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3.23 Electrical, Optical, and Magnetic Properties of Materials Fall 2007

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3.23 Fall 2007 – Lecture 7 ONE BLOCH AT A TIME

Last time

- 1. Vector space (expectation values measure the projection on different eigenvectors)
- 2. Eigenvalues and eigenstates as a linear algebra problem
- 3. Variational principle
- 4. Its application to a H atom (atomic units)
- Hamiltonian for a molecular system; bonding and antibonding states
- 6. Potential energy surface of a molecule
- 7. Vibrations at equilibrium; quantum harmonic oscillator

Study

 Chapter 2 of Singleton textbook – "Band theory and electronic properties of solids"

Dynamics, Lagrangian style

- First construct L=T-V
- Then, the equations of motion are given by

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_{j}} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_{j}} = 0$$
 (the dot is a time derivative)

 Why? We can use generalized coordinates. Also, we only need to think at the two scalar functions T and V

Newton's second law, too

• 1-d, 1 particle: T=1/2 mv², V=V(x)

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_j} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_j} = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial \left(\frac{1}{2} m \dot{x}^2 \right)}{\partial \dot{x}} \right) + \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{d}{dt} (m \dot{x}) = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial x}$$

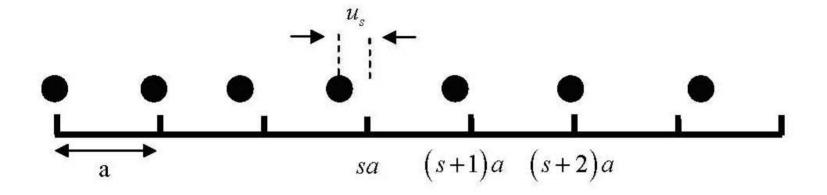
Hamiltonian

 We could use it to derive Hamiltonian dynamics (twice the number of differential equations, but all first order).
 We introduce a Legendre transformation

$$p_{i} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_{i}} \qquad H(q, p, t) = \sum_{i} \dot{q}_{i} p_{i} - L(q, \dot{q}, t)$$

$$\dot{q}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} \qquad -\dot{p}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i}$$

1-dimensional monoatomic chain



Properties

• Unique solutions for k in the first BZ u_{s+1}

Phase velocity and group velocity

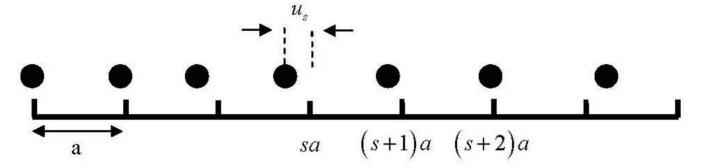
Properties

Standing waves

Long wavelength limit

Ring geometry

1-dimensional diatomic chain



III. Equations of motion

$$M \frac{d^{2}u_{1,s}}{dt^{2}} = K\left(u_{2,s} - u_{1,s}\right) + G\left(u_{2,s-1} - u_{1,s}\right)$$
$$M \frac{d^{2}u_{2,s}}{dt^{2}} = K\left(u_{1,s} - u_{2,s}\right) + G\left(u_{1,s+1} - u_{2,s}\right)$$

IV. Solutions

$$u_{1s} = u_1 e^{iksa} e^{-i\omega t}, \ u_{2s} = u_2 e^{iksa} e^{-i\omega t}$$

V. Dispersion relations

$$(M\omega^{2} - (K+G))u_{1} + (K+Ge^{-ika})u_{2} = 0$$
$$(K+Ge^{ika})u_{1} + (M\omega^{2} - (K+G))u_{2} = 0$$

The homogenous linear equations have a solution only if the determinant of the coefficients is zero:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \left(M\omega^{2} - (K+G)\right) & \left(K+Ge^{-ika}\right) \\ \left(K+Ge^{ika}\right) & \left(M\omega^{2} - (K+G)\right) \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

with solutions:

$$\omega^{2} = \frac{K+G}{M} \pm \frac{1}{M} \sqrt{K^{2} + G^{2} + 2KG\cos ka}$$

$$\frac{u_{1}}{u_{2}} = \mp \frac{K+Ge^{-ika}}{\left|K+Ge^{ika}\right|}$$

for each k there are two solutions which are called the two branches of the dispersion curves.

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Please see Fig. 22.10 in Ashcroft, Neil W., and N. David Mermin. Solid State Physics. Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole, 1976. ISBN: 9780030839931.

Translational Symmetry

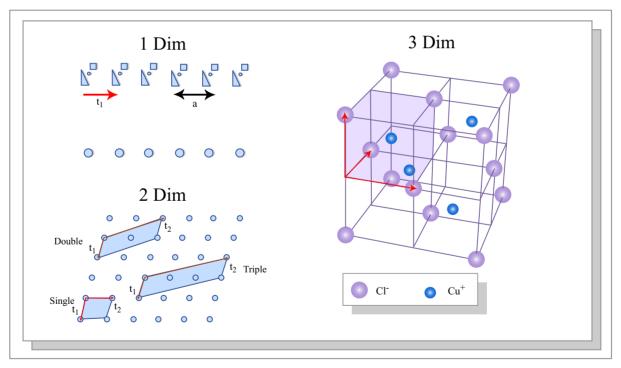


Figure by MIT OpenCourseWare.

Bravais Lattices

 Infinite array of points with an arrangement and orientation that appears exactly the same regardless of the point from which the array is viewed.

$$\vec{R} = l\vec{a}_1 + m\vec{a}_2 + n\vec{a}_3$$
 l,m and n integers \vec{a}_1 , \vec{a}_2 and \vec{a}_3 primitive lattice vectors

- 14 Bravais lattices exist in 3 dimensions (1848)
- M. L. Frankenheimer in 1842 thought they were 15. So, so naïve...

7 Crystal Classes

Bravais lattices

4 Lattice Types

Bravais Lattice	Parameters	Simple (P)	Volume Centered (I)	Base Centered (C)	Face Centered (F)
Triclinic	$a_1 \neq a_2 \neq a_3$ $\alpha_{12} \neq \alpha_{23} \neq \alpha_{31}$				
Monoclinic	$a_{1} \neq a_{2} \neq a_{3}$ $\alpha_{23} = \alpha_{31} = 90^{0}$ $\alpha_{12} \neq 90^{0}$				
Orthorhombic	$a_{1} \neq a_{2} \neq a_{3}$ $\alpha_{12} = \alpha_{23} = \alpha_{31} = 90^{\circ}$				
Tetragonal	$a_{1} = a_{2} \neq a_{3}$ $\alpha_{12} = \alpha_{23} = \alpha_{31} = 90^{\circ}$				
Trigonal	$a_1 = a_2 = a_3$ $\alpha_{12} = \alpha_{23} = \alpha_{31} < 120^{\circ}$				
Cubic	$a_1 = a_2 = a_3$ $\alpha_{12} = \alpha_{23} = \alpha_{31} = 90^{\circ}$				
Hexagonal	$a_{1} = a_{2} \neq a_{3}$ $\alpha_{12} = 120^{\circ}$ $\alpha_{23} = \alpha_{31} = 90^{\circ}$	a, a			

Symmetry

- Symmetry operations: actions that transform an object into a new but undistinguishable configuration
- Symmetry elements: geometric entities (axes, planes, points...) around which we carry out the symmetry operations

Figure 17.1b

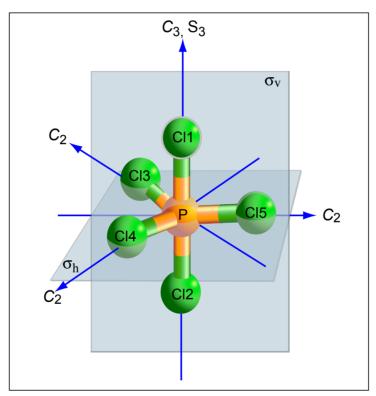


Figure by MIT OpenCourseWare.

Symmetry elements and their corresponding operations

	Symmetry elements	Symmetry operations	
Е	Identity	Е	leave molecule unchanged
C_{n}	n-Fold rotation axis	$\hat{C}_{n,\hat{C}_{n},\ldots,\hat{C}_{n}}^{2}$	rotate about axis by 360° /n 1, 2, , n times (indicated by superscript)
σ	Mirror plane	$\hat{\sigma}$	reflect through the mirror plane
i	Inversion center	î	$(x, y, z) \longrightarrow (-x, -y, -z)$
S_n	n-Fold rotation-reflection axis	$\hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\mathbf{n}}$	rotate about axis by 360°/n, and reflect through a plane perpendicular to axis.

Figure by MIT OpenCourseWare.

Group Therapy...

A group G is a finite or infinite set of elements A, B, C, D...together with an operation "\(\sigma\)" that satisfy the four properties of:

- Closure: If A and B are two elements in G, then A☼B is also in G.
- 2. Associativity: For all elements in G, (A☆B) ☆C==A☆ (B☆C).
- 3. Identity: There is an identity element I such that I☆A=A☆I=A for every element A in G.
- 4. Inverse: There is an inverse or reciprocal of each element. Therefore, the set must contain an element B=inv(A) such that A☆inv(A)=inv(A) ☆A=I for each element of G.

Examples

Integer numbers, and addition

Integer numbers, and multiplication

Real numbers, and multiplication

Rotations around an axis by 360/n

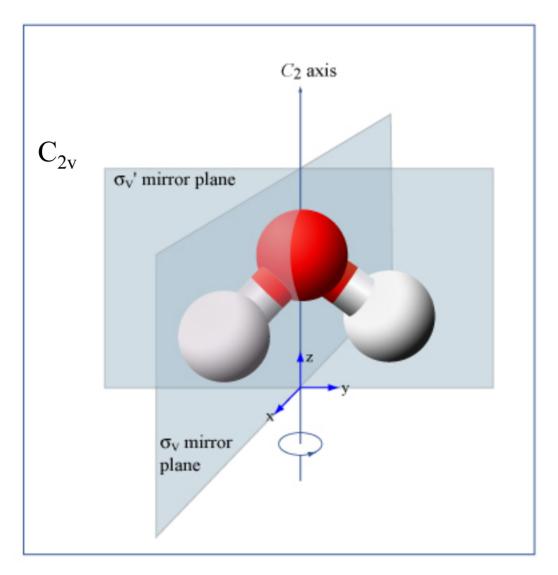
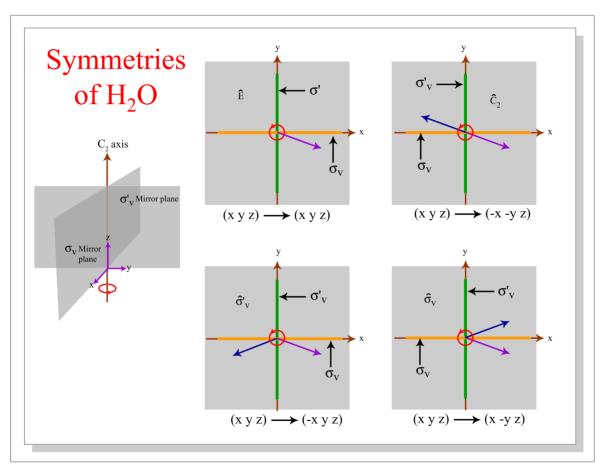


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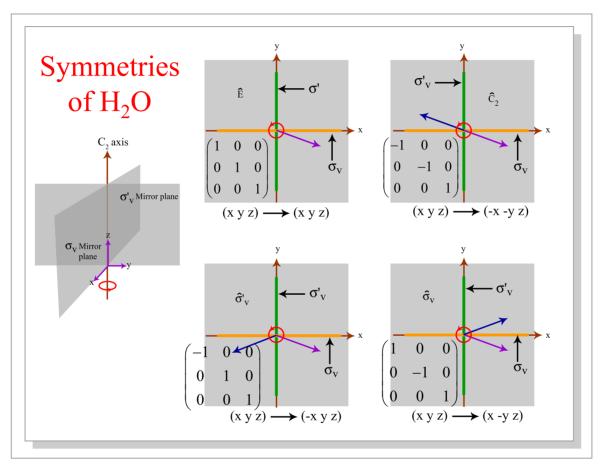


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The 4 symmetry operations of H_2O form a group (called C_{2v})

1. Closure: A B is also in G.

2. Associativity: (A☆B) ☆C=A☆ (B☆C)

3. Identity: I☆A=A☆I

4. Inverse: $A \Leftrightarrow inv(A) = inv(A) \Leftrightarrow A = I$

Second	First Operation			
Operation	Ê	\hat{C}_2	$\hat{\sigma}_{v}$	$\hat{\sigma'}_v$
Ê	$\hat{\mathrm{E}}$	$\hat{\mathrm{C}}_2$	$\hat{\sigma}_{v}$	$\hat{\sigma_v}$
\hat{C}_2	$\hat{\mathrm{C}}_2$	$\hat{\mathrm{E}}$	$\hat{\sigma'_v}$	$\stackrel{\smallfrown}{\sigma_{v}}$
$\hat{\sigma_{v}}$	$\stackrel{\smallfrown}{\sigma_{ m v}}$	$\hat{\sigma'}_v$	$\hat{ ext{E}}$	$\hat{\mathrm{C_2}}$
$\hat{\sigma'}_{v}$	$\hat{\sigma'}_{ m v}$	$\stackrel{\smallfrown}{\sigma_v}$	$\hat{\mathrm{C}}_2$	Ê

Figure by MIT OpenCourseWare.

Ten crystallographic point groups in 2d

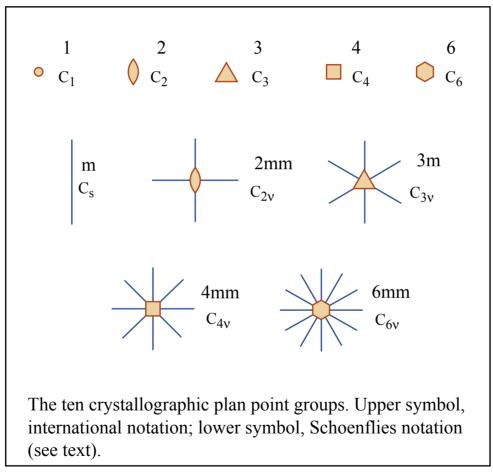


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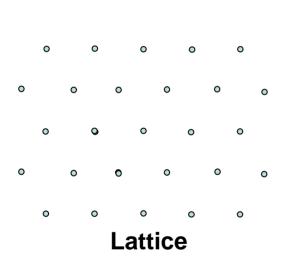
32 crystallographic point groups in 3d

Crystal System	Schoenflies Symbol	Hermann-Mauguin Symbol	Order of the group	Laue Group
Triclinic	$egin{array}{c} C_1 \ C_i \end{array}$	1 1	1	Ī
Monoclinic	C_1 C_2 C_s	2	2 2	2/m
	$C_{\rm s}$ $C_{\rm 2h}$	m 2/m	2 4	
Orthorhombic	D_2	222	4	mmm
	$egin{array}{c} C_{2v} \ D_{2h} \end{array}$	mm2 mmm	4 8	
Tetragonal	C_4	4	4	4/m
	$\overset{\mathrm{S}_{4}}{\mathrm{C}_{4\mathrm{h}}}$	$ar{4}$ $4/m$	4 8	
	D_4	422	8 8	4/ <i>m mm</i>
	$egin{array}{c} C_{4\mathrm{v}} \ D_{2\mathrm{d}} \end{array}$	4mm 42m	8 8	
	D_{2d} D_{4h}	$\frac{42m}{4/m}$ mm	16	
Trigonal	C_3	<u>3</u> 3	3 6	3
	C_{3i} D_3	32	6	$\bar{3}m$
	$\begin{array}{c} D_3 \\ C_{3v} \end{array}$	3 <i>m</i>	6	
Hexagonal	$\begin{array}{c} D_{3d} \\ C_6 \end{array}$	3 <i>m</i> 6	12 6	6/ <i>m</i>
itcaagonai	C_{3h}	$\bar{6}$	6	0/111
	C _{6h} D ₆	6/m 622	12 12	6/m mm
	C_{6v}	6 <i>mm</i>	12	O/III IIIII
	D_{3h}	$\bar{6}m2$	12	
	D _{6h} T	6/m mm 23	24 12	m3̄
Cubic	T_{h}^{I}	$m\bar{3}$	24	ms
	О	432	24	$m\bar{3}m$
	T_d	43m m3m	24 48	
	O_h	m3m	48	

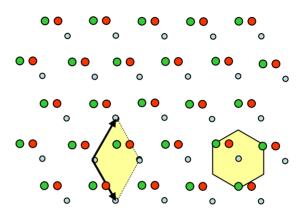
- (1) Each component in the name refers to a different direction. For example, the symbol for the orthorhombic group, 222, refers to the symmetry around the x, y, and z axes, respectively.
- (2) The position of the symbol m indicates the direction perpendicular to the mirror plane.
- (3) Fractional symbols mean that the axes of the operators in the numerator and denominator are parallel. For example, 2/m means that there is a mirror plane perpendicular to a rotation diad.
- (4) For the orthorhombic system, the three symbols refer to the three mutually perpendicular x, y, and z axes, in that order.
- (5) All tetragonal groups have a 4 or $\bar{4}$ rotation axis in the z-direction and this is listed first. The second component refers to the symmetry around the mutually perpendicular x and y axes and the third component refers to the directions in the x-y plane that bisect the x and y axes.
- (6) In the trigonal systems (which always have a 3 or $\bar{3}$ axis first) and hexagonal systems (which always have a 6 or $\bar{6}$ axis first), the second symbol describes the symmetry around the equivalent directions (either 120° or 60° apart) in the plane perpendicular to the 3, $\bar{3}$, 6, or $\bar{6}$ axis.
- (7) A third component in the hexagonal system refers to directions that bisect the angles between the axes specified by the second symbol.
- (8) If there is a 3 in the second position, it is a cubic point group. The 3 refers to rotation triads along the four body diagonals of the cube. The first symbol refers to the cube axis and the third to the face diagonals.

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Crystal Structure = Lattice + Basis







Crystal Structure = Lattice + basis

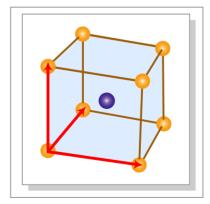
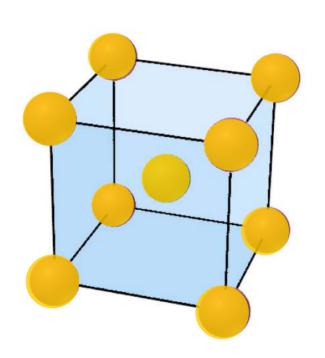


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Primitive unit cell and conventional unit cell



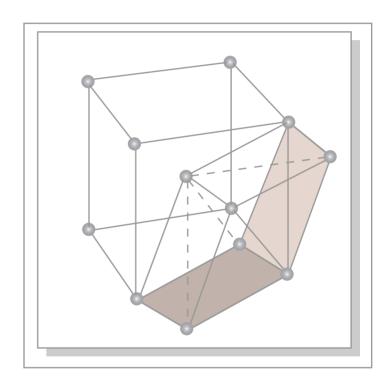
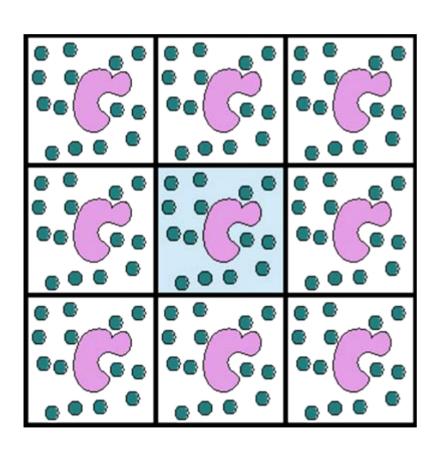


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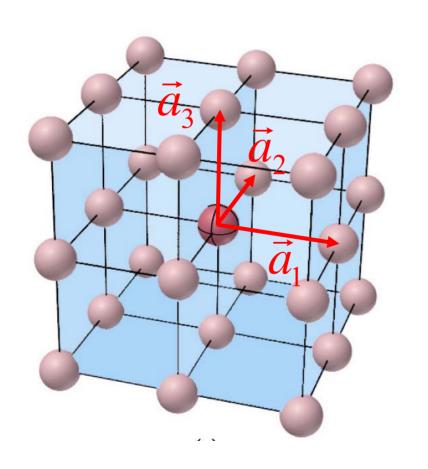
Periodic boundary conditions for the ions (i.e. the ext. potential)



- Unit cell = Bravais
 lattice = space filler
- Atoms in the unit cell + infinite periodic replicas

Reciprocal lattice (I)

 Let's start with a Bravais lattice, defined in terms of its primitive lattice vectors...

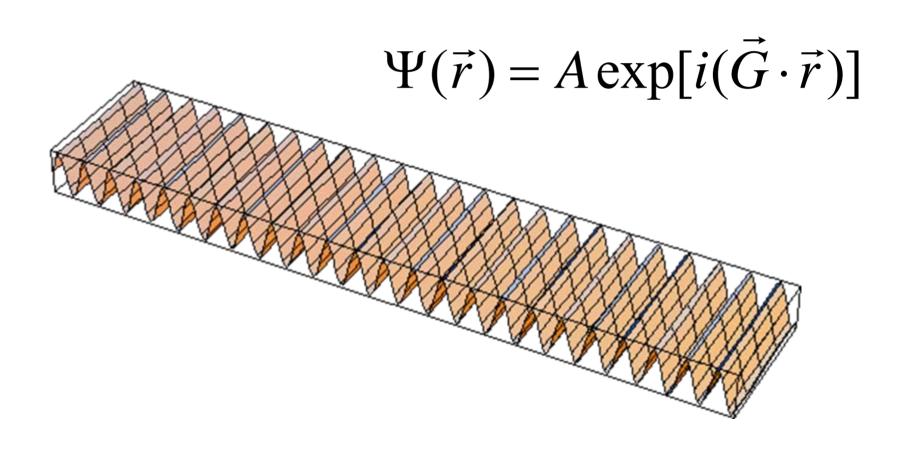


$$\vec{R} = l\vec{a}_1 + m\vec{a}_2 + n\vec{a}_3$$

 l, m, n integer numbers
 $\vec{R} = (l, m, n)$

Reciprocal lattice (II)

...and then let's take a plane wave



Reciprocal lattice (III)

 What are the wavevectors for which our plane wave has the same amplitude at all lattice points?

$$\exp[i(\vec{G} \cdot \vec{r})] = \exp[i(\vec{G} \cdot (\vec{r} + \vec{R}))]$$

$$\exp[i(\vec{G} \cdot \vec{R})] = 1$$

$$\exp[i(\vec{G} \cdot (l\vec{a}_1 + m\vec{a}_2 + n\vec{a}_3))] = 1$$

 \vec{a}_1 , \vec{a}_2 and \vec{a}_3 define the primitive unit cell

$$\vec{G}_i \cdot \vec{a}_j = 2\pi \delta_{ij}$$

 \vec{G}_1 , \vec{G}_2 and \vec{G}_3 define the reciprocal space Brillouin Zone

Reciprocal lattice (IV)

$$\vec{G}_i \cdot \vec{a}_j = 2\pi \delta_{ij}$$
 n integer is satisfied by

$$\vec{G} = h\vec{b_1} + i\vec{b_2} + j\vec{b_3}$$
 with h, i, j integers,

provided
$$\vec{b}_1 = 2\pi \frac{\vec{a}_2 \times \vec{a}_3}{\vec{a}_1 \cdot (\vec{a}_2 \times \vec{a}_3)}$$
 $\vec{b}_2 = 2\pi \frac{\vec{a}_3 \times \vec{a}_1}{\vec{a}_1 \cdot (\vec{a}_2 \times \vec{a}_3)}$ $\vec{b}_3 = 2\pi \frac{\vec{a}_1 \times \vec{a}_2}{\vec{a}_1 \cdot (\vec{a}_2 \times \vec{a}_3)}$

 $\vec{G} = (h, i, j)$ are the reciprocal-lattice vectors

Examples of reciprocal lattices

Direct lattice	Reciprocal lattice
Simple cubic	Simple cubic
FCC	BCC
BCC	FCC
Orthorhombic	Orthorhombic

$$\vec{b}_1 = 2\pi \frac{\vec{a}_2 \times \vec{a}_3}{\vec{a}_1 \cdot (\vec{a}_2 \times \vec{a}_3)}$$