# Deposition, diffusion, and nucleation on an interval

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Joint work with Nicholas Georgiou

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### Thin films and nano-structures

Ultra-thin films are of interest in physics, chemistry, and materials science.

Examples of applications include:

- lasers, optical detectors, nano-scale photonics;
- semiconductor nano-structures, quantum confined systems, nano-scale electronics;

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• recording heads, nano-scale magnetic devices.

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Thin films are often constructed via deposition of particles (adatoms) on a substrate, either using vapour or cathodic sputtering, and surface binding may be chemical (chemisorption) or physical (physisorption). Under certain conditions (Volmer–Weber dynamics), surface adatoms can diffuse until local binding conditions are such that nucleation occurs.

## Thin films and nano-structures

At early stages of deposition, structures may look like:





'Islands' after deposition, seen under an electron microscope: silver (left) and iron (right) HARTIG *et al.* (1978); STROSCIO & PIERCE *et al.* (1994)

Mathematical modelling of deposition and nucleation is important for understanding and design of nano-materials.

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Particles are deposited onto a substrate and undergo diffusion until sufficiently many particles come close together, when they nucleate to form a static island. Islands act as absorbing barriers for subsequent particles.

In the early stages, it is reasonable to ignore the spatial extent of islands. As time goes on, more islands form by nucleation, and islands grow by the accumulation of captured particles. Eventually, growing islands will coalesce into larger structures.

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Here we discuss a one-dimensional model for the early-stage dynamics, with binary nucleation and point islands.

Formulating microscopic stochastic models for submonolayer deposition and growth processes goes back several decades in the applied literature, see especially:

- A. MICHAELS, G. POUND & F. ABRAHAM (1974),
- M. BARTELT & J. EVANS (1992),
- J. BLACKMAN & P. MULHERAN (1996).

Various approaches for analysis of these models, including Monte Carlo, as well as several different theoretical approaches, e.g.

- M. GRINFELD, W. LAMB, K. O'NEILL & P. MULHERAN (2012),
- J. BLACKMAN, M. GRINFELD & P. MULHERAN (2015),

but no previous work in the probability literature, as far as we are aware.

#### Acknowledgement

We learned about these interesting processes from Michael Grinfeld and Paul Mulheran.

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Deposition. Active particles are deposited on [0, 1] according to a space-time Poisson process on  $[0, 1] \times \mathbb{R}_+$  with intensity  $\lambda > 0$ . I.e., Independent  $\text{Exp}(\lambda)$  times between deposition events; locations are independent Unif[0, 1].

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Diffusion and nucleation. Each active particle performs independent Brownian motion until either (i) it is captured by an existing island, or (ii) it meets another active particle, in which case the two colliding particles nucleate to create a new island. In either case, the particle is no longer active.



Initially: Islands at 0 and 1, no active particles.

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After an  $\text{Exp}(\lambda)$  random time, first active particle arrives at a uniform random location.

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Active particle performs Brownian motion. If it hits an existing island, it is captured.



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Question: How does the partition of the interval evolve?

This is a continuum analogue of a model considered in the applied literature by BARTELT & EVANS (1992) and BLACKMAN & MULHERAN (1996).

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We have two main results:

(1) Sparse deposition. In the  $\lambda \to 0$  limit, the process  $Z_n$  converges to a certain Markovian interval-splitting process.

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Why? For large times, there are many islands and so gaps are small. This increases the relative rate of capture by existing islands, and has a similar effect as driving  $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ .

# Outline

#### 1 Introduction

#### 2 Main results

- 3 Sparse deposition
- 4 Exit from a triangle
- 5 Fixed deposition
- 6 Splitting density

#### 7 Final remarks

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#### Introduction

2 Main results

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At each step:

 Choose randomly one of the current intervals, with an interval of length *l* chosen with probability proportional to *l<sup>α</sup>*.

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 Split the chosen interval into two new intervals by inserting a point at a relative location drawn from distribution Φ.

Two parameters: splitting exponent  $\alpha$  and splitting distribution  $\Phi$  on [0, 1].



A configuration of intervals.

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Select the next interval to split with probability proportional to  $\ell^{\alpha}$  ( $\ell$  = length).

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Choose the point to split at relative location  $V \sim \Phi$  in the chosen interval.

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Choose the point to split at relative location  $V \sim \Phi$  in the chosen interval.

Models of this type were studied by BRENNAN & DURRETT (1986–7). The case where  $\Phi$  is uniform is uniform splitting, which if  $\alpha = 1$  gives a Dirichlet process and  $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$  gives the Kakutani process.

Two parameters: splitting exponent  $\alpha$  and splitting distribution  $\Phi$  on [0, 1].

The process that's going to be relevant for our nucleation process has  $\alpha = 4$  and  $\Phi = \Phi_0$  where

$$\Phi_0(B) = \frac{1}{\mu} \int_B \psi(z) \mathrm{d}z,$$

with

$$\psi(z) := rac{24}{\pi^4} \sum_{n ext{ odd}} \left(rac{4}{n^4} ext{tanh}\left(rac{n\pi}{2}
ight) - rac{\pi}{n^3}
ight) \sin(n\pi z),$$

and

$$\mu := \int_0^1 \psi(z) \mathrm{d}z = \frac{48}{\pi^5} \sum_{n \text{ odd}} \frac{\operatorname{sech}^2(\frac{n\pi}{2})}{n^4} \approx 0.07826895.$$

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Recall that  $Z_n$  is the vector of island locations, listed left to right, at the time  $\nu_n$  of the *n* nucleation.

Theorem As  $\lambda \to 0$ , the process  $Z_n$  converges, in the sense of total-variation convergence of finite-dimensional distributions, to an interval-splitting process with parameters  $\alpha = 4$  and  $\Phi = \Phi_0$ .



Remarks: It turns out that  $\psi$  is twice continuously differentiable, and  $\psi(z) \sim 3z^2$  as  $z \to 0$ .



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The Fourier series for  $\psi$  converges slowly; a different representation related to the Clausen function yields better numerical approximation.



Plot of  $\Phi_0$  with simulation

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Earlier work argued for a Beta(3,3) splitting distribution.

Heuristic: For fixed  $\lambda$ , consider large time. Then gaps are small, which is, effectively, the same as sending  $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ . Smaller gaps = faster capture by existing islands = lower density of active particles. (A precise version of this statement is given via a scaling relation later on.)

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One can make a formal coupling statement. Roughly, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  we can find  $n_0$  sufficiently large so that one can successfully couple, with probability at least  $1 - \varepsilon$ , the fixed- $\lambda$  process run from  $n \ge n_0$  with the  $\Phi_0$  Markovian interval-splitting process, started from the same initial configuration.

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One implication of this result is that certain long-time statistics of the fixed- $\lambda$  process can be described purely via the  $\Phi_0$  Markovian interval-splitting process.

Let  $(L_{n,1}, \ldots, L_{n,n+1})$  be the gap lengths at the time  $\nu_n$  of the *n*th nucleation. For  $U_n$  uniform on  $\{1, 2, \ldots, n+1\}$ , set

$$\tilde{L}_n = \frac{L_{n,U_n}}{\mathbb{E} L_{n,U_n}} = (n+1)L_{n,U_n},$$

the length of a randomly-chosen gap, normalized to mean 1.

#### Theorem

Let  $\lambda > 0$ . There exists a continuous density  $g_0$  on  $\mathbb{R}_+$  such that  $r^{\chi}$ 

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\mathbb{P}\left(\tilde{L}_n\leq x\right)=\int_0^\infty g_0(y)dy,\ x\in\mathbb{R}_+.$$

Moreover, for constants  $c_0, c_{\infty}, \theta \in (0, \infty)$ ,

$$g_0(x) \sim c_0 x^2 \ (x \to 0), \ g_0(x) \sim rac{c_\infty}{x^2} \exp(-\theta x^4) \ (x \to \infty).$$

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$$\sigma_k := \inf\{t > \eta_{k-1} : A_t = 1\}, \ \eta_k := \inf\{t > \sigma_k : A_t = 0\}.$$



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Call time interval  $[\sigma_k, \eta_k]$  the *k*th cycle. Up until the first nucleation, cycles are i.i.d.

Generalize the model to an interval  $[0, \ell]$ . For  $B \subseteq [0, 1]$ , let

 $u(\ell, \lambda; B) = \mathbb{P}\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{nucleation occurs on first cycle} \\ \text{and at a point in set } \ell B \end{array}\right).$ 

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The proof of the  $\lambda \rightarrow 0$  result needs two further elements:

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$$u(\mathbf{1}, \lambda; \mathbf{B}) \sim \lambda \mu \Phi_0(\mathbf{B}), \text{ as } \lambda \to \mathbf{0}.$$

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These two combine to give the many-interval asymptotics.

Consider a configuration like this, with some islands (blue) but no active particles.



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Probability of nucleation occurring in the indicated interval during the first cycle at relative location in *B* is

 $\ell \cdot \nu(\ell, \lambda; B) + \text{error term},$ 

where the main term comes from the first arrival being in the desired interval, and the error term from nucleation occurring in an interval other than that containing the first arrival.



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By scaling and single-interval asymptotics, this is about

 $\ell \cdot \nu(\mathbf{1}, \ell^3 \lambda; B) \sim \ell^4 \lambda \mu \Phi_0(B), \text{ as } \lambda \to 0.$ 

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Regeneration implies that the probability of the next nucleation occurring here is proportional to the first-cycle probability.

# Scaling

Recall that for the model started from empty interval  $[0, \ell]$ ,

$$u(\ell, \lambda; B) = \mathbb{P} \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{nucleation occurs on first cycle} \\ \text{and at a point in set } \ell B \end{array} \right)$$

Lemma We have  $\nu(\ell, \lambda; B) = \nu(1, \ell^3 \lambda; B)$ .

#### Proof.

Follows from the scaling/mapping properties of the Poisson process and Brownian motion.



On interval [0, 1],  $\nu(1, \lambda; B) = \mathbb{P} \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{nucleation occurs on first cycle} \\ \text{and at a point in set } B \end{array} \right).$ 

#### Lemma

$$u(\mathbf{1}, \lambda; \mathbf{B}) \sim \lambda \mu \Phi_0(\mathbf{B}), \text{ as } \lambda \to \mathbf{0}.$$

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#### Lemma

$$u(\mathbf{1}, \lambda; \mathbf{B}) \sim \lambda \mu \Phi_0(\mathbf{B}), \ \mathbf{as} \ \lambda \to \mathbf{0}.$$

#### Proof.

Claim that the following mechanism has probability of order  $\lambda$ :

- The first particle arrives at a uniform random location x.
- The second particle arrives at an exponential random time *t* at a uniform random location *z*.
- The first particle has not been captured by time *t*, and at time *t* is at location *y*.
- The two particles started from *y* and *z* collide in *B* before either hits the boundary.

Proof (cont.)

The following mechanism has probability of order  $\lambda$ :

- first particle arrives at x;
- second particle arrives time t later at location z;
- first particle survives and at time t is at location y;
- particles started from *y* and *z* collide in *B* before capture.



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Proof (cont.) For  $b_t$  BM on [0, 1] set  $\tau = \inf\{t \in \mathbb{R}_+ : b_t \in \{0, 1\}\},\$ and for  $x, y \in [0, 1]$  and  $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$  the defective density  $q_t(x, y) =$  $\frac{\mathbb{P}_x(\tau > t, b_t \in [y, y + dy])}{dv}$ For  $y, z \in [0, 1]$  set H(y, z; B) = $\mathbb{P}\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{BMs started at } y, z \text{ meet} \\ \text{in } B \text{ before either hits } \{0, 1\} \end{array}\right).$ 

 $\nu_1$  $\sigma_1 + t$  $\sigma_1$ Ó x v z

Then, the probability of nucleation happening as described is

$$\int_0^1 \mathrm{d}x \int_0^1 \mathrm{d}z \int_0^\infty \mathrm{d}t \int_0^1 \lambda e^{-\lambda t} q_t(x, y) H(y, z; B) \mathrm{d}y.$$

#### Proof (cont.)

The probability of nucleation happening as described is

$$\int_0^1 dx \int_0^1 dz \int_0^\infty dt \int_0^1 \lambda e^{-\lambda t} q_t(x, y) H(y, z; B) dy$$
  
$$\sim \lambda \int_0^1 dx \int_0^1 dz \int_0^\infty dt \int_0^1 q_t(x, y) H(y, z; B) dy$$
  
$$=: \lambda \Phi_1(B).$$

All other mechanisms require two arrivals after the first, giving  $o(\lambda)$  contributions.

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Final step: must show  $\Phi_1(B) = \mu \Phi_0(B)$ .

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#### 3 Sparse deposition

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#### **5** Fixed deposition

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#### Exit from a triangle

Recall we want to compute

$$\Phi_1(B) = \int_0^1 dx \int_0^1 dz \int_0^\infty dt \int_0^1 q_t(x, y) H(y, z; B) dy,$$

where (e.g. BORODIN & SALMINEN, 2002)

$$q_t(x,y) = 2\sum_{m\in\mathbb{N}} \exp\left(-\frac{m^2\pi^2 t}{2}\right) \sin(m\pi x) \sin(m\pi y),$$

and

H(y, z; B)

 $= \mathbb{P}(BMs \text{ started at } y, z \text{ meet in } B \text{ before either hits } \{0, 1\})$ 

 $= \mathbb{P}$  (Planar BM exits right-angle triangle via diagonal in  $B \times B$ ).

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#### Exit from a triangle

H(y, z; B)

- $= \mathbb{P}(BMs \text{ started at } y, z \text{ meet in } B \text{ before either hits } \{0, 1\})$
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# Exit from a triangle

# Theorem WLOG suppose u > v. Then

$$H(u, v; B) = \int_B h\left(\frac{u+v}{2}, \frac{u-v}{2}, w\right) dw,$$

where

$$h(x, y, z) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{2 \sin(n\pi(1-z))}{\sinh n\pi} (s_n(x, y) + s_n(1-x, 1-y) - s_n(y, x) - s_n(1-y, 1-x)),$$

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and  $s_n(x, y) = \sin(n\pi x) \sinh(n\pi y)$ .

Extends SMITH & WATSON (1967).

#### Proof. Method of images for the Dirichlet problem.
## Sparse deposition: proof conclusion

We have

$$\Phi_1(B) = \int_0^1 \mathrm{d}x \int_0^1 \mathrm{d}z \int_0^\infty \mathrm{d}t \int_0^1 q_t(x, y) H(y, z; B) \mathrm{d}y,$$

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where we know the explicit infinite-series formulae for  $q_t(x, y)$  and H(y, z; B).

## Sparse deposition: proof conclusion

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After some work...

## Sparse deposition: proof conclusion

We have

$$\Phi_1(B) = \int_0^1 dx \int_0^1 dz \int_0^\infty dt \int_0^1 q_t(x, y) H(y, z; B) dy,$$

where we know the explicit infinite-series formulae for  $q_t(x, y)$  and H(y, z; B).

After some work... we get  $\Phi_1(B) = \mu \Phi_0(B)$ , where, as claimed earlier,  $\Phi_0(B) = \frac{1}{\mu} \int_B \psi(z) dz$ ,

with  $\psi$  the defective density

$$\psi(z) := \frac{24}{\pi^4} \sum_{n \text{ odd}} \left(\frac{4}{n^4} \tanh\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right) - \frac{\pi}{n^3}\right) \sin(n\pi z)$$

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having total mass  $\mu$ .

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We've presented the outline of the proof as  $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ .

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For fixed  $\lambda$ , note that for large times, gaps are small. The scaling relation shows that small gaps has the same effect as small  $\lambda$ .

Idea: For large times, the fixed- $\lambda$  process should be well-approximated by the  $\lambda \rightarrow 0$  interval-splitting process. So large-time statistics of the nucleation process should be described by the large-time statistics of the interval-splitting process.

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To follow through this idea needs (i) more work on the preceding estimates, to get more quantitative bounds; and (ii) extension of work of BRENNAN & DURRETT on interval-splitting processes to get good asymptotics for the limiting normalized gap distribution.

One element in the proof is to extend work of BRENNAN & DURRETT on limiting gap statistics for interval-splitting processes.

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One element in the proof is to extend work of BRENNAN & DURRETT on limiting gap statistics for interval-splitting processes.

Consider a general interval-splitting process with splitting exponent  $\alpha > 0$  and splitting distribution  $\Phi$  with a symmetric density  $\phi$  on [0, 1] satisfying  $\phi(x) \sim bx^{\beta}$  as  $x \to 0$ , for  $\beta \ge 0$ .

BRENNAN & DURRETT obtained a characterization of the limiting distribution of a randomly selected gap via a distributional fixed-point equation. Building on this analysis, we obtain asymptotics for the limiting gap distribution.

Splitting exponent  $\alpha > 0$  and splitting distribution  $\Phi$  with a symmetric density  $\phi$  on [0, 1] satisfying  $\phi(x) \sim bx^{\beta}$  as  $x \to 0$ , for  $\beta \ge 0$ .

### Theorem

The distribution of a randomly selected gap, normalized to have unit mean, in the interval-splitting process converges to a distribution on  $\mathbb{R}_+$  with density g.

There exist  $c_0, c_{\infty}, \theta > 0$  such that  $g(x) \sim c_0 x^{\beta}$ ,  $(x \to 0)$ , and, as  $x \to \infty$ ,  $(c_0, x^{2b-2} \exp(-\theta x^{\alpha}))$  if  $\theta = 0$ .

$$g(x) \sim \begin{cases} c_{\infty} x^{-2} \exp(-\theta x^{\alpha}) & \text{if } \beta = 0; \\ c_{\infty} x^{-2} \exp(-\theta x^{\alpha}) & \text{if } \beta > 0. \end{cases}$$

For the interval-splitting processes associated with our nucleation process,  $\alpha = 4$  and  $\beta = 2$ .

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A key character in our results is  $\Phi_0(B) = \frac{1}{\mu} \int_B \psi(z) dz$ , where

$$\psi(z) := \frac{24}{\pi^4} \sum_{n \text{ odd}} \left( \frac{4}{n^4} \tanh\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right) - \frac{\pi}{n^3} \right) \sin(n\pi z);$$
$$\mu := \int_0^1 \psi(z) dz = \frac{48}{\pi^5} \sum_{n \text{ odd}} \frac{\operatorname{sech}^2(\frac{n\pi}{2})}{n^4} \approx 0.07826895.$$

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The second equality here is a consequence of the identity

$$4\sum_{n \text{ odd}} \frac{\tanh(n\pi/2)}{n^5} = \frac{\pi^5}{96} + \pi \sum_{n \text{ odd}} \frac{\operatorname{sech}^2(n\pi/2)}{n^4}$$

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The first few moments of  $\Phi_0$  are  $m_1 = 1/2$ ,  $m_2 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{60\mu}$ ,

$$m_3 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{40\mu}$$
, and  $m_4 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{11}{280\mu} + \frac{576}{\mu\pi^8} \sum_{n \text{ odd}} \frac{\operatorname{sech}^2(n\pi/2)}{n^8}$ .

An alternative series representation for  $\psi,$  better for numerical calculation, is

$$\psi(x) = \frac{84}{\pi^3} x \zeta(3) + \frac{8}{\pi} x^3 \log(\pi x) - \frac{8}{\pi} \left(\frac{11}{6} + \log 2\right) x^3 - 3x(1-x) + 48\pi x^5 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{|B(2n+2)| (2^{2n+1}-1)}{(n+1)(2n+5)!} \pi^{2n} x^{2n} - \frac{96}{\pi^4} \sum_{n \text{ odd}} \frac{d_n}{n^4} \sin n\pi x, \ (0 \le x < 1),$$

where  $d_n = 1 - \tanh \frac{n\pi}{2}$  has  $0 < d_n < 2e^{-n\pi}$ , and  $B(2\ell)$  are the Bernoulli numbers.

This comes from classical series expansions for the Clausen function and its relatives, such as

$$\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\frac{\sin nx}{n^k}, \text{ and } \sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\frac{\cos nx}{n^k}.$$

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• Nucleation threshold 3, 4, ...?

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- Nucleation threshold 3,4,...?
- May need to introduce interaction radius/size effects.

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- Nucleation threshold 3,4,...?
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# Thank you!

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