Unified theory of direct or indirect band-gap nature of conventional semiconductors

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Although the direct or indirect nature of the band-gap transition is an essential parameter of semiconductors for optoelectronic applications, the reasons for why some of the conventional semiconductors have direct or indirect band gaps remains ambiguous. In this paper, we reveal that the existence of the occupied cation dbands is a prime element in determining the directness of the band gap of semiconductors through the *s*-*d* and *p*-*d* couplings, which push the conduction band energy levels at the X and L valley up, but leave the Γ -valley conduction state unchanged. This unified theory unambiguously explains why diamond, Si, Ge, and Al-containing group III-V semiconductors, which do not have active occupied *d* bands, have indirect band gaps, and the remaining common semiconductors, except GaP, have direct band gaps. Besides *s*-*d* and *p*-*d* couplings, bond length and electronegativity of anions are two remaining factors regulating the energy ordering of the Γ , *X*, and *L* valleys of the conduction band, and are responsible for the anomalous band-gap behaviors in GaN, GaP, and GaAs that have direct, indirect, and direct band gaps, respectively, despite the fact that N, P, and As are in ascending order of the atomic number. This understanding will shed light on the design of direct band-gap light-emitting materials.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Whether a semiconductor has a direct or indirect band gap is of fundamental importance to its optoelectronic applications [1,2]. If the conduction band minimum (CBM) occurs at the same point in k space as the valence band maximum (VBM), which is usually at the center (Γ point) of the Brillouin zone for conventional semiconductors, then the energy gap is referred to as a direct band gap, otherwise as an indirect band gap [2]. If a semiconductor has a direct band gap and the electric dipole transition from VBM to CBM is allowed, the electron-hole pairs will recombine radiatively with a high probability. As a result, high-quality direct bandgap semiconductors, such as GaAs and InP, are used to make highly efficient light emitters. They are essential materials for lasers, light-emitting diodes (LEDs), and other photonic devices [3,4], whereas, in indirect band-gap semiconductors, such as Si and Ge, optical transitions across an indirect band gap are not allowed, and, thus, these materials are not efficient light emitters. Despite the paramount importance of the direct or indirect nature of the band-gap transition for conventional semiconductors, which have been extensively studied in the past seven decades, the understanding of the formation of their direct or indirect band gaps remains ambiguous.

In spite of the extensive utilizing of sophisticated but opaque computational approaches like the semiempirical pseudopotential method and first-principles density functional theory to correctly reproduce the experimentally measured band structures for semiconductors, the simple nearestneighbor tight-binding (TB) theory is more straightforward to gain insight into the formation of the band structures because of its intuitive simplicity [5]. However, this simple TB model fails to reproduce some important band structure features, such as the band-gap nature for indirect semiconductors [2,6]. Although the introduction of additional unphysical parameters can cure the flaw of the simple sp³ TB model [7–10], it loses the advantage of its intuitive simplicity and thus is unlikely to uncover the origin of the direct and indirect band-gap natures of semiconductors. The poor understanding impedes the design of new direct band-gap light-emitting materials. Specifically, Si is ubiquitous in the electronics industry but is unsuitable for optoelectronic applications because it has an indirect band gap. In the past five decades, numerous ideas have been offered but failed to transform Si into an efficient light emitter [11,12] utilizing various modalities of symmetry reduction, including the use of porous silicon [13,14]; invoking alloy-induced luminescence [15,16]; and the method of low-symmetry allotropes of silicon [17–19], and diamondlike (III-V)-Si alloys [20,21]. Lack of fundamental understanding of the mechanism controlling the indirect band-gap nature of Si might be the main reason for the difficulty of developing Si-based direct band-gap materials.

Here, we reveal that the occupied cation d bands, which were neglected in previous models of the TB approach [5–10], play a prime role in forming the direct band gap of semiconductors via the *s*-*d* and *p*-*d* couplings. These couplings repel

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FIG. 1. (a) Fundamental band gaps of group II-VI, group III-V, and group IV semiconductors as a function of their lattice constants *a*. Filled symbols represent direct band-gap semiconductors and open symbols indirect band-gap semiconductors. On the other hand, the squares indicate the group IV semiconductors, the circles group III-V semiconductors, and the triangles group II-VI semiconductors. (b) The energy difference between levels of the CB X valley and Γ valley as a function of the energy of the cation *d* bands (relative to the VBM) for semiconductors consisting of cations having occupied *d* orbitals.

the conduction band energy levels of the X and L valleys up but leave the Γ valley intact. From group IV through group III-V to group II-VI semiconductors, the occupied cation *d* orbitals become closer in energy to the anion *s* and *p* orbitals, leading the *s*-*d* and *p*-*d* coupling to be strongest in group II-VI semiconductors, and hence all their band gaps are direct. Either the lack of, or the low-lying position of, the occupied *d* orbitals in cations of diamond, Si, Ge, and Al-containing group III-V semiconductors is responsible for their nature of indirect band gap.

II. COMPUTATIONAL APPROACH

In this study, electronic structures are calculated utilizing density functional theory (DFT) [22-24] based first-principles methods within the general gradient approximation (GGA) [25] implemented in the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) [26]. In the DFT calculations of conventional semiconductors, The projector augmented wave (PAW) pseudopotential [27,28] and Perdew, Burke, and Ernzerhof (PBE) functional [25] are employed with a plane-wave expansion up to 400 eV and a Γ -centered 8 \times 8 \times 8 Monkhorst-Pack [29] k mesh for the Brillouin zone sampling. Without shifting the qualitative results, we use the experiment lattice constants [30–32] for our models. To accurately reproduce the experimental results of band structures of conventional semiconductors, a modified Becke and Johnson exchange potential (mBJ) method [33] is adopted to improve the GGA description of band structures, which yields a comparable accuracy to GW methods but is computationally in expensive compared with standard DFT calculations. To investigate the role of occupied d orbitals, we explicitly treat the occupied d shell of elements by considering them as valence states in the calculations. The obtained band gaps [see Fig. 1(a)] are in excellent agreement with experimental results. We employ the GGA + U method [34] to artificially tune the energy position of occupied d orbitals in semiconductors. Within this method, the energy level of the semicore d shell of cations can be tuned

by the on-site Coulomb interaction parameter U. This enables us to straightforwardly investigate the effect of cation d levels on the band edge states and further the band-gap properties.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. All direct band-gap semiconductors possessing occupied cation *d* orbitals

We at first examine the nature of band gaps of all conventional group IV elemental, and group III-V and group II-VI compound semiconductors, which are the semiconductors of practical interest for information technology [2,4,35]. Figure 1 shows that all group II-VI compound semiconductors and the majority of group III-V compound semiconductors, except Al-containing compounds and GaP, have a direct band gap, whereas all group IV elemental materials, except gray Sn, are indirect band gap [35,36]. We note that the cations of all group II elements (Zn, Cd, and Hg), group III elements Ga and In, and group IV elements Ge and Sn contain occupied d orbitals, which, however, are absent in the remaining group III element Al and group IV elements C and Si. Because cation elements of all direct band-gap semiconductors encompass occupied d orbitals, whereas all semiconductors made of cations without occupied d orbitals have indirect band gaps, it strongly suggests that the occupied cationic d orbitals play a central role in determining the directness of the band gap for conventional semiconductors. However, the filled d shells, if they exist, are often treated as core or semicore shells and are usually neglected in the description of the band structures for conventional semiconductors in early studies [6-11]. To uncover the role of the cationic d orbitals in the formation of bands, we carried out the theoretical analysis of the band structures of diamond elements and zinc-blende (ZB) compounds relying on the perturbation theory along with the symmetry analysis. For simplicity, here we study only the band structures of compounds in the zinc-blende structure, even for GaN and ZnO, which prefer to be in the hexagonal wurtzite (WZ) structure under ambient conditions. The relationship

TABLE I. The point group of the wave vector at the Γ , X, and L points in the zinc-blende structure and the corresponding irreducible representations of atomic s, p, and d orbitals as well as semiconductor conduction (CBE) and valence (VBE) band edges under these point groups.

k Point	$G\left(k\right)$	$\mathrm{CBE}\left(k\right)$	$\operatorname{VBE}\left(k\right)$	S	р	d
Г	T_d	Γ_1	Γ_{15}	Γ_1	Γ_{15}	$\Gamma_{15} \oplus \Gamma_{12}$
X	D_{2d}	X_1 or X_3	X_5	X_1	$X_3 \oplus X_5$	$X_1 \oplus X_2 \oplus X_3 \oplus X_5$
L	C_{3v}	L_1	L_3	L_1	$L_1 \oplus L_3$	$L_1 \oplus L_3 \oplus L_3$

between the band gaps of ZB and WZ structures are well studied [37]. For example, if the band gap is direct in the ZB structure, such as for GaN and ZnO, it is also direct in the WZ structure; if the band gap is indirect in the ZB structure, such as for AlN, it could still be direct in the WZ structure. Because the ZB X and L points fold to the same U points in the WZ structure, the eigenvalues at the U points in the WZ structure are the average of the ZB states at X and L. Such average raises the conduction band valley at the U points to higher than that at Γ and thus makes WZ AlN direct band gap [37].

B. Symmetry enforced s-d and p-d coupling

The relative energy positions between the Γ valley, X valley, and L valley in the lowest conduction band determine the direct or indirect nature of the band gap in ZB semiconductors since the VBM occurs exclusively at the Γ point in all group II-VI, group III-V, and group IV semiconductors. As given in Table I [38], in the zinc-blende structure, the CB edge at the Γ point (Γ valley) transforms according to the Γ_1 irreducible representation, the VB edge transforms according to the Γ_{15} irreducible representation, and the atomic d orbitals belong to the Γ_{15} and Γ_{12} , respectively. Since the *d* orbitals have the same Γ_{15} irreducible representation as the *p*-like VB edge state, the coupling between p and d orbitals at the Γ point could be quite significant. However, the s-d coupling is forbidden because the atomic d orbitals have no common irreducible representations with the *s*-like CB Γ -valley state. Therefore, the existence of the occupied d orbitals will have a significant influence on the formation of the band gap by pushing the VBM up and leaving the CB Γ valley intact. The CB edge at the X point (X valley) transforms according to the X_1 (or X_3) irreducible representation of the D_{2d} wave-vector group, and is mainly derived from atomic s and p orbitals, whereas five d orbitals belong to the X_1 , X_2 , X_3 , and X_5 irreducible representations, respectively. Therefore, at the Xpoint, the d orbital state can couple to the CB X valley. The mostly s-like CB edge at the L point (L valley) has the L_1 representation of the C_{3v} wave-vector group, whereas the five d orbitals belong to the L_1 and two L_3 representations, respectively. Same as the X point, the d orbital state can couple to the CB L valley. Subsequently, the existence of the occupied dorbitals will repel the CB X valley and L valley up due to the symmetry allowed s-d coupling and p-d coupling at the X and L points, but will not affect the CB Γ valley owing to its lack of atomic p orbitals plus symmetry forbidden s-d coupling at the Γ point (see Appendix C for diamond structure). Such s-d coupling at the X and L points is evidenced by the fact that,



FIG. 2. Band structure of GaAs and the varying of its band edge levels as a function of the energy position of the Ga 3*d* bands. (a) The band structure of GaAs calculated using the mBJ-GGA approach. (b) The varying of the band edge levels of the CB Γ , *X*, and *L* valleys and VBM as pulling the Ga 3*d* bands down through increasing the applied on-site Coulomb *U* on the Ga 3*d* orbitals relying on the mBJ-GGA approach. The vertical arrow indicates the transition between direct and indirect band gap because of the crossing between the Γ valley and the *L* valley. Inset of (b) summarizes the atomic orbital components of GaAs band edges at U = 0 projected to spheres around each atom.

due to the low-lying *s* orbital energy of nitrogen, the *s*-*d* coupling away from the Γ point is so strong in GaN and InN that leads to two *s*-like peaks observed in their photoemission near the bottom of the valence band [39]. This *s*-*d* coupling not only has significant influence on the band structure near the bottom of the valence band but should also largely affect the conduction band at both the *X* and *L* points. Unfortunately, the latter has yet to be discovered even though a remarkable amount of the *d* character was found 30 years ago in the CB *X* and *L* valleys in conventional semiconductors [40].

C. Effect of *s*-*d* and *p*-*d* coupling on conduction band edges

To illustrate the effect of the occupied d orbitals on the nature of the band gap, we examined the energy level shifting of the CB Γ , X, and L valleys caused by the s-d and p-d coupling due to the existence of the occupied d shells, which were neglected previously, as schematically shown in Fig. 2(a). We took GaAs as the prototype to demonstrate the suggested unique role of the occupied cation d orbitals (the anion dorbitals are so low in energy that it is negligible compared with the cation d orbitals). Figure 2(b) shows the first-principles calculated GaAs band structure using the density functional theory (DFT) based on the modified Becke-Johnson (mBJ) exchange potential in combination with the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) correlation (mBJ-GGA). One can see that the Ga 3d bands with narrow bandwidths occur about 15 eV below the VBM. The interaction between d bands and the *p*-like VBM via *p*-*d* coupling leads to a significant amount of the *d* character in the VBM [inset of Fig. 2(b)]. Since the TABLE II. The theoretical predicted and experimentally measured energy positions of the occupied cation d bands in conventional semiconductors. The averaged energy position of the cation d bands is referred to the VBM for each semiconductor. The experiment results are deduced from the XPS data [44] with an accuracy within 1 eV.

Group IV	Experiment or theory	Cation <i>d</i> bands (eV)								
		Ge	Sn							
	Theor.	24.67	21.57							
	Expt.	30	_							
III-V		GaP	GaAs	GaSb	InP	InAs	InSb			
	Theor.	14.51	14.78	15.04	14.12	14.34	14.57			
	Expt.	19	19	18	17	17	17			
II-VI		ZnS	ZnSe	ZnTe	CdS	CdSe	CdTe			
	Theor.	7.33	7.39	7.65	8.35	8.62	8.70			
	Expt.	10	10	11	11	12	12			

s-d and *p-d* couplings are allowed at the *X* and *L* points, the Ga 3*d* bands repel the *X* and *L* valleys up in a significant amount of energy as evidenced by the incorporation of the finite *d* component in both the X_{1c} and L_{1c} states, in addition to expected dominated *s* and *p* components, whereas the inset of Fig. 2(b) shows the vanishing of the *p* and *d* characters in the Γ_{1c} state, confirming it to be purely an antibonding state of Ga 4*s* and As 4*s* and immune to the existence of the Ga 3*d* bands.

To examine the effect of *s*-*d* and *p*-*d* coupling on the band edges, we artificially pull the Ga 3*d* bands down to modify the *s*-*d* and *p*-*d* hybridizations. An adjustable Coulomb *U* acting on Ga 3*d* orbitals is used as an effective knob to tune the energy position of Ga *d* levels by introducing Hubbard-type interactions into the DFT (DFT + *U*). This method has been widely used to correct the underestimated DFT band gaps by





FIG. 3. Chemical trends of atomic energy levels predicted by using the local density approximation (LDA).

pulling the VBM down in energy through a *p*-*d* coupling and leaving the CBM at Γ intact [41,42]. Here, we applied this method to investigate the impact of the Ga 3*d* on the energies of the CB Γ , *X*, and *L* valleys. Figure 2(b) shows the change of the energy positions of the *X* and *L* valleys, and VBM as varying the energy position of the Ga 3*d* bands, regarding the Γ valley as an ideal reference level since, to the lowest order, it is free from the change of the *d* bands. As we pull the Ga 3*d* bands down, the *X* and *L* valleys also move down in energy but in different rates, and, finally, the GaAs band gap becomes indirect, demonstrating the importance of the energy position of the occupied cation *d* bands in determining the nature of band gap unambiguously.

The energy position of the cation d bands relative to the (anion p dominated) VBM in conventional semiconductors depends mainly on the energy separation between the outermost anion p shell and the cation d shell, which decreases in the sequence of group IV, III-V, and II-VI semiconductors as shown in Fig. 3. Table II gives energy positions of the cation d bands relative to the VBM predicted by the mBJ-GGA calculations in comparison with experimental data [30-32,43] for those conventional semiconductors possessing occupied cation d orbitals. They are about -10 eV for group II-VI compounds, -18 eV for group III-V compounds, and -25 eV for group IV elemental semiconductors, respectively. Going from group IV through group III-V to group II-VI semiconductors, the shallower cation d bands lead to stronger s-d and p-dcouplings and hence larger repulsion of the X and L valleys by the low-lying occupied cation d bands. We compare the band structure for Ge, GaAs, and ZnSe with very similar lattice constants around 5.65 Å (shown in Fig. 4) and for Si, GaP, and ZnS with similar lattice constants around 5.43 Å (Fig. 5). In compared with GaAs, the enhanced *s*-*d* and *p*-*d* couplings in the group II-VI semiconductors repel the X and L valleys more and lead to the band gap being more direct, whereas in group IV Ge, the low-lying Ge 4d bands result in weak s-d and p-d couplings so that its band gap becomes indirect. In the group IV diamond and Si and Al-based group III-V semiconductors, because the cation d orbitals are above the CB edges rather than in the occupied valence bands, the s-d and *p*-*d* couplings push the CB X and L valleys down instead of repelling them up, and subsequently make their band gap indirect.



FIG. 4. Band structure of (a) Ge, (b) GaAs, and (c) ZnSe predicted by the first-principles mBJ-GGA approach without considering the spin-orbit interaction. Yellow area indicates the band gap. All energies are relative to the valence band maximum (VBM), and are set to zero. The lattice constants of Ge, GaAs, and ZnSe are very similar.

D. Effect of remaining two factors

Given that Ga possesses occupied 3d orbitals, the GaN and GaAs band gaps are, as expected, direct. However, GaP sitting in the middle between them is an indirect gap semiconductor as shown in Fig. 6. This abnormal band-gap behavior

indicates that besides the primary *s*-*d* and *p*-*d* couplings, other factors are also playing roles in determining the order of the Γ , *X*, and *L* valleys in the lowest CB. We notice that the lattice constants of zinc-blende GaN, GaP, and GaAs are 4.531, 5.451, and 5.653 Å, respectively [36]. The bond length of GaP is ~3.6% smaller than that of GaAs. Figure 6 shows



FIG. 5. Band structure of (a) Si, (b) GaP, and (c) ZnS predicted by the mBJ-GGA approach without considering the spin-orbit interaction. Yellow area indicates the band gap. All energies are relative to the valence band maximum (VBM), and are set to zero. The lattice constants of Si, GaP, and ZnS are very similar.



FIG. 6. Electronic structure of (a) GaN, (b) GaP, and (c) GaAs predicted by the mBJ-GGA approach without considering the spin-orbit interaction. Yellow area indicates the band gap. All energies are relative to the valence band maximum (VBM), and are set to zero.

that, in both GaP and GaAs, increasing the lattice constant (or expanding the volume) will raise the energy level of the X valley and lower the Γ -valley energy substantially. The L valley follows the Γ valley but at a much smaller rate and, thus, often sits in between the Γ and X valleys in conventional semiconductors. This phenomenon is owing to the X valley having a positive deformation potential and the Γ valley having a larger magnitude of negative deformation potential than that of the L valley, although both possess negative deformation potentials. If we stretch the lattice of GaP to equal to that of GaAs, the GaP band gap would become direct. On the other hand, GaAs undergoes a direct-to-indirect band-gap transition as we compress the lattice of GaAs toward that of GaP. These demonstrate that besides s-d and s-p couplings, the bond length also plays a role in determining the nature of the band gap. Semiconductors having a larger lattice prefer to become more direct in the band gap (Fig. 7).

Following the above discussion, we would expect the band gap of GaN to be indirect since the bond length of GaN is much smaller than GaP and GaAs. However, GaN is a



FIG. 7. Energies of the CB Γ , X, and L valleys relative to the VBM as a function of the change of the lattice constant in (a) GaN, (b) GaP, and (c) GaAs. Arrows indicate the experimentally measured lattice constant a_0 for each compound. The yellow areas mark the band gap becoming indirect.

classical direct gap semiconductor. Figure 7 shows that the deformation potentials of GaN are substantially different from that of GaP and GaAs; the energy level of the X valley is insensitive to the varying of the lattice constant with an inconsiderable negative deformation potential and the Γ valley drops at the same rate as that of the L valley as the lattice constant increases. AlN and InN share this exotic behavior as GaN [45]. This unusual behavior of the group III nitrides is due to nitrogen being among the most electronegative elements and much more electronegative than P and As elements. Figure 3 shows that the energy level of the N 2s is 5.94 and 5.71 eV lower than that of the P 3s and As 4s, respectively. The low-lying N 2s orbital is far away from the Ga 3s orbital leading to a weak s-s coupling in GaN according to the TB model [5] (see Appendix A for details), although it has a much smaller bond length than that of GaP and GaAs. Weak s-s coupling results in the energy level of the Γ valley, which is the antibonding state of cation s and anion s orbitals, being slightly above the Ga 3s level, and even lower than that of GaP and GaAs. Although the low-lying position of the N 2s orbital also reduces the s-p coupling and thus lowers the energy level of the X valley, the reduction in energy of the X valley is much less than the Γ valley due to the X valley having the lower bound limited by the atomic Ga 3*p* level [5]. Consequently, GaN becomes a direct band-gap semiconductor [see Fig. 1(b)]. Thus, more electronegativity in the anions will also make the band gap of the semiconductors more direct, which is most significant in semiconductors containing O or N. Our analysis above indicates that despite the size of the atoms and electronegativity of the anions being able to play some roles in determining the directness of the band gap (especially for the boundary Ga compounds which have relatively deep 3d orbitals), the coupling of the occupied cation d bands and unoccupied s, p orbitals plays the prime role in determining the band-gap nature as manifested by the indirect gap of ZB AlN.

IV. SUMMARY

In summary, we have presented a unified theory for understanding the direct or indirect nature of the band gap in group II-VI, group III-V, and group IV semiconductors unambiguously. We found that the occupied cation d bands play a prime role in forming the direct or indirect band gap of conventional semiconductors via the s-d and p-d coupling with the states of the CB X and L valleys, which remarkably pushes their energy levels up, but leaves the Γ valley unchanged. From group IV through group III-V to group II-VI semiconductors, the occupied cation d orbitals become closer in energy to the anion s and p orbitals, leading the s-d and p-d coupling to be most active in group II-VI semiconductors, and hence all their band gaps are direct. Either the lack of, or the low-lying position of, the occupied d orbitals in cations of diamond, Si, Ge, and Al-containing group III-V semiconductors explains their nature of indirect band gap. This understanding will shed light on the design of direct band-gap light-emitting materials.

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APPENDIX A: SIMPLE NEAREST-NEIGHBOR *sp*³ TB MODEL

In terms of the nearest-neighbor tight-binding approach, the formulas of the eigenvalues at the symmetry points Γ , *X*, and *L* are given as follows [5,6]:

$$E(\Gamma_1) = \frac{\varepsilon_{s^+} + \varepsilon_{s^-}}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\varepsilon_{s^+} - \varepsilon_{s^-}}{2}\right)^2 + V_{ss}},\tag{A1}$$

$$E(\Gamma_{15}) = \frac{\varepsilon_{p^+} + \varepsilon_{p^-}}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\varepsilon_{p^+} - \varepsilon_{p^-}}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{4}{3}V_{pp\sigma} + \frac{8}{3}V_{pp\pi}\right)^2},\tag{A2}$$

$$E(X_1) = \frac{\varepsilon_{s^+} + \varepsilon_{p^{-'}}}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\varepsilon_{s^+} - \varepsilon_{p^{-'}}}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{16}{3}V_{sp\sigma}^2},\tag{A3}$$

$$E(X_3) = \frac{\varepsilon_{s^-} + \varepsilon_{p^{+'}}}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\varepsilon_{s^-} - \varepsilon_{p^{+'}}}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{16}{3}V_{sp\sigma}^2},\tag{A4}$$

$$E(X_5) = \frac{\varepsilon_{p^+} + \varepsilon_{p^-}}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\varepsilon_{p^+} - \varepsilon_{p^-}}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{4}{3}V_{pp\sigma} - \frac{4}{3}V_{pp\pi}\right)^2},\tag{A5}$$

$$E(L_3) = \frac{\varepsilon_{p^{+\prime}} + \varepsilon_{p^{-\prime}}}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\varepsilon_{p^{+\prime}} - \varepsilon_{p^{-\prime}}}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{4}{3}V_{pp\sigma} + \frac{2}{3}V_{pp\pi}\right)^2},\tag{A6}$$

where V_{xx} , V_{ss} , and V_{sp} are the coupling matrix element of the interaction Hamiltonian between the atomic orbitals and are usually referred to as the overlap parameters.

$$V_{ll'm} = \eta_{ll'm} \frac{\hbar^2}{md^2},$$

$$\frac{V_{s^*p\sigma}^2}{\varepsilon_p - \varepsilon_{s^*}} = \lambda_{sp\sigma} \frac{\hbar^2}{md^2},$$
(A7)

and

with

$$\varepsilon_p - \varepsilon_s = \frac{9\pi^2}{16} \frac{\hbar^2}{md^2},\tag{A8}$$

$$\eta_{ss\sigma} = -9\pi^{2}/64, \eta_{sp\sigma} = 3\sqrt{3}\pi^{2}/64, \eta_{pp\sigma} = 3\pi^{2}/16, \eta_{pp\pi} = -3\pi^{2}/32, \lambda_{sp\sigma} = -27\pi^{2}/256.$$
(A9)

APPENDIX B: SIMPLE TIGHT-BINDING THEORY FAILS TO TELL THE ORIGIN OF INDIRECT OR DIRECT NATURE IN BAND GAP

Although semiempirical and first-principles methods are often used to calculate and reproduce the experimentally measured band structures for semiconductors, the simple nearest-neighbor tight-binding (TB) theory based on the empirical bond orbital model pioneered by Harrison [5] is more straightforward to gain insight into the formation of the band structures because of its intuitive simplicity. It is well known that if only a minimal sp^3 basis (one s orbital and three p orbitals for each atom) is used [6], this simple sp^3 TB model, where the various tight-binding matrix elements are fitted to experiment or to more elaborate calculations, does not reproduce some important band structure features. For instance, the simple sp^3 model can yield accurate valence band structures but fail in producing good conduction bands. For example, it predicts a rise in energy going from Γ to X whereas in the real case it can decrease. To remedy this deficiency, the addition of higher-lying unoccupied atomic states [7-10] is often used. In this case, atomic-site s- or d-like orbitals and bond-site "sp" orbitals were introduced ad hoc as peripheral higher-lying atomic states on top of valence atomic s and p states, but neglecting the existence of low-lying occupied atomic d orbitals in many elements such as Ga, In, Zn, and Cd, to provide a good description of the conduction bands without modifying the valence bands much [7-10]. Such ad hoc high-energy excited d orbitals and/or s orbital [8] push the lowest conduction band down at the X and L points to correct the conduction band structure by adjusting the ad hoc s or d orbital energies and corresponding tight-binding matrixes

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[7–9]. The introduction of such unphysical parameters can cure the flaw of the simple sp^3 TB model to reproduce the conduction band structures of some semiconductors, but, in our opinion, fails to uncover the origin of the direct and indirect band-gap natures of these semiconductors.

APPENDIX C: SYMMETRY CONSIDERATIONS OF ZINC-BLENDE SEMICONDUCTORS

The electronic wave functions of a crystal at the point k in reciprocal space are labeled by the irreducible representations of the symmetry group operations appropriate for k, which is known as the group of the wave vector k. The group of the **k** vector at the Γ point or zone center is always the same as the point group of the crystal that is T_d for the zinc-blende structure [2,38], whereas the group of the k vector at the L point is reduced to C_{3v} and at the X point to D_{2d} in the zinc-blende structure [2]. It is well known that in the zincblende semiconductors the VBM, which is always at the Γ point and composed mostly of anion p orbitals, belongs to the Γ_{15} irreducible representation of the T_d group. Here, we use single group representation since the spin-orbit coupling does not affect the directness of the band gap very much. The electronic state of the lowest CB at the Γ point belongs to Γ_1 and is dominated by cation s orbitals. At the X point, it could be either the X_1 state, which is a hybridization of cation s and anion p orbitals or the X_3 state, which is a hybridization of cation p and anion s orbitals (here, we use the anion site as the origin [46]; for simplicity, we will use the X_1 state in our discussion below). At the L point, it is the L_1 state arising from the admixture of cation s and anion p orbitals as well as cation p and anion s orbitals.

At the Γ point, the atomic *d* orbitals belong to Γ_{15} and Γ_{12} , respectively, and thus have the same Γ_{15} irreducible representation as the *p*-like VB edge state; the coupling between *p* and d orbitals at the Γ point could be quite significant. However, the s-d coupling is forbidden because the atomic d orbitals have no common irreducible representations with the s-like CB Γ -valley state. Therefore, the existence of the occupied d orbitals will have a significant influence on the formation of the band gap by pushing the VBM up and leaving the CB Γ -valley intact. At the X point, five d orbitals belong to the X_1, X_2, X_3 , and X_5 irreducible representations, respectively, and, therefore, can couple to the CB X valley. At the L point, five d orbitals belong to L_1 and two L_3 , respectively, and same as the X point, the d orbital state can couple to the CB L valley. It should be noted that for the diamond structure of the group IV elements, the group symmetry is O_h , different from the T_d point group of the zinc-blende structure. This could affect the coupling between the p and d orbitals. However, since these group IV elements in general have no occupied dorbitals—or if they have occupied d orbitals, they are deep—it would not affect our analysis if we treat them as materials with the reduced T_d symmetry group.

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