

Quantum Transport:

Atom to Transistor

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Lecture 17: Band structure: Beyond 1-D
Ref. Chapter 5.2



Network for Computational Nanotechnology



Bandstructure

00:00

- In determining bandstructure, we take advantage of the natural periodicity of a solid. This allows us to derive the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions analytically.

- Repeated unit cell



results in a periodic Hamiltonian

$$\begin{bmatrix} H_{11} & H_{12} \\ H_{21} & H_{22} \\ & & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

- Recall that all H_{nm} in $\begin{bmatrix} H_{11} & H_{12} \\ H_{21} & H_{22} \\ & & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$

are sub-matrices. The size of H_{nm} is directly dependent on the number of basis functions within a unit cell. Given b basis functions H_{nm} is of size $b \times b$.

- As well, all basis functions

$$\Psi_{n_i} \quad \begin{matrix} n = (1, \dots, N) \\ i = 1 \dots b \end{matrix} \text{ are grouped into } \{\mathbf{f}_n\} = \begin{Bmatrix} \Psi_{n_1} \\ \Psi_{n_2} \\ \vdots \\ \Psi_{n_b} \end{Bmatrix}$$

Multiple Basis Functions

03:30

- Finally, the Schrödinger Equation has the form

$$E \begin{Bmatrix} \mathbf{f}_1 \\ \mathbf{f}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{f}_N \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} H_{11} & H_{12} & & \\ H_{21} & H_{22} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \mathbf{f}_1 \\ \mathbf{f}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{f}_N \end{Bmatrix}$$

and $E \mathbf{f}_n = \sum_m H_{nm} \mathbf{f}_m$

As shown earlier, these equations may be solved via the ansatz

$$\{\mathbf{f}_n\} = \{\mathbf{f}_0\} e^{ikna}$$

- Such that,

$$E\{\mathbf{f}_0\} e^{ikna} = \sum_m [H_{nm}] e^{ikma} \{\mathbf{f}_0\}$$

or

$$E\{\mathbf{f}_0\} = \sum_m [H_{nm}] e^{ik(ma-na)} \{\mathbf{f}_0\}$$

- Let us define the matrix

$$[h(k)] = \sum_m [H_{nm}] e^{ik(m-n)a}$$

where the eigenvalue problem is now defined by

$$E\{\mathbf{f}_0\} = [h(k)] \{\mathbf{f}_0\}$$

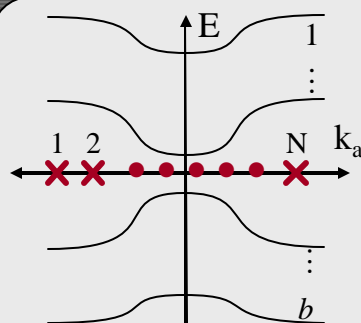
(Remember: $\{\mathbf{f}_0\}$ is a column vector and $[h(k)]$ is a matrix of size $b \times b$ where b is the number of basis functions per unit cell)

Beyond 1-Dimension

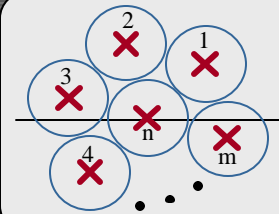
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- Therefore N lattice points, N unit cells, and “b” basis functions will result in $b \cdot N$ eigenvalues

$b \cdot N$ eigenvalues

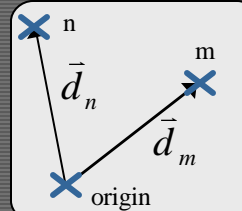


- It is relatively straight forward to go from 1-dimension to further dimensions. In the equation: $[h(k)] = \sum [H_{nm}] e^{ik(m-n)a}$ from the n^{th} unit cell we sum over all “neighboring m cells



- Remember that ma and mb indicated position in 1D case. What happens in general?

- To generalize, pick an origin and define the position of n and m by \vec{d}_n and \vec{d}_m



Generalizing to Higher Dimensions

12:00

- Now, given \vec{d}_n and \vec{d}_m we claim that the ansatz

$$\{f_n\} = \{f_0\} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{d}_n}$$

Satisfies the Schrödinger equation.
After substituting the above instead of eigenfunction, Sch. Eq. becomes:

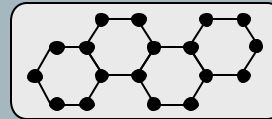
$$E \{f_0\} = [h(\vec{k})] \{f_0\}$$

where
$$[h(\vec{k})] = \sum_m [H_{nm}] e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{d}_m - \vec{d}_n)}$$

which applicable to any number of dimensions!

(Don't forget: the **periodic** nature of a lattice makes this all possible. Visually, one can stand at any n^{th} unit cell, sum over all m neighbors including itself, and the result will be the same)

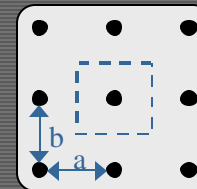
- We'll use this general procedure for Graphite:



Graphite is made up of carbon atoms bonded in a hexagonal 2D plane.

- But first, let's gain familiarity with two dimensions, and consider a simple rectangular lattice

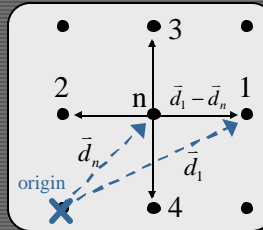
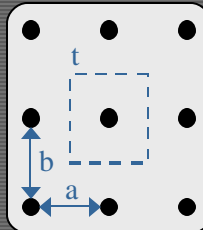
Rectangular Lattice



Rectangular Lattice

19:00

- Assume **one** basis orbital per unit cell. So $[h(\vec{k})]$ and $[H_{nm}]$ become 1×1 .



Want to evaluate: $h(\vec{k}) = \sum_m H_{nm} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{d}_m - \vec{d}_n)}$

Evaluating H_{nn} results in E_0 (self-energy) and evaluating H_{nm} results in a value that we call t . So we have 5 terms in our summation:

$$h(\vec{k}) = E_0 + \sum_{m=1}^4 t e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{d}_m - \vec{d}_n)}$$

- Take $\vec{k} = k_x \hat{x} + k_y \hat{y}$ and set the origin as shown...

- Exponents of "e" for the four terms become:

$$\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{d}_1 - \vec{d}_n) = \vec{k} \cdot \hat{x} a = k_x a$$

$$\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{d}_2 - \vec{d}_n) = \vec{k} \cdot (-\hat{x}) a = -k_x a$$

$$\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{d}_3 - \vec{d}_n) = \vec{k} \cdot \hat{y} b = k_y b$$

$$\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{d}_4 - \vec{d}_n) = \vec{k} \cdot (-\hat{y}) b = -k_y b$$

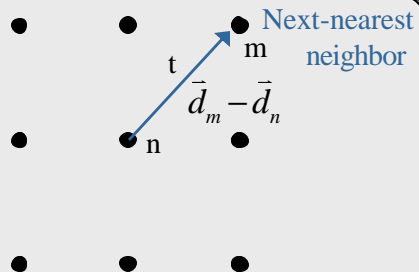
- Thus, after adding all of them we get:

$$h(\vec{k}) = E_0 + 2t (\cos k_x a + \cos k_y b)$$

Graphite

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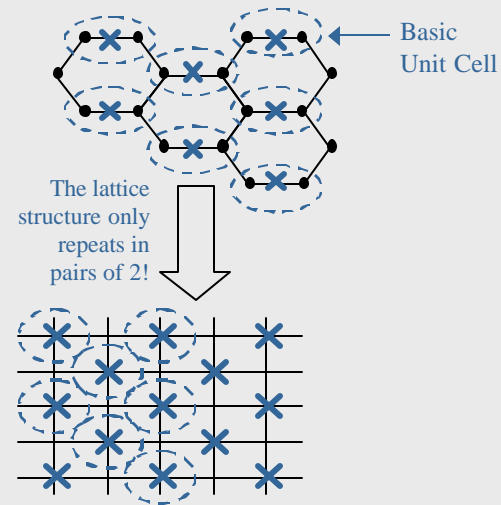
- In any lattice we can look beyond nearest neighbor interactions to next-nearest neighbor interactions. For example, in the rectangular lattice...



... here

$$\vec{k}(\vec{d}_m - \vec{d}_n) = (k_x \hat{x} + k_y \hat{y}) \cdot (a\hat{x} + b\hat{y})$$

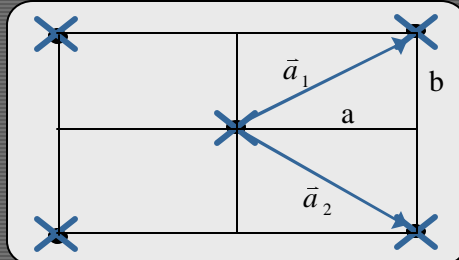
- Now let's move onto Graphite. First identify the basic unit cell



Graphite continued

28:11

- Next define two basis vectors, \vec{a}_1 and \vec{a}_2 such that the position of any cell in the lattice can be written as $\vec{R} = m\vec{a}_1 + n\vec{a}_2$ where m and n are integers

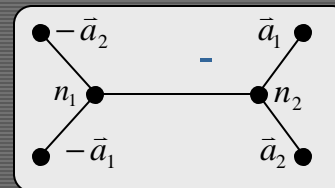


- In order to calculate $[h(\vec{k})]$ assume 1 basis function per carbon atom. This gives two basis functions per unit cell, $[h(\vec{k})]$ will be a 2x2 matrix

- Let t denote the overlap between 2 adjacent (nearest neighbor) carbon atoms. Denote n_1 and n_2 the atoms of the unit cell under consideration. Thus, H_m is

$$\begin{matrix} n_1 & n_2 \\ n_1 \begin{bmatrix} E_0 & t \\ t & E_0 \end{bmatrix} \\ n_2 \end{matrix}$$

- Overlap outside the unit cell will involve 4 nearest atoms. i.e...



Graphite continued

37:20

- Therefore, a total of 4 more matrices must be added (with phase factor!), they are:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ t & 0 \end{bmatrix} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{a}_1} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & t \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (-\vec{a}_2)} +$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & t \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (-\vec{a}_1)} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ t & 0 \end{bmatrix} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{a}_2}$$

- The final matrix looks like:

$$[h(\vec{k})] = \begin{bmatrix} E_0 & t(e^{-i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{a}_1} + e^{-i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{a}_2} + 1) \\ t(e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{a}_1} + e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{a}_2} + 1) & E_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- If we let $\vec{a} = a\hat{x} + b\hat{y}$ and $\vec{a}_2 = a\hat{x} - b\hat{y}$ then $[h(\vec{k})]$ simplifies to:

$$\begin{bmatrix} E_0 & h_0^* \\ h_0 & E_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$h_0 = t \left(1 + e^{i(k_x a + k_y b)} + e^{i(k_x a - k_y b)} \right)$$

- To find the eigenvalues of $[h(\vec{k})]$ first recall the identity: given a matrix in the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b^* \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$$

then its eigenvalues are $a + |b|$ and $a - |b|$

Graphite Band Structure

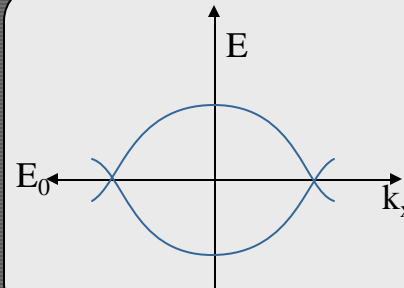
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- Thus the eigenvalues of $|h(\vec{k})|$ are $E_0 + |h_0|$ and $E_0 - |h_0|$
- What is $|h_0|$? Well, $h_0 = t(1 + 2e^{ik_x a} \cos k_y b)$
 $\therefore h_0 h_0^* = t^2(1 + 4 \cos k_x a \cos k_y b + 4 \cos^2 k_y b)$
 $= |h_0|^2$
 so,
 $|h_0| = t \sqrt{1 + 4 \cos k_x a \cos k_y b + 4 \cos^2 k_y b}$

- More formally we say,

$$E(\vec{k}) = E_0 \pm |h_0|$$

- Note, a plot of graphite energy reveals the exact symmetry of the two eigenvalues



- Next lecture: Semiconductor Band Structure