Quantum modeling (DFT) and experimental investigation of beryllium tungsten alloys formation

A. ALLOUCHE¹, A. WILTNER², Ch. LINSMEIER²

¹ Physique des Interactions Ioniques et Moléculaires, CNRS and Université de Provence (UMR6633) Campus Scientifique de Saint Jérôme, service 242 13397 Marseille Cedex 20 - FRANCE

E-mail: alain.allouche@univ-provence.fr

² Max-Planck-Institut für Plasmaphysik, EURATOM Association, Boltzmannstr. 2, 85748 Garching b. München, Germany

E-mail: linsmeier@ipp.mpg.de

ABSTRACT: Beryllium, tungsten and carbon are planned as wall-cladding materials for the future international tokamak ITER. Be and W will be the dominant components and therefore the formation of binary Be-W alloys under plasma action is one of the most important issues in plasma-wall interaction processes at the first wall. This article proposes a first principles Density Functional Theory (DFT) study of beryllium atoms retention in tungsten, and a discussion of the results in relation to the available experimental data. In a first step, the beryllium adsorption energy is calculated on the W(100) and W(111) surfaces. Further, the activation barrier for the surface-subsurface diffusion step and subsequent bulk diffusion steps are considered. For each calculation, the electronic structure of the formed compound is analyzed through projected density of states (DOS) calculations.

1. INTRODUCTION

A tokamak [1] is a toroidal device where a deuterium – tritium (D - T) plasma is magnetically confined in order to reach energy and concentration high enough to induce the thermonuclear fusion of the two nuclei, thus releasing a very large amount of energy:

$$D + T \rightarrow He (3.5 \text{ MeV}) + n (14.1 \text{ MeV})$$

Nuclear fusion of light atoms is the fundamental process in the Sun, which provides energy to our solar system. ITER is an international research tokamak project, which is intended as an experimental feasibility confirmation of magnetic confinement for future power generation through thermonuclear fusion. The construction of ITER in Cadarache (France) started in 2007, and the first plasma ignition is expected in 2018 [2].

Although the inner wall of the tokamak chamber is isolated from the hot plasma by confinement in magnetic fields, the wall is still subjected to atomic or radical fragments fluxes coming from the boundary plasma, a much colder plasma. Therefore, the inner wall-cladding of a tokamak is made up of materials of specific mechanical, magnetic, thermal and electric properties: the ITER's first wall will be constituted of beryllium, tungsten and carbon. During operation, the plasma particles will induce chemical erosion and physical sputtering processes. Due to transport of the impurity atoms and redeposition, beryllium films will be deposited on the tungsten parts, and inversely, contamination of the beryllium surfaces by tungsten is possible. As a consequence, parts of the first wall will no longer be composed of pure metals, but of alloys with altered chemical and physical properties.

Since the fundamental reaction processes in the Be—W system are very difficult or impossible to study in situ in a tokamak, dedicated experiments are developed on laboratory-scale, notably by the R. Doerner [3,4,5] and the Ch. Linsmeier [6,7,8,9] groups. These two series of experiments are different and complementary. In the PISCES-B experiments (R.Doerner's group), the Be-W alloy is observed after tungsten exposition to a beryllium-seeded deuterium plasma at high fluences, in which the Be-W mixed material is formed in out-of-thermal-equilibrium conditions. In the Linsmeier group's experiments, the goal is to study the potential reaction and diffusion processes of the two metals after heating a sample of one of them supporting a thin film of the other.

However, in both cases, the elementary steps underlying the alloy formation mechanisms can only be completely identified through theoretical contributions, and the quantum theory in

the first-principles DFT formalism is the most reliable approach to determine the fundamental processes of the first steps of beryllium – tungsten mixed materials formation A first contribution dealt with tungsten adsorption on the beryllium (0001) surface [10] and the present paper makes use of the same general formalism to study the reverse system, i.e. adsorption of beryllium on tungsten. In the experiments, so far the simulation of tokamak reactions were performed on polycrystalline tungsten samples. For this first quantum approach we have selected two of the most stable tungsten surfaces, W(100) and W(111). The structures of these two surfaces are different enough to be representative of a polycrystalline tungsten film. The first one being simpler in its geometrical as well as its electronic structure, it deserves a more detailed analysis. From there, the interpretation will be extended to interpret the more complex behavior of W(111).

2. QUANTUM STUDY

2. 1. Computational details

The calculations were performed within the framework of the spin-polarized gradient-corrected density functional theory. The exchange as well as the correlation functionals are Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE). A plane-wave basis set was used with an energy cutoff of 32 Rydberg (435 eV); the ionic core potential was modeled using Vanderbilt ultrasoft pseudopotentials. Integration in the first Brillouin zone was performed using the 6x6x1 points Monkhorst-Pack sampling.

The stationary state structures were optimized using the Quasi-Newton Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno (BFGS) generalized algorithm. All the atoms were included in the optimization procedure, without any geometry or symmetry constraint. All the energy calculations were carried out using the *Quantum-Espresso* package [11]. The tungsten pseudopotential is taken from the package's library and then carefully tested. The beryllium pseudopotential is home-calculated, it is described and tested in detail in Ref. [12].

The W(100) crystal working-cell is orthorhombic (cell parameters: 6.372 x 6.372 x 20Å), it includes 29 tungsten atoms and 7 layers (Figure 1). This system proved to be a good compromise between calculation feasibility and accuracy. For example, the surface relaxation calculation yields -10.6 % for the first interlayer relaxation, which is in good agreement with

other work, -10.7 % [13]. The W(111) crystal cell is hexagonal (9.013 x 9.013 x 20 Å), it includes 36 W.

The interaction of the beryllium atom with this slab is investigated through a potential energy surface (PES) that is determined in scanning the beryllium position from far above the surface to a point located inside the bulk at equal distance from the two planes delimiting it. All the other coordinates are optimized without any restriction.

2. 2. Results from DFT calculations

2. 2. 1. Interaction of a single beryllium atom with the W(100) surface

The pseudo-valence tungsten atom electronic DOS (density of states) includes $(5s,5p)^8(5d)^4(6s)^2$ electrons. Only the highest energy levels participate in the Be – W bonding and more precisely the W(5d) and Be(2p) ones. The DOS corresponding to the non-interacting system is displayed in Figure 2a. The Fermi energy (E_F) level crosses the W(5d) and W(5p) bands, whereas the Be(2s) energy levels are right below E_F and the Be(2p) are empty and degenerated. The calculated Löwdin atomic charges corroborate this distribution since the total beryllium charge is 1.97 electron with 1.91 2s and 0.06 2p. On this figure also, it is worth noting that the density of states corresponding to the surface layer is quite different from that of inner layers: the surface induces an important shift of the larger peak towards the Fermi level. This phenomenon has been mentioned and discussed treating of the W(001) surface [14,15, 16]. As a consequence, these energy levels are closer to the Be(2p) and most important their interaction with W levels will be stronger in case of a beryllium–surface interaction. The peak at 1.6 eV is due to the W(d_z^2) energy surface energy level, the peak located around -0.25 eV corresponds to the degenerated d_x and d_x .

The beryllium atom adsorbs on the surface without barrier in a -2.3 eV deep potential well (figure 4), 1.72 Å above the surface in a bridge position between two W atoms (figure 4). The stability of this adsorption site is ensured by combining the W(5d) and Be(2p) atomic wave functions (figure 2b). Globally, the beryllium atom total charge remains unchanged (1.90 electron), but with a large transfer from 2s to 2p. The Löwdin charges are 0.73 and 1.17 electron, respectively. The W-Be-W pattern in figure 3 defines a plane parallel to (yz). Figure 2b clearly shows that the $2p_z$ and $2p_x$ orbitals play a quite similar role and their contribution to the valence band is very diffuse. On the contrary, the $2p_y$ contribution is very localized above and below the Fermi level, its maximum coincides with the maximum of the surface layer

DOS. At the same time, the surface peak in the conduction band is noticeably smaller, which signifies that the Be-W binding is ensured by an efficient combination of 5d orbitals (d_z^2 with contribution from the d_{zx} and d_{zy} components) of the superficial tungsten atoms and the beryllium $2p_y$ perpendicular to the surface plane and included into the W-Be-W plane displayed in Figure 4. Within this analysis, it can therefore be considered that the beryllium atom adopts an sp²-like hybridization scheme with a partially filled -like orbital ($2p_y$) parallel to the surface plane and two hybrids in the (zx) plane.

It must be also noticed a significant shift towards the Fermi level of the superficial W(5d) energy levels involved into the binding with beryllium; then it can be expected that their combination with and an eventual binding with a second beryllium atom—should be facilitated.

From the minimum in adsorption energy, the barrier which Be must overcome in order to penetrate into the subsurface position is about 3.6 eV (figure 3). But beyond this point, going deeper into the bulk seems much easier since the local minimum after the transition point is only 0.7 eV lower in energy. However, the system's total energy at this point of the PES is comparable to the total energy of the two non-interacting systems (even about 1 eV higher), and much higher than the total energy of the adsorbed system.

The beryllium subsurface trapping is accompanied by an important gain in charge since 0.42 electron is transferred from the tungsten reservoir to the benefit of the Be(2p) orbitals which now bear 1.95 electron equally distributed over the 3 components (figure 2c). In this trapping site, six tungsten neighbors surround the beryllium atom: Two of them are located at a distance of 1.98 Å, two at 2.16 and the last pair at 2.40 Å. Comparing Figure 2b and Figure 2c it can be noted that the Be(2p) contribution to the total valence band is more concentrated around the Fermi level (the region of the most reactive orbitals) when Be is adsorbed and much more diffuse between -10 and 0 eV when Be is embedded in the bulk. This must be related to the directional character of the 2p orbitals. Embedded in the W electron bath, Be loses its $2sp^2$ -type preferred directions, the three components bear the same electronic charge, and since the total net charge is negative (0.42 electrons) the Fermi repulsion between this electron density and the metal electron bath destabilizes the system.

2. 2. Interaction of a single beryllium atom with the W(111) surface

The geometry and symmetry of the W(100) surface are simpler than those of W(111), and therefore easier to interpret, but qualitatively the two systems are similar. However, the W(111) surface undergoes a larger relaxation than the W(100): the two first interlayer distances are contracted by -20 and -16 %, whereas the third one is dilated by +12 %. The multilayer-relaxation geometry of the W(111) surface depends strongly on the method and the number of layers used, nevertheless most of the calculations predict the same relaxation pattern of a triplet of W layers moving towards each other and an expansion of the next layer spacing [17]. Our results are in good general agreement with the other quantum calculations [17, 13, 18].

The consequence for our system is that the three first upper layers (denoted as the surface layer S, L_1 , L_2 ,...) are closer to another than layers in the bulk. Compared to the W(100) case [19] their respective partial DOSs projected on the W(d) orbitals (figure 5) are quite similar. However, a shift towards lower energies is observed at the maximum in the valence band; this shift is small from the three upper layers, but becomes notably larger for the L_2 layer. Therefore, the slab relaxation for the W(111) system induces an effect qualitatively similar to that observed on the W(100) system [19]: the beryllium–tungsten interaction will be more efficient on or near the surface than within the bulk. These considerations, and also the contraction of the three upper layers that increases the electron density near the surface [17], implicate that the respective action of each of these "superficial layers" towards the beryllium will be cumulative and the resulting reactivity towards Be enhanced in the positive as well as in the negative direction (minimums in energy or energy barriers).

The energy profile presented in figure 3 reflects this electronic structure. A first minimum in energy (-1.8 eV) is found when the beryllium atom is 1.5 Å above the tungsten surface. A small barrier (0.4 eV) corresponds to the crossing of the surface layer and the reorganization of the surface around the arriving beryllium, this barrier was not observed in the former case.

Another deeper minimum (2.6 eV) occurs when the beryllium atom is embedded into the surface plane above the L_1 layer. The barrier necessary to overcome in order to cross the L_1 and L_2 layers is much larger than in the W(100) case: 5.2 eV. But again the energy minimum corresponding to the beryllium trapping into the bulk brings no noticeable stabilization of the system, since it is only located 0.4 eV below the non-interacting system energy. It must therefore be considered that the inclusion of a beryllium atom into the W(111) slab is not an energetically favorable configuration.

2. 2. 3. Multiple adsorptions on the W(111) surface and adlayer structure

The modifications brought by the first atom adsorption to the projected DOS of the tungsten surface already signaled in the first paragraph of this section are still valid for W(111) and the adsorption energy of the second beryllium atom is significantly larger than those of a single atom (Figure 6). Very quickly (after adsorption of 10 Be atoms), the adsorption energy reaches a limit (-4.0 eV, Figure 6) close to the cohesive energy of metallic beryllium (3.7 eV) [12].

At surface completion, the adlayer (referred as the monolayer ML in the following) consists of 16 beryllium atoms regularly distributed on the tungsten surface (Figure 7a) in four rows distant of 2.4 Å in directions parallel to the *a* and *b* crystallographic axes, this distance is imposed by the substrate and is slightly longer than in the Be bulk (2.2 and 2.3 Å according to the inter-atomic direction).

Figure 6 evidences that the Be–Be interaction energy (from the energy of the adsorbed layer calculated without the substrate) ensures a larger part of the cohesive energy of the system as the coverage rate of the surface increases. At coverage rates lower than 80 % ML, the major part of the stabilization is brought by the substrate–adsorbate interaction. At higher coverage, the beryllium–beryllium interaction becomes prevalent. Therefore, it is not surprising that adding an extra Be atom provokes a disordering of the adlayer structure and formation of a beryllium cluster of 7 aggregated atoms (Figure 7b). Considering the strongly increasing effort for calculations involving further atoms, no larger systems were studied. However, considering Figure 6, it can reasonably be expected that including more beryllium atoms would follow the tendency to beryllium clustering and weakened binding of these clusters to the tungsten substrate.

3. EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES

The interactions between beryllium and tungsten are studied in several series of experiments. Both Be on W and the reverse system W on Be were studied by layer deposition and subsequent annealing steps. Be is deposited and sequentially annealed up to 1070 K in situ from the vapor phase with thicknesses up to a few nm on clean polycrystalline W substrates

and investigated by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) [7,8]. Experiments with a continuous Be influx to tungsten are performed at substrate temperatures of 1023 and 1123 K [20]. The reverse system, W on polycrystalline Be, is studied by tungsten magnetron deposition of a 200 nm layer at 300 K, sequential annealing up to 1070 K under UHV conditions, and analysis by Rutherford backscattering spectrometry (RBS) after transfer through air. After the final annealing step, a sputter depth profile with XPS analysis is performed [9]. Additional structural investigations were performed for both the Be/W and W/Be systems by X-ray diffraction (XRD) [20,21].

Non-thermal interactions of Be as a plasma impurity were performed with polycrystalline W surfaces at elevated temperatures between 1023 and 1260 K [9,20]. The kinetic energy of the Be particles from the plasma is ~60 eV with an applied bias voltage of -75 V, and ~10 eV without bias voltage. The composition of the final surface is investigated by Auger electron spectroscopy (AES), XPS, and wavelength dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (WDX).

The formation of Be-W alloys can be directly observed by XPS, e.g. in the shift of the Be 1s core level [10]. Both XPS and RBS allow a quantitative analysis of the reactions and are sensitive to different depths: XPS probes the first few nm, whereas RBS probes several 100 nm to a few µm, depending on the used projectile particle and primary energy. Together with sputtering of the surface by argon ions, XPS enables a depth profiling of the surface, performing a chemically resolved analysis. Using these techniques, the behavior of the Be-W system in the different experimental approaches was studied.

For the first case of thin Be layers deposited on tungsten at 300 K, a surface alloying restricted to the first monolayers is observed. Additionally deposited Be is in the metallic state. This interface alloy formation is visible in both core level shifts of the Be 1s and the W 4f lines. Also the shape of the valence band spectra changes in a characteristic way with alloy formation and exhibits a small intensity shift towards the Fermi edge [7]. Above 670 K, the alloy peak fractions increase, indicating the formation of additional alloy phase. The stoichiometry Be₂C for the alloy is determined from the alloy components in the Be 1s and the W 4f intensities. At the same time, the overall Be intensity decreases with increased annealing temperature. The diffusion of Be beyond the surface alloy layer deeper into the W substrate is excluded from sputter depth profiles after the annealing experiments. No Be intensity is detected beyond a depth determined by the ion-beam induced mixing. The Be sputtering depth profile is confirmed by a Monte Carlo simulation using TRIDYN. Long-term (~3 h) annealing experiments of thin Be layers with different initial thicknesses show that, regardless

of the initial Be thickness, the final alloy layer always has an equivalent Be thickness of ~1.2 nm. Moreover, the loss of the excess Be takes place already during the temperature ramp-up. Only small additional increases in alloy amounts are observed during the annealing at constant temperature [8,9]. From this observation, together with the sputter depth profiles, it is concluded that the Be₂W alloy formation competes with Be sublimation from the surface. The Be₂W alloying reaction cannot act as an efficient driving force for keeping the Be in the solid phase.

In the reverse system, W deposited on Be, the formation of a Be-W alloy starts only above 970 K, as determined from RBS spectra. However, this technique is not sensitive enough to exclude the possibility of an interface alloy formation in the order of a monolayer, as observed in the Be/W experiments. Nevertheless, the formation of a Be₁₂W alloy is observed from quantitative RBS analysis. The Be₁₂W alloy also exhibits characteristic core level shifts in the Be 1s and W 4f lines. The formation of a stable Be₁₂W alloy layer on the Be substrate from a W layer, without a typical diffusion tail into the substrate, indicates that the system has reached an energetically favorable situation. From the temporal evolution of the alloy layer thickness a diffusion coefficient of $1.6 \cdot 10^{-13}$ cm² s⁻¹ at 1070 K is determined [9]. For 1023 and 1123 K, additional diffusion coefficients for the Be-W interdiffusion are available: $4.3 \cdot 10^{-15}$ cm² s⁻¹ and $5.8 \cdot 10^{-13}$ cm² s⁻¹, respectively [20].

A third class of experiments involves Be impinging at non-thermal energies at W surfaces continuously, as a seeded impurity in a deuterium plasma. If the kinetic energy of the Be particles is high enough, sputtering of the surface must be considered. For lower Be energies (\sim 10 eV), the formation of Be alloys at the surface is observed for temperatures between 1070 and 1150 K [20]. At a temperature of 1260 K, Be is found in depths well above 1 µm with a concentration of 10%, although the concentration in the deuterium plasma was below 0.5%. As determined by XPS, Be is present both in the metallic and alloyed state. However, the Be 1s core level shift doesn't allow the decision between Be₂W and Be₁₂W. From the experimental conditions, also the question whether the Be is transported into these depths by diffusion or whether a compound surface layer has been deposited by the plasma-surface interaction processes, cannot be decided. Nevertheless, Be is accumulated to a 10% level in the sample from a minor plasma impurity (concentration <0.5%) [9].

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The reactivity of the two model surfaces studied here are qualitatively similar, although the W(111) surface gives rise to higher energy exchanges, adsorption energies, as well as barriers. However, the W(100) is simpler and therefore allows a more detailed discussion the electronic structure.

From the section 2, it emerges clearly that the metal surface layer relaxation leads to an electronic structure of the surface and of the two upper layers different from the electronic structure of the inner bulk. The surface W(5d) peaks in the valence band are closer to the Fermi level and therefore closer to the originally empty Be(2p) energy levels in the conduction band. The orbital recombination is more efficient on the surface and yields relatively small stabilizations of -2.3 and -2.6 eV compared to the system formed by the bare W surface and the beryllium atom far from it. This stabilization is strongly enhanced by successive Be atom adsorption until formation of a complete monolayer. The calculations also indicate that a larger amount of beryllium on the surface should lead to a dislocation of the adlayer and formation of pure beryllium clusters.

After crossing a high energy barrier from the adsorbed state into the W bulk, the trapping of a beryllium atom into the bulk host metal does not induce a gain in total energy with respect to the separate constituents' total energy. From the energy point of view, the formation of a W—Be alloy is therefore not favored [19].

These results must be taken in considering the approximations of the method: restricted working cell, 0 K temperature, no ZPE (Zero Point Energy) correction. But semi-quantitatively, they explain why the beryllium can form a mono-layer film on the tungsten surface but is unable to constitute an alloy-like mixing. These DFT results can explain well the available experimental data on Be films deposited and annealed on W, summarized in section 3. The limited formation of the Be₂W alloy and the competition between Be sublimation and alloy formation, together with the observation that no extended Be diffusion into the W bulk is observed, can be understood with the overall endothermic reaction, shown in figure 3. Since both W surfaces studied here by DFT show this tendency, the conclusion is valid despite the experiments are carried out on polycrystalline W substrates. The formation of a thin Be₂W surface alloy layer is explained by the deep energy minima for Be adsorbed at the W surfaces. The energy required to diffuse into the W bulk is for both W(100) and W(111) higher than the barrier for desorption (sublimation). Also the experimental shift of valence band intensity towards the Fermi edge during Be₂W alloy formation is qualitatively

confirmed by the DFT calculations. However, due to the different tungsten substrates in DFT calculation and experiments, not all details of the VB spectra coincide with the calculated DOS. Detailed synchrotron studies with W(100) and W(111) substrates are necessary to improve the quality of the experimental data. If Be is arriving at the surface with hyperthermic energies, as it is the case if Be is a plasma impurity, it is implanted into tungsten and the surface-subsurface barrier is of no concern. Therefore, the accumulation of a limited Be concentration in the plasma-exposed W samples can be explained.

The reverse system, i.e. adsorption of tungsten on Be(0001), was studied by DFT in earlier work [10]. Also in this case, the two metals interact through W(5d) and Be(2p) electrons. The tungsten adsorption energy, however, is markedly larger, -4.2 eV compared to -2.6 eV. In contrast to the Be adsorption on W, tungsten trapping into beryllium yields a total energy gain of 4.8 eV compared to the non-interacting system. In view of these DFT results, the formation of the limited and stable Be₁₂W alloy layer, observed in the annealing experiments of W films on Be, is explained. Diffusion of W into the Be bulk would require the dissolution of the energetically favorable alloy stoichiometry. However, also in the case of W on Be, a surface-subsurface barrier exists and alloying in experimentally only observed above 970 K.

The most important result for the tokamak first wall cladding is that beryllium inclusion into tungsten is energetically unfavorable (endothermic), whereas tungsten in beryllium is more stable than the non-interacting system (exothermic situation). Therefore, thermally, even if the temperature is high enough to surmount the barrier to beryllium subsurface diffusion, the resulting compound will not be stable. The energetic stability of Be adsorbed on W(100) implies, within the limits of the approximations of this calculation, that a film of beryllium can be synthesized on W(100), but the adatoms can hardly mix with the substrate to form an alloy.

Nevertheless, beryllium inclusion into the host metal can result from plasma conditions, when tungsten cladding is bombarded by energetic beryllium impurities originating from the boundary plasma. It was shown that the alloy structure produced by W bombardment of Be(0001) is quite similar to the structure of the already known Be₁₂W alloy [10]. In this compound, the Be-W bond length can be 2.55 or 2.77 Å.

In summary, concerning the studied tungsten surfaces reactivity toward beryllium and considering that the differences in energy are relatively small (less than 1 eV), quantum and spectroscopic studies point to the convergent conclusions that:

- (i) Alloy is formed at the interface of both W/Be and Be/W systems but only a very thin film of beryllium on the tungsten surface. This is consistent with the quantum result on the non-stability of Be inclusion in W bulk.
- (ii) In case of alloy formation by high energy Be atom impinging of the W surface, its structure is different from the alloy formed in the reverse system, and this is also consistent with the quantum result. From a quantum point of view, the Be-W bond lengths are different in the two systems.

The next step should be to investigate the reactivity of this film toward hydrogen isotopes given the very important reactivity of beryllium towards oxygen.

Acknowledgment

This work is partially supported by the Euratom–CEA Association, in the framework of the *Fédération de Recherche Fusion par Confinement Magnétique*, and by the Agence Nationale de la Recherche (ANR CAMITER N° ANR-06-BLAN-0008-01). The calculations were performed at the CEA computing Center (CCRT).

Figures:

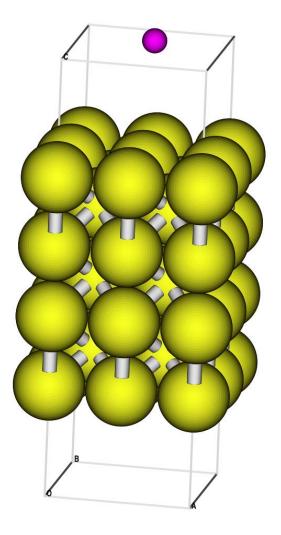


Figure 1: Periodic crystal working cell used to represent the W(100) tungsten slab.

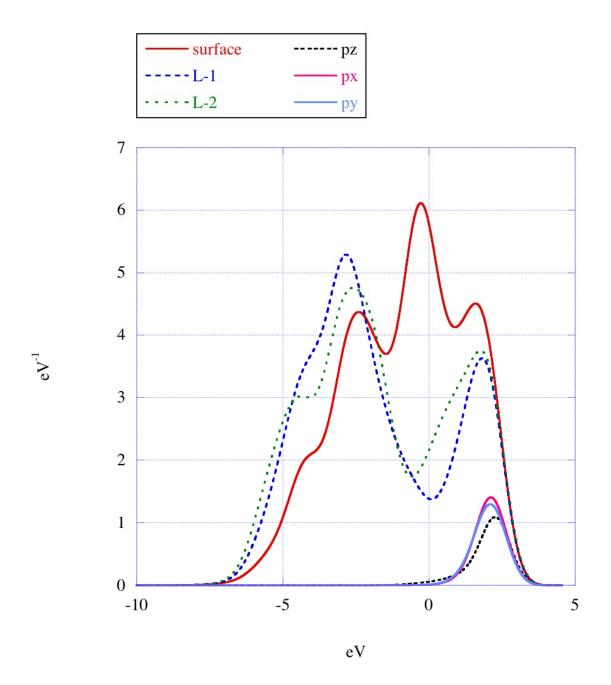


Figure 2a: Electronic density of states for the non-interacting Be-W(100) system presented in Figure 1, the beryllium atom is located in the cell vacuum, 5 Å above the surface. The origin of energies is fixed at the Fermi level, only the W(5d) of the three upper layers of the tungsten slab and the three Be(2p) components DOSs are presented, signaled as px, py and pz (same conventions in the next figures), L₁ indicates the first layer below the surface, L₂ the second layer and so forth.

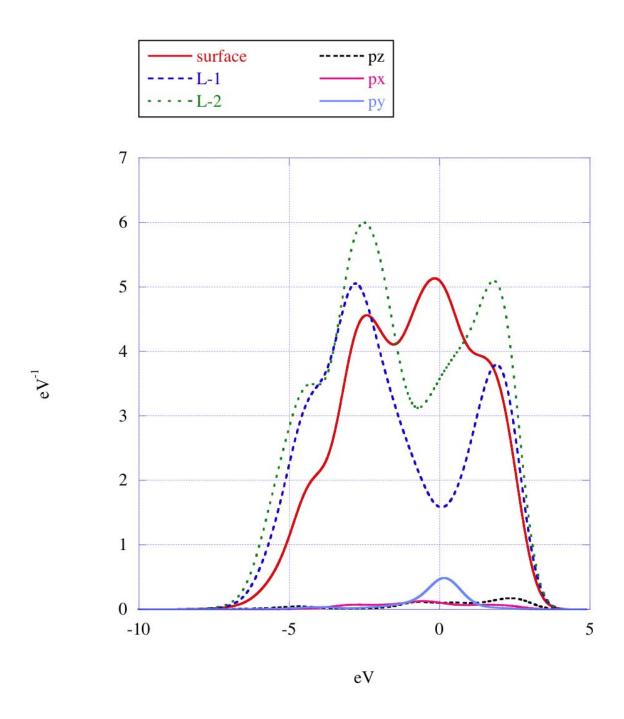


Figure 2b: System DOS perturbation (compared to Figure 2a) induced by Be adsorption.

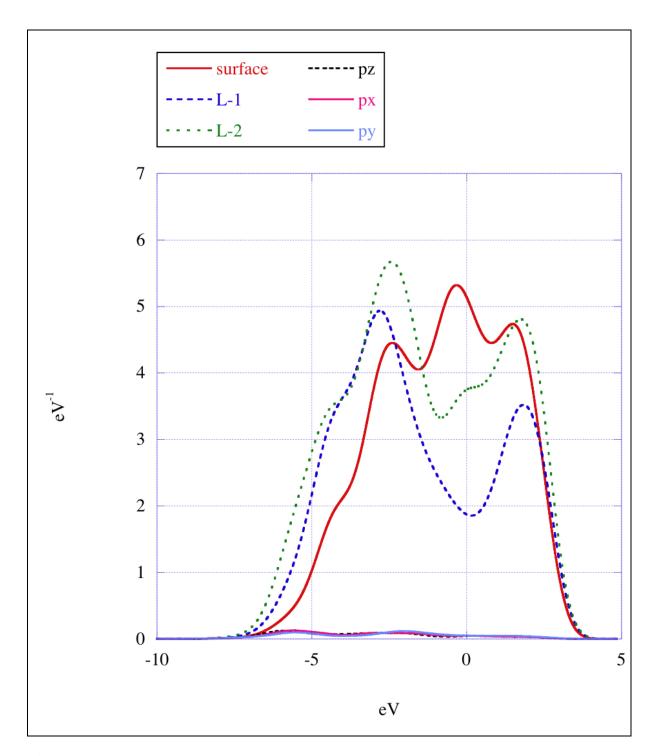
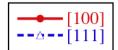


Figure 2c: System DOS perturbation induced by Be trapping into the bulk.



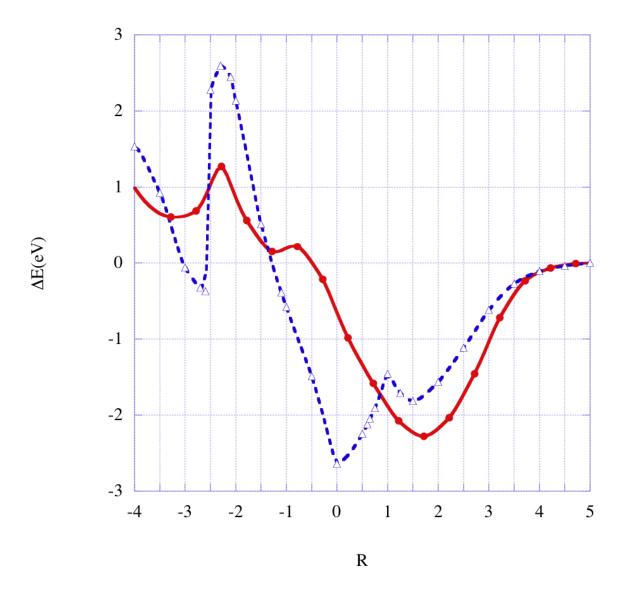


Figure 3: Energy profiles associated to one beryllium atom approaching the W(100) [continuous line] and W(111) [broken line] slabs. R is the distance from the beryllium atom to the tungsten surface. The first energy minimums on the right side correspond to adsorption. The maximums on the left side correspond to the barrier to Be inclusion into the host metal.

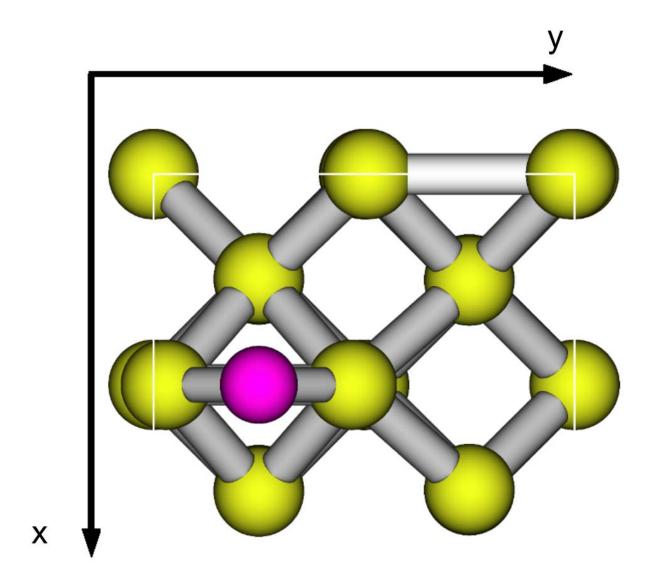


Figure 4: Beryllium atom adsorption site on the W(100) surface.

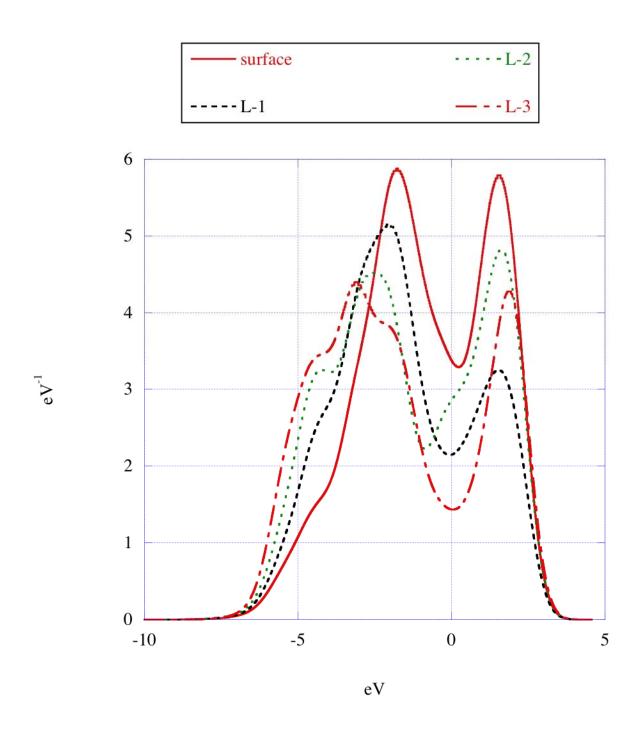


Figure 5: W(5d) projected electronic density of states for the non-interacting W(111) system, same conventions as in Fig 2a, the Be(2p) projected DOS are not represented.



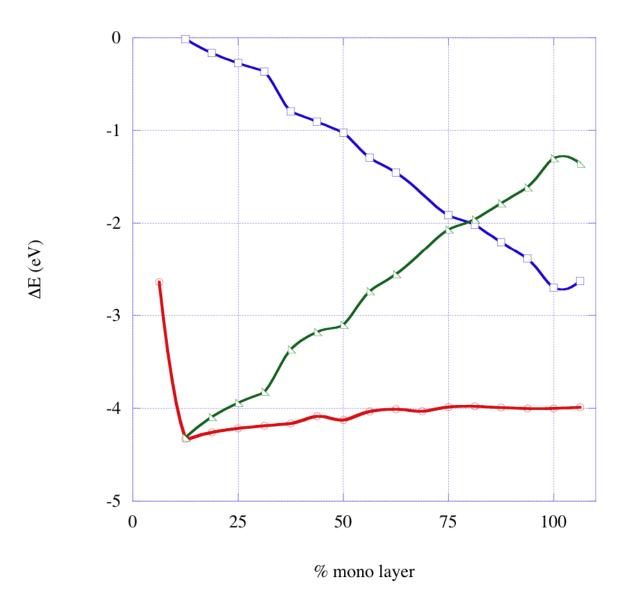


Figure 6: Energy profile of successive berylliums atoms adsorption on W(111), the monolayer at surface completion (100%) corresponds to adsorption of 16 Be atoms. The upper part curve presents the Be-Be interaction energy.

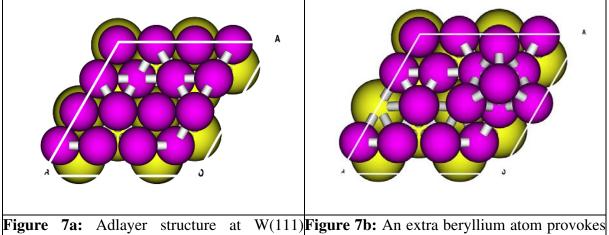


Figure 7a: Adlayer structure at W(111 surface completion (16 Be per cell)

Figure 7b: An extra beryllium atom provokes the formation of Be clusters above the substrate surface.

References

- [1] Wesson J, Tokamaks (Oxford Science Publications, Oxford, 2004).
- [2] ITER website http://www.iter.org/
- [3] Doerner R P 2007 J. Nucl. Mater. **363-365** 32
- [4] Doerner R P, Baldwin M J and Causey R A 2005 J. Nucl. Mater. 342 63
- [5] Doerner R P, Baldwin M, Hanna J, Linsmeier Ch, Nishijima D, Pugno R, Roth J, Schmid K and Wiltner A 2007 *Phys. Scr.* **T128** 115
- [6] Linsmeier Ch and Luthin J, Goldstraß P 1999 J. Nucl. Mater. 290-293 25
- [7] Wiltner A and Linsmeier Ch 2006 New J. Phys. 8 181
- [8] Wiltner A, and Linsmeier Ch 2005 J. Nucl. Mater. 337-339 951
- [9] Linsmeier Ch, Ertl K, Roth J, Wiltner A, Schmid K, Kost F, Bhattacharyya S R, Baldwin M and Doerner R P 2007 *J. Nucl. Mater.* **363-365** 1129
- [10] Allouche, A and Linsmeier, Ch. 2008 J. Phys.: Conf. Ser. 117 012002
- [11] Scandolo S, Giannozzi P, Cavazzoni C, de Gironcoli S, Pasquarello A and Baroni S 2005 Z. Kristallogr. 220 574; Quantum Espresso website http://www.quantum-espresso.org
- [12] Allouche A 2008 Phys. Rev. **B 78**, 085429
- [13] Huang S F, Chang R S, Leung T C and Chan C T 2005 Phys. Rev. B 72 75433
- [14] Posternak M, Krakauer H, Freeman A J and Koelling D D 1980 Phys. Rev. B 21 5601
- [15] Posternak M, Krakauer H and Freeman A J 1982 Phys. Rev. **B 25** 755
- [16] Wimmer E, Freeman A J, Hiskes J R and Karo A M 1983 Phys. Rev. B 28 3074
- [17] Holzwarth N A W, Chervenak J A, Kimmer C J, Zeng Y, Wu Wand Adams J 1993 *Phys.Rev.* **B 48** 12136
- [18] Chen L, Sholl D S and Johnson J K 2006 J. Phys. Chem **B 110** 1344
- [19] Allouche A 2009 Chem. Phys. Lett. 470 119,
- [20] Baldwin M J, Doerner R P, Nishijima D, Buchenauer D, Clift W M, Causey R A and Schmid K 2007 *J. Nucl. Mater.* **363-365** 1179
- [21] Wiltner A, Kost F, Lindig S and Linsmeier Ch 2007 Phys. Scr. **T128** 133