Bulk Synthesis Course Material

Main textbook:

1. The Physics and Chemistry of Materials (Wiley 2001)Chapters 2 (parts), 6, 21by Joel I Gersten and Frederick W. Smith ISBN 0-471-05794-0Special topics (parts) from web site ftp://ftp.wiley.com/public/sci_tech_med/materialsSupplementary material:Chapter 12. The Physics and Chemistry of Solids (Wiley 2000)Chapter 1By Stephen Eliott, ISBN0-471-98195-8Chapter 23. Chemical Transport Reactions (Academic Press 1964)Chapter 2by Harald Schäfer4. Articles from scientific literature

Further Reading:

5. Crystal Growth Technology (Wiley 2003)

by Hans J. Scheel and Tsuguo Fukuda (eds.) ISBN 978-0-471-49524-6

6. Crystal Growth Technology (Springer 2002)

by K. Byrappa and T. Ohachi (eds.) ISBN 3-540-00367-3

Atomic Orbitals and Chemical Bonding

 \Box Solids are composed of elements with multiple orbitals that produce multiple bonds. Now imagine what happens if we have several orbitals on each site (s,p,d, etc.), as we reduce the separation between the orbitals and increase their overlap, these bonds increase in width and may eventually overlap, forming bands.



Valence orbitals, which generally have a greater spatial extent, will overlap more so their bands will broaden more. They <u>dominate the bonding mechanism</u>.
Eventually we will stop gaining energy from bringing the atoms closer together, due to overlap of the cores) Once we have reached the optimal point we fill the states 2 particles per, until we run out of electrons.

Delectronic correlations $n_{\uparrow}n_{\downarrow}$ complicate this simple picture of band formation since they strive to keep the orbitals from being multiply occupied.

Atomic Level Crossing and Screening



For large n, the orbitals do not fill up simply as a function of n as we would expect from a simple Hydrogenic model with

 $E_n = -\frac{me^4}{2\hbar^2 n^2} Z^2$

□Level crossings due to atomic screening. The potential felt by states with large l are screened since they cannot access the nucleus. Thus, orbitals of different principle quantum numbers can be close in energy. For example, in elemental Ce (4f¹5d¹6s²) both the 5d and 4f orbitals may be considered to be in the valence shell, and form metallic bands. However, the 5d orbitals are much larger and of higher symmetry than the 4f ones. Thus, electrons tend to hybridize (move on or off) with the 5d orbitals more effectively. The Coulomb repulsion between electrons on the same 4f orbital will be strong, so these electrons on these orbitals tend to form magnetic moments.

Cohesive Energy in Solids

- Coulomb interactions: electrons, nuclei \rightarrow bonding, antibonding states
- Real materials: potential wells in U(r), depth = bonding strength (cohesive E).
- **Cohesive energy** = energy required to overcome bonding, separate constituents
- In real materials many body Schrödinger equation. Many body problem, technical difficulty

Mechanism	Valence electrons
Metallic	Delocalized throughout
Covalent	Delocalized, electron density high between pairs
Van der Waals	Atoms neutral, closed shell configuration
Ionic	Transfer
Hydrogen	Mixed Ionic and Covalent



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Cohesive Energy in Solids 1 IMPORTANCE OF KINETIC ENERGY (VIRIAL THEOREM)

Covalent bond (example H₂) is not purely electrostatic phenomenon: electron kinetic energy contributes to total molecular energy

Born-Oppenheimer Approximation in calculation of molecular wawefunctions:

 $T_{nucl} = 0$ in molecular \hat{H} , nuclear positions are parameters, Coulomb interaction is felt by electrons

$$\hat{H}(\vec{r}_{1}^{mucl},\ldots\vec{r}_{N}^{mucl}) |\Psi(\vec{r}_{1}^{mucl},\ldots\vec{r}_{N}^{mucl})\rangle = E(\vec{r}_{1}^{mucl},\ldots\vec{r}_{N}^{mucl}) |\Psi(\vec{r}_{1}^{mucl},\ldots\vec{r}_{N}^{mucl})\rangle$$

$$\langle T_{electron}\rangle + \langle V \rangle = E(\vec{r}_{1}^{mucl},\ldots\vec{r}_{N}^{mucl}) V_{ee} + V_{en}(\vec{r}_{1}^{mucl},\ldots\vec{r}_{N}^{mucl}) + V_{nn}(\vec{r}_{1}^{mucl},\ldots\vec{r}_{N}^{mucl})$$

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1. <u>Consider normalized eigenfunction</u>: $\psi(x) \to \gamma^{1/2} \psi(\gamma x) = \psi_{\gamma}(x); \exists \langle \psi_{\gamma} | \psi_{\gamma} \rangle = \int |\psi_{\gamma}(x)|^{2} dx = \gamma \int |\psi(\gamma x)|^{2} dx = \int |\psi(y)|^{2} dy$ 2. <u>Example: a molecule</u> where $\hat{H}_{e} = \hat{T} + V(\vec{r}, \vec{R}) = \left(-\frac{1}{2}\nabla_{r}^{2}\right) + \left(-\frac{Z}{|r-R|}\right)$ and introduce scaling $\psi_{\gamma}[\vec{R}](\vec{r}) = \gamma^{3N_{e}/2}\psi[R](\gamma \vec{r})$

Kinetic energy scaling:

$$T_{\gamma}\left[\vec{R}\right] = \left\langle \psi_{\gamma}\left[\vec{r}\right]\psi_{\gamma}\right\rangle = \int \psi_{\gamma}\left[\vec{R}\right](\vec{r})\left(-\frac{1}{2}\nabla_{r}^{2}\right)\psi_{\gamma}\left[\vec{R}\right](\vec{r})d^{3N_{e}}r = \gamma^{3N_{e}}\int \psi\left[\vec{R}\right](\vec{r})\left(-\frac{1}{2}\nabla_{r}^{2}\right)\psi\left[\vec{R}\right](\vec{r})d^{3N_{e}}r = \gamma^{2}\int \psi\left[\vec{R}\right](\vec{s})\left(-\frac{1}{2}\nabla_{s}^{2}\right)\psi\left[\vec{R}\right](\vec{s})d^{3N_{e}}s = \gamma^{2}T\left[\vec{R}\right]$$

Potential energy scaling:

$$\psi_{\gamma}[R] = \left\langle \psi_{\gamma} \middle| \hat{V} \middle| \psi_{\gamma} \right\rangle = \int \psi_{\gamma}(\vec{r}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{r}; \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} r = \gamma^{3(N_{e})} \int \psi(\gamma \vec{r}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{r}; \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} r = \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\gamma^{-1} \vec{s}; \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}; \gamma \vec{R}) d^{3N_{e}} s = \gamma \int \psi(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V(\vec{s})^{2} V(\vec{s}, \vec{R})^{2} V$$

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Cohesive Energy in Solids 2 IMPORTANCE OF KINETIC ENERGY (VIRIAL THEOREM)

Hellmann-Feynmann

$$0 = 2T[R] + V[R] + R\nabla_R V \longrightarrow (E = T + V, \nabla_R V \stackrel{\bullet}{=} \nabla_R E) \longrightarrow T(R) = -E(R) - R\frac{dE(R)}{dR}; V(R) = 2E(R) + R\frac{dE(R)}{dR}$$

Molecular electronic energy as a function of nuclear separation – Example H_2 molecule



1. As the atoms approach, the potential energy rises (electrons are moving away from the nuclei), and the kinetic energy falls (delocalization begins). Thus, a decrease in kinetic energy funds the initial build-up of charge between the nuclei that is traditionally associated with chemical bond formation.

2. At R ~ 150 pm, the potential energy begins to decrease and the kinetic energy increases, while the total energy continues to decrease gradually. This is an atomic effect, not a molecular one \rightarrow **transfer of charge away from the nuclei and into the bond region allows the atomic orbitals to contract** causing a large decrease in potential energy because the electron density is moved, on average, closer to the nuclei. The kinetic energy increases because the atomic orbitals are smaller and kinetic energy is inversely proportional to the square of the average orbital radius. The orbital contraction causes some electron density to be withdrawn from the bonding region and returned to the nuclei.

3. An energy minimum is reached while the potential energy is still in a significant decline, indicating that kinetic energy, which is increasing rapidly, is the immediate cause of a stable bond and the molecular ground state in H_2 . The final increase in potential energy is mainly due to nuclear-nuclear repulsion. It begins when the inter-nuclear separation is less than 50 pm, while the equilibrium bond length is 74 pm.

(J. C. Slater, "*The Virial and Molecular Structure*", Journal of Chemical Physics, 687 (1993); Frank Rioux, "*The covalent bond examined using the virial theorem*", Chemical Educator 8, 10-12 (2003)); J. S. Winn, J. Chem. Phys. 74, 608 (1981)

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Chemical Bonds in Solids: Covalent



No bonding

Bonding

□ Formed when electrons in well defined directional orbitals, which can be thought as linear combinations of the original atomic orbitals, have strong overlap with similar orbitals in neighboring atoms.

Attractive interaction arises from the attraction of each nucleus toward the enhanced electron charge density centered midway between nuclei.

□Solids produced in this way are semiconductors or insulators.

 \Box Example: sharing of valence electrons between pairs of atoms (bonding molecular orbital). Each bond has two electrons $\downarrow\uparrow$ (hydrogen, silicon, germanium..)

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Covalent Bonding

- Covalent bonding dominates in solids when number of NN's ≤ number of valence electrons/atom → well defined bonding orbitals directonal in space are formed
- Excess valence electrons form "lone pairs" or delocalized bond (V, VI)
- In IV group elements overlap of bonds in energy and space broadens energy levels of covalent bonds into continuous energy bands
- Crystal structure is derived from bonding
- Bonds can be also be derived by hybrid orbitals (sp, sp²..)
- (IV) Graphite: sp² planar structure, strong σ ✓
 (*planar* cohesive bonds in plane) and weak π
 (delocalized over the plane of C atoms).
- (V) P, As, Sb..: s²p³ valence electrons, *pyramidal* bonding with 3 NN's + 2 electrons/atom in nonbonding orbitals
- (VI) S, Se, Te: s²p⁴ valence electrons, *chain* bonding with 2 NN's + 4 electrons/atom in nonbonding orbitals
- B: complex structures, icosahedra B₁₂, cubic, rhombohedral, tetragonal

Covalent bonds in C_3N_4 electron density highest between pairs of NN atoms

Covalent Bonding

Coordination number (local bonding units) CN = 8-N [N = valence electrons/atom]

	Group	CN	Local structure
В	III	5	Icosahedra
C(diamond)	IV	4	Tetrahedra
C(graphite)	IV	3	Planar hex
P, As, Sb	V	3	Nonplanar hex
S, Se, Te	VI	2	Rings, chains
F, Cl, Br, I	VII	1	Diatomic molecules

Chemical Bonds in Solids: Van der Waals

□Wan der Waals bonding: formed by atoms that do not have valence electrons available for sharing (the noble elements and crystals or organic molecules) – "fluctuating dipole" (zeropoint motion) of van der Waals interaction is due to slight polarization of the electronic wave function in one atom due to the surrounding atoms.

Lowering of zero-point energy by dipole dipole interaction. Present in other bonding types but is a small correction

Usually filled shell, inert gas solids, between graphite planes, chains of atoms in Se, Te based materials. Weaker than other types.

Consider dipole dipole interaction

$$V(\vec{r}) = \frac{\mu_1 \mu_2 - 3(\mu_1 \hat{r})(\mu_2 \hat{r})}{4\pi \varepsilon_0 r^3}$$

□Interaction energy

$$U(r) = -\sum_{nn'} \left| \frac{\left| \left\langle nn' \left| V(\vec{r}) \right| 00 \right\rangle \right|^2}{E_n^1 + E_{n'}^2 - E_0^1 - E_0^2} = -\frac{C}{r^6}$$

Chemical Bonds in Solids: Ionic

Influence on crystal structure - maximizing NN of opposite type

The energy per molecule of a crystal of $\Phi = N_{pairs}$ sodium chloride is (7.9-5.1+3.6) eV=6.4eVlower than the energy of the separated neutral *atoms*. The cohesive energy with respect to separated *ions* is 7.9eV per molecular **Coulomb attraction** unit. All values on the figure are experimental.

Madelung constant (A=1.748 for NaCl)

Ionic Bonding: Formed when two different type of atoms are combined, one that prefers to lose some of its valence electrons and become positive ion, and one that prefers to grab electrons from other atoms and become a negative ion. *In practice transfer is incomplete*. Bonding then occurs by Coulomb attraction between the ions. Combinations of such elements are I-VII, II-VI, and III-V. In the first case bonding is purely ionic, in the other two there is a degree of covalent bonding present.

Model electrostatic potential of all ionic pairs: sum of Coulomb potentials + short range repulsions when electronic clouds overlap:

$$\Phi = N_{pairs} \left(-\frac{e}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 r} \sum_{i\neq j} \frac{\pm 1}{p_{ij}} + \frac{B}{r^n} \sum_{i\neq j} \frac{1}{p_{ij}^n} \right)$$

pulomb attraction
Repulsion between

electron clouds

Covalent vs. Ionic Bonding: Valence Charge Density

□Ionic and covalent bondings are two limiting cases, of which, only the later can exist in solids composed of a single type of atom. In majority of cases the bonding is of an intermediate nature representing a mixture of the two extremes.

Mixed Ionic – Covalent Bonding

• Transfer of valence electrons (partial or complete).

CsF (ionic)

Ge (covalent)

• Ionicity of chemical bond: f = 0 (Si) to f = 1(CsF), influences coordination and crystal structure formation

crystal	Group	f
C, Si, Ge	IV	0
SiC	IV - IV	0.18
BN	III-V	0.26
AlN	III-V	0.45
ZnS	II-VI	0.62
HgS	II-VI	0.79
NaCl	I-VIII	0.94

Metallic Bonding

- Bonding is nondirectional, involving s, p, d, f orbitals.
- Large number of NN's > number of valence electrons/atom → no well defined bonding orbitals
- Example: Na 3s¹. Stronger bonds of Na⁺ and metallic bond than for bonding via electron pairs. Energetically favorable to screen Na⁺ with delocalized electrons

Fig. 1.9. The amplitude of the $3d_{zz}$ -wavefunction and the 4*s*-wavefunction of Ni [1.4]. The half-distances to the first, second and third nearest neighbors (r_1, r_2 and r_3) are shown for comparison

Wave functions are very extended compared with separation between atoms

Chemical Bonds in Solids: Hydrogen

□Hydrogen Bonding: formed when H is present and bounded to two other atoms (organic molecules, DNA, and water, ice); this is a special bond due to its lack of core electrons (bare proton left after sharing 1s electron), its light mass (must use quantum mechanics for, e.g., zero-point proton motion) and high ionization energy.

Orbital Overlap and Crystalline Structures

The type of bond that forms between two orbitals is dictated largely by the amount that these **orbitals overlap** relative to their separation a.

Bond	Overlap	Lattice	constituents
Ionic	very small $(< a)$	closest unfrustrated	dissimilar
		packing	
Covalent	small $(\sim a)$	determined by the	similar
		structure of the orbitals	
Metallic	very large $(\gg a)$	closest packed	unfilled valence
			orbitals

Complex Solid: Cuprate (High-T_c) Superconductors

 \Box A Copper (**Cu**) atom is surrounded by six Oxygen (**O**) atoms which form an octahedron; the Cu-O atoms are bonded by strong covalent bonds.

The crystallographic structure of high-temperature superconductors (HTSC) comprises two basic functional elements: (i) layered quasi-two dimensional CuO_2 -lattice planes and (ii) inter-planar regions, mostly containing metallic spacer atoms in a certain concentration ratio (e.g. $La_{1-x}Sr_x$). The essential role of these spacer regions is to provide the CuO_2 planes with a suitable amount of mobile charge carriers. At a favourable charge carrier concentration, and for sufficiently low temperatures, the planes enter a superconducting state with highly unusual properties.

The empty space between Cu-O octahedra can accommodate atoms which are easily ionized, to produce **mixed covalent ionic structure**.

"Simple Solid" - MgB₂: Multiple-Bands (Two-Band) Superconductor

Structure

σ States: B $p_{x,y}$

 π State: B p_z

(Choi et al. Nature 418, 758 (2002))

Red: π Bands Contribute 56% of *N*(0)

Black: σ Bands Contribute 44% of *N*(0)

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(Kortus et al. PRL 86, 4656 (2001))

MgB₂: Two Superconductors in One Material

E_{2g} **Phonon**

σ States

(Choi et al. Nature 418, 758 (2002))

 el-ph Coupling

 $\lambda_{\sigma\sigma}$ =1.017
 $\lambda_{\sigma\pi}$ =0.213

 $\lambda_{\pi\sigma}$ =0.155
 $\lambda_{\pi\pi}$ =0.448

 (Golubov et al. J. Phys.:

 Condens. Matter 14, 1353

 (2002).)

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Two Superconducting Gaps

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Cohesive Energy of the Chemical Bond

Bonding	Example	Cohesive E (eV/at.)	properties
Covalent	C,Si,Ge	4-8	Hard, low conduction
Ionic	NaCl, MgO	~5	Low conductivity
Metallic	Na, Fe, La	1-9	High conductivity
Van der Waals	He, Ar, Cl ₂	0.02-0.3	Insulators
Hydrogen	H ₂ O, HF	0.1	Low conductivity

• <u>Cohesive energy of the solid</u>: ΔH_c – to overcome the bonding and separate constituent atoms at T=0 (standard enthalpy of formation at 0K) = sum of the bond energies

 $\Delta H_{C}[Si(s)] = 2N_{A}E(Si-Si)$ (4NN's (bonds), two Si per bond)

