

THE UNIVERSITY *of York*

Introduction to electronic structure, plane waves and pseudopotentials

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- What is electronic structure?
 - Density Functional Theory
 - Periodicity and Bloch's Theorem
 - Bloch's Theorem and k-points
- Plane wave basis set
- Pseudopotentials

- NB Colour slides are available on the website

Electronic Structure

- The properties of materials and chemicals are governed by their electrons.
 - It is the electrons which determine whether atoms are bonded or not
 - And what type of bonds are formed (e.g. ionic, covalent, metallic, Van der Waals).
- The term 'electronic structure' is used to describe how the electrons are spread around a crystal or molecule.

- A.k.a. *Ab Initio* = “From the beginning”
 - Using laws of Quantum Mechanics
 - No fitting to experimental data
- In quantum chemistry, usually taken to mean Hartree-Fock theory
(or beyond e.g. MP2, CI, etc)
- In physics, usually taken to mean DFT
(or beyond e.g. GW, QMC, etc)

- High accuracy and predictive ability
 - not limited by the fitting data-set
 - can cope with unusual environments, and bond breaking/making
 - wide range of properties can be calculated
- BUT computationally expensive
 - limited in size of system can study
 - need powerful computers

- In this module, will focus on DFT
 - Density Functional Theory
 - widely used in academia + industry
 - good balance of accuracy and speed
 - There are some limitations
 - One uncontrolled approximation at its heart
 - More advanced forms of QM can avoid this but MUCH more expensive and limited to study of small systems

What is DFT?

- Density Functional Theory
 - An alternative view of Quantum Mechanics
 - Uses the electronic charge density of a material as the key ingredient
 - No need for wavefunctions
 - Intended to make electronic structure calculations of real materials a practicality
 - What should that be tricky?

- The 1-particle Schrödinger equation is:

$$\left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + \hat{V} \right) \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t}$$

- So all we need to do is solve that for a real material – how hard can it be?

- A real material contains M nuclei and N electrons and so Schrödinger equation is:

$$\left\{ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2} \left(\frac{\nabla_{n1}^2}{m_1} + \dots + \frac{\nabla_{nM}^2}{m_M}, \frac{\nabla_{e1}^2}{m} + \dots + \frac{\nabla_{eN}^2}{m} \right) + \hat{V}(\mathbf{R}_1, \dots, \mathbf{R}_M, \mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N, t) \right\} \Psi(\mathbf{R}_1, \dots, \mathbf{R}_M, \mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N, t) = i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi(\mathbf{R}_1, \dots, \mathbf{R}_M, \mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N, t)}{\partial t}$$

For a few grams of material we typically have $M \sim 10^{23}$ and $N \sim 10^{24}$...

- Compared to electrons, nuclei are heavy and slow ($m_e \ll m_p$)
 - Electrons react “instantly” to nuclear motion
 - Nuclear wavefunction very localized
 - Can break down for light atoms and/or low T
 - Concentrate QM effort on electrons
 - No need for time dependent QM
 - This is the Born-Oppenheimer approximation:

$$\Psi(\mathbf{R}_1, \dots, \mathbf{R}_M, \mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N, t) \longrightarrow \psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N)$$

- Focus on the ground state
 - Often dominates everyday properties
 - Not true for optical properties
- The wavefunction is not experimentally measurable – only the density ...
- Density Functional Theory
 - Hohenberg-Kohn Theorem 1964
 - Kohn-Sham Equations 1965
 - Nobel prize for Kohn 1998

■ H-K Theorem

- The groundstate energy E ONLY depends on the electron density $\rho(\mathbf{r})$.
- And the mapping is unique via a **universal** functional $E = E[\rho]$

■ K-S Equations

- The groundstate energy E and density $\rho(\mathbf{r})$ of electrons are exactly the same as those of *non-interacting* particles, iff we include an extra potential – the *exchange-correlation potential* $= V_{xc}$

- Do not know how to calculate the Kinetic Energy of a density!
 - But we can do this for a wavefunction
 - Introduce fictitious *single-particle* orbitals that give the correct density and for which *can* calculate KE
- Do not know the universal functional
 - Write in terms of things we do know, e.g. electron-electron interaction so the unknown bits are “small” and hence can be easily approximated as a single “exchange-correlation” (XC) functional.

- Converts the many-body Schrödinger equation for N electrons into N equations each with 1 quasi-particle:

$$\left\{ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V[\rho](\mathbf{r}) + V_{xc}[\rho](\mathbf{r}) \right\} \psi_b(\mathbf{r}) = \epsilon_b \psi_b(\mathbf{r})$$

$$\rho(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{j=1}^N |\psi_j(\mathbf{r})|^2$$

- and $V[\rho]$ and $V_{xc}[\rho]$ are density *functionals*

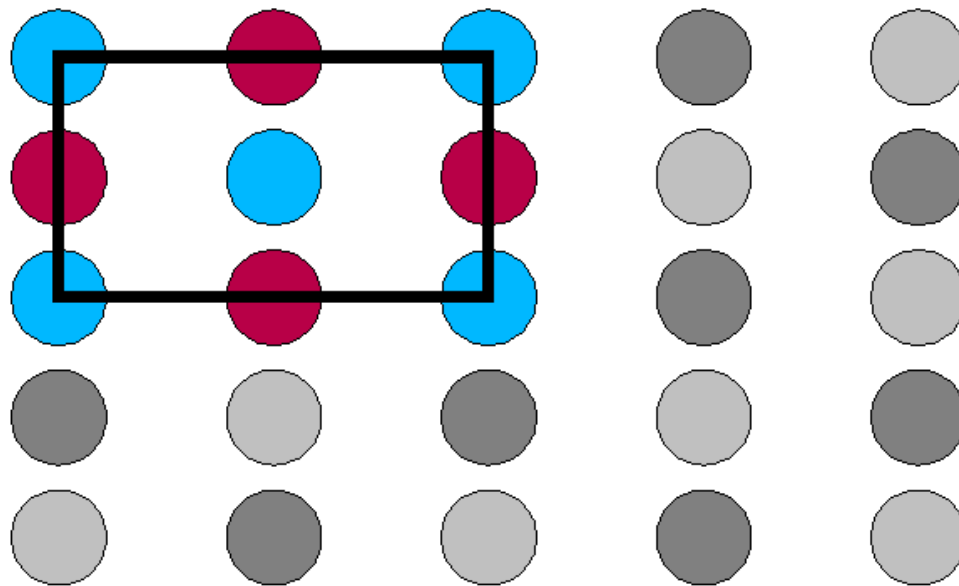
NB exact form of V_{xc} is unknown –
but we do have good approximations

- DFT is formally exact but in practice we need to approximate E_{xc}
 - The LDA assumes that $E_{xc}[\rho](\mathbf{r})$ at some point \mathbf{r} is the same as if *every* point had same density
 - Hence LDA is fitted to Homogenous Electron Gas data calculated with high level QM methods
 - expected to be good for metals
 - actually works well for many systems!
 - tends to overbind energies and shorten bonds
- More advanced approximations are available – see later lectures ...

- Many-body QM is hard
 - It is impossible to solve the Schrödinger equation exactly for all but the most simple problems
 - Numerical approaches expand unknown wavefunction in terms of known basis functions and unknown coefficients
 - a simple spin system with 20 particles needs 2^{20} coefficients (spin up & down)
 - exponential scaling is bad!
- DFT is easy
 - uses a 3D scalar field instead – much better!

Periodicity and Bloch's Theorem

- But we still have $N \sim 10^{24}$ so is it impossible to solve DFT for real materials?
- In a solid, most materials form a regular pattern – can make up out of repeating *unit cells* – so we can exploit *periodicity* ...



- A fundamental theorem of condensed matter physics
- If the nuclei are arranged periodically then the potential and density must be periodic:

$$V(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{L}) = V(\mathbf{r})$$

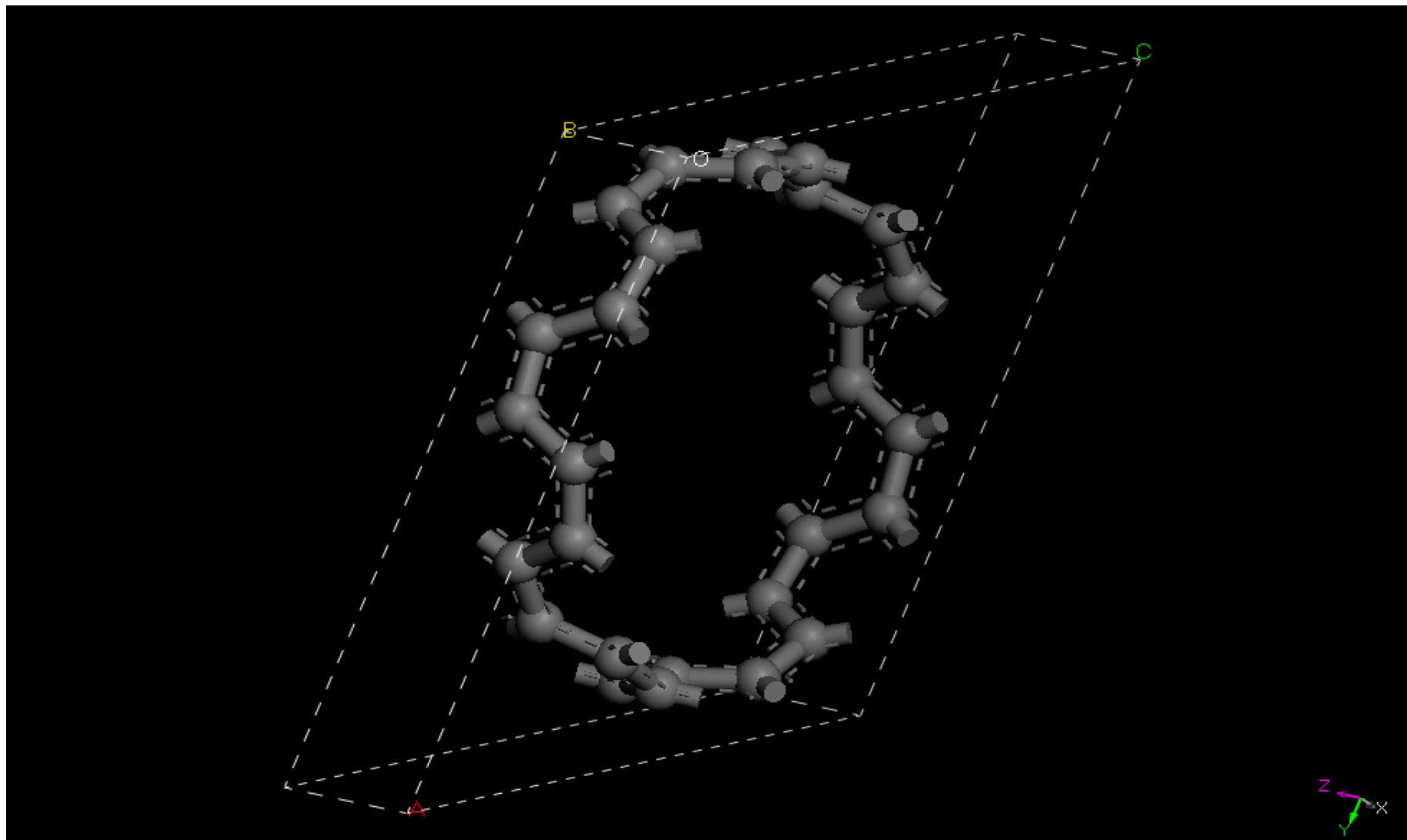
- *Bloch's Theorem*: Hence the wavefunction must be 'quasi-periodic':

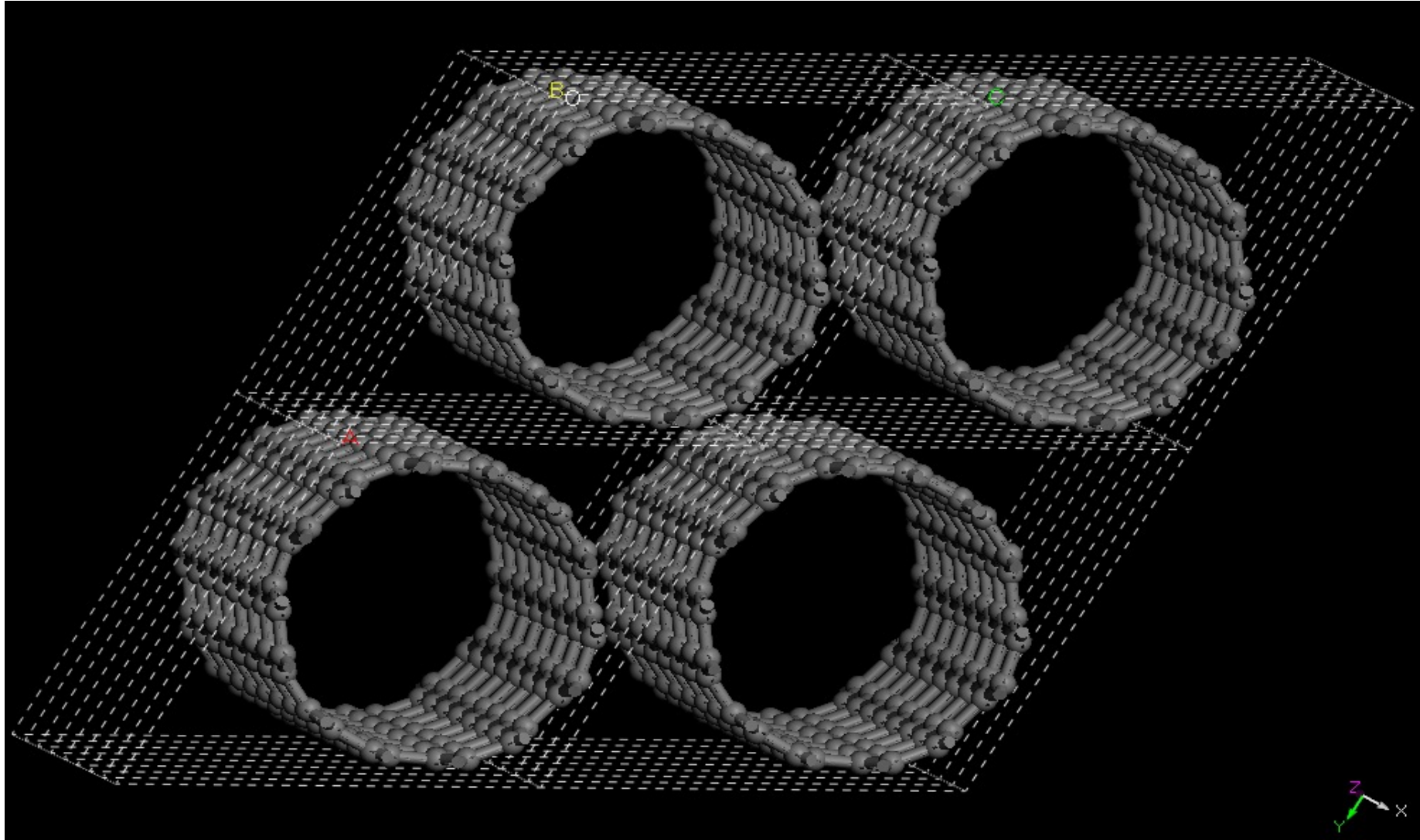
$$\psi_k(\mathbf{r}) = e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}} u_k(\mathbf{r})$$

- where $u_k(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{L}) = u_k(\mathbf{r})$ is periodic and $e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}}$ is an arbitrary phase factor.

- So now we only have to solve the K-S equations in a single unit cell
 - Hence $N \sim 10^2$ not 10^{24} ...
 - Hence calculate energy per unit cell, etc
- Although in fact we are simulating an infinite number of electrons ...
- And can use *supercell* approach to handle *aperiodic* systems e.g. molecules, surfaces, interfaces, grain boundaries, etc.

- What if want to calculate properties of a crystal defect? or an isolated molecule? or a surface?
- Use a *supercell*
 - e.g. put 1 defect into a 2x2x2 cell
 - e.g. add vacuum around molecule
 - e.g. add vacuum above surface





K-points

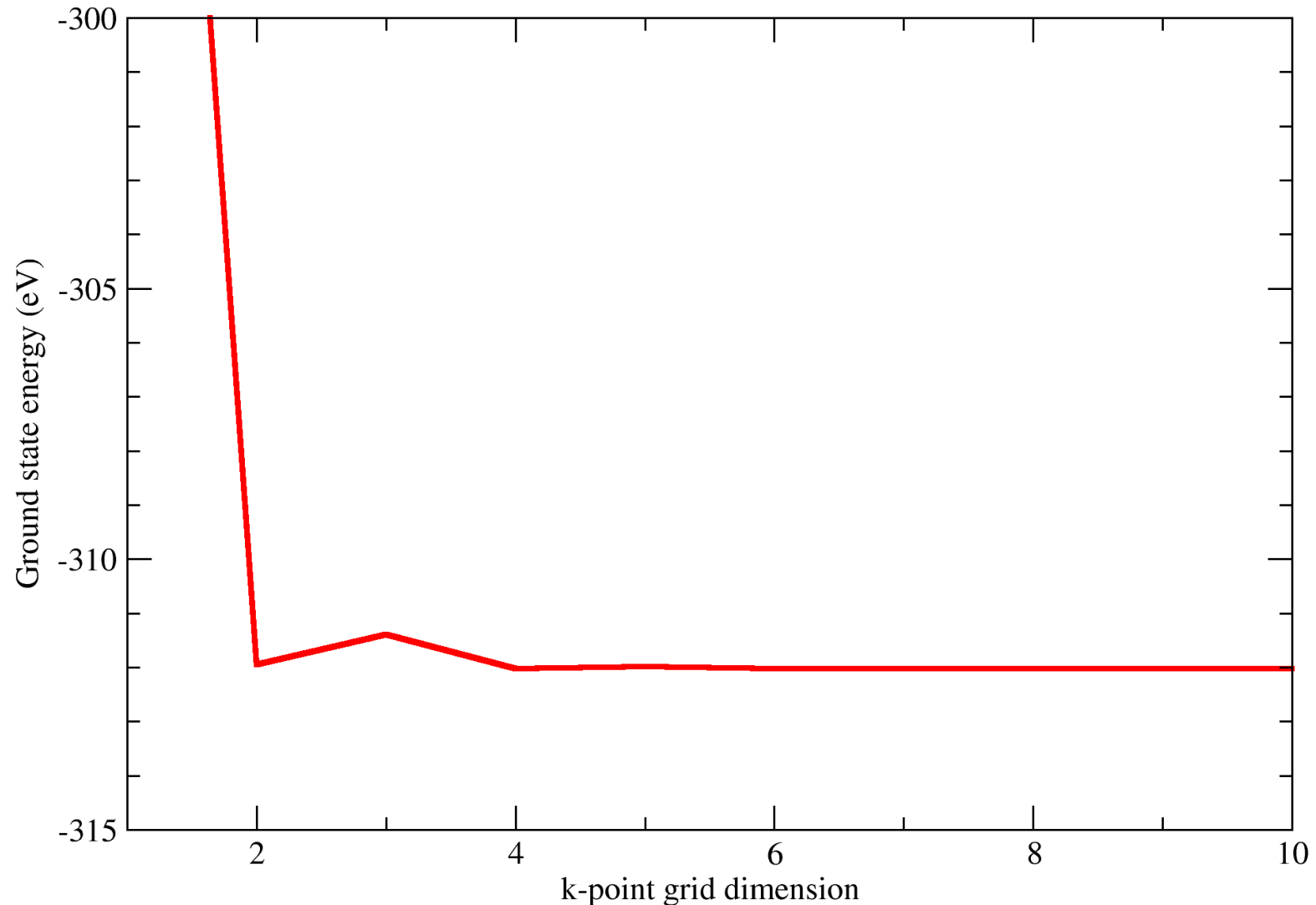
- Bloch's Theorem says that in a periodic potential wavefunction is quasi-periodic

$$\psi_k(\mathbf{r}) = e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}} u_k(\mathbf{r})$$

- Neighbouring cells vary by phase factor
- Hence need to integrate over all possible values of \mathbf{k} when constructing density:

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(\mathbf{r}) &= \int |\psi_k(\mathbf{r})|^2 d^3\mathbf{k} \\ &\approx \sum_k |\psi_k(\mathbf{r})|^2\end{aligned}$$

■ Convergence required for periodic calculation:



- We sample the k-points within the 1st Brillouin zone (dual of real-space unit cell)
- Number of points depends on size of BZ
 - As zone gets smaller (larger real-space cell) then need less k-points
 - Standard sampling is a Monkhorst-Pack mesh
 - Need dense sampling for metals to capture discontinuity in band occupancy at $E=E_F$
 - Can use crystal symmetry to reduce number

Planewaves

- Rewrite the many-body Schrödinger equation for N electrons into N 1-particle equations:

$$\left\{ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V[\rho](\mathbf{r}) + V_{xc}[\rho](\mathbf{r}) \right\} \psi_b(\mathbf{r}) = \epsilon_b \psi_b(\mathbf{r})$$

$$\rho(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{j=1}^N |\psi_j(\mathbf{r})|^2$$

- And occupy each band b with 2 electrons
- This looks like a set of eigenvalue equations ...

- How can we represent a wavefunction or density in a computer?
 - Real-space grid will require very dense mesh to get required resolution
 - Alternatively could write it in terms of coefficients of known basis functions ...
- Obvious basis set for periodic system is 3D sine and cosine functions -> Fourier series and so can combine with Bloch's theorem:

- 3D Fourier basis (also known as *plane waves*):

$$\psi_{\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\mathbf{G}} c_{\mathbf{G}\mathbf{k}} e^{i(\mathbf{G}+\mathbf{k})\cdot\mathbf{r}}$$

- where $c_{\mathbf{G}\mathbf{k}}$ are unknown complex coefficients
- The sum is over all wavevectors \mathbf{G} which fit the unit cell and \mathbf{k} comes from Bloch's theorem
- Hence $\psi_{\mathbf{k}}$ is a vector of coefficients $c_{\mathbf{G}\mathbf{k}}$

- Not all values of \mathbf{G} are allowed
 - Have to be reciprocal lattice vectors
 - Smallest \mathbf{G} is given by largest wavelength in real space: $G_{\min} = 2\pi/a$
 - Hence form a discrete set
- If we make the unit cell longer in one direction then the allowed wavevectors in that direction become shorter
- But still an infinite set?

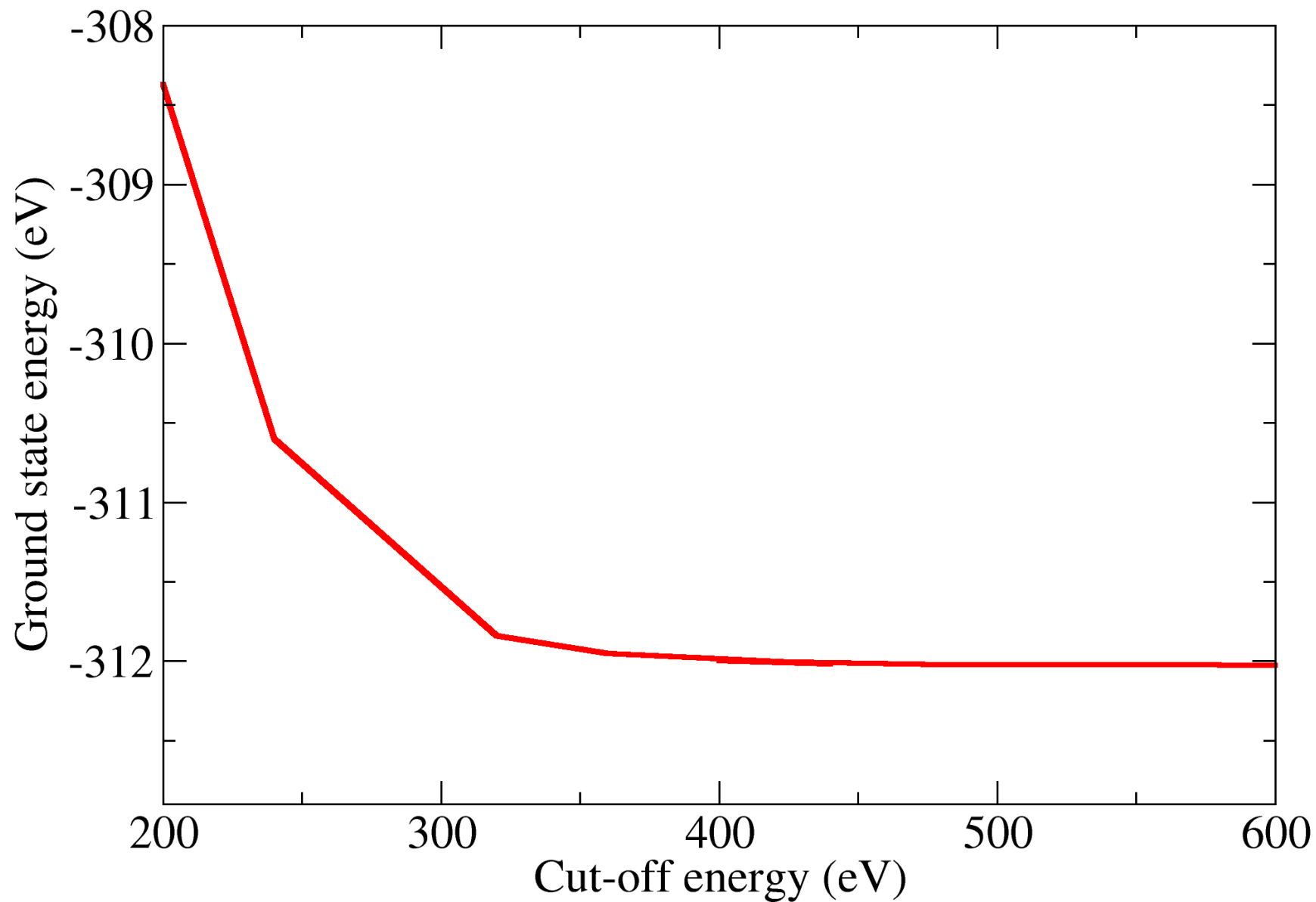
- In practice the coefficients c_{Gk} associated with larger \mathbf{G} become smaller and smaller
 - Corresponds to finer real-space resolution in description of density etc.

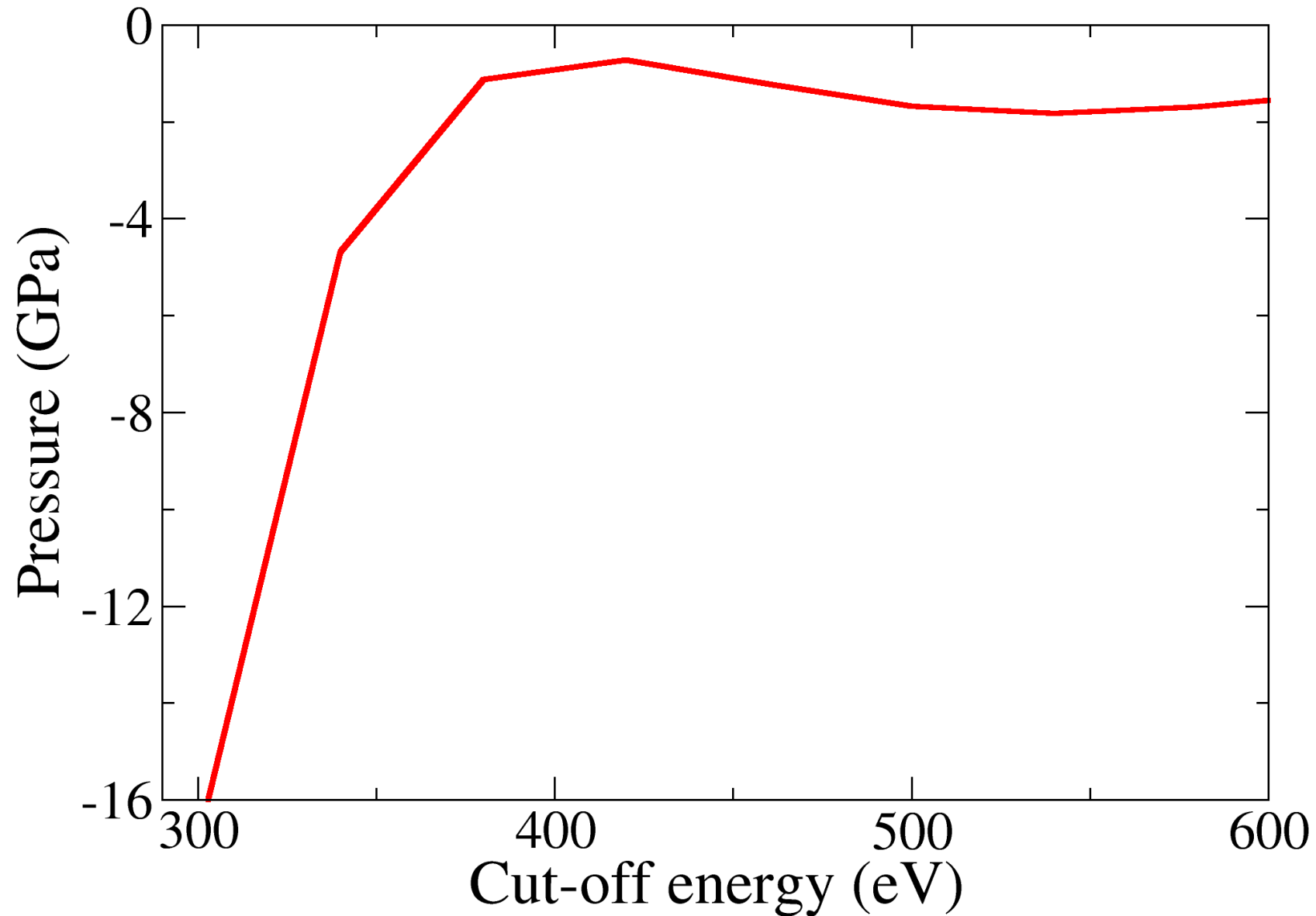
$$|\mathbf{G}| \rightarrow \infty, |c_{Gk}| \rightarrow 0$$

- Hence can truncate set at a largest \mathbf{G}_{\max}
- Express as the cut-off energy:

$$E_{cut} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} |\mathbf{G}_{max}|^2$$

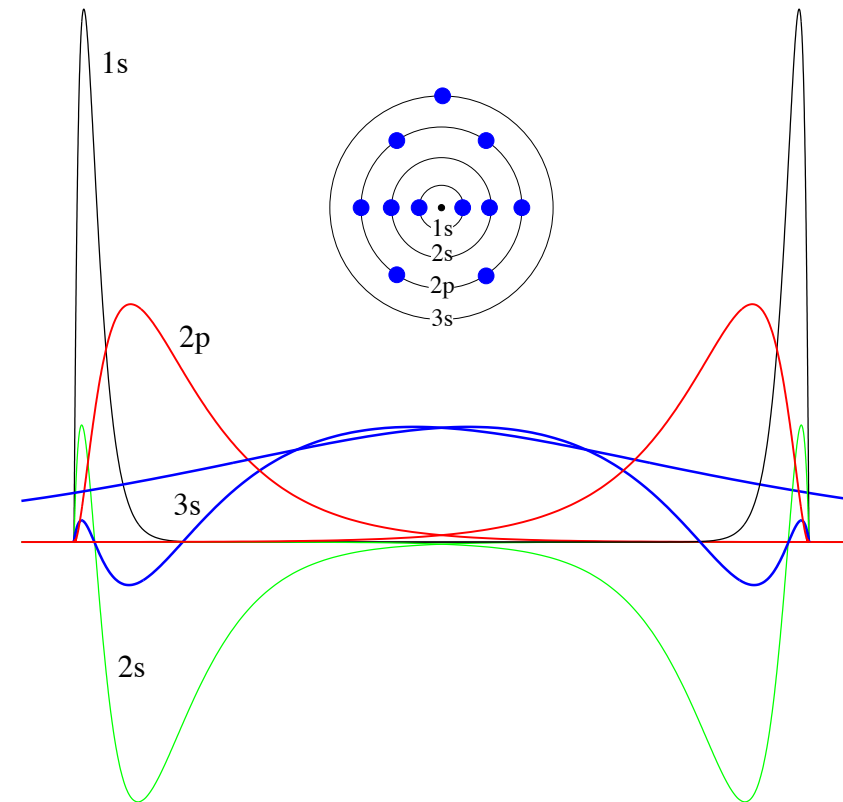
- The cut-off energy is a key convergence parameter
 - Larger values always correspond to better results but need more computer time & memory
 - The ground state energy obeys variational principle and hence increasing E_{cut} adds more variational freedom and hence monotonically improves the quality of the density and lowers the ground state energy
 - Not all properties are variational ...



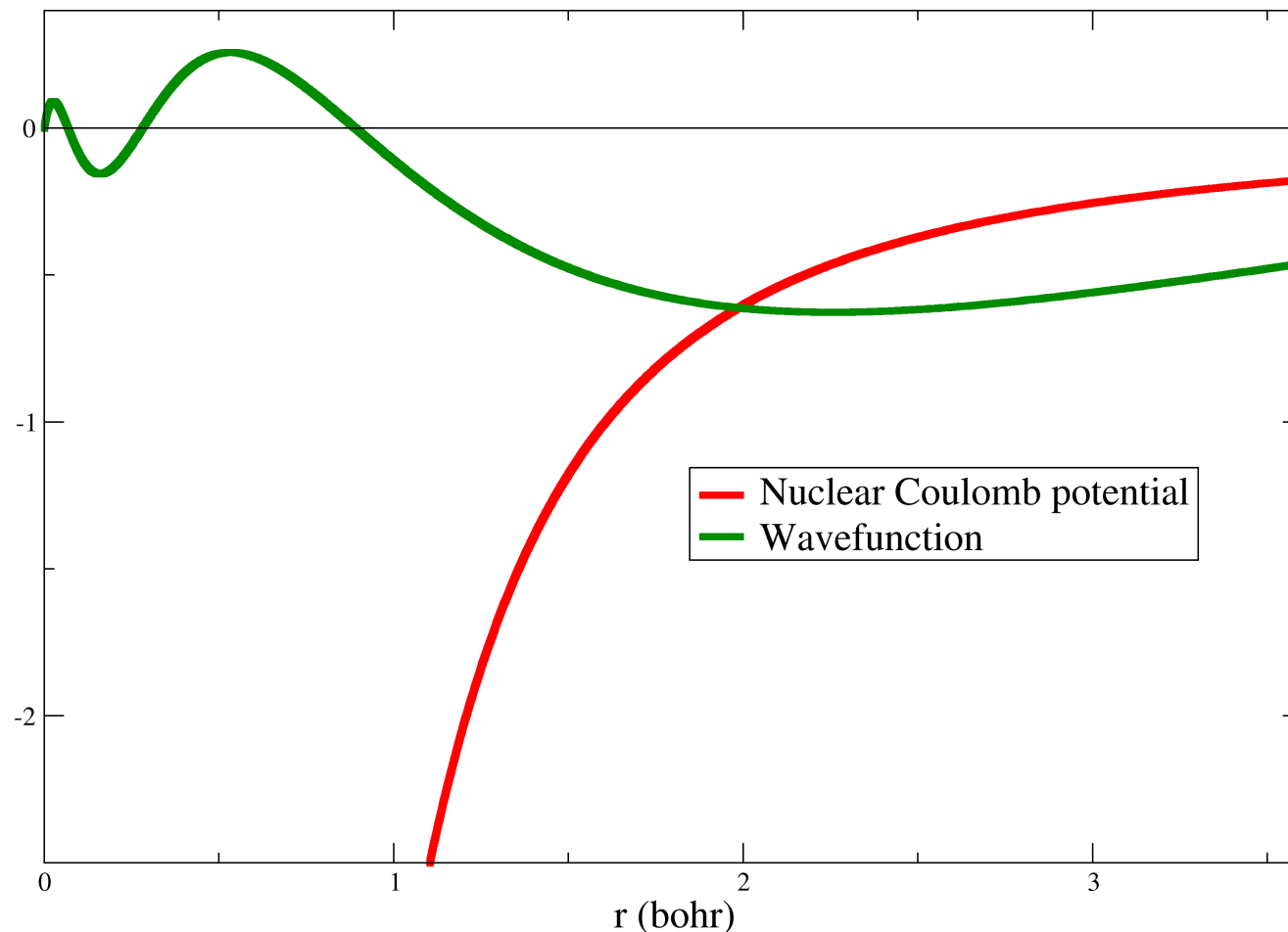


Pseudopotentials

- Chemical bonding arises from overlap of outer electrons
- Core states approximately inert and insensitive to environment
- Hence combine inner electrons with nucleus to make a pseudo-ion

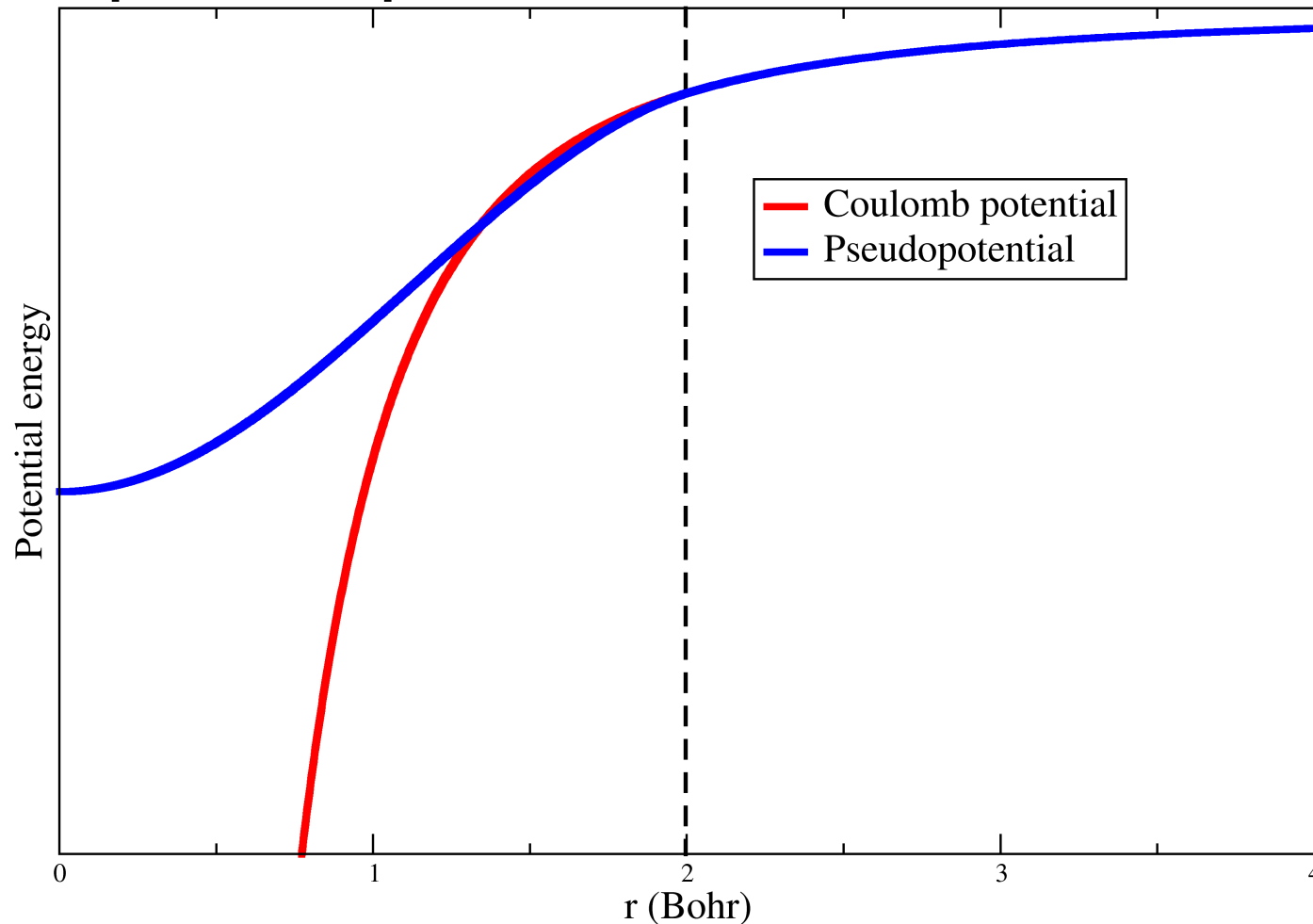


- But as well as reducing the number of electrons, there is another advantage:

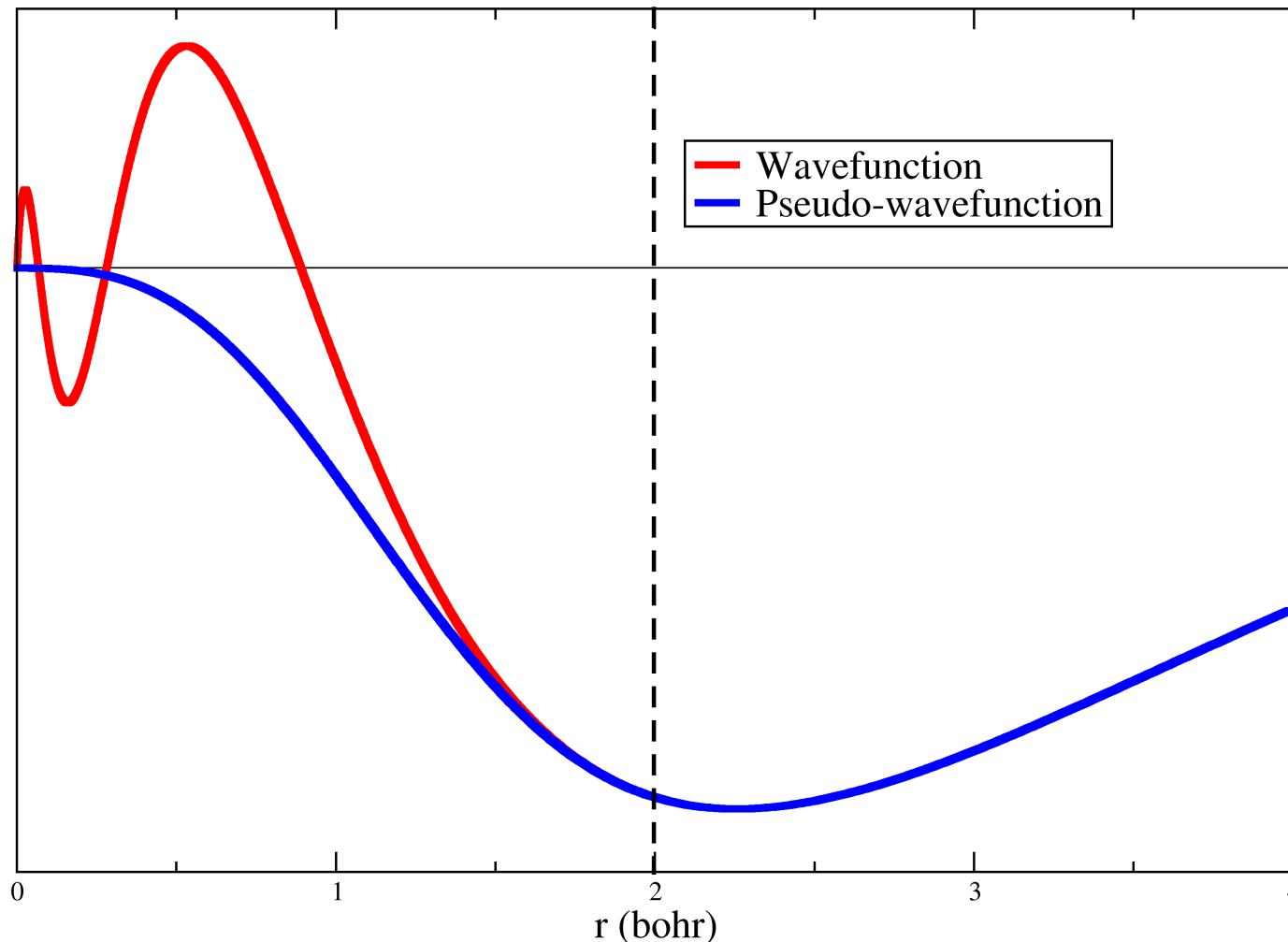


Wavefunction near nucleus oscillates – required for orthogonality with inner states

- So we can replace the Coulomb potential of nucleus with a modified, weaker potential – the pseudopotential:



- And so pseudo-wavefunction is smoother and needs fewer plane waves to describe it!



-
- The core electrons are combined with nucleus to make an ion, saving electrons
 - The outer electrons interact with this ion
 - Pseudopotential constructed to have identical behaviour outside the 'core radius' (r_c) but fewer oscillations inside r_c where it does not affect any bonding etc
 - Hence need fewer plane waves per state and fewer states!

Summary

- DFT can be written in simple form using the K-S Hamiltonian operator:

$$\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2 + V[\rho](\mathbf{r})$$

- Hence the set of K-S equations can be rewritten as an eigenvalue problem:

$$H[\rho]\psi_{bk} = \epsilon_{bk}\psi_{bk}$$

- Where the Hamiltonian $H[\rho]$ is an Hermitian matrix of size $N_G \times N_G$ and ψ_{bk} is a vector of N_G Fourier coefficients for each k-point

- Bloch's Theorem and periodicity greatly simplify the problem
 - Need to use k-points to sample BZ
 - Use supercells for non-periodic systems
- Plane waves are a natural basis set
 - Single parameter E_{cut} to determine quality
- Pseudopotentials remove unimportant electrons from the problem
 - And reduce the E_{cut} needed

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