention chosen). Let us see how this affects the free energy at different temperatures.

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
    import numpy as np
2
    from ase.units import *
3
    atm = 101325 * Pascal #atm is not defined in units
6
    K = 1 \# Kelvin
    # examine range over 10^-10 to 10^10 atm
9
    P = np.logspace(-10, 10) * atm
10
    12
    plt.xlabel('Pressure (atm)')
13
    plt.ylabel(r'$\Delta G$ (eV)')
14
    plt.legend(loc='best')
15
    plt.savefig('images/02-g-p.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-199.py).

None

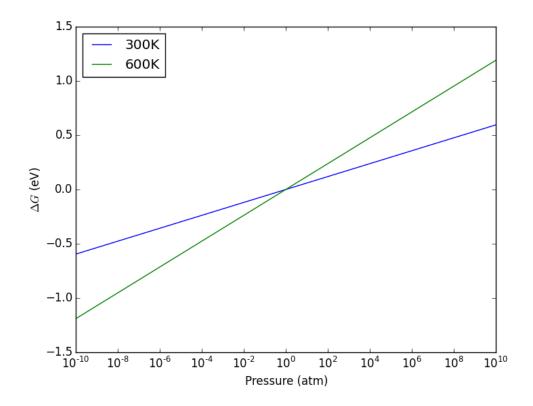


Figure 83: Effects of pressure on the ideal gas Gibbs free energy of O_2 .

Similarly, you can see that simply changing the pressure has a large effect on the Gibbs free energy of an ideal gas through the term: $kT \ln(P/P_0)$, and that this effect is also temperature dependent. This leads us to the final formula we will use for the chemical potential of oxgyen:

$$\mu_{O_2} = E_{O_2}^{DTT} + E_{O_2}^{DTE} + \Delta\mu(T) + kT \ln(P/P_0)$$

 $\mu_{O_2} = E_{O_2}^{DFT} + E_{O_2}^{ZPE} + \Delta \mu(T) + kT \ln(P/P_0)$ We can use μ_{O_2} in place of E_{O_2} everywhere to include the effects of pressure and temperature on the gas phase energy. If T=0K, and P=1 bar, we are at standard state, and this equation reduces to the DFT energy (+ the ZPE).

Bulk phase stability of oxides 6.1

We will consider the effects of oxygen pressure and temperature on the formation energy of Ag₂O and Cu₂O. For now, we neglect the effect of pressure and temperature on the solid phases. Neglecting pressure is pretty reasonable, as the solids are not that compressible, and we do not expect the energy to change for small pressures. For neglecting the temperature, we assume that the temperature dependence of the oxide is similar to the temperature dependence of the metal, and that these dependencies practically cancel each other in the calculations. That is an assumption, and it may not be correct.

$$2Cu + 1/2O_2 \rightarrow Cu_2O$$

In atomistic thermodynamics, we define the free energy of formation as:

$$G_f = G_{Cu_2O} - 2G_{Cu} - 0.5G_{O_2}$$

We will at this point assume that the solids are incompressible so that $p\Delta V \approx 0$, and that S_{Cu_2O} $2S_{Cu} \approx 0$, which leads to $G_{Cu_2O} - 2G_{Cu} \approx E_{Cu_2O} - 2E_{Cu}$, which we directly compute from DFT. We express $G_{O_2} = \mu_{O_2} = E_{O_2}^{DFT} + E_{O_2}^{ZPE} + \Delta\mu(T) + kT\ln(P/P_0)$. In this example we neglect the zero-point energy of the oxygen molecule, and finally arrive at:

$$G_f \approx E_{Cu_2O} - 2E_{Cu} - 0.5(E_{O_2}^{DFT} + \Delta \mu(T) + kT \ln(P/P_0))$$

```
Which, after grouping terms is:
     G_f \approx E_{Cu_2O} - 2E_{Cu} - 0.5(E_{O_2}^{DFT}) - 0.5 * \Delta \mu_{O_2}(P,T) with \Delta \mu_{O_2}(P,T) = \Delta \mu(T) + kT \ln(P/P_0). We get \Delta \mu(T) from the Janaf Tables, or the NIST
Webbook.
         we
         \quad \text{are} \quad
         ex-
         plic-
        itly
         ne-
         glect-
        ing
        all
         \quad \text{en-} \quad
         tropies
         of
         \quad \text{the} \quad
         solid:
         con-
         fig-
         u-
         ra-
         tional,
         vi-
         bra-
         tional
         and
         elec-
         {\rm tronic}
         we
         also
         ne-
         glect
         \quad \text{en-} \quad
         thalpic
         con-
         {\operatorname{tri}}-
         bu-
         tions
         from
         tem-
         per-
        a-
         ture
         de-
```

pendent dent electronic and vibrational states

You will recognize in this equation the standard formation energy we calculated in Metal oxide oxidation energies plus a correction for the non standard state pressure and temperature $(\Delta \mu_{O_2}(P,T) = 0$ at standard state).

```
G_f \approx H_f - 0.5 * \Delta \mu_{O_2}(P, T)
```

The formation energy of Cu_2O is -1.9521 eV/formula unit. The formation energy for Ag_2O is -0.99 eV/formula unit. Let us consider what temperature the oxides decompose at a fixed oxygen pressure of 1×10^{-10} atm. We need to find the temperature where:

$$H_f = 0.5 * \Delta \mu_{O_2}(P,T)$$

which will make the formation energy be 0.

```
import numpy as np import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
      from ase.units import *
      from scipy.optimize import fsolve
     K = 1. #not defined in ase.units!
atm = 101325 * Pascal
      # Shomate parameters valid from 100-700K
      A = 31.32234; B = -20.23531; C = 57.86644
D = -36.50624; E = -0.007374; F = -8.903471
      G = 246.7945; H = 0.0
13
14
15
      def entropy(T):
16
           '''entropy returned as eV/K
18
           t = T/1000.
19
           s = (A * np.log(t) + B * t + C * (t**2) / 2.
+ D * (t**3) / 3. - E / (2. * t**2) + G)
return s * J / mol / K
20
21
22
25
      def enthalpy(T):
           ''' H - H(298.15) returned as eV/molecule''' t = T / 1000.
26
27
           h = (A * t + B * (t**2) / 2. + C * (t**3) / 3.
28
                 + D * (t**4) / 4. - E / t + F - H)
           \texttt{return} \ \texttt{h} \ * \ \texttt{kJ} \ / \ \texttt{mol}
31
32
      def DeltaMu(T, P):
33
34
           returns delta chemical potential of oxygen at T and P
35
37
           P in atm
38
           return enthalpy(T) - T * entropy(T) + kB * T * np.log(P / atm)
39
40
      P = 1e-10*atm
41
43
44
      def func(T):
45
            'Cu20'
           return -1.95 - 0.5*DeltaMu(T, P)
46
47
     print 'Cu20 decomposition temperature is {0:1.0f} K'.format(fsolve(func,
49
                                                                                         900)[0])
50
      def func(T):
51
52
           return -0.99 - 0.5 * DeltaMu(T, P)
53
      print 'Ag20 decomposition temperature is {0:1.0f} K'.format(fsolve(func,
```

```
56
57
                                                                                                          470)[0])
58
       T = np.linspace(100, 1000)
59
       # Here we plot delta mu as a function of temperature at different pressures
60
       # you have use \ to escape the first \ in pyplot
       plt.plot(T, DeltaMu(T, 1e10*atm), label=r'1$\times 10^{{10}} atm')
plt.plot(T, DeltaMu(T, 1e5*atm), label=r'1$\times 10^5$ atm')
plt.plot(T, DeltaMu(T, 1*atm), label='1 atm')
plt.plot(T, DeltaMu(T, 1e-5*atm), label=r'1$\times 10^{{-5}} atm')
63
64
65
       plt.plot(T, DeltaMu(T, 1e-10*atm), label=r'1$\times 10^{-10}$ atm')
66
       plt.xlabel('Temperature (K)')
68
       plt.ylabel(r'$\Delta \mu_{0_2}(T,p)$ (eV)')
plt.legend(loc='best')
69
70
       plt.savefig('images/02-mu-diff-p.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-200.py).

```
Cu20 decomposition temperature is 917 K Ag20 decomposition temperature is 478 K \,
```

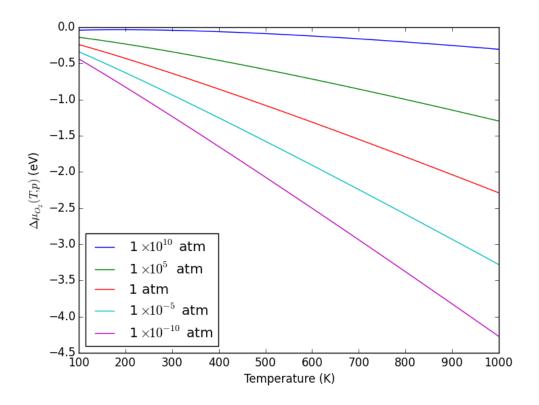


Figure 84: $\Delta \mu_{O_2}(T,p)$ at different pressures and temperatures.

Now, let us make a phase diagram that shows the boundary between silver oxide, and silver metal in P and T space.

```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from ase.units import *
from scipy.optimize import fsolve
```

```
K = 1. #not defined in ase.units!
 6
      atm = 101325*Pascal
     # Shomate parameters valid from 100-700K
A = 31.32234; B = -20.23531; C = 57.86644
D = -36.50624; E = -0.007374; F = -8.903471
G = 246.7945; H = 0.0
10
11
12
13
14
15
      def entropy(T):
            '''entropy returned as eV/K
           T in K
17
18
          t = T/1000.
19
          s = (A*np.log(t) + B*t + C*(t**2)/2.
20
21
                 + D*(t**3)/3. - E/(2.*t**2) + G)
           {\tt return \ s*J/mol/K}
23
24
      def enthalpy(T):
25
            ''' H - H(298.15) returned as eV/molecule'''
26
27
           t = T/1000.
           h = (A*t + B*(t**2)/2. + C*(t**3)/3.
               + D*(t**4)/4. - E/t + F - H)
29
           return h*kJ/mol
30
31
32
      def DeltaMu(T, P):
33
         T in K
P in atm
36
37
          return enthalpy(T) - T * entropy(T) + kB * T * np.log(P / atm)
38
39
     P = np.logspace(-11, 1, 10) * atm
T = []
40
42
      for p in P:
43
           def func(T):
44
              return -0.99 - 0.5 * DeltaMu(T, p)
45
           T.append(fsolve(func, 450)[0])
46
      {\tt plt.semilogy(T,\ P\ /\ atm)}
48
     plt.semilogy(1, P / atm)
plt.xlabel('Temperature (K)')
plt.ylabel('Pressure (atm)')
plt.text(800, 1e-7, 'Ag')
plt.text(600, 1e-3, 'Ag$_2$0')
49
50
51
      plt.savefig('images/Ag20-decomposition.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-201.py).

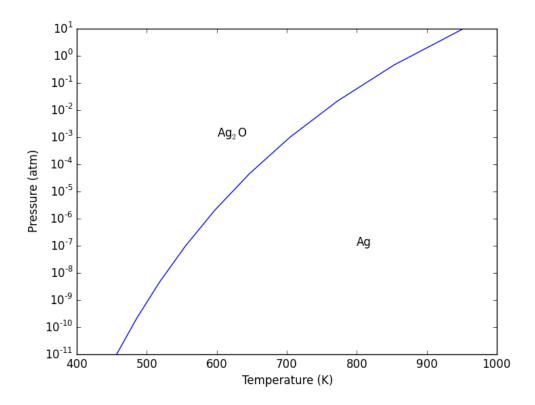


Figure 85: Temperature dependent decomposition pressure for ${\rm Ag_2O.}$

This shows that at high temperature and low p_{O_2} metallic silver is stable, but if the p_{O_2} gets high enough, the oxide becomes thermodynamically favorable. Here is another way to look at it.

```
import numpy as np
      import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
2
     from ase.units import *
3
               # not defined in ase.units!
     atm = 101325*Pascal
     Hf = -0.99
     P = 1 * atm
9
10
     Dmu = np.linspace(-4, 0)
11
12
     Hf = -0.99 - 0.5*Dmu
14
     plt.plot(Dmu, Hf, label='Ag$_2$0')
plt.plot(Dmu, np.zeros(Hf.shape), label='Ag')
plt.xlabel(r'$\Delta \mu_{0_2}$ (eV)')
15
16
17
     plt.ylabel('$H_f$ (eV)')
     plt.savefig('images/atomistic-thermo-hf-mu.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-202.py).

None

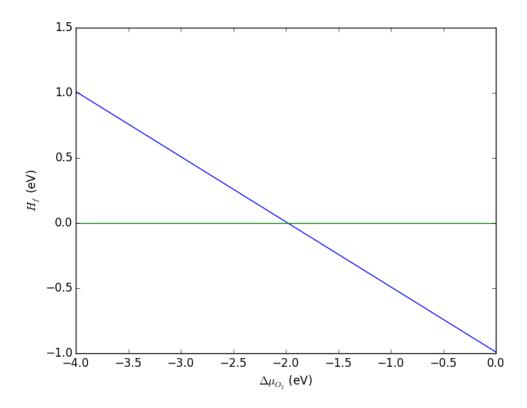


Figure 86: Dependence of the formation energy on the oxygen chemical potential.

This graph shows graphically the $\Delta\mu_{O_2}$ required to make the metal more stable than the oxide. Anything less than about -2 eV will have the metal more stable. That can be achieved by any one of the following combinations (graphically estimated from Figure 84): About 500K at 1×10^{-10} atm, 600K at 1×10^{-5} atm, 900K at 1atm, etc. . .

6.2 Effect on adsorption

We now consider the question: Given a pressure and temperature, what coverage would you expect on a surface? We saw earlier that adsorption energies depend on the site and coverage. We lso know the coverage depends on the pressure and temperature. Above some temperature, desorption occurs, and below some pressure adsorption will not be favorable. We seek to develop a quantitative method to determine those conditions.

We redefine the adsorption energy as:

$$\Delta G_{ads} \approx E_{slab,ads} - E_{slab} - \mu_{ads}$$

where again we neglect all contributions to the free energy of the slabs from vibrational energy and entropy, as well as configurational entropy if that is relevant. That leaves only the pressure and temperature dependence of the adsorbate, which we treat in the ideal gas limit.

```
We expand \mu_{ads} as E_{ads} + \Delta \mu(T, p), and thus:

\Delta G_{ads} \approx E_{slab,ads} - E_{slab} - E_{ads} - \Delta \mu(T, p) or

\Delta G_{ads} \approx \Delta H_{ads} - \Delta \mu(T, p)
```

where ΔH_{ads} is the adsorption energy we defined earlier. Now we can examine the effect of $\Delta \mu(T,p)$ on the adsorption energies. We will use the adsorption energies for the oxygen on Pt(111) system we computed earlier:

Table 6: Adsorption site dependence of adsorption energies of oxygen on Pt(111).

system	$\Delta H(eV/O)$
fcc (0.25 ML)	-1.04
hcp (0.25 ML)	-0.60
bridge (0.25 ML)	-0.49
fcc(1ML)	-0.10

```
import numpy as np import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
          fcc25 = -1.04
hcp25 = -0.60
bridge25 = -0.49
fcc1 = -0.10
 4
 6
           Dmu = np.linspace(-4, 2)
10
          plt.plot(Dmu, np.zeros(Dmu.shape), label='Pt(111)')
plt.plot(Dmu, 0.25 * (fcc25 - 0.5*Dmu), label='fcc - 0.25 ML')
plt.plot(Dmu, 0.25 * (hcp25 - 0.5*Dmu), label='hcp - 0.25 ML')
plt.plot(Dmu, 0.25 * (bridge25 - 0.5*Dmu), label='bridge - 0.25 ML')
plt.plot(Dmu, 1.0 * (fcc1 - 0.5*Dmu), label='fcc - 1.0 ML')
11
12
13
14
          plt.xlabel(r'$\Delta \mu 0_2$ (eV)')
plt.ylabel(r'$\Delta G_{ads}$ (eV/0)')
plt.legend(loc='best')
17
19
          plt.savefig('images/atomistic-thermo-adsorption.png')
20
          plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-203.py).

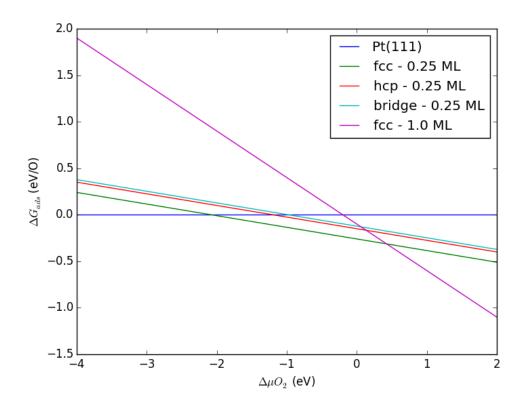


Figure 87: Effect of oxygen chemical potential on the adsorption energy.

6.3 Atomistic therodynamics and multiple reactions

 ${\rm In^{82}}$ we considered multiple reactions in an atomistic thermodynamic framework. Let us consider these three reactions of dissociative adsorption of hydrogen and hydrogen disulfide, and consider how to compute the reaction energy for the third reaction.

1. $H_{2}+$ $2* \leftrightharpoons 2H*$ 2. $H_{2}S+$ $2* \leftrightharpoons H*$ +SH*3. SH* $+* \leftrightharpoons S*$

+H*

The reaction energy of interest is $E_{rxn} = \mu_{S*} + \mu H * - \mu SH *$ The question is, what are these chemical potentials? We would like them in terms of pressures and temperature, preferrably of molecules that

can be approximated as ideal gases. By equilibrium arguments we can say that $\mu_{H*} = \frac{1}{2}\mu_{H_2}$. It follows that at equilibrium:

```
\mu_{H*} + \mu_{SH*} = \mu_{H_2S} and \mu_{H*} + \mu_{S*} = \mu_{SH*}. From the first equation we have: \mu_{SH*} = \mu_{H_2S} - \frac{1}{2}\mu_{H_2} and from the second equation we have: \mu_{S*} = \mu_{SH*} - \mu_{H*} = \mu_{H_2S} - \mu_{H_2}.
```

Thus, the chemical potentials of all these three adsorbed species depend on the chemical potentials of two gas-phase species. The chemical potentials of each of these gases can be defined as:

 $\mu_{gas}(T,p) = E_{gas}(0K) + \delta\mu + kT\ln(p/p^0)$, as we have defined before, so that only simple DFT calculations are needed to estimate them.

7 Advanced electronic structure methods

7.1 DFT+U

VASP manual on DFT+U

It can be difficult to find the lowest energy solutions with DFT+U. Some strategies for improving this are discussed in. 95

7.1.1 Metal oxide oxidation energies with DFT+U

We will reconsider here the reaction (see Metal oxide oxidation energies) 2 Cu₂O + O₂ \rightleftharpoons 4 CuO. We need to compute the energy of each species, now with DFT+U. In ⁵⁵ they use a U parameter of 4 eV for Cu which gave the best agreement with the experimental value. We will also try that.

Cu₂O calculation with U=4.0

```
from jasp import *
      from ase import Atom, Atoms
3
      with jasp('bulk/Cu20') as calc:
4
             calc.clone('bulk/Cu20-U=4.0')
6
      with jasp('bulk/Cu20-U=4.0') as calc:
            calc.set(ldau=True, # turn DFT+U on
ldautype=2, # select simplified rotationally invariant option
ldau_luj={'Cu':{'L':2, 'U':4.0, 'J':0.0},
'0':{'L':-1, 'U':0.0, 'J':0.0}},
10
11
                         ldauprint=1,
ibrion=-1, #do not rerelax
12
13
                         nsw=0)
             calc.calculate()
16
            print calc
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-204.py).

```
Unit cell volume = 77.854 Ang^3
 Stress (GPa):xx,
                  yy, zz,
                               yz,
           sym
 Atom#
               position [x,y,z]
                                      tag rmsForce constraints
                 0.000
                                          0.00
       Cu [0.000
                               0.000]
                                                    TTT
  0
                                      Ω
       Cu [2.135
  1
                    2.135
                               0.000]
                                      0 0.00
                                                    TTT
                   0.000
                              2.135] 0 0.00
                                                    TTT
  2
       Cu [2.135
  3
       Cu [0.000
                   2.135
                              2.135]
                                      0 0.00
                                                    TTT
  4
      0 [1.067
                    1.067
                              1.067]
                                      0 0.00
                                                    TTT
       0 [3.202
                                      0 0.00
                    3.202
                              3.202]
                                                    TTT
  5
  _____
INCAR Parameters:
-----
       nbands: 37
         nsw: 0
       ibrion: -1
     ldautype: 2
         isif: 3
    ldauprint: 1
        encut: 400.0
        ldau: True
       magmom: None
        ldaul: [-1.0, 2.0]
        ldauj: [0.0, 0.0]
        ldauu: [0.0, 4.0]
     ldau_luj: {'0': {'J': 0.0, 'U': 0.0, 'L': -1}, 'Cu': {'J': 0.0,
               'U': 4.0, 'L': 2}}
         prec: Normal
         kpts: [8, 8, 8]
   reciprocal: False
          xc: PBE
          txt: -
        gamma: False
Pseudopotentials used:
O: potpaw_PBE/O/POTCAR (git-hash: 9a0489b46120b0cad515d935f44b5fbe3a3b1dfa)
Cu: potpaw_PBE/Cu/POTCAR (git-hash: a44c591415026f53deb16a99ca3f06b1e69be10b)
grep -A 3 "LDA+U is selected, type is set to LDAUTYPE" bulk/Cu20-U=4.0/OUTCAR
   Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-205.py).
LDA+U is selected, type is set to LDAUTYPE =
 angular momentum for each species LDAUL =
 U (eV)
                 for each species LDAUU =
                                         0.0 4.0
 J (eV)
                 for each species LDAUJ =
                                         0.0 0.0
```

CuO calculation with U=4.0

from jasp import *
from ase import Atom, Atoms

```
with jasp('bulk/Cu0') as calc:
       calc.clone('bulk/Cu0-U=4.0')
   with jasp('bulk/CuO-U=4.0') as calc:
      calc.set(ldau=True, # turn DFT+U on
ldautype=2, # select simplified rotationally invariant option
ldau_luj={'Cu':{'L':2, 'U':4.0, 'J':0.0},
'0':{'L':-1, 'U':0.0, 'J':0.0}},
10
11
              ldauprint=1,
12
13
              ibrion=-1, #do not rerelax
              nsw=0)
15
       calc.calculate()
       print calc
       Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-206.py).
      VASP calculation from /home/jkitchin/dft-org/bulk/CuO-U=4.0
      converged: True
      Energy = -16.870130 \text{ eV}
      Unit cell vectors (angstroms)
                           Z
                                     length
                 У
      a0 [ 2.302 -1.776 0.046] 2.908
      a1 [ 2.302 1.776 0.046] 2.908
      a2 [-0.762 0.000 5.087] 5.144
      a,b,c,alpha,beta,gamma (deg): 2.908 2.908 5.144 95.8 95.8 95.8
      Unit cell volume = 41.730 Ang^3
      Stress (GPa):xx,
                                  zz,
                         уу,
                                            yz,
                                                   ΧZ,
                  0.030 0.018 0.027 -0.000 -0.007 -0.000
     Atom#
                       position [x,y,z]
                                                     tag rmsForce constraints
            sym
                              0.888
                                            0.023]
                                                           0.00
       0
             Cu [1.151
                                                                       TTT
             Cu [0.770
                              -0.888
                                            2.566]
                                                         0.00
                                                                       TTT
       1
                                                      0
                                                                       T T T
       2
             0
                 [2.111]
                              -0.168
                                            1.318]
                                                         0.04
                                                      0
                                                     0 0.04
       3
             0
                 [1.730
                              0.168
                                            3.861]
                                                                       TTT
   INCAR Parameters:
            nbands: 23
                nsw: 0
             ibrion: -1
          ldautype: 2
               isif: 3
         ldauprint: 1
              encut: 400.0
               ldau: True
             magmom: None
              ldaul: [-1.0, 2.0]
              ldauj: [0.0, 0.0]
              ldauu: [0.0, 4.0]
          ldau_luj: {'0': {'J': 0.0, 'U': 0.0, 'L': -1}, 'Cu': {'J': 0.0,
                       'U': 4.0, 'L': 2}}
               prec: Normal
```

kpts: [8, 8, 8]

reciprocal: False

```
xc: PBE
txt: -
gamma: False

Pseudopotentials used:
------
0: potpaw_PBE/O/POTCAR (git-hash: 9a0489b46120b0cad515d935f44b5fbe3a3b1dfa)
Cu: potpaw_PBE/Cu/POTCAR (git-hash: a44c591415026f53deb16a99ca3f06b1e69be10b)
```

Reaction energy calculation with DFT+U

```
from jasp import *
 2
      # don't forget to normalize your total energy to a formula unit. Cu20 # has 3 atoms, so the number of formula units in an atoms is
 3
 4
       with jasp('bulk/Cu20-U=4.0') as calc:
            atoms = calc.get_atoms()
            cu2o_energy = atoms.get_potential_energy()/(len(atoms)/3)
 9
      with jasp('bulk/Cu0-U=4.0') as calc:
10
11
            atoms = calc.get_atoms()
            cuo_energy = atoms.get_potential_energy()/(len(atoms)/2)
13
14
       \mbox{\it \# make sure to use the same cutoff energy for the O2 molecule!}
      with jasp('molecules/02-sp-triplet-400') as calc:
15
            atoms = calc.get_atoms()
16
            o2_energy = atoms.get_potential_energy()
17
18
      rxn_energy = 4.0*cuo_energy - o2_energy - 2.0*cu2o_energy
print 'Reaction energy = {0} eV'.format(rxn_energy)
print 'Corrected energy = {0} eV'.format(rxn_energy - 1.36)
20
21
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-207.py).

```
Reaction energy = -1.663819 eV
Corrected energy = -3.023819 eV
```

This is still not in quantitative agreement with the result in, 55 which at U=4 eV is about -3.14 eV (estimated from a graph). We have not applied the O_2 correction here yet. In that paper, they apply a constant shift of -1.36 eV per O_2 . After we apply that correction, we agree within 0.12 eV, which is pretty good considering we have not checked for convergence.

How much does U affect the reaction energy? It is reasonable to consider how sensitive our results are to the U parameter. We do that here.

```
from jasp import *
    for U in [2.0, 4.0, 6.0]:
        with jasp('bulk/Cu20') as calc:
4
            calc.clone('bulk/Cu20-U={0}'.format(U))
5
        with jasp('bulk/Cu20-U={0}'.format(U)) as calc:
            calc.set(ldau=True, # turn DFT+U on
ldautype=2, # select simplified rotationally invariant option
9
                    ldau_luj={'Cu':{'L':2, 'U':U, 'J':0.0},
'0':{'L':-1, 'U':0.0, 'J':0.0}},
10
11
                   ldauprint=1,
12
                   ibrion=-1, #do not rerelax
13
14
            atoms = calc.get_atoms()
16
            cu2o_energy = atoms.get_potential_energy()/(len(atoms)/3)
17
        18
        with jasp('bulk/Cu0') as calc:
19
            calc.clone('bulk/CuO-U={0}'.format(U))
```

```
21
          with jasp('bulk/CuO-U={0}'.format(U)) as calc:
22
              calc.set(ldau=True, # turn DFT+U on
    ldautype=2, # select simplified rotationally invariant option
23
24
                        ldauprint=1,
28
                       ibrion=-1, #do not rerelax
                       nsw=0)
29
              atoms = calc.get_atoms()
30
              cuo_energy = atoms.get_potential_energy()/(len(atoms)/2)
31
33
          # make sure to use the same cutoff energy for the O2 molecule!
with jasp('molecules/02-sp-triplet-400') as calc:
34
35
              atoms = calc.get_atoms()
36
              o2_energy = atoms.get_potential_energy()
37
          rxn_energy = 4.0*cuo_energy - o2_energy - 2.0*cu2o_energy
print 'U = {0} reaction energy = {1}'.format(U,rxn_energy - 1.99)
39
40
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-208.py).

```
U = 2.0 reaction energy = -3.876906

U = 4.0 reaction energy = -3.653819

U = 6.0 reaction energy = -3.397605
```

In,⁵⁵ the difference in reaction energy from U=2 eV to U=4 eV was about 0.5 eV (estimated from graph). Here we see a range of 0.48 eV from U=2 eV to U=4 eV. Note that for U=0 eV, we had a (corrected reaction energy of -3.96 eV). Overall, the effect of adding U decreases this reaction energy.

This example highlights the challenge of using an approach like DFT+U. On one hand, U has a clear effect of changing the reaction energy. On the other hand, so does the correction factor for the $\rm O_2$ binding energy. In 55 the authors tried to get the $\rm O_2$ binding energy correction from oxide calculations where U is not important, so that it is decoupled from the non-cancelling errors that U fixes. See 96 for additional discussion of how to mix GGA and GGA+U results.

In any case, you should be careful to use well converged results to avoid compensating for convergence errors with U.

7.2 Hybrid functionals

7.2.1 FCC Ni DOS

This example is adapted from http://cms.mpi.univie.ac.at/wiki/index.php/FccNi_DOS

```
from jasp import *
     from ase.lattice.cubic import FaceCenteredCubic
     from ase.dft import DOS
     atoms = FaceCenteredCubic(directions=[[0, 1, 1],
                                             [1, 0, 1],
                                             [1, 1, 0]],
                                            size=(1, 1, 1),
                                             symbol='Ni')
     atoms[0].magmom = 1
10
11
     with jasp('bulk/Ni-PBE',
12
                ismear = -5.
13
               kpts=(5, 5, 5),
14
               xc='PBE',
                ispin=2,lorbit=11,
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
         print('PBE energy:
                               ',atoms.get_potential_energy())
18
         dos = DOS(calc, width=0.2)
19
         e pbe = dos.get energies()
20
         d_pbe = dos.get_dos()
         calc.clone('bulk/Ni-PBEO')
```

```
calc.clone('bulk/Ni-HSE06')
24
25
      with jasp('bulk/Ni-PBEO') as calc:
26
             calc.set(lhfcalc=True,
27
                        algo='D',
29
                         time=0.4)
30
             atoms = calc.get_atoms()
            atoms = calc.get_atoms()
print('PBEO energy: ',atoms.get_potential_energy())
dos = DOS(calc, width=0.2)
e_pbe0 = dos.get_energies()
d_pbe0 = dos.get_dos()
31
32
33
34
      with jasp('bulk/Ni-HSE06') as calc:
    calc.set(lhfcalc=True,
36
37
                        hfscreen=0.2,
38
             algo='D', time=0.4)
atoms = calc.get_atoms()
39
40
             print('HSE06 energy: ', atoms.get_potential_energy())
             dos = DOS(calc, width=0.2)
42
             e_hse06 = dos.get_energies()
d_hse06 = dos.get_dos()
43
44
45
      import pylab as plt
46
      plt.plot(e_pbe, d_pbe, label='PBE')
      plt.plot(e_pbe0, d_pbe0, label='PBE0')
48
      plt.plot(e_hse06, d_hse06, label='HSE06')
49
      plt.xlabel('energy [eV]')
plt.ylabel('DOS')
plt.legend()
50
51
52
      plt.savefig('images/ni-dos-pbe-pbe0-hse06.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-209.py).

PBE energy: -5.530247 PBEO energy: -6.848931 HSEO6 energy: -6.293369

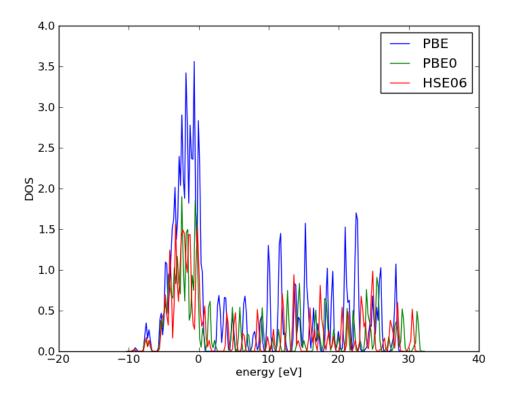


Figure 88: Comparison of DOS from GGA, and two hybrid GGAs (PBE0 ad HSE06).

7.3 van der Waals forces

Older versions (5.2.11+) implement DFT+D2⁹⁷ with the LVDW tag.

The vdW-DF 98 is accessed with LUSE_VDW. See http://cms.mpi.univie.ac.at/vasp/vasp/vdW_DF_functional_Langreth_Lundqvist_et_al.html for notes on its usage.

In Vasp 5.3+, the IVDW tag turns van der Waal calculations on.

You should review the links below before using these

IVDW	method
0	no correction
1 or 10	DFT-D2 method of Grimme (available as of VASP.5.2.11)
11	zero damping DFT-D3 method of Grimme (available as of VASP.5.3.4)
12	DFT-D3 method with Becke-Jonson damping (available as of VASP.5.3.4)
2 or 20	Tkatchenko-Scheffler method ⁹⁹ (available as of VASP.5.3.3)

Van der Waal forces can play a considerable role in binding of aromatic molecules to metal surfaces (ref). Here we consider the effects of these forces on the adsorption energy of benzene on an Au(111) surface. First, we consider the regular PBE functional.

7.3.1 PBE

gas-phase benzene

from jasp import *
from ase.structure import molecule

```
benzene = molecule('C6H6')
4
5
    benzene.center(vacuum=5)
6
    with jasp('molecules/benzene-pbe',
               xc='PBE',
               encut=350,
               kpts=(1,1,1),
10
               ibrion=1,
11
               nsw=100,
12
               atoms=benzene) as calc:
13
        print benzene.get_potential_energy()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-210.py).

-76.011625

clean slab

```
# the clean gold slab
     from jasp import *
     from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111, add_adsorbate
    from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
4
    atoms = fcc111('Au', size=(3,3,3), vacuum=10)
     \# now we constrain the slab
     c = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.symbol=='Au' for atom in atoms])
9
10
     atoms.set_constraint(c)
11
     #from ase.visualize import view; view(atoms)
12
13
     with jasp('surfaces/Au-pbe',
15
               xc='PBE',
               encut=350.
16
               kpts=(4.4.1).
17
               ibrion=1,
18
20
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
21
         print atoms.get_potential_energy()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-211.py).

-82.419513

benzene on Au(111)

```
# Benzene on the slab
2
     from jasp import \ast
     from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111, add_adsorbate
3
     from ase.structure import molecule
     from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
     atoms = fcc111('Au', size=(3,3,3), vacuum=10)
benzene = molecule('C6H6')
     {\tt benzene.translate(-benzene.get\_center\_of\_mass())}
9
10
11
     \# I want the benzene centered on the position in the middle of atoms
     # 20, 22, 23 and 25
     p = (atoms.positions[20] +
13
14
           atoms.positions[22] +
15
          atoms.positions[23]
          atoms.positions[25])/4.0 + [0.0, 0.0, 3.05]
16
17
     benzene.translate(p)
18
19
     atoms += benzene
20
     # now we constrain the slab
21
     c = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.symbol=='Au' for atom in atoms])
22
23
     atoms.set_constraint(c)
```

```
25
     #from ase.visualize import view; view(atoms)
26
     with jasp('surfaces/Au-benzene-pbe',
27
               xc='PBE',
28
               encut=350,
               kpts=(4,4,1)
31
               ibrion=1,
32
               nsw=100.
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
33
         print atoms.get_potential_energy()
34
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-212.py).

-158.360082

```
from jasp import *

with jasp('surfaces/Au-benzene-pbe') as calc:
    e1 = calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy()

with jasp('surfaces/Au-pbe') as calc:
    e2 = calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy()

with jasp('molecules/benzene-pbe') as calc:
    e3 = calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy()

print('PBE adsorption energy = {} eV'.format(e1 - e2 - e3))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-213.py).

PBE adsorption energy = 0.071056 eV

This is a very weak energy. It is similar to the result in the reference (0.15 eV), and considerably weaker than the experiment. Next we consider one form of a VDW correction.

7.3.2 DFT-D2

To turn on the van der Waals corrections ⁹⁷ we set LVDW to True.

gas-phase benzene

```
from jasp import *
    from ase.structure import molecule
    benzene = molecule('C6H6')
    benzene.center(vacuum=5)
    with jasp('molecules/benzene-pbe-d2',
               xc='PBE',
               encut=350,
               kpts=(1,1,1),
11
               ibrion=1,
12
               nsw=100,
               lvdw=True.
13
               atoms=benzene) as calc:
14
         print(benzene.get_potential_energy())
15
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-214.py).

-76.157947

clean slab

```
# the clean gold slab
     from jasp import *
from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111, add_adsorbate
2
3
     from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
     atoms = fcc111('Au', size=(3, 3, 3), vacuum=10)
     # now we constrain the slab c = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.symbol=='Au') for atom in atoms])
9
     atoms.set_constraint(c)
10
11
     with jasp('surfaces/Au-pbe-d2',
12
                xc='PBE',
14
                 encut=350,
                 kpts=(4, 4, 1),
15
                 ibrion=1,
16
                nsw=100,
17
                 lvdw=True,
18
                 atoms=atoms) as calc:
20
          print(atoms.get_potential_energy())
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-215.py).

-106.34078774

benzene on Au(111)

```
# Benzene on the slab
     from jasp import \ast
     from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111, add_adsorbate
     from ase.structure import molecule
    from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
     atoms = fcc111('Au', size=(3,3,3), vacuum=10)
     benzene = molecule('C6H6')
9
     benzene.translate(-benzene.get_center_of_mass())
10
     \#\ I want the benzene centered on the position in the middle of atoms
11
     # 20, 22, 23 and 25
12
13
    p = (atoms.positions[20]
          atoms.positions[22]
15
          atoms.positions[23]
          atoms.positions[25])/4.0 + [0.0, 0.0, 3.05]
16
17
     benzene.translate(p)
18
19
21
     \# now we constrain the slab
     c = FixAtoms(mask=[atom.symbol=='Au' for atom in atoms])
22
     atoms.set_constraint(c)
23
24
     #from ase.visualize import view; view(atoms)
     with jasp('surfaces/Au-benzene-pbe-d2',
28
               xc='PBE'
               encut=350.
29
               kpts=(4, 4, 1),
30
               ibrion=1,
31
               nsw=100,
33
               lvdw=True
34
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
         print(atoms.get_potential_energy())
35
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-216.py).

-184.07043811

```
1 from jasp import *
```

```
with jasp('surfaces/Au-benzene-pbe-d2') as calc:
    e1 = calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy()

with jasp('surfaces/Au-pbe-d2') as calc:
    e2 = calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy()

with jasp('molecules/benzene-pbe-d2') as calc:
    e3 = calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy()

rint('Adsorption energy = {0:1.2f} eV'.format(e1 - e2 - e3))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-217.py).

```
Adsorption energy = -1.57 eV
```

That is significantly more favorable. This is much higher than this reference though (0.56 eV), so there could be some issues with convergence or other computational parameters that should be considered.

7.4 Electron localization function

The electron localization function (ELF) can be used to characterize chemical bonds, e.g. their ionicity/covalency. Here we reproduce an example from Ref. 100. We compute and plot the ELF for tetrafluoromethane. The LELF tag turns this on.

```
# compute ELF for CF4
     from jasp import *
     from ase.structure import molecule
     from enthought.mayavi import mlab
6
     atoms = molecule('CF4')
      atoms.center(vacuum=5)
     with jasp('molecules/cf4-elf',
9
10
                  encut=350,
                  prec='high'
11
                  ismear=0,
12
13
                  sigma=0.01,
                  xc='PBE'.
                  lelf=True.
                  atoms=atoms) as calc:
16
          calc.calculate()
17
18
          x, y, z, elf = calc.get_elf()
19
          mlab.contour3d(x, y, z, elf, contours=[0.3])
mlab.savefig('../../images/cf4-elf-3.png')
21
22
          mlab.figure()
23
          mlab.contour3d(x, y, z, elf, contours=[0.75])
mlab.savefig('../../images/cf4-elf-75.png')
24
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-218.py).

None

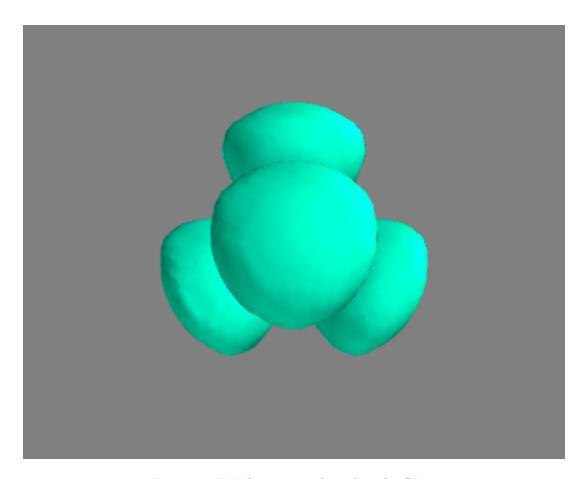


Figure 89: ELF for an isosurface of 0.3 for ${\rm CF_4}.$

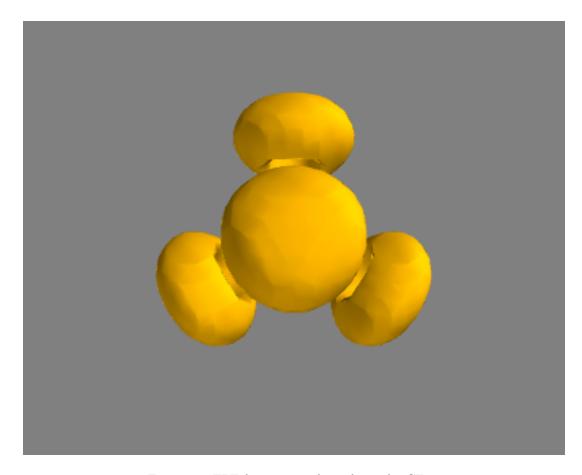


Figure 90: ELF for an isosurface of 0.75 for CF_4 .

These images (Figure 89 and 90) are basically consistent with those in Reference. 100

7.5 **TODO** Charge partitioning schemes

7.6 **TODO** Modeling Core level shifts

We need to setup four calculations. First, we setup the bulk Cu and bulk alloy calculations and let them relax. We use similar unit cells for each one to maximize cancellation of errors.

```
from jasp import *
from ase import Atom, Atoms
       atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu', [0.000, 0.000, Atom('Cu', [-1.652, 0.000, cell= [[0.000, -2.039, 2.039], [0.000, 2.039, 2.039], [-3.303, 0.000, 0.000]])
                                                                                  0.000]),
2.039])],
10
       atoms = atoms.repeat((2, 2, 2))
11
       print atoms[0]
12
       with jasp('bulk/Cu-cls-0',
13
                     xc='PBE',
14
                      encut=350,
15
                      kpts=(4, 4, 4),
17
                     ibrion=2,
18
                      isif=3.
                     nsw=40,
19
                      atoms=atoms) as calc:
20
             print(atoms.get_potential_energy())
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-219.py). Here, we setup the alloy calculation.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
3
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu', [0.000, Atom('Pd', [-1.652,
                                                                0.0001).
                                                   0.000.
4
                                                  0.000,
                                                                2.039])],
5
                     cell= [[0.000, -2.039, 2.039], [0.000, 2.039, 2.039],
                              [-3.303, 0.000, 0.000]])
     atoms = atoms.repeat((2, 2, 2))
10
11
     with jasp('bulk/CuPd-cls-0',
12
                 xc='PBE',
13
                 encut=350,
14
15
                 kpts=(4, 4, 4)
16
                 ibrion=2,
17
                isif=3.
                nsw=40.
18
                 atoms=atoms) as calc:
19
          print(atoms.get_potential_energy())
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-220.py).

```
Atom('Cu', [0.0, 0.0, 0.0], index=0) -73.53338426
```

Next, we have to do the excitation in each structure. For these, we do not relax the structure. We clone the previous results and modify them.

```
from jasp import *
3
    with jasp('bulk/Cu-cls-0') as calc:
4
         calc.clone('bulk/Cu-cls-1')
5
    with jasp('bulk/Cu-cls-1') as calc:
6
        calc.set(ibrion=None,
                  isif=None,
                  nsw=None,
                  setups={'0': 'Cu'}, # Create separate entry in POTCAR for atom index 0
10
11
                  icorelevel=2,
                                       # Perform core level shift calculation
                                       # Excite atom index 0
12
                  clnt=0,
                                       # 2p3/2 electron for Cu core level shift
                  cln=2.
13
                  cll=1,
14
                  clz=1)
        print(calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy())
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-221.py).

-345.05440951

```
from jasp import *
1
    with jasp('bulk/CuPd-cls-0') as calc:
         calc.clone('bulk/CuPd-cls-1')
    with jasp('bulk/CuPd-cls-1') as calc:
6
        calc.set(ibrion=None,
7
                  isif=None,
8
                  nsw=None,
9
10
                  setups={'0': 'Cu'}, # Create separate entry in POTCAR for atom index 0
11
                  icorelevel=2,
                                       # Perform core level shift calculation
                                       # Excite atom index 0
12
                  clnt=0,
                                       \# 2p3/2 electron for Cu core level shift
                  cln=2.
13
                  cll=1,
14
                  clz=1)
15
        print(calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy())
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-222.py).

-359.87250408

Finally we calculate the CLS:

```
from jasp import *
    with jasp('bulk/CuPd-cls-0') as calc:
         alloy_0 = calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy()
    with jasp('bulk/CuPd-cls-1') as calc:
6
        alloy_1 = calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy()
9
    with jasp('bulk/Cu-cls-0') as calc:
10
         ref_0 = calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy()
11
    with jasp('bulk/Cu-cls-1') as calc:
12
        ref_1 = calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy()
13
14
    CLS = (alloy_1 - alloy_0) - (ref_1 - ref_0)
    print('CLS = {} eV'.format(CLS))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-223.py).

```
CLS = -1.2378242 \text{ eV}
```

This is a little negative compared to the literature but that could be due to the highly ordered structure we used.

7.7 The BEEF functional in Vasp

In Vasp 5.3.5 it is possible to use the BEEF functional. 101

In jasp, we just specify gga='BF', and jasp takes care of the rest. This includes setting some additional variables to setup van der Waals and to get the BEEF ensemble energies. Let us consider the dissociation energy of H_2 .

```
from jasp import *
    from ase.structure import molecule
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
    H2 = molecule('H2')
    H2.set_cell([8, 8, 8], scale_atoms=False)
    with jasp('molecules/H2-beef',
               xc='PBE', gga='BF',
9
               encut=350,
10
               ibrion=2,
13
               nsw=10.
               atoms=H2) as calc:
14
15
             eH2 = H2.get_potential_energy()
             print(eH2)
         except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
             eH2 = None
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-224.py).

/home-research/jkitchin/kitchin-python/jasp2/jasp/__init__.pyc -7.13332059

Next, we get an H atom.

```
from jasp import
    from ase.structure import molecule
    H = molecule('H')
4
5
    H.set_cell([8, 8, 8], scale_atoms=False)
    with jasp('molecules/H-beef',
               xc='PBE', gga='BF',
               encut=350,
10
               ismear=0,
               atoms=H) as calc:
11
12
         try:
             eH = H.get_potential_energy()
13
             print(eH)
         except (VaspSubmitted, VaspQueued):
             print('running or queued')
17
             eH = None
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-225.py).

-1.15994056

Now, the dissociation energy.

```
from jasp import *

with jasp('molecules/H-beef') as calc:
    H = calc.get_atoms()
    eH = H.get_potential_energy()

with jasp('molecules/H2-beef') as calc:
    H2 = calc.get_atoms()
    eH2 = H2.get_potential_energy()

print('D = {} eV'.format(2 * eH - eH2))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-226.py).

```
-1.15994056 -7.13332059
D = 4.81343947 eV
```

It doesn't look like we have done much so far. How certain are we of the dissociation energy? Let us consider the ensemble of energies. In the calculation, an ensemble of functionals is used, and each one produces a different energy. We can look at the distribution of these energies to estimate the uncertainty in energy differences. We use the <code>jasp.jasp_extensions.get_beefens</code> to get the ensemble. We calculate the uncertainty in our reaction energy by calculating the standard deviation of the appropriately weighted difference of ensembles.

Note that this ensemble represents the contribution just from the functionals, and not all the other contributions. So, the differences in the ensembles only represents that part of the uncertainty

```
from jasp import \ast
2
     with jasp('molecules/H-beef') as calc:
3
         ensH = calc.get_beefens()
4
     with jasp('molecules/H2-beef') as calc:
         ensH2 = calc.get_beefens()
     ensD = 2 * ensH - ensH2
9
10
     print('mean = {} eV'.format(ensD.mean()))
11
     print('std = {} eV'.format(ensD.std()))
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
14
     plt.hist(ensD, 20)
15
     plt.xlabel('Deviation')
16
     plt.ylabel('frequency')
     plt.savefig('images/beef-ens.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-227.py).

```
mean = 0.000755737994073 eV

std = 0.183590801736 eV
```

You can see the mean is nearly zero, suggesting the deviations are symmetrically distributed. The std error is 0.184 eV, which represents about a 68% confidence interval.

This seems to be the canonical way to do this in ASE. Note you have to get the ensemble energies in the jasp context manager, because they try to read the OUTCAR.

```
from jasp import *
from ase.dft.bee import BEEFEnsemble

with jasp('molecules/H-beef') as calc:
    BE1 = BEEFEnsemble(calc.get_atoms()).get_ensemble_energies()

with jasp('molecules/H2-beef') as calc:
    BE2 = BEEFEnsemble(calc.get_atoms()).get_ensemble_energies()

print((2 * BE1 - BE2).mean())
print((2 * BE1 - BE2).std())
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-228.py).

```
beefvdw ensemble started
beefvdw ensemble finished
beefvdw ensemble started
beefvdw ensemble finished
4.81945187253
0.185505941434
```

7.8 **TODO** Solvation

See http://vaspsol.mse.ufl.edu/download/, 102,103

You need a specially patched version of Vasp.

First, we run our calculation in vacuum. We need this to get the WAVECAR. The following calculation mimics one of the example calculations in the Vaspsol package. The combination of nsw=0 and ibrion=2 does not make sense, but that is the example. I do not use the npar=4 parameter here.

```
from jasp import *
     from ase.structure import molecule
3
     atoms = molecule('CO')
4
     with jasp('molecules/CO-vacuum',
               encut=600.
               prec='Accurate',
9
                ismear=0,
10
               sigma=0.05,
11
               ibrion=2,
13
               nsw=0,
ediff=1e-6,
14
               atoms=atoms) as calc:
15
         print(atoms.get_potential_energy())
16
         print(atoms.get_forces())
17
         print('Calculation time: {} seconds'.format(calc.get_elapsed_time()))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-229.py).

The forces are high because nsw was set to 0, so only one iteration was run.

Next, we do the solvation calculation. We use the default solvent dielectric constant of water, which is 80.

```
from jasp import *

with jasp('molecules/CO-vacuum') as calc:
    calc.clone('molecules/CO-solvated')

with jasp('molecules/CO-solvated',
    istart=1, #
    lsol=True) as calc:
    print(calc.get_atoms().get_potential_energy())
    print(calc.get_atoms().get_forces())
    print('Calculation time: {} seconds'.format(calc.get_elapsed_time()))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-230.py).

Note these take quite a bit longer to calculate (e.g. 10 times longer)! The energies here are a little different than the vacuum result. To use this energy in an energy difference, you need to make sure the other energies were run with lsol=True also, and the same parameters.

Here is the evidence that we actually ran a calculation with solvation:

```
grep -A 5 Solvation molecules/CO-solvated/OUTCAR
```

energy without entropy =

```
Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-231.py).
  LSOL =
              Т
                   Solvation
Electronic Relaxation 1
  ENCUT = 600.0 \text{ eV} \quad 44.10 \text{ Ry}
                                   6.64 a.u. 19.97 19.97 22.27*2*pi/ulx,y,z
  ENINI = 600.0
                      initial cutoff
  ENAUG = 644.9 eV augmentation charge cutoff
Solvation parameters
  EB_K
          = 80.000000
                          relative permittivity of the bulk solvent
  SIGMA_K = 0.600000
                          width of the dielectric cavity
  NC_K
          = 0.002500
                          cutoff charge density
  TAU
          = 0.000525
                          cavity surface tension
Solvation contrib. Ediel =
                TOTEN =
                               -14.82417510 eV
free energy
```

-14.82417510 energy(sigma->0) =

-14.82417510

```
Solvation contrib. Ediel = -2.08692034
          TOTEN =
                    -14.82331872 eV
free energy
energy without entropy = -14.82331872 energy(sigma->0) = -14.82331872
Solvation contrib. Ediel =
                           -2.11316669
-----
free energy TOTEN =
                      -14.82319429 eV
energy without entropy = -14.82319429 energy(sigma->0) = -14.82319429
Solvation contrib. Ediel = -2.16318931
free energy TOTEN = -14.82278947 eV
energy without entropy = -14.82278947 energy(sigma->0) = -14.82278947
Solvation contrib. Ediel = -2.17570687
_____
free energy TOTEN =
                      -14.82272160 eV
energy without entropy = -14.82272160 energy(sigma->0) = -14.82272160
Solvation contrib. Ediel = -2.19188585
free energy TOTEN =
                      -14.82267271 eV
energy without entropy = -14.82267271 energy(sigma->0) = -14.82267271
Solvation contrib. Ediel = -2.19395757
free energy TOTEN =
                    -14.82272442 eV
                     -14.82272442 energy(sigma->0) = -14.82272442
energy without entropy =
Solvation contrib. Ediel = -2.19698448
______
free energy TOTEN = -14.82288242 \text{ eV}
energy without entropy = -14.82288242 energy(sigma->0) = -14.82288242
Solvation contrib. Ediel = -2.19737905
```

```
free energy TOTEN = -14.82288470 \text{ eV}
energy without entropy = -14.82288470 energy(sigma->0) = -14.82288470
Solvation contrib. Ediel = -2.19908571
          TOTEN = -14.82287091 \text{ eV}
free energy
                      -14.82287091 energy(sigma->0) =
                                                   -14.82287091
energy without entropy =
Solvation contrib. Ediel = -2.19782575
free energy TOTEN =
                    -14.82288497 eV
energy without entropy = -14.82288497 energy(sigma->0) = -14.82288497
Solvation contrib. Ediel = -2.19878993
______
           TOTEN =
                       -14.82288031 eV
free energy
                      -14.82288031 energy(sigma->0) =
                                                   -14.82288031
energy without entropy =
Solvation contrib. Ediel = -2.19875585
_____
free energy TOTEN =
                       -14.82288727 eV
energy without entropy = -14.82288727 energy(sigma->0) = -14.82288727
Solvation contrib. Ediel = -2.19894718
free energy TOTEN = -14.82288935 eV
energy without entropy = -14.82288935 energy(sigma->0) =
                                                   -14.82288935
                           -2.19902584
Solvation contrib. Ediel =
                 -----
free energy TOTEN =
                       -14.82289064 eV
energy without entropy = -14.82289064 energy(sigma->0) = -14.82289064
Solvation contrib. Ediel = -2.19905589
free energy TOTEN = -14.82289079 eV
```

8 **TODO** Databases in molecular simulations

The continued increase in computing power has enabled us to create massive amounts of computational data. Some of this data is accessible in papers, or at websites, e.g. https://cmr.fysik.dtu.dk.

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10 Appendices

10.1 Recipes

10.1.1 Modifying Atoms by deleting atoms

Sometimes it is convenient to create an Atoms object by deleting atoms from an existing object. Here is a recipe to delete all the hydrogen atoms in a molecule. The idea is to make a list of indices of which atoms to delete using list comprehension, then use list deletion to delete those indices.

```
import textwrap
from ase.structure import molecule

atoms = molecule('CH3CH2OH')
print(atoms)

# delete all the hydrogens
ind2del = [atom.index for atom in atoms if atom.symbol == 'H']
print('Indices to delete: ', ind2del)

del atoms[ind2del]

# now print what is left
print(atoms)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-232.py).

```
Atoms(symbols='C20H6', positions=..., cell=[1.0, 1.0, 1.0], pbc=[False, False, False]) Indices to delete: [3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8] Atoms(symbols='C20', positions=..., cell=[1.0, 1.0, 1.0], pbc=[False, False, False])
```

10.1.2 Advanced tagging

We can label atoms with integer tags to help identify them later, e.g. which atoms are adsorbates, or surface atoms, or near an adsorbate, etc... We might want to refer to those atoms later for electronic structure, geometry analysis, etc...

The method uses integer tags that are powers of two, and then uses binary operators to check for matches. & is a bitwise AND. The key to understanding this is to look at the tags in binary form. The tags $[1\ 2\ 4\ 8]$ can be represented by a binary string:

```
1 = [1 0 0 0] 

2 = [0 1 0 0] 

4 = [0 0 1 0] 

8 = [0 0 0 1]
```

So, an atom tagged with 1 and 2 would have a tag of $[1\ 1\ 0\ 0]$ or equivalently in decimal numbers, a tag of 3.

```
adapted from https://listserv.fysik.dtu.dk/pipermail/campos/2004-September/001155.html
2
     from ase import *
 6
     from ase.io import write
     from ase.lattice.surface import bcc111, add adsorbate
     from ase.constraints import FixAtoms
     # the bcc111 function automatically tags atoms
10
11
     slab = bcc111('W',
12
                    a=3.92.
                                  # W lattice constant
                    size=(2, 2, 6), # 6-layer slab in 2x2 configuration
13
                    vacuum=10.0)
14
15
     # reset tags to be powers of two so we can use binary math
     slab.set_tags([2**a.get_tag() for a in slab])
17
18
19
     \# we had 6 layers, so we create new tags starting at 7
     # Note you must use powers of two for all the tags!
20
21
     ADSORBATE = 2**7
23
     FREE = 2**8
24
     NEARADSORBATE = 2**9
25
     # let us tag LAYER1 atoms to be FREE too. we can address it by LAYER1 or FREE
26
27
     tags = slab.get_tags()
     for i, tag in enumerate(tags):
    if tag == LAYER1:
28
30
            tags[i] += FREE
31
     slab.set_tags(tags)
32
     # create a CO molecule
33
     \label{eq:co-Atoms} $$ ([Atom('C', [0., 0., 0.], tag=ADSORBATE), 
34
                # we will relax only O
36
               Atom('0', [0., 0., 1.1], tag=ADSORBATE + FREE)])
37
     add_adsorbate(slab, co, height=1.2, position='hollow')
38
39
     # the adsorbate is centered between atoms 20, 21 and 22 (use
40
     # view(slab)) and over atom12 let us label those atoms, so it is easy to
     # do electronic structure analysis on them later.
43
     tags = slab.get_tags() # len(tags) changed, so we reget them.
     tags[12] += NEARADSORBATE
tags[20] += NEARADSORBATE
44
45
     tags[21] += NEARADSORBATE
46
     tags[22] += NEARADSORBATE
     slab.set_tags(tags)
49
     # update the tags
     slab.set_tags(tags)
50
51
     # extract pieces of the slab based on tags
52
     # atoms in the adsorbate
53
     ads = slab[(slab.get_tags() & ADSORBATE) == ADSORBATE]
55
56
     # atoms in LAYER1
    layer1 = slab[(slab.get_tags() & LAYER1) == LAYER1]
57
58
59
     # atoms defined as near the adsorbate
     nearads = slab[(slab.get_tags() & NEARADSORBATE) == NEARADSORBATE]
61
62
     # atoms that are free
     free = slab[(slab.get_tags() & FREE) == FREE]
63
64
     # atoms that are FREE and part of the ADSORBATE
65
     freeads = slab[(slab.get_tags() & FREE+ADSORBATE) == FREE+ADSORBATE]
```

```
68  # atoms that are NOT FREE
69  notfree = slab[(slab.get_tags() & FREE) != FREE]
70
71  constraint = FixAtoms(mask=(slab.get_tags() & FREE) != FREE)
72  slab.set_constraint(constraint)
73  write('images/tagged-bcc1i1.png', slab, rotation='-90x', show_unit_cell=2)
74  from ase.visualize import view; view(slab)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-233.py).

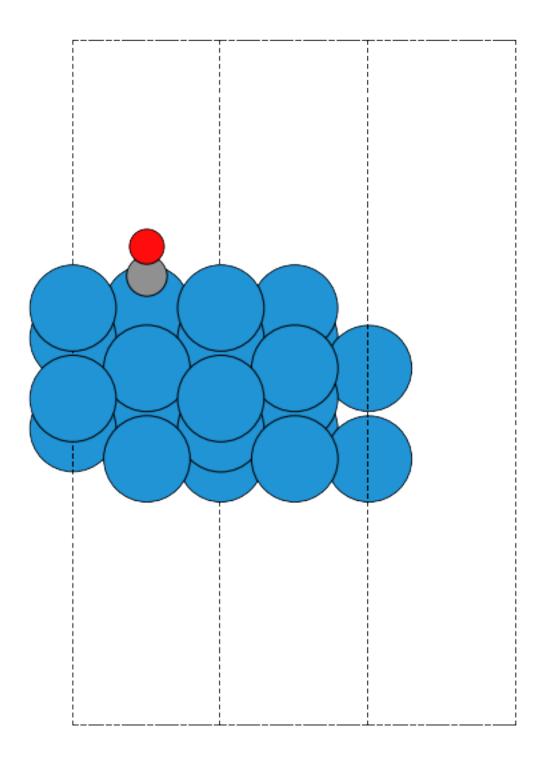


Figure 91: The tagged bcc(111) structure created above. Unfortunately, the frozen atoms do not show up in the figure.

10.1.3 Using units in ase

 $\tt ase$ uses a base set of atomic units. These are eV for energy, Å for distance, seconds for time, and amu for mass. Other units are defined in terms of those units, and you can easily convert to alternative units by dividing your quantity in atomic units by the units you want.

Not too many units are defined: ['A', 'AUT', 'Ang', 'Angstrom', 'Bohr', 'C', 'Debye', 'GPa', 'Ha', 'Hartree', 'J', 'Pascal', 'Ry', 'Rydberg', 'alpha', 'cm', 'eV', 'erg', 'fs', 'kB', 'kJ', 'kcal', 'kg', 'm', 'meV', 'mol', 'nm', 's', 'second']

It is not that hard to define your own derived units though. Note these are only conversion factors. No units algebra is enforced (i.e. it will be ok to add a m and a kg)!

```
from ase.units import *
2
     d = 1 * Angstrom
3
     print(' d = {0} nm'.format(d / nm))
     print('1 eV = {0} Hartrees'.format(eV / Hartree))
     print('1 eV = {0} Rydbergs'.format(eV / Rydberg))
print('1 eV = {0} kJ/mol'.format(eV / (kJ / mol)))
     print('1 eV = {0} kcal/mol'.format(eV / (kcal / mol)))
9
10
     print('1 Hartree = {0} kcal/mol'.format(1 * Hartree / (kcal / mol)))
11
     print('1 Rydberg = {0} eV'.format(1 * Rydberg / eV))
     # derived units
     minute = 60 * s
15
     hour = 60 * minute
16
17
     print('10 hours = {0} minutes'.format(10 * hour / minute))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-234.py).

```
d = 0.1 nm
1 eV = 0.036749309468 Hartrees
1 eV = 0.0734986189359 Rydbergs
1 eV = 96.485308989 kJ/mol
1 eV = 23.0605423014 kcal/mol
1 Hartree = 627.509540594 kcal/mol
1 Rydberg = 13.6056978278 eV
10 hours = 600.0 minutes
```

10.1.4 Extracting parts of an array

See http://www.scipy.org/Cookbook/BuildingArrays for examples of making numpy arrays.

When analyzing numerical data you may often want to analyze only a part of the data. For example, suppose you have x and y data, (x=time, y=signal) and you want to integrate the date between a particular time interval. You can slice a numpy array to extract parts of it. See http://www.scipy.org/Cookbook/Indexing for several examples of this.

In this example we show how to extract the data in an interval. We have x data in the range of 0 to 6, and y data that is the $\cos(x)$. We want to extract the x and y data for 2 < x < 4, and the corresponding y-data. To do this, we utilize the numpy capability of slicing with a boolean array. We also show some customization of matplotlib.

```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib as mpl

# http://matplotlib.sourceforge.net/users/customizing.html

mpl.rcParams['legend.numpoints'] = 1 # default is 2
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

x = np.linspace(0, 6, 100)
y = np.cos(x)

plt.plot(x, y, label='full')

ind = (x > 2) & (x < 4)</pre>
```

```
subx = x[ind]
suby = y[ind]

full plt.plot(subx, suby, 'bo', label='sliced')
stabel('x')
stabel('cos(x)')
plt.legend(loc='lower right')
plt.savefig('images/np-array-slice.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-235.py).

None

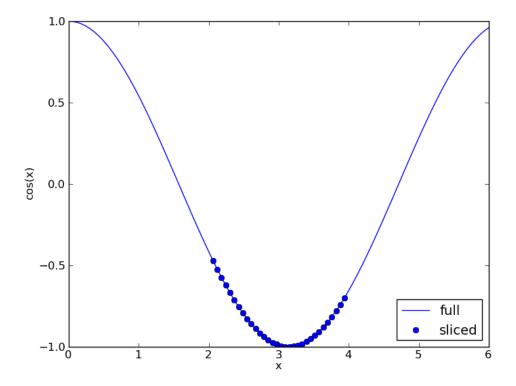


Figure 92: Example of slicing out part of an array. The solid line represents the whole array, and the symbols are the array between 2 < x < 4.

The expression x > 2 returns an array of booleans (True where the element of x is greater than 2, and False where it is not) equal in size to x. Similarly x < 4 returns a boolean array where x is less than 4. We take the logical and of these two boolean arrays to get another boolean array where both conditions are True (i.e. x < 2 and x > 4). This final boolean array is True for the part of the arrays we are interested in, and we can use it to extract the subarrays we want.

10.1.5 Statistics

Confidence intervals scipy has a statistical package available for getting statistical distributions. This is useful for computing confidence intervals using the student-t tables. Here is an example of computing a 95% confidence interval on an average.

```
import numpy as np
1
     from scipy.stats.distributions import t
4
     n = 10 # number of measurements
     dof = n - 1  # degrees of freedom
avg_x = 16.1  # average measurement
5
     std_x = 0.01 # standard deviation of measurements
     \# Find 95% prediction interval for next measurement
10
    alpha = 1.0 - 0.95
11
12
     pred_interval = t.ppf(1 - alpha / 2., dof) * std_x * np.sqrt(1. + 1. / n)
13
     s = ['We are 95% confident the next measurement',
              will be between \{0:1.3f\} and \{1:1.3f\}']
     print(''.join(s).format(avg_x - pred_interval, avg_x + pred_interval))
17
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-236.py).

We are 95% confident the next measurement will be between 16.076 and 16.124

10.1.6 Curve fitting

Linear fitting

```
# examples of linear curve fitting using least squares
     import numpy as np
 4
     xdata = np.array([0., 1., 2., 3., 4., 5., 6.])
     ydata = np.array([0.1, 0.81, 4.03, 9.1, 15.99, 24.2, 37.2])
     # fit a third order polynomial
     from pylab import polyfit, plot, xlabel, ylabel, show, legend, savefig
    pars = polyfit(xdata, ydata, 3)
print('pars from polyfit: {0}'.format(pars))
10
11
     # numpy method returns more data
12
     A = np.column_stack([xdata**3,
13
14
16
                           np.ones(len(xdata), np.float)])
17
     pars_np, resids, rank,s = np.linalg.lstsq(A, ydata)
18
     print('pars from np.linalg.lstsq: {0}'.format(pars_np))
19
20
     we are trying to solve Ax = b for x in the least squares sense. There
23
     are more rows in A than elements in \boldsymbol{x} so, we can left multiply each
24
     side by A^T, and then solve for \boldsymbol{x} with an inverse.
25
     A \hat{T}Ax = A \hat{T}b
26
     x = (A^TA)^-1 A^T b
27
29
     # not as pretty but equivalent!
30
     pars_man = np.dot(np.linalg.inv(np.dot(A.T, A)), np.dot(A.T, ydata))
     print('pars from linear algebra: {0}'.format(pars_man))
31
32
33
     # but, it is easy to fit an exponential function to it!
     # y = a*exp(x)+b
35
     Aexp = np.column_stack([np.exp(xdata), np.ones(len(xdata), np.float)])
36
     pars_exp = np.dot(np.linalg.inv(np.dot(Aexp.T, Aexp)), np.dot(Aexp.T, ydata))
37
     plot(xdata, ydata, 'ro')
38
     fity = np.dot(A, pars)
39
                        'k-', label='poly fit')
     plot(xdata, fity,
     plot(xdata, np.dot(Aexp, pars_exp), 'b-', label='exp fit')
42
     xlabel('x')
     ylabel('y')
43
     legend()
44
     savefig('images/curve-fit-1.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-237.py).

```
pars from polyfit: [ 0.04861111   0.63440476   0.61365079 -0.08928571]
pars from np.linalg.lstsq: [ 0.04861111   0.63440476   0.61365079 -0.08928571]
pars from linear algebra: [ 0.04861111   0.63440476   0.61365079 -0.08928571]
```

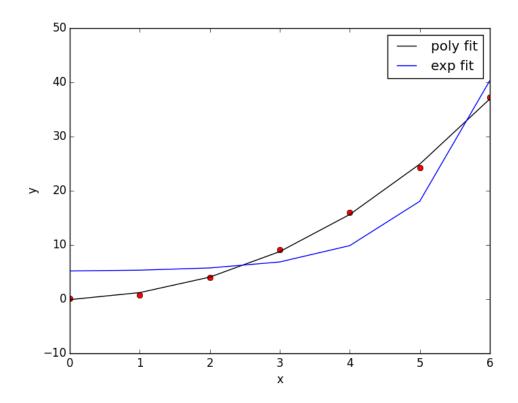


Figure 93: Example of linear least-squares curve fitting.

10.1.7 Nonlinear curve fitting

```
from scipy.optimize import leastsq
     import numpy as np
     vols = np.array([13.71, 14.82, 16.0, 17.23, 18.52])
4
5
     energies = np.array([-56.29, -56.41, -56.46, -56.463, -56.41])
     def Murnaghan(parameters, vol):
         'From Phys. Rev. B 28, 5480 (1983)'
E0 = parameters[0]
B0 = parameters[1]
10
11
12
         BP = parameters[2]
13
         V0 = parameters[3]
14
         17
18
         return E
19
20
     def objective(pars, y, x):
         # we will minimize this function
err = y - Murnaghan(pars, x)
23
24
```

```
25
          return err
26
     x0 = [-56., 0.54, 2., 16.5] # initial guess of parameters
27
28
     plsq = leastsq(objective, x0, args=(energies, vols))
30
     print('Fitted parameters = {0}'.format(plsq[0]))
31
32
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.plot(vols, energies, 'ro')
33
34
35
     # plot the fitted curve on top
37
     x = np.linspace(min(vols), max(vols), 50)
     y = Murnaghan(plsq[0], x)
38
     plt.plot(x, y, 'k-')
plt.xlabel('Volume')
39
40
     plt.ylabel('energy')
41
     plt.savefig('images/nonlinear-curve-fitting.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-238.py).

Fitted parameters = (array([-56.46839641, 0.57233217, 2.7407944, 16.55905648]), 1)

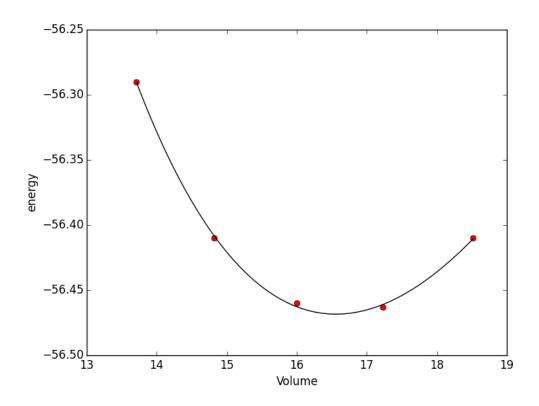


Figure 94: Example of least-squares non-linear curve fitting.

See additional examples at $\t http://docs.scipy.org/doc/scipy/reference/tutorial/optimize.$ html.

10.1.8 Nonlinear curve fitting by direct least squares minimization

```
from scipy.optimize import fmin import numpy as np
```

```
volumes = np.array([13.71, 14.82, 16.0, 17.23, 18.52])
 4
5
     energies = np.array([-56.29, -56.41, -56.46, -56.463, -56.41])
 6
     def Murnaghan(parameters, vol):
10
         'From PRB 28.5480 (1983'
         E0 = parameters[0]
11
         B0 = parameters[1]
12
         BP = parameters[2]
13
         V0 = parameters[3]
15
         E = E0 + B0*vol/BP*(((V0/vol)**BP)/(BP-1)+1) - V0*B0/(BP-1.)
16
17
         return E
18
19
20
21
     def objective(pars, vol):
22
         \textit{\# we will minimize this function}
23
         err = energies - Murnaghan(pars, vol)
         return np.sum(err**2) # we return the summed squared error directly
24
25
     x0 = [-56., 0.54, 2., 16.5] # initial guess of parameters
     plsq = fmin(objective, x0, args=(volumes,)) # note args is a tuple
28
29
    print('parameters = {0}'.format(plsq))
30
31
32
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
    plt.plot(volumes, energies, 'ro')
34
    # plot the fitted curve on top
35
    x = np.linspace(min(volumes), max(volumes), 50)
36
    y = Murnaghan(plsq, x)
plt.plot(x, y, 'k-')
plt.xlabel(r'Volume ($\AA^3$)')
37
    plt.ylabel('Total energy (eV)')
     plt.savefig('images/nonlinear-fitting-lsq.png')
41
          Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-239.py).
     Optimization terminated successfully.
                  Current function value: 0.000020
                  Iterations: 137
                  Function evaluations: 240
```

10.1.9 Nonlinear curve fitting with confidence intervals

0.59141447

parameters = [-56.46932645]

```
# Nonlinear curve fit with confidence interval
     import numpy as np
     from scipy.optimize import curve_fit
     from scipy.stats.distributions import t
     fit this equation to data
     y = c1 exp(-x) + c2*x
     this is actually a linear regression problem, but it is convenient to
11
     use the nonlinear fitting routine because it makes it easy to get
12
     confidence\ intervals.\ \textit{The downside is you need an initial guess}.
13
     from Matlab
14
15
16
17
         4.9671
18
         2.1100
19
20
21
     bint =
```

1.9044796

16.59341303]

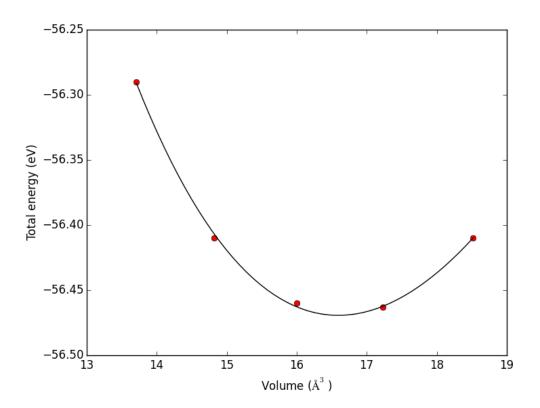


Figure 95: Fitting a nonlinear function.

```
5.3075
23
              4.6267
                             2.4528
^{24}
              1.7671
25
26
       x = np.array([ 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 1. ])
y = np.array([ 4.70192769, 4.46826356, 4.57021389, 4.29240134, 3.88155125,
3.78382253, 3.65454727, 3.86379487, 4.16428541, 4.06079909])
27
28
29
30
       # this is the function we want to fit to our data
def func(x,c0, c1):
    return c0 * np.exp(-x) + c1*x
31
32
33
34
       pars, pcov = curve_fit(func, x, y, p0=[4.96, 2.11])
36
       alpha = 0.05 # 95% confidence interval
37
38
       n = len(y)  # number of data points
p = len(pars)  # number of parameters
39
40
       dof = max(0, n-p) # number of degrees of freedom
42
43
       tval = t.ppf(1.0-alpha/2., dof) # student-t value for the dof and confidence level
44
45
        for i, p,var in zip(range(n), pars, np.diag(pcov)):
46
              sigma = var**0.5
print('c{0}: {1} [{2} {3}]'.format(i, p,
47
48
                                                           p - sigma*tval,
p + sigma*tval))
49
50
51
       import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.plot(x,y,'bo ')
52
       rfit = np.linspace(0,1)
yfit = func(xfit, pars[0], pars[1])
plt.plot(xfit,yfit,'b-')
plt.legend(['data','fit'],loc='best')
56
```

58

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-240.py).

```
c0: 4.96713966439 [4.62674476321 5.30753456558]
c1: 2.10995112628 [1.76711622067 2.45278603188]
```

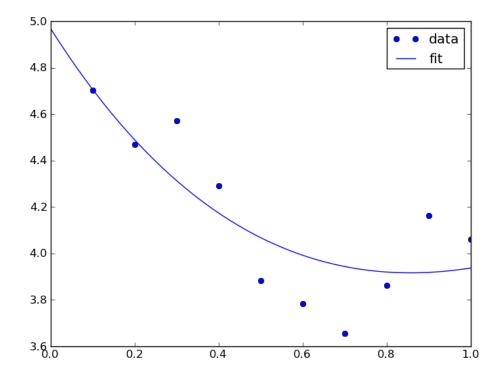


Figure 96: Nonlinear fit to data.

10.1.10 Interpolation with splines

When you do not know the functional form of data to fit an equation, you can still fit/interpolate with splines.

```
# use splines to fit and interpolate data
     from scipy.interpolate import interp1d
     from scipy.optimize import fmin
     import numpy as np
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
     x = np.array([ 0,
                                                   3, 4 ])
0.546, 0.44 ])
                                0.308, 0.55,
     y = np.array([ 0.,
     # create the interpolating function
11
     f = interp1d(x, y, kind='cubic', bounds_error=False)
12
     \mbox{\#} to find the maximum, we minimize the negative of the function. We
13
     # cannot just multiply f by -1, so we create a new function here.

f2 = interpld(x, -y, kind='cubic')

xmax = fmin(f2, 2.5)
14
15
```

```
xfit = np.linspace(0,4)
19
     plt.plot(x,y,'bo')
20
     plt.plot(xfit, f(xfit),'r-')
21
     plt.plot(xmax, f(xmax),'g*')
     plt.legend(['data','fit','max'], loc='best', numpoints=1)
     plt.xlabel('x data')
     plt.ylabel('y data')
25
     plt.title('Max point = ({0:1.2f}, {1:1.2f})'.format(float(xmax),
26
                                                          float(f(xmax))))
27
     plt.savefig('images/splinefit.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-241.py).

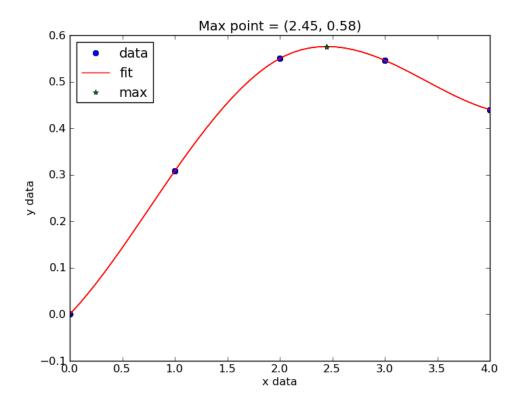


Figure 97: Illustration of a spline fit to data and finding the maximum point.

10.1.11 Interpolation in 3D

You might ask, why would I need to interpolate in 3D? Suppose you want to plot the charge density along a line through a unit cell that does not correspond to grid points. What are you to do? Interpolate. In contrast to an abundance of methods for 1D and 2D interpolation, I could not find any standard library methods for 3D interpolation.

The principle we will use to develop an interpolation function in 3D is called trilinear interpolation, where we use multiple linear 1D interpolations to compute the value of a point inside a cube. As developed here, this solution only applies to rectangular grids. Later we will generalize the approach. We state the problem as follows:

We know a scalar field inside a unit cell on a regularly spaced grid. In VASP these fields may be the charge density or electrostatic potential for example, and they are known on the fft grids. We want to estimate the value of the scalar field at a point not on the grid, say P=(a,b,c).

Solution: Find the cube that contains the point, and is defined by points P1-P8 as shown in Figure ??.

We use 1D interpolation formulas to compute the value of the scalar field at points I1 by interpolating between P1 and P2, and the value of the scalar field at I2 by interpolating between P3 and P4. In these points the only variable changing is x, so it is a simple 1D interpolation. We can then compute the value of the scalar field at I5 by interpolating between I1 and I2. We repeat the process on the top of the cube, to obtain points I3, I4 and I5. Finally, we compute the value of the scalar field at point P by interpolating between points I5 and I6. Note that the point I5 has coordinates (a,b,z1) and I6 is at (a,b,z2), so the final interpolation is again a 1D interpolation along z evaluated at z=c to get the final value of the scalar field at P=(a,b,c).

```
from jasp import jasp
     import numpy as np
 3
 4
     with jasp('molecules/co-centered') as calc:
 5
          atoms = calc.get_atoms()
         x, y, z, cd = calc.get_charge_density()
 6
     def interp3d(x,y,z,cd,xi,yi,zi):
10
          interpolate a cubic 3D grid defined by x,y,z,cd at the point
11
          (xi, yi, zi)
12
13
         def get_index(value, vector):
14
              assumes vector ordered decreasing to increasing. A bisection
17
              search would be faster.
18
              for i,val in enumerate(vector):
19
                  if val > value:
20
                      return i-1
              return None
23
         xv = x[:,0,0]
24
         yy = y[0,:,0]
25
         zv = z[0,0,:]
26
         a,b,c = xi, yi, zi
29
30
         i = get_index(a,xv)
31
         j = get_index(b,yv)
         k = get_index(c,zv)
32
33
         x1 = x[i,j,k]
         x2 = x[i+1,j,k]
35
         y1 = y[i,j,k]
y2 = y[i,j+1,k]
z1 = z[i,j,k]
36
37
38
         z2 = z[i,j,k+1]
39
         u1 = cd[i, j, k]
         u2 = cd[i+1, j, k]
u3 = cd[i, j+1, k]
42
43
         u4 = cd[i+1, j+1, k]
44
         u5 = cd[i, j, k+1]
45
         u6 = cd[i+1, j, k+1]
         u7 = cd[i, j+1, k+1]
48
         u8 = cd[i+1, j+1, k+1]
49
         w1 = u2 + (u2-u1)/(x2-x1)*(a-x2)
50
         w2 = u4 + (u4-u3)/(x2-x1)*(a-x2)
51
          w3 = w2 + (w2-w1)/(y2-y1)*(b-y2)
52
         w4 = u5 + (u6-u5)/(x2-x1)*(a-x1)
         w5 = u7 + (u8-u7)/(x2-x1)*(a-x1)
         w6 = w4 + (w5-w4)/(y2-y1)*(b-y1)
         w7 = w3 + (w6-w3)/(z2-z1)*(c-z1)
```

```
u = w7
57
58
59
             return u
60
61
      pos = atoms.get_positions()
      P1 = np.array([0.0, 5.0, 5.0])
P2 = np.array([9.0, 5.0, 5.0])
63
64
65
      npoints = 60
66
67
68
       points = [P1 + n*(P2-P1)/npoints for n in range(npoints)]
69
      R = [np.linalg.norm(p-P1) for p in points]
70
\frac{71}{72}
       # interpolated line
73
       icd = [interp3d(x,y,z,cd,p[0],p[1],p[2]) for p in points]
75
       import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
76
       plt.plot(R, icd)
77
      cR = np.linalg.norm(pos[0] - P1)
oR = np.linalg.norm(pos[1] - P1)
plt.plot([cR, cR], [0, 2], 'r-')
plt.plot([oR, oR], [0, 8], 'r-')
78
79
                                                       #markers for where the nuclei are
      plt.xlabel('|R| ($\AA$)')
plt.ylabel('Charge density (e/$\AA^3$)')
plt.savefig('images/CO-charge-density.png')
83
84
       plt.show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-242.py).

None

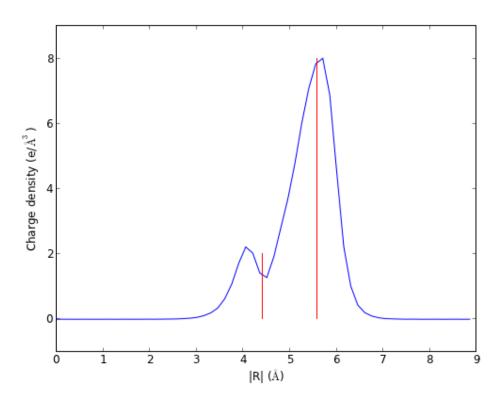


Figure 98: An example of interpolated charge density of a CO molecule along the axis of molecule.

To generalize this to non-cubic cells, we need to do interpolation along arbitrary vectors. The overall strategy is the same:

Find the cell that contains the point (a,b,c). compute the scaled coordinates (sa,sb,sc) of the point inside the cell. Do the interpolations along the basis vectors. Given u1 at P1(x1,y1,z1) and u2 at P2(x2,y2,z2) where (P2-P1) is a cell basis vector a, u=u1+sa*(u2-u1). There are still 7 interpolations to do

Below is an example of this code, using a the python library bisect to find the cell.

```
2
      3D vector interpolation in non-cubic unit cells with vector
 3
      interpolation.
      This function should work for any shape unit cell.
     from jasp import *
     import bisect
 8
9
      import numpy as np
     from pylab import plot, xlabel, ylabel, savefig, show
10
      with jasp('molecules/co-centered') as calc:
13
          atoms = calc.get_atoms()
          x,y,z,cd = calc.get_charge_density()
14
15
     def vinterp3d(x,y,z,u,xi,yi,zi):
16
17
          p = np.array([xi,yi,zi])
19
          \#1D arrays of cooridinates
20
          xv = x[:,0,0]

yv = y[0,:,0]
21
22
          zv = z[0,0,:]
23
25
          \mbox{\it \#} we subtract 1 because bisect tells us where to insert the
26
          \mbox{\it\#} element to maintain an ordered list, so we want the index to the
          # left of that point
27
          i = bisect.bisect_right(xv,xi) - 1
28
          j = bisect.bisect_right(yv,yi)
          k = bisect.bisect_right(zv,zi) -
          #points at edge of cell. We only need P1, P2, P3, and P5
32
          P1 = np.array([x[i,j,k],y[i,j,k],z[i,j,k]])
P2 = np.array([x[i+1,j,k],y[i+1,j,k],z[i+1,j,k]])
P3 = np.array([x[i,j+1,k],y[i,j+1,k],z[i,j+1,k]))
33
34
35
          P5 = np.array([x[i,j,k+1],y[i,j,k+1],z[i,j,k+1]])
37
38
          #values of u at edge of cell
          u1 = u[i,j,k]
39
          u2 = u[i+1,j,k]
u3 = u[i,j+1,k]
40
41
42
          u4 = u[i+1,j+1,k]
          u5 = u[i,j,k+1]
44
          u6 = u[i+1,j,k+1]
          u7 = u[i,j+1,k+1]
45
          u8 = u[i+1,j+1,k+1]
46
47
          #cell basis vectors, not the unit cell, but the voxel cell containing the point
          cbasis = np.array([P2-P1,
49
                                P3-P1
51
                                P5-P11)
52
          #now get interpolated point in terms of the cell basis
53
          s = np.dot(np.linalg.inv(cbasis.T),np.array([xi,yi,zi])-P1)
54
          \#now\ s = (sa,\ sb,\ sc)\ \ which\ are\ fractional\ coordinates\ in\ the\ vector\ space
56
57
          #next we do the interpolations ui1 = u1 + s[0]*(u2-u1)
58
          ui2 = u3 + s[0]*(u4-u3)
59
60
          ui3 = u5 + s[0]*(u6-u5)
61
          ui4 = u7 + s[0]*(u8-u7)
63
          ui5 = ui1 + s[1]*(ui2-ui1)
64
          ui6 = ui3 + s[1]*(ui4-ui3)
65
66
          ui7 = ui5 + s[2]*(ui6-ui5)
```

```
68
69
          return ui7
70
      # compute a line with 60 points in it through these two points P1 = np.array([0.0, 5.0, 5.0])
71
73
      P2 = np.array([10.0, 5.0, 5.0])
74
      npoints = 60
75
76
77
      points = [P1 + n*(P2-P1)/npoints for n in range(npoints)]
78
      # compute the distance along the line
      R = [np.linalg.norm(p-P1) for p in points]
80
81
      icd = [vinterp3d(x,y,z,cd,p[0],p[1],p[2]) for p in points]
82
83
84
      pos = atoms.get_positions()
      cR = np.linalg.norm(pos[0]-P1)
      oR = np.linalg.norm(pos[1]-P1)
plot([cR,cR],[0,2],'r-') #markers for where the nuclei are
plot([oR,oR],[0,8],'r-')
87
88
89
      xlabel('|R| ($\AA$)')
90
      ylabel('Charge density (e/$\AA^3$)')
      savefig('images/interpolated-charge-density.png')
      show()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-243.py).

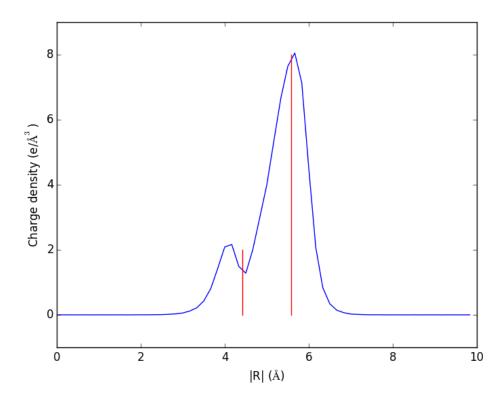


Figure 99: Interpolated charge density for a CO molecule.

10.1.12 Reading and writing data

Built-in io modules pylab has two convenient and powerful functions for saving and reading data, pylab.save and pylab.load.

```
pylab.save('pdat.dat',(x,y))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-244.py). and later you can read these arrays back in with:

```
x,y = pylab.load('pdat.dat')
```

```
Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-245.py). see also pylab.csv2rec and pylab.loadtxt and pylab.savetxt. See http://www.scipy.org/Cookbook/InputOutput for examples of numpy io.
```

From scratch You can save data in many ways from scratch. Basically, just open a file and write data to it. Likewise, any datafile that has some structure to it can probably be read by python.

Let us consider a datafile with these contents:

```
#header
#ignore these lines
john, 4
robert, 5
terry, 5
```

A standard approach would be to read in all the lines, skip the first two lines, split each line (remember each line is a string) at the ',', and append the first field to one variable, and append the second field to another variable as an integer. For example:

```
v1 = []
v2 = []
lines = open('somefile','r').readlines()

for line in lines[2:]: #skip the first two lines
fields = line.split(',')
v1.append(fields[0]) #names
v2.append(int(fields[1])) #number
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-246.py). Writing datafiles is easy too.

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-247.py). Some notes:

```
1. opening a file in 'w' mode
```

```
clob-
      bers
      any
      ex-
      ist-
      ing
      file,
      so
      do
      _{\rm that}
with care!
   1.
      when
      writ-
      ing
      to
      a
      file
      you
      have
      to
      add
      car-
      riage
      re-
      \operatorname{turn}
      to
      each
      line.
   2.
      Manually
      writ-
      ing
      and
      read-
      ing
      files
      is
      pretty
      te-
      dious.
      When-
      ever
```

possible you should use the built-in methods of numpy or pylab.

10.1.13 Integration

Numerical integrations is easy with the numpy.trapz() method. Use it like this: numpy.trapz(y,x). Note that y comes first. y and x must be the same length.

Integration can be used to calculate average properties of continuous distributions. Suppose for example, we have a density of states, ρ as a function of energy E. We can integrate the density of states to find the total number of states:

```
N_{states} = \int \rho dE or, in python:
```

Nstates = np.trapz(rho,E)

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-248.py).

where rho is a vector that contains the density of states at each energy in the vector E (vector here means a list of numbers).

The average energy of distribution is:

$$E_{avg} = \frac{\int \rho E dE}{\int \rho dE}$$
 or, in python:

e_avg = np.trapz(rho*E,E)/np.trapz(rho,E)

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-249.py).

These last two examples are the zeroth and first moments of the density of states. The second moment is related to the width squared of the distribution, and the third and fourth moments are related to skewness and kurtosis of the distribution.

The nth moment is defined by:

$$m_n = \frac{\int \rho * E^n dE}{\int \rho dE}$$

To get the second moment of the density of states in python, we use::

```
n = 2
nom_2 = np.trapz(rho*E**n,E)/np.trapz(rho,E)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-250.py).

10.1.14 Numerical differentiation

numpy has a function called numpy.diff that is similar to the one found in Matlab. It calculates the differences between the elements in your list, and returns a list that is one element shorter, which makes it unsuitable for plotting the derivative of a function.

Simple loops to define finite difference derivatives Loops in python are pretty slow (relatively speaking) but they are usually trivial to understand. In this script we show some simple ways to construct derivative vectors using loops. It is implied in these formulas that the data points are equally spaced.

```
import numpy as np
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
     import time
3
4
     These are the brainless way to calculate numerical derivatives. They
6
     work well for very smooth data. they are surprisingly fast even up to
10
    x = np.linspace(0.78, 0.79, 100) # 100 points between 0.78 and 0.79
11
    y = np.sin(x)
12
    dy_analytical = np.cos(x)
13
    let us use a forward difference method:
```

```
that works up until the last point, where there is not
17
      a forward difference to use. there, we use a backward difference.
18
19
      tf1 = time.time()
      dyf = [0.0]*len(x)
      dy1
for i in range(len(y)-1):
    dyf[i] = (y[i+1] - y[i])/(x[i+1]-x[i])
# set last element by backwards difference
23
24
      dyf[-1] = (y[-1] - y[-2])/(x[-1] - x[-2])
25
26
     print(' Forward difference took {0:1.1f} seconds'.format(time.time() - tf1))
28
29
      # and now a backwards difference
      tb1 = time.time()
30
      dyb = [0.0]*len(x)
31
      # set first element by forward difference dyb[0] = (y[0] - y[1])/(x[0] - x[1])
32
      for i in range(1,len(y)):
          dyb[i] = (y[i] - y[i-1])/(x[i]-x[i-1])
35
36
     print(' Backward difference took {0:1.1f} seconds'.format(time.time() - tb1))
37
38
      # and now, a centered formula
      tc1 = time.time()
40
41
      dyc = [0.0]*len(x)
     dyc[o] = (y[o] - y[1])/(x[o] - x[1])
for i in range(1,len(y)-1):
    dyc[i] = (y[i+1] - y[i-1])/(x[i+1]-x[i-1])
42
43
44
     dyc[-1] = (y[-1] - y[-2])/(x[-1] - x[-2])
47
      print(' Centered difference took {0:1.1f} seconds'.format(time.time() - tc1))
48
      # the centered formula is the most accurate formula here
49
50
51
     plt.plot(x,dy_analytical, label='analytical derivative')
     plt.plot(x,dyf,'--', label='forward')
plt.plot(x,dyb,'--', label='backward')
53
54
      plt.plot(x,dyc,'--', label='centered')
55
56
     plt.legend(loc='lower left')
57
     plt.savefig('images/simple-diffs.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-251.py).

Forward difference took 0.0 seconds Backward difference took 0.0 seconds Centered difference took 0.0 seconds

Obviously, all of these evaluations are very fast.

Loops are usually not great for performance. Numpy offers some vectorized methods that allow us to compute derivatives without loops, although this comes at the mental cost of harder to understand syntax:

```
import numpy as np
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
2
3
     x = np.linspace(0,2*np.pi,100)
4
     y = np.sin(x)
     dy_analytical = np.cos(x)
     # we need to specify the size of dy ahead because diff returns #an array of n\text{--}1 elements
9
     dy = np.zeros(y.shape,np.float) #we know it will be this size
10
     dy[0:-1] = np.diff(y)/np.diff(x)
dy[-1] = (y[-1] - y[-2])/(x[-1] - x[-2])
11
13
14
15
     calculate dy by center differencing using array slices
16
```

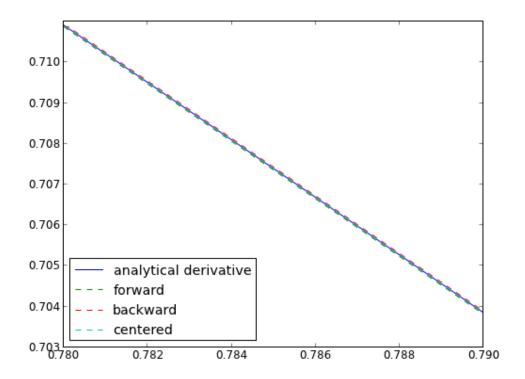


Figure 100: Comparison of different numerical derivatives.

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-252.py).

None

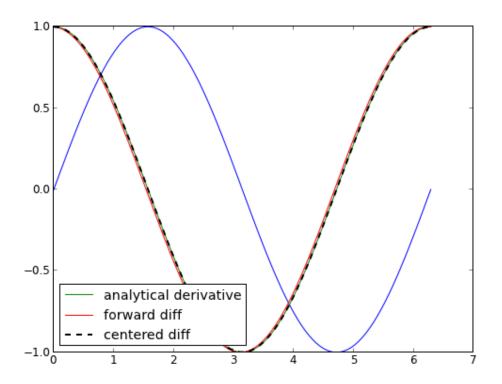


Figure 101: Comparison of different numerical derivatives.

If your data is very noisy, you will have a hard time getting good derivatives; derivatives tend to magnify noise. In these cases, you have to employ smoothing techniques, either implicitly by using a multipoint derivative formula, or explicitly by smoothing the data yourself, or taking the derivative of a function that has been fit to the data in the neighborhood you are interested in.

Here is an example of a 4-point centered difference of some noisy data:

```
import numpy as np
      import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
 4
      x = np.linspace(0,2*np.pi,100)
      y = np.sin(x) + 0.1*np.random.random(size=x.shape)
dy_analytical = np.cos(x)
 5
 6
      #2-point formula
      dyf = [0.0]*len(x)
     dyf [color] feath
for i in range(len(y)-1):
    dyf[i] = (y[i+1] - y[i])/(x[i+1]-x[i])
#set last element by backwards difference
dyf[-1] = (y[-1] - y[-2])/(x[-1] - x[-2])
11
12
13
14
      calculate dy by 4-point center differencing using array slices
16
17
      \frac{y[i-2] - 8y[i-1] + 8[i+1] - y[i+2]}{12h}
18
19
      y[0] and y[1] must be defined by lower order methods
20
      and y[-1] and y[-2] must be defined by lower order methods
21
22
23
     24
25
26
```

```
dy[0] = (y[1]-y[0])/(x[1]-x[0])
dy[1] = (y[2]-y[1])/(x[2]-x[1])
dy[-2] = (y[-2] - y[-3])/(x[-2] - x[-3])
dy[-1] = (y[-1] - y[-2])/(x[-1] - x[-2])

plt.plot(x,y)

plt.plot(x,dy_analytical,label='analytical derivative')
plt.plot(x,dy','r-',label='2pt-forward diff')
plt.plot(x,dy','k--',lw-2,label='4pt-centered diff')
plt.legend(loc='lower left')
plt.savefig('images/multipt-diff.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-253.py).

None

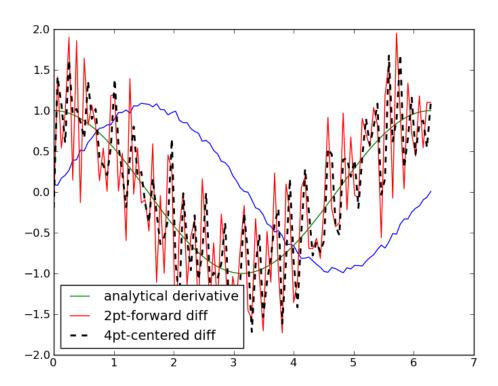


Figure 102: Comparison of 2 point and 4 point numerical derivatives.

The derivative is still noisy, but the four-point derivative is a little better than the two-pt formula.

FFT derivatives It is possible to perform derivatives using fast fourier transforms (FFT):

```
y = np.sin(x) + 0.05*np.random.random(size=x.shape)

dy_analytical = np.cos(x)
10
11
12
13
14
      http://sci.\,tech-archive.net/Archive/sci.\,math/2008-05/msg00401.\,html
15
      you can use fft to calculate derivatives!
16
17
18
19
      if N % 2 == 0:
20
          k = np.asarray(range(0,N/2)+[0] + range(-N/2+1,0))
21
          k = np.asarray(range(0,(N-1)/2) + [0] + range(-(N-1)/2,0))
22
23
      k = 2*np.pi/L
24
25
26
      fd = np.fft.ifft(1.j*k * np.fft.fft(y))
28
      plt.plot(x,y)
      plt.plot(x,dy_analytical,label='analytical der')
plt.plot(x,fd,label='fft der')
29
30
      plt.legend(loc='lower left')
31
32
      plt.savefig('images/fft-der.png')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-254.py).

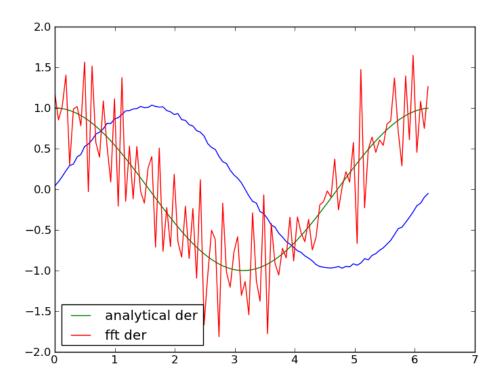


Figure 103: Comparison of FFT numerical derivatives.

This example does not show any major advantage in the quality of the derivative, and it is almost certain I would never remember how to do this off the top of my head.

10.1.15 NetCDF files

NetCDF is a binary, but cross-platform structured data format. The input file and output file for Dacapo is the NetCDF format. On creating a NetCDF file you must define the dimensions and variables before you can store data in them. You can create and read NetCDF files in python using one of the following modules:

Scientific.IO.NetCDF (http://dirac.cnrs-orleans.fr/plone/software/scientificpython/) netCDF3 (http://netcdf4-python.googlecode.com/svn/trunk/docs/netCDF3-module.html) pycdf (http://pysclint.sourceforge.net/pycdf/) this is a very low level module modelled after the C-api. I am not sure it is completely bug-free (I have problems with character variables)

10.1.16 Python modules

The comma separated values (csv) module in python allows you to easily create datafiles: csv writing:

```
import numpy as np

x = np.linspace(0.0,6.0,100)
y = np.cos(x)

import csv

writer = csv.writer(open("some.csv", "w"))

writer.writerows(zip(x,y))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-255.py).

It is not so easy to read the data back in though because the module only returns strings, so you must turn the strings back into floats (or whatever other format they should be).

csv reading:

```
import csv
reader = csv.reader(open("some.csv",'r'),delimiter=',')

x,y = [],[]
for row in reader:
    #csv returns strings that must be cast as floats
    a,b = [float(z) for z in row]
    x.append(a)
    y.append(b)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-256.py).

This is almost as much work as manually reading the data though. The module is more powerful than I have shown here, so one day checkout pydoc csv.

The pickle and shelve modules of python also offer some data storage functionality. Check them out some day too.

10.1.17 Writing and reading Excel files

Writing Excel files It is sometimes convenient to do some analysis in Excel. We can create Excel files in python with xlwt. Google this module if you need to do this a lot.

```
import numpy as np
import xlwt

wbk = xlwt.Workbook()
sheet = wbk.add_sheet('sheet 1')

volumes = np.array([13.72, 14.83, 16.0, 17.23, 18.52])
energies = np.array([-56.29, -56.41, -56.46, -56.46])

for i, pair in enumerate(zip(volumes, energies)):
vol = pair[0]
```

```
12    energy = pair[1]
13    sheet.write(i,0,vol)
14    sheet.write(i,1,energy)
15    wbk.save('images/test-write.xls')
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-257.py).

Reading Excel files We can also read Excel files (even on Linux!) with xlrd. Let us read in the data we just wrote. We wrote 5 volumes to column 0, and 5 energies to column 1.

```
import xlrd
wbk = xlrd.open_workbook('images/test-write.xls')
sheet1 = wbk.sheet_by_name('sheet 1')
print(sheet1.col_values(0))
print(sheet1.col_values(1))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-258.py).

```
[13.72, 14.83, 16.0, 17.23, 18.52]
[-56.29, -56.41, -56.46, -56.46, -56.42]
```

10.1.18 TODO making movies

using animate

2.
using

 $\begin{array}{c} \text{swftools} \\ \text{(png2swf,} \\ \text{pdf2swf)} \end{array}$

#http://wiki.swftools.org/wiki/Main_Page#SWF_Tools_0.9.2_.28_Current_Stable_Version_.29_
Documentation

10.2 Computational geometry

10.2.1 Changing coordinate systems

Let A, B, C be the unit cell vectors

$$A = A1x + A2y + A3z \tag{9}$$

$$B = B1x + B2y + B3z \tag{10}$$

$$C = C1x + C2y + C3z \tag{11}$$

and we want to find the vector [s1, s2, s3] so that P = s1A + s2B + s3C if we expand this, we get:

$$s1A1x + s1A2y + s1A3z$$

 $+ s2B1x + s2B2y + s2B3z$
 $+ s3C1x + s3C2y + s3C3z = p1x + p2y + p3z$

If we now match coefficients on x, y, and z, we can write a set of linear equations as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A1 & B1 & C1 \\ A2 & B2 & C2 \\ A3 & B3 & C3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s1 \\ s2 \\ s3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} p1 \\ p2 \\ p3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(12)$$

or, in standard form:

$$A^T s = p$$

and we need to solve for s as:

$$s = (A^T)^{-1} \cdot p$$

p must be a column vector, so we will have to transpose the positions provided by the atoms class, and then transpose the final result to get the positions back into row-vector form:

$$s = ((A^T)^{-1}p^T)^T$$

Here we implement that in code:

```
from ase.lattice.surface import fcc111
     import numpy as np
    np.set_printoptions(precision=3,suppress=True)
3
4
     slab = fcc111('Pd',
                   a=3.92,
                                 # Pd lattice constant
                   size=(2,2,3), #3-layer slab in 1x1 configuration
                   vacuum=10.0)
9
    pos = slab.get_positions() #these positions use x,y,z vectors as a basis
10
11
     # we want to see the atoms in terms of the unitcell vectors
    newbasis = slab.get_cell()
14
15
    s = np.dot(np.linalg.inv(newbasis.T),pos.T).T
    print('Coordinates in new basis are: \n',s)
16
    # what we just did is equivalent to the following atoms method
    print('Scaled coordinates from ase are: \n',slab.get_scaled_positions())
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-259.py).

```
Coordinates in new basis are:
```

```
[[ 0.167  0.167  0.408]
 [ 0.667
         0.167
                0.408]
 [ 0.167
         0.667
                0.408]
 [ 0.667
         0.667
                 0.408]
 [-0.167
         0.333
                0.5 ]
 [ 0.333  0.333
                0.5 ]
 [-0.167 0.833
                0.5 ]
 [ 0.333  0.833  0.5 ]
          0.
 [ 0.
                 0.592]
 [ 0.5
          0.
                 0.592]
 [ 0.
          0.5
                 0.592]
 [ 0.5
         0.5
                 0.592]]
Scaled coordinates from ase are:
[[ 0.167  0.167  0.408]
 [ 0.667 0.167 0.408]
 [ 0.167
         0.667
                0.408]
 [ 0.667
         0.667
                0.408]
 [ 0.833
         0.333
                 0.5]
 [ 0.333
         0.333
                 0.5
                      ]
 [ 0.833
         0.833
                 0.5
                     ]
 [ 0.333  0.833  0.5 ]
```

```
[ 0. 0. 0.592]
[ 0.5 0. 0.592]
[ 0. 0.5 0.592]
[ 0.5 0.5 0.592]]
```

The method shown above is general to all basis set transformations. We examine another case next. Sometimes it is nice if all the coordinates are integers. For this example, we will use the bcc primitive lattice vectors and express the positions of each atom in terms of them. By definition each atomic position should be an integer combination of the primitive lattice vectors (before relaxation, and assuming one atom is at the origin, and the unit cell is aligned with the primitive basis!)

```
from ase.lattice.cubic import BodyCenteredCubic
    import numpy as np
3
    bulk = BodyCenteredCubic(directions=[[1,0,0],
                                        [0,1,0],
                                        [0,0,1]],
                            size=(2,2,2),
6
                            latticeconstant=2.87,
                            symbol='Fe')
    11
12
13
14
15
    pos = bulk.get_positions()
16
    s = np.dot(np.linalg.inv(newbasis.T), pos.T).T
17
18
    print('atom positions in primitive basis')
19
    print(s)
20
    \# let us see the unit cell in terms of the primitive basis too
    print('unit cell in terms of the primitive basis')
    print(np.dot(np.linalg.inv(newbasis.T), bulk.get_cell().T).T)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-260.py).

```
atom positions in primitive basis
[[0. 0. 0.]
       1.
 [ 1.
            1.]
 [ 0.
       1.
            1.]
 [ 1.
       2.
            2.]
 [ 1.
       0.
            1.]
 [ 2.
            2.]
       1.
 1.
       1.
            2.]
   2.
       2.
            3.]
 [ 1.
       1.
            0.]
 [ 2.
       2.
            1.]
 [ 1.
       2.
            1.]
 [ 2.
            2.]
       3.
 [ 2.
            1.]
       1.
 [ 3.
       2.
            2.]
 [ 2.
       2.
            2.]
 [ 3.
       3.
           3.]]
unit cell in terms of the primitive basis
[[ 0.
       2.
           2.]
 [ 2.
       0.
           2.]
 [ 2.
       2. 0.]]
```

10.2.2 Simple distances, angles

Scientific.Geometry contains several useful functions for performing vector algebra including computing lengths and angles.

```
import numpy as np
     from Scientific.Geometry import Vector
 2
     A = Vector([1, 1, 1])  # Scientfic
a = np.array([1, 1, 1])  # numpy
     B = Vector([0.0, 1.0, 0.0])
     print('|A| = ', A.length())  # Scientific P(
print('|a| = ', np.sum(a**2)**0.5)  # numpy way
print('|a| = ', np.linalg.norm(a))  # numpy way 2
                                          # Scientific Python way
11
12
     print('ScientificPython angle = ', A.angle(B)) # in radians
13
     14
15
                               B / np.linalg.norm(B))))
     # cross products
18
     print('Scientific A .cross. B = ', A.cross(B))
19
     20
21
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-261.py).

```
('|A| = ', 1.7320508075688772)
('|a| = ', 1.7320508075688772)
('|a| = ', 1.7320508075688772)
('ScientificPython angle = ', 0.9553166181245092)
('numpy angle = {}', 0.95531661812450919)
('Scientific A .cross. B = ', Vector(-1.000000,0.000000,1.000000))
('numpy A .cross. B = ', array([-1., 0., 1.]))
```

10.2.3 Unit cell properties

The volume of a unit cell can be calculated from $V = (a_1 \times a_2) \cdot a_3$ where a_1 , a_2 and a_3 are the unit cell vectors. It is more convenient, however, to simply evaluate that equation as the determinant of the matrix describing the unit cell, where each row of the matrix is a unit cell vector.

```
V = |\det(ucell)|
```

Why do we need to take the absolute value? The sign of the determinant depends on the handedness of the order of the unit cell vectors. If they are right-handed the determinant will be positive, and if they are left-handed the determinant will be negative. Switching any two rows will change the sign of the determinant and the handedness. ase implements a convenient function to get the volume of an Atoms object: ase.Atoms.get_volume.

Here are three equivalent ways to compute the unit cell volume.

```
import numpy as np

a1 = [2, 0, 0]
 a2 = [1, 1, 0]
 a3 = [0, 0, 10]

cut = np.array([a1, a2, a3])

print('V = {0} ang'3 from dot/cross'.format(np.dot(np.cross(a1,a2),a3)))
print('V = {0} ang'3 from det'.format(np.linalg.det(uc)))

from ase import Atoms
```

```
13
14 atoms = Atoms([],cell=uc) #empty list of atoms
15 print('V = {0} ang'3 from get_volume'.format(atoms.get_volume()))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-262.py).

```
V = 20 ang^3 from dot/cross
V = 20.0 ang^3 from det
V = 20.0 ang^3 from get_volume
```

10.2.4 d-spacing

If you like to set up the vacuum in your slab calculations in terms of equivalent layers of atoms, you need to calculate the d-spacing (which is the spacing between parallel planes of atoms) for the hkl plane you are using. The script below shows several ways to accomplish that.

```
1
            import numpy as np
  2
            from ase.lattice.cubic import FaceCenteredCubic
            ag = FaceCenteredCubic(directions=[[1, 0, 0],
                                                                                                      [0, 0, 1]],
                                                                        size=(1, 1, 1),
                                                                       symbol='Ag',
  9
                                                                       latticeconstant=4.0)
 10
             # these are the reciprocal lattice vectors
 11
            b1, b2, b3 = np.linalg.inv(ag.get_cell())
 14
            g(111) = 1*b1 + 1*b2 + 1*b3
 15
16
            and |g(111)| = 1/d_111
 17
 18
            h,k,l = (1, 1, 1)
20
            d = 1./np.linalg.norm(h*b1 + k*b2 + 1*b3)
21
            print('d_111 spacing (method 1) = {0:1.3f} Angstroms'.format(d))
22
23
             # method #2
24
            hkl = np.array([h, k, 1])
26
            G = np.array([b1, b2, b3]) # reciprocal unit cell
27
28
             Gstar is usually defined as this matrix of dot products:
29
30
             Gstar = np.array(\llbracket [dot(b1,b1), \ dot(b1,b2), \ dot(b1,b3) \rrbracket,
                                                          [dot(b1,b2), dot(b2,b2), dot(b2,b3)],
[dot(b1,b3), dot(b2,b3), dot(b3,b3)]])
32
33
34
             but I prefer the notationally more compact:
35
            Gstar = G . dot. transpose(G)
36
38
             then, 1/d_hkl^2 = hkl .dot. Gstar .dot. hkl
39
40
            Gstar = np.dot(G, G.T)
41
42
             id2 = np.dot(hkl, np.dot(Gstar, hkl))
43
45
            print('d_111 spacing (method 2) =',np.sqrt(1 / id2))
46
             {\it \# http://books.google.com/books?id=nJHSqEseuIUC@lpg=PA118@ots=YA9TBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHBldoVHB
47
             # &dq=reciprocal%20metric%20tensor&pg=PA119#v=onepage
48
             # &q=reciprocal%20metric%20tensor&f=false
 49
             \verb|'''Finally|, many text books on crystallography use long algebraic|\\
            formulas for computing the d-spacing with sin and cos, vector lengths, and angles. Below we compute these and use them in the general
52
53
             triclinic structure formula which applies to all the structures.
54
            from Scientific.Geometry import Vector
```

```
57
     import math
58
     unitcell = ag.get_cell()
59
     A = Vector(unitcell[0])
60
     B = Vector(unitcell[1])
61
     C = Vector(unitcell[2])
     # lengths of the vectors
64
     a = A.length() #*angstroms2bohr
65
     b = B.length() #*angstroms2bohr
66
67
     c = C.length()#*angstroms2bohr
69
     # angles between the vectors in radians
70
     alpha = B.angle(C)
     beta = A.angle(C)
71
     gamma = A.angle(B)
72
73
     print('a b c alpha beta gamma')
     print('{0:1.3f} {1:1.3f} {2:1.3f} {3:1.3f} {4:1.3f} {5:1.3f}\n'.format(a,b,c,
76
77
     h. k. 1 = (1, 1, 1)
78
79
     from math import sin, cos
80
     id2 = ((h**2 / a**2 * sin(alpha)**2
82
             + k**2 / b**2 * sin(beta)**2
83
             + 1**2 / c**2 * sin(gamma)**2
84
             + 2 * k * 1 / b / c * (cos(beta) * cos(gamma) - cos(alpha))
85
             + 2 * h * 1 / a / c * (cos(alpha) * cos(gamma) - cos(beta))
+ 2 * h * k / a / b * (cos(alpha) * cos(beta) - cos(gamma)))
86
             / (1 - cos(alpha)**2 - cos(beta)**2 - cos(gamma)**2
88
               + 2 * cos(alpha) * cos(beta) * cos(gamma)))
89
90
     d = 1 / math.sqrt(id2)
91
92
     print('d_111 spacing (method 3) = {0}'.format(d))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-263.py).

```
d_111 spacing (method 1) = 2.309 Angstroms
('d_111 spacing (method 2) =', 2.3094010767585029)
   b
        С
            alpha beta gamma
4.000 4.000 4.000 1.571 1.571 1.571
d_{111} spacing (method 3) = 2.30940107676
```

10.3 Equations of State

The module ase.utils.eos uses a simple polynomial equation of state to find bulk unit cell equilibrium volumes and bulk modulus. There are several other choices you could use that are more standard in the literature. Here we summarize them and provide references to the relevant literature. In each of these cases we show equations for the energy as a function of volume, although sometimes the volume is transformed or normalized.

10.3.1 Birch-Murnaghan

This is probably the most common equation of state used most often, and is a modification of the original Murnaghan EOS described below. A current description of the equation is in reference. ¹⁰⁴ You can also find the equations for the Vinet and Poirier-Tarantola equations of state in that reference.

```
Birch-Murnaghan EOS: E(\eta) = E_0 + \frac{9B_0V_0}{16}(\eta^2-1)^2(6+B_0'(\eta^2-1)-4\eta^2)
```

where $\eta = (V/V_0)^{1/3}$, B_0 and B'_0 are the bulk modulus and its pressure derivative at the equilibrium volume V_0 . You may find other derivations of this equation in the literature too.

Two other equations of state in that reference are the Vinet EOS:

```
E(\eta) = E_0 + \frac{2B_0V_0}{(B'_0 - 1)^2} (2 - (5 + 3B'_0(\eta - 1)e^{-3(B'_0 - 1)(\eta - 1)/2})
and the Poirier-Tarantola EOS: E(\varrho) = E_0 + \frac{B_0 V_0 \varrho^2}{6} (3 + \varrho(B_0' - 2))
with \varrho = -3 \ln(\tilde{\eta}).
```

10.3.2 Murnaghan

The equation most often used in the Murnaghan ¹⁰⁵ equation of state is described in ¹⁰⁶.

$$E = E_T + \frac{B_0 V}{B_0'} \left[\frac{(V_0/V)^{B_0'}}{B_0'-1} + 1 \right] - \frac{V_0 B_0}{B_0'-1}$$

where V is the volume, B_0 and B'_0 are the bulk modulus and its pressure derivative at the equilibrium volume V_0 . All of these are parameters that are fitted to energy vs. unit cell volume (V) data. When fitting data to this equation a guess of 2-4 for B'_0 is usually a good start.

10.3.3 Birch

The original Birch equation 107 is:

$$E = E_0 + \frac{9}{8}B_0V_0\left(\left(\frac{V_0}{V}\right)^{\frac{2}{3}} - 1\right)^2 + \frac{9}{16}B_0V_0(B_0' - 4)\left(\left(\frac{V}{V_0}\right)^{2/3} - 1\right)^3$$

10.3.4 The Anton-Schmidt Equation of state ¹⁰⁸

$$E(V) = E_{\infty} + \frac{BV_0}{n+1} \left(\frac{V}{V_0}\right)^{n+1} \left(\ln \frac{V}{V_0} - \frac{1}{n+1}\right)$$

 $E(V) = E_{\infty} + \frac{BV_0}{n+1} \left(\frac{V}{V_0}\right)^{n+1} \left(\ln \frac{V}{V_0} - \frac{1}{n+1}\right)$ where E_{∞} corresponds to the energy at infinite separation, although the model they use to derive this equation breaks down at large separations so this is usually not a good estimate of the cohesive energy. n is typically about -2.

10.3.5 Fitting data to these equations of state

To use these equations of state to find the equilibrium cell volume and bulk modulus we need a set of calculations that give us the energy of the unit cell as a function of the cell volume. We then fit that data to one of the above equations to extract the parameters we want. All of these equations of state are non-linear in the cell volume, which means you have to provide some initial guesses for the parameters.

Here we describe a strategy for getting some estimates of the parameters using a linear least squares fitting of a parabola to the data to estimate E_0 , V_0 , B and B'_0 which are used as initial guess for a non-linear least squares fit of the equation of state to the data.

The following example illustrates one approach to this problem for the Murnaghan equation of state:

```
'''Example of fitting the Birch-Murnaghan EOS to data'''
    import numpy as np
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
    from scipy.optimize import leastsq
    # raw data from 2.2.3-al-analyze-eos.py
    v = np.array([13.72, 14.83, 16.0, 17.23, 18.52])
    e = np.array([-56.29, -56.41, -56.46, -56.46, -56.42])
     #make a vector to evaluate fits on with a lot of points so it looks smooth
11
12
    vfit = np.linspace(min(v),max(v),100)
13
     ### fit a parabola to the data
     \# y = ax^2 + bx +
    a,b,c = np.polyfit(v,e,2) #this is from pylab
```

```
18
     the parabola does not fit the data very well, but we can use it to get
19
20
     some analytical guesses for other parameters.
21
     VO = minimum energy volume, or where dE/dV=0
23
     E = aV \mathcal{P} + bV + c
24
     dE/dV = 2aV + b = 0
25
     VO = -b/2a
26
     EO is the minimum energy, which is:
27
     E0 = aV0^2 + bV0 + c
30
    B is equal to V0*d^2E/dV^2, which is just 2a*V0
31
     and from experience we know Bprime O is usually a small number like 4
32
33
34
     #now here are our initial guesses.
36
     v0 = -b/(2*a)
37
     e0 = a*v0**2 + b*v0 + c
     b0 = 2*a*v0
38
     bP = 4
39
40
     #now we have to create the equation of state function
42
     def Murnaghan(parameters, vol):
43
         given a vector of parameters and volumes, return a vector of energies.
44
         equation From PRB 28,5480 (1983)
45
46
         E0 = parameters[0]
         B0 = parameters[1]
49
         BP = parameters[2]
         V0 = parameters[3]
50
51
         E = E0 + B0*vol/BP*(((V0/vol)**BP)/(BP-1)+1) - V0*B0/(BP-1.)
52
53
         return E
55
56
     \textit{\# and we define an objective function that will be \textit{minimized}}
     def objective(pars,y,x):
57
        #we will minimize this function
58
         err = y - Murnaghan(pars,x)
59
61
62
    x0 = [e0, b0, bP, v0] #initial guesses in the same order used in the Murnaghan function
63
    murnpars, ier = leastsq(objective, x0, args=(e,v)) #this is from scipy
64
65
66
     #now we make a figure summarizing the results
     plt.plot(v,e,'ro')
     plt.plot(vfit, a*vfit**2 + b*vfit + c,'--',label='parabolic fit')
68
     plt.plot(vfit, Murnaghan(murnpars,vfit), label='Murnaghan fit')
69
     plt.xlabel('Volume ($\AA^3$)')
70
     plt.ylabel('Energy (eV)')
71
    plt.legend(loc='best')
73
74
     \mbox{\it \#add} some text to the figure in figure coordinates
75
     ax = plt.gca()
     plt.text(0.4, 0.5, 'Min volume = {0:1.2f} $\AA^3$'.format(murnpars[3]),
76
          transform = ax.transAxes)
77
     plt.text(0.4, 0.4, 'Bulk modulus = {0:1.2f} eV/$\AA^3$ = {1:1.2f} GPa'.format(murnpars[1],
78
                                                                                  murnpars[1] *160.21773),
80
          transform = ax.transAxes)
81
     plt.savefig('images/a-eos.png')
82
     \verb"np.set_printoptions" (\verb"precision=3")"
83
     print('initial guesses : ', np.array(x0)) # array for easy printing
     print('fitted parameters: ', murnpars)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-264.py).

```
initial guesses : [-56.472  0.631  4. 16.79] fitted parameters: [-56.466  0.49  4.753  16.573]
```

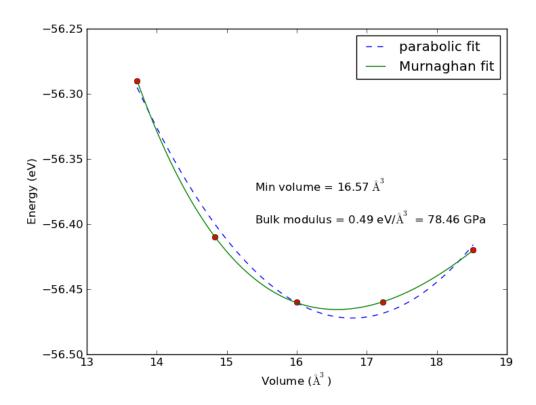


Figure 104: Fitted equation of state for bulk data. The initial fitted parabola is shown to illustrate how it is useful for making initial guesses of the minimum and bulk modulus.

You can see the Murnaghan equation of state fits the data better than the parabola.

Here is a comparison of the initial guesses and final parameters. You can see our guesses from the parabola were actually pretty good, and are the main reason we converged to a solution. If you try other guesses you will probably find the scipy.optimize.leastsq function does not converge.

10.4 Miscellaneous jasp/VASP tips

10.4.1 Using a special setup

VASP provides special setups for some elements. The following guidelines tell you what is in a potential: No extension means the standard potential. The following extensions mean:

Table 7: Meaning of extensions on POTCAR files for special setups.

energy)
ergy)

Here are some links to information in the VASP manual for the setups.

1st

```
row
el-
e-
ments
```

Alkali and alkaliearth metals

delements

• p- elements

felements

Here we show how to select the O_sv potential in a calculation.

```
from ase import Atoms, Atom
     from jasp import *
3
     atoms = Atoms([Atom('0',[5, 5, 5], magmom=1)],
                    cell=(6, 6, 6))
     with jasp('molecules/0_sv',
                encut=300, xc='PBE',
9
10
                 ispin=2,
11
                 ismear=0,
                 sigma=0.001,
setups={'0':'_sv'}, # specifies O_sv potential
atoms=atoms) as calc:
14
15
          print('Total energy = {0} eV'.format(atoms.get_potential_energy()))
16
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-265.py).

```
Total energy = -1578.61345 eV
```

How do you know you got the right special setup? We can look at the first line of the POTCAR file in the calculation directory to see.

```
head -n 1 molecules/0_sv/POTCAR
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-266.py).

```
PAW_PBE O_sv 05Jul2007
```

This shows we indeed used the O_sv setup.

10.4.2 Running jasp in parallel

jasp is smart. If you ask for more than one node, it will automatically try to run in parallel.

```
from jasp import *
     JASPRC['queue.nodes']=4
     from ase import Atom, Atoms atoms = Atoms([Atom('0',[5, 5, 5], magmom=1)],
3
4
                    cell=(6, 6, 6))
     with jasp('molecules/0_s-4nodes',
                 encut=300,
9
                 xc='PBE',
10
                 ispin=2,
11
                 ismear=0.
                 sigma=0.001,
12
                 setups={'0':'_s'}, # specifies O_s potential
                 atoms=atoms) as calc:
15
16
          calc.calculate()
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-267.py). How do you know it ran on four nodes?

head molecules/0_s-4nodes/OUTCAR

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-268.py).

```
vasp.5.3.5 31Mar14 (build Jan 09 2015 15:20:38) complex
executed on
                        LinuxIFC date 2015.01.11 10:18:14
running on
              4 total cores
distrk:
        each k-point on
                            4 cores,
                                        1 groups
distr: one band on NCORES_PER_BAND=
```

4 groups

Running multiple instances of jasp in parallel 10.4.3

jasp was designed to enable asynchronous, parallel running processes through a queuing system. This is ideal for submitting large numbers of independent calculations in one script. The design uses exceptions to exit the script if the results are not available for subsequent analysis. The design expects that you run the script often, and the results are analyzed only when they are finally available.

1 cores,

Sometimes it is convenient to run a set of calculations and then wait for them to finish so that a second set of calculations that depend on the first results can be run. In this scenario, it is inconvenient to have to rerun your script again after the first set of calculations is done. The challenge is how to tell the computer to run a set of calculations in parallel, and wait for the calculations to finish. This can be achieved using the multiprocessing module in python.

The principle idea is to set up the calculations you want to run, and use multiprocessing to handle running them and waiting for you. To do this, you must instruct jasp to use a "run mode", and construct a script with a function that runs a calculation, and a section that only runs in the "main" script.

```
import multiprocessing
from jasp import
from ase import Atom, Atoms
from ase.utils.eos import EquationOfState
import numpy as np
# this is the function that runs a calculation
```

```
def do_calculation(calculator):
         'function to run a calculation through multiprocessing'
10
         with calculator as calc:
11
             atoms = calc.get_atoms()
12
             e = atoms.get_potential_energy()
14
            v = atoms.get_volume()
15
         return v, e
16
     # this only runs in the main script, not in processes on other cores
17
     if __name__ == '__main__':

NCORES = 6 # number of cores to run processes on
18
19
21
         # setup an atoms object
22
         a = 3.6
        atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu',(0, 0, 0))],
cell=0.5 * a*np.array([[1.0, 1.0, 0.0],
23
24
                                              [0.0, 1.0, 1.0],
25
26
                                              [1.0, 0.0, 1.0]]))
27
         v0 = atoms.get_volume()
28
29
         # Step 1
         COUNTER = 0
30
         calculators = [] # list of calculators to be run
31
         factors = [-0.1, 0.05, 0.0, 0.05, 0.1]
33
         for f in factors:
34
             newatoms = atoms.copy()
            newatoms.set_volume(v0*(1 + f))
35
             label = 'bulk/cu-mp/step1-{0}'.format(COUNTER)
36
             COUNTER += 1
37
38
39
             calc = jasp(label,
                         xc='PBE',
40
                         encut=350.
41
                         kpts=(6,6,6),
42
                         isym=2,
43
                         atoms=newatoms)
44
45
46
             calculators.append(calc)
47
         # now we set up the Pool of processes
48
         pool = multiprocessing.Pool(processes=NCORES)
49
50
         # get the output from running each calculation
52
         out = pool.map(do_calculation, calculators)
         pool.close()
53
         pool.join() # this makes the script wait here until all jobs are done
54
55
         # now proceed with analysis
56
         V = [x[0] \text{ for } x \text{ in out}]
         E = [x[1] \text{ for } x \text{ in out}]
59
60
         eos = EquationOfState(V, E)
         v1, e1, B = eos.fit()
61
         print('step1: v1 = {v1}'.format(**locals()))
62
63
64
         65
         ## STEP 2, eos around the minimum
         66
         factors = [-0.06, -0.04, -0.02,
67
                    0.0,
68
                    0.02, 0.04, 0.06]
69
         calculators = [] # reset list
71
72
         for f in factors:
            newatoms = atoms.copy()
73
             newatoms.set_volume(v1*(1 + f))
74
             label = 'bulk/cu-mp/step2-{0}'.format(COUNTER)
75
             COUNTER += 1
78
             calc = jasp(label,
                         xc='PBE',
79
                         encut=350,
80
                         kpts=(6,6,6),
81
                         isym=2,
83
                         atoms=newatoms)
84
             calculators.append(calc)
85
         pool = multiprocessing.Pool(processes=NCORES)
86
```

```
out = pool.map(do_calculation, calculators)
88
          pool.close()
89
          pool.join() # wait here for calculations to finish
90
           # proceed with analysis
          V += [x[0] for x in out]
E += [x[1] for x in out]
93
94
95
          V = np.array(V)
96
97
          E = np.array(E)
          f = np.array(V)/v1
99
100
           # only take points within +- 10% of the minimum
101
          ind = (f >=0.90) & (f <= 1.1)
102
103
104
           eos = EquationOfState(V[ind], E[ind])
105
           v2, e2, B = eos.fit()
          print('step2: v2 = {v2}'.format(**locals()))
106
          eos.plot('images/cu-mp-eos.png')
107
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-269.py).

```
step1: v1 = 12.0218897111
step2: v2 = 12.0216094217
```

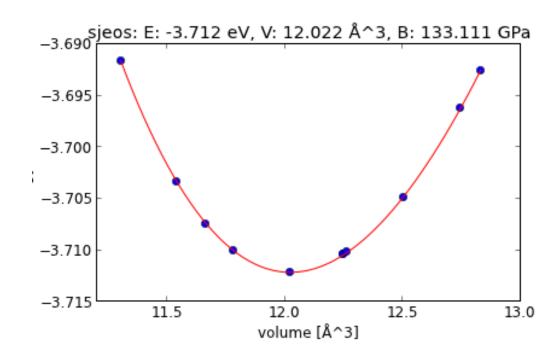


Figure 105: Equation of state for Cu using the multiprocessing module.

Note:

The first time you run this you will get all the VASP output. The second time you get the smaller output above.

Also, I have not figured out how to integrate this method with the queue system. At the moment, the runjasp.py script which ultimately runs VASP will run VASP in parallel, i.e. one process on multiple nodes/cores instead of a single job that runs multiple processes simultaneously on multiple nodes/cores.

Here is an example of running this through the queue. The main variations are you must set several variables in JASPRC that indicate you want to use multiprocessing, and you must save the script and submit manually to the queue with matching parameters. This is not 100% satisfying, but it is the best that I have found for now.

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
     import multiprocessing
     from jasp import *
     from ase import Atom, Atoms
     from ase.utils.eos import EquationOfState
 6
     import numpy as np
     JASPRC['queue.nodes'] = 1
10
     # Here we will be able to run three MPI jobs on 2 cores at a time.
11
     JASPRC['queue.ppn'] = 6
12
     JASPRC['multiprocessing.cores_per_process'] = 2
13
     # to submit this script, save it as cu-mp.py
14
     # qsub -l nodes=1:ppn=6,walltime=10:00:00 cu-mp.py
15
17
     if 'PBS_0_WORKDIR' in os.environ:
18
         os.chdir(os.environ['PBS_O_WORKDIR'])
19
     # this is the function that runs a calculation
20
     def do_calculation(calculator):
         'function to run a calculation through multiprocessing'
23
         with calculator as calc:
24
             atoms = calc.get_atoms()
             e = atoms.get_potential_energy()
25
             v = atoms.get_volume()
26
         return v, e
27
     # this only runs in the main script, not in processes on other cores
30
     if __name__ == '__main__':
31
         # setup an atoms object
32
         a = 3.6
33
         atoms = Atoms([Atom('Cu',(0, 0, 0))],
34
                        cell=0.5 * a*np.array([[1.0, 1.0, 0.0],
36
                                                 [0.0, 1.0, 1.0]
37
                                                 [1.0, 0.0, 1.0]]))
         v0 = atoms.get volume()
38
39
         # Step 1
40
         COUNTER = 0
          calculators = [] # list of calculators to be run
         factors = [-0.1, 0.05, 0.0, 0.05, 0.1] for f in factors:
43
44
             newatoms = atoms.copy()
45
             newatoms.set_volume(v0*(1 + f))
46
              label = 'bulk/cu-mp2/step1-{0}'.format(COUNTER)
48
             COUNTER += 1
49
             calc = jasp(label,
50
                          xc='PBE',
51
                          encut=350,
52
                          kpts=(6,6,6),
53
                          isym=2,
                          debug=logging.DEBUG,
55
56
                          atoms=newatoms)
57
             calculators.append(calc)
58
          # now we set up the Pool of processes
61
         \verb|pool = multiprocessing.Pool(processes=3)| \textit{# ask for 6 cores but run MPI on 2 cores}|
62
          # get the output from running each calculation
63
         out = pool.map(do_calculation, calculators)
64
65
         pool.join() # this makes the script wait here until all jobs are done
67
68
          # now proceed with analysis
         V = [x[0] \text{ for } x \text{ in out}]
69
         E = [x[1] \text{ for } x \text{ in out}]
70
```

```
eos = EquationOfState(V, E)
72
         v1, e1, B = eos.fit()
print('step1: v1 = {v1}'.format(**locals()))
73
74
 75
          76
          ## STEP 2, eos around the minimum
          78
          factors = [-0.06, -0.04, -0.02,
79
                     0.0,
80
                     0.02, 0.04, 0.06]
81
 82
 83
          calculators = [] # reset list
 84
          for f in factors:
 85
             newatoms = atoms.copy()
             newatoms.set_volume(v1*(1 + f))
label = 'bulk/cu-mp2/step2-{0}'.format(COUNTER)
86
87
 88
90
              calc = jasp(label,
                          xc='PBE',
91
                          encut=350,
92
                          kpts=(6,6,6),
93
                          isym=2,
94
                          debug=logging.DEBUG,
96
                          atoms=newatoms)
97
              {\tt calculators.append(calc)}
98
          pool = multiprocessing.Pool(processes=3)
99
100
101
          out = pool.map(do_calculation, calculators)
102
          pool.close()
          pool.join() # wait here for calculations to finish
103
104
         # proceed with analysis
V += [x[0] for x in out]
105
106
          E += [x[1] \text{ for } x \text{ in out}]
107
108
109
          V = np.array(V)
          E = np.array(E)
110
111
          f = np.array(V)/v1
112
113
114
          # only take points within +- 10% of the minimum
          ind = (f >=0.90) & (f <= 1.1)
115
116
          eos = EquationOfState(V[ind], E[ind])
117
         v2, e2, B = eos.fit()
print('step2: v2 = {v2}'.format(**locals()))
118
119
          eos.plot('images/cu-mp2-eos.png',show=True)
120
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-270.py).

```
step1: v1 = 12.0218897111
step2: v2 = 12.0216189798
```

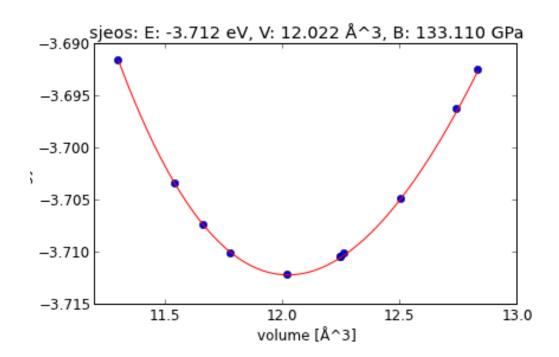


Figure 106: Second view of a Cu equation of state computed with multiprocessing.

10.4.4 Exporting data json, xml, python, sqlite

jasp has some capability for representing a calculation result in an archival format. The formats currently under development are json, xml, python and sqlite. The main point of these methods is to make it easy to create archive files that are machine readable for supplementary information in publications. These are under development.

python This is code that should reconstruct the python code needed to run a particular calculation. There are some limitations, e.g. it does not currently get magnetic moments on the atoms.

```
ibrion = 2,
           isif = 4,
           encut = 350.0,
           prec = 'Normal',
           kpts = array([13, 13, 13]),
           reciprocal = False,
           xc = 'PBE',
           txt = '-',
           gamma = False,
           atoms=atoms) as calc:
    # your code here
json
from jasp import *
with jasp('bulk/alloy/cu') as calc:
   print(calc.pretty_json)
    Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-272.py).
{
    "INCAR": {
         "addgrid": null,
         "aexx": null,
         "aggac": null,
         "aggax": null,
         "aldac": null,
         "algo": null,
         "amin": null,
         "amix": null,
         "amix_mag": null,
         "bmix": null,
         "bmix_mag": null,
         "ddr": null,
         "deper": null,
         "dfnmax": null,
         "dfnmin": null,
         "dipol": null,
         "drotmax": null,
         "ebreak": null,
         "ediff": null,
         "ediffg": null,
         "eint": null,
         "emax": null,
         "emin": null,
         "enaug": null,
         "encut": 350.0,
         "encutfock": null,
         "encutgw": null,
         "falpha": null,
         "falphadec": null,
         "fdstep": null,
         "ferdo": null,
```

```
"ferwe": null,
"fnmin": null,
"ftimedec": null,
"ftimeinc": null,
"ftimemax": null,
"gga": null,
"hfscreen": null,
"ialgo": null,
"iband": null,
"ibrion": 2,
"ichain": null,
"icharg": null,
"idipol": null,
"images": null,
"iniwav": null,
"invcurve": null,
"iopt": null,
"isif": 4,
"ismear": null,
"ispin": null,
"istart": null,
"isym": null,
"iwavpr": null,
"jacobian": null,
"kgamma": null,
"kpuse": null,
"kspacing": null,
"laechg": null,
"lasph": null,
"lasync": null,
"lbfgsmem": null,
"lcharg": null,
"lclimb": null,
"lcorr": null,
"ldau": null,
"ldau_luj": null,
"ldauj": null,
"ldaul": null,
"ldauprint": null,
"ldautype": null,
"ldauu": null,
"ldiag": null,
"ldipol": null,
"ldneb": null,
"lelf": null,
"lepsilon": null,
"lglobal": null,
"lhfcalc": null,
"llineopt": null,
"lmaxmix": null,
"lnebcell": null,
"loptics": null,
```

```
"lorbit": null,
"lpard": null,
"lplane": null,
"lscalapack": null,
"lscalu": null,
"lsepb": null,
"lsepk": null,
"ltangentold": null,
"lthomas": null,
"luse_vdw": null,
"lvdw": null,
"lvhar": null,
"lvtot": null,
"lwave": null,
"magmom": null,
"maxmix": null,
"maxmove": null,
"nbands": 9,
"nblk": null,
"nbmod": null,
"nelect": null,
"nelm": null,
"nelmdl": null,
"nelmin": null,
"nfree": null,
"ngx": null,
"ngxf": null,
"ngy": null,
"ngyf": null,
"ngz": null,
"ngzf": null,
"nkred": null,
"nkredx": null,
"nkredy": null,
"nkredz": null,
"nomega": null,
"nomegar": null,
"npar": null,
"nsim": null,
"nsw": 10,
"nupdown": null,
"nwrite": null,
"param1": null,
"param2": null,
"pomass": null,
"potim": null,
"prec": "Normal",
"precfock": null,
"ropt": null,
"rwigs": null,
"sdalpha": null,
"sdr": null,
```

```
"sigma": null,
    "smass": null,
    "snl": null,
    "spring": null,
    "stol": null,
    "symprec": null,
    "system": null,
    "tebeg": null,
    "teend": null,
    "time": null,
    "timestep": null,
    "vdwgr": null,
    "vdwrn": null,
    "voskown": null,
    "weimin": null,
    "zab_vdw": null,
    "zval": null
},
"atoms": {
    "cell": [
       [
            1.818,
            0.0,
            1.818
        ],
        [
            1.818,
            1.818,
            0.0
        ],
        [
            0.0,
            1.818,
            1.818
        ]
    ],
    "pbc": [
        true,
        true,
        true
    ],
    "positions": [
        [
            0.0,
            0.0,
            0.0
        ]
    "symbols": [
       "Cu"
    ],
    "tags": [
```

```
"gamma": false,
        "kpts": [
            13,
             13,
             13
        "kpts_nintersections": null,
        "reciprocal": false,
        "setups": null,
        "txt": "-",
        "xc": "PBE"
    }
}
\mathbf{xml}
         archive This relies on the pyxser module. I cannot get this to install anymore due to some
unicode error.
from jasp import *
with jasp('bulk/alloy/cu') as calc:
    Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-273.py).
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<pyxs:obj xmlns:pyxs="http://projects.coder.cl/pyxser/model/" version="1.0" type="vasp" module="jasp</pre>
  <pyxs:col type="dict" name="d">
    <pyxs:col type="dict" name="INCAR">
      <pyxs:prop type="str" name="prec">Normal</pyxs:prop>
      <pyxs:prop type="float" name="encut">350.0</pyxs:prop>
      <pyxs:prop type="int" name="nbands">9</pyxs:prop>
      <pyxs:prop type="int" name="isif">4</pyxs:prop>
      <pyxs:prop type="int" name="nsw">10</pyxs:prop>
      <pyxs:prop type="int" name="ibrion">2</pyxs:prop>
    </pyxs:col>
    <pyxs:col type="dict" name="input">
      <pyxs:col type="list" name="kpts">
        <pyxs:prop type="int" name="kpts">13</pyxs:prop>
        <pyxs:prop type="int" name="kpts">13</pyxs:prop>
        <pyxs:prop type="int" name="kpts">13</pyxs:prop>
      </pyxs:col>
      <pyxs:prop type="bool" name="reciprocal">False</pyxs:prop>
      <pyxs:prop type="str" name="xc">PBE</pyxs:prop>
      <pyxs:prop type="str" name="txt">-</pyxs:prop>
      <pyxs:prop type="bool" name="gamma">False</pyxs:prop>
    </pyxs:col>
    <pyxs:col type="dict" name="atoms">
      <pyxs:col type="list" name="cell">
        <pyxs:col type="list" name="cell">
           <pyxs:prop type="float" name="cell">1.818</pyxs:prop>
```

0

]

"input": {

},

```
<pyxs:prop type="float" name="cell">0.0</pyxs:prop>
          <pyxs:prop type="float" name="cell">1.818</pyxs:prop>
        </pyxs:col>
        <pyxs:col type="list" name="cell">
          <pyxs:prop type="float" name="cell">1.818</pyxs:prop>
          <pyxs:prop type="float" name="cell">1.818</pyxs:prop>
          <pyxs:prop type="float" name="cell">0.0</pyxs:prop>
        </pyxs:col>
        <pyxs:col type="list" name="cell">
          <pyxs:prop type="float" name="cell">0.0</pyxs:prop>
          <pyxs:prop type="float" name="cell">1.818</pyxs:prop>
          <pyxs:prop type="float" name="cell">1.818</pyxs:prop>
        </pyxs:col>
     </pyxs:col>
      <pyxs:col type="list" name="symbols">
        <pyxs:prop type="str" name="symbols">Cu</pyxs:prop>
     </pyxs:col>
      <pyxs:col type="list" name="pbc">
        <pyxs:prop type="bool" name="pbc">True</pyxs:prop>
        <pyxs:prop type="bool" name="pbc">True</pyxs:prop>
        <pyxs:prop type="bool" name="pbc">True</pyxs:prop>
     </pyxs:col>
     <pyxs:col type="list" name="positions">
        <pyxs:col type="list" name="positions">
          <pyxs:prop type="float" name="positions">0.0</pyxs:prop>
          <pyxs:prop type="float" name="positions">0.0</pyxs:prop>
          <pyxs:prop type="float" name="positions">0.0</pyxs:prop>
        </pyxs:col>
     </pyxs:col>
   </pyxs:col>
  </pyxs:col>
</pyxs:obj>
```

10.4.5 Recommended values for ENCUT and valence electrons for different POTCAR files

The ENCUT tag and PREC tag affect the accuracy/convergence of your calculations.

```
from jasp.POTCAR import *
    from ase.data import chemical_symbols
    import glob, os
    print('#+tblname: POTCAR')
    print('#+caption: Parameters for POTPAW_PBE POTCAR files.')
    print('#+ATTR_LaTeX: longtable')
    print('| POTCAR | ENMIN | ENMAX | prec=high (eV) | # val. elect. |')
    print('|-')
9
10
    chemical_symbols.sort()
11
    for symbol in chemical_symbols:
13
14
         potcars = glob.glob('{0}/potpaw_PBE/{1}*/POTCAR'.format(os.environ['VASP_PP_PATH'],
15
                                                          symbol))
16
         for potcar in potcars:
             POTCAR = os.path.relpath(potcar,
                                      os.environ['VASP_PP_PATH']+'/potpaw_PBE')[:-7]
20
             ENMIN = get_ENMIN(potcar)
21
             ENMAX = get_ENMAX(potcar)
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-274.py).

Table 8: Parameters for POTPAW_PBE POTCAR files.

POTCAR	ENMIN	ENMAX	rw_PBE POTCAR in prec=high (eV) # v	val. elect.
Ac	129.263	172.351	224.056	11.0
	187.383	249.844	324.797	11.0 11.0
Ag	187.383	249.844	324.797	
Ag_GW				11.0
Ag_pv	223.399	297.865	387.225	17.0
Al_GW	180.225	240.3	312.390	3.0
Al_sv_GW	308.331	411.109	534.442	11.0
Al	180.225	240.3	312.390	3.0
Am	191.906	255.875	332.637	17.0
Ar	199.806	266.408	346.330	8.0
Ar_GW	199.806	266.408	346.330	8.0
As_GW	156.526	208.702	271.313	5.0
As	156.526	208.702	271.313	5.0
As_d	216.488	288.651	375.246	15.0
At_d	199.688	266.251	346.126	17.0
At	121.073	161.43	209.859	7.0
Au_pv_GW	186.258	248.344	322.847	17.0
Au_GW	186.258	248.344	322.847	11.0
Au	172.457	229.943	298.926	11.0
Bi	78.777	105.037	136.548	5.0
$\mathrm{Be}_{-}\mathrm{GW}$	185.657	247.543	321.806	2.0
$\mathrm{Bi_d_GW}$	182.129	242.839	315.691	15.0
$\mathrm{Be}\mathrm{_sv}$	231.576	308.768	401.398	4.0
Ba_sv_GW	178.136	237.515	308.769	10.0
$B_{-}GW$	238.96	318.614	414.198	3.0
B_s	201.934	269.245	350.019	3.0
$\mathrm{Br}\mathrm{_GW}$	162.214	216.285	281.171	7.0
Br	162.214	216.285	281.171	7.0
$\mathrm{Bi}_{-}\mathrm{GW}$	109.897	146.53	190.489	5.0
$\mathrm{Bi}\mathrm{_d}$	182.129	242.839	315.691	15.0
В	238.96	318.614	414.198	3.0
$\mathrm{Be}\mathrm{_sv}\mathrm{_GW}$	403.09	537.454	698.690	4.0
${\rm Be}$	185.658	247.543	321.806	2.0
B_h	500.0	700.0	910.000	3.0
Ba_sv	140.386	187.181	243.335	10.0
Ba_sv_GW	178.136	237.515	308.769	10.0
Ba_sv	140.386	187.181	243.335	10.0
$\mathrm{Be}_{-}\mathrm{GW}$	185.657	247.543	321.806	2.0
$\mathrm{Be}\mathrm{_sv}$	231.576	308.768	401.398	4.0
Be_sv_GW	403.09	537.454	698.690	4.0
${\rm Be}$	185.658	247.543	321.806	2.0
Bi	78.777	105.037	136.548	5.0
$\mathrm{Bi_d_GW}$	182.129	242.839	315.691	15.0
$\mathrm{Bi}_{-}\mathrm{GW}$	109.897	146.53	190.489	5.0
$\mathrm{Bi}\mathrm{_d}$	182.129	242.839	315.691	15.0
$\mathrm{Br}_{-}\mathrm{GW}$	162.214	216.285	281.171	7.0
Br^{-}	162.214	216.285	281.171	7.0
Cm	193.465	257.953	335.339	18.0
$\operatorname{Cd} \operatorname{GW}$	190.534	254.045	330.258	12.0
Cu_pv_GW	350.498	467.331	607.530	17.0
Ce_h	224.925	299.9	389.870	12.0
C_s	205.433	273.911	356.084	4.0
$\overline{\mathrm{Cd}}$	205.752	274.336	356.637	12.0
Cr_sv_GW	246.211	328. 292	426.767	14.0
Co_pv	203.281	271.042	352.355	15.0
Cs sv GW	148.575	198.101	257.531	9.0
Ca sv	199.967	266.622	346.609	10.0
Cl h	306.852	409.136	531.877	7.0
Ca sv GW	211.072	281.43	365.859	10.0
Cd sv GW	488.441	651.254	846.630	20.0

11 Python

11.1 easy_install as a user

easy_install is a python command-line utility that automatically installs python packages. Usually you need root access to install a python package, but you can also tell easy_install where to install a package. This usually works if the directory is on your PYTHONPATH

easy install -d ~/lib/python2.6/site-packages/ pymatgen

11.2 pip as a user

pip is even better than easy_install these days.

```
pip install --user some-package
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-275.py). For me this installs here: ~/.local/lib/python2.7/site-packages
That may or may not be on your Python path.

11.3 Integer division math gotchas

It pays to be careful when dividing by integers because you can get unexpected results if you do not know the integer division rules. In python 2.6, if you divide two integers, you get an integer! This is usually not a problem if there is no emainder in the division, e.g. 6/3=2. But, if there is a remainder, and that remainder is important, you will lose it. Here is an example of calculating the mole fraction of a species from integer numbers of atoms in the unit cell. If you are not careful, you get the wrong answer! You can convert (also called casting) a number to a float using the float command.

```
nPd = 4
nCu = 5
x_Cu = nCu/(nPd + nCu)
print('x_cu = {0} (integer division)'.format(x_Cu))

# now cast as floats
x_Cu = float(nCu)/float(nPd + nCu)
print('x_cu = {0} (float division)'.format(x_Cu))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-276.py).

```
x_cu = 0 (integer division)
x_cu = 0.555555555556 (float division)
```

Note that if one of the numbers is a float, python will automatically cast the integer as a float, and return a float.

```
nPd = 4
nCu = 5

# now cast as floats
x_Cu = float(nCu)/(nPd + nCu)
print('x_cu = {0}'.format(x_Cu))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-277.py).

```
x_cu = 0.55555555556
```

Finally, you can tell python a number is a float by adding a decimal to it. You do not need to put a 0 after the decimal, but you can.

```
1     nPd = 4. # this is a float
2     nCu = 5
3
4     x_Cu = nCu/(nPd + nCu)
5     print('x_cu = {0}'.format(x_Cu))
```

Open the python script (dft-scripts/script-278.py).

```
x_cu = 0.55555555556
```

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