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Bulk Glassy GeTe₂: A Missing Member of the Tetrahedral GeX₂ Family and a Precursor for the Next Generation of Phase-Change Materials

Andrey Tverjanovich, Maxim Khomenko, Chris J. Benmore, Maria Bokova, Anton Sokolov, Daniele Fontanari, Mohammad Kassem, Takeshi Usuki, and Eugene Bychkov*



ABSTRACT: Vitreous germanium disulfide GeS_2 and diselenide GeS_2 belong to canonical chalcogenide glasses extensively studied over the past half century. Their high-temperature orthorhombic polymorphs are congruently melting compounds, and the tetrahedral crystal and glass structure is largely preserved in the melt. In contrast, the ditelluride counterpart is absent in the Ge–Te phase diagram, which shows only a single compound, monotelluride GeTe. Phase-change materials based on GeTe have become a technologically important class of solids, and their structure and properties are also widely studied. Surprisingly, very scarce information is available for alloys having GeTe₂ stoichiometry. Using a fast quenching procedure in silica capillaries, high-energy X-ray diffraction, and Raman spectroscopy supported by first-principles simulations, we show that bulk glassy



GeTe₂ differs substantially from the lighter GeX₂ members, revealing 46% of trigonal germanium, 31% of three-fold coordinated tellurium, and only 20% of edge-sharing tetrahedra or pyramids. The fraction of homopolar Ge–Ge bonds is low; however, the population of dominant Te–Te dimers and Te_n oligomers, $n \leq 10$, appears to be significant. The complex structural and chemical topology of g-GeTe₂ is directly related to the thermodynamic metastability of germanium ditelluride, schematically represented by the following reaction: GeTe₂ \Rightarrow GeTe + Te. Disproportionation is complete above liquidus in the temperature range of semiconductor-metal transition, and the dense metallic GeTe₂ liquid, mostly consisting of five-fold coordinated Ge species, exhibits high fluidity, strong fragility ($m = 99 \pm 5$), and presumably a fast structural transformation rate combined with low atomic mobility in the vicinity of the glass transition temperature, favorable for reliable long-term data retention in nonvolatile memories. The observed and predicted characteristic features make GeTe₂ a promising precursor for the next generation of phase-change materials, especially coupled with additional metal doping, depolymerizing the tetrahedral interconnected glass network and accelerating (sub)nanosecond crystallization.

INTRODUCTION

Vitreous germanium dichalcogenides, GeX_2 , X = S, Se, are canonical IV-VI glasses often considered as heavier counterparts of SiO₂ and GeO₂ tetrahedral glassy oxides. In contrast to the latter, the GeX_4 tetrahedra in a disordered network¹⁻⁶ share both corners, CS-GeX₄, and edges, ES-GeX₄, similar to those in high-temperature GeS₂ and GeSe₂ orthorhombic polymorphs,^{7,8} while the low-temperature or high-pressure forms only have CS-entities.^{9,10} These two germanium dichalcogenides are characterized by congruent melting,^{11,12} and the GeX₂ melts also reveal a tetrahedral structure with four-fold Ge and a two-fold coordinated chalcogen local environment.^{1,13} The Ge-Te phase diagram differs significantly from the Ge-S and Ge-Se binary systems.14,15 The only stable compound appears to be monotelluride GeTe, extensively studied over the last 20 years as a crucial component of phase-change materials (PCMs) used for optical storage, nonvolatile random-access memories, and neuromorphic computing.^{16–19} Rhombohedral GeTe, space group R3m,²⁰ has a strong Peierls distortion of the rock salt cubic structure with three short, 2.827 Å, and three long, 3.167 Å, Ge–Te bonds and is often considered as a compound with effective trigonal coordination of both germanium and tellurium,²¹ also called as a defective octahedral environment. Metastable GeTe₂ with cubic β -cristobalite lattice, space group $Fd\overline{3}m$, was found to occur in a narrow temperature range, 450

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Figure 1. (a) Faber–Ziman X-ray structure factors $S_X(Q)$ of glassy dichalcogenides: GeS₂ (blue curve), GeSe₂ (red curve), and GeTe₂ (green curve); (b) isolated FSDPs derived using the subtraction procedure;^{3,53} and (c) the FSDP amplitude $A_0(Q)$ normalized by the Q-dependent Ge–Ge X-ray weighting factor, $A_0(Q)/w_{GeGe}(Q)$.

 $\leq T < 520$ K, and only for crystallized thin films with a maximum thickness of $\approx 6 \ \mu m.^{22,23}$ For thicker films and at $T \gtrsim 520$ K, a disproportionation reaction takes place: GeTe₂ \rightarrow GeTe + Te.

The glass-forming range in the Ge_xTe_{1-x} system is limited by $0.1 \le x \le 0.25^{24}$ Amorphous thin films can be obtained by sputtering, thermal evaporation, or pulsed laser deposition up to x = 0.76.^{25,26} Using a specially designed quenching procedure in thin-walled silica capillaries, we were able to obtain bulk GeTe₂ glasses of a few mg total mass; Figure S1. This report represents their spectroscopic and structural characterization using Raman scattering and high-energy Xray diffraction measurements supported by first-principles simulations. We compare the obtained results with sulfide and selenide glassy counterparts discussing the origin of the observed similarities and differences in the GeX₂ glass family. Above liquidus, GeTe₂ transforms into a dense metallic liquid dramatically different from tetrahedral GeS₂ and GeSe₂ melts. The first-principles molecular dynamics reproduces well the available diffraction data and reveals a structural evolution on semiconductor-metal transition. High fluidity and liquid fragility and specific short- and intermediate-range structures suggest fast structural transformations in the melt, making GeTe₂ a promising precursor for the next generation of phasechange materials.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Glassy GeTe₂ Preparation. A crystalline sample of GeTe₂ composition was synthesized from high-purity elements Ge (99.999%, Neyco) and Te (99.999%, Cerac) in an evacuated silica tube at \approx 1220 K in a rocking furnace. A small quantity of the synthesized alloy (2–3 mg) was placed in a silica capillary, which was evacuated and sealed. The capillary was heated to a temperature of 150 K above liquidus. Then, both the ends of the capillary were opened, and tiny melt droplets dropped down onto a metallic plate cooled with liquid nitrogen. The splat quenching procedure was performed in a dry argon atmosphere.

Diffraction Measurements. High-energy X-ray diffraction measurements were carried out using a 6-ID-D beamline at the Advanced Photon Source (Argonne National Laboratory). The X-ray energy was 100.233 keV, and the wavelength was 0.123696 Å. A two-dimensional (2D) setup was used for data collection with a Varex area

detector, 2880 × 2880 pixels, and pixel size of 150 μ m × 150 μ m. The expose time was 0.1 s × 3000 frames, using one dark field image file followed by five light files (dark field subtracted). The sample image was saturated with a full beam; attenuation was set to 0.2 for diffraction measurements. The two-dimensional diffraction patterns were reduced using the Fit2D software.²⁷ The measured background intensity was subtracted, and corrections were made for the different detector geometries and efficiencies, sample self-attenuation, and Compton scattering using standard procedures,²⁸ providing the X-ray structure factor S_X(Q).

Raman Spectroscopy Measurements. Raman spectra of bulk glassy GeTe₂ were measured in backscattering geometry using a Senterra Raman spectrometer (Bruker) equipped with a microscope. The spectra were excited by a 785 nm laser with power 1 mW and recorded in the 75–1500 cm⁻¹ spectral range (reliable data are above 100 cm⁻¹). The spectrometer resolution was 3 cm⁻¹. Bulk glass references Ge_xTe_{1-x}, $0.1 \le x \le 0.25$, were measured using a LabRam HR microRaman spectrometer (Jobin Yvon Horiba Group). Raman scattering was excited by a 785 nm solid-state laser and recorded in the 50–850 cm⁻¹ spectral range. The laser power was 30 μ W, and the acquisition time was 2 s × 300 frames. Two to three spectra were registered for each sample at different positions to verify the sample homogeneity and the absence of photoinduced phenomena.

First-Principles Simulations. The Born-Oppenheimer molecular dynamics implemented within the CP2K package²⁹ was used for structural modeling of the diffraction data. The generalized gradient approximation and the PBE0 hybrid^{30,31} exchange-correlation functional combining the exact Hartree-Fock and density functional theory (DFT) solutions were used. The Grimme dispersion corrections D3BJ³² were also applied, having a positive effect for glassy and liquid tellurides.^{33,34} The applied first-principles molecular dynamics (FPMD) technique was similar to that reported previously.^{35,36} The initial atomic configurations for glassy $GeTe_2$ were created and optimized using the RMC_POT++ code³⁷ against the derived X-ray structure factor $S_{X}(Q)$ to obtain good agreement with the experimental data. The size of the cubic simulation box at room temperature, containing 450 atoms (150 Ge and 300 Te), was chosen to match the experimental number density. Further optimization was carried out using density functional theory (DFT), applying the molecularly optimized correlation consistent polarized triple-zeta valence TZVP basis set along with the norm-conserving relativistic Goedecker-Teter-Hutter-type pseudopotentials.³⁸ FPMD simulations were started at 300 K. To deal with a canonical NVT ensemble, a Nosé-Hoover^{39,40} chain was employed as a thermostat. The PBE0 systems were heated up to 1000 K using 100 K steps for



Figure 2. Correlation functions in *r*-space. The X-ray total correlation function $T_X(r)$ for glassy GeTe₂ (highlighted in green) plotted together with crystalline references: (a) metastable cubic GeTe₂, space group $Fd\overline{3}m$;²² (b) trigonal Te, P3₁21;⁵⁹ (c) rhombohedral GeTe, R3m;²⁰ (d) a two-peak Gaussian fit of the nearest-neighbor correlations in g-GeTe₂, the Ge–Te NNs highlighted in light green, and the Te–Te NNs in light gray; (e) FPMD partial pair-distribution functions $g_{ii}(r)$ for glassy GeTe₂: Te–Te (light gray), Ge–Te (light green), and Ge–Ge (dark yellow).

10–15 ps each. At 500 and 1000 K, the systems were equilibrated for 25–35 ps and cooled to 300 K using the same temperature steps and the simulation time. Final equilibration and data collection at 300 K was done for 30–45 ps. Diffusion/viscosity simulations were carried out in the 800–1300 K temperature range for at least 40–50 ps at each temperature. The connectivity and ring statistics were analyzed using the R.I.N.G.S.⁴¹ and modified connectivity⁴² codes. The pyMolDyn⁴³ program applying the Dirichlet–Voronoi tessellation was used for the calculation of microscopic voids and cavities.

The DFT calculations of vibrational spectra were carried out using Gaussian 16 software.⁴⁴ The structural optimization and harmonic vibrational frequency calculations were performed for size-limited clusters, $Ge_2Te_7H_6$, $Ge_2Te_8H_6$, $Ge_2Te_6H_4$, $Ge_2Te_6H_6$, $GeTe_8H_4$, $GeTe_{12}H_{4},\ Ge_{2}Te_{5}H_{4},\ Ge_{2}Te_{4}H_{2},\ GeTe_{6}H_{3},\ and\ GeTe_{9}H_{3},\ some\ of$ them in different conformations. The Becke three-parameter hybrid exchange functional⁴⁵ and the Lee-Yang-Parr correlation functional (B3LYP)⁴⁶ were applied for these simulations. The small-core relativistic pseudopotential basis set (cc-pVTZ-PP)⁴⁷ and the effective core potentials⁴⁸ were employed for cluster geometry optimization and Raman intensity calculations. Most of the structures were optimized using the tight convergence option ensuring adequate convergence and reliability of computed wavenumbers. Extra quadratically convergent self-consistent field procedure⁴⁹ was used for difficult convergence cases. Further details of the DFT simulations $\frac{50-52}{50-52}$ are published elsewhere.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

High-Energy X-ray Diffraction. X-ray structure factor $S_X(Q)$ of bulk g-GeTe₂ is shown in Figure 1 in comparison with those of its lighter counterparts,^{3,53} g-GeS₂ and g-GeSe₂

$$S_{X}(Q) = w_{GeGe}(Q)S_{GeGe}(Q) + w_{GeTe}(Q)S_{GeTe}(Q) + w_{TeTe}(Q)S_{TeTe}(Q)$$
(1)

where $w_{ij}(Q)$ is Q-dependent X-ray weighting coefficients and $S_{ij}(Q)$ is the Faber–Ziman partial structure factors. All structure factors exhibit a striking similarity above ≈ 3 Å⁻¹ and characteristic changes below, including a systematic shift of the $S_X(Q)$ oscillations to lower Q with increasing chalcogen

atomic number n_X and size r_X . The first sharp diffraction peak, FSDP, at $Q_0 \approx 1.0$ Å⁻¹ systematically decreases in amplitude with n_X , but its position Q_0 remains essentially intact. On the contrary, the amplitude of the principle peak, PP, increases with n_X , and the PP position shifts from $Q_1 \approx 2.29$ Å⁻¹ (g-GeS₂) to 1.95 Å⁻¹ (g-GeTe₂). We also note pronounced damping of the high-Q oscillations with increasing n_X . The observed $S_X(Q)$ for bulk g-GeTe₂ is similar to that for a thermally co-evaporated Ge_{0.33}Te_{0.67} thin film.²⁶

The FSDP evolution is shown in Figure 1b, derived using the background subtraction described previously.^{3,53} In the cases of g-GeS₂ and g-GeSe₂, the main contribution to the FSDP comes from Ge–Ge correlations, verified both experimentally and theoretically.^{2,5,6,54} Consequently, the FSDP amplitude $A_0(Q)$ normalized by the Q-dependent Faber–Ziman X-ray weighting factor for Ge–Ge atomic pairs, $A_0(Q)/w_{GeGe}(Q)$, appears to be pretty similar for the two glasses; Figure 1c. A 12-fold difference in $A_0(Q)$ between g-GeS₂ and g-GeTe₂ decreased by a factor of 4 using the above normalization; nevertheless, the ratio $A_0(Q)/w_{GeGe}(Q)$ [g-GeS₂]/ $A_0(Q)/w_{GeGe}(Q)$ [g-GeTe₂] = 2.9 ± 0.4 indicates several contributions to the FSDP of glassy germanium ditelluride.

The PP amplitude is often related to the packing efficiency⁵⁵ and enhanced extended-range order⁵⁶ and systematically increases in high-pressure experiments.^{57,58} On the contrary, the macroscopic number density for g-GeX₂ decreases with the atomic number n_X , 0.03605 atoms Å⁻³ (GeS₂) \rightarrow 0.03314 atoms Å⁻³ (GeSe₂) \rightarrow 0.02937 atoms Å⁻³ (GeTe₂), certainly dominated by the increasing chalcogen size r_X . In addition, the main contribution to the PP comes from the X–X partial structure factors $S_{XX}(Q)$, as shown by a systematic shift of the PP position Q_1 toward lower Q with n_X and r_X . The average Faber–Ziman X-ray weighting coefficients, $\langle W_{XX}(Q) \rangle$, substantially increase with n_X by a factor of \approx 3, from 0.192 \pm 0.006 (GeS₂) to 0.621 \pm 0.003 (GeTe₂), explaining the observed trend.

Ge-Ge		Ge-Te		Te-Te			
r _{ij} (Å)	N_{ij}	r _{ij} (Å)	N_{ij}	<i>r</i> _{ij} (Å)	N_{ij}	$N_{\rm Ge-X}$	$N_{\mathrm{Te-X}}$
Experimental X-ray Data							
а	а	2.62(1)	3.46(10)	2.78(2)	0.50(10)	3.46(10)	2.23(14)
FPMD Dat	ta						
2.51	0.13(3)	2.60	3.40(10)	2.74	0.61(3)	3.53(11)	2.31(11)

Table 1. Nearest-Neighbor Interatomic Distances r_{ij} and Partial Coordination Numbers N_{ij} in Experimental and FPMD Data for Glassy GeTe₂

^aThe Ge–Ge contribution is too weak to be quantified reliably.



Figure 3. Coordination and angular dependences in glassy GeTe₂. Coordination distributions at (a) Ge and (b) Te sites; the insets show the NN distributions for tetrahedral and trigonal central Ge atom and two- and three-fold coordinated central Te. Bond angle distributions $B(\theta)$ for (c) Te-Ge-Te and (d) Ge-Te-Ge triplets plotted together with those for crystalline references: metastable cubic GeTe₂, sg $Fd\bar{3}m$;²² rhombohedral GeTe, sg R3m;²⁰ and orthorhombic HT-GeS₂, sg P21/c.⁷ See the text for further details.

The X-ray total correlation function $T_X(r)$ obtained through the usual Fourier transform is shown in Figure 2a-c

$$T_{\rm X}(r) = 4\pi\rho_0 r + \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{Q_{\rm max}} Q[S_{\rm X}(Q) - 1] \sin Qr M(Q) dQ$$
(2)

where M(Q) is a modification function, ρ_0 is the experimental number density, and $Q_{max} = 25$ Å⁻¹. The derived $T_X(r)$ is plotted together with crystalline references: metastable cubic GeTe₂, space group (sg) $Fd\overline{3}m$;²² trigonal Te, sg $P3_121$;⁵⁹ and rhombohedral GeTe, sg R3m.²⁰ The asymmetric peak at 2.64 Å, well separated from more distant correlations, mostly corresponds to Ge–Te nearest neighbors (NNs). The peak position is located between the Ge–Te interatomic distances in metastable cubic GeTe₂ (2.54 Å)^{22,23} and short Ge–Te NN separations in rhombohedral GeTe (2.83 Å).²⁰ A broad asymmetric second neighbor peak is centered at 4.22 Å. The Te–Te (c-GeTe₂) or Te–Te/Ge–Ge (c-GeTe) atomic pairs in crystalline tellurides exhibit similar distances. Nevertheless, a long low-*r* tail is missing in crystalline binaries. A distinct peak at 6.2 Å also has a certain similarity with Ge–Te second neighbor correlations (6.3 Å) in metastable GeTe₂. Rhombohedral GeTe is characterized by Te–Te/Ge–Ge and Ge–Te third-neighbor correlations at 5.97 and 6.57 Å, respectively.

A two-peak Gaussian fitting of the NN feature at 2.64 Å reproduces well its asymmetric shape; Figure 2d. The main contribution at 2.62 Å is clearly related to short Ge–Te atomic pairs with the partial coordination number $N_{\text{Ge-Te}}^{\text{S}} = 3.46 \pm$

0.10. The origin of the second contribution at 2.78 Å is less certain. It could be long Ge–Te NN correlations, $N_{\text{Ge-Te}}^{\text{L}} = 0.93 \pm 0.10$, but the total germanium coordination in this case appears to be above four. The Te–Te NN contacts are also possible both structurally (the Te–Te distances in trigonal tellurium are similar, 2.835 Å;⁵⁹ Figure 2b) and chemically, following a dissociation reaction GeTe₂ \rightleftharpoons GeTe + Te. The Te–Te partial coordination number seems to be realistic, $N_{\text{Te-Te}} = 0.50 \pm 0.10$. Besides, a mixture of the two scenarios cannot be excluded, as well as asymmetric NN distributions in contrast to symmetric Gaussians. The first-principles molecular dynamics and Raman spectroscopy supported by DFT calculations yield decisive evidence in favor of a partial disproportionation.

First-Principles Molecular Dynamics. Experimental and derived FPMD interference functions $Q[S_X(Q)-1]$ are shown in Figure S2a. We note a good agreement between the two data sets. The PP amplitude of the FPMD structure factor is slightly underestimated, which is a common feature of small boxes used in first-principles modeling caused by heavy simulation costs. The partial structure factors $S_{ij}(Q)$, Figure S2b, confirm that contributions to the FSDP are from Ge–Ge and Ge–Te partials, and the amplitude of the principle peak is essentially related to the $S_{TeTe}(Q)$ and $S_{GeGe}(Q)$ functions.

The partial pair-distribution functions $g_{ij}(r)$ are shown in Figure 2e. The NN feature at 2.65 Å is composed of Ge–Ge (2.51 Å, $N_{\text{Ge-Ge}} = 0.13 \pm 0.03$), Ge–Te (2.60 Å, $N_{\text{Ge-Te}} = 3.40 \pm 0.10$), and Te–Te (2.74 Å, $N_{\text{Te-Te}} = 0.61 \pm 0.03$) NN



Figure 4. Connectivity analysis of glassy GeTe₂. Size distribution in (a) Te_n and (b) Ge_n oligomers; (c) intrachain Te–Te–Te angles for Te_n oligomeric chains, $n \ge 3$; and (d) snapshot of the 450 atom FPMD simulation box at 300 K. The intrachain angle in trigonal tellurium⁵⁹ is also shown in (c). The insets in (a) and (b) reveal typical oligomer motifs in glassy GeTe₂.

contributions, consistent with the experimental results; Table 1. Weak Ge-Ge atomic pairs are hardly visible in experimental $T_{\rm x}(r)$ overlapping with intense Ge–Te nearest neighbors. The total germanium coordination appears to be below 4, $N_{\rm Ge-X}$ = $N_{\text{Ge-Te}} + N_{\text{Ge-Ge}} = 3.53$, indicating that populations of fourfold and trigonal Ge species are comparable; Figure 3a. The local environment of germanium is mixed (see the inset in Figure 3a); however, pure telluride (m = 0) polyhedra $Ge(Te_{4-m}Ge_m)$ and $Ge(Te_{3-m}Ge_m)$ are dominant, 85 and 92%, respectively. The majority of tellurium, 69%, has two-fold coordination, and the fractions of Ge-Te-Ge and Ge-Te-Te connections are nearly identical; Figure 3b. A similar situation also exists for three-fold coordinated tellurium; the probability of a Te-rich environment around the central Te atom, $Te(Ge_{3-m}Te_m)$ and $m \ge 2$, is less than $\approx 9\%$. The Gecentered polyhedra are mostly corner-sharing; the fraction of the ES-units is rather small, $20 \pm 5\%$ vs $\approx 50\%$ in g-GeS₂ and g-GeSe₂.

The Te-Ge-Te and Ge-Te-Ge angular distributions $B(\theta)$ s are shown in Figure 3c,d together with $B(\theta)$ s of crystalline references: cubic GeTe₂, rhombohedral GeTe, and orthorhombic HT-GeS₂. The $B_{\text{TeGeTe}}(\theta)$ in glassy GeTe₂ is rather symmetric and centered at 98°. However, the apparent symmetry hides two nearly equally populated distributions related to GeTe₃ trigonal units and GeTe₄ tetrahedra, the red and purple dashed lines, respectively, in Figure 3c. The $B_{\text{TeGeTe}}(\theta)$ maxima for trigonal and tetrahedral germanium are similar to crystalline references: rhombohedral GeTe, 94°, and metastable cubic GeTe₂, 109°.^{20,22,23} We should however note that $B_{\text{TeGeTe}}(\theta)$ for rhombohedral GeTe was derived only for short Ge-Te interatomic distances (2.83 Å) without taking into account long Ge-Te correlations (3.17 Å).

The tetrahedral orientational order parameter $q^{60,61}$ allows for additional information on the local geometry of four-fold coordinated GeTe₄ species to be obtained

$$q = 1 - \frac{3}{8} \sum_{j=1}^{3} \sum_{k=j+1}^{4} \left(\cos \psi_{jk} + \frac{1}{3} \right)^2$$
(3)

where ψ_{jk} is the angle formed by the lines joining the central germanium atom of a given GeTe₄ unit and its nearest Te neighbors *j* and *k*. The average value of *q* changes between 0 for an ideal gas and *q* = 1 for a perfect tetrahedral network. The P(q) probability distribution function is shown in Figure S3. The regular or distorted tetrahedra having $q \ge 0.87$ appear to be a clear majority, 90.3%. The remaining GeTe₄ polyhedra, $0.45 \le q \le 0.76$, have a defect octahedral local geometry with two missing Te neighbors around the central germanium atom and two types of the Te–Ge–Te angles, $146^{\circ} \le \theta_{O_h}(1) \le 170^{\circ}$ and $53^{\circ} \le \theta_{O_h}(2) \le 102^{\circ}$; the inset in Figure S3. An ideal defect octahedron GeTe₄, $\theta_{O_h}(1) = \pi$ and $\theta_{O_h}(2) = \pi/2$, has q = 5/8, that is, just in the middle of the nontetrahedral *q*-range. The minority nontetrahedral GeTe₄ species are hardly visible on the respective $B_{TeGeTe}(\theta)$ angular dependences; Figure 3c.

The $B_{GeTeGe}(\theta)$ bond angle distribution associated with polyhedral connectivity exhibits an asymmetric shape with the main contribution at 94°, which is very similar to the trigonal connectivity of GeTe₃ pyramids in rhombohedral GeTe (the peak highlighted in orange in Figure 3d). The tetrahedral connections in metastable GeTe₂ with the bond angle θ (GeTeGe) = π are not consistent with the derived FPMD angular function. A low-angle $B_{GeTeGe}(\theta)$ contribution, highlighted in light green, is related to edge-sharing Ge-Te units, mostly ES-Ge(Te_{4-m}Ge_m). The observed value θ (GeTeGe) = 78° is similar to that for the ES-tetrahedra (82°) in hightemperature GeS₂ polymorph consisting of ES- and CS-units; the corresponding peaks are highlighted in bright green in Figure 3d. The orthorhombic GeSe₂ analog shows an even closer ES-value, 80°,⁸ associated with the increasing chalcogen size $r_{\rm X}$. Consequently, the tetrahedral connectivity in g-GeTe₂ is reminiscent of lighter GeX₂ polymorphs than that of metastable cubic GeTe₂. We also note a large fraction of both Te-Ge-Te and Ge-Te-Ge bond angles $\theta \cong 90^\circ$, especially for GeTe₃ units; Figure 4a,b.

The connectivity analysis shows that 94% of Ge and Te atoms form a continuous disordered network. A small population of homopolar Ge–Ge bonds occurs as Ge–Ge



Figure 5. Rings and cavities in glassy GeTe₂. The ring population $R_c(p+q)^{41}$ in (a) orthorhombic⁶² or rhombohedral²⁰ GeX (X = S, Se, Te); (b) glassy GeTe₂; and (c) orthorhombic GeS₂, GeSe₂, and metastable cubic GeTe₂;²² the cavity distributions in (d) g-GeS₂ and (e) g-GeTe₂, calculated using the pyMolDyn code.⁴³

dimers; Figure 4b. A larger fraction of Te–Te bonds is seen through a variety of Te_n oligomers, where $2 \le n \le 10$, but the Te–Te dimers have the highest population; Figure 4a. A few oligomeric Te_n chains, $n \ge 3$, have different conformations evidenced by the asymmetric $B_{\text{TeTeTe}}(\theta)$ bond angle distribution; Figure 4c. Just one quarter of them shows the intrachain bond angle comparable with that in trigonal tellurium, $\theta(\text{TeTeTe}) = 103.2^{\circ}$,⁵⁹ the remaining three quarters have the Te–Te–Te angle peaked at $\approx 90^{\circ}$, Figure 4a,c.

The spatial distribution of trigonal Ge_{3F} and tetrahedral Ge_{4F} species is not completely random. A non-negligible part, $\approx 40\%$ (Ge_{3F}) and $\approx 30\%$ (Ge_{4F}), forms connected fragments Ge_{3F}–Te (the maximum size of 16 atoms) and Ge_{4F}–Te (up to 30 atoms). The remaining population is separated by $4.7 \leq r_{Ge-Ge} \leq 6.9$ Å for the average random Ge_{3F(4F)}–Ge_{3F(4F)} distance of 6.4 Å.

The intermediate-range order in glassy GeTe₂ is given by the statistics of Ge_pTe_q rings; Figure 5b. The derived ring population $R_c(p + q)^{41}$ differs significantly from the expected four-fold rings in rhombohedral GeTe,^{20,62} when short and long Ge–Te distances are taking into account, or six-fold entities, if only short Ge–Te separations are considered, Figure 5a, and 12-membered Ge₆Te₆ units in metastable cubic GeTe₂. Except for the topological disorder, the $R_c(p + q)$ population is reminiscent of ring statistics in orthorhombic GeS₂ or GeSe₂ polymorphs,^{7,8} Figure 5c, with the highest fraction of "square" rings, remembering the abundant bond angles θ (TeGeTe) $\approx \theta$ (GeTeGe) $\approx \pi/2$, substantially populated six-fold entities, and broad distribution of big rings centered at $p + q = 14 \pm 2$. Similar $R_c(p + q)$ populations were found for lighter tetrahedral glassy counterparts GeX₂^{6,41} but with an enhanced population of big rings, 20 $\leq p + q \leq 30$.

The cavity distribution is shown in Figure 5d,e. The total volume of microscopic voids and cavities, $V_{c'}$ normalized to the volume of the FPMD simulation box, appears to be 26.9%, that is, significantly lower than that in g-GeS₂ (46.1%). Consequently, the packing density in glassy GeTe₂ appears to be higher than that in glassy GeS₂ and probably GeSe₂, coherent with the increasing amplitude of the principle peak in $S_X(Q)$

with the chalcogen size $r_{\rm X}$ and atomic number $n_{\rm X}$; Figure 1a. We should also note that a similar $V_{\rm c}$ was found for liquid and glassy Ge_{0.15}Te_{0.85} while amorphous and liquid GeTe has a much smaller cavity volume, $6.4 \le V_{\rm c} \le 11.3\%$.⁶³

The derived FPMD results using hybrid PBE0 exchangecorrelation functional for bulk glassy GeTe₂ differ substantially from those of the reverse Monte-Carlo (RMC) modeling of an amorphous $Ge_{0.33}Te_{0.67}$ thin film.²⁶ In the latter case, the total coordination number of Ge was constrained to be 4. As a result, the total tellurium coordination was found to be N_{Te-X}^{RMC} $= N_{\text{Te-Ge}}^{\text{RMC}} + N_{\text{Te-Te}}^{\text{RMC}} = 1.07(25) + 0.99(15) = 2.06 \pm 0.29$, and the partial Ge–Ge coordination number, $N_{\text{Ge–Ge}}^{\text{RMC}} = 1.9 \pm 0.4$, appears to be by a factor of ≈ 15 higher than the FPMD value, $\hat{N}_{\text{Ge-Ge}}^{\text{FPMD}} = 0.13 \pm 0.03$; Table 1. On the contrary, the RMC modeling of $Ga_{0.143}Ge_{0.143}Te_{0.714}$ glass with a similar tellurium content exhibits no Ge-Ge and Ga-Ga homopolar bonds and higher tellurium coordination, $N_{\text{Te-X}} = 2.35 \pm 0.10.^{64}$ The reported FPMD results for amorphous and liquid Ge-Te alloys depend on the choice of the exchange-correlation functional. The use of standard PBE or PBEsol functionals without van der Waals corrections overestimates the interatomic distances and the total tellurium coordination, $N_{\text{Te-X}} = 3.1-3.8$, for Te-rich alloys.^{34,63} The Grimme dispersion corrections⁶⁵ improve the two types of parameters,^{33,34} but a better agreement with experiments yields hybrid functionals,^{34,66} in particular, BLYP.^{67,68} The applied PBE0 hybrid functional provides similar simulation results as BLYP. Nevertheless, independent verification of the FPMD modeling needs alternative structural methods such as vibrational spectroscopy.

Raman Spectroscopy. The Raman scattering supported by the DFT simulations of vibrational spectra was used to verify two main results of synchrotron diffraction and firstprinciples molecular dynamics: (a) the presence of Te–Te homopolar bonds and (b) the partial tetrahedral local coordination of germanium.

A typical Raman spectrum of bulk glassy $GeTe_2$ between 100 and 300 cm⁻¹ is shown in Figure 6a. Three characteristic features at 130, 160, and 245 cm⁻¹ are similar to those



Figure 6. Experimental Raman spectra of bulk $\text{Ge}_x\text{Te}_{1-x}$ glasses: (a) GeTe_2 (x = 0.33), (b) GeTe_3 (x = 0.25), and (c) GeTe_9 (x = 0.10). The 130 cm⁻¹ peak (light green) corresponds to A_1 in-phase Ge–Te breathing in corner-sharing CS-GeTe₄ tetrahedra; the 160 cm⁻¹ multimodal feature (light gray) contains multiple Te–Te stretchings in Te_n oligomers, $2 \le n \le 8$, and Ge–Te symmetric stretching in ES-tetrahedra and CS- and ES-GeTe₃ units. The bending vibrations are shown below 100 cm⁻¹ for glassy GeTe₃ and GeTe₉ measured using a Raman spectrometer with the low-frequency limit of 50 cm⁻¹. The relative areas of the 130 and 160 cm⁻¹ peaks are also shown.

observed previously for GeTe₂ thin films obtained by thermal evaporation, radiofrequency/magnetron sputtering, or pulsed laser deposition.^{25,69–71} Compared to bulk Ge_xTe_{1-x} glasses, $x \le 0.25$, the amplitudes of a relatively narrow 130 cm⁻¹ peak and a broader 160 cm⁻¹ line are reversed, Figure 6b,c,

confirming their assignment to Ge–Te and Te–Te stretching, respectively. 25,69,72 A broad poorly resolved feature at 245 cm⁻¹ of low intensity suggests multiple vibrational contributions.

The DFT modeling of a corner-sharing CS-Ge₂Te₇H₄ dimer reveals that the 130 cm^{-1} peak is related to A_1 symmetric inphase breathing of CS-GeTe₄ tetrahedra, and the highfrequency asymmetric Ge-Te stretching vibrations are located in the range of $200 \le \omega \le 250$ cm⁻¹; Figure 7a. Similar to glassy GeS_2 , the A_1^c symmetric in-phase breathing in edgesharing entities ES-Ge₂Te₆H₄ is shifted to higher $\omega = 142$ cm⁻¹; the asymmetric Ge-Te stretching frequencies are also spread over the 190-250 cm⁻¹ range; Figure 7b. The GeTe₈H₄ and GeTe₁₂H₄ clusters representing isolated Ge species cross-linking the Te chains exhibit strong Te-Te stretching modes in the vicinity of 170 \pm 6 cm⁻¹, and the A_1 symmetric Ge-Te stretching slightly shifted to lower wavenumbers (126 \pm 2 cm⁻¹); Figure 7c. The trigonal Ge_{3F}-Te clusters are characterized by a blue shift of the A_1 symmetric in-phase Ge-Te breathing in CS- and ES-GeTe₃ trigonal pyramids compared to CS- and ES-tetrahedra, $\Delta \omega = +16 \pm 3$ cm^{-1} ; Figure 7d-f. On the contrary, the Te-Te stretching frequencies in Ge_{3E}–Te entities exhibit a red shift, $\Delta \omega = -6 \pm$ 3 cm^{-1} . Presumably, the weak Ge–Ge stretching in glassy GeTe₂ is hardly visible. Typical Ge–Ge stretching frequencies are located between $\omega_{GeGe} = 259 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ in ethanelike ETH-Ge₂S₆ units with homopolar Ge–Ge bonds^{73,74} and $\omega_{GeGe} =$ 275 cm⁻¹ in amorphous Ge and Ge_{0.76}Te_{0.24} thin films.⁷⁵ The optimized DFT cluster ETH-Ge2Te6H6, Figure S4, shows $\omega_{\text{GeGe}} = 262 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, overlapping with asymmetric Ge–Te vibrations. The optimized geometry of Ge-Te size-limited clusters was found to be in good agreement with diffraction results and FPMD simulations; Table S1. The DFT results for CS-GeTe₆H₃ and CS-GeTe₈H₄ clusters are similar to those reported previously.7

Summarizing, we conclude that Raman spectroscopy supported by DFT modeling yields clear evidence in favor of tetrahedral Ge species reflected by the A_1 symmetric in-phase



Figure 7. Experimental Raman spectra of glassy GeTe₂, highlighted in yellow in all panels and scaled DFT Raman spectra of selected optimized clusters: (a) CS-Ge₂Te₇, (b) ES-Ge₂Te₆, (c) GeTe₈, (d) CS-Ge₂Te₅, (e) ES-Ge₂Te₄, and (f) GeTe₆. The terminal hydrogen species are not shown, and H-related features are removed from the spectra.



Figure 8. Experimental neutron data^{13,82} and derived FPMD results for liquid GeTe₂ at 1000 K: (a) the interference function $Q[S_N(Q) - 1]$, (b) the pair-distribution function $g_N(r)$, (c) fitting the $T_{GeTe}(r)$ partial, and (d) the FPMD partial pair-distribution functions $g_{ij}(r)$. The $g_{GeTe}(r)$ partial function for rhombohedral GeTe, sg $R3m_i^{20}$ is also shown in (d). See the text for further details.

Ge—Te breathing in CS-GeTe₄ at 131 cm⁻¹. The A_1 symmetric in-phase Ge—Te breathing in ES-GeTe₄, CS-, and ES-GeTe₃ units and multiple Te—Te stretching modes in Te_n oligomers, $2 \le n \le 10$, are responsible for the broad 160 cm⁻¹ peak. A dominant role of Te—Te vibrations in this feature shows the composition dependence of the 160 cm⁻¹ mode, remarkably increasing with the Te content; Figure 6.

A nearly equimolar mixture of tetrahedral GeTe4 and trigonal GeTe₃ units coexisting with Te-Te dimers and oligomers, observed in glassy germanium ditelluride, appears to be a consequence of the disproportionation reaction GeTe₂ \rightleftharpoons GeTe + Te at high temperatures, observed previously for GeTe₂ thin films.^{22,23} Amorphous germanium monotelluride mostly consists of three types of Ge polyhedra involving fourfold coordinated nontetrahedral Ge^H and tetrahedral Ge^T species and trigonal Ge^{III} units.^{76,77} In contrast to glassy GeTe₂, the fraction of GeX₄ (X = Te, Ge) tetrahedra, f_{T} , is below $f_T \lesssim 0.3$ and accompanied by formation of Ge–Ge homopolar bonds.^{63,77} The three-fold coordinated GeTe₃ pyramidal units with the bond angles of $\approx \pi/2$ are the remnants of the GeTe rhombohedral structure²⁰ when three short Ge-Te bonds (2.83 Å) become even shorter (2.62 Å, Table 1) and three long Ge-Te distances (3.17 Å) are pushed away into the second neighbor correlations. A similar trend was found in binary $\text{Ge}_x \text{S}_{1-x}$ vitreous alloys³ at $x \to 0.5$.

Liquid GeTe₂ and a Semiconductor–Metal Transition. Heating GeTe₂ above the liquidus temperature produces an anomalous increase in density and a semiconductor–metal transition,^{23,78} similar to that in other Ge–Te compositions.^{79–81} This liquid–liquid transition was not studied for GeTe₂; however, the diffraction data just above liquidus are available,^{13,82,83} and a density change was reported.⁸⁴ Both the neutron and X-ray structure factors are drastically different for liquid GeTe₂ compared to the bulk glass. The FPMD with hybrid GGA/PBE0 functional appears to be equally efficient for a metallic liquid and a semiconducting glass. Figure 8 shows the experimental neutron diffraction data^{13,82} in both the *Q*and *r*-space in comparison with the derived FPMD interference function $Q[S_N(Q) - 1]$ and pair-distribution function $g_N(r)$, revealing a good agreement. In contrast to glassy GeTe₂, the simulation yields a slightly overestimated principle peak PP at 2.16 Å⁻¹. The amplitude of other oscillations and their periodicity are well reproduced.

A different shape of the structure factor with an intense PP and a weak second peak at 3.19 Å⁻¹, markedly larger NN interatomic distances at 2.79 Å vs 2.64 Å in g-GeTe₂, and broad correlations at 4.08 Å (4.22 Å in the bulk glass), filling the gap between the nearest and next-nearest neighbors, suggest a deep structural transformation between glassy and liquid GeTe₂. This trend was not observed in the sulfide GeS₂ and selenide GeSe₂ counterparts, conserving their tetrahedral structure in the glass and liquid states.^{1-3,13}

The partial pair-distribution functions for L-GeTe₂ are shown in Figure 8d. As expected, the first and second neighbor peaks become broader and overlap with each other. In particular, the $g_{GeTe}(r)$ partial function exhibits an asymmetric shape with a long-*r* tail without a clear minimum. Fitting the $T_{GeTe}(r)$ partial function, Figure 8c, yields two equally populated sites with short (2.78 Å) and long (3.13 Å) Ge– Te nearest-neighbor distances, which are very similar to those in rhombohedral GeTe,²⁰ except for the width and partial coordination numbers; the latter is smaller in liquid, $N_{Ge-Te}^{\text{short}} \cong$ $N_{Ge-Te}^{\text{long}} = 2.10 \pm 0.10$; see also the middle panel of Figure 8d. The second and third Ge–Te neighbor contributions in L-GeTe₂ are hardly resolved. Nevertheless, their positions and partial coordination numbers allow for important information on metallic GeTe₂ liquid to be extracted.

The second neighbor Ge–Te separations in rhombohedral GeTe are markedly longer (the main peak at 5.07 Å and the weak peak at 5.63 Å, $N_{\text{Ge-Te}}^{2nd,\text{R}} = 8$) compared with those in liquid GeTe₂ at 4.16 Å, $N_{\text{Ge-Te}}^{2nd,\text{R}} = 5.62$; Figure 8d. At the same time, the ratio $N_{\text{Ge-Te}}^{2nd,\text{R}} / N_{\text{Ge-Te}}^{2nd,\text{R}} = 5.62/8.00 \cong N_{\text{Ge-Te}}^{\text{NN,R}} / N_{\text{Ge-Te}}^{2nd,\text{R}} = 4.20/6.00 = 0.70$ appears to be similar in the two cases. In contrast, the difference in the third neighbor Ge–Te positions between liquid GeTe₂ and rhombohedral GeTe is rather small, 6.47 Å (L-GeTe₂) vs 6.57 Å (the main peak in the crystal), comparable with a dense metallic liquid and a less-dense semiconducting crystal. These findings suggest a strong

Ge-Te		Ge-Ge		Те-Те				
r _{ij} (Å)	N_{ij}	r _{ij} (Å)	N_{ij}	<i>r</i> _{ij} (Å)	N_{ij}	$N_{\rm Ge-X}$	$N_{\rm Te-X}$	
Rhombohedra								
2.827 ^a	3.00 ^{<i>a</i>}					6.00	6.00	
3.167 ^b	3.00 ^b							
Liquid GeTe ₂ , FPMD Modeling (This Work)								
2.78(1)	2.08(10)	2.77(2)	0.74(20)	2.92(2)	1.28(34)	4.9(3)	3.4(4)	
3.13(1)	2.12(10)							
Liquid GeTe ₂ ,	RMC Modeling ⁸³							
2.81	4.1	2.9	0.6	2.81	0.8	4.7	2.9	
act i C T :	1	b C T ·	1					

Table 2. Nearest-Neighbor Interatomic Distances r_{ij} and Partial Coordination Numbers N_{ij} in Rhombohedral GeTe, and FPMD and RMC Data for Liquid GeTe₂

^aShort Ge–Te interatomic distances. ^bLong Ge–Te interatomic distances.



Figure 9. Local coordination and bond angles in liquid $GeTe_2$ at 1000 K derived using FPMD modeling with hybrid functional GGA/PBE0: coordination distributions around (a) central germanium and (b) central tellurium and bond angle distributions $B(\theta)$ for (c) Te-Ge-Te and (d) Ge-Te-Ge triplets. The inset in (b) shows a typical structural motif in L-GeTe₂. The angular distributions for rhombohedral GeTe are also shown in (c) and (d), including short (2.827 Å) and long (3.167 Å) Ge-Te interatomic distances. See the text for further details.

evolutionary relationship between crystalline GeTe with intrinsic Peierls distortion and metallic $GeTe_2$ liquid with reentrant Peierls distortion, reported earlier for molten GeTe.⁸⁵

The integration of the $g_{GeGe}(r)$ and $g_{TeTe}(r)$ partial pairdistribution functions with a cutoff of 3.21 and 3.20 Å, respectively, corresponding to a well-defined minimum between the first and second neighbors in these two cases yields the partial coordination numbers $N_{Ge-Ge} = 0.74 \pm 0.20$ and $N_{Te-Te} = 1.28 \pm 0.34$ and the total Ge and Te local coordination $N_{Ge-X} = N_{Ge-Te} + N_{Ge-Ge} = 4.9 \pm 0.3$ and $N_{Te-X} = N_{Te-Ge} + N_{Te-Te} = 3.4 \pm 0.4$; Table 2. Consequently, liquid GeTe₂ is characterized by significantly higher local coordination numbers compared to g-GeTe₂. The obtained FPMD results appear similar to those of RMC modeling,⁸³ except for two different Ge-Te NN distances in FPMD; Table 2.

The coordination distributions for germanium and tellurium in L-GeTe₂ are shown in Figure 9a,b. The Ge distribution is rather symmetric, centered at the average value $\langle N_{\text{Ge-x}} \rangle = 5$, and is spread over the $3 \leq \langle N_{\text{Ge-x}} \rangle \leq 7$ range. The fraction of pure Ge–Te polyhedra is above 50%, the remaining mixed polyhedral species mostly contain 1 or 2 Ge–Ge homopolar bonds. The Te distribution is bimodal; the populations of three-fold and four-fold coordinated tellurium are comparable. The Te local environment is essentially mixed, and the fraction of pure Te–Ge bonding in coordination polyhedra is below 27%. A fast dynamics of the local coordination changes, associated with a high fluidity of the metallic melt, reflected by the enhanced mean-square deviations of the derived parameters, and calculated over 1 ps of the simulation time, should also be noted.

The bond angle distributions of Te–Ge–Te and Ge–Te– Ge triplets are shown in Figure 9c,d. Both geometries of the Ge–Te polyhedra, revealed by the $B_{\text{TeGeTe}}(\theta)$ angular dependence and polyhedral connectivity and reflected by the $B_{\text{GeTeGe}}(\theta)$ function, are highly distorted. The corresponding $B(\theta)$ s are spread over a wide angular range, $40^{\circ} \le \theta \le 170^{\circ}$, in comparison with the angular distributions for glassy GeTe₂; Figure 3c,d. To some extent, the derived $B_{\text{TeGeTe}}(\theta)$ and $B_{\text{GeTeGe}}(\theta)$ functions are reminiscent of those in rhombohedral GeTe, although the degree of distortion in the metallic liquid appears to be considerably higher. In addition, intense contributions, centered at $\theta(\text{TeGeTe}) \approx 52^{\circ}$ and $\theta(\text{GeTeGe}) \approx 66^{\circ}$ (the crosshatched low- θ peaks in Figure 9c,d), are missing in Ge–Te crystals.

These low- θ features are indicative of a specific ring distribution $R_c(p + q)$ in liquid GeTe₂ at 1000 K, Figure 10, consisting of a significant population of small rings, $3 \le p + q$



Figure 10. Ring population $R_c(p+q)$ in liquid GeTe₂ at 1000 K. The insets show characteristic structural motifs containing three-, four-, and five-fold rings. The dashed line representing the asymmetric shape of the ring distribution is a guide to the eye.

 \leq 7, and drastically different from $R_c(p + q)$ in glassy GeTe₂; Figure 5b. At the same time, similar ring distributions are observed in classical PCMs: GeTe or GeTe-Sb₂Te₃.⁸⁶⁻⁸⁸

In summary, we conclude that metallic $GeTe_2$ liquid consists of GeTe-related modified structural fragments, including Ge– Ge bonds, coexisting with Te–Te dimers and Te_n oligomers. The connectivity analysis is presented in Figure S5. The distorted modified fragments appear to be more dense locally; the five-fold germanium coordination with longer Ge–Te NN distances is accompanied by shorter second neighbor separations, leaving rather intact more distant correlations. The higher fraction of Ge–Ge bonds in metallic GeTe₂ liquid suggests a fast switching 2Ge–Te = Ge–Ge + Te–Te in a highly fluid melt. The fraction of Ge–Ge bonds increases with temperature; Figure S6.

GeTe₂ as a Precursor for the Next Generation of Phase-Change Materials. The calculated electronic densities of states in glassy and liquid GeTe₂ are consistent with the reported conductivity;^{23,78} Figure 11. The band gap in g-GeTe₂ was found to be 1.72 ± 0.05 eV compared to the experimental value of 1.1 ± 0.1 eV. The PBE0 hybrid functional is known by overestimating the band gap.⁸⁹ A nearly metallic conductivity in L-GeTe₂ in the vicinity of 1000 K with the apparent pseudogap of 0.08 ± 0.02 eV is also reasonably reproduced by our FPMD simulations yielding the band gap of 0.19 ± 0.02 eV, that is, by a factor of ≈ 9 lower than that in the glass. The metallic conductivity and low viscosity of molten GeTe₂, Figure 12, are a typical behavior of liquid phase-change



Figure 12. Angell plot for the temperature dependence of viscosity $\eta(T)$ of GeS₂ (blue) and GeTe₂ (magenta): the experimental viscosity data^{78,98} are shown by the solid circles, the high-temperature $\eta(T)$ prediction for GeS₂ is shown by the blue line,⁹⁹ and the FPMD viscosity calculated using the Stokes–Einstein relation (eq 4) is shown by the magenta squares (this work). The dashed-dotted line represents the MYEGA¹⁰⁰ viscosity (7) for GeTe₂. The derived fragility indices *m* are also shown. See the text for further details.

materials since high atomic mobility at elevated temperatures allows for rapid crystallization within the nanosecond range. On the other hand, the requested long-term data retention at ambient temperatures, which is critical for the reliable PCM operation, assumes a low-atomic-migration rate. Consequently, the viscosity-temperature dependence $\eta(T)$ of the PCM liquids is characterized by a strong non-Arrhenius or fragile⁹⁰



Figure 11. Electronic properties of $GeTe_2$: (a) experimental conductivity values for amorphous and crystallized $GeTe_2$ thin films²³ and bulk liquid germanium ditelluride⁷⁸ and FPMD electronic density of states in (b) liquid and (c) glassy $GeTe_2$ at 1000 and 300 K, respectively.

behavior with the fragility index $m = \partial \log \eta / \partial (T_g/T) > 50.^{91}$ The observed behavior provides fast diffusion at high temperatures with a sudden drop of diffusivity at lower temperatures. More recently, the high values of $m \gtrsim 90^{92}$ have been related to a fragile-to-strong^{93,94} liquid–liquid transition on cooling and a breakdown^{95,96} of the Stokes–Einstein relation

$$\eta(T) = \frac{k_{\rm B}T}{6\pi D_{\rm eff}(T)r_{\rm H}}$$
(4)

between the viscosity $\eta(T)$ and the effective atomic diffusion coefficient $D_{\text{eff}}(T)$ at lower temperatures, approaching T_g ; where k_{B} is the Boltzmann constant, T is the absolute temperature, and r_{H} is the effective hydrodynamic radius. Experimental and computational verifications of this breakdown were obtained using quasi-elastic neutron scattering^{95,96} and a neural network method in molecular dynamics.⁹⁷

The mean-square displacements of Ge and Te in liquid GeTe₂, $\langle r_i^2(t) \rangle$, Figure S7, were used for diffusion calculations

$$\langle r_i^2(t) \rangle = \left\langle \frac{1}{N_i} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N_i} \left[r_i(t) - r_i(0) \right]^2 \right\} \right\rangle$$
(5)

where $r_i(0)$ and $r_i(t)$ are the positions of particle *i* for the initial time and time *t*, respectively, N_i is the total number of particles in the simulation box, and the angle brackets represent the average over initial times.

The germanium D_{Ge} and tellurium D_{Te} diffusion coefficients were derived from the respective $\langle r_i^2(t) \rangle$ using the Einstein equation

$$D_{i} = \frac{1}{6} \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{\partial \langle r_{i}^{2}(t) \rangle}{\partial t}$$
(6)

The derived D_{Ge} and D_{Te} are shown in Figure S8 and are similar to those in liquid GeTe.⁹⁷ The effective diffusion coefficient required for viscosity calculations was defined as $D_{\text{eff}}(T) = 1/3D_{\text{Ge}}(T) + 2/3D_{\text{Te}}(T)$.

Multiple approaches of the effective hydrodynamic radius $r_{\rm H}$ include the van der Waals radii,⁹⁷ $r_{\rm vdW}$; the Wigner–Seitz separation,¹⁰¹ $r_{\rm WS}(T) = \sqrt[3]{(3/4\pi)V_{\rm m}(T)N_{\rm A}^{-1}}$, where $V_{\rm m}(T)$ is the melt molar volume and $N_{\rm A}$ is the Avogadro constant; or the average half-size of the first coordination sphere, $r_{\rm min}/2$, reflected by the first minimum $r_{\rm min}$ at the total or partial pair-distribution functions $g_{ij}(r)$; Figure 8. Either of these approximations yields a rather narrow $r_{\rm H}$ -range, 1.7 Å $\leq r_{\rm H} \leq 2.1$ Å. We have used the experimental number density $\rho_0(T)$, eq 2, to calculate $r_{\rm WS}(T)$ and derive the FPMD viscosity $\eta^{\rm FPMD}(T)$.

The calculated $\eta^{\text{FPMD}}(T)$ values are visualized in Figure 12 plotted together with experimental viscosity⁷⁸ and the results for liquid GeS₂.^{98,99} We note a close similarity between the two data sets for GeTe₂. The viscosity of germanium ditelluride is reminiscent of that for typical PCMs^{93,94,102} and shows a high fragility index $m = 99 \pm 5$, which is found applying the Mauro–Yue–Ellison–Gupta–Allan (MYEGA) approach¹⁰⁰ based on the temperature dependence of configurational entropy and the experimental glass transition temperature for g-GeTe₂ ($T_g = 466 \pm 3$ K, Figure S1)

$$\log \eta(T) = \log \eta_0 + [\log \eta(T_g) - \log \eta_0] \frac{T_g}{T}$$
$$\exp\left[\left(\frac{m}{\log \eta(T_g) - \log \eta_0}\right) \left(\frac{T_g}{T} - 1\right)\right]$$
(7)

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where η_0 and $\eta(T_g) = 10^{12}$ Pa·s are the viscosity values at $T = \infty$ and T_g , respectively. In contrast, non-PCM germanium disulfide exhibits a modest fragility m = 35, typical for traditional chalcogenide glass-forming liquids.^{92,93} In the used temperature range, 800–1300 K, we cannot observe a possible breakdown of the Stokes–Einstein relation (4), which probably occurs at lower temperatures.

The high electrical and optical contrast between glassy and crystalline states, fast atomic mobility in high-temperature liquid, and a strongly reduced diffusivity in the vicinity of T_{o} make GeTe₂ a promising precursor for the next generation of phase-change memories. A higher glass transition temperature, that is, 466 K vs 380 K for $Ge_2Sb_2Te_5$ or Ag-In-Sb-Te,^{93,94} suggests better data retention at ambient temperatures and more reliable nonvolatile memory operation. The thermodynamic metastability of GeTe22 and the disproportionation reaction GeTe₂ \rightleftharpoons GeTe + Te observed in the bulk metallic melt could certainly affect the fast transformation rate. Nevertheless, all ternary compounds along the GeTe– Sb_2Te_3 composition line,¹⁰³ including Ge₂Sb₂Te₅,¹⁰⁴ exhibit incongruent melting and hence a dissociation into GeTe and Sb₂Te₃ end-members in the melt.¹⁰⁵ Consequently, the bulk metastability is not necessarily an invincible obstacle for fast transformers. Besides, we cannot exclude that stability and kinetic criteria could be different for macroscopic bulk and nanometer spots in a PCM thin layer.

Another possible complication includes a tetrahedral interconnected subnetwork in glassy $GeTe_2$ with intermediate-range ordering reminiscent of g-GeS₂ and g-GeSe₂. However, metal doping, e.g., using silver or copper, leads to network depolymerization^{106,107} and faster transformation processes in the amorphous state. Copper tellurogermanate Cu_2GeTe_3 is an exciting example revealing new perspectives.^{108,109} We should note that a significant population of triangular rings in Cu_2GeTe_3 are also present in liquid GeTe₂, Figure 10, revealing a resemblance in intermediate-range structures. Atomic layer deposition of GeTe₂–Sb₂Te₃ thin films^{110,111} offers additional horizons for nanoscale phase-change random-access memory based on germanium ditelluride.¹¹²

CONCLUSIONS

A missing member of the tetrahedral GeX₂ glass family, bulk glassy GeTe₂, was obtained using a specially designed quenching procedure in silica capillaries and was studied using high-energy X-ray diffraction and Raman scattering supported by first-principles simulations. In contrast to canonical GeS₂ and GeSe₂ vitreous alloys, bulk g-GeTe₂ represents a nearly equimolar mixture of tetrahedral GeTe₄ and trigonal GeTe₃ units coexisting with Te–Te dimers and Te_n oligomers, $n \leq 10$, and a small fraction of Ge–Ge dimers (3.6% of Ge–Ge vs 26.3% of Te–Te homopolar bonds). In addition, 31% of tellurium was found to be three-fold coordinated. These experimental diffraction data and simulation results using the first-principles molecular dynamics with a hybrid exchange–correlation functional PBE0 and van der

Waals dispersion corrections are confirmed by independent vibrational studies and DFT modeling of the Raman spectra. The A_1 symmetric in-phase breathing of corner-sharing GeTe₄ tetrahedra at 130 cm⁻¹ and multiple contributions to a broad unresolved 160 cm⁻¹ mode, consisting of Te-Te stretching and symmetric Ge-Te breathing in trigonal GeTe₃ pyramids and edge-sharing GeTe₄ units, are the main vibrational features. A dominant role of the Te-Te stretching was verified by the increasing amplitude of the 160 cm⁻¹ mode in bulk Ge_xTe_{1-x} glasses in the range of $0.1 \le x \le 0.25$. A complex structural and bonding pattern in bulk glassy GeTe₂ is related to the thermodynamic metastability and a dissociation reaction $GeTe_2 \rightleftharpoons GeTe + Te$.

A dramatic difference was also found between GeTe, and GeS₂/GeSe₂ melts. Just above liquidus, the available diffraction data, conductivity, and viscosity results show that GeTe₂ becomes a dense metallic liquid. Our FPMD simulations reproduce well both the neutron diffraction results, electronic properties and atomic dynamics. Liquid GeTe₂ appears to be highly coordinated with the average germanium coordination number $\langle N_{\text{Ge-x}} \rangle = 4.9 \pm 0.3$ and high tellurium coordination $\langle N_{\rm Te-x} \rangle$ = 3.4 ± 0.4, where X = Ge and/or Te. The Ge–Te NN interatomic distances exhibit a strong Peierls distortion (two equally populated separations at 2.78 and 3.13 Å), which are substantially longer than the Ge-Te distance at 2.62 Å in the glass. The first and second neighbor correlations overlap in contrast to well-separated nearest and next-nearest neighbors in g-GeTe₂. Locally dense GeTe-related structural fragments are also characterized by fast switching 2Ge-Te = Ge-Ge + Te-Te, increasing with temperature. On the contrary, molten GeS₂ and GeSe₂ remain tetrahedral and semiconducting.

The reported semiconducting nature of amorphous GeTe₂ thin films was also reflected by the FPMD results. The calculated band gap appears to be 1.72 ± 0.05 eV in comparison with experimental $E_{\rm g}$ = 1.1 ± 0.1 eV. The conductivity of metallic liquid GeTe₂ shows a pseudogap of 0.08 ± 0.02 eV, while the FPMD simulations reveal a band gap of 0.19 \pm 0.02 eV (the PBE0 hybrid functional is known by slightly overestimating the band gap). The low viscosity of liquid GeTe₂ was consistently reproduced by the firstprinciples calculations yielding a high fragility index m = 99 \pm 5 and a presumably fast transformation rate at high temperatures combined with low atomic mobility close to or below glass transition temperature $T_{g'}$ favorable for reliable long-term data retention in nonvolatile memories. The observed and predicted characteristic features make GeTe₂ a promising precursor for the next generation of phase-change materials, especially coupled with additional metal doping, depolymerizing the tetrahedral interconnected glass network and accelerating (sub)nanosecond crystallization.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

③ Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.chemmater.0c04409.

DSC traces of selected Ge–Te bulk glasses and the compositional dependence of the glass transition temperature; typical examples of the obtained bulk glassy GeTe₂; experimental and derived FPMD interference functions for glassy GeTe₂; partial structure factors for Ge–Ge, Ge–Te, and Te–Te atomic pairs; tetrahedral orientational order parameter q for GeTe₄

polyhedra in bulk glassy $GeTe_2$; optimized DFT cluster ETH- Ge_2Te_6 and derived DFT Raman spectrum; size of Te_n and Ge_n oligomers in liquid $GeTe_2$ at 1000 K; fraction of Ge-Ge homopolar bonds in glassy, supercooled, and liquid $GeTe_2$ as a function of temperature; germanium and tellurium mean-square displacements in liquid $GeTe_2$ at 800 and 1300 K; germanium and tellurium diffusion coefficients in liquid $GeTe_2$; and optimized geometry parameters of size-limited Ge-Teclusters used in DFT modeling of vibrational properties (PDF)

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Notes

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