Adsorption and photodissociation of 4-haloanilines on GaN(0001)

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Abstract

The adsorption of 4-chloro- and 4-iodoaniline on the GaN(0 0 0 1)-(1 x 1) surface, and the subsequent effects of exposure to near- or vacuum-ultraviolet radiation, have been studied. Both species adsorb via the molecular NH₂ group, with the phenyl ring intact, as does aniline itself. Like aniline, both are very reactive with the clean surface, requiring only a small dose to reach saturation coverage. 4-Iodoaniline is photochemically active as an adsorbate on GaN. Ultraviolet radiation promotes dissociation of the molecular C–I bond, leading to the transfer of I to available Ga sites on the GaN surface. The process then terminates when all such sites are filled. Dissociation of the C–I bond does not appear to involve photoexcited carriers from the substrate and is, instead, suggested to occur through direct excitation of the adsorbate. The photochemical activity of 4-chloroaniline adsorbed on GaN is at present uncertain, but it appears to be relatively inert.

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1. Introduction

The rapidly developing interest in nanotechnology has stimulated research into the patterned growth of organic films on semiconductor surfaces. One approach is to construct patterned organic layers “from the bottom up”. Here one first “functionalizes” the surface by chemisorbing an appropriate reagent [1,2] then builds a structure by photochemical reaction with a second species, stimulated by ultraviolet (UV) radiation through a mask [3]. With a suitable choice of adsorbates, it would be possible to build a particular chemical functionality into the patterned structure [4].

It has recently been shown [5,6] that organic amines chemisorb readily, via the molecular N atom, on the Ga-polar GaN(0001) surface with the molecular N–C and C–C bonds remaining intact. Hence a bifunctional amine, one with a second sterically accessible and easily photolyzable functional group, might enable patterning of organic layers on GaN(0 0 0 1). The wide band gap of hexagonal GaN (E_g = 3.4 eV, vs. 1.14 eV for Si) offers advantages in the design of hybrid organic/semiconductor structures. For example, in
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electro-optic devices visible access to the interface can be obtained through the substrate. The wider band gap also allows more flexibility in selecting organic adsorbates such that the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) lies near the substrate conduction band minimum (CBM). This alignment of energy levels will be a factor in charge transport across the interface. Organic layers may also be useful in modifying metal/GaN interfaces, as shown for Au/GaAs [7], which would be particularly important in making low-resistance contacts to p-type GaN.

In the present work, we advance in this direction through a study of the chemisorption of 4-chloro- and 4-iodoaniline on the GaN(0001) surface and the effects of subsequent exposure to UV radiation. A prerequisite for understanding the photochemical effects is a study of the electronic spectra of these species as adsorbates on GaN, and the results obtained here help in interpreting and reinforcing previous work on simpler amines. The principal techniques used are UV photoemission, electron energy loss, X-ray-excited Auger electron and X-ray photoemission spectroscopies (UPS, ELS, XAES and XPS, respectively), supported by ab initio quantum-chemical calculations.

4-Chloroaniline exhibits a rich and complex near-UV photochemistry [8–12]. However, the dominant mechanism involves heterolytic cleaving of the C–Cl bond to form a cationic carbene and a C\(^+\) ion. 4-Fluoroaniline behaves similarly [8]. This requires a polar solvent and is not expected to proceed easily in the gas phase or, perhaps, in the chemisorbed state. Little is known about the photochemistry of 4-bromo- and 4-iodoaniline; however, homolytic C–I cleaving to yield a phenylamine radical and an I atom is thought to occur for the latter [13].

2. Experimental details

Details concerning the sample preparation and experimental techniques are given elsewhere [5,6]. The same n- and p-type samples used previously were employed here. The data shown were all obtained for the p-GaN sample, and no significant differences were noted for the n-type material. 4-Chloroaniline (nominally 98% pure) was obtained commercially \(^1\) as a powder with a room-temperature vapor pressure of \(\sim 30\) mTorr [14]. The raw material was purified by recrystallization from an ethanol solution [15]. 4-Iodoaniline (nominally 98% pure) was obtained commercially \(^2\) in the form of a powder with a vapor pressure of \(\sim 3–4\) mTorr, as determined using the capacitance manometer on the dosing manifold (see below), and used without further purification. For either compound, the purity was checked by comparing an infrared (IR) transmission spectrum of a solution in CCl\(_4\) to standard reference data [16].

Exposures were performed using a doser [17] with a 100 \(\mu\)m pinhole. The large-diameter pinhole facilitated work with the low-vapor-pressure 4-haloanilines. In either case the powder was stored in a glass bulb, mounted on the doser inlet manifold, which was shielded from ambient light. Adsorbed H\(_2\)O was removed by evacuation for several hours with a liquid-N\(_2\)-trapped diffusion pump. The vapor pressures were too low for meaningful residual gas analysis via the quadrupole mass spectrometer in the ultra-high vacuum (UHV) chamber. However, no contamination other than a trace of oxygen (see below) was observed in XPS after exposure to either species followed by several hours of data collection.

Most photochemical treatments were done using a 200 Watt high-pressure Hg-arc through a CaF\(_2\) UHV window having a nominal UV transmission limit at \(\sim 130\) nm. A circular aperture in front of the window masked the outer edge from the UV radiation, which can degrade the AgCl cement used to make the seal [18]. Before entering the chamber the light passed through a 5 cm cell of deionized H\(_2\)O, with UV-grade quartz windows, and a UV-grade quartz lens. The H\(_2\)O cell reduced sample heating by absorbing radiation at \(\lambda > 900\) nm. The Hg-arc emits a series of intense lines, superimposed on a weak continuum, from the near-UV into the near-IR [19]. The total power

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incident on the sample, at energies above the GaN absorption edge, was measured using a pyroelectric power meter. For a representative wavelength of $\sim 300$ nm, the power density of 0.20 W/cm$^2$ corresponds to a flux of $2.9 \times 10^{17}$ photons/cm$^2$s.

Some use was also made of a Tanaka-type capillary discharge in H$_2$ [20,21] which produces a weak continuum from the near-UV to $\sim 165$ nm and a more intense line spectrum in the 165–100 nm (7.5–12.4 eV) range. No filtering was used, and no sample heating occurred with this source. A flux at the sample of $\sim 3.4 \times 10^{14}$ photons/cm$^2$s was estimated by measuring the total photocurrent from a clean Au foil, grounded through an electrometer, and applying the (photoelectron yield)/(absorbed photon) [22] at 7.5 eV and the reflectance calculated from the Au optical constants [23]. For both sources (Hg-arc and H$_2$ discharge) the radiation was incident nominally along the surface normal.

The fluxes from the He DC discharge used in UPS and the Mg X-ray source used for XPS and XAES were determined from the Au photocurrent, as described above, and the yield values at $h\nu = 21.2$ [21] and 1253.6 eV [24]. The results are about $1.4 \times 10^9$ and $7.0 \times 10^{12}$ photons/cm$^2$s, respectively, for the UPS and XPS sources. These are several orders of magnitude less than the flux from the Hg-arc, and it will be shown below that the UPS and XPS sources cause little or no damage to the adsorbed molecules during the course of data collection.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. XAES and XPS

Figs. 1 and 2 show typical XAES and XPS data after saturation doses of 4-chloro- and 4-iodoaniline, respectively. A study of the dose dependence was not done, but typical doses were $\sim 9.0 \times 10^{15}$ (2.3 $\times 10^{15}$) molecules/cm$^2$ for 4-chloro- (4-iodo-) aniline. These were more than sufficient to saturate the surface in that further exposure resulted in little or no further adsorption. The C KLL/N KLL relative intensity for 4-iodoaniline (not shown) was similar to that in Fig. 1. The saturation coverage of C (viz. phenyl rings) was estimated for 4-chloroaniline using the C KLL and N KLL spectra after background removal and integration [5]. The result was $\Theta_{ph} = 0.29$ monolayers (MLs), where 1 ML is defined as one phenyl ring per surface lattice site. This is essentially identical to the value obtained previously [5] for the adsorption of aniline on this surface. 3 A similar analysis for

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3 The coverage analysis in Ref. [5] employs the (C 1s)/(N 1s) relative photoionization cross-section for Mg K$_{\alpha_1}\alpha_2$ excitation with no correction for additional ionization by bremsstrahlung, etc. However, these corrections [25] are nearly the same for C KLL and N KLL XAES and essentially cancel in estimates of relative intensity.
4-iodoaniline was complicated by the presence of the I3p3 = 2 peak between the C KLL and N KLL spectra (Figs. 1 and 2). As before [5,6], the AlKα-excited C1s XPS did not exhibit any resolvable fine-structure, due in part to the large linewidth. The N1s XPS of the adsorbate is not readily accessible with either Mg or AlKα excitation because of poor surface sensitivity and interference from GaLMMXAES features. The ClXAES and XPS features, in comparison to those for I, are weaker and more seriously affected by overlap with other structure. Thus the main Cl LMM peak nearly coincides with the Mg Kβ satellite of the strong Mg Kα1,2-excited Ga 2p3/2 at ~132 eV, and the Cl2s falls amidst the AlKα3,4 satellites of the AlKα1,2-excited C1s. The relative heights of the Cl2p and Ga 3s peaks in Fig. 1 were used to assess changes in Cl coverage with UV exposure. Little or no effect was seen; however, due to the low intensity of the Cl2p peak, small changes would be difficult to detect reliably.

The relative heights of the main I MNN and N KLL peaks (Fig. 2) were used to assess changes in I coverage. The height of the broad I MNN peak is less likely to be affected by small changes in shape or width, if any, than is that of the narrow I3d structure. However, trends in the I3d intensity followed those in the I MNN. After a 5 min Hg-arc exposure (not shown) the (I MNN)/(N KLL) peak-height ratio decreased slightly, to 82 ± 8% of the initial value (average of four runs). The sample temperature rose to about 77 °C during exposure, and longer treatments were avoided to prevent further heating. The dependence of the data on total UV exposure was not studied in detail, but additional 5 min exposures led to little or no further decrease in the (I MNN)/(N KLL) ratio. Further discussion of radiation-induced change in the (I MNN)/(N KLL) ratio is given in Section 3.4.

3.2. ELS

Fig. 3 shows ELS data for adsorbed 4-chloro- and 4-iodoaniline. Both show the π → π* excitation of the phenyl ring as the only significant loss feature in the 0–16 eV range. 4-Chloroaniline shows additional weak structure at about 5 and 10 eV. For 4-iodoaniline, the π → π* peak is broadened to higher energy, suggesting additional loss intensity. In either case, the ELS data indicate adsorption with the phenyl ring intact and the removal of the 3.4 eV GaN surface-state loss feature, as observed [5,6] for other such species. Exposure of the 4-iodoaniline-dosed surface to UV radiation caused a small but reproducible loss of intensity just above the π → π* peak, suggesting (see below) photolysis of the molecular C–I bond. No similar effect was noted for 4-chloroaniline, for which the π → π* ELS peak is somewhat narrower than for aniline [5].

The importance of various extraneous factors was assessed using the ELS data and the (I MNN)/(N KLL) peak-height ratio discussed above. To determine the effect of the temperature rise during UV exposure, the sample with adsorbed 4-iodoaniline was heated, in the absence of UV radiation, with a temperature vs. time similar to that during exposure. Little or no effect was seen. Likewise, the (I MNN)/(N KLL) ratio did not change during repeated XPS scans, and the source radiation used in XPS and in UPS (see below) had no discernible effect on the ELS data. Repeated
ELS scans, which were done using pulse-counting with a primary beam current of \(~0.3\) \(\mu\)A/cm\(^2\), gave no evidence of electron-induced changes in the adsorbed 4-haloanilines during ELS under the conditions used here.

To examine the ELS data further, ab initio quantum-chemical calculations were performed using Gaussian98 [26]. The geometries of the free molecules were first optimized using density functional theory (DFT) with the B3LYP functional and 6-31G\(^*\) basis sets for all atoms except I, for which the LanL2DZdp ECP\(^4\) developed by Check et al. [30] was used. This ECP is consistent [30] with the 6-31+G\(^*\) basis sets used for the lighter atoms which facilitates comparison of results for different molecules.

The CIS results (Fig. 3) overestimate the \(\pi \rightarrow \pi^+\) transition energies by \(~1.5\) eV due to incomplete treatment of electron correlation. No optical data are available for either compound above \(~6\) eV. However, near-UV data for 4-chloroaniline in various solvents [8,31] show a weak absorption at \(4.2\) eV and a stronger one at \(5.1\) eV, in qualitative agreement with the lines at \(~5.5–6\) eV in the CIS result (Fig. 3a). The ECP used for I is “pseudorelativistic” [32] but does not include spin–orbit coupling. Hence, all the CIS intensity is in the spin-allowed singlet \(\rightarrow\) singlet transitions and none in the spin-forbidden singlet \(\rightarrow\) triplet excitations. Nevertheless, the computed spectra show additional intensity above the \(\pi \rightarrow \pi^+\) band of 4-iodoaniline (in the 8–10 eV range of the CIS result) as observed in ELS. Hence, the broadening of the ELS peak in Fig. 3b may be taken as a “fingerprint” for I bonded to the phenyl ring. Likewise, the UV-induced narrowing of this peak is taken as an indication of the removal of I from at least some of the phenyl rings. A calculation that included spin–orbit coupling would be expected to show even more broadening in the computed 4-iodoaniline spectrum, with intensity distributed between singlet and triplet excited states. Such spin–orbit coupling effects will be much weaker in ELS absorption spectra of the free molecules (up to \(~12\) eV) were then computed using the configuration interaction singles (CIS) method [29]. Here 6-31+G\(^*\) basis sets were used for all atoms except I, for which the LanL2DZdp ECP\(^4\) developed by Check et al. [30] was used. This ECP is consistent [30] with the 6-31+G\(^*\) basis sets used for the lighter atoms which facilitates comparison of results for different molecules.

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\(^4\) The LanL2DZdp ECP was obtained from the Extensible Computational Chemistry Environment Basis Set Database, Version 11/29/01, as developed and distributed by the Molecular Science Computing Facility, Environmental and Molecular Sciences Laboratory which is part of the Pacific Northwest Laboratory, P.O. Box 999, Richland, Washington 99352, USA, and funded by the US Department of Energy. The Pacific Northwest Laboratory is a multi-program laboratory operated by Battelle Memorial Institute for the US Department of Energy under contract DE-AC06-76RLO1830. Contact David Feller or Karen Schuchardt for further information. The URL is http://www.emsl.pnl.gov:2080/forms/basisform.html.
the case of the lighter Cl atom (i.e., in 4-chloroaniline).

3.3. UPS

3.3.1. Free molecules

We next consider UPS data for the free (gas-phase) molecules. The use of quantum-chemical calculations to analyze the adsorbate UPS (see below) depends on an ability to model the free-molecule spectra and to identify those features that are derived from halogen or NH$_2$ orbitals. Fig. 4 shows the data [33] together with DFT results. For the molecular structures optimized as above, orbital energies were computed using the B3LYP functional and the same basis sets used for the CIS calculations. For later comparison to adsorbate UPS data, the resulting orbital energy distributions were gaussian-broadened by 1 eV to simulate instrumental and “solid-state” effects. Each density of states (DOS) was shifted in energy to bring the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) into alignment with that of the respective experimental spectrum, at $E_V$.

The quantity calculated is a DOS, not an actual spectrum, since the dependence of photoionization cross-section ($\sigma$) on orbital composition is neglected. In relation to HeII ($h\nu = 40.8$ eV) UPS data, the results of Yeh and Lindau [34] (Table 1) indicate that the DOS overestimates the intensity of “s-like” orbitals (i.e., those at 20 eV or more below $E_V$) relative to “p-like” orbitals and also exaggerates the relative intensity of halogen-derived features. The agreement between observed and calculated orbital energies (and even, fortuitously, the DOS relative intensities) is quite good for 4-iodoaniline but less so for 4-chloroaniline.

Use of larger basis sets in the orbital energy calculation (6-311++G** for all atoms) gave a 4-chloroaniline DOS virtually identical to that in Fig. 4a(2). Fig. 4 also shows the partial densities of states (PDOS) for the halogen atoms which identify those features receiving significant contributions from halogen orbitals. Contour plots of the various orbitals (not shown) also aid in the assignments.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Atomic shell</th>
<th>HeI</th>
<th>HeII</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H 1s</td>
<td>1.888</td>
<td>0.2892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 2s</td>
<td>1.230</td>
<td>1.170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 2p</td>
<td>6.128</td>
<td>1.875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N 2s</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N 2p</td>
<td>9.688</td>
<td>4.351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cl 3s</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.4020</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cl 3p</td>
<td>13.84</td>
<td>0.6470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I 5s</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.2169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I 5p</td>
<td>7.985</td>
<td>0.7803</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 4. Comparison of HeII UPS data for gas-phase molecules (Ref. [33], with permission) with DFT results. In either panel, trace (1) gives the data with BE referenced to vacuum, and trace (2) shows the DFT result after alignment at the observed HOMO. Deeper-lying states in the DFT results, below $-24$ eV, have been truncated. In (b), the feature marked “X” at about $-6$ eV is apparently an artifact, since it was not assigned in Ref. [33] and not seen in HeI UPS data. The contributions of the respective halogen atoms to the total calculated spectra are shown.
The halogen character of UPS features at low binding energy (BE) will be useful in the following section and is summarized here. For 4-chloroaniline, the Cl contribution to the DOS peak at −12.5 eV arises from the C–Cl σ-bonding orbital, and the contribution to the DOS peak at −10.8 eV arises from Cl3p non-bonding orbitals (NBOs). For 4-iodoaniline, the I contributions to the peaks at −11.5 and −9.3 eV arise, respectively, from the C–I σ-bonding orbital and I5p NBOs. For both molecules, halogen NBOs also make small contributions to the HOMO.

3.3.2. Adsorbed molecules and photoeffects
Figs. 5 and 6 show UPS difference data ($\Delta N(E) = $ adsorbed minus clean) before and after Hg-arc exposure. The results were obtained by scaling and shifting the clean-surface spectrum so as to minimize the intensity of the Ga 3d, at about −19 eV, in the difference. The nearly complete cancellation in $\Delta N(E)$ shows that any change in the Ga 3d is much less than the linewidth. Figs. 5 and 6 also show the computed DOSs, repeated from Fig. 4, together with the NH$_2$ PDOSs.

Alignment of the free-molecule and $\Delta N(E)$ data was done by assuming that deep-valence molecular orbitals (MOs), such as that giving rise to the $\Delta N(E)$ peak at about −16.5 eV for either adsorbate, are unaffected by adsorption other than in undergoing a relaxation shift, $\Delta E_R$, to lower BE relative to $E_V$. For a non-metallic substrate, $\Delta E_R \approx 1$ eV is a typical value (e.g., Ref. [35]). From the slow-secondary photoelectron threshold (not shown), $E_V$ of the adsorbate-covered p-type GaN surface 5 was located at about 5.8 (5.5) eV above $E_V$ for 4-chloro- (4-iodo-) aniline. This means that the adsorbate peaks at −16.5 eV (vs. $E_V$) in Figs. 5 and 6 correlate with the free-molecule peaks at −23.2 and −22.8 eV (vs. $E_V$) in Fig. 4a(2) and b(2), respectively.

With this alignment, the $\Delta N(E)$ data resemble those for aniline [5]. The molecular peaks at about −1.9 and −10.5 eV (Figs. 5a and 6a), which receive...
a significant contribution from the NH$_2$, are essentially absent in $\Delta N(E)$ since bonding occurs via this part of the molecule. The calculated 4-iodoaniline peak at about $-14.5$ eV (Fig. 6a), which arises largely from I s-like orbitals, is also absent since $\sigma_s$(I) is relatively small for HeII excitation (cf. Table 1). As was seen for aniline [5], the remaining features in $\Delta N(E)$ are shifted only slightly to higher BE, if at all, relative to those of the free molecule which indicates only a weak effect of adsorption on ring orbitals.

As a final point before discussing radiation effects, the change in electron affinity ($\Delta \chi$) caused by adsorption was obtained from UPS data as described previously [5,6] and found to be negligible (i.e., $<0.1$ eV) for either species. The n-GaN sample was used here to avoid possible complications due to adsorption-induced changes in the large p-GaN surface photovoltage [36]. These results are in contrast to the case of aniline [5] ($\Delta \chi \approx -0.55$ eV) and indicate a negligible value for the net surface-normal dipole moment in the adsorbed layer.

Irradiation has little effect on the 4-chloroaniline spectrum (Fig. 5) but for 4-iodoaniline (Fig. 6) there is a change in the appearance of features within $\sim 8$ eV of $E_F$. Although HeII excitation reveals a wider range of the spectrum than does HeI ($h\nu = 21.2$ eV), thereby aiding peak assignments, the halogen-derived features are relatively weak (cf. Table 1). The UV-induced changes appear to affect mainly those features derived in part from I atomic orbitals. Hence, to clarify the radiation-induced effects, the experiments in Figs. 5b and c, 6b and c were repeated for HeI excitation and the results shown in Figs. 7 and 8. These reproduce, with a much higher signal/noise ratio, the HeII data in the 0–10 eV range. In separate experiments, involving heating in the absence of UV radiation, it was verified that the effects shown in the HeI data do not result from sample heating (see above) during Hg-arc exposure. Results obtained for exposures using the H$_2$ discharge source described above were similar to, but weaker than, those in Figs. 7 and 8. Furthermore, the results for n- and p-type GaN were essentially the same.

With the increased relative intensity for I 5p orbitals in HeI vs. HeII, a radiation-induced loss
of intensity can now be seen in the C–I σ-bonding orbital (Fig. 8), consistent with photolytic cleaving of the C–I bond. There is possibly a similar, but much weaker, effect for the C–Cl bond in 4-chloroaniline (Fig. 7). The peak at about −9 eV for either adsorbate, which is due largely to ring orbitals, is unaffected by UV exposure. Similarly unaffected is the 4-chloroaniline peak at −3.5 eV which arises from the molecular HOMO-1, a π-bonding orbital involving the 2,3 and 5,6 ring carbons. For 4-iodoaniline, the HOMO-1 is nearly degenerate with the I 5p NBOs at −3.5 eV. For either spectrum, the GaN valence band maximum (VBM) was found to lie at ~1.1 eV below E_F using the BE vs. E_F of the HeII-excited Ga 3d on the adsorbate-covered surface (not shown) and the known value [37] for the Ga 3d-VBM energy separation.

In Fig. 8 UV radiation causes an apparent filling-in of intensity below the I NBO peak which suggests transfer of I from the adsorbate to the surface in the form of a Ga–I bond. It is unclear whether a similar effect occurs for 4-chloroaniline (Fig. 7). For I₂ adsorption on GaAs(110), HeI UPS reveals a peak at 2.7 eV below the VBM due to Ga–I bonding orbitals [39]. Fig. 8 shows the location of the corresponding Ga–I orbital on GaN, with the assumption that its position relative to the VBM is the same as for I₂/GaAs(110). A similar estimate based on data for Cl₂/GaAs(110) [38] places the Ga–Cl bonding orbital at 5.3 eV below the VBM, as indicated in Fig. 7. In support of the correlation between the UPS data for halogens on GaN(0001) and on GaAs(110) it is noted that the position of the Cl NBO in Fig. 7, ~4.0 eV below the VBM, agrees with that observed [38] for Cl/GaAs(110).

3.3.3. Additional experiments

In an effort to verify Ga–Cl or Ga–I bonding following near-UV exposure, the HeII-excited Ga 3d and Mg Kα₂,3-excited Ga 2p₁/₂ spectra were examined for evidence of chemically-shifted satellites. Because of the small photoelectron kinetic energies (about 16 and 132 eV, respectively) the surface sensitivities were nearly ideal, and the instrumental resolution was about 0.40 eV (0.75 eV) for the Ga 3d (2p₁/₂) spectrum. The I 3d spectrum (cf. Fig. 2) was also searched for evidence of conversion of C–I to Ga–I bonds, with an instrumental resolution of ~1.0 eV. Here, photoelectron kinetic energy is not a deciding factor in surface sensitivity because all I is located near the surface. However, no structure was detected in any of these data, possibly due to the large linewidths and small chemical shifts.

Homolytic photodissociation of the C–I bond is expected to leave behind, at least temporarily, a molecular radical species. No new molecular features were observed in UPS after UV irradiation, other than as noted above, which may indicate that the radical either is short-lived or is undetectable against the background of unreacted adsorbates. Experiments were performed in which adsorbed 4-iodoaniline was UV-irradiated (with the Hg-arc) in a background of ~1 × 10⁻⁶ Torr of either CH₃I or 1,3-butadiene in an effort to promote a reaction with the radical species. No evidence, in the form of a change in ELS or UPS data or an increased C 1s XPS intensity, was observed. This could indicate that the radical formed by C–I dissociation in adsorbed 4-iodoaniline is short-lived or that the attempted reactions are kinetically limited under these low-pressure conditions.

3.4. Model for photodissociation

For 4-iodoaniline there is clear evidence in both ELS (Fig. 3) and HeI UPS (Fig. 8) for photodissociation of the molecular C–I bond. The existence of these radiation-induced effects also implies that the C–I bond is intact in the chemisorbed molecule prior to near-UV exposure. The evidence is less clear for 4-chloroaniline, for which the only indication of possible C–Cl photodissociation is a very subtle change in the HeI UPS (Fig. 7). With the spectroscopic tools at hand, 4-chloroaniline is a more difficult system due to the relatively poor resolution of Cl-derived features in UPS and XPS and to the lack of a fingerprint for C–Cl bonding in ELS. Nevertheless, comparing data for the two adsorbates is useful in interpreting features in the spectra which, in turn, is essential in analyzing the photoeffects. In the following, attention will focus entirely on 4-iodoaniline.

The results suggest that UV radiation dissociates the molecular C–I bond, releasing I which
adsorbs at available Ga sites on the GaN surface not blocked by the aniline fragment. The process is self-limited. It stops when all such sites are filled, and further UV exposure leads to no additional changes. The photochemical changes occur with little or no loss of I from the surface (see below) which argues against desorption of I into vacuum either directly (from C–I bond dissociation) or from Ga–I sites.

It remains to account for the small radiation-induced decrease in the (I MNN)/(N KLL) intensity ratio. An effective attenuation length of 12.3 Å, for 500 eV I MNN electrons (cf. Fig. 2) in a layer of elemental carbon (graphite), was obtained from a standard database ⁶ [40] which includes the effects of elastic scattering of the Auger electrons. With this result and the XAES collection angle of 42°, an effective C layer thickness of only ~1.8 Å (vs. a C covalent radius of 0.77 Å) would account for the ~18% loss of I MNN intensity seen following near-UV exposure. Thus, this small effect can reasonably be ascribed to partial shadowing of Ga–I sites by the adsorbed phenyl rings. A more quantitative discussion is difficult without a detailed structural model for the surface layer.

The present photoeffects are essentially independent of substrate carrier type which argues against a substrate-mediated process [3] involving transfer of photoexcited electrons from the GaN CB into the adsorbate LUMO or of photoexcited holes from the GaN VB into the adsorbate HOMO. The UPS data (Fig. 8) show that the adsorbate HOMO is centered at ~2 eV below the GaN VBM, making the transfer of thermalized holes from the VBM to the adsorbate energetically unfavorable.

A similar conclusion is reached concerning the transfer of thermalized electrons from the CBM to the adsorbate LUMO. Since, as noted above, Δχ ≈ 0, the energy difference between E_v and the CBM is essentially unaffected by 4-iodoaniline. A measured electron affinity (EA) for the free 4-iodoaniline molecule is not available, but Table 2 gives computed values for relevant species. As a check, the calculated EA for aniline agrees well with experiment. Following Wu et al. [43], the vertical EA from Table 2, the GaN EA of +3.2 eV and the relaxation shift of ΔE_R ≈ 1 eV (discussed above) combine to center the 4-iodoaniline LUMO at ~2.6 eV above the GaN CBM.

Excitation of electrons from the VBM into the adsorbate LUMO has been observed [44] in the UV photodissociation of CH₃Br on GaAs(1 1 0). In the present case, the large downward band bending on p-GaN(0 0 0 1) (~1.0 eV under illumination, Ref. [36]) would act to accelerate such a process in comparison to n-GaN, with an upward band bending of ~0.8 eV. Such a difference was not observed here.

The absence of an effect due to photoexcited carriers suggests that direct excitation of the adsorbed 4-iodoaniline leads to C–I cleaving. The CIS results provide an indication of which MOs are the initial states for photochemical excitation. The UPS data show that the HOMO of the free molecule is strongly perturbed by chemisorption. Neglecting this MO, excitations up to and including the strong ELS peak in 4-chloroaniline involve primarily the uppermost ring π orbital (4a” in the notation of Ref. [33]) which consists of π bonds between the 2,3 and 5,6 carbons. On the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Molecule</th>
<th>Verticalb</th>
<th>Adiabaticc</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aniline</td>
<td>−1.10</td>
<td>−1.07⁶⁷</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-Chloroaniline</td>
<td>−0.885</td>
<td>−0.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-Iodoaniline</td>
<td>−0.369</td>
<td>+0.628</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

⁶ See http://www.nist.gov/srd/nist82.htm for information on obtaining this database.

⁷ Positive (negative) values mean that the anion is more (less) stable than the neutral molecule. All energy calculations used the same basis sets as for the CIS treatment (see text).

⁸ Difference in energy between the anion and the neutral molecule with the anion geometry “frozen” in the optimized configuration of the ground-state neutral (cf. Ref. [41]).

⁹ Difference in energy between the anion and the neutral molecule with both geometries optimized. The anion geometries were optimized using the UB3LYP functional with the same basis sets as used for optimizing the geometries of the neutral species (see text). Adiabatic values include the difference in zero-point vibrational energy between anion and neutral (cf. Ref. [41]).

d The corresponding experimental value is ~1.13 eV (Ref. [42]).
other hand, for 4-iodoaniline, transitions in this part of the spectrum receive significant contributions from both the 4a0 and 1 NBOs. This is true for both the singlet excited states shown in Fig. 3 and the triplet states in the same energy range which should be accessible via spin–orbit coupling on the I atom, as discussed above. The final states in these transition have significant C–I σ antibonding character; hence, the photodissociation process can be described as an $n \rightarrow \sigma^*$ transition localized on the C–I bond.

4. Summary and conclusions

The adsorption of 4-chloro- and 4-iodoaniline on the GaN(0001)-(1×1) surface, and the effects of subsequent exposure to UV radiation, have been studied using primarily UV photoemission and electron energy loss spectroscopies, supported by ab initio quantum-chemical modeling. The results are as follows:

(1) Both 4-haloanilines adsorb via the molecular NH$_2$ group, with the phenyl ring intact, as does aniline itself. Like aniline, both are very reactive with the clean GaN(0001)-(1×1) surface, requiring only a small dose to achieve a saturation coverage.

(2) Iodoaniline is photochemically active as an adsorbate on GaN, as expected from its suggested behavior in non-polar solvents. Near-UV radiation promotes dissociation of the molecular C–I bond, leading to the transfer of I to available sites on the GaN surface. The molecular C–I bond is intact prior to exposure, as suggested by the changes in ELS and UPS data seen to result from UV exposure.

(3) The photochemical activity of 4-chloroaniline adsorbed on GaN is uncertain, but it appears to be relatively inert under the present conditions.

(4) Photochemical dissociation of the C–I bond appears to proceed by direct excitation of the molecule (specifically the $n \rightarrow \sigma^*$ transition) rather than through a substrate mediated process involving transfer of excited carriers between adsorbate and substrate.

Further work is needed to establish the 4-iodoaniline chemistry described here as a viable route for surface photosynthesis of functional structures. One issue is whether the self-limiting nature of the photodissociation can be circumvented, e.g., by annealing at some appropriate temperature during near-UV exposure to promote desorption from Ga–I sites. A study of temperature programmed desorption before and after near-UV exposure is essential here. Another issue concerns identifying the electronic structure of the chemisorbed phenylamine fragment remaining after C–I bond dissociation since this is the desired site for photosynthetic reaction.

Experimental detection of Ga–I bonds after UV exposure would be helpful in refining the proposed model. Vibrational spectroscopy, by either IR or ELS methods, would be difficult for the Ga–I bond-stretching mode of a small coverage of I on a partially ionic substrate such as GaN. A direct and practicable method for detecting Ga–I bonds would be through the use of photon stimulated desorption spectroscopy (e.g., Ref. [45]) to correlate peaks in I$^+$ ion yield with excitation of Ga core levels.

Note added in proof

A recent study [46] of the photodissociation of iodosene, C$_6$H$_5$I, has shown the importance of $n \rightarrow \sigma^*$ excitation in breaking the C–I bond in this system.

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