

First-principles study of the dependence of silicon electronic transport properties on the crystallographic growth

Núria García Castelló

Dr. Albert Cirera Hernández, Departament d'Electrònica, Universitat de Barcelona
Dr. Joan Daniel Prades García, Departament d'Electrònica, Universitat de Barcelona

Abstract— Differences in the electronic transport properties of two polymorphs of bulk silicon due to the crystallographic direction are investigated theoretically. The calculations are performed in two steps: first an optimized geometry for two polymorphs of silicon (cubic diamond and hexagonal diamond) is obtained using DFT calculations, and then the transport relations of four directions ($\langle 001 \rangle$, $\langle 110 \rangle$ and $\langle 111 \rangle$ for diamond and $\langle 001 \rangle$ for hexagonal) are obtained using NEGF approach. SIESTA and TranSIESTA simulation codes are used in the calculations correspondingly. The electrodes are chosen to be the same as the central region where transport is studied, eliminating current quantization effects due to contacts and focusing the electronic transport study to the intrinsic structure of the material. By varying chemical potential in the electrode regions, an I-V curve is traced for each particular configuration. Conductance in silicon bulk shows certain dependence in the crystallographic direction, in agreement with the different behavior of silicon nanowires due to their growth direction. The study of electronic and transport properties in silicon nanowires is interesting because they are promising candidates as bridging pieces in nanoelectronics.

Index Terms—1. Modeling and simulation of systems and properties of matter at the nanoscale: DFT, conductance, electronic transport, growth direction, I-V characteristic, NEGF, polymorphs, silicon.

I. INTRODUCTION

The current interest in Silicon Nanowires (SiNWs) is mainly derived from their technological potential in nanoscale devices [1]-[4]. Bottom-up nanowires growth techniques allows overcoming the limit of conventional lithography-based top-down design [5] leading to a leap forward in terms of miniaturization [6].

SiNWs belong to a unique class of semiconductor nanowires because they are integrable within the conventional silicon-based device technologies. In fact, the experimental realization of SiNW electronic devices has been achieved recently [7], [8]. For this reason, SiNWs represent a particularly attractive class of building blocks for nanoelectronic devices, such as field-effect transistors (FETs) [4], [7]- [9], passive diode structures [9], integrated logical

circuits [10] and biosensors [11], [12].

To date, SiNWs have been synthesized in a wide range of diameters and crystallographic growth directions: $\langle 100 \rangle$ [13], [14], $\langle 110 \rangle$ [13]-[16], $\langle 111 \rangle$ [15]-[17] and $\langle 112 \rangle$ [15], [16]. It has been observed that nanowire growth direction shows diameter dependence [18]. Nanowires with diameters less than about 20 nm show preferential growth in $\langle 110 \rangle$ direction [19], whereas thicker SiNWs with diameters larger than about 50 nm tend to grow along the $\langle 111 \rangle$ direction [15].

Concerning the crystal structure, high resolution transmission electron microscopy experiments revealed that most of the SiNWs have single-crystalline bulk structures [14], [15]. In contrast with the intuition, depending on the size and growth conditions, the crystalline structure could differ from the diamond-like cubic, which is the typical in bulk Si. Recently, *ab-initio* studies predicted that diamond-structure nanowires are unstable for diameters smaller than 1nm [20]. There also exist experimental evidences that SiNWs can grow in a hexagonal diamond type structure [21]: Arbiol *et al.* [22] for Cu-catalyzed Vapour-Solid-Solid (VSS) grown SiNWs and Fontcuberta i Morral *et al.* [23] for Au-catalyzed Vapour-Liquid-Solid (VLS) grown SiNWs.

Therefore, on the one hand, it is possible to integrate SiNWs in novel nanoelectronic devices. On the other hand, current synthesis techniques can furnish us with a wide range of SiNWs with radically different crystallographic and electronic properties. However, very little is known about the impact of these structural properties on the behavior and performance of the final device [5], [24].

Recently, the first studies dealing with this timely question have been published. Justo *et al.* [25] reported classical molecular dynamics simulations of the stability of SiNWs with various surface facet families and orientations. Sorokin *et al.* [26] computed the electronic band structure of different facets of SiNWs with density functional theory calculations. Svinhenko *et al.* [27] studied the conductivity of small diameter (0,46-1,56 nm) SiNWs in $\langle 110 \rangle$, $\langle 111 \rangle$ and $\langle 100 \rangle$ directions using Non-Equilibrium Green's Function techniques within tight-binding approximation, demonstrating that the differences in the band structure of each direction strongly affects the current-voltage characteristics of ideal NWs.

However, technical limitations in the integration of ultra-thin SiNWs (diameter < 15 nm) in real devices hinders the applicability of these results [28].

Here, we present a theoretical study of the electron transport properties of bulk Si along the most significant growth directions of SiNWs, in order to cover the gap between the minute dimensions of current atomistic models of nanowires (diameter < 4 nm) and the typical sizes of real nanodevices (diameter > 15 nm). In the latter range, the electric transport phenomena are still dominated by the bulk properties, being bulk-Si a good approximation to mimic the transport properties in thick SiNWs [29]. Therefore, here the electronic transport is studied inside an open-boundary bulk system described by first-principles field within Non-Equilibrium Green's Functions (NEGF) formalism [30]. For the sake of completeness, the most significant growth directions and polymorphs of SiNWs, namely cubic diamond phase oriented along $\langle 001 \rangle_d$, $\langle 110 \rangle_d$ and $\langle 111 \rangle_d$ axis and hexagonal diamond phase along $\langle 001 \rangle_h$ have been considered. The differences in the I-V curves obtained with each configuration and their technologic consequences are discussed in detail.

II. CALCULATION DETAILS

Our first-principles calculations were performed in the framework of Density Functional Theory [31], [32] (DFT) as implemented in the SIESTA (Spanish Initiative for Electronic Simulations with Thousands of Atoms) code [33], [34]. It implements the standard Kohn-Sham self-consistent method in the Generalized Gradient Approximation (GGA) for the exchange-correlation functional [35] in the PBEsol (Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof for solids) parametrization [36], and norm-conserving Troullier-Martins pseudopotentials [37] in their fully non-local Kleinman-Bylander factorization form [38] to represent the electron-ion interaction. Solutions of the Kohn-Sham's equations were expanded as Linear Combinations of Atomic Orbitals (LCAO) of finite range, with a kinetic energy cutoff of 0,02 Ry [39]. Silicon atoms were described by 4 valence electrons plus the corresponding pseudo-potential ion charges. The basis set used was double ζ plus polarization, which is the most common basis in this kind of calculations [20].

Table I shows the simulation parameters used for each configuration.

In SIESTA, k-point sampling is controlled by the k-grid cut-off parameter defined as half the length of the smallest lattice vector of the supercell required to obtain the same sampling precision with a single k-point [40]. This k-grid cut-off generates the corresponding Monkhorst-Pack set [41]. Real space mesh cut-off [33], [34] and k-grid values were set to converge total energy values within 0,1 meV and maximum absolute forces over atoms (calculated as analytical derivatives of the total energy [42]) better than 0,004 eV/Å in all cases.

The electronic transport properties were studied with Non-Equilibrium Green's Function (NEGF) techniques, within the

TABLE I
SIMULATION PARAMETERS

Parameters	Cubic diamond (227, Fd $\bar{3}$ m)	Hexagonal diamond (186, P6 ₃ mc)		
Direction	$\langle 001 \rangle$	$\langle 110 \rangle$	$\langle 111 \rangle$	$\langle 001 \rangle$
Mesh	200	200	200	150
Cutoff (Ry)				
Kgrid cutoff (Ång)	10	10	10	20
Monkhorst-Pack set (electrode)	4x4x4	6x6x4	6x6x3	11x11x7
Monkhorst-Pack set (system)	4x4x1	6x6x1	6x6x1	11x11x1

Keldysh formalism [43], based on DFT as implemented in the TranSIESTA package [44]. It computes the electronic transport properties of a nanoscale system confined in a central scattering region (C) in contact with two semi-infinite left (L) and right (R) electrode regions at different electrochemical potentials. The bias voltage V_b between them corresponds to the electrochemical potential difference between the left (μ_L) and the right (μ_R) electrodes, $eV_b = \mu_L - \mu_R$. In our case, both electrodes (red atoms in Fig. 1) and the contact region (yellow atoms in Fig. 1) were made of Si.

The method is based on the construction of the NEGF using the DFT Hamiltonian and the overlap matrices obtained from a given electron density. Subsequently, a new electronic density is computed using the NEGF formalism, instead of the usual diagonalization procedure, which closes the DFT-NEGF self consistent cycle.

The DFT Hamiltonian can be expressed in the following form

$$\begin{pmatrix} H_L + \Sigma_L & V_L & 0 \\ V_L^+ & H_C & V_R \\ 0 & V_R^+ & H_R + \Sigma_R \end{pmatrix} \quad (1)$$

which contains three different contributions. The two of the electrodes (Hamiltonian matrices $H_{L,R}$ and self energies $\Sigma_{L,R}$, which contain the interaction of the electrode atoms described explicitly in the calculation and the remaining part of the semi-infinite electrodes) are determined from a previous bulk calculation with periodic boundary conditions. The one corresponding to the interaction between electrode-contact region $V_{L,R}$ and the Hamiltonian of the contact region H_C are both computed explicitly with TranSIESTA Green Functions in an open boundary system.

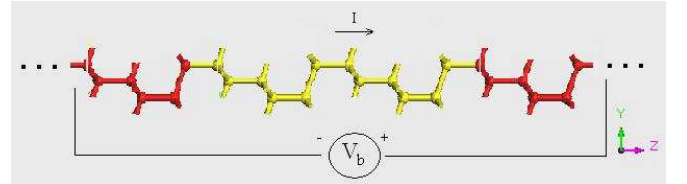


Fig. 1. Configuration of the transport model for the cubic diamond $\langle 111 \rangle$ direction, 24 atoms in total: 1 unit cell/electrode (red) and 2 unit cell in the contact region (yellow). The electrochemical potential difference between the left and right electrodes is linked to an external bias voltage V_b .

TABLE II

DESCRIPTION OF THE STRUCTURES

$\langle 001 \rangle_d$	8 atoms/unit cell	2 unit cell/electrode	2 unit cell in contact region	6 unit cell in total (48 atoms)
$\langle 110 \rangle_d$	4 atoms/unit cell	3 unit cell/electrode	3 unit cell in contact region	9 unit cell in total (36 atoms)
$\langle 111 \rangle_d$	6 atoms/unit cell	1 unit cell/electrode	2 unit cell in contact region	4 unit cell in total (24 atoms)
$\langle 001 \rangle_h$	4 atoms/unit cell	2 unit cell/electrode	2 unit cell in contact region	6 unit cell in total (24 atoms)

The current I through the contact region was calculated using the Landauer-Buttiker formula [45],

$$I(V_b) = G_0 \int_{\mu_R}^{\mu_L} T(E, V_b) dE \quad (2)$$

where $G_0 = 2e^2/h$ is the unit of quantum conductance, and $T(E, V_b)$ is the transmission probability of electrons incident at an energy E through the device under the potential bias V_b . Finally, the transmission function is obtained with a post-processed tool, TBTrans [39], which uses the self-energies of the electrodes and the green functions of the whole system.

III. METHODOLOGY

First, exhaustive tests were carried out to determine the minimum simulation parameters (see Table I) required to describe properly the two silicon polymorphs. Cubic diamond (International Table number 227, space group $Fd\bar{3}m$) with initial experimental lattice parameter [46] of $a = 5,4309 \text{ \AA}$ was relaxed with SIESTA (by conjugate gradient minimization of the energy until maximum absolute forces over atoms were better than $0,004 \text{ eV/\AA}$ in all cases) to $a = 5,48156 \text{ \AA}$. Hexagonal diamond (IT number 186, space group $P6_3mc$) with initial experimental lattice parameter [23] of $a = 3,8 \text{ \AA}$ and $c = 6,269 \text{ \AA}$ was optimized to $a = 3,854497 \text{ \AA}$ and $c = 6,367122 \text{ \AA}$. Cell angles did not display any significant variation after relaxation.

As regards to the thermodynamic stability of each polymorph, the total energy per atom of the hexagonal diamond structure was $0,01 \text{ eV/atom}$ greater than the corresponding value for the cubic diamond phase, in total agreement with previous GGA calculations [20] and with the fact that hexagonal diamond is a metastable phase of Si [16].

These lattice parameters were used to build the atomistic

models needed in the TranSIESTA calculation. Two important criteria were taken into account to design each model [39]:

1. The electrodes must be large enough to guarantee that orbitals within the unit cell only interact with one single nearest neighbor cell.
2. The scatter region has to be large enough to avoid the interaction between left and right electrode.

The main features of the four structures generated using these criteria are summarized in Table II: cubic diamond $\langle 001 \rangle_d$, $\langle 110 \rangle_d$ and $\langle 111 \rangle_d$ directions, and hexagonal diamond $\langle 001 \rangle_h$ direction. Subindices d and h are used to refer to each phase throughout this work. It is noteworthy, that the assumption of these widely accepted criteria leads to the constructions of unit cells containing different numbers of atoms, both in the electrodes and in the central region, for each different direction. As discussed below, precautions have been taken to minimize the influence of these effects on the here-reported results. Fig. 1 shows the structure of the whole transport model for the $\langle 111 \rangle_d$ direction (left and right electrodes and contact region). The cross section of each direction is represented in Fig. 2 (in all cases, the transport direction is along z axis).

After building the structural models, a self consistent field of the electrodes in periodic boundary conditions was calculated to obtain the density matrix, the real-space Hamiltonian (H_L and H_R) and the self-energies (Σ_L and Σ_R). These data were used in subsequent calculations to compute the surface Green's functions of the electrodes.

Afterwards, the process was repeated for the whole system (left and right electrode and contact region) to obtain the non-equilibrium electron density matrix (in open boundary conditions) of the system and the remaining parts of the Hamiltonian (H_C , V_L and V_R).

Finally, the electron transmission function and the current flowing along the previous structure in constant bias conditions (V_b) were calculated with the help of the post-processing tool TBTrans, included in the TranSIESTA package. As suggested by some authors [47], [48], the I-V characteristic of the material (current values at different bias conditions) was obtained iterating the previous process for different V_b values. We increased V_b in steps of $0,1 \text{ V}$ and used the converged density matrix of the previous state as an initial guess for the next step [47], [39].

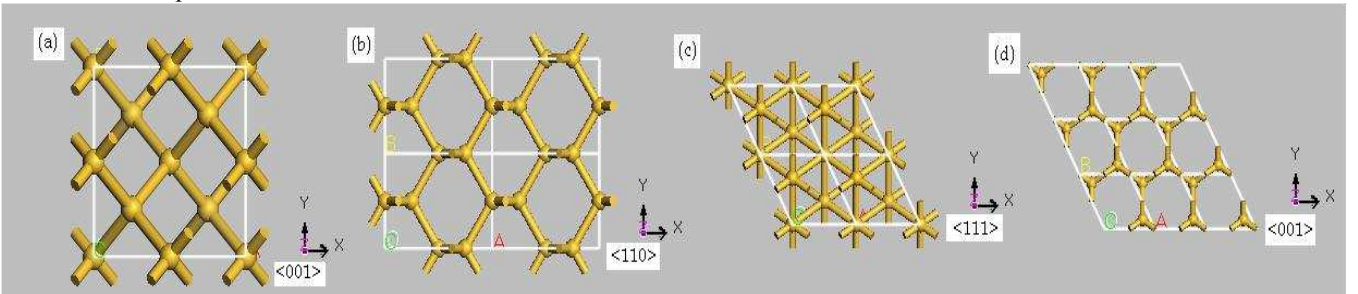


Fig. 2. Cross section of each configuration. (a) cubic diamond in $\langle 001 \rangle$ direction, 8 atoms/unit cell; (b) cubic diamond in $\langle 110 \rangle$ direction, 4 atoms/unit cell; (c) cubic diamond in $\langle 111 \rangle$ direction, 6 atoms/unit cell; (d) hexagonal diamond in $\langle 001 \rangle$ direction, 4 atoms/unit cell. In all cases, the electronic transport is along the z axis.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Interpretation of the results obtained with TranSIESTA

The theoretical framework that lays behind the TranSIESTA code includes a number of approximations and assumptions that must be taken into account to make meaningful interpretations of the results. In this section, we describe the most widely accepted way of interpreting the electron transport properties predicted with TranSIESTA. For simplicity we will focus in the results obtained for $\langle 110 \rangle_d$, the rest of the results can be consistently interpreted in the same way.

In the conductance function (Fig. 3) we can see that there's a zero-transmission region of 0,8 eV ($\pm 0,4$ eV around the Fermi level) that directly corresponds with the computed band gap ($E_{\text{gap}} \langle 110 \rangle_d = 0,793$ eV, as known, underestimated by DFT). In the current-voltage curve that value is the voltage at which the intensity increases significantly (Fig. 4). However, we can see that there are non-zero values of the current from 0,5 V. That is in agreement with the conductance function, where there is a little but significant non-zero transmission above these energies (Fig. 3).

This behavior is clearer if we compare the conductance at different bias voltages (Fig. 5). The conduction and valence region of the spectrum are more separated as the bias voltage V_b increases. This occurs because the polarization produces a relative displacement of the electrodes energy bands: the Fermi level of the left electrode is shifted up to $eV_b/2$ and the Fermi level of the right electrode is shifted down to $-eV_b/2$. Hence, the energetic distance between the conduction band of the left electrode and the valence band of the right electrode increases with the bias voltage.

But, at the same time, the energetic distance between the valence band of the left electrode and the conduction band of the right electrode decreases with bias voltage. When there is an overlapping between the valence and conduction states of both electrodes (i.e., when V_b is approximately the band gap), a transmission channel through the contact region is created and there is electron transport from left to right electrode. In these conditions, current starts to flow. In Fig 6 (c) we can see that there is no region of zero-transmission around the Fermi level when the bias voltage is 0,8 V. For greater bias voltage, Fig. 6 (d), there is a region around the Fermi level with transmission, due to the states created by the overlapping of the left electrode-valence band and right electrode-conduction band.

As said before, we can verify that the transmission at 0,5V of bias voltage, Fig. 6 (b), has a little but significant region inside the current integration range with non-zero values of conductance, as long as the energetic distance between the left valence band and the right conduction band has decreased and there are energetic states near the Fermi level that were not available when there was no bias voltage. This region contributes to compute a total current different of zero.

This ON-OFF effect predicted by the simulations is closely related with the fact that DFT is a ground state theory. In this

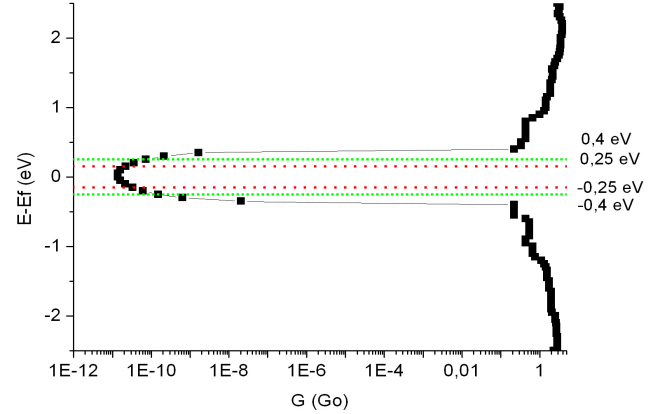


Fig. 3. Conductance along the direction $\langle 110 \rangle$ of the cubic diamond at zero bias voltage. The zero-transmission zone (between $-0,4$ eV and $0,4$ eV) is similar to the computed band gap, $0,79$ eV. But, at $0,25$ and $-0,25$ eV there's a little but significant electron transmission.

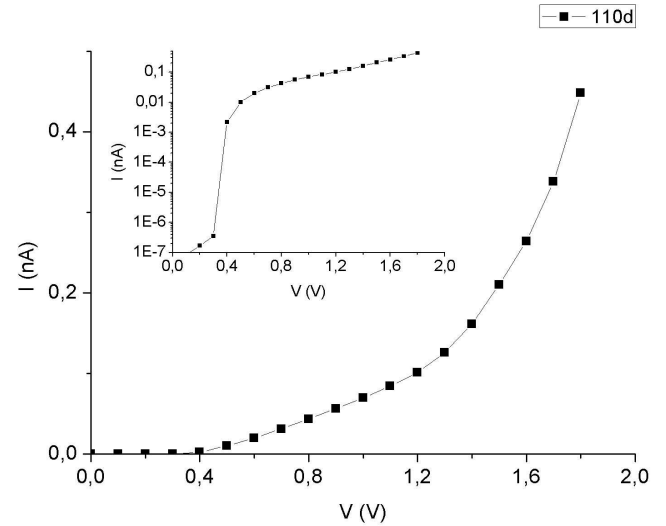


Fig. 4. I-V characteristic of the direction $\langle 110 \rangle$ of the cubic diamond. Current starts to have a non-zero value at 0,5V, but it starts to grow up near the energy gap value, 0,8V. Detail of the I-V curve in a logarithmic scale.

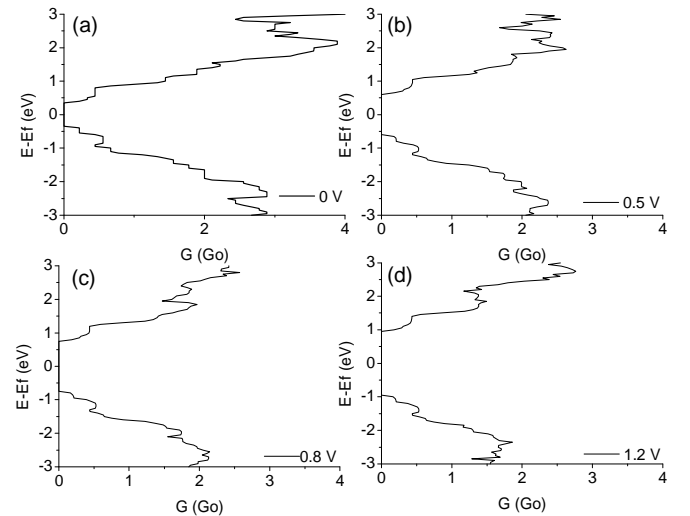


Fig. 5. Conductance of the direction $\langle 110 \rangle$ of the cubic diamond at (a) 0V, (b) 0,5 V, (c) 0,8 V and (d) 1,2V of bias voltage. The zero-transmission zone increases with the bias voltage.

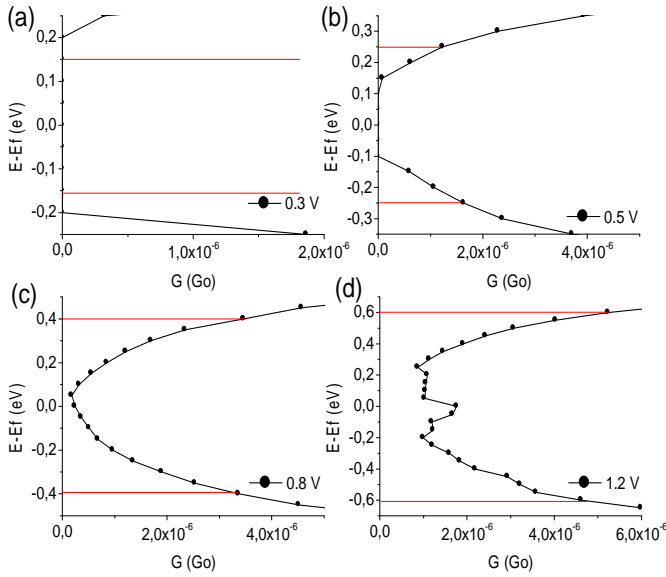


Fig. 6. Detail of the conductance of the direction $\langle 110 \rangle$ of the cubic diamond near the region where the integration of the current is done (the red lines correspond to $-V_b/2$ and $V_b/2$) at (a) 0,3 V, (b) 0,5 V, (c) 0,8 V and (d) 1,2V of bias voltage.

such state, the conduction band is strictly empty and the valence band is completely occupied by electrons. This is a crucial difference with the transport in a real material, which always will have a temperature different of 0 K.

B. Comparison of the conductance and I-V characteristic between the different configuration

Our systems have periodic boundary conditions in the plane perpendicular to the transport direction (z axis). TranSIESTA code compute the current in one system cell in the transversal direction, otherwise, the current would be infinite (i.e., the x-y plane is infinite due to the periodic boundary conditions). Thus, to have a finite and comparable magnitude, current values are reported (Fig. 7) in terms of the current per unit cell area transversal (x-y plane) to each transport direction (z axis). The comparison of both the conductance and the I-V curves leads to the same results: the direction $\langle 001 \rangle_d$ displays highest conductance and the largest current values at high bias voltages, followed by the direction $\langle 110 \rangle_d$, $\langle 001 \rangle_h$ and the last one being $\langle 111 \rangle_d$.

In the case of the hexagonal polymorph, the $\langle 001 \rangle_h$ direction has a narrower zone of zero-transmission, which agrees with the smaller energy band gap computed for this configuration ($E_{\text{gap}}^{\langle 001 \rangle_h} = 0,34$ eV) compared to the diamond-like directions, and with the fact the experimental evidence that this polymorph of silicon has a lower band gap [23].

If we compare the directions of cubic diamond in the region where the bias voltage is lower than the energy gap, the direction $\langle 111 \rangle_d$ presents significant current at lower V_b values.

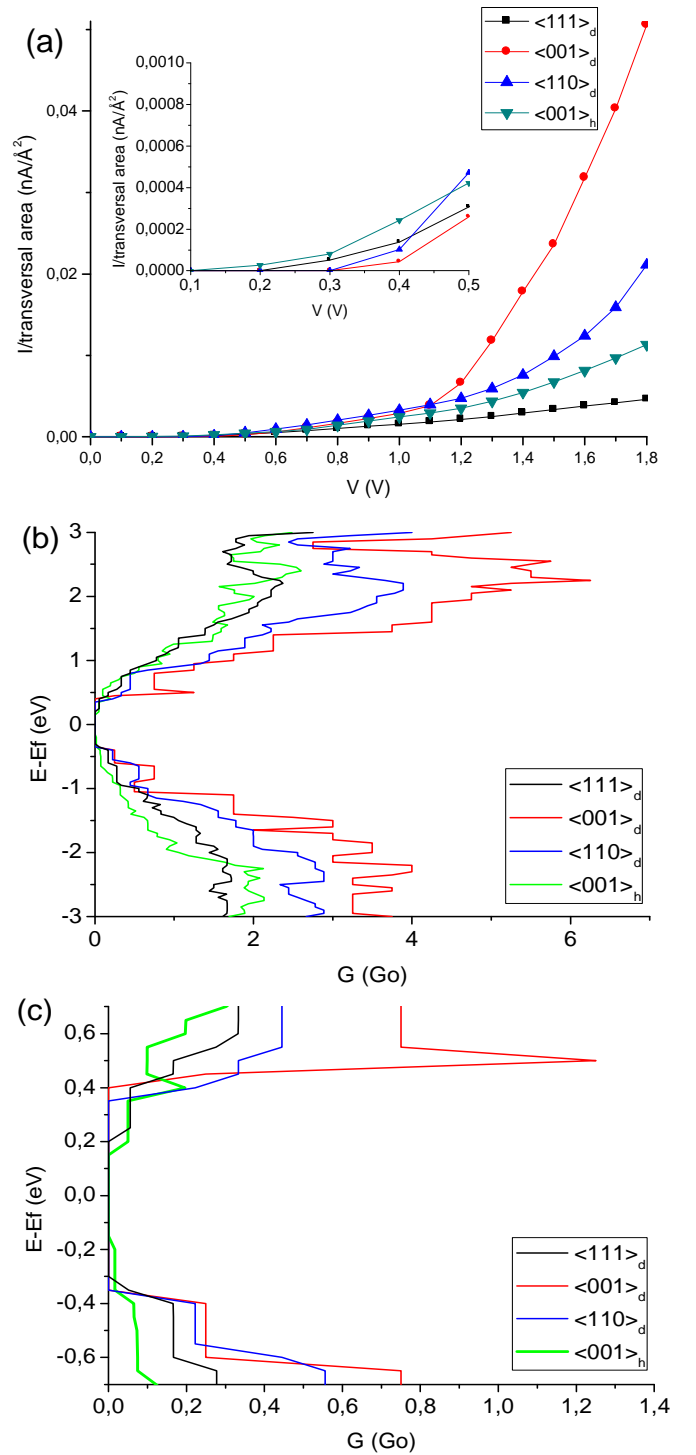


Fig. 7. (a) Comparison of the I-V characteristic (I in this case is the current per unit of transversal area) of the three directions of cubic diamond $\langle 001 \rangle_d$, $\langle 110 \rangle_d$ and $\langle 111 \rangle_d$ and the hexagonal diamond $\langle 001 \rangle_h$. Detail of the I-V curve for low bias-voltage, before current starts to flow significantly. (b) Comparison of the conductance of $\langle 001 \rangle_d$, $\langle 110 \rangle_d$ and $\langle 111 \rangle_d$ and $\langle 001 \rangle_h$. (c) Detail of the conductance in the region near the Fermi level. The band gap of hexagonal diamond silicon is lower than the cubic diamond

C. Influence of the electrodes and contact region size

In order to clarify if the differences in the size of the models constructed for each direction have any significant effect on

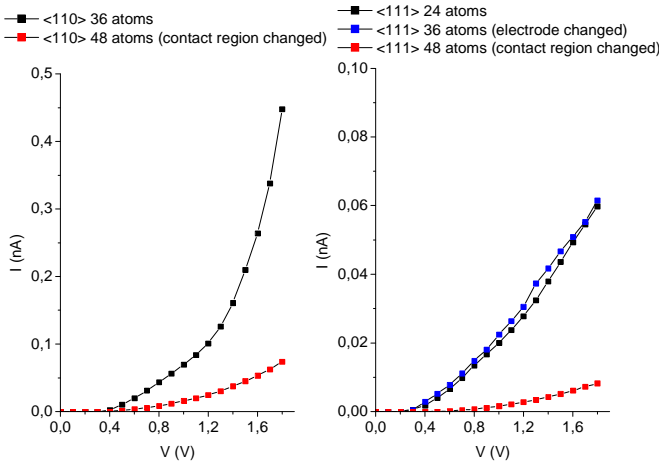


Fig. 8. Influence of the electrode and contact region size to the current.

the transport differences described in the previous section, specific calculations were run.

To study the effect of the number of atoms, we computed two new configurations. The first one had the same contact region than the original but different electrode sizes ($\langle 111 \rangle_d$ with twice the electrode: 12 atoms/electrode, 36 atoms in total). In the second one the electrodes remained unaltered and the size of the contact region was increased ($\langle 111 \rangle_d$ with three times the contact region: 36 atoms in it, 48 atoms in total; and $\langle 110 \rangle_d$ with twice the contact region: 24 atoms in it, 48 atoms in total). We found that changes in the electrode do not produce a significant variation in the current, but an increase of the contact region leads to a decrease in the current (see Fig. 8).

From the point of view of the conductance, Fig. 9 (a), the modified systems display the same general features that the original ones. But, if we center our attention, Fig. 9 (b), in the region where the integration of the current will take place (around the non-conduction region), the system with the modified contact regions seems to be less conductive, in accordance with the results shown in Fig. 8.

Therefore, we conclude that the electrode size does not change the electronic transport. This confirms that our electrodes' models are good enough to study the differences in the electronic transport of the contact region: these electrodes act as a real infinite reservoirs of electrons that can be sent from one side and absorbed in the other, being dispersed by the central region. Thus, upon conduction, electron transport is only limited by the properties of the central scattering region.

In contrast, we have observed that there is a notable diminution of the current with the number of atoms in the contact region. This is a common phenomena, which has already been observed by other authors [27], and might be related to the increase in the scattering centers. It is noteworthy that this effect modifies the quantitative values obtained in the simulation but do not alter at all the qualitative order of the different growth directions, as far as their conductance is concerned.

Finally, as regards the intrinsic variations in the number of

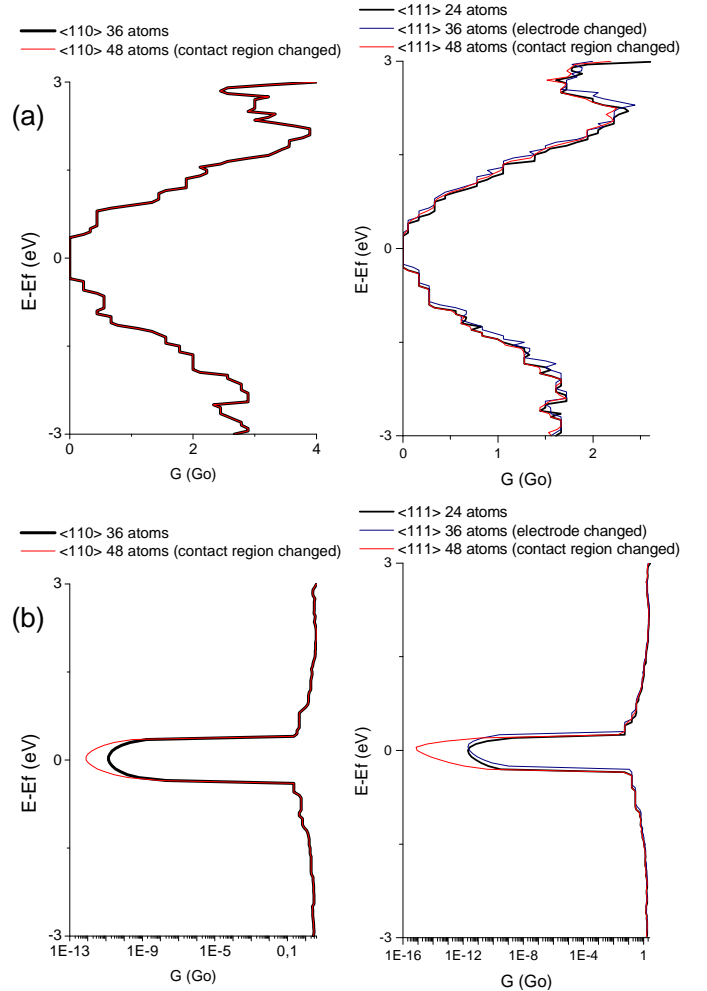


Fig. 9. (a) Conductance for the direction $\langle 111 \rangle_d$ and $\langle 110 \rangle_d$ for the original system and the new configurations, where the electrode and the contact region are changed. (b) Logarithmic plot of the dependence with the number of atoms. There's a significant difference in the non-conduction region between the changed-contact region system, and the original and changed-electrode system.

atoms of the contact region due to the differences in the crystal structure of each direction (see Table II), it must be bear in mind that each one of these models represents the minimum structural unit in which transport along a given crystallographic direction can be defined. In other words, the relative differences and ordering of the I-V characteristics predicted per structural unit in each direction should still be valid for nanowires with different orientations containing similar number of such elementary transport units. All these guarantee the significance of the results reported in this study.

D. Discussion of the results

We have verified that our methodology is correct to study the electronic transport of our structures. The electrodes behave like a reservoir of electrons and the atoms in the contact region act as elastic scattering centers. In this way, the electronic transport from the valence states of the left electrode

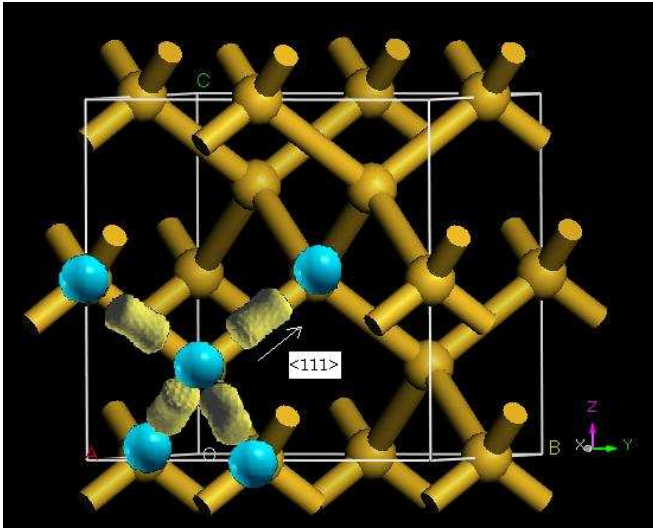


Fig. 10. Location of the electron charge density (light yellow) in cubic diamond silicon

to the conductance band of the right electrode along the scatter center region gives us the conductance function of the system. This is the information that we wanted, because, with electrodes of the same material than the central region, it ensures that all transport modes existing in structures are coupled to the device. This type of configuration makes evident the effects over the electronic transport due to the different orientation and order of the atomic orbitals in each crystallographic direction and for the different polymorphs of silicon.

There are several reasons that hamper a quantitative comparison of the results of our calculations with experiments. First of all, the transport model considered does not take into account inelastic scattering effects (which play a key role in the experimental values of the conductance). Second, the DFT assumes 0 K in the calculations, situation that will never be achieved in experiments. Third, as discussed before, there exists a certain dependence of the particular current value predicted by the simulation on the size of the model of the contact region.

Anyhow, as all the models considered in this work were constructed consistently to represent an elementary transport unit in each direction with the same criteria, we can affirm that our results are qualitatively correct. This assertion is supported by other authors in works that discuss about which are the most suitable configurations for modeling and in which similar procedures are reported [44], [47]-[49].

It is not surprising that the first direction that shows significant current values at lower V_b values is the $\langle 111 \rangle_d$. This effect can be related with the fact that the electron charge density is concentrated mainly along this direction in cubic diamond-like structures, which have a tetrahedral configuration, see Fig. 10.

From the point of view of the electron conductance, we have observed that the transport direction and structural phase play an important role. First, the $\langle 001 \rangle_d$ is the direction that gives more current when conduction is fully activated (bias voltage

above the band gap), followed by $\langle 110 \rangle_d$, and, quite far away, there are the $\langle 111 \rangle_d$ and $\langle 001 \rangle_h$.

The most common growth direction reported for SiNWs thinner than 20 nm is $\langle 110 \rangle_d$ [19] whereas for SiNWs with diameters greater than 50 nm is $\langle 111 \rangle_d$ [15]. Also, SiNWs grown along $\langle 001 \rangle_d$ [13], [14] and $\langle 001 \rangle_h$ [22], [23] direction can be efficiently synthesized with VLS technique. Therefore, current synthesis methods can furnish experimentalist with nanowires grown in different directions that are expected to display differential transport properties, according to the here-reported results. However, an exhaustive work providing experimental evidences of such effects is still missing in the literature.

V. CONCLUSION

We have studied the electronic transport properties of Si with the help of *ab initio* calculations, within the framework of DFT and NEGF formalism, with the aim of examining the effect of the crystallographic growth direction on the electronic transport.

The conductance function and I-V characteristic of the most significant SiNW growth directions, corresponding to two different polymorphs of silicon (cubic diamond and hexagonal diamond phase) have been studied.

The largest current values for high bias voltages were predicted for the direction $\langle 001 \rangle_d$. For the low bias regime, the hexagonal diamond polymorph is the first one to display conduction due to its lower band gap value, followed by the $\langle 111 \rangle_d$ direction.

The effects of the number of atoms in the atomistic models on the electronic conduction have been explored in order to check the validity of the here-assumed simulation criteria. We have demonstrated that the electrodes effectively acted as infinite reservoirs of electrons, since the electronic transport properties do not change significantly with their size. In contrast, the current values depend on the size of the scatter central region.

This fact, together with the absence of inelastic scattering effects and the assumption of 0 K intrinsic to theoretical framework make our simulations not quantitatively comparable with experiments, but the results are completely valid from a qualitatively point of view.

To sum up, we have shown how *ab initio* modeling of electron transport can provide theoretical hints and guidelines to improve and tailor the performance of SiNW-based devices, in which the approximation of bulk transport is still valid.

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