Noncollinear Relativistic DFT + U Calculations of Actinide Dioxide Surfaces

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* Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: A noncollinear relativistic PBEsol + U study of low-index actinide dioxides (AnO$_2$, An = U, Np, or Pu) surfaces has been conducted. The importance of magnetic vector reorientation relative to the plane of the surface is highlighted; this has often been ignored in collinear nonrelativistic models. The use of noncollinear relativistic methods is key to the design of reliable computational models. The ionic relaxation of each surface is shown to be confined to the first three monolayers, and we have explored the configurations of the terminal oxygen ions on the reconstructed (001) surface. The reconstructed (001) surfaces are ordered as (001)$\alpha \beta < (001)\alpha < (001)\beta$ in terms of energetics. Electrostatic potential isosurface and scanning tunneling microscopy images have also been calculated. By considering the energetics of the low-index AnO$_2$ surfaces, an octahedral Wulff crystal morphology has been calculated.

1. INTRODUCTION

The surface chemistry of actinide dioxides (AnO$_2$, An = U, Np, or Pu) is key to understanding corrosion mechanisms, which impacts the design of long-term storage facilities and the industrial reprocessing of nuclear fuels. The inexorable oxidation of actinide metal forms an oxide surface layer; where, the composition controls successive corrosion rates. The rapid onset of corrosion results in: thermal excursions, the failure of containment vessels, and the resulting dispersal of nuclear materials. To reduce the risk of nuclear proliferation and assist in nuclear decommissioning, controlled oxidation of actinide metals offer a means of converting classified nuclear material to simple ingots. In terms of fuel fabrication, the surface energetics also impact: fuel sintering behavior and particle morphology.

As a result of the inhomogeneous and radioactive nature of An elements, few AnO$_2$ experimental surface studies have been completed. To compensate for experimental issues, computational methods offer another mode of study; although, a computational investigation of heavy-fermion systems is also challenging. To investigate the complex electronic structure by computational methods, one must consider exchange-correlation influences, relativistic contributions, and noncollinear magnetic behavior. Only a limited number of studies have considered relativistic contributions (spin–orbit interaction, SOI), which is important in the treatment of actinide systems. In addition, the actinides often have complex (noncollinear) magnetic structures, and thus far no investigation of AnO$_2$ surfaces has incorporated noncollinear magnetic behavior.

The actinides are highly correlated f-electron systems for which conventional density functional theory (DFT) methods calculate an incorrect electronic structure. To model highly correlated materials correctly, a number of methods have been developed: the self-interaction correction method, modified DFT (DFT + U), dynamic mean field theory, and hybrid density functionals. As a computationally tractable method, DFT + U offers a means of study in which the electronic structure can be computed. In the Liechtenstein DFT + U formulism, independent Coulomb (U) and exchange (J) terms treat the on-site Coulomb repulsion of the An f-electrons. The values are derived from higher level ab initio methods or obtained through semiempirical analysis.

The electronic structure of AnO$_2$ is influenced by changes in the magnetic order, here, the importance of magnetic vector reorientation is highlighted. The effect of transverse 3k
antiferromagnetic (AFM) behavior on the properties of the UO$_2$ surface is unknown, whereas investigations on NpO$_2$ and PuO$_2$ surfaces are even less common. Information on the low-index AnO$_2$(111), (011), and (001) surfaces has been calculated by DFT $+$ U: energetics, ionic relaxation, electrostatic isosurfaces, scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) images, crystal morphology, and dipolar reconstructions.

1.1. Magnetic Structure. The magnetic structure of AnO$_2$ is highly complicated. A discontinuous first-order magnetic phase transition ($T_N$ = 30.8 K) in UO$_2$ has been established by heat capacity, magnetic susceptibility, and neutron diffraction measurements. A transverse 3k AFM ground state has been identified (Figure 1). The ground state corresponds to an internal Pa$_3$(no. 205) crystallographic distortion synonymous with the magnetic order (the displacement of O$^{2-}$ ions is 0.014 Å).

The magnetic structure of NpO$_2$ remains unresolved. In the absence of interactions that break time-reversal symmetry conditions, the Np$^{3+}$ ion (a Kramers ion, one with an uneven number of valence electrons) should order magnetically at low temperature. A first-order paramagnetic (PM)–AFM phase transition ($T = 25.4$ K) has been inferred by magnetic susceptibility and specific heat capacity measurements. In spite of an exhaustive search, a measurable local magnetic moment has not been identified by low-temperature Mössbauer ($T = 1.5$ K), neutron diffraction ($12 \text{ K} < T < 30 \text{ K}$), and muon spin rotation ($0.3 \text{ K} < T < 25.4 \text{ K}$) measurements.

In terms of the crystal structure, no evidence has been found of an external distortion, which would indicate a noncollinear 3k AFM order. An internal O$^{2-}$ ion distortion [indicative of transverse 3k AFM behavior with Pa$_3$(no. 205) crystal symmetry] can be inferred from the small broadening of Mössbauer spectroscopic lines and inelastic neutron scattering (INS) measurements. An internal O$^{2-}$ ion distortion of 0.02 Å has been calculated, which is, however, below the experimental resolution.

In contrast, a longitudinal 3k AFM ground state has been indicated by resonant X-ray scattering ($10 \text{ K} < T < 17 \text{ K}$) and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) measurements ($T = 17 \text{ K}$). The transverse 3k AFM state, relative to the longitudinal 3k AFM state, is 0.002 eV-formula unit lower in energy (as calculated by HSE06 incorporating SOI).

An experimental singlet $\Gamma_1$ diamagnetic PuO$_2$ ground state has been inferred from: magnetic susceptibility ($T = 4$ K), INS ($T > 30$ K), and NMR ($T > 4$ K) measurements. However, a number of inconsistencies have been identified, and an ordered magnetic ground state can be assumed. In contrast to experimental measurements, a longitudinal 3k AFM ground state has been calculated. It is thought that PuO$_2$ could be a small-moment insulator (similar to NpO$_2$) for which DFT overestimates the magnetic moments. In this study, the transverse 3k AFM order (UO$_2$ and NpO$_2$) and the longitudinal 3k AFM order (PuO$_2$) have been used to describe the crystals.

To model the noncollinear magnetic behavior, it is imperative that relativistic effects are considered. A considerable number of studies ignore the SOI (important in heavy-fermion systems) to reduce the computational cost. A limited number of studies on UO$_2$ and PuO$_2$ consider relativistic contributions to the total energy. The importance of SOI on modeling UO$_2$ by DFT initially seemed to be inconsequential. In a nonrelativistic treatment of other actinide systems, the study has often been cited to justify the absence of SOI. The importance of SOI on the PuO$_2$(111) surface energies has now been highlighted by hybrid DFT. But all studies have limited themselves to a discussion of the collinear 1k AFM order.

A major limitation of scalar calculations is the inability to orient the magnetic moments relative to the direction of the surface. In this manner, the magnetic moments are directed orthogonal to the surface plane, which leads to notable inconsistencies within the electronic structure. If not corrected, the orientation of the magnetic field is also directed orthogonal to the surface plane because the principal axis differs between the surfaces. Consequently, the electronic, magnetic, and crystal structures differ between the bulk crystal structure and individual surfaces. If the magnetic vectors are not reoriented, the energetics and structural relaxations derived by this approach are incomplete.

This is particularly concerning when calculating the surface energy, which is derived from the bulk structure, and it is therefore important that the magnetic vectors relative to the surface are carefully reoriented. In the past studies where this essential transformation has been omitted, the energies of the bulk and surface are therefore often incomparable, which introduces a significant error when calculating the energy of the surface. In this study, the magnetic vectors are reoriented relative to the surface plane, which ensures that we preserve the noncollinear 3k AFM structure. In addition, the reduction of cubic symmetry associated with collinear 1k AFM states (used in past calculations) is avoided.

The magnetic structure is commonly defined by the principal axis. The principal axis of the AnO$_2$ (111) and (011) surfaces differs from that of the bulk crystal, and the final magnetic, electronic, and crystal structures are therefore inequivalent. However, this is not the case for the AnO$_2$(001) surface which shares the same axes. To illustrate in a two-dimensional material, we consider the first two layers of a collinear 1k AFM material (Figure 2). The (01) surface and the crystal share the same principal axis, and the magnetic structures are therefore directly related. In the (11) surface, the principal axis differs from that of...
2. COMPUTATIONAL METHODOLOGY

2.1. Calculation Details. A noncollinear relativistic computational study of AnO$_2$ (An = U, Np, or Pu) surfaces has been completed with the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP). The code uses plane-wave basis sets, relativistic effective core potentials, and frozen-core projector-augmented wave (PAW) method. The cutoff energy of the plane-wave basis set is 500 eV. The uranium (6s$^2$, 7s$^2$, 6p$^6$, 6d$^2$, 5f$^2$), neptunium (6s$^2$, 7s$^2$, 6p$^6$, 6d$^2$, 5f$^3$), plutonium (6s$^2$, 7s$^2$, 6p$^6$, 6d$^2$, 5f$^4$), and oxygen (2s$^2$, 2p$^4$) valence electrons have been explicitly considered. The integration over the Brillouin zone is completed with the Blochl tetrahedron method and a $\Gamma$-centered k-point grid. The influence of the SOI and noncollinear magnetic wave vectors has been considered. As a correction to the total energy, the SOI is included as a final perturbation. In the treatment of the SOI term, a few assumptions are made. First, a complete basis set is formed within the PAW spheres, and the SOI outside of the PAW spheres is irrelevant. Second, the wave functions are solutions of the radial scalar relativistic Schrödinger equation, which includes Darwin and mass velocity terms. The spin quantization axis is defined by the (001) plane, from which magnetic and spinorlike values are calculated.

The on-site Coulomb repulsion of the An 5f electrons has been treated by the Liechtenstein et al. DFT + U$^{33-35}$ formalism. In the Liechtenstein et al. formalism, the Coulomb (U) and exchange (J) modifiers are treated as independent variables. To correctly calculate the electronic structure of AnO$_2$ (where conventional methods often fail), the Coulomb modifier has been chosen to emulate the experimental band gap. The uranium (U = 3.35 eV), neptunium (U = 4.25 eV), and plutonium (U = 6.00 eV) Coulomb modifiers are shown. The influence of J on noncollinear magnetic materials has been investigated. The anisotropic nature of the f-states has been shown to increase with J (and with U), and therefore J is ignored in this study. The selected conditions offer an accurate representation of the electronic structure. The exchange-correlation energy has been evaluated by the revised Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof for solids (PBEsol) function-al. The iteration threshold for electronic and ionic convergences has been set at $1 \times 10^{-5}$ eV and $1 \times 10^{-2}$ eV Å$^{-1}$, respectively. As the crystal and electronic structures of AnO$_2$ are highly dependent on the magnetic state, it is imperative to correctly reorientate the magnetic vectors with respect to the surface plane.

Ionic relaxation is a common mechanism by which the surface energy is minimized with respect to the unrelaxed surface. The surface energy ($\gamma$) is a measure of the surface stability and is defined by

$$\gamma = \frac{E(N) - N \cdot E}{2A}$$

The number of formula units (N), the total energy of the surface slab, [E$_{tot}(N)$], and the total energy per formula unit (E$_{AnO_2}$) are defined in the parentheses. In our calculations, all ions are relaxed, whereas the dimensions of the unit cell are fixed. The conjugate gradient method has been employed in the relaxation of the ions. Images are visualized by the CrystalMaker and VESTA codes. The density of states have been illustrated by the SUMO code, a command-line plotting tool for ab initio calculations.

2.2. Low-Index Surface Models. The low-index AnO$_2$ (111), (011), and (001) surfaces are created by the METADISE code (Figure 3) from the ionically relaxed crystal structure.

The nonpolar (111) surface is comprised of charged O−An−O monolayers, whereas the dipolar (011) surface is comprised of charge neutral planes.

The polar (001) surface (formed of dipolar An−O layers) is inherently unstable. The electrostatic energy relative to the number of monolayers diverges; this is driven by the electric dipole moment. To eliminate the dipole moment, the surface undergoes a reconstruction, whereby half of the charge oxygen ions are transposed from one surface to the other. This results in the formation of a half-filled oxygen terminated surface (Figure 4). The reconstruction is influenced by environmental conditions in nature. In the nonpolar reconstructed (001)$_r$ surface, the (001)$_0$ or (001)$_N$ configurations in a (1-1) unit cell can be formed. Although numerous configurations are possible in a (1-2) unit cell, the (001)$_0\beta$ reconstruction offers...
hybridization between the two (1-1) reconstructions, and in this study, we have calculated the relative stabilities of these three surface configurations.

The surface energy is converged with respect to the k-point grid to under 0.05 J·m⁻² (Figure 5). The (111) surface is calculated from a 5-5-1 Γ-centered k-point grid recommended for hexagonal structures, whereas the (011) and (001) surfaces are calculated from a 4-4-1 Γ-centered k-point grid. To minimize the potential aliasing errors, the initial bulk structure (from which the surfaces are derived) is calculated with both 4-4-4 and 5-5-5 Γ-centered k-point grids for direct comparison. Finally, the (001)αβ surface is calculated form a 4-2-1 Γ-centered k-point.

2.3. Hive Code. In the STM Hive code, the Tersoff-Hamann model is considered, where the tunneling current is equivalent to the local density of states. A point source at a constant height (2.5 Å) and a Fermi energy sample bias (~2.50 eV) are used. Topographies calculated by HIVE include copper, germanium, gold, iron oxide, and thorium dioxide.

2.4. Wulff Reconstruction. According to the Gibbs thermodynamic principle, the equilibrium crystal morphology is influenced by the total surface energy of the medium interface. An equilibrium crystal morphology that minimizes the surface energy has been calculated as follows (eq 3)

\[ G_i = \sum_j \gamma_j A_j \]  \hspace{1cm} (2)

The terms in the parentheses describe the total crystal-medium interface free energy \( (G_i) \), the surface Gibbs free energy \( (\gamma_j) \), and the surface area \( (A_j) \).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Model Constraints. 3.1.1. Surface Energetics. As a function of the number of formula units used, the energy of the low-index AnO₂ surfaces has been calculated (Supporting Information, Figure S1). The ions are fully relaxed while keeping the relative dimensions of the unit cell fixed. In this study, the surface energy is converged to within 0.01 J·m⁻² when 12 or more formula units are used. The surface energy increases across the series as (111) < (011) < (001)α < (001)β (typical of fluorite-structured materials) (Table 1). The energy difference between the (001)α and (001)β terminations are relatively small in UO₂ (0.08 J·m⁻²) and NpO₂ (0.06 J·m⁻²) compared to PuO₂ (0.19 J·m⁻²). If one uses a (1-1) unit cell model, the (001)α surface relative to the (001)β surface is energetically favorable, which is confirmed independently by an interatomic potential-based investigation on UO₂. Compared with the past DFT-based methods, the calculated surface energies are considerably greater for each surface, although interatomic potential models and relativistic hybrid calculations of UO₂ have resulted in even higher surface energies.

In addition, interatomic potential models of UO₂ have calculated lower-energy (001) surface reconstructions, which are formed using a larger unit cell. In the reconstruction of the (001) surface in our (1-1) unit cell, only the (001)α and (001)β configurations can be generated, whereas the surface energy of the (001)αβ configuration from a (1-2) unit cell (calculated using 28 formula units) relative to the (001)α and (001)β configurations is considerably lower in energy (Table 1). This implies a limitation of the DFT (1-1) unit cell model, and it is clearly possible that other configurations, even in larger cells, could be more stable. However, increasing the size of the cell increases the computational cost of the system significantly, and

![Figure 4. Reconstruction of the AnO₂ (001) surface. In a (1-1) unit cell, the transposition of oxygen ions results in the (001)α or (001)β configurations. In a (1-2) unit cell, the transposition of oxygen ions results in the (001)αβ configuration. The oxygen (red), oxygen vacancies (white), and actinide (blue) ions are indicated.](image)

![Figure 5. Surface energy converged with respect to the k-point grid for each surface: (a) uranium dioxide, (b) neptunium dioxide, and (c) plutonium dioxide. The colors indicate the (111) (green), (011) (blue), (001)α (red), and (001)β (yellow) surfaces. In these calculations, the (111), (001)α, and (001)β surfaces are formed of 15 monolayers, whereas the (011) surface is formed of 7 monolayers.](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Surface</th>
<th>(111)</th>
<th>(011)</th>
<th>(001)α</th>
<th>(001)β</th>
<th>(001)αβ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UO₂</td>
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<td>1.23</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NpO₂</td>
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<td>1.28</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>1.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PuO₂</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 6. Interlayer An–An relaxation for (a) (111), (b) (011), (c) (001)\(\alpha\), and (d) (001)\(\beta\) surfaces. The interlayer spacing index (i) is indicated in the parentheses.

Figure 7. Interlayer O–O relaxation for (a) (111), (b) (011), (c) (001)\(\alpha\), and (d) (001)\(\beta\) surfaces. The interlayer spacing index (i) is indicated in the parentheses.

a systematic fully relativistic DFT study of bigger simulations cells is currently computationally intractable.

3.1.2. Ionic Relaxation. The low-index AnO\(_2\) surfaces are characterized by the changes in the interlayer spacings (Figures 6a–d and 7a–d), which enable a quantitative analysis of the structural relaxation between layers. The interlayer relaxation \(d_{\text{interlayer}}\) is calculated by

\[
d_{\text{interlayer}} = (d_{i,i+1})_{\text{relaxed}} - d_{\text{unrelaxed}}
\]

where \((d_{i,i+1})_{\text{relaxed}}\) is the average interlayer separation of ions in the relaxed surface and \(d_{\text{unrelaxed}}\) is the average interlayer separation of ions in the unrelaxed surface. The interlayer relaxation is reminiscent of studies on the isostructural CeO\(_2\) material, with similar results found for the (111) and (011) surfaces.\(^{101}\)

In the context of An–An relaxation, the (111) surface is marginally distorted. The major difference is confined to the oxygen separation in the second interlayer space. The (011) surface undergoes the greatest overall interlayer relaxation, with the first surface layer experiencing a marked contraction, where the first An layer contracts significantly more than the first O layer. The contraction of the first layer is countered by a slight
expansion of An ions in the second layer, but the bulk structure is regained by the fifth layer. The terminal O ions in the (001)α and (001)β surface undergo a significant contraction, although the remainder of the structure is relatively unaffected. In general, the interlayer relaxation is confined to the first 5 Å, indicating that for investigations of surface reactivity, a slab of minimum 10 Å thickness should be used. Our results are similar to those found in studies of CeO₂ and ThO₂.98

In the context of interlayer O–O relaxation, the distortion of the surface is primarily confined to the first three to four monolayers and the degree of ionic relaxation is generally identical in the AnO₂ surfaces, with the exception of the PuO₂(001)β surface. In the PuO₂(001)β surface, the relaxation of the oxygen ions is significantly less relative to the UO₂ and NpO₂(001)β surfaces. Thus, of the (001) surfaces, the UO₂ and NpO₂(001)β surfaces undergo the greatest surface relaxation, whereas in PuO₂, the (001)α surface undergoes the greatest surface relaxation, which is a result of the magnetic order and the relaxation in the xy-plane.

No significant structural distortion in the xy-plane occurs in the AnO₂(111), (011), or (001)α surface, possibly as a result of preserving the Pa3̅ (no. 205) or Fm3m (no. 225) cubic symmetry from the use of noncollinear 3k AFM order.27 In contrast, the oxygen ions in the UO₂ and NpO₂(001)β configuration are shifted from their initial positions by the use of transverse 3k AFM ordering (Figure 8). This distortion is not observed in the corresponding PuO₂ surface in which the ions are relatively fixed, although there is a minor distortion of the surface plutonium ions, potentially as a consequence of using either transverse 3k AFM or longitudinal 3k AFM behavior. By comparison, the oxygen ions in the (001)αβ configuration are relatively static, and instead, the actinide ion is partially shifted toward the terminal oxygen ions.

3.2. Surface Properties. 3.2.1. Electronic Structure. The electronic structure of the AnO₂ surfaces has been calculated (Figure 9). The covalent nature of the AnO₂ materials (a consequence of An (f) and O (p) mixing) is seen to increase along the series. The Mott–Hubbard insulating nature of UO₂ is characterized by transitions primarily occurring across the An f-bands. Compared to relativistic hybrid DFT calculations of UO₂, the calculated band gaps for the low-index surfaces are considerably greater.15 The charge-transfer insulating nature of PuO₂ is characterized by transitions primarily between the valence Pu f-band and the conduction O p-band. In NpO₂, both Mott insulating and charge-transfer characteristics are shown in the surface. In general, the electronic structure is only partially perturbed between surfaces.

In addition, the electron affinity and ionization potential of the AnO₂ surfaces has been calculated (Table 2). This information fills a significant gap in the literature where X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy and Kelvin probe microscopy studies are yet to be performed. The electron affinity and the ionization potential increase along the (011) < (111) < (001)β < (001)α series. Of the AnO₂ (An = U, Np, or Pu) materials, UO₂ is the least reactive, whereas PuO₂ is the most reactive.

3.2.2. Magnetic Deviation. The magnetic structure of the low-index AnO₂ surfaces has been investigated. A complete analysis of the actinide ions can be found in the Supporting Information. The localized magnetic normalized root-mean-square deviation (nrmsd) of the first three monolayers has been calculated for each surface (Figure 10). As the monolayer surface depth increases, the magnetic distortion decreases. The total magnetic moment of U (1.37 μB·ion⁻¹), Np (2.70 μB·ion⁻¹), and Pu (3.80 μB·ion⁻¹) ions remains constant.

The comparative localized magnetic deviation in NpO₂ for identical surfaces is relatively high. A number of competing low-temperature (T < 25.4 K) magnetic states could cause the distortion. For instance, the transverse 3k AFM state, relative to the ferromagnetic (FM) (111) ground state, is 0.002 eV per formula unit higher in energy; however, no experimental evidence of a FM (111) ground state, which results in a R̅3m (no. 166) crystallographic distortion, exists.25 In addition, the localized magnetic deviation of the (001)α series can be ascribed to the surface instability. In the first three monolayers of the (001)α surface, a FM and an AFM domain are formed. The lowest rmsd is found for the PuO₂(011) surface.

3.2.3. STM. The surface energies of UO₂ are extremely sensitive to stoichiometry, defect chemistry, and environmental conditions.102–104 Low-energy electron diffraction measurements of the UO₂(111) surface have identified over 16 individual patterns.105 To assist the experimental analysis, low-index AnO₂ STM images have been calculated (Figure 11). The resulting images are analogues to experimental STM studies of AnO₂ surfaces;38,106,107 however, in an STM experiment, ionic positions are influenced by perturbations of the electric field caused by the probe. The calculated resolution relative to an experimental study is therefore considerably greater.

The terminal O²⁻ ions are observed in white, whereas the An⁴⁺ ions area considerably darker. The individual AnO₂ (An = U, Np, or Pu) (111), (011), and (001)α surface patterns are indistinct. In the (111) surface, the O²⁻ ions result in a hexagonal structure, whereas in the (011) surface, a series of darker channels is observed in one direction. In the (001)α surface, the alignment of the O²⁻ ions results in a diamond pattern. As a means of differentiating between compounds, the (001)β surface is influenced by the magnetic state. In the transverse 3k AFM state for UO₂ and NpO₂, the O²⁻ channels oscillate continuously, whereas in the longitudinal 3k AFM state for PuO₂, the O²⁻ channels are perfectly linear. In other words, the structures can be differentiated by the transverse 3k AFM...
Figure 9. Calculated density of states for the low-index AnO$_2$(111), (011), and (001)$\alpha$ surfaces; (left) UO$_2$, (center) NpO$_2$, and (right) PuO$_2$. The colors indicate the actinide f (blue), actinide d (green), and oxygen p (red) bands. The Fermi level is set at 0 eV.

Table 2. Electron Affinity (eV), Ionization Potential (eV), and Surface Energy (J·m$^{-2}$) for the Low-Index AnO$_2$ Surfaces

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(111)</th>
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<th>(001)$\alpha$</th>
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<td>1.75</td>
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<tr>
<td>NpO$_2$</td>
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<td></td>
<td>ionization potential (eV)</td>
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<td>1.96</td>
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Figure 10. Cross-sectional illustration of the AnO$_2$(111), (011), and (001)$\alpha$ surfaces for the first three monolayers. The initial magnetic (silver) and relaxed magnetic (green) vectors are colored. The actinide (blue) and oxygen (red) ions are also shown.

The transverse (001)$\beta$ surface is found for UO$_2$ and NpO$_2$, whereas the longitudinal (001)$\beta$ surface is found for PuO$_2$. The terminal O$^{2-}$ ions are observed in white; the An$^{4+}$ ions are in dark gray.

3.2.4. Electrostatic Potential Isosurface. The electrostatic potential isosurface for the low-index AnO$_2$ surfaces has been calculated using the PBEsol + U functional (Figure 12), where the colors indicate the regions of relative high (red) and low electrostatic potential.

Figure 11. Low-index STM images. AnO$_2$(111), (011), and (001)$\alpha$ are indistinguishable. The transverse (001)$\beta$ surface is found for UO$_2$ and NpO$_2$, whereas the longitudinal (001)$\beta$ surface is found for PuO$_2$. The regions of high (red) and low (blue) electrostatic potential are indicated.

The transverse (001)$\beta$ surface is found for UO$_2$ and NpO$_2$, whereas the longitudinal (001)$\beta$ surface is found for PuO$_2$. The terminal O$^{2-}$ ions are observed in white; the An$^{4+}$ ions are in dark gray.

state of UO$_2$ and NpO$_2$ or by the longitudinal 3k AFM state of PuO$_2$, which is useful information for comparison with future experimental patterns to deduce the magnetic states.
(blue) charge densities. An interesting region of high charge density for an An ion (highlighted in light blue) on the (111) surface has been identified. The area is expected to have a different reaction chemistry compared to the remaining An ions, possibly a site of catalytic activity. In general, regions of high charge density are localized near the oxygen ions. The electrostatic potential isosurfaces of UO2 and NpO2(001) differ from that of the PuO2(001) surface as a consequence of the surface atomic relaxation in the xy-plane, and the surfaces are therefore expected to have different chemical activities.

3.2.5. Crystal Morphology. Low-voltage scanning electron microscopy of UO2 shows a truncated octahedral Wulff crystal morphology, which to our knowledge is the only experimental study concerning the morphology. The truncated octahedral Wulff crystal morphology of UO2 is inconsistent with other fluorite-type crystal structures and may be the result of environmental influences and the method of sample preparation. The crystals were formed under high pressure (400 MPa) and temperature (1700 °C). A truncated octahedral UO2 Wulff crystal morphology has been found; where, empirical interatomic potentials without periodical boundary conditions have been used.

In this study, an octahedral Wulff crystal morphology has been calculated (Figure 13) from the surface energies of the low-index (111), (011), and (001)αβ surfaces only. As a result of their relative instabilities, the (001)α and (001)β surfaces are omitted. Indeed, other high-index surfaces are considerably greater in energy, and their influence on the Wulff crystal morphology is assumed to be negligible.

In terms of computational theory, calculations have shown that the crystal structure is influenced by the magnetic state. In theory, the low-temperature octahedral Wulff crystal morphology is linked to the noncollinear 3k AFM state, whereas the high-temperature truncated octahedral Wulff crystal morphology is linked to the PM state. In contrast, the octahedral Wulff crystal morphology of the AnO2 materials is consistent with that of fluorite-based materials. The octahedral morphological features of the AnO2 materials are described in this work could be consistent with previous investigations of the (111) surface. Therefore, the magnetic structures differ across surface indices. This study considers noncollinear 3k AFM behavior and SOI contributions to the surface energetics of the low-index AnO2 surfaces. The magnetic field is carefully reoriented relative to the plane of the surface for a complete description of the magnetic surface structure. Localized magnetic distortions have also been identified.

The interlayer relaxation of the (111), (011), and (001)α surfaces is confined to the first 5 Å. In contrast to past DFT investigations, our surface energies are considerably higher, which illustrates the important contribution of the SOI to the calculated surface energetics. Our surface energies suggest that the chemical reactivity of the surface has previously been underestimated. The surface stability increases across the (001)β < (001)α < (011) < (111) series, which is typical of CaF2-type structures. From our Wulff reconstruction, the octahedral crystal morphology is completely dominated by (111) facets. As stated, this is consistent with previous calculations of fluorite-type structures. A computationally tractable method to model the low-index AnO2 surfaces with improved energetics has been shown. Finally, the models developed and described in this work could be employed in the implementation and use of machine learning methods to investigate structural defects and radiation damage in nuclear fuels.

Figure 13. AnO2 Wulff reconstruction. The crystal structure is formed of (111) facets.

4. CONCLUSIONS

PBEsol + U has been used to investigate AnO2 surfaces. In the past, collinear 1k AFM states were used to model surface structures, but these models predominate use scalar approximations of the crystal electric field, which causes an inability to reorient the magnetic vectors relative to the plane of the surface. Therefore, the magnetic structures differ across surface indices. This study considers noncollinear 3k AFM behavior and SOI contributions to the surface energetics of the low-index AnO2 surfaces. The magnetic field is carefully reoriented relative to the plane of the surface for a complete description of the magnetic surface structure. Localized magnetic distortions have also been identified.

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